



MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

May 1969

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
Bureau of Labor Statistics

In this issue:
The ILO at 50





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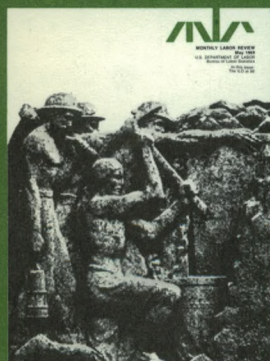
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The Monthly Labor Review is for sale by the regional offices of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and by the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 20402. Subscription price per year — \$9 domestic; \$11.25 foreign. Single copy 75 cents. Correspondence regarding subscriptions should be addressed to the Superintendent of Documents.

Communications on editorial matters should be addressed to the Editor-in-Chief, Monthly Labor Review, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, D. C. 20212. Phone: (202) 961-2327.

Use of funds for printing this publication approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget (October 31, 1967)

May cover design, by the U.S. Labor Department's Arts and Graphics Division, is based on sculptor Paul Landowski's Albert Thomas Memorial, Geneva, Switzerland. Thomas was the first director-general of the International Labor Organization.



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THE ILO AT 50

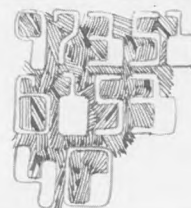
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Labor Month in Review



Discrimination. Efforts to win equal employment opportunity for Negroes in the U.S. textile industry received nationwide attention as the result of Government contracts awarded to three of the industry's biggest firms. The companies, Dan River Mills, Burlington Industries, and J. P. Stevens, were low bidders on a multimillion dollar order to supply cloth for military uniforms. But the firms had failed to submit the required written commitments regarding equal employment opportunity. Deputy Defense Secretary David Packard met personally with the chief executives of the companies. After receiving oral assurances that the firms would eliminate job discrimination, Packard approved the contract awards.

Secretary of Labor George Shultz pointed out that the emphasis of Government policy is on changing employment conditions, not debarring contractors, but he noted that the Labor Department has authority to cancel contracts "and we will use those sanctions if an employer takes a defiant position."

The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People charged in court that Packard violated the law by awarding the contracts on the basis of verbal assurances. Although two of the firms subsequently signed written commitments, the association asked the court to declare the contracts illegal and grant a permanent injunction against future contracts until the three firms "entirely eliminate racial discrimination."

The U.S. Department of Justice also went to court to end racial discrimination in the textile industry. In its first suit against a major textile producer, the Department charged Cannon Mills with discriminating against Negroes in hiring, job assignment, promotion, and housing. The suit charged that Cannon Mills, which operates 16 plants in North and South Carolina, reserves certain departments and classifications for white per-

sons and places Negro employees in "menial and low-paying jobs" while white employees who are no more skilled or qualified have better opportunities for advancement.

Meanwhile, the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission turned from textiles to entertainment. The Commission reported "clear evidence" of a pattern of racial discrimination in the West Coast motion picture and TV film industry and its craft unions. The Commission asked the Justice Department to eliminate such discrimination through court action.

Recrimination. The bitter dispute between the AFL-CIO and the United Auto Workers turned into recrimination with publication by the AFL-CIO of a 99-page account of the events leading up to UAW disaffiliation. The AFL-CIO document, endorsed unanimously by the Federation's Executive Council, attacks UAW President Walter Reuther's record in organizing, civil rights, and international affairs—the very areas in which Reuther has criticized the AFL-CIO leadership.

As the AFL-CIO sees it, the UAW withdrew from the Federation because of Reuther's "apparent unwillingness to live in constructive harmony within an organization in which the rights, the interests and the views of other unions and other personalities are given equal consideration with those of the UAW and its president."

The UAW denounced the AFL-CIO document as a "self-serving, restricted look at the record" and promised "an appropriate response at a later date."

Prices. The Consumer Price Index rose sharply in March to 125.6 percent of the 1957-59 average. The 0.8-percent rise over February was the largest in 18 years.

Unions bargain for dental, psychiatric,
prescription, and optical services;
and promote group practice plans
for quality and cost control

DONALD M. LANDAY

Trends in negotiated health plans; broader coverage, higher quality care

NEARLY ALL AMERICANS have some form of health insurance protection. Most all older persons are covered by Medicare. About 9 out of 10 of those under 65 are covered by private health insurance, chiefly group insurance plans.¹

Negotiated plans have been in the vanguard of group health insurance for almost two decades. By 1969, they accounted for almost half of the employees covered by health benefit plans in private industry. The unions not only have given health benefits a high priority, but because they control such large financial resources, they are able to influence commercial insurance companies, Blue Cross and Blue Shield, and independent plans to modify services and provide new ones. Occasionally, unions have created new plans, for the entire community as well as for union members and their families exclusively.

Despite ever-increasing expenditures by employers and employees for health benefits, the unions have continued to find the plans inadequate. More money has helped reduce their members' out-of-pocket expense, but has rarely improved the quality of health care. That is, more money has not necessarily given them the right services at the right time.

The unusually sharp increase in the cost of medical care in the past few years (medical care services component of the Consumer Price Index rose at an annual rate of 7.8 percent between 1965 and 1968 as compared with 3.1 percent in the previous 5 years) has slowed to some extent the unions' success in winning significant benefit increases.² Big increases in the price of health services require that a large part of each wage settlement be used to maintain the level of health services agreed upon at the previous negotiation.³

Although the unions have had to run faster just to stand still, there are strong forces pushing them toward demanding, and getting, still larger expenditures for health insurance as well as toward seeking ways of getting more and better service for the money spent. In fact, despite keen competition from other forms of compensation—especially from cash wages and pension plans—an increasing share of total compensation has been going into health insurance plans. In all probability, this trend will continue even if, as seems likely, the rate of increase in the cost of medical care declines.

Interviews with labor and management representatives and with health insurance experts support the view that negotiated plans are stressing two major lines of improvement: (1) Broadening the scope of benefits to cover more kinds of health care, and (2) increasing the efficiency of expenditures to get more service of higher quality for the money spent.

Broadening the scope of benefits

Union members want broader health care coverage chiefly to reduce their out-of-pocket expenses—especially for catastrophic accidents and illness. Most unions, therefore, are placing greater emphasis on increasing the scope of covered services than on raising the allowances for specific services. After obtaining reasonably good basic hospital-medical-surgical coverage, union leaders are inclined to expand coverage into new areas as they come to realize that each year the plan is covering a diminishing share of members' bills, owing partly to changes in the practice of medicine. Members' out-of-pocket expenses are rising for out-patient diagnostic services—X-rays, lab work, and expensive tests—consultations with specialists, physical therapy, radiation therapy, and many other services not covered by the basic plan. Moreover, the coverage of these services by Medicare

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puts pressure on unions to get coverage for members under age 65. And finally, union leaders hesitate raising allowances for basic benefits because they usually feel, particularly where the members of their plan are a significant part of the market for health care in their area, that bigger allowances usually stimulate bigger fees, so that out-of-pocket expenses are not reduced commensurately. Of course, where allowances are lagging considerably behind charges—particularly hospital charges—catching up may temporarily have higher priority.

In expanding coverage, e.g., to make it more comprehensive, unions generally prefer to add specified benefits (out-of-hospital drugs and mental health care) rather than a major medical benefit that partially reimburses workers for a wide range of "covered" charges. While the latter is usually quite comprehensive, specified benefits have several advantages: They clearly identify the additional coverages and put the added expenditures on the specific benefits members want; they generally provide "first dollar" coverage and often pay the entire charge; and they may provide benefits that are rarely available under a major medical contract.

Union leaders can more readily impress their constituents with the new benefits they have won at the bargaining table if they are clearly labeled "drugs," "nursing home care," "visiting nurse service." The "major medical" label may cover more and bigger benefits, but the broad language of the plan booklet (e.g., "allowable hospital, surgical and medical expenses") does not identify them in the members' minds. While the broad scope characteristic of major medical plans results in the payment of benefits the members probably never thought of but it nevertheless may leave out others, such as dental care.

Eliminating deductibles

First dollar coverage (the absence of deductibles) is almost always preferred by unions because deductibles often discourage the use of a desirable service, especially an optional or postponable one, such as dental care. Also, their members are used to it; a new benefit requiring the payment of a deductible would appear to most members to be a step backwards. The coinsurance provision in major medical plans is subject to the same criti-

cisms—very few members would want to pay part of the charges after becoming accustomed to having their bills paid in full.⁴ Finally, unions have traditionally opposed the omission of fee schedules because they have much experience and a few studies showing that major medical insurance encourages doctors to raise their fees.

More recently, however, some major unions, including the Steelworkers and Automobile Workers, have negotiated plans that pay the "customary and reasonable" fees of physicians in full regardless of the size of the employee's income. Apparently, the unions' objection to nonscheduled benefits may disappear when the cost of fee increases that usually occur fall solely on the employer. These developments in the Steelworkers and Automobile Workers plans together with the training of many insurers in the administration of nonscheduled benefits and the marketing of such benefits by the Blue Shield plans suggest that the reasonable fee approach may be adopted by many other negotiated plans. This is likely to be done by plans not going the major medical route.

However, a number of negotiated plans—including those in the basic steel industry—have added supplementary major medical expense benefits that provide reimbursement for part of the expenses, in excess of a deductible, not covered by the basic plan. For services excluded from the basic plan, the plan becomes, in effect, a comprehensive major medical expense benefit, especially where the deductible is modest. Under the basic steel industry plans, for example, since physician's services (other than surgery) are not covered by any basic benefits, reimbursement will be made solely under the supplementary plan that becomes effective on August 1, 1970. Then 80 percent of all covered charges, excluding those paid as basic benefits, in excess of \$50 a year for each covered person (\$100 a family) will be reimbursed. Except for the provision of basic hospital and surgical benefits—a big exception, in union eyes—this plan is closely akin to many comprehensive major medical plans.

The third reason for preferring specified benefits—their unavailability under major medical expense insurance—may disappear in time. Until recently, few insurance companies or Blue Cross or Blue Shield plans offered group policyholders major medical plans covering certain services, such as routine physical examinations, vision care, or

dental care. Moreover, the union may prefer to have some services provided by a particular insurer (e.g., a dental service corporation that supervises the quality of care), rather than the one providing major medical benefits.

Despite these inroads, union opposition continues to be a major factor impeding the extension of major medical benefit plans—especially “comprehensive” plans, in which all expenses, occasionally with one or two exceptions, are subject to a deductible and to coinsurance. Among nonnegotiated plans, however, major medical plans are increasing rapidly. In 1966, they covered about 1 out of 2 workers belonging to nonnegotiated plans. Annual reports on new group insurance policies suggest that the proportion with major medical coverage is continuing to increase rapidly.

Unions have, on the other hand, stimulated the extension of basic health benefits into several new areas rarely covered by the traditional hospital-surgical-medical plans. The more important benefits—dental care, out-of-hospital drugs, mental health care, and vision care—are briefly described below. Mention should also be made of preventive care, especially periodic (routine) physical examinations. Such care is generally limited to prepaid group practice plans, such as the Kaiser Foundation, the Health Insurance Plan of Greater New York, and the Group Health Associations in Seattle and Washington, D.C. It is rarely provided by insured plans, even “comprehensive” major medical plans.

DENTAL CARE. About one-tenth of consumers' health expenditures went for dental care in 1967. Although dental plans have been expanding rapidly in the last few years, so that by the end of 1968 they covered about 5.5 million persons, only a tiny fraction of dental expenses were covered by insurance. Several reasons account for their slow growth until very recently. First, only in the last few years have dental insurance or prepaid dental care plans been available from insurance companies or dental service corporations—the non-profit plans organized by the State dental societies along the lines of the Blue Shield plans. In fact, up until a few years ago most insurers felt dental expenses were not insurable. Now over 3 dozen insurers, 25 dental service corporations, and dozens of “in house” clinics run by union-management welfare funds are providing benefits. Secondly,

not until recently have benefits with higher priority been covered well enough for unions to turn their attention to dental care and other benefits that union leaders and their members regard as less important and, almost always, less urgent. Finally, only recently, when dental benefits were added to a number of large negotiated plans, was pressure put on union leaders in the same union, industries, or geographic area to obtain the same or better benefits for their members. In short, their time has come; rapid growth has begun.

The negotiation of dental plans in the last year or so by dozens of Teamster locals in New York State illustrates the influence of these three factors. Somewhat over a year ago, Group Health Dental Insurance (GHDI), a nonprofit insurer based in New York City, began selling aggressively a minimal type plan at a low premium. This met the needs of the locals' leaders, who were being pressured to negotiate a dental plan because several large New York City locals had negotiated GHDI plans and other plans in the early 1960's. This pressure intensified as neighboring locals secured such benefits and as the plans of Central and Western Conferences of Teamsters, which were inaugurated somewhat later, became better known to the rank and file. Now, most workers in New York State under Teamster contracts have dental coverage.

PRESCRIPTION DRUGS. Excluding drugs furnished hospital patients, the cost of prescription drugs accounted for one-sixth of consumers' expenditures for health care in 1967. Only hospital care and physicians' services accounted for a larger fraction. A very small proportion of these expenditures were reimbursed by insurers because most persons insured for drugs were under major medical plans and relatively few of them had enough covered expenses to offset the deductibles. The rest, with few exceptions, belonged to drug plans with small deductibles and/or coinsurance on each prescription. Negotiated plans paying the entire cost of out-of-hospital drugs except for a small deductible (usually about \$1 or \$2 a prescription) appear to be expanding rapidly. This development stems from two sources:

1. Pressure for such benefits from union members as they come to realize that drugs are the largest expense not covered by most plans and as they become aware of negotiated drug plans. The

nationwide drug plans negotiated by the Automobile Workers in 1967, which will become effective in October 1969, are likely to be most influential because they will operate in quite a large number of places all over the country. In California the pressure is particularly acute because many prominent plans, including those negotiated by the Retail Clerks and Teamsters, have provided this benefit for a much longer period.

2. The availability of insurers to market, underwrite and administrate such benefits. In response to the requests of major employers—particularly the automobile manufacturers who had agreed to furnish the drug benefits they had negotiated with the Automobile Workers union—most Blue Cross plans and several of the largest insurance companies have set up drug plans. In California, moreover, two insurers specializing in drug plans have been in operation for several years, and one has expanded to four western States, four eastern States, and the District of Columbia.

MENTAL HEALTH CARE. Although sometimes the amount or duration of benefits is reduced, mental health care is generally provided for hospitalized patients. For patients who are not hospitalized, it is generally provided only under major medical policies, which usually restrict the range of services, the number of office visits, the amount per visit, and the total benefits payable annually. In addition, the coinsurance clause usually limits reimbursement to a smaller fraction of charges than for other benefits.

The negotiation in 1964 and 1965 of a program of mental health care for 2.75 million workers and their dependents by the Automobile Workers and major employers in the automobile and the farm and construction machinery industries introduced a new approach to the problem. Melvin A. Glasser, the director of the union's social security department, has summarized the chief benefits as follows:

To encourage early referral and to minimize the economic barrier to care there are no charges for the first five visits in outpatient therapy, and the patient pays 15 percent for the second five visits in a doctor's office, 30 percent for the third five visits, and 45 percent for the balance of visits, all within the \$400 ceiling per year. Hospital inpatient, as well as outpatient and day-care programs are offered without charge to the patient; he pays 15 percent of the costs of one series of psychological tests.

This was, of course, not the first program to provide first dollar coverage for outpatient treatment of psychiatric disabilities, but it was the first to provide comprehensive service and to cover such a large number of persons over such a wide area (34 states and the District of Columbia). Previous first-dollar programs, such as those of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers and of local 770 of the Retail Clerks, used one or two union-sponsored clinics that provided a limited range of services to members in one metropolitan area (New York or Los Angeles).

The growth of mental health programs depends on the interest of the union leadership, on the importance they attach to the programs, and the effort they make to educate their members. Rank and file union members are not clamoring for it because they have not been sold on it; they usually feel no need for it themselves and would rather not pay for a benefit the "other guy" may use. In fact, officers of plans with mental health benefits for many years are disappointed by how few members use them. Union leaders who recognize the importance of mental health care may not feel that it should receive special treatment; they may, like the steelworkers, try to cover it, along with other slighted areas, through a major medical plan. Because it also makes available a wide range of other benefits that more members feel they may use, this approach requires less of a sales effort than mental health programs; it is, therefore, likely to expand at a more rapid pace.

VISION CARE. The term includes everything from an examination by an optometrist and, perhaps, the frames and lenses he prescribes to complete eye-care service, including ophthalmology and contact lenses; plans are growing chiefly in California and New York City. Usually the plan provides only for a free examination by an optometrist and free frames and lenses; all other services the patient pays for (often at a reduced rate) or occasionally gets as part of his medical-surgical-hospital benefits (e.g., surgery to remove a cataract). Since this limited service is "cheap," many union leaders have negotiated such plans so as to have another "service" to point out to its members.

Organized labor has become increasingly disenchanted with the traditional solo practice, fee-for-service system that the commercial insurers

and the "Blues" help finance and thus help perpetuate. In the last few years, it has sought ways of providing better organized health care to yield better and more comprehensive care and at lower costs, or at least to slow the rate of increase. To do this, it is using other health care delivery systems—chiefly, prepaid group practice plans. It is also using some novel controls on the services provided and costs incurred by the insured plans in which it participates.

Alternative health benefits

PREPAID GROUP PRACTICE PLANS. These plans, which serve over 4 million people, provide comprehensive health care for subscribers through their own clinics operated by their own professional staff (doctors, nurses, laboratory technicians, etc.). The staff is on salary or, in the case of doctors, may get an annual fee for each person for whose health care they are responsible. The larger plans usually run their own hospitals to reduce costs and improve the quality of care. However, some plans, including the second largest in existence, use voluntary hospitals in the community. High quality care is encouraged by the employment of doctors with good qualifications, by easy access of physicians and patients to surgeons and other specialists, and by professional (peer) review and supervision. Moreover, this care is significantly less costly than fee-for-service care. As a result, in early 1967, then Secretary of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, John Gardner, responded to the report of his staff on the rapid rise in the price of health care by calling for, among other things, "encouragement of the group practice of medicine." The Public Health Service has since held a conference to promote the group practice of medicine and has granted funds to help get new groups started. For example, in 1968, the Public Health Service made a 5-year grant of \$165,000 a year to the Group Health Association of America for that purpose.

The leadership of several large national unions also appears to be convinced that prepaid group practice is a more efficient way to deliver health care. Therefore, to give their members the opportunity of using these plans, the Automobile Workers, Steelworkers, Meat Cutters, Oil Workers, and Machinists have negotiated "dual choice" arrangements. Under their contracts, individual em-

ployees may "opt out" of the insured or "Blue" plan to which they belong and join a group practice plan in their area. Their employer then remits to that plan the same amount he would have paid the insurer or Blue plan. Since the group practice plans are more comprehensive, their premiums are usually higher and the employee must make up the difference. But in the long run he usually saves by having fewer out-of-pocket expenses.

In addition to these dual choice arrangements that have stemmed chiefly from nationwide or regional insured plans are those that came from local contracts to use prepaid group practice plans. In these cases, labor and management have agreed to provide service through a group practice plan and an insured plan is made available to members electing to opt out. Such dual choice helps employees with a strong attachment to their family doctor and others preferring the fee-for-service system. It is usually permitted and it is required by some group practice plans, such as the Kaiser Foundation.

There has been some friction between the prepaid group practice plans and the unions, but the unions are generally pleased, as shown by their continued use of such plans and their sponsorship of new ones, such as the Community Health Foundation in Cleveland. A further demonstration of confidence was the recent gift of \$5,000 a year by the AFL-CIO to the Group Health Association to assist it in organizing new plans. Growth in the use of these plans would, therefore, seem to be limited chiefly by their ability to induct new members. Although several new plans are being organized, notably by such prestigious medical schools as Harvard, Yale, and Johns Hopkins, most of the growth in membership over the next few years is likely to come from the existing plans. They have been adding about 300,000 or 400,000 subscribers a year in recent years, and their expansion plans—particularly those of the Kaiser Foundation—suggest that they may exceed that pace in the next few years. The recently announced support of these plans by the health insurance industry should help many plans meet their ambitious goals, especially if the industry places its tremendous marketing and financial resources behind them.

UNION-SPONSORED PLANS. Unions have sponsored prepaid group practice plans for their members

and their dependents, chiefly in areas where plans servicing the community were not available. In a few instances, notably in Detroit and Cleveland, the sponsors have made the plan available to the community as a whole, but usually they have limited it to members of their own plan and, occasionally, to those of other cooperating unions. Since plans in the first group (community plans) have been discussed, only the 50 plans in the second group that serve about 1 million persons will be discussed here.

Because of the tremendous expense and effort required to organize a plan and the AFL-CIO policy of supporting community plans rather than plans limited to union families, it does not appear likely that many new plans will be started. However, there does appear to be room for considerable expansion of services by the existing plans. Since only half the plans, with about half the enrollment, cover dependents, there is room for growth in that direction. Moreover, since many plans, particularly those operated by union-employer welfare funds,

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provide physician care only at a health center, it is not unlikely that many will expand their services to include hospital and home care. They will probably do this not so much to save money as to provide better quality service by following the patient through all phases of his treatment.

Cost and quality controls

In addition to the techniques commonly used by commercial insurers and the Blues, the unions have used two approaches to control the cost and quality of the health services: the broad, general approach and the case-by-case approach.

The broad approach has followed two paths: the encouragement of doctors to form medical foundations to police the cost and quality of health care rendered by their members and bargaining collectively with medical societies. Thus far, the foundation approach has been most successful in California, where 20 county medical societies have formed such foundations, following the model of the San Joaquin Foundation for Medical Care.

This plan differs from Blue Shield plans and other medical service corporations because of the sanction it holds. Claims are reviewed by a committee of doctors working individually; difficult or contested claims are reviewed by the whole committee. Each year the doctors must reapply for admission to the plan, and if the reviewing committee is dissatisfied with a participating doctor, he can be denied readmission. Such a large part—often well over half—of private expenditures for physician's services in a county is controlled by the foundation that the threat of invoking this penalty is usually effective in securing the cooperation of the participating doctors.

Since most trade unionists would probably agree with Goldie Kranz, former secretary of the ILWU-PMA fund, that "the Foundation program is a step forward within the variegated 'trial and error' method of our voluntary system of prepaid medical care," the failure of the Foundation program to spread in recent years must be due to other factors, Raymond Munts suggests in his *Bargaining for Health*: "Claims review by doctors can be effective only in medical societies small enough so that personal, face-to-face relationships exist among the doctors; 'the incentive [for the doctors to join the Foundation] exists only where alterna-

tive closed-panel plans [e.g., group practice plans] are under active consideration."

The other broad approach—bargain collectively with the doctor's organization—was attempted recently in California by the Committee for Health Care Alternatives. This approach appeals to many trade unionists because it parallels their approach to management. However, in the absence of competition, the medical societies have little incentive to reach agreement on fees or quality. Moreover, if such an agreement were reached, it would be of dubious value, because they cannot bind their members to abide by it. Thus far, about all they have handled successfully are cases of flagrant misconduct and overcharging.

The second approach is through a case-by-case surveillance of quality and cost. This may range from better-than-routine claims administration to requiring the authorization, after professional review by independent doctors, of all but emergency services before they are rendered. Good claims administration can curtail the unnecessary prolongation of claims for hospitalization and for accident and sickness benefits. It can also hold down doctor claims under plans that, like Medicare, pay, in whole or in part, customary and reasonable charges. However, since the patient usually winds up paying that part of the fee deemed to be excessive, tight claims administration may not do plan members much good.

Much better results can be expected from prior authorization of the physician's or dentist's services and fees in each case. Under such a program the diagnosis and proposed treatment are sent with supporting materials (X-rays, lab tests, reports, pathological reports, models, etc.) to the central office of the plan where they are reviewed by appropriate professional personnel. Where a specialist's services are appropriate, the specialist must show that he is qualified to do the work. Some plans also require that he show that the facility where he plans to do the work is suitable.

The United Mine Workers Welfare Fund used this approach after 1955, when consultations with UMW-approved specialists were required before hospitalization. But it was soon dropped under pressure from the State and national medical associations. More recently the plans affiliated with Teamsters Joint Council in New York City are requiring a confirming diagnosis and approval of

proposed procedure, physician, and hospital by a clinic operated for them by Montefiore Hospital.

But it has its limitations. First, there is likely to be some resistance by plan members who regard it as troublesome or demanding. "All that red tape may be appropriate for welfare clients where public funds are at stake, but I do not need it. I can take care of myself," is a typical attitude.

Second, it may encounter strong opposition from organized medicine as well as from individual physicians. As previously noted, the doctors' resistance to the Mine Worker's Funds requirement that an approved specialist must authorize all hospital admission was so strong that it had to be dropped after a short while. But, as Muntz points out, "quality and costs surveillance can be made to stick if the union and fund can stand the heat."

Because of the tremendous organizational effort and costs, the surveillance of individual cases does not appear to be a route that many negotiated plans will follow. Nor will many plans try to recruit the highly professional staff needed to limit claim payments to doctors and hospitals meeting their standards. Dental plans, on the other hand, will find this route to be a practical one, particularly if they use professional review panels chosen by the participating dentists—as in the Dental Society plans.

Outlook for benefits

Most of the major negotiated benefits plans now have achieved a reasonably adequate level of basic health insurance. Their goals now are to broaden the scope of these plans to include more specified benefits, to improve the quality, and to control the costs of the services offered. Benefits such as dental care, prescription drugs, vision care, and mental health care will be added to many plans. However, dental care, the most rapidly growing additional benefit, will usually be provided as a separate benefit chiefly because a good dental program encourages preventive care and controls the cost and quality of restorative care better than a major medical plan.

As an alternative to including specified benefits, many more plan administrators will add supplementary major medical benefits with small deductibles. Traditionally, unions have been opposed to this type of coverage, but most labor leaders

prefer it to the basic benefits plan because the supplementary benefits plan generally provides the widest range of additional benefits.

Of the various types of health care plans available, prepaid group practice plans are probably best for achieving high quality and efficient cost control. Despite this fact, expansion of existing plans and development of new ones has been slow; even if the membership doubled in the next few years, only 1 out of 8 members of negotiated plans would belong to them. Union membership, in many instances, is so widely dispersed among geographic areas that only a minority of the group would be within reach of a group practice plan establishment.

Widespread geographic locations of members affect other approaches to improving negotiated health benefit plans. Medical foundations, for example, are limited to certain California counties, and services and surveillance through the plan's own clinic are practical only when the membership is within easy reach of that clinic. Finally, collective bargaining with organized medicine is bound to be futile unless some desirable alternative, such as a group practice plan, is near at hand. □

FOOTNOTES

¹ The terms "group health insurance plans" and "health benefit plans" are used here to include all group insurance plans providing personal health care including Blue Cross and Blue Shield Plans, medical and dental society plans, group practice prepayment plans, and other independent plans. It excludes coverage purchased on an individual basis.

² The terms "benefit increases," "higher benefits," and "increased benefits" are used to denote an increase in the quantity, scope, or quality of health service provided by the plan. Thus, increases in dollar allowances to keep up with rising prices are not regarded as benefit increases even though they may reduce the out-of-pocket expense of plan members.

³ Where benefits are expressed in terms of services provided (use of a semiprivate hospital room for 365 days), unions rarely give employers credit for cost increases when computing the value of the settlement "package." However, employers usually do consider such increases in determining how much they have "given" the union.

⁴ Even when a basic benefit plan does not cover the entire charge, often because the fee schedule is obsolete, payment by the member may not be required in every case. In any event, member payments, if any, are implicit in basic benefit plans rather than explicitly stated, as in major medical plans.

Pension benefits
continue to rise rapidly
and become payable sooner;
vesting more prevalent and earlier

HARRY E. DAVIS

Negotiated retirement plans—a decade of benefit improvements

RETIREMENT BENEFITS under major negotiated pension plans increased rapidly during the past 4 years. The median benefit payable upon normal retirement after 30 years of service increased only 5 percent between 1957 and 1961, but rose sharply in the two subsequent 4-year periods—by about 25 and 40 percent—so that retirement income, including private pension and social security benefits payable under current formulas, will approach pre-retirement earnings after taxes for long-service workers.¹

These are conclusions based on findings of the latest analysis by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of 100 pension plans negotiated in the private sector. The analysis is a quadrennial comparison of changes in provisions of these plans, in the present case a comparison between the 1961–64 and 1964–68 periods.²

Most of the plans studied covered large numbers of workers—ranging from 1,000 to 425,000—employed in various manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries. The plans illustrate many different approaches to pension planning. While they were not selected as typical or as a sample of all the plans under collective bargaining, their revisions probably do roughly reflect the trend of collective bargaining during the past decade.

Formula revisions

The sharp rise in pension benefits in recent years resulted largely from revisions of the formulas used for benefit determination, especially from modifications to allow for differences in pay received during working years and for the length of service. (See table 1.) Plans that provided a uniform benefit to all persons meeting minimum service conditions now pay proportionately higher benefits to long-service retirees; others have re-

moved the limit on the number of years of credited service.

Emphasis upon the difference in earnings in determining benefits was, perhaps, the most common type of formula modification during the past 4 years. Thus, starting with 1969, the plans negotiated by the United Auto Workers began to pay larger benefits to workers earning \$3.52 an hour or more. In another group of plans—most of those negotiated by the Steelworkers—revised formulas will allow all employees, regardless of the length of service, larger than minimum benefits after July 1969 if their average earnings in the last 10 years of service had exceeded \$650 a month. Formerly, only workers with long service or much higher earnings received more than the minimum pension. (See chart.)

Nearly all the plans with formulas based entirely on the length of service have raised their benefits during the last 4-year period, some of them by substantial amounts. The increases ranged from 31 cents to \$16 for each year of service, but most frequently they were 50 cents, \$1, and \$2.25. The largest monthly increase was negotiated by Plumbers Local 38 in the San Francisco area, whose members will be able to retire in mid-1971 on benefits of \$20 a month for each year of service.

Of the plans that based benefits on both earnings and service, almost 60 percent have also revised their formulas. In steel and other primary and fabricated metal industries, such plans have raised benefits by reducing the amount of the “social security offset” from \$80 to \$60 a month. Subsequently, the basic formula of many of these plans was further liberalized by entirely eliminating the social security offset. However, more employees, especially in the fabricating plants, will benefit from another recent amendment—the rise in the minimum benefit from \$5 to \$6.50 a month for each year of service. The plans of the American Telephone and Telegraph Co. raised pensions by discontinuing the reduction of their benefits by one-third of primary social security benefits. These

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plans also lowered—from 40 to 20 years—the service requirement the employee must satisfy to qualify for the \$125 minimum monthly benefit.

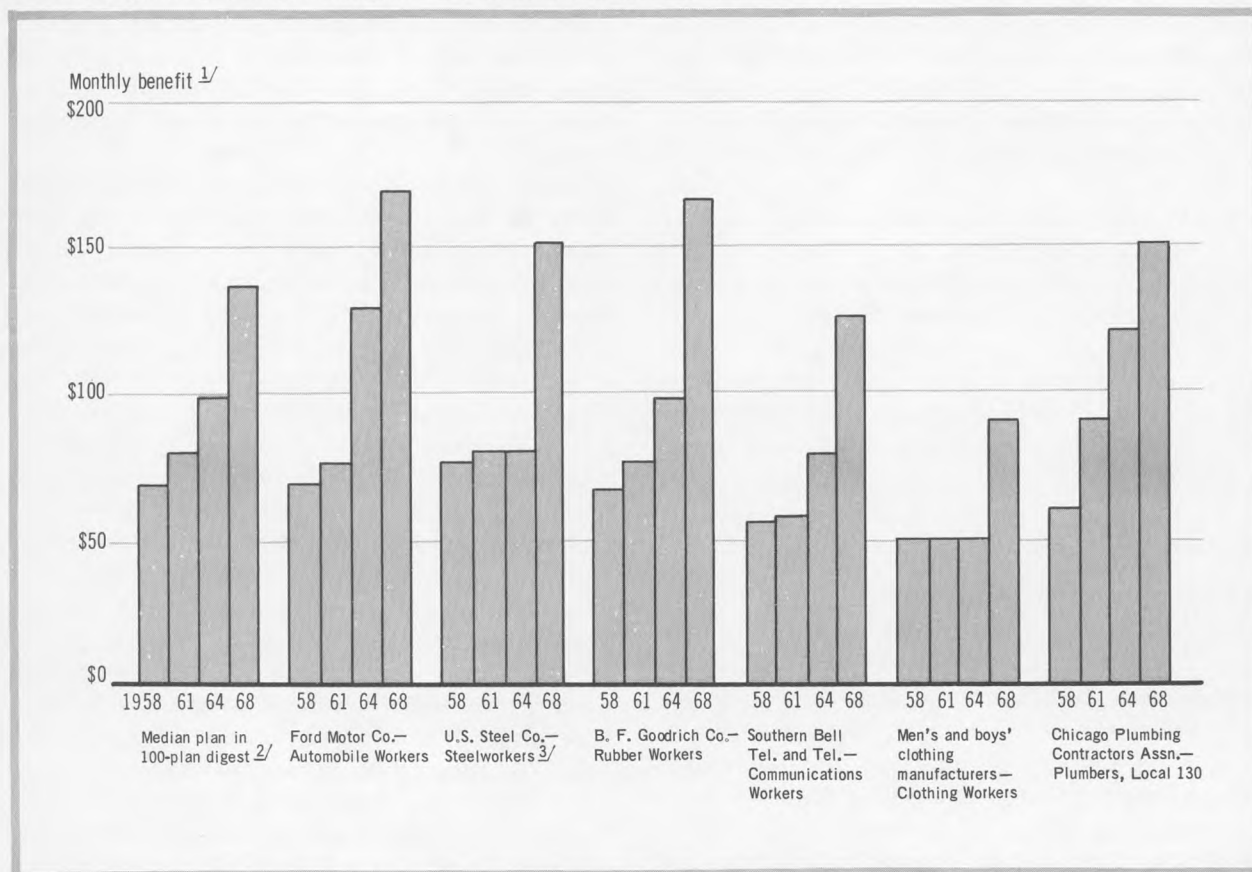
Modification of benefit formulas took many other forms. For instance, the Upholsterers achieved one of the period's largest increases in benefits by raising the proportion of earnings for each year of service from 0.45 to 0.75 percent.

The plan negotiated by the New York Times with the Newspaper Guild appears to have cut benefits by reducing the proportion from 1.0 to 0.85 percent of earnings for each year of service. However, by changing the definition of earnings, an increase was actually effected in almost all cases. This was done by substituting the employee's average earnings for the 10 years preceding retirement for average earnings of his entire career. Since an employee's earnings increase significantly over his working life due to promotions and general wage

increases, usually the net result of these changes was to increase pension benefits. Only short-service employees (e.g., those with 10 years of service or less) may expect smaller pensions.

One plan, the National Lock Co.-United Auto Workers, abandoned an earnings and service formula, under which pensions were adjusted annually to reflect changes in the Consumer Price Index, and adopted a method that eliminated the price index and based the benefit entirely on the length of service. In exchange for the automatic adjustment feature, all but the highest paid workers immediately obtained larger pensions. The longrun effect on the employer's cost depends, of course, on how fast the union is able to negotiate plan improvements, as compared with the rate of increase in the CPI. In any event, the amendment reduces the cost impact of a precipitous rise in the cost of living.

Pensions payable by six negotiated plans under formulas in effect in 1958–68



¹ Normal retirement benefits payable to workers with average annual earnings of \$4,800 after 30 years of service subsequent to the latest revision of the benefit formula.

² Excludes four plans not summarized in all digests.

³ Benefit subsequently raised to \$195 a month, effective August 1, 1969.

Benefit levels

Real benefits increased sharply because cash benefits rose much more rapidly than the 10-percent increase in the Consumer Price Index over the 4-year period. Among the 100 plans studied, the median plan's benefit payable to hypothetical retirees with 30 years of future service, with annual average earnings of \$4,200, \$4,800, and \$5,400, increased by 36, 38, and 53 percent, respectively. These benefit amounts were calculated by using the plan's definition of earnings. Therefore, for the plans which compute benefits by using only the last 5 or 10 years of earnings prior to retirement, the earnings were assumed to be at the specified level during this period.

The following tabulation also shows that as a result of these increases and improved social security benefits, total retirement income of pensioners with 30 years of future service will be not much less than preretirement earnings after taxes. It will be around three-fourths of preretirement earnings, before taxes, for single persons and about nine-tenths for married men with wives drawing the maximum benefit to which their husband's earnings would entitle them.

		Average monthly earnings		
		\$350	\$400	\$450
Total retirement benefits.....	1964	\$212.25	\$224.50	\$224.50
	1968	271.65	288.60	314.25
Median private plan.....	1964	96.25	97.50	97.50
	1968	131.25	135.00	149.25
Primary social security.....	1964	116.00	127.00	127.00
	1968	140.40	153.60	165.00

Comparison of normal retirement benefits for workers retiring after 30 years of future service, with annual average earnings of \$4,200, is shown in table 2. The comparison reveals that 70 of the 100 programs studied raised their benefits since 1964, the increases ranging from 10 percent (2 plans) to 140 percent (3 plans). The median increase was about 50 percent. Of the 22 plans that did not change benefits, 11 modified another aspect of their program. These included changes in the early retirement, disability retirement, involuntary retirement, and vesting provisions, as well as death benefits before and after retirement. Five plans provided lower benefits under the assumed conditions in 1968 than in 1964. Three of these programs used social security offset formulas, which automatically reduced benefits payable from the

Table 1. Major changes in 97 negotiated pension plans, winter 1964 to early 1968

Benefit or provision	Total with benefit or provision in 1964	Un-changed between 1964 and 1968	Revised between 1964 and 1968		Added benefit or provision between 1964 and 1968	Total with benefit or provision in 1968
			Changed	Eliminated		
Benefit formulas:						
Normal retirement, basic.....	97	22	75	-----	-----	97
Normal retirement, minimum.....	36	14	17	5	1	32
Early retirement.....	80	59	20	1	1	80
Special early retirement.....	16	6	10	-----	3	19
Disability retirement.....	78	46	32	-----	2	80
Vested benefit.....	65	53	12	-----	9	74
Social security integration:						
Normal retirement, basic.....	11	3	6	2	-----	9
Normal retirement, minimum.....	9	5	1	3	-----	6
Involuntary retirement:						
Compulsory.....	55	50	5	-----	3	58
Automatic.....	22	20	1	1	1	22
Optional forms of payment.....	65	63	2	-----	2	67
Death benefits:						
Before retirement.....	29	26	3	-----	15	44
After retirement.....	35	28	7	-----	8	43

plan when social security benefits were increased by the 1965 amendments to the Social Security Act.

The changes in benefits were also computed by a refined method that allows for the change in the definition of earnings made by some plans. This was done by recomputing benefits on the arbitrary assumption that earnings rose at a rate of 3 percent a year throughout the entire 30-year period. Then, assuming career annual average earnings of \$4,200 for all plans, the median benefit rose from \$97.50 to \$147.30, or 51 percent, during the 4-year period. The larger increase in the median stems from the fact that benefits paid by plans using terminal earnings were greater under this assumption, especially in 1968.

Retirement age

Social security benefits usually constitute most of a pensioner's income, particularly if he has a spouse entitled to a benefit. It is important, therefore, that upon retirement an employee should be eligible for such benefits since without them his income may not be adequate for his needs.

Private plans began to lower their age requirements for normal and early retirement when the Social Security Act was amended in 1961 to make men eligible for reduced old age benefits as early as age 62. (Women had acquired eligibility for early benefits in 1956.) Within 4 years of the

amendment, one-third (34) of the plans under study reduced the normal retirement age, some of them substantially. In most cases the cutback was from age 65 to 62, but a few plans, including that negotiated by the Central States Teamsters, brought the age limit down to below 60.

Plans in the maritime industry and those negotiated by the Steelworkers in many metalworking plants have gone even further by completely eliminating an age requirement. Workers covered by the maritime plans qualify for full normal benefits after 20 years of service regardless of age; those under the Steelworkers' plans qualify after 30 years of service. As a result of these and other changes, 2 of every 5 plans under study now permit qualified workers to retire voluntarily before age 65 on full pension. Of course, reduced pensions have been paid by most plans to qualified workers retiring before attaining the normal retirement age.

Provisions for special early retirement are designed to protect a worker compelled to retire early, or one who retires under "mutually satisfactory" conditions. During the past 4 years such provisions have been adopted by a few additional plans, and they have been improved by almost two-thirds of the programs which had them in their agreements. The Steelworkers' plans, for instance, liberalized eligibility requirements for workers 55 and over by permitting them to retire when the sum of their age.

The increases effected in normal retirement benefits by most of the plans studied have also caused the regular and special early retirement payments to rise. In addition, because they often are not eligible for social security benefits, employees retiring under the special early retirement provisions of many of the Steelworkers' plans will, for the first time, get a supplementary benefit payable until age 65. The supplementary benefit ranges from \$75 a month in the basic steel to \$130 in some fabricating companies.

Disability retirement

In recent years, there has been a considerable slowing down in the adoption of provisions for retirement on disability. This development has been accompanied by liberalization of such pro-

Table 2. Changes in negotiated pension benefits,¹ winter 1964 to early 1968

Percent change	Plans	Percent change	Plans
Total plans studied.....	97	50 to 59.9 percent.....	10
Benefits increased.....	70	40 to 49.9 percent.....	6
140 percent and over.....	3	30 to 39.9 percent.....	10
120 to 139.9 percent.....	1	20 to 29.9 percent.....	8
100 to 119.9 percent.....	5	10 to 19.9 percent.....	8
90 to 99.9 percent.....	5	0.1 to 9.9 percent.....	2
80 to 89.9 percent.....	4	Benefits unchanged.....	22
70 to 79.9 percent.....	1	Benefits decreased.....	5
60 to 69.9 percent.....	7	10 to 19.9 percent.....	4
		0.1 to 9.9 percent.....	1

¹ For workers retiring at age 65, with average annual earnings of \$4,200 and credited service of 30 years.

visions in almost half the plans permitting disability retirement, the improvements largely reflecting upward revisions of benefit formulas generally. The most significant of those improvements occurred in the plans negotiated by the United Auto Workers and the Steelworkers, in which special early retirement benefit formulas were applied also to disability retirement.

Vesting

The prevalence of vesting provisions, which guarantee the worker a nonforfeitable right to his accrued benefits, has increased gradually from about half the plans in 1958 to three-fourths in 1968. The last 4 years were particularly noted for improvements and additions; more than one-third of the 64 plans with vesting improved their provisions, and nine plans added them. Of the nine additions, seven were rather significant: One which guaranteed full vesting after 15 years of service and age 40, was representative of the plans of the Bell system, employing over 750,000 workers; the other six were large multiemployer programs in various industrial groupings. These seven additions suggest a breakthrough in the adoption of vesting by multiemployer plans in a variety of industries.

Death benefits

The addition of monthly death benefits to plans negotiated by the United Auto Workers in 1964 has not only accelerated their adoption by other plans but also changed the nature of the payments. Previously, almost all death benefits had been paid in a lump sum to anyone designated by the worker, and they supplemented the plan members' group life insurance benefits. The new death benefits are

payable monthly to the surviving spouse for life and are, thus, better geared to the survivor's needs, especially since the benefit amounts are usually closely related to the size of the worker's accrued or actual pension.

Largely as a result of these modifications, there was also an increase in the adoption of benefits for the survivors of workers who die before retiring. Fifteen plans added such provisions in the 1964-68 period (as compared with nine during the previous 6 years), including the programs negotiated by the Steelworkers, the Monsanto Chemical Co.-Chemical Workers plan, and the Pittsburgh Plate Glass Co.-Glass and Ceramic Workers plan. Some programs have enlarged such benefits. The plan negotiated by the Western Conference of Teamsters, for example, added a monthly benefit for dependent children below age 18, which is contained as a spouse's benefit after that date in reduced amounts until age 62.

Benefits for the survivors of workers who die after retiring grew at a more even pace, and there have been a good many changes in provisions for

such benefits since 1964. To cite an example, the plan maintained by the Pacific Maritime Association and the Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union has continued the allowance of one-half the pension to the surviving spouse until death or remarriage, instead of the previous full payment for 1 year.

As for involuntary retirement, the number of plans with such provisions remained virtually unchanged. Nor were there any unusual changes in the nature of the provisions, although a few plans lowered the age at which a worker may be compelled to retire. □

—FOOTNOTES—

¹ The 5-percent rise was for workers with average annual earnings of \$4,200, the other two were for those with earnings of \$4,800. Benefits for the period of the first increase were not calculated at the \$4,800 level.

² This article is based on BLS Bulletins 1435 (1965) and 1597 (1969). For previous digests, see BLS Bulletins 1232 (1958) and 1307 (1962).

A view of the private pension system as a whole reveals aspects not apparent at closer quarter. . . . the greater part of the retirement income of most workers covered by private plans in effect during the early 1960's was to be paid by social security. Only for workers with high earnings and long service did private plan benefit amounts commonly begin to approach the expected social security payments. Overall, however, potential private plan benefits in relation to preretirement earnings level exhibited one basic characteristic of the social security system in favoring lower paid workers. Accordingly, when public and private benefits were combined, this tendency was accentuated.

—*Private Pension Plan Benefits* (BLS Bulletin 1485, 1966).

Estimating the cost of collective bargaining settlements

A report on procedures
developed by BLS
to measure the effect
on hourly compensation
of negotiated wages increases
and supplemental benefits

LILY MARY DAVID AND VICTOR J. SHEIFER

MEASURING THE COST of collective bargaining settlements used to be a simple matter of computing changes in wage rates. Today, a host of other factors must be considered. Among them are premium pay, paid leave, bonuses, and employer contributions to pension and health and welfare plans. Together, these supplements and others make up about 20 percent of total employer outlays for employee compensation.

A system for estimating the cost of major collective bargaining settlements—including these supplements—has been developed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The BLS began estimating the cost of wage and benefit changes in a limited number of key settlements in 1964. Since 1966, the Bureau has attempted to price all settlements affecting 5,000 or more workers, excluding government employees. Requests for these estimates came from a variety of sources, including trade union and management negotiators and policymakers and others concerned with the behavior of labor costs. This article describes the procedures now being used to make the estimates.

The need for package cost estimates was implicit in the guideposts for noninflationary wage and price behavior developed by the Council of Economic Advisers in 1962. Wage stabilization policies during World War II and the Korean period had focused primarily on wage changes, since supplementary benefits were much smaller and the emphasis was on regulation of money income to

curb demand-induced inflation. In contrast, the guideposts, which emphasized cost factors in inflation, stressed that price stability was compatible with increases in hourly labor costs that did not exceed productivity gains. As a result, more attention was paid to supplements in view of their current importance as cost elements.

A variety of factors had contributed to the growth of supplementary benefits: The desire for employment and income security; workers' willingness, as their incomes increased, to divert more compensation from immediate consumption to leisure and protection against the hazards of illness and old age; increased life expectancy; concentration of population in urban areas where retirement income is important; and, as noted above, the stimulus to substitute wage supplements for wage increases during World War II and Korean war. Other factors were the 1948 Inland Steel decision by the NLRB, which brought pensions within the scope of mandatory collective bargaining; tax provisions that enhanced after-tax worker income when employers finance pension and welfare plans; acceptance by society and employers of the idea that protection of workers against economic insecurity is a cost of doing business; and experiments by some employers with supplements as tools to reduce costs associated with high labor turnover.

Limitations

Package forecasts are, of necessity, relatively rough, as the following factors suggest: (1) The estimates depend on forecasts of employee response to contract changes, for example, the proportion of workers who will take advantage of liberalized early retirement provisions or reduced employee cost of insurance or pension programs in which participation is optional; (2) assump-

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tions must be made about the methods to be used in amortizing costs of liberalized pension benefits for prior service; and (3) precise estimates of the cost of change in vacation provisions, and sometimes other benefits, require current information on workers' length of service.

Package estimates measure the effect of collective bargaining decisions on hourly labor costs, assuming that nothing else changes these costs. For example, it is assumed that the age, sex, and occupational composition of the labor force remains the same and that, with one exception, the basis for funding pensions is not revised. Estimates ignore the possibility that employers will adapt to the contract by changing existing practices—for example, that an increase in the premium overtime rate may lead to reduced overtime hours and that introduction of SUB short workweek benefits will lead to a reduction in the number of short workweeks. To the extent that these assumptions are incorrect, package estimates will *not* forecast actual changes in expenditures.

Another difference from actual changes in hourly compensation is the omission from the package estimates of the effect of legislated changes in taxes for legally required benefits or changes in the base on which taxes are collected, since such changes are not a result of the settlement. Package costs include only the higher payroll taxes an employer must pay as a consequence of a wage-rate increase resulting from the settlement.

Package estimates by BLS are limited to private collective bargaining contracts covering 5,000 workers or more and groups of smaller contracts negotiated at the same time and with the same terms. Changes in compensation for the entire economy are clearly affected by what happens in smaller unionized situations, in situations not covered by union agreements, and by decisions in the government sector.

It should be emphasized that the measures refer to changes in hourly compensation resulting from settlements. Changes in unit labor costs depend on what happens to hourly labor costs and changes in output per man-hour.

Definition of compensation

What employer expenditures are included in labor compensation for this series?¹ BLS estimates include wages, clearly the largest compo-

nent; vacation, holiday, and other leave payments; other cash payments, such as bonuses; legally required social insurance payments; and payments to health, welfare, and pension funds (excluding costs of administering these benefits). In some industries, where contract provisions specify paid time for clothes change, washup, and lunch periods, estimates of these expenditures are also included in labor costs.

The criteria used in making these decisions rest primarily on size and measurability. Practices that are largely informal and differ widely among establishments or for other reasons are not easily measured are generally excluded. Examples of such items are costs of informal rest periods and other inplant time not worked. Even though expenditures for company-sponsored recreational, educational, or cultural activities may add to the happiness and comfort of workers and their families and may affect output, the cost in most companies is relatively small and such expenditures are also excluded. Costs of physical working conditions such as improvements in lighting, safety, restrooms, and cafeterias are charged to capital rather than labor accounts.

Many terms of a union-management agreement other than wage and benefit changes may directly or indirectly affect costs, for example, seniority or work rule provisions. Union influence over work rules has expanded noticeably in recent decades. With one exception, however, no effort has been made to forecast the repercussion on costs of work rule changes. The exception has been made where management has agreed to wage or benefit changes in return for union agreement to changes that will increase productivity.

Existing expenditures—the base

Computation of the cost of settlements involves four steps: Obtaining information on existing expenditures on wages and benefits; estimating the cost of the changes in wages and benefits agreed to in a settlement; relating the cost of these increases to current expenditures; and reducing these relatives to an annual rate.

Development of the base, that is, existing labor expenditures, involves converting these expenditures to a common denominator: cents per plant man-hour. Plant hours are essentially the number of hours the worker is at his place of work, including overtime. Expressing costs in terms of plant

hours or hours worked facilitates comparisons with output per hour worked, and hence analysis of unit labor costs.

The major component of the base is the expenditure on wages expressed as straight-time hourly earnings per plant hour. It includes incentive earnings but excludes leave payments and premium pay for overtime, shift differentials, and other premiums.

One of the major sources of information on hourly earnings is the information obtained by BLS in its monthly survey of employment, payrolls, and hours, with the data adjusted to exclude premium pay for overtime and shift differentials.² In the absence of this information or information from other surveys, reliable secondary sources are used.

To straight-time hourly earnings are added expenditures (expressed as cents per plant hour) for premium pay for overtime (including premium pay for work on holidays), late shift premiums, bonuses and similar payments, and pay for leave. These, together with hourly earnings, make up a large proportion of total labor expenditures but do not exhaust the list of components of the base. It is still necessary to add employer expenditures on private and public health and welfare and pension plans and expenditures for workmen's compensation.

Determining the cost of these benefits requires a variety of information, some of which is not readily available. Benefit practices are generally spelled out in the union contract. Conversion of information on practices into hourly expenditures requires information on the incidence of these practices for the workers covered by the agreement. For most large situations, information for a relatively recent year on such expenditures has been reported to the BLS for its survey of expenditures on benefits³ and the number of overtime hours in manufacturing establishments is reported as part of the monthly employment and payroll survey. Industry wage surveys normally include information on the extent of late shift work.

Paid vacations usually vary with length of service and their cost varies accordingly. Frequently, information is available on length of service or on current leave expenditures from the surveys of actual expenditures on benefits. In cases where employers contribute a specified amount to a central fund to provide vacations or holidays, there is no

problem of estimating these costs. This normally occurs in industries consisting of large numbers of small establishments or where there is a high degree of mobility of workers among establishments.

Employer contributions for private welfare and pension plans can frequently be ascertained from BLS surveys of expenditures. The information is supplemented by annual financial reports filed with the Department of Labor under the Welfare and Pension Plan Disclosure Act. Reports for several years are analyzed since contributions for pensions frequently vary substantially from year to year.⁴

Payments for social security, unemployment insurance, workmen's compensation, and, where required, temporary disability insurance, are reported in the surveys of expenditures on benefits. When these surveys do not provide sufficiently current data or data for individual companies or industries, information on industry tax rates and workmen's compensation rates can be used in combination with annual earnings data from the Social Security Administration's 1-percent Continuous Work History of wage and salaried workers.⁵ Because ceilings on the taxable earnings base and experience rating adjustments alter effective rates of contribution by individual employers, it would be desirable to consider the level of employee annual earnings in each firm, together with its safety record and chargeable unemployment experience. Since data for individual firms frequently are not available, however, it is often necessary to base estimates on industry averages. Expenditures for social security and unemployment insurance taxes represent a declining percent of payroll as the proportion increases of workers whose earnings exceed the maximum limit on which such taxes are levied.

ESTIMATING PLANT HOURS. Some expenditures on benefits are stated in terms of hours paid for or as an aggregate for the year. To express these in terms of plant hours it is necessary to estimate annual hours. Hours paid for can be converted to plant hours by subtracting paid leave hours. Where information on hours paid for is not available, it is necessary to make an estimate using average weekly hours as of 1 month in the establishment or industry and adjusting for paid and unpaid leave hours and for seasonal variations.

BASE FOR WAGE REOPENERS. The effect on compensation of any new settlement is related to the same base, which includes wages and expenditures on supplementary benefits. This is true whether the settlement changes only wages or benefits⁶ or both, or whether it is only a wage reopener or involves all issues. In separate series summarizing only general wage changes, the base used to convert wage changes into percents is limited to straight-time hourly earnings.

Estimating settlement costs

Once a base has been developed, the next step is to estimate how much each contract change will cost, expressing the estimates in terms of cost per plant hour. Only changes negotiated by the parties are included in the estimated cost. Thus, the immediate effect of changes in payroll taxes for social insurance programs and adjustments in minimum wage rates or overtime rates—although they will affect hourly labor costs—are excluded.⁷ The only exception is made for agreements negotiated at the time the minimum wage is increased. Where agreements can be reopened when the statutory minimum wage is increased or where the agreement requires that contract minimum rates maintain a specified relationship to the statutory minimum, it is impossible to separate the effect of the statutory minimum from the results of collective bargaining. In such cases, all changes in compensation are considered to result from the settlement.

Package estimates attempt to take into account the actual characteristics of the work force affected by the settlement, not the cost for some hypothetical work force. Attempts to base estimates on the actual age, length of service, sex, and skill characteristics of the workers affected makes the task more difficult since it increases the need for data to make estimates. This approach should, however, provide more reliable forecasts of actual cost changes than would result from assumption of a standard work force. It recognizes the fact that the choice among alternative benefit changes is affected by their costs, which, in turn, are affected by the character of the work force. For example, an extra week of vacation after 15 years of service will cost very little where only 10 percent of the workers have that much service, but will cost about 1 percent of straight-time hourly earnings where half of the workers have worked for 15 years or more. Similarly, the cost of wage changes that vary

among different labor grades depends on the distribution of workers among labor grades.

The estimates assume that conditions existing at the beginning of the contract will not change. For example, they assume that methods of financing pensions will not be revised, and that the cost of insurance will not change except as a result of altered benefit provisions or modified participation in the insurance plan that results from changes in company contributions. They also assume that the composition of the labor force will not change. A major exception to these assumptions is made where some benefit improvements are clearly earmarked as a tradeoff for union concessions to increase productivity, for example, a change in manning requirements. The aggregate of the wage and benefit improvements provided by these settlements is presumably larger than it would be in the absence of union concessions. In this case, unless this cost is reduced by an estimate of the savings resulting from union concessions, the effect on unit labor costs will clearly not be proportionate to the estimated total settlement costs per hour.

Where employee participation in an insurance or pension plan is voluntary and the settlement terms are likely to affect participation, the estimates take account of the change in costs resulting from changed participation. For example, account is taken of the expected effect on participation of the employer's assuming a different proportion of the cost of the plan.⁸ Similarly, the effect of revisions in early retirement provisions on the rate of early retirement is estimated.

Pension costs

Changes in pensions are the most difficult to price. Estimates of the effect of changes in normal benefits for future service are based on the relationship between the new and old levels. They assume that a given benefit increase will raise existing expenditures for current service proportionately. It is also assumed that there will be no change in funding methods or interest as a result of the agreement. Even this review of past practice is only a rough guide, since frequently employer contributions for pensions vary widely from year to year, in part because of variations in profits. Moreover, in many cases, pension funds are adequate to permit larger benefits without increased contributions.

When prior service benefits are liberalized, the

employer has the option of amortizing such obligations in different ways. He may not have made this decision at the time of settlement. When the program of estimating costs was begun, the cost of liberalized benefits for prior service was ignored because of the wide range of choices regarding payment for such benefits. Ignoring such costs is consistent with the idea that an increase in benefits for prior service will not affect either decisions to hire workers or marginal labor costs. Recently, however, the frequency and magnitude of increases in prior service benefits has made it important to include an allowance for such changes in estimating added costs. It seems unrealistic to ignore the fact that a settlement that increases such benefits is more expensive than one that changes benefits only for future service. BLS estimates of the cost of paying for liberalized benefits for prior service assume that interest of $3\frac{3}{4}$ percent will be paid on the prior service liability.

Calculating the effect of liberalized early retirement provisions is another major difficulty in estimating the cost of pension changes, since forecasts of the proportion of workers who will take advantage of such benefits are subject to wide margins of error. Early retirement will be affected by the availability of other work, limitations in the early retirement provisions about taking other jobs, the difference between the worker's earnings and early retirement benefits, his age and family obligations, trends in consumer prices, and the prosperity of the industry.

To forecast the cost of increased benefits for workers already retired, data are needed on the ratio of retired workers to employees still on the rolls. In addition, some assumption must be made as to the average number of years these workers will survive.

The cost of new benefits for widows of workers who die before retirement will depend also on a variety of factors. Among these are the proportion of married workers who will die before normal or disability retirement, and provisions for cancellation of benefits if widows remarry or when they become eligible for social security.

Where contributions to the cost of SUB plans depend on the amount accumulated in the fund, liberalized provisions that do not raise the normal contribution rate are not considered in the esti-

mates. Where the settlement provides for liberalizing contributions, but where it appears that these contributions will continue for only part of the contract period, an estimate is made of the length of time contributions will be increased; the maximum increase in contributions is reduced in proportion to the time it is expected contributions will not be made.

Pricing a reduced workweek

The increase in hourly rates to maintain weekly pay is the major cost item priced in a reduction of the basic workweek. To some extent, a reduced basic workweek may be accompanied by additional overtime work. Unless this is specifically provided in the agreement, however, it is ignored in the cost estimate. Increases in hourly pay rates are not the only cost effects to be considered. If there is no change in total employer outlays for particular benefits, the outlays per hour worked will rise and will affect the cost of the settlement.

Allowance is made for premium pay for work on holidays where there is any substantial amount of holiday work. In such cases, the cost of a new holiday would be straight-time pay for the proportion of the workers who are given the day off and premium pay for those who work. For example, if pay for work on holidays amounts to double time and one half, the added cost of a new holiday would be straight time for the workers who get the day off and the added time and one half for the proportion who work.

Except where there is extensive holiday work, it has been assumed that the cost of an added week of vacation or an added holiday will be straight-time pay for the added number of holiday or vacation hours. This assumption may overstate the cost of the holiday in terms of unit labor costs to some extent. In no case is output of all employees strictly proportional to the number of hours worked, since in both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries there are some workers, notably maintenance workers, who contribute only indirectly to output. The proportion of such workers may be greater in some nonmanufacturing industries. There is, of course, a limit to the extent to which increased leave can be absorbed, even in industries in which output is not strictly proportional to the number of work hours.

Changes in earnings include the estimated effect of general wage changes on incentive earnings as well as the effect of changes in differentials among jobs or areas.

COST-OF-LIVING ESCALATORS. Except for any guaranteed increase, estimated changes in earnings as a result of cost-of-living escalator clauses are excluded.⁹ To evaluate the effect of these clauses it would often be necessary to predict movements in the Consumer Price Index for 3 years—the time span of many collective bargaining agreements.

WAGE-RELATED FRINGES—CREEP. Estimates of settlement costs must include the effect of higher wage rates on the cost of benefits that are tied directly to wages—notably provisions for paid leave,¹⁰ premium rates for overtime and work on holidays, those shift differentials that are a percentage of the basic hourly rate,¹¹ pensions related to earnings rather than only to length of service, life insurance (which usually varies with pay level), and costs of legally required benefits. Where most benefit costs are related to wages, a given percentage wage increase will result in almost as large a percentage rise in average hourly compensation.¹²

The effect of changes in wages on benefit costs is taken into account by computing a so-called “creep” or loading factor. Each cents-per-hour wage increase provided by the new contract is raised by this ratio in calculating the cost of the settlement. (See sample worksheet.) The creep factor is essentially the ratio of current hourly expenditures on benefits that vary with wage levels to existing straight-time hourly earnings. It varies from this ratio only to the extent that there are limits on earnings that are subject to UI or social security taxes.

In estimating the effect of a wage increase on the cost of legally required benefits, account must be taken of the proportion of workers whose pay prior to the increase has already reached the maximum taxable limit. For these workers, higher wage rates will not increase the employer's cost for the benefit. For example, most workers covered by major collective bargaining agreements earn more than the taxable limit for unemployment insurance¹³ and, hence, an increase in wages will not raise unemployment insurance costs. To the extent

workers shift among employers, as in construction, and do not earn \$3,000 with one employer, this is not true.

An increase in the base earnings on which social security taxes are levied will affect the proportion of workers for whom a pay increase will raise aggregate social security tax payments. However, as noted, the effect of any increase in social security tax rates or in the maximum taxable earnings is not considered part of the cost of any settlement. In other words, the fact that the earnings ceiling for social security taxes rose from \$6,600 to \$7,800 in 1968 means that the creep factor used to calculate the cost of a 1968 wage increase will be greater than the creep factor used to calculate the cost of a 1967 increase, since a larger proportion of workers earn less than the new taxable maximum. Also, the increase in the tax rate in 1967 to 4.4 percent, from 4.2 percent, advanced the cost in 1967 as contrasted with 1966 of any given wage change.

Any reduction in the workweek will of course result in an increase in the per hour cost of benefits that are financed by flat contributions per employee rather than by uniform hourly contributions. Consequently, any liberalization in paid leave provisions will result in a slight increase in the cost of such benefits. Since these cost changes normally are relatively minor, they are usually ignored in estimating settlement costs.

Computing annual averages

Once each of the elements of a contract change has been priced, the aggregate cost of the changes is computed and expressed as a percent of the base. Because of different contract lengths, package estimates are reduced to an annual basis.

Two measures of the annual rate of change are computed. One, actual timing or time weighted, takes into account the length of time within the contract period during which each change remains in effect, and thus measures the effect of the settlement on actual labor costs during the contract period. The other, equal timing, ignores the dates of the changes and simply compares costs at the beginning and end of the contract period. The latter measure indicates how much the cost structure will rise permanently. The average annual cents-per-hour change multiplied by the number of

Explanation of the worksheet

Calculation of a package cost estimate on the worksheet assumes the following settlement terms:

A 3-year contract extending from January 1, 1969 to December 31, 1971.

Base average hourly earnings of \$3 and current expenditures on fringe benefits of 70 cents an hour, 2,000 plant hours per worker.

Increases in wage rates of 10 cents on January 1, 1969, 5 percent January 1, 1970, and 5 percent January 1, 1971.

Inequity adjustments of 5 cents an hour applying to three-fourths of the workers, effective January 1, 1970.

Creep of 20 percent (17 percent for shift differentials).

An increase in shift differentials for second and third shifts from 5 to 10 percent, with approximately one-third of the workers being employed on second and third shifts combined, effective in the second contract year.

Increases in pension benefits estimated to cost 5 cents an hour effective the beginning of the third contract year (pension formula not tied to wages).

A fourth week of vacation after 20 years of service effective in 1971 (affects 25 percent of the workers).

Symbols on the worksheet are as follows:

M=total percent increase in hourly costs by the end of the contract period.

L=an interim step in calculations with no economic meaning.

p=annual rate of increase in costs considering actual timing, before compounding.

P=annual rate of increase in costs considering actual timing, after compounding.

r=annual rate of increase in costs assuming equal timing, before compounding.

R=annual rate of increase in costs assuming equal timing, after compounding.

A sample worksheet for calculating package costs

AHE \$3.00 As of 1/1/69 Source Contract

Situation XYZ Company

Base \$3.70 Fringe factor 23.3%

No. of employees 5,000 Union ABC

Creep factor 20% Plant hours 2,000

Percent increase—ACTUAL 5.28% EQUAL 5.75%

From 1/1/69 to 12/31/71

Date of settlement 1/9/69

Provision		Cents		Years	Aggregates (With creep)	Actual timing (in months)		Equal timing (in months)	
		No creep	With creep			A BASE	121.52 370.00 =.3284	E BASE	68.00 370.00 =.1837
Wages:	1/1/69	10.00	12.00	3	36.00	18—p=.571 (L) P=p (1-.107p)		r=.667 (M) R=r (1-.25r)	
5% of \$3.10	1/1/70	15.50	18.60	2	37.20				
Ineq. adjust.	1/1/70	3.75	4.50	2	9.00	19—p=.52 (L) P=p (1-.14p)		r=.632 (M) R=r (1-.292r)	
5% of \$3.2925	1/1/71	16.46	19.75	1	19.75				
						24—p=.333 (L) P=p (1-.333p)		r=.5 (M) R=r (1-.5r)	
Benefits:									
Shift diff.	1/1/70	5.49	6.42	2	12.84	30—p=.235 (L) P=p (1-.456p)		r=.4 (M) R=r (1-.75r)	
Pensions	1/1/71	—	5.00	1	5.00	32—p=.209 (L) P=p (1-.519p)		r=.375 (M) R=r (1-.833r)	
Vacations	1/1/71	—	1.73	1	1.73				
						[36—p=.167 (L) P=p (1-.667p)]		r=.333 (M) R=r (1-r)]	
						39—p=.147 (L) P=p (1-.721p)		r=.308 (M) R=r (1-1.125r)	
						42—p=.129 (L) P=p (1-.798p)		r=.286 (M) R=r (1-1.25r)	
						48—p=.1 (L) P=p (1-P)		r=.25 (M) R=r (1-1.5r)	
						60—p=.067 (L) P=p (1-1.333p)		r=.2 (M) R=r (1-2r)	
Total		E= 68.00		A= 121.52					

$$\begin{aligned}
 p &= .167(.3284) = .05484 & r &= .333(.1837) = .0612 \\
 P &= .05484(1 - .0366) & R &= .0612(1 - .0612) \\
 &= .05484(.9634) = .0528 = 5.28\% & &= .0612(.9388) = .0575 = 5.75\%
 \end{aligned}$$

years in the contract shows how much higher costs will be at the time of the next negotiations than they were at the beginning of the contract, assuming no change in other factors affecting hourly costs. Equal timing measures will be the same whether all changes go into effect on the first or the last day of the agreement.

The difference between the two measures indicates the extent to which settlements are "front" or "back" loaded. When prices are rising relatively rapidly, the increases, especially in wages, are likely to be larger in the first than in subsequent contract years. In this case, actual timing costs will exceed equal timing.

The annual average rate of increase using actual timing may be defined as that rate of increase which, if applied uniformly at the beginning of each year, would yield the same total change in compensation during the contract period as the increases actually put in effect.

To compute the actual timing series, each cost increase is multiplied by the time in years or fractions of years during which the change is in effect. The sum of the resulting figures is then divided by base average hourly compensation, and the ratio is reduced to an annual rate. Because computation of annual averages using actual timing is complicated, a series of approximation formulas has been developed for these calculations.¹⁴

In computing the increase assuming equal timing of wage and benefit changes, all the cost increases are simply added. The resulting aggregate is divided by base compensation and this ratio is again reduced to an annual rate.

Both equal and actual timing measures are computed in terms of compounded annual rates. In the case of contracts that extend for parts of years, the average annual rate is computed to yield the same result as if there were changes at the same rate during the balance of the final contract year.

ONE-TIME PAYMENTS. Sometimes a settlement provides for a one-time payment or a payment limited to the life of the new contract. Such items, for example, a lump-sum payment in lieu of retroactivity or a payment to a SUB fund designed to take care of a short period of unusually heavy layoffs, are considered in actual but not in equal timing. These items are omitted from equal timing because they do not represent an increase in costs that will

continue into the next contract period. Costs resulting from increasing pensions for workers already retired conceivably could be handled in this way, since they diminish and disappear as these workers die. Since the cost will not disappear during the immediate contract period, however, the cost of increased benefits for workers already retired has been considered in both equal and actual timing.

Problems of contract duration

Normally, determination of the period to be used in reducing expenditures to an annual rate does not present a problem—it is simply the length of the contract. There are exceptions, however. At least four types of situations require decisions as to the time to be used in computing annual rates: (1) Cases in which there is a work stoppage or in which a settlement is delayed, (2) instances in which wage or benefit changes are put into effect prior to the expiration date of the previous agreement, (3) contracts that are open ended and do not have formal termination dates, and (4) contract reopenings.

The same approach has been applied to cases of delayed and early settlements. The period over which costs are to be spread is measured from the expiration of the previous contract to the expiration date of the new agreement. This rule reduces an annual rate where there has been a strike, since it lengthens the period used in computing the annual rate relative to the time during which the new wage rates were in effect, and raises it where wages have been raised before the prior contract expires.

The decision to measure from expiration date to expiration date is based primarily on practical grounds. Such a decision seems essential where changes are put into effect prior to the expiration date of the previous agreement, to reflect the fact that additional employer outlays result from the early effective date. If this approach is to be used in early settlements, the same approach should be used for settlements that are delayed because of a strike. Moreover, settlements sometimes make some of the benefit changes retroactive to the expiration date of the previous contract. Even though there is a strike and, hence, no payment of

retroactive wages, it is not practical to measure wage changes over one period and changes in wages and benefits over a different period. Moreover, computation of annual rates of change from expiration to expiration date facilitates combining the results over periods of more than one contract and, hence, measurement of the long term effect of agreement changes.

The theoretical grounds are less clear. The guideposts to noninflationary wage and price behavior adopted in 1962 related wage and benefit changes to the long-term gain in productivity in the economy as a whole. If comparisons are made with long-term productivity trends, it can be argued that even though production in establishments covered by the agreement is halted by a strike, the entire period should be considered since measures of economywide productivity change cover the entire period. On the other hand, the guideposts emphasized conformity of the immediate contract under consideration to productivity trends. The Council of Economic Advisers focused its attention on the actual or time weighted annual rate of increase, in effect emphasizing short-range changes in hourly labor costs.

Early renewals are more likely during periods of rapidly rising prices. Using the actual timing approach, the annual rate of increase in wage or benefit costs has been computed over the period since the expiration date of the previous contract. Early changes, however, have been weighted by the length of time during which they were in effect. For example, if an agreement due to terminate in December 1968 was replaced in September 1968 by one that expired in December 1971 but with the first wage increase effective immediately, the annual rate would be computed over the 3 years with the first wage increase weighted by $3\frac{1}{4}$ years. An alternative would be to reprice the previous agreement over a shorter period and date the new agreement from the time when the first wage or benefit change went into effect. It is not practical, however, to revise estimates of earlier settlements continually. Moreover, this approach would seem to understate current economic pressures.

Some contracts are open ended and do not have formal termination dates. They usually specify when new negotiations may begin and the earliest date on which new provisions may go into effect. This latter has been used as the expiration date

of an existing contract and the beginning date for the succeeding contract. If the agreement does not specify when new changes may be effective, it is necessary either to assume continuation of prior patterns of bargaining between the parties or arbitrarily to assume a 1-year agreement for pricing purposes.

Contract reopenings permitted on specific dates are treated in the same fashion as new negotiations.¹⁵ At the time that the agreement providing for a reopening on wages or benefits at a specific date is negotiated, the increases to go into effect before the reopening are priced over the period until the reopening date. Similarly, the changes negotiated at the time of reopening are reduced to an annual rate for the period following the reopener. If some benefit changes incorporated in the initial settlement do not go into effect until the reopener, they are considered to be a part of the settlement reached under the reopening.

A more difficult problem is presented where no specific date is set for a reopener and where the agreement permits a reopener if prices rise by a specified amount (cost-of-living reopeners) or under other circumstances. Clauses of this type are largely confined to Ladies' Garment Workers' agreements. Moreover, it is not unusual for the ILGWU to negotiate revisions in scheduled deferred adjustments when bargaining under cost-of-living reopeners. Consequently, there is uncertainty over the size of a future wage adjustment and also as to whether or when a reopening will occur. Under such circumstances, BLS package cost estimates cannot account for the possible effect of cost-of-living reopening clauses. In these cases, the cost of the original settlement is spread over the entire period until expiration of the agreement. Then, if there are negotiations under the reopener, the cost of the new terms plus any changes effective under the old contract after the reopening period are spread over the period from the reopener to the expiration date of the contract.

In order to avoid a break in the continuity of the benefit agreement at the expiration of the primary labor contract, some parties maintain agreements on some benefits, namely insurance and pensions, apart from the basic collective bargaining agreement. Where possible, BLS cost estimating procedures merge the two separate agreements. □

FOOTNOTES

¹ In this article, employee remuneration is equated with employer payments; consequently, the terms labor expenditures and labor compensation are used interchangeably.

² The basic hourly rate (basic straight-time average hourly earnings for incentive workers) per plant hour is estimated for most industries from monthly BLS data as follows: total weekly pay is divided by hours paid for, "boosted" to offset premium pay for overtime. The resulting estimate will differ from the basic rate to the extent that shift differentials are paid for and pay for leave is different from the rate for hours worked. Weekly pay includes leave pay and hours include leave hours. Boosting hours consists of multiplying overtime hours by the ratio of the premium part of overtime pay to straight-time pay and adding the resulting hours to reported weekly hours.

In some industries, for example, railroads, this procedure does not provide an adequate base and other methods must be relied on to estimate hourly earnings.

³ The Bureau of Labor Statistics' Division of General Compensation Structures has conducted surveys of employer expenditures for selected supplementary compensation practices since the early 1960's. Where information is not available from this source, special inquiries are sometimes made to obtain it for purposes of package estimates. Information on expenditures obtained from companies is used only for statistical purposes and is not revealed in identifiable form.

⁴ One problem that complicates use of reports, both on insurance and pensions, is that these plans often do not cover exactly the same group of workers as are covered by the settlement.

⁵ Information is available on contribution rates for unemployment insurance from *Unemployment Insurance Tax Rates by Industry, 1966* (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security, 1968), mimeographed; for information on workmen's compensation rates, see *Workmen's Compensation and Employers' Liability Insurance Manual* (New York, National Council on Compensation Insurance, various dates, loose-leaf service).

⁶ Where agreements on benefits are negotiated separately from wage changes, the effect on costs of the two agreements is grouped if possible.

⁷ The 1967 Report of the Council of Economic Advisers specifically excluded from consideration as increases subject to guidepost control the rise in social security tax costs. The Council stated that those taxes "are not included in the definition of employee compensation for purposes of the guideposts, since the rates and the benefits are determined by law rather than by collective bargaining." It did observe that they affect unit labor costs.

⁸ In this article and in estimating package costs, it is assumed that contributions are synonymous with costs.

⁹ Increases in the cost-of-living allowance accumulated during previous contracts are not considered to be part of the cost of the current settlement except to the extent that computation of vacation or other benefits is related

to wages, excluding the cost-of-living allowance. In these cases, the effect of incorporation of these previously excluded cost-of-living allowances into the new base rates on the cost of benefits is considered to be part of the cost of the current settlement.

Where a cost-of-living escalator adjustment goes into effect on the final day of a contract, it could be argued that the amount of this increase should be considered as part of the cost of the new contract. This approach has not been followed, in part because it is difficult to justify distinguishing the effect of this final adjustment from earlier adjustments, especially if they are on a quarterly basis.

¹⁰ In cases in which benefits are financed by cents-per-hour contributions to funds, the cost of the settlement will reflect the effect of the wage increase on benefit costs only if the contract specifically increases payments into the fund.

¹¹ If shift differentials are paid in percentage terms their cents-per-hour cost will rise as a result of a wage increase. At the same time, any increase in differentials (whether in cents per hour or percentage terms) will raise the cost of benefits that are related to wages. Similarly where overtime pay is included in computing benefit payments such as vacation pay, any change in overtime premiums will also increase the cost of these benefits.

¹² It is generally assumed that the percent increase in wages will always be smaller than the percent increase in wages and benefits combined. This is not necessarily the case, since the wage changes are expressed as a percent of straight-time hourly earnings, whereas the changes in wages and benefits are expressed as a percent of existing expenditures on wages and benefits combined. In actual fact, because wage changes result in a proportionate increase in the cost of many benefits, such as leave, premium pay for overtime, and sometimes health, welfare, and pension benefits, the increase in wage and benefit costs may be almost as great as the proportionate increase in wages alone, even if benefit practices are not changed. Therefore, if any substantial changes are made in benefit provisions, the percent rise in the cost of wages and benefits will be greater than the percent increase in wages alone. In other words, the fact that expenditures on wages and benefits increase faster than expenditures on wages alone does not necessarily indicate that benefit provisions are being liberalized more rapidly than wages. Assuming, for example, a 5-percent increase in wage rates in a situation in which all benefit costs increase as wages increase, the cost of wages and benefits would also rise 5 percent. If, in addition to the wage increase, any benefit provision—e.g., the length of vacations or the number of holidays—were increased, expenditures on wages and benefits combined would rise by more than 5 percent. Thus if earnings were \$3, expenditures on benefits \$1, and the cost of all of these benefits were related to wages, a 5-percent increase in wage rates and a 5-percent increase in benefit provisions would raise expenditures on benefits 6.25 percent, as follows:

	Base period	Increase
Wages -----	\$3. 00	\$0. 15
Benefits -----	1. 00	
Liberalization of benefits -----		. 05
Liberalization of benefits -----		. 05
Total -----	4. 00	. 25
Percent increase :	$\frac{.25}{4.00} = 6.25$	

¹³ \$3,000 in a majority of States; however, an increasing number have higher limits.

¹⁴ Some of these formulas are presented on the worksheet. Formulas for equal timing calculations are also presented because compound interest tables do not normally show such rates for fractions of a year. A more complete list of formulas, together with a discussion of

their derivation and accuracy, will be given in the appendix to the reprint of this article. For actual timing, the first approximation of the annual rate (disregarding compounding) can be computed for 2 years by dividing the ratio by 3 (1 plus 2) and for 3 years by dividing by 6 (1 plus 2 plus 3), and so on. The formulas in the appendix extend this principle to periods containing fractions of a year, and take account of compounding.

¹⁵ Wage reopenings and deferred wage adjustments are alternative means of adjusting pay during the life of multi-year agreements. Currently, deferred adjustments are far more popular. Under collective bargaining situations affecting 1,000 workers or more (excluding agreements covering government employees), roughly 4 times as many workers were scheduled to receive deferred wage increases in 1968 as were covered by 1968 wage reopening provisions.

Standards for decisions

The Government has worked to evoke a general awareness of the importance of price and wage restraint among business, labor, and the public. These efforts date back to the Economic Reports of President Eisenhower in the late 1950's. A more explicit formulation was proposed in the Council's 1962 Annual Report in the form of wage-price guideposts. In subsequent Reports, these guideposts evolved gradually—a process described in detail in the Council's 1967 Annual Report.

As initially set forth in 1962, the guideposts stated:

The general guide for noninflationary wage behavior is that the rate of increase in wage rates (including fringe benefits) in each industry be equal to the trend rate of overall productivity increase. . . .

The general guide for noninflationary price behavior calls for price reduction if the industry's rate of productivity increase exceeds the overall rate—for this would mean declining unit labor costs; it calls for an appropriate increase in price if the opposite relationship prevails; and it calls for stable prices if the two rates of productivity increase are equal.

The guideposts were never intended to apply in highly competitive sectors where market forces determine prices and wages in an impersonal fashion. They are applicable to markets in which discretionary power exists. Even in these markets, short run exceptions have always been recognized when changes in relative prices and wages are necessary to facilitate shifts in the use of labor and capital, or where substandard wages exist.

—*Economic Report of the President to the Congress January 1969 Together With the Annual Report of the Council of Economic Advisors* (Washington, 1969), p. 118.

Federal mediators resolve
a limited number of disputes
between Government agencies and
employees, but lack of authority at agency
levels and limited scope of bargaining
present problems

WILLOUGHBY ABNER

The FMCS and dispute mediation in the Federal Government

CAN A FEDERAL AGENCY mediate disputes between the Government and trade unions representing its employees? The Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service has experimented with mediation in such disputes over the past 3½ years, and conclusions may now be drawn from the results.

For some time after the issuance of Executive Order 10988 in 1962, the official Government view did not encourage the use of mediation. This view had particular significance for the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service because of requests for assistance it received during this early period. After consulting with the FMCS and others, the Civil Service Commission (CSC) issued Bulletin 700-5 on April 30, 1962.

This bulletin emphasized that Executive Order 10988 does not assign any responsibility to the FMCS to give labor relations advice to other agencies or departments, nor does it specifically authorize the Service to provide mediation assistance in collective bargaining disputes within the Federal service. While lack of specific authorization is not an outright prohibition, the CSC bulletin, with which the FMCS agreed at that time, ended requests for its involvement in such bargaining disputes for 2 or 3 years.

The picture began to change in 1965. Events moved swiftly. Established concepts were challenged. Public employees in State and local governments grew restless. The Federal service experienced a further acceleration in union growth and activity. Many unions and agencies were not satisfied with impasse provisions for factfinding or did not want to pay a private mediator's fee.

Willoughby Abner was special assistant to the director of the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service when he wrote this article. He is now Vice President of the American Arbitration Association and Director of its national Center for Dispute Settlement.

About 4 years ago, the hiatus ended, and the need for FMCS mediation assistance became increasingly clear. The Service reevaluated its 1962 position; but the executive order, the CSC bulletin, an overloaded staff, a restricted budget, a pleasant relationship with other agencies, and a healthy skepticism about mediating disputes in the Federal service confronted the FMCS.

Recognizing that mediation is not a panacea and aware of its limitations, the FMCS decided that mediation could prove useful in resolving negotiation impasses in the Federal service. It initiated a series of discussions with representatives of CSC, several other agencies and departments, and Federal employee unions. These representatives also took another look at the possibilities of the mediation process. It was agreed that some information based on actual dispute mediation experience in the Federal service was necessary.

In 1965, the FMCS adopted an unpublicized policy and procedure for considering mediation requests in the Federal service. Among other things, this policy included the following provisions: (1) All requests for mediation had to be screened and decided upon at the national office level in Washington, D.C. (2) No request would be considered unless made jointly by both parties and usually in writing. (3) No request would be considered unless, following genuine bargaining efforts, both parties agreed that an impasse had been reached. (4) In the event a joint request was approved, the FMCS would select and assign the individual mediator. (5) The mediator assigned would be available only for a limited period of time or a limited number of joint meetings, as the situation dictated.

This policy restricted the consideration of mediation requests and was dictated by staff limitations, budget considerations, an unspecified authority, and an uncertainty, if not reluctance,

about the venture itself. The resulting experience, though limited to 40 cases, is both significant and illuminating.

Federal dispute cases

In the average case handled by a Federal mediator, the agreement negotiated covered a bargaining unit of about 1,820 employees. (This average excludes the Post Office Department where the bargaining unit consisted of some 600,000 employees.) The average number of employees in the establishment (bargaining unit plus other employees in the installation or office) was 5,740. (This average excludes both the Post Office Department and the Bureau of Fisheries.) Fifty-eight percent of the contracts negotiated were for a 1-year period; the remaining 42 percent were for a period of 2 years.

The average number of joint conferences per case chaired by Federal mediators was 4.2. This ranged from a low of 1 to a high of 21 joint meetings. The average number of disputed issues per case was five. However, the number of disputed issues ranged from a low of 1 to a high of 20.

Contract disputes

In a brief period of time and under restrictive requirements, the FMCS assigned Federal mediators to 40 contract dispute cases between Federal agencies and unions representing Federal employees. Six of these contract dispute cases are current, the remaining cases have been closed. Of those 34, all but 4 were successfully concluded, and agreement was reached at the bargaining table without referral to higher authority.

The significant aspects of this development are that in each case the parties had been negotiating for many months—in some cases for 2 or 3 years—and that they agreed, in writing, that they were at impasse, unable to conclude an agreement, and needed and requested professional mediation assistance. The contract disputes successfully mediated involved negotiation at varying levels: Installation level, bureau level, agency level, and department level. The level at which the negotiations began was the level at which they were concluded in all but two instances.

In terms of employees affected, the mediated settlements ranged from fewer than 100 up to more than 600,000 employees. Federal agencies in-

involved included the Post Office Department, Army, Navy, Air Force, Commerce, Interior, Social Security Administration (Health, Education, and Welfare), Veterans' Administration, and the Tennessee Valley Authority. The unions involved were the seven national AFL-CIO postal unions, several American Federation of Government Employees and Machinists lodges, several local metal trades councils, National Association of Government Employees, Federation of College Teachers, Pattern Makers, Military Sea Transport Union, National Maritime Union, Building Service Employee's Union, and Oil, Chemical and Atomic Workers Union.

Issues at impasse

Some of the disputed contract issues mediated (with an intensity rivaling that in the private sector) dealt with distributing and assigning overtime work; scheduling the workweek and night shifts; determining procedures for the layoff and recall of employees; provisions related to apprenticeship programs and training and journeyman-apprentice ratio; the extent and limitations on paid time for official union business; provisions related to promotions and transfers; procedures dealing with grievance machinery, disciplinary action, adverse action appeals, arbitration and mediation; provisions affecting work classification, job descriptions, and temporary intermittent hires; requirements dealing with reporting sick leave and annual leave and effect on overtime; problems related to administrative leave, parking space, and other general working conditions.

The Service's entrance in a case usually followed many months of negotiations. FMCS mediators could not be effective nor could they be committed at such a leisurely pace. Since the threat of the strike and lockout which often produce crisis bargaining, an impending deadline, and the pressure to reach agreement are absent in the Federal picture, the mediators were forced to innovate. In one case, the parties had been negotiating for 15 months without concluding an agreement. After 3 days on the scene, the mediator announced he was withdrawing if agreement was not reached by the end of the sixth day. On the fifth day, an agreement was concluded.

In another case, negotiations had dragged on for 10 or 11 months. The FMCS announced that the mediator would be available for a certain number

of bargaining sessions. An agreement was reached in six bargaining sessions, well under the allotted number. In still other cases, no specific limitations were feasible or necessary.

While this experimentation continues, another related development has taken place. Increasingly, Federal agencies and unions negotiate provisions asking the services of the FMCS in impasse situations. This is done in a variety of ways in both local and national agreements. The most notable in the national category are the agreements between the Post Office Department and the seven AFL-CIO postal unions and between the Department of Labor and the AFGE National Council of Field Labor Lodges. These agreements, like most others, recognize the right of the FMCS to opt out because of its limitations.

The Department of the Navy is the only Federal agency that blanketed all of its installations under the mediation process and specified procedures to be followed before the joint request for mediation is made to the FMCS, in the event of negotiation impasse. A significant aspect of this procedure is its built-in self-screening process requiring the request for mediation to be made jointly at the national level of the union and the Office of Civilian Manpower Management.

Conclusions and challenges

It is now clear that mediation in the Federal service has worked in those contract dispute cases assigned to Federal mediators. In nearly every case, the parties reached agreement. However, it would be a mistake to "overconclude" from what must still be considered a limited experience in a small number of cases. The joint request requirement automatically screens out contract dispute cases where either party refuses to join in a request for mediation. A joint request is a frank admission by both parties of their inability to conclude an agreement without third-party assistance and usually reveals a genuine willingness to reach agreement.

Two of the major problems that will increasingly confront and challenge effective contract bargaining and the successful mediation of im-

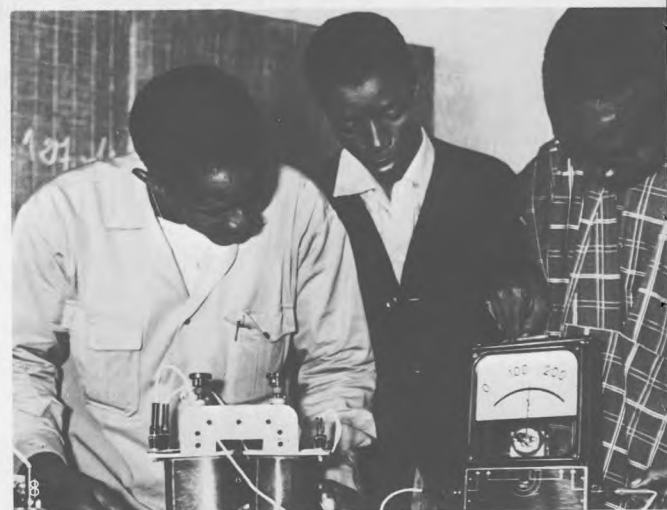
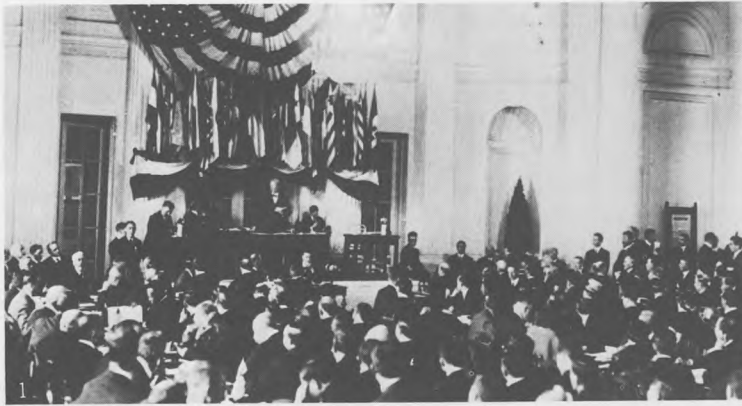
passes are the limited scope of the subject matter to be bargained over—although the scope is wider than many unions and Federal managers believe or, will accept—and the overcentralization of authority in labor-management affairs at the department or agency level, particularly when negotiations are not conducted at that level.

The scope of contract bargaining in the Federal service is governed by legislation; Executive Order 10988; CSC and agency regulations, rules, procedures and practices; and the way negotiators and their superiors respond to and interpret the foregoing. It is this wide range in attitude, sophistication, and interpretation and knowledge of regulations among Federal managers that largely accounts for the wide range in results achieved at the bargaining table.

To the extent that the scope of bargaining is circumscribed by executive order, any and all challenges here must await revision or enactment of broader legislation. One or the other is inevitable and overdue.

The second challenge could be dealt with now and ease the developing pressure of the first challenge since, in most cases, it would expand the actual scope of bargaining. Within Government, the test of the validity of an agency policy or regulation should not be the mere fact that it exists, but how functionally operative it is, how relevant it is to today's circumstances, how responsive it is to the agency's mission, and how equitable to employee needs. The truth of the matter is that almost every department and agency of Government has ponderous and outdated regulations, procedures, and practices, geared to another time. What is needed is a complete review of existing regulations, policies, practices, and instructions with the intent of delegating greater authority and decision-making power to subordinate units down to the installation level in the area of union-management and employee relations. Such delegation, where feasible, would introduce flexibility where there is now rigidity. Where uniformity is essential, authority could center at the negotiating level appropriate to maintain it.

The total result would be more relevant and meaningful bargaining in the Federal service. □



the ILO at 50



3

The making of the Treaty of Versailles and the establishment of the League of Nations after World War I expressed international hopes for a better world based on peace and justice. Created under the treaty, the International Labor Organization represented an embodiment of those hopes. The ILO began in 1919 when government, worker, and employer delegates from 40 nations set about promoting world peace by improving the economic and social conditions of workers.

The photographs on these pages span a half century of ILO activity, beginning with the first conference (1) at the Pan American Union, Washington, D.C., with W. B. Wilson (2), the first U.S. Secretary of Labor, presiding. Key early ILO figures (3) were Samuel Gompers, left, first president of the American Federation of Labor, and Albert Thomas, the ILO's first director.



6



7

Over the years, the ILO has helped raise international labor standards, working, for example, to abolish child labor (4), promoting safety standards (5) and campaigning for international agreements (6) to protect the right of workers to organize into trade unions of their choosing.

Through its more recent programs of technical assistance, the ILO has helped workers in the developing nations acquire new skills (7, 8, 9). U.S. delegates (10) Edwin P. Neilan, George L-P Weaver, George P. Delaney, and Rudolph Faupl are shown at a recent ILO meeting.



9



10

In the pages that follow, six participants in ILO affairs view the work of the organization from different vantage points. A further assessment of the ILO is planned for publication in the *Monthly Labor Review* following the 1969 ILO Conference in Geneva.

The ILO at 50

How it began and how it functions

JOHN E. LAWYER

SINCE THE establishment of the International Labor Organization—the ILO—in 1919, there has been a tremendous rise in the aspirations of mankind with respect to living and working conditions. During these five decades, the ILO has adapted its programs accordingly. It has pursued its objectives of promoting human rights and improving material standards for the common man, irrespective of race, creed, or sex. As a result the individual is better able to achieve his aspirations flowing from worldwide economic growth.

Despite its 50-year history, and the United States being a member of the organization since 1934, neither the ILO nor its work is well known in the United States. The purpose of this article is to outline the origin, structure, and functions of the ILO in order to promote a wider understanding of the organization.

Postwar origin

The creation of the ILO in 1919 reflected the sharp increase in the social consciousness of European Governments after World War I. At the time of the Peace Conference in Paris, immediately following the Armistice, the world was in a state of turmoil and unrest. Industry was disrupted. Workers of all nations were demanding a solution to postwar problems of unemployment, and wages and other working conditions, partially in recognition of their sacrifices during the war. France, defeated Germany, and other nations, were trying to rebuild their war-torn social and economic institutions. Troops were mobilized in Paris to control a general strike and the threat of Communism hung over Europe.

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While conditions prevailing in 1919 were contemporary factors, the concept of developing labor standards through international agreements was not a new one. This concept, subsequently reflected in the charter of the ILO, evolved from the efforts of industrialist Robert Owens early in the 19th century. It was pursued through continuing action by governments, and by workers' organizations in the following decades, and culminated in the International Association for Labor Legislation at the turn of the century. By 1906, the International Association's research activities were already well along and two international conventions had been adopted. One of these prohibited the use of white phosphorus, a poisonous substance then used in the manufacture of matches. The other prohibited night work for women in industry except in small industries. Work of the International Association looking to the adoption of further conventions was halted by the outbreak of war. Its experience, however, was fresh in the minds of the statesmen attending the Peace Conference.

The forces that impelled establishment of the ILO in 1919 were both idealistic and practical. They were idealistic in the sense that world leaders believed lasting peace could only be based on social justice, which, in turn, required the improvement of working conditions, the elimination of poverty, and the general betterment of living conditions. From the practical viewpoint, it was considered that competition for world markets precluded the improvement of labor standards in one industry or one country unless there was similar improvement elsewhere. The collection and analysis of industrial data was required to provide a basis for action and advice on social legislation and administration. Moreover, a flexible institution was needed to deal with these far-reaching problems, an institution whose organs would be responsive to different and even antagonistic elements of national populations.

The ILO was created in April 1919 to be that institution, combining in one organization governmental representation and representation of the other interests directly concerned—workers and employers. Its constitution was drafted by the Conference Commission on International Labor Legislation which met for 10 weeks under the chairmanship of Samuel Gompers,¹ the first president of the American Federation of Labor. In the course of these sessions the 15 members of the commission were able to resolve conflicting views on the functioning and structure of the new organization and to present an agreed document before the full conference for approval. On April 11, 1919, this document became part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles. With certain amendments, this instrument remains today as the charter of the organization.

Relationship to UN

Membership in the ILO is obtained through one of two ways. Any member state of the United Nations may join merely by communicating to the Director-General of the ILO that it formally accepts the ILO's constitutional obligations. A non-member of the UN must apply to the ILO, and its application is passed upon by the ILO Conference. A two-thirds majority of the delegates attending the conference, including two-thirds of the government delegates, is required for admission. After acceptance by the conference, the admission becomes effective when the new member communicates its formal acceptance of the constitutional obligations. In recent years, practically all of the new members have entered through the United Nations channel.

Today, the ILO is an autonomous organization associated with the United Nations. This relationship flows from a formal agreement, negotiated and approved by the ILO and the United Nations in 1946. Under this agreement, the ILO was recognized as a specialized agency "responsible for taking such action as may be appropriate under its basic instrument for the accomplishment of the purposes set forth therein." Ever since, it has been recognized within the United Nations family as having special responsibility for labor and social questions. Workers, employers, and governments of its 119-member States share in the making of

decisions and shaping of policy within the organization. It is operating on a current budget of about \$27 million.

Division of responsibility

From the structural viewpoint, the ILO is a fairly simple organization, composed of three separate bodies, with complementary activities and responsibilities, which are defined in the ILO constitution; the International Labor Conference, the Governing Body of the International Labor Office, and the International Labor Office. There is no "supreme" body in the strict sense.

INTERNATIONAL LABOR CONFERENCE. Members of the ILO are sovereign states that meet annually to develop international labor standards, adopt a budget, establish broad policy lines, and provide a world forum for the discussion of social and labor questions. Each national delegation is tripartite, being composed of four delegates, two from government, and one each from workers and employers. The delegates may be accompanied by advisers. Under the ILO constitution, nongovernment delegates and advisers must be chosen in agreement with the industrial organizations that "are most representative of employers or work people, as the

ILO credo

Labor is not a commodity.

Freedom of expression and of association are essential to sustained progress.

Poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere.

The war against want requires to be carried on with unrelenting vigor within each nation, and by continuous and concerted international effort in which the representatives of workers and employers, enjoying equal status with those of governments, join with them in free discussion and democratic decision with a view to the promotion of the common welfare.

—From Article I of the Annex to the ILO Constitution, containing the Declaration of Philadelphia.

case may be. . . ." Thus, worker and employer delegates are selected in consultation with the American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations, and the Chamber of Commerce of the United States. The employer and worker delegates are entitled to act individually at the conference, contrary to the so-called unitary rule under which international agreements are reached by national delegations voting as a single unit. This innovation gives the organization a special character—representation on the basis of common interests rather than national allegiance—and accounts in part for its long history in protecting and promoting human rights and labor standards.

The constituencies represented by the employer and worker delegates to the conference are primarily national in character but their interests may cut across national boundaries. To be effective in support of their respective interests, the employer and worker delegates combine in groups and in this way reduce the differences arising from national viewpoints within the groups. This action permits adoption of coherent policies by the groups as a whole, since each worker or employer delegate must give due weight to internationally relevant circumstances, rather than solely to problems of national interest.

GOVERNING BODY. The Governing Body, which may be likened to the executive body of most any corporation, meets 3 or 4 times annually to coordinate the work of the organization and to decide questions of policy and program. It elects the Director-General of the International Labor Office and supervises the work of the office and all subsidiary organs, regional meetings, industrial committees and meetings of experts. It is composed of 48 members, of which 24 represent governments, 12, employers, and 12, workers. Ten of the governments, including the United States, hold permanent seats, which are reserved for member states of chief industrial importance. All other members are elected by the annual conference every third year. The next election is to be held in June 1969.²

The employer and worker members of the Governing Body are closely associated with employer and worker organizations in their own countries but they are elected by international constituencies consisting of all the employer and worker delegates, respectively, at the International Labor

Conference. Thus, the constituencies for which these members speak on the Governing Body represent interests that are essentially international in character.

INTERNATIONAL LABOR OFFICE. Located in Geneva, the International Labor Office is headed by a Director-General, elected by the Governing Body. It is staffed by about 2,700 officials, including technical cooperation experts of some 98 nationalities. It serves as a research center, publishing house and operational headquarters, and provides the secretariat for all meetings. The headquarters work of the office is supplemented by a worldwide network of field services.³

Major activities

The concept of lasting peace based on social justice—upon which the ILO was founded—can be equated to social progress. The primary effort of the ILO has been to promote social progress by encouraging the voluntary efforts of member states to eliminate conditions of poverty and improve the general welfare of workers. Four principal methods are employed by the ILO in this effort: Standard setting, research and informational programs, technical cooperation, and educational activities.

STANDARD SETTING. The ILO brings together labor, management, and government representatives of its 119 member States who work through the democratic procedures of the annual conference to formulate international labor standards, covering a wide range of matters—from hours of work to radiation protection, from survivors' insurance to fishermen's articles of agreement, from migration for employment to holidays with pay. Particular interest attaches to standards dealing with basic human rights such as freedom of association and collective bargaining, forced labor, and the elimination of discrimination in employment. Since a two-thirds majority is required for the adoption of a standard, they represent the fruit of informed world opinion.

The adoption of standards—either a convention or recommendation by the conference—involves a long, complicated process spanning more than 3 years. During this time the subject matter or content of the future instrument is considered by gov-

ernments, employers, and workers no less than 5 times, including periods of 2 or 3 weeks in 2 successive years where the proposals are debated in tripartite technical committees of the conference and shaped for final action by the entire conference. There are now 260 such instruments in the form of conventions and recommendations covering nearly every type of labor condition.

Under the ILO Constitution, all member States must submit conventions and recommendations to their competent national authority, Congress in the case of the United States. The submission, *per se*, does not create an obligation. However, a convention may be ratified by the government—and this decision lies solely within the discretion of the government—through the normal parliamentary process and when ratified becomes a binding international obligation between the ratifying countries. A series of complementary procedures are provided by the ILO Constitution for international supervision of the implementation and application of ratified conventions. Recommendations are not open to ratification, for, as the name suggests, they are merely recommended guidelines for particular situations.

The six mutually complementary procedures that provide for international supervision over the application of conventions are (1) submission of conventions to national authorities; (2) reporting by member States on the measures taken by them to give effect to the provisions of conventions to which they are parties; (3) reporting by members on the position of their law and practices in regard to matters dealt with in conventions which they have not ratified; (4) examination by the Governing Body of representations by employer or worker associations that a member State has failed to secure effective observance within its jurisdiction of a convention to which it is a party; (5) examination by the Governing Body, and, if the Governing Body so decides by a commission of inquiry appointed by it, of a complaint filed by a delegate to the conference, or by a member that another member is failing to secure the effective observance of a convention which both have ratified, a procedure which includes the possibility of an appeal to the International Court of Justice; and (6) reference to the International Court of Justice of any question or dispute relating to the

interpretation of the constitution or of any convention concluded in pursuance thereof. These procedures, separately and combined, are highly effective in promoting and supervising the application of conventions by ratifying countries.

Well over 3,000 convention ratifications have been deposited by Governments with the International Labor Office in Geneva, but the influence of these standards is by no means limited to countries which formally accept them. Both the conventions and recommendations serve as benchmarks for national action, indicate objectives to be reached and methods to be followed, and are a guide to all who strive for the betterment of working conditions and the achievement of social progress.

RESEARCH AND INFORMATIONAL PROGRAMS. Another major function of the organization is the collection and analysis of factual information about labor and industrial conditions, the administration of social legislation, the preparation of relevant studies, and the publication of this material. This function is discharged by the International Labor Office. Thus, for example, research is conducted in such fields as automation, general conditions of work, occupational safety and health, social security, management development, vocational training, manpower, labor law and administration, workers' education, and discrimination. In addition, all of the conference reports which serve as the basis for technical discussion by the annual conference and other meetings of the organization, are prepared by the ILO. Without the essential working data provided by the office, none of the activities of the organization could be successfully carried forward. In providing this material, the ILO fulfills one of the basic purposes for which it was created.

TECHNICAL COOPERATION. While the provision of expert, technical advice to its members is not a new field for the ILO, the activity has been greatly emphasized in recent years. Today, the major activity of the ILO is its operational programs of technical assistance to its member States to help develop better methods of production, sound and peaceful labor relations, more efficient manpower institutions, and to cope with the many other problems of economic and social development that must

be solved to permit the successful, democratic evolution of an industrially underdeveloped society.

Programs are carried out by the International Labor Office under the regular budget of the ILO, under trust fund and related arrangements, and as executing agency of manpower projects under the United Nations Development Program (UNDP). In 1968, funds for these programs amounted to more than \$21 million, the vast majority of the projects being concerned with management development and vocational training. About 43 percent of the project money is expended in Africa, 20 percent in Latin America, 22 percent in Asia, 6 percent in the Middle East, 6 percent in Europe, with 2 percent devoted to interregional projects.

Nearly 800 ILO experts are now engaged throughout the world in carrying out technical assistance projects in ergonomics, handicrafts, management development, workers' education, mechanics, vocational training, electrical training, industrial engineering, electronics, computers, welding, tool and die making, building trades, and many other fields. The ever-increasing demand for qualified experts exceeds the available supply and presents a continuing recruitment problem.

EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITY. An important educational dimension has also been added in recent years to the ILO. In 1962, the International Institute for Labor Studies became operational in Geneva. The institute functions primarily as an advanced staff college for practitioners in the labor and social field. At the end of 1965, the International Center for Advanced Technical and Vocational Training opened under the auspices of the ILO in Turin. This center provides advanced training in a wide variety of fields of management and vocational training. A recent agreement between the center and the School of Industrial and Labor Relations at Cornell University will enable American professors to participate in the work of the center.

The staff of the ILO has the composite experience of 50 years of successful operations, coupled with an expert knowledge of prevailing conditions throughout the world. In addition, it has the advantage of being able to draw upon the technical resources and experience of governments, and of workers and employers, and their organizations. Then, too, the organization is comparatively free of the political turmoil that plagues the United Nations and a number of other international organizations so that the major portion of its efforts can be devoted to substantive activity in its chosen fields. With this foundation and the unfilled needs that exist today in the developing countries, the ILO is in a position to accelerate its promotion of social progress through the voluntary efforts of member States in eliminating conditions of poverty and improving the general welfare of workers. □

FOOTNOTES

¹ In addition to Mr. Gompers, the American Federation of Labor mission to the Peace conference was composed of Frank Duffy, International Secretary, Carpenters and Joiners; William Green, Secretary-Treasurer of the United Mine Workers and later President of the AFL; John R. Alpine, President, Plumbers and Pipe Fitters; and James Duncan, First Vice President of the AFL and President of the Granite Cutters.

² Elected members of both employers' and workers' groups on the Governing Body include an individual from the United States. Rudolph Faupl, International Representative of the International Association of Machinists and Aerospace Workers, is currently a worker member; and Edwin P. Neilan, Chairman of the Board of the Bank of Delaware, is an employer member. The Special Assistant to the Secretary of Labor for International Affairs, George L-P Weaver, is United States Representative on the Governing Body.

³ The present Director-General is David A. Morse, who was first elected in 1948 and has served longer than any of his four predecessors.

The ILO at 50

A government delegate's view

GEORGE L-P WEAVER

Among the several international organizations meeting frequently, debating extensively, and adopting numerous declarations, covenants, resolutions, conventions, and recommendations, the International Labor Organization is the only body that functions with workers and employers sharing with governments the responsibility for decisions and policies of the organization. In addition, it is the only institution that has established international machinery to supervise the implementation and application of international labor standards.

At present, the ILO is carrying out technical cooperation projects, performing research, establishing international labor standards and serving as an information clearing house. It seeks to fulfill its major objective of assisting national governments to improve the working and living conditions of workers, to work towards eradication of poverty, to strive for an equitable distribution of national wealth, and to help workers in developing their highest individual capacities.

From its inception, the ILO, in response to the changing needs of its membership, has made almost continuous adjustments of a minor character in its programs and functions. However, twice during its 50-year existence, it has found it desirable to pause to examine closely its structure and its program of activities and to lay out a new course for the future responsive to changing world conditions. The first review was in the 1940's, near the end of World War II; the second, during the present decade.

First review

To maintain all possible activities during the war period, a special conference of the International Labor Organization was convened in October 1941 in New York to survey world social developments and "to discuss the present and future responsibilities of the ILO." Although it did not have normal constitutional powers, it adopted a series of resolutions reflecting the consensus of

the conference. One of these, in part, urged that the ILO should "be in a position to give authoritative expression to the social objectives confided to it in the rebuilding of a peaceful world upon the basis of improved labor standards, economic advancement, and social security." At the next regular session of the conference in Philadelphia in 1944, the 41 participating member States formulated a new definition of the ILO's aims and purposes. This definition—known as the Declaration of Philadelphia—marked a turning point for the ILO. While the Declaration reaffirmed the general principles established for the ILO in 1919, it focused attention on new program directions: cooperation within the framework of the United Nations system, increased emphasis on human rights, expanded technical cooperation, attention to rural population, educational activity, and intensification of regional activities. The declaration is a landmark statement of modern economic and social thinking.

Second review

After World War II, newly independent nations, largely in Asia and Africa, increased the membership of the ILO from 50 to 96 by 1960 and to 119 by 1969. Recognizing the need to have the views of the new members reflected in all organs and to provide adequate representation for this purpose, the organization moved in 1954 and 1963 to enlarge the governing body, the industrial and technical committees, and the regional advisory bodies. At the same time, the

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organization instituted procedures for a complete appraisal of policy, a full examination of its program and structure, and a search for new approaches. A start has been made toward reorganizing and modernizing the International Labor Office. Functions and activities have been more efficiently grouped and an up-to-date biennial program budget system has been inaugurated. In addition, the network of field services is being expanded and strengthened, and a program of decentralization and regionalization has been initiated to permit transfer of basic decisionmaking power to the field under the general policy guidance of the Geneva headquarters. The implementation of this program has been understandably slowed by proponents of centralized control, but the demands of member States for rapid action in the field will eventually result in its completion.

The structural problem

Although general agreement exists among the member States that ILO programs are relatively balanced at present, no such consensus exists with respect to the structure of the ILO. The working party, appointed by the ILO Governing Body in 1964 to make recommendations concerning ILO programs and structure, here concerned itself with the composition and work of the Governing Body, various aspects of the ILO Conference, and the relationship between the Governing Body and the conference. The vast majority of the working party found little merit in proposals to change the structure of the organization and all of the reports of the working party are to be considered by the 53d session of the conference in June 1969.

At the 1969 conference, some of the developing countries, possibly in concert with some in the Communist bloc, may seek to obtain the dominance of the conference over the Governing Body by instituting a series of proposals requiring constitutional amendments. Developing countries command a majority of the votes in the United Nations and they have gained control of the major specialized agencies such as the Food and Agriculture Organization, the World Health Organization, and the United Nations Educational and Scientific Council, all of which are intergovernmental organizations. The history of the working party reveals that the developing countries probably do not com-

mand the necessary two-thirds majority vote, again due to the tripartite structure, to obtain the required constitutional changes in the ILO—changes that would not be considered in the best interests of the developed countries, which bear the primary financial burden. This issue will probably be resolved by the conference this year.

Tripartitism

The ILO is not a political organ such as the Security Council of the United Nations and, as a consequence, is able to devote its major efforts to the economic, social, and labor fields. Occasionally, political issues do intrude, however, just as in any international organization, but the ability of the ILO to cope with these situations derives in part from the influence of the employers' and workers' organizations, which tend to provide a moderating influence not present in other intergovernmental organizations.

The full and active participation of employers' and workers' organizations in all aspects of the organization's work undoubtedly accounts in large measure for its survival since 1919 as well as its growth. At the same time, tripartitism—the three-cornered decisionmaking arrangement—has over the years given rise to some difficult problems, such as that involving the status and participation of Italian worker delegates under the Fascist regime and employer and worker delegates from Communist countries. Problems of this nature have not been and probably cannot be resolved to the entire satisfaction of all concerned, but a *modus operandi* gradually emerges sufficient to contain the problems within reasonable limits. If the tripartite character of the ILO is to remain strong, governments of member States must accept their responsibilities to send bona fide tripartite delegations to all ILO meetings and to insure the independence of the nongovernmental delegates. Generally, records of governments in this regard are respectable, but instances continue to arise where the obligation to appoint employer or worker delegates is not honored or the independence of such delegates is not always respected. These failures are closely examined by the conference at each session and continuing efforts are made to find means to prevent such occurrences, for it is through the tripartite participation that the orga-

nization remains abreast of current social developments and makes its greatest contribution to social progress.

Balanced programs

Tripartite participation is also an important factor in the budgeting process through which a balance is maintained between the three major program areas: Human resources development, conditions of life and work, and social institutions development. This balance is naturally influenced by the needs and desires of member States so that the relevant emphasis tends to shift from one period to another but the interests of employers' and workers' organizations are also a major factor. In implementing these programs, the organization employs four primary methods: technical cooperation, standard setting, informational and research activities, and educational activities. While in order of magnitude technical cooperation leads the list, due to the extensive financing received from the United Nations and other extra-budgetary sources, the other activities are equally important due to their interlocking and complementary nature. Thus, for example, the international labor standards adopted by the conference are based on extensive research performed by the International Labor Office and guide the work of the technical cooperation experts, while educational facilities sponsored by the office provide training for participants in technical cooperation projects. All of these methods contribute vitally to efforts of the ILO to achieve its primary objective of promoting social progress.

U.S. ratifications

The ratification of ILO conventions by member States is one measure utilized by the organization in determining progress. Ratification is the acceptance by a member State, in accordance with its parliamentary procedures, of the provisions of the convention as a binding, international obligation, and agreement to apply the provisions of the convention within its borders.

Since it became a member in 1934, the United States has participated in the development of many conventions but has ratified only seven—six relating to maritime affairs and one relating

to procedural changes in the ILO constitution flowing from the dissolution of the League of Nations. In these seven instances, the subject matter of the conventions fell within the exclusive jurisdiction of the Federal Government and was deemed appropriate for Federal action. With respect to most of the other conventions adopted by the ILO, the U.S. Government has determined, in accordance with Article 19, 7(b), of the ILO Constitution, that they were "appropriate under its constitutional system, in whole or in part, for action by the constituent States. . . ." It has, accordingly, submitted the conventions to the Congress and to the individual States for information and for such action as these bodies might deem appropriate but has not sought their ratification. In several instances, however, where the Government has determined that the subject matter was appropriate for Federal action—for example, in connection with Convention No. 87 (1948), Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize; Convention No. 105 (1957), Abolition of Forced Labor; and Convention No. 122 (1964), Employment Policy—the President of the United States has submitted the conventions to the U.S. Senate with a request for advice and consent to ratification but has not yet received favorable action by the Senate.

The number of ratifications is one measure of the social progress of a country. Another measure, equally important, is the actual level of living standards and conditions of employment existing within a country, whether resulting from the ratification of a convention or from social and economic factors within a country. Although the United States has not ratified many conventions, its labor standards, due to the combination of social and economic factors, constitutional guarantees, Federal and State legislation, and collective bargaining, are among the highest in the world. In general, they equal or exceed those established by ILO standards. This does not mean, of course, that labor standards are identical throughout the United States or that those of all 50 States equal or exceed ILO standards. It does mean that on an overall basis, progress in the United States in the areas covered by ILO Conventions compares favorably with that of the most advanced countries, despite our failure to equal their volume of ratification. However, it would be to the political ad-

vantage of the United States to ratify certain conventions, particularly those in the human rights field (such as forced labor and freedom of association) where there can be no question about our level of accomplishment. The achievement of this goal, however, is still a matter for the future.

Multilateral advantages

The ILO's programs, methods of operation, and experienced staff make it a very useful instrument for assisting newly emerging nations along the path of social and economic development. It is a democratic institution, dedicated to principles fully consistent with foreign policy objectives of the United States. Its essential orientation is towards developing free institutions in its field of special competence—the improvement of the living and working conditions of labor throughout the world. In addition, it provides a forum where representatives of employers' and workers' organizations in the United States can explain the benefits of our social and economic system to their counterparts from all over the world and exchange industrial experiences. From a pecuniary viewpoint, there are financial advantages to the United States in working through the ILO in that the cost of bilateral programs must be borne solely by the United States while multilateral programs in the ILO cost 25 percent of the total (our share of the budget) and up to 40 percent under projects financed through the United Nations Development Program. Moreover, multilateral approaches can frequently achieve objectives not feasible through bilateral programs due to the desire of neutral countries to avoid involvement in East-West problems.

New employment program

The value of the ILO should become even more marked in the years ahead. During its 50th anniversary conference this year, it will launch the World Employment Program—the first worldwide ILO project to promote training and employment. The program is largely made up of three regional plans—the Ottawa plan for the Americas, the Asian manpower plan, and the African jobs

and skills program—tailored to the specific needs and conditions of each region. A program for the Middle East will also be developed. The World Employment Program is designed to provide a framework for solving common problems and for pooling experience and techniques on an inter-regional basis.

Through the program, an effort will be made to involve more fully the peoples of the developing countries in the planning and implementation of employment programs, to concentrate on those sectors of the population that have been bypassed and to bring into the productive labor force all those who have the capacity or the potential to make a contribution to society. It will aim at improved skills development, working conditions, and higher levels of employment.

The success of the plan will depend upon the extent to which each of the participating member States develops essential national plans, upon the allocation of sufficient manpower and national resources for the implementation of such plans, and upon securing widespread, internal participation and cooperation, particularly through employers' and workers' organizations. The ILO can only assist and encourage national governments in the planning process, but the basic initiatives must come from within the governments themselves.

Throughout its history, the ILO has maintained an autonomous existence. However, during the past 25 years, it has engaged in active cooperation with the United Nations and its family of specialized agencies, entering into formal agreements with the United Nations and with a number of the specialized agencies. It also cooperates with others on a less formal basis. Both the formal agreements and informal cooperation are designed to prevent duplication of effort, thereby conserving scarce international resources.

The World Employment Program should enhance the growth of this joint effort, for the ILO must work with a number of the specialized agencies—in agriculture, health, education and training, and industry—to evolve solutions to the problems that are bound to arise, including unemployment and underemployment, improvement of rural life, family planning, increased food production, and improvement of education and training. □

The ILO at 50 A management assessment

EDWIN P. NEILAN

FROM THE BEGINNING, the composition of a country's delegation to the ILO Conference consisted of two government delegates plus one worker and one employer delegate, and the theory appeared to be that the worker and employer delegates would work together as a balance for the government delegates. This has not always been the case. In recent years, quite frequently the worker group or the employer group has found itself on the government side. The tripartite strength of the organization, however, was evident when the League of Nations failed while the ILO, a part of this international organization, did not. The League, which was restricted to governments, failed in the 1930's because many governments opposed it and the resulting political implications caused it to disappear.

In contrast, the ILO survived as a strong and vigorous organization largely because of the influence of workers and employers who insisted that the objectives of the ILO were superior to the political aspects of international organizations. In World War II, the organization migrated to Canada but still preserved its essential features and, after the founding of the United Nations organization, affiliated itself with this new major international political structure as a specialized agency engaged in promoting economic and social justice.

Key function

There have always been questions about the most important function of the ILO. A number of the workers' groups and some governments view its primary purpose as that of standard setting. The difficulty in this viewpoint is that standards that are applicable to a highly developed country may, in fact, hamper and obstruct the development of the new nations with their less comprehensive in-

dustrial structure. Economic development has, therefore, become a progressively important factor in the work of the ILO. The ILO understands that basic to social improvements is the economic ability of a nation to underwrite social improvements without unnecessarily obstructing the nation's economic advance.

Technical training of labor instructors and of the labor force generally has been a rather major element in economic development, and the ILO has accomplished a great deal in this direction. From the standpoint of United States employers, the principal function of the ILO is to isolate and consider needs for improved working conditions and to create an understanding by governments as well as by workers' organizations of the necessity to adopt programs, conventions, and recommendations designed to promote economically consistent improvement in the well-being of the working people and their families throughout the world.

The uniqueness of this organization provides employers and workers with the opportunity to participate directly in decisionmaking, and it should draw strong support not only from the working population but from employers and business as well. It is regrettable that one of the major U.S. employer organizations—the National Association of Manufacturers—has withdrawn from active participation in the ILO, its problems and its procedures.

U.S. performance

Essential features that the ILO sees as fundamental to progress in the world at large involve the freedom of association of both employers and workers, the abolition of forced labor, the elimination of discrimination in employment, and the payment of equal wages for equal work regardless of age, sex, or nationality. Complete freedom of association must be modified slightly because these rights must always be subject to the right of the total population to enjoy its basic freedoms.

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Although the United States has not formally ratified many conventions, the performance of the U.S. employers and labor via collective bargaining and of State and Federal governments via legislation has, in fact, achieved many of the objectives of the ILO to a greater extent than might have been possible by adoption of a treaty obligation ratifying the conventions established in the annual conferences of the ILO. Some other nations suggest the United States has not fulfilled formally the terms of many of these conventions, but contracts agreed on at the bargaining tables have in most cases applied ILO principles generally throughout the industrial relations complex of this country.

Standard setting

It should be noted that developed countries achieved their basic industrialization in a setting largely devoid of ILO or governmental standards. The latter were developed along with progress in industrialization, and with increasing recognition of workers' needs in most industries, although there were many bitter disputes about the rate of progress. In the era when business was predominantly owned by individual employers—prior to the development of larger corporate entities owned by a wide variety of stockholders—there were many instances in which standard setting was either neglected or ignored. Standards were actually set by some employers, such as the Ford Motor Co., which established better wages and led the way toward standard improvement throughout large companies within the industry.

For the future, it is impossible to make a general statement about whether entrepreneurs in developing countries would be helped or hindered by observing standards. One of the fundamental problems that employers outside of the developed countries face is the determination of how rapidly standards can be advanced and collateral costs absorbed without destroying or damaging markets in low-income areas. Marketing developments must be oriented to the purchasing power of the major part of the population or of the market in which the goods are sold. To the extent that standards raise costs, they could hinder the development of markets in certain areas. The imposition by government decree of standards of social secu-

rity or of minimum wages can produce difficult developmental repercussions.

Model construction

One of the important phases of ILO activities in the future should be the construction of economic models for individual economies, to establish the correlation between levels of basic agricultural and industrial development and acceptable costs of social security and minimum wage standards. With such guideposts, nations need not find themselves inadvertently thrust into a posture that deters or hinders growth in the standard of living because the standards imposed are too high for the state of the economy at the time in which they are imposed. Utilizing computers and the information that is now available, it should be possible for the ILO to establish basic general relationships which could be very beneficial in the future in determining when and to what extent minimum wages and social security extension might benefit a country.

An economy without capital and with a relatively low standard of living must, in effect, raise itself by its own bootstraps. As a result the home market must receive developmental priority by employers, workers, and the government if there is to be a real fundamental growth in its national product and a rise in the standard of living. Technical assistance rather than funds, which can be wasted if the technical know-how is not available, has been a perennial problem in the ILO's attempt to promote industrialization and social progress.

Looking over the history of the United States, one must note that in a climate emphasizing individual initiative, low standards did not discourage the innovator and the ambitious worker. There are, however, countries in the world in which the incentive to work hard and to innovate are difficult to achieve.

Many of the ILO conventions and recommendations, such as the abolition of forced labor and the right of freedom of association and collective bargaining, would not impair the basic growth of any country on the verge of industrialization or of economic expansion. Other conventions and recommendations, however, might have some severe economic repercussions and, therefore, it is impossible to make a general observation about the impact of

standards embodied in ILO conventions and recommendations generally. It is possible, however, to suggest that many of the standards, which are incorporated in these recommendations and conventions, are much too high for the current state of development in many of the newer countries. As a result more flexibility should be incorporated in the documents that are produced by the ILO in order to acknowledge the different basic abilities of many of its member countries.

ILO balance sheet

The activities of the ILO have had beneficial results as well as detrimental ones as far as U.S. employers are concerned. During the 35 years in which the United States has been a member, there has been a tremendous growth of legislation restricting the areas in which workers and employers can bargain freely. There appears to be little doubt that laws relating to safety and working conditions have been beneficial to both employers and workers and to their governments. But serious doubts have been expressed about wage fixing machinery, which has created unemployment and expanded welfare because the minimum wage is set at too high a level, or because there is no allowance made for a lower wage during training periods for unskilled workers, who must acquire skills to make their employment productive enough to warrant payment of minimum wages.

A careful review of the ILO discussions at the annual meetings would indicate that U.S. employers have been alerted to many developing trends of thought and conviction on the part of other employers, workers, and governments, which found their way within the next few years into the bargaining procedures of U.S. industrial relations. Some were passed by State legislatures as well as by the Federal Government. It would seem, therefore, that if U.S. employers are to play their part in the ILO, they must be constantly aware of new ideas that may be introduced in this international forum and they must, at the same time, contribute their best ideas and support to making such principles sound and generally applicable if the ILO is to serve its stated purpose. For example, imposition of an unwise social security system may transform a country into an economically troubled and unsettled nation, with destructive inflation undermining industrial and commercial structures. Progressive U.S. employers and

worker representatives can certainly do their part in trying to make sure that countries are not pressured into adopting systems that can be detrimental to their future progress.

Equally desirable is the concerted action of governments, employers, and workers, including U.S. employers to make certain that countries which adopt ILO standards make a serious attempt to apply the conventions and recommendations that have been adopted. There has been too much lip service to the principles in certain areas of the world where the conventions are adopted and either ignored or never implemented.

Principal role

From the standpoint of U.S. employers, the ILO's principal role in the next decade should be the encouragement of industrial progress, and the broadening of the agricultural-business-industrial complex of developing countries to the point where their own markets are able to supply more of the needs of their citizens and to provide the rising standard of living that is desired by all. This will require technical know-how to a great extent. While much of this technical assistance may have to be on a bilateral basis, the ILO does provide an area of collaboration, which can be helpful in situations where bilateral arrangements are either unsuitable or politically impossible.

U.S. employers must continue to insist that standards have some degree of flexibility so that they do not impose too high a cost upon countries that adopt them. The role of the ILO should be to encourage understanding between governments, their workers, and their employers so that all three facets of this lasting international organization improve communications and collaboration between themselves. Understanding and collaboration assure the best possible results from deliberations at the annual conference, as well as from the actions of the ILO Governing Body in approving the programs and policies of the organization itself. U.S. employers have a major role to play in this particular area if they want to exert their best influence and establish the kind of communications that are essential if the world is to make progress in the direction of a higher standard of living for all. It must make such progress if peace is to be a reality and if people are to enjoy reasonable standards of living and the satisfaction of the material comforts that are desired. □

The ILO at 50

A trade union perspective

RUDOLPH FAUPL

THE FIRST PRESIDENT of the American Federation of Labor, Samuel Gompers, was one of the ILO's founding fathers. However, a strong post-World War I reaction in the United States against so-called foreign entanglements delayed U.S. membership in the ILO until 1934.

This setback was, of course, a personal disappointment to Gompers. He realized the world was becoming so economically interdependent that labor exploitation anywhere threatened labor progress everywhere. Moreover, in his view, economic injustice could not be confined by national boundaries. Continued labor unrest would create tensions both within and between nations. As conceived by the International Commission on Labor Legislation, which drafted the document setting up the ILO, the purpose of the organization was twofold. First, the ILO would seek to develop standards through recommendations. These would be advisory. In addition, it would foster and protect the rights of workers through conventions. When adopted, these would have the force of any other treaty between nations. When the Commission had completed its work, Gompers summed up his feeling of accomplishment by saying, "The ILO will bring light into the lives of workers in the more backward countries." Today, 50 years later, it is appropriate to ask whether the ILO has lived up to Gompers' expectations.

Unique structure

In structure, the ILO differs from other official international agencies in that each member country sends representatives from industry and labor as well as from government. This presents an inner contradiction so far as Communist nations are concerned. In the free nations, employer and labor delegates may—and often do—disagree not only with each other but with the government. By its very nature, a Communist society cannot permit unions to be free or employers to be independent.

Thus the Communist delegates, though technically representing labor, management, or government, in reality represent one view—the government's.

The tripartite structure makes the ILO unique in the United Nations and is probably the reason it survived the demise of the League of Nations. Unlike other League bodies, the ILO's roots spread beyond official government offices and into the structure of business and labor organizations. Even in the United States where business and labor have differed as to the need and content of specific recommendations or conventions, there has been general agreement as to the desirability of the ILO's overall objectives.

Standard-setting or operations

In earlier years, the ILO primarily concerned itself with raising labor standards throughout the world. This major objective is pursued through the adoption of conventions and recommendations, which serve as guides for national labor policies. Many nations lack experience with industrialization, but they are beginning to industrialize. For such nations the ILO's recommendations represent an international consensus—based on experience—of what is reasonable and desirable.

The other way in which the ILO influences labor standards is through the drafting of conventions. Since these are intended to have the force of treaties, they are submitted to member countries for ratification. No country is required to ratify an ILO convention and no country can be bound by the ratification of other countries. Each member country is free to accept or reject any particular

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convention as it sees fit. However, when a nation ratifies an ILO convention it agrees, as a matter of international obligation, to abide by it.

The standard-setting activities of the ILO have in the past and must be in the future the backbone of the organization. In recent years it has become a habit to talk about "traditional activities" and "new activities" of the ILO.

In making such verbal demarcation it seems natural to assume that the traditional activities of standard setting are somehow old-fashioned and no longer needed. Organized labor has no liking for this "either-or" approach to the program of the organization. The fundamental objectives of the ILO have not changed since 1919 and the first step to meet them is to reach agreement on norms and standards for the protection and freedom of labor. This is what the ILO has been doing for 50 years and this is what workers and their unions expect it to do. It is a job that is not finished and never will be finished because of the dynamics of economic growth and developments in the framework of ever-changing world patterns.

Standards and U.S. sovereignty

Since joining in 1934, the United States has adopted seven ILO conventions, all but one relating to maritime industries. The basic reason for this is, of course, that in most areas of labor law the United States, with its long history of industrialization, sets standards superior to those proposed in many ILO conventions. Although a nation cannot be bound by an ILO convention that it has not ratified, some U.S. employer groups have, from time to time, tried to frighten the American people into believing that such conventions are a threat to American sovereignty. In 1953, for example, a former employer delegate told a Senate subcommittee that ILO conventions, when approved, become international law and thus threaten a transfer of legislative authority from the Congress to an international agency. Of course, no U.S. Congress would delegate its internal legislative powers to an international agency. The ILO poses no threat to American institutions by helping to raise living and working standards in the rest of the world. On the contrary, to the degree that it raises those standards it helps to protect

the higher standards normally enjoyed by American workers.

Helping the have-nots

A situation that threatens world peace is the widening gulf between the rich nations and the poor—between the "haves" and the "have nots," between the Atlantic Community and most of Asia, Africa, and Latin America.

Nations that have been able to apply new industrial technology—the most advanced nations—have created a revolution in rising living standards. Corollary advances in communications technology have created, in underdeveloped nations, a revolution of rising expectations. These underdeveloped countries want industrialization and they want it quickly. But technology and higher living standards depend on a ready supply of skilled labor. This is the ingredient that underdeveloped nations lack. They cannot develop their resources until they develop a trained, educated, skilled work force.

Thus, in addition to protecting and fostering standards of labor through recommendations and conventions, the ILO has since the early 1950's increased the scope and emphasis of its technical assistance programs.

Over the years, hundreds of ILO technicians have set up and conducted thousands of training programs in scores of countries. These efforts have been carried on from Colombia to Burma, from Haiti to Morocco, from Sarawak to Senegal. ILO people have studied manpower needs, devised and set up vocational training programs, and implemented training methods. They have built schools, prepared instructional materials, and even recruited trainees.

In Colombia, for example, the ILO helped to plan, establish, and operate a national apprenticeship service. As part of this program, it set up and equipped an apprentice center for 300 repair and maintenance mechanics. It also showed the textile industry how to reduce the training time for weavers from 9 months to 3 weeks. In Haiti, ILO technicians established cooperative handicraft centers where peasants and artisans could learn more efficient methods of work and organization.

In Central America, ILO productivity specialists have carried out missions that have taken them

from shoe factories to textile mills; from engineering schools to economics faculties. They have demonstrated methods for improving labor efficiency and given instruction in the techniques of company management. In Nicaragua, a country whose cotton crop represents 35 percent of all exports, an ILO productivity expert developed a simple and profusely illustrated handbook on cottonpicking, which helped to raise individual productivity of Nicaraguan cottonpickers by 30 percent.

Problems of industrial sectors

International labor standards reveal that the ILO's approach to problems of industrial workers and sectors is as old as the ILO itself. Problems relating to hours of work, for instance, were dealt with separately for industrial establishments in 1919, for commerce and offices in 1929 and 1930, for coal mines in 1930, 1931 and 1935, for automatic sheet glass works in 1933 and 1934, and for road transport in 1935 and 1939. The problems of reducing hours of work, industry by industry, were also considered separately in relation to public works, the textile industry, the printing trades, and the chemical industries during the 1930's.

Many social problems are peculiar to an industry or present themselves differently in one industry than another. An obvious advantage exists in dealing with these problems in more detail on the basis of a particular industry, even if the general principles involved are discussed in the larger forum of the International Labor Conference. There are advantages in providing opportunities to those directly concerned with a particular industry to meet together and discuss their problems in the light of their own immediate preoccupation.

It was not until the late 1930's, under the pressure of international trade union organizations, that the ILO started to convene special tripartite meetings to deal with specific problems of industrial sectors. These meetings were held in relation to textiles in 1937, coal mines in 1938, and rail transport in 1939.

Since 1958, meetings of industrial committees have been subjected to severe budgetary restraints. The budget allocations earmarked for the work of the committees amounted to 5 to 6 percent of the total ILO regular budget in the early years of the committee's existence but have gradually been reduced to a figure of around 1 percent. As a consequence, the intervals between meetings of industrial committees is increasingly longer, affecting the efficiency and continuity of their work.

Practically all committees meeting in recent years unanimously have adopted resolutions requesting more frequent meetings. It is considered that industrial committees have to be convened at regular intervals of 3 to 4 years if they are to function effectively.

Effect on United States

The ILO has contributed directly to the welfare of workers in much of the rest of the world. But has it had any direct and measurable impact on the living and working standards of the people of the United States? Aside from the handful of conventions that have been adopted in the maritime industry—and the indirect informational help that was available in the period when our social security laws were being drafted—it is hard to prove that the ILO has resulted in tangible direct benefits for the American worker. But the indirect benefits are many. Through the ILO, representatives of American business and labor have had a chance to work closely and personally with the leaders—and the future leaders—of emerging nations—worker-to-worker, employer-to-employer, government-to-government. Through these contacts, we have been able to create more understanding and a better feeling between nations.

In summary, the ILO has its weaknesses as well as its strengths, its failures as well as its successes, but in the balance it does a job that needs to be done. As U.S. worker delegate, I am convinced that the ILO has indeed raised working and living conditions of people throughout the world. □

The ILO at 50 Its role in improving labor statistics

HENRI LACROIX

BEFORE WORLD WAR I, there were practically no valid data in most countries of the world on subjects such as employment, unemployment or wages.¹ Some figures on these and similar subjects became available shortly after the war, but it is only in the last 25 years that the labor statistics have really been developed. There are many more series, of much better quality, in 1969 than ever before.

It is not easy to find an objective measure of the quantity of labor statistics available. The number of countries for which data are published in the *ILO Year Book of Labour Statistics* may serve, however, as an approximate measure of the progress achieved in the production of national statistics. Table 1 shows, by subject matter and continent, the corresponding figures for the 1934-35 and 1968 editions of the *Year Book*.

The number of countries or territories for which series are published increased from 2 to 4 times, depending on the topic covered. Table 1 also shows that the bulk of the increase was in Africa, the Americas, and Asia, and that the data available in 1934-35 were practically confined to European countries, Canada and the United States. (In fact, for two topics, 1934-35 data were available for more countries of Europe than in 1968, mainly because most countries of the region were covered in the earlier period, and some geographical areas—such as Danzig, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, and the Saar—were absorbed into other countries in the postwar period.)

Improved quality

The increase in the number of series published is less important, however, than the improvement in the quality of the data. In all fields of statistics, and particularly in the field of labor statistics, there have been very significant improvements in

the definitions, scope, methods of computation, and tabulation of statistical series in the last 30 years, and new methods have been introduced, including various uses of sampling. As an example, in the 1930's most countries obtained statistics of unemployment as a mere byproduct of the operations of employment offices, which in many cases did not cover all the regions of the country and were not widely patronized by employees seeking work. A few series were based on the operations of unemployment insurance schemes, but these were generally limited in scope. Data from trade union benefit funds constituted a source of information on unemployment used in some countries although these statistics are usually not representative of the general level of unemployment in the country as a whole. In 1968, labor force sample surveys were used to obtain comprehensive data on unemployment covering all categories of the unemployed, whether or not the latter are registered in an employment office. Persons looking for their first job, persons on temporary or indefinite lay-off, persons in rural as well as in urban areas, and others are now included. In some countries, such as the United Kingdom, the development of general social security schemes covering the total population of the country enables labor statisticians to present comprehensive and detailed data on unemployment and employment. In many countries, the only information available on unemployment is still obtained from employment offices, but the scope and technical value of such series have been greatly improved in the last 20 years. Similar improvements may be observed in all fields of labor statistics.

The primary element in the development of general and labor statistics is, of course, the desire on the part of the various countries to perfect their own statistics. Public preoccupation with full employment policies, wider acceptance of social welfare as an objective of public policy, and other developments since World War II have emphasized the need for more precise statistical infor-

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mation on labor and labor problems. In the less developed countries, recognition of the need for economic and social development has prompted the initiation or extension of statistical programs. In this work, many countries have benefited from the technical advice and assistance supplied by some countries through bilateral programs such as the U.S. Agency for International Development (AID), or by various international organizations such as the ILO.

The ILO has contributed to the development of labor statistics throughout the world in various ways: Collection and dissemination of data at the international level; publication of descriptions of labor statistics series; analytical studies of the methods of compilation of the data; adoption of international standards on definitions, scope, methods of compilation and tabulation of labor statistics; technical advice and assistance to countries; and special studies on various subjects related to labor problems.

Statistical publications

The *Year Book of Labour Statistics*—the 1968 edition is the 28th issue—presents data for the last 10 years on population and labor force, employment, unemployment, hours of work, labor productivity, wages, consumer prices, industrial accidents, and industrial disputes, for more than 170 countries or territories throughout the world. These data are drawn from information sent to the International Labor Office by national statistical services or from official publications. The *Bulletin of Labour Statistics*, a quarterly publication, contains monthly, quarterly, or semiannual data on employment, unemployment, hours of work, wages, and consumer prices for the last 3 years. These two publications represent important media in developing international labor statistics. First, they show what types of data are lacking in some countries, and the insufficiencies in the data available in others. Thus, they provide an incentive to these countries to improve their statistics. Second, insofar as possible, the data are presented in these publications on an internationally comparable basis; that is, according to international standards in regard to definitions and scope. The requests addressed to countries for data conforming to such international standards often lead to improvements of national data such as extension

Table 1. Number of labor statistics series published by area, 1934-35 and 1968

Statistical topic and period		All areas	Africa	Americas	Asia	Europe and U.S.S.R.	Oceania
Employment	1934-35	23	1	2	1	19	0
	1968	75	15	14	14	29	3
Unemployment	1934-35	34	0	5	1	26	2
	1968	73	22	10	17	20	4
Hours of work	1934-35	12	0	1	1	10	0
	1968	51	5	10	12	22	2
Wages	1934-35	26	1	2	1	20	2
	1968	97	24	25	17	26	5
Consumer prices	1934-35	40	2	6	3	27	2
	1968	129	34	35	26	28	6
Industrial disputes	1934-35	33	1	4	4	22	2
	1968	85	24	21	18	18	4

Source: ILO Year Book of Labour Statistics (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1936 and 1969).

of the coverage of a series, clarification of definitions used, and so on.

The statistical series presented in the *Year Book* and in the *Bulletin of Labour Statistics* are described in a technical guide published by the ILO, which shows for each of the series the definitions used, coverage, sources, method of computation, and national publications in which the series can be found. These descriptions assist statisticians and other users throughout the world in determining the nature of the series. In addition, requests for such descriptions have often incited national statistical offices to initiate the first systematic compilation of information on the characteristics of their series.

Methodological studies

The ILO has conducted systematic and thorough analysis of the methodology followed in each field of labor statistics. These methodological studies review the basic concepts used and the need for and possible uses of the statistics to be collected, and point out the advantages and drawbacks of the various methods in use. Thus, a methodological study of unemployment statistics will show the more comprehensive character of data obtained from labor force sample surveys as compared with data gleaned from employment offices. It will also show that unemployment series obtained from comprehensive social security schemes (generally as a byproduct of the operation of these schemes) cover practically, although not necessarily, all unemployed persons and have the advantage of supplying information in great detail by sex, age, region, occupation, industry, and so on. Finally, such studies amply demonstrate that data on un-

Table 2. ILO technical cooperation in labor statistics, 1950-67

Area	Number of experts	Number of fellowships
All countries.....	85	54
Africa.....	21	10
Americas.....	19	9
Asia.....	31	22
Europe.....	10	10
Middle East.....	4	3

employment obtained from trade union benefit funds are generally not representative of unemployment in the country as a whole. Such methodological studies assist countries in a careful evaluation of their own series and in understanding new methods pioneered by other countries.

International standards

On the basis of these studies, the ILO prepares draft international standards covering definitions, scope, techniques of collection, details of tabulation, presentation, and publication of the data. These draft standards are submitted to the International Conference of Labor Statisticians for approval, generally after they have been reviewed by a group of experts specializing in the subject under review. The first International Conference of Labor Statisticians met in 1923, and was attended by representatives of 31 countries. The eleventh such conference was held in October 1966, and was attended by more than 120 delegates representing 55 countries. Over time, the international conferences have adopted detailed resolutions covering all fields of labor statistics. The resolutions adopted by the first nine conferences have been presented in analytical form.²

International standards in labor statistics are used by a number of countries to set up new series on employment, unemployment, wages, hours of work, consumer prices, etc., or by other countries that already have series in these fields but are striving to improve them. Another important use of international standards is, of course, the improvement of the international comparability of data. A typical example of an international standard which has assisted countries in the development or improvement of their statistics is the *International Standard Classification of Occupations*. The first detailed edition of this classification, containing detailed definitions of five digit occupational titles,

appeared in 1958.³ This classification has been of great use to a number of developing countries who found in it the basic framework for setting up their own system. Other countries have also found the international standards useful for the improvement of their existing scheme.

Help for developing countries

Since its inception, the ILO has striven to assist countries in the development of their labor statistics and the implementation of international standards. In addition to replying to requests for information and supplying references, documents, and various other material concerning the methodology of labor statistics, the ILO has sent experts to assist countries in various fields. Such assistance was available before 1950, exemplified by a series of visits to various American countries arranged during 1940, 1941, and 1942, but was considerably expanded when the United Nations Development Program was established. The ILO has sent experts to developing countries of Latin America, Asia, and Africa, for 1 to 5 years to help them start statistical surveys of employment and wages in establishments, carry out family expenditure surveys, develop consumer price indexes and conduct labor force sample surveys. The ILO also has a fellowship program that has enabled a number of statisticians from developing countries to specialize in the field of labor statistics. Several of the statistical fellows attended courses organized by the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics. Table 2 summarizes the activities of the ILO in the field of technical cooperation in labor statistics from 1950 to 1967.

The ILO has also organized seminars on labor statistics in New Delhi in 1951 (labor statistics in general), in Manila in 1958 (household surveys and measurement of underemployment), in Vienna in 1961 (household surveys), in Addis Ababa in 1964 (general labor statistics) and in Dakar and Addis Ababa in 1967 (household surveys). Generally, 25 to 50 participants attend these seminars.

Social studies

The ILO also carried out special surveys at the international level, thus contributing additional data on labor statistics. One such survey—the "October inquiry"—has been conducted by the ILO

since 1924, with a short interruption during the Second World War. This inquiry covers hourly wages and normal hours of work of adult wage earners in 41 occupations, and retail prices of 41 selected consumer goods (mainly foodstuffs) in October of each year. The data are assembled for one or more of the principal cities in each country or as averages for the whole country or for a number of cities. The results of this inquiry have been published in the *ILO Year Book of Labour Statistics* and are now regularly presented in the June issue of the *Bulletin of Labour Statistics*.

Another example of direct collection of data by the ILO in the field of labor statistics is the Ford-Filene inquiry, which was carried out in 1931 at the request of the Ford Motor Co., Ltd., with the financial support of the Twentieth Century Fund, in 14 European towns, in order to compare the cost of living of certain categories of workers in Detroit with that of workers in the European towns. The result of the inquiry, as well as the methods adopted and the problems encountered, were discussed in "A Contribution to the Study of International Comparisons of Costs of Living," (Studies and Reports, Series No. 17), issued by the International Labor Office in Geneva in 1932.

In 1955, the ILO undertook a survey of wages and related elements of labor costs in European industry to provide data for analysis of the possible consequences of setting up a common market in the countries surveyed. Ten European countries participated in the inquiry and conducted studies within the framework established by the International Labor Office. The results of this survey were published.⁴ A similar survey was carried out by the ILO from 1962 to 1964 in Central America.⁵ Another survey has been under way since 1965 in South America and Mexico.

In the field of family living studies, the ILO published a symposium on family living studies in 1961, which brought together reports on a representative selection of current household sample surveys on expenditures, food consumption, underemployment, health, consumer finances, rural living conditions, and other matters in various parts of the world. The publication was intended to illustrate their range and flexibility and to suggest possibilities for the application of the survey method in solving some of the statistical problems

of the developing countries. In this same field, the ILO issued a mimeographed volume on household income and expenditure statistics in 1967, providing information in standardized form concerning the levels of living of the population in different countries of the world.

Task remaining

Although there have been significant improvements in worldwide labor statistics, the gains achieved have not been as impressive as those in some other statistical fields, such as national accounts. Few countries can fulfill all the demands of labor information that arise in the government, employer, or labor sectors. For instance, while statistics of the labor force are among the most significant of economic indicators, not many countries can claim to fully meet the international standards established in this field by the ILO in 1954. Many of the more developed countries can measure changes in employment only in manufacturing, while a substantial number of countries have no reliable information at all regarding current changes in employment or unemployment. Similar examples could be given in other fields of labor statistics. Despite the progress made in the course of the last 30 or 40 years, there is still much room for improvement of labor statistics throughout the world. The ILO will have to continue to devote part of its resources to this task among others. □

FOOTNOTES

¹ "50 Years of Social History: A Statistical Outline," *ILO Year Book of Labour Statistics* (Geneva, International Labor Office, 1969), pp. 15-31.

² *The International Standardization of Labour Statistics*, Studies and Reports, New Series, No. 53 (Geneva, International Labor Office, 1959). A new edition embodying the resolutions adopted by the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth conferences (the last scheduled to convene in 1971) will be published in 1971.

³ A revised edition will be published in English, French, and Spanish this year.

⁴ *Labour Costs in European Industry*, Studies and Reports, New Series, No. 52 (Geneva, International Labor Office, 1959).

⁵ *Informe sobre el costo de la mano de obra en la industria*, OIT/OTA/Centro-America/R. 1 (Geneva, International Labor Office, 1966).

The ILO at 50

Its hopes for social progress

DAVID A. MORSE

FIFTY YEARS AGO, a representative of the United States Government said this about the International Labor Organization, then being formed:

No one can expect that we can build overnight the machinery that will move us from the chaos of today to the universal justice, harmony and happiness contained in [an ideal]. . . .

This institution represents the first concerted effort on the part of the nations of the earth to deal with the problems of labor in a comprehensive manner . . . to work out our problems by the process of reasoning rather than by the arbitrament of the sword.

The speaker was William B. Wilson, the first U.S. Secretary of Labor, addressing the first International Labor Conference at Washington, D.C., in October 1919. With the United States as host government, Mr. Wilson opened the session and was later elected permanent conference president. Other of his opening words are worth remembering:

In all this, the prime factor is . . . man himself. Any conclusion . . . which does not give full consideration to the fact that the workers of the world are living, moving, sentient human beings, with all the hopes and aspirations which God has implanted in the human breast, will fail of the purpose for which this body has been called.

Progress—but not enough

Half a century has now passed. Mankind is still a long way from the achievement of "universal justice, harmony and happiness." Yet, there has been considerable progress in the past 50 years. The ILO has been striving during the past 5 decades to make the world a better place to live in. It has done much to expand opportunity for the world's men, women, and young people, to lessen human

need, to promote and protect human freedom, dignity, and well-being.

Vast changes have occurred since delegates from 40 countries gathered in Washington for the first conference, but the work of the participants laid a firm foundation for the ILO of today. During that first conference, six international labor conventions and six recommendations were adopted. They covered such urgent matters as the establishment of the 8-hour workday and the 48-hour week, maternity protection in industry and commerce, rules on night work and dangerous work for young people and women, and restrictions on child labor.

The United States joined the ILO in 1934, and its support has been vital in the organization's work since that time. In fact, it played host to a special session of the conference in New York in 1941 and then to the important Philadelphia conference of 1944, in which the organization's post-war role was mapped, and supported constitutional amendments in 1945 and 1946 that prepared the way for new ILO tasks in association with the United Nations.

There were 55 member states when I became Director-General of the ILO 21 years ago, only 15 more than the original membership. Today, there are 119 members, one measure of the vast changes that have taken place in the organization. The regular budget has risen from \$4.5 million in 1948 to \$27 million in 1969. Moreover, some \$20 million a year is placed at the ILO's disposal from other sources, mostly from the United Nations Development Program for technical cooperation activities around the world. The staff has increased from 500 in 1948 to over 2,700, including ILO technical cooperation experts.

But mere figures do not reveal the real significance of the changes in the ILO during the years since World War II. For one thing, the ILO has come much closer to the goal of universal membership—enunciated in 1919—largely due to the addition of newly independent states, but also because

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the organization has been joined by countries that for a long time took no part in ILO affairs. This ideal of universality has brought problems. Today, the ILO is no longer principally a Western European organization. It encompasses the entire range of the world's political and social systems.

Universality, however, has never meant an abandonment of tripartitism, which remains the backbone of the ILO. Tempers occasionally run high when representatives of governments, employers, and workers with widely divergent views sit down together. But, in the end, they arrive at agreement based upon a hard core of mutual interests—and the ILO is able to go ahead with its programs.

One mutual interest, which has grown increasingly important in the work of the ILO, is the improvement of the situation of workers in developing nations. Here, the ILO assists governments in setting up vocational training and management development programs, organizing employment systems and labor administrations, developing cooperatives, educating workers, building social security systems, developing handicraft industries, improving working conditions, and raising living standards. There is little real controversy in ILO councils concerning the objectives of this work.

Cooperation and committees

These technical activities receive too little public attention. Many people are not aware of the ILO record in technical cooperation. They do not know that a major part of the ILO's resources are spent in efforts to improve working and living conditions around the globe. They do not know that more than 800 ILO experts are at work on some 250 technical cooperation projects in nearly 100 countries. They have not heard about such ILO projects as industrial vocational training in India and Morocco; rural vocational training in Senegal and Colombia; applying modern management techniques to industrial development in Pakistan and Tanzania; reorganizing the social security systems in Iran and Libya; developing small-scale handicraft industries in the Solomon Islands and Jamaica; starting rural cooperatives in Bolivia and Afghanistan; and improving manpower planning methods in Somalia and Brazil.

The ILO, then, provides an arena for collaboration rather than confrontation. It provides a place where countries can work together to help solve the world's social and labor problems. By involving employers and workers in its work, as well as governments, the ILO instills a spirit of cooperation not only among diplomats but also among representatives of the major economic and social forces of every member state.

Our industrial committee system is one demonstration of how this works in practice. Worker, employer, and government representatives come together to discuss labor and social problems of particular industries, such as petroleum, coal mines, and iron and steel. By seeking solutions to the practical day-to-day problems of an industry, the committees help create a climate of genuine cooperation among countries with different economic systems and in different stages of development.

Another example is our research and training program. In this connection, the International Institute for Labor Studies at Geneva specializes in advanced education and research on social and labor policy. It brings together experienced persons from all parts of the world—government administrators, trade union officials, industrial experts, management personnel, university professors, and other specialists. The International Center for Advanced Technical and Vocational Training in Turin, Italy provides opportunities for technical, vocational, and management development training for individuals who have advanced beyond the facilities available in their own countries. An expert multinational staff has trained managers and technical and vocational instruction personnel from over 100 countries.

ILO guideposts

What of the future? For the past few years ILO member states, employers, and workers all over the world have been making a critical and searching examination of the program and structure of the organization. The International Labor Conference will take stock of the situation at this year's meeting. It would be improper to prejudge the outcome of this examination, but already a number of conclusions have emerged which enable us to see more clearly where the ILO should go from here.

First, there must be more regional and world-wide planning—by the United Nations, specialized agencies such as the ILO, and their member states. Too often a piecemeal approach has been taken to world economic and social problems, with the result that attempts at improving the situation have proved futile. Planning must be carried out by and through national governments. The United Nations, and specialized agencies such as the ILO, can provide valuable technical assistance in the process, as well as co-ordination and research facilities.

Second, the ILO should continue to help in the development of social institutions. This means improving systems of labor-management relations, fostering more effective trade unions, strengthening national labor administrations, and helping to create cooperative associations and other institutions that will aid the development of rural communities.

Third, the organization should continue to assist in improving working and living conditions of workers by advising governments on social security measures, wage and income policies, hours of work and holidays with pay, welfare and recreational facilities, and occupational safety.

Fourth, we should go forward with our program to defend and promote human rights. There is constant emphasis on human rights in all our work, as well as through special programs against discrimination, and through persuasion of governments to put into effect the provisions of human rights standards adopted by the nations through the International Labor Conference.

Finally, the ILO is undertaking this year the World Employment Program. The objective of this program is to assist nations in developing a wide range of work and training opportunities for their people. The program has high priority, for the problems of unemployment and underemployment have reached grave proportions in the developing countries. Millions are without jobs while others can find work for only a few hours a day. Often a worker's productivity is so low that he can barely earn enough to keep himself and his family alive. The world's rapid population growth means that these problems will become even more serious in the future.

The major components will be regional plans for Latin America, Asia, and Africa. The program will involve investigation of existing employment-

generating schemes and possibilities, assistance to governments in setting up such schemes and preparation of long term plans for increasing employment. Efforts will be made to enlist the full efforts of governments, industrial and agricultural organizations, commercial and financial institutions, educational and training organizations, and international agencies.

Danger of poverty

The ILO holds firmly to the principle set forth in the 1944 Declaration of Philadelphia: "Poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere." The effects of social disturbance and inequity in any one country do not stop at that country's frontiers. Indeed, today these effects circle the earth at a rate far faster than the reverberations of the shot fired at Concord in 1775.

There is always the danger that, in the highly industrialized countries, employers and workers as well as governments will either settle into comfortable but shortsighted parochialism or be so obsessed with their own domestic problems that they will have little time to spare for the problems of others. There is danger that these nations will underestimate the tensions that are arising today from the growing frustration of the poor and underprivileged in distant lands—distant in miles but not in the effect these frustrations may have on the peace of the world. As long as the governments, workers, and employers of the economically advanced nations support the ILO and other organizations attempting to mitigate international poverty, that danger is diminished.

As Secretary Wilson said 50 years ago, the ILO represents a concerted effort to deal with the world's labor and social problems. The aspiration Mr. Wilson expressed at the time of the organization's creation is as meaningful today as then: "May time develop the fact that you have built well, that you have laid the foundation for a structure that will stand down through all the ages as the protection of the toilers of the world."

The structure is still far from completed. The rate of its continued growth and the extent of its future effectiveness will depend, as hitherto, on the wishes and support of the ILO's member states and of its worker and employer constituents.

We need that support in full measure. In the interest of social progress and peace, we hope we shall have it. □

Communications



ARBITRATION AND THE LABOR BOARD

Bernard Samoff

Jay W. Waks' "Arbitrator, Labor Board, or Both?"¹ analyzes 338 "dual jurisdiction" arbitration decisions and concludes that under the NLRB's *Spielberg*² doctrine the Board's approach is characterized by unbureaucratic "forbearance," self-restraint, and prudent deference to arbitration. Overall, he found the relationships among the NLRB, arbitrators, and the public were consistent with our national labor policies. However, considering dual jurisdiction from the viewpoint of the NLRB can lead to conclusions different from those reached by examining dual jurisdiction from the perspective of arbitration.

Far from exercising self-restraint, the National Labor Relations Board, both in cases involving available arbitration or an award, has enlarged its statutory power to intervene in situations governed by the collective bargaining agreement. Elsewhere I have documented this point,³ and here I shall merely note some items demonstrating the Board's lack of consistent self-restraint.⁴

Board's approach

Before reaching the *Spielberg* criteria, the Board first determines whether or not the employer has discriminatorily fired its employees. If it finds unlawful discrimination, the Board will not honor the award unless it is consistent with the Board's findings and provides NLRB-approved remedies. Arguably, many grievances terminating in arbitration could be unfair labor practices. In its de-

cisions and in members' speeches, the Board has advanced the view that it must intervene irrespective of an award; as a result, it rarely defers to arbitration. To avoid intervention, the Board could dismiss complaints whenever an award had been issued unless there was evidence of unlawful anti-unionism. It is now easier to tell when the NLRB will intervene than when it will not.

A representative group of cases involving the NLRB's treatment of arbitration must include not only grievances over the discharge of employees, but also cases involving subcontracting, the scope of the management rights clause, and furnishing information to a party to an agreement. To determine whether or not the Board exercises self-restraint, one must categorize systematically the types of cases and kinds of issues where the Board intervenes or defers.

Whether *Spielberg* is a prudent accommodation to arbitration depends upon how frequently the Board accepts its criteria and defers, and how often the NLRB General Counsel refuses to issue complaints because the standards have been met. We have no data about the latter, but some about the former.

In too many cases, the Board has decided that the criteria have not been satisfied. Two courts of appeals reversed the Board⁵ when it concluded that the awards of two highly respected arbitrators

A note on communications

The *Monthly Labor Review* welcomes communications that supplement, challenge, or expand on research published in its pages. To be considered for publication, communications should be factual and analytical, not polemical in tone. Communications should be addressed to the Editor-in-Chief, *Monthly Labor Review*, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20212.

Bernard Samoff, director of the fourth region of the National Labor Relations Board, Philadelphia, Pa., expresses his personal views in this communication.

did not meet the criteria. Even NLRB Chairman Frank W. McCulloch has conceded that "... it may be regrettable that the tests set up in *Spielberg* are not more definite and certain."⁶ NLRB Member Gerald A. Brown's frequent dissents in arbitration cases illustrate the difficulties in applying the criteria in specific cases.

Analysis of NLRB decisions raises questions about the Board's forbearance. More often than not, it finds some ground for intervening. Not fully satisfied with the *Spielberg* standards, it added another one in *Raytheon*.⁷ Under the added criterion, the award must indicate that the arbitrator received evidence on, and treated, the statutory rights of the parties.

Most unions and employees prefer arbitration to the NLRB. Unions or employees disappointed with awards, or hoping the Board will provide a better remedy, are likely to prefer the Board. It is to the credit of most unions, employers, and employees that they have faith in the arbitration process and use it much more frequently than the NLRB.

Arbitrator's opinions

What is the proper role of the arbitrator when confronted with contractual as well as statutory issues? Opinions differ markedly.⁸ At one pole is the view that "an arbitrator is the proctor of the agreement and not of the statutes; thus, in the absence of arbitration he has no responsibility for the statutory scheme."⁹ At the other, "arbitrators must be willing to accept the responsibility of considering and deciding issues arising under the National Labor Relations Act."¹⁰

General Counsel Arnold Ordman suggested¹¹ that if the arbitrator encounters a situation which seems to embrace an unfair labor practice, it is better that he consider it in the light of NLRB law and to state whether an illegal act has been committed. If he treats the matter fully and finds no violation, the General Counsel believes the Board will agree.

Contrasting decisions

But considering the Board's views in other arbitration cases, is it likely to follow consistently Ordman's suggestion? One writer comments on the Board's "versatility in this area"¹² when it

issued two contrasting decisions on the same day. In *Osherwitz & Sons*,¹³ an employee was fired for cursing her employer during negotiations. Although she claimed her discharge was due to her outspoken union advocacy, the arbitrator disagreed; however, the trial examiner rejected the award and concluded that the assigned reason was a pretext. Reversing him, the Board dismissed, finding that the arbitrator had considered and rejected the pretext—statutory—issue.

But in *Monsanto Chemical Company*,¹⁴ the Board refused to accept the award where the arbitrator stated that he ignored allegations regarding the part played by the employee's union activities in his discharge. And, finally, in *Raytheon*, two workers were fired for allegedly inciting and encouraging employees to engage in a work stoppage violative of the agreement. Apparently, the arbitrator, without considering whether the employees were engaged in statutorily protected, concerted, activities, concluded that they had violated the no-strike provision of the contract. A board majority found that he had not considered the pretextual nature of the discharges, that in fact the workers were fired for engaging in statutory rights, and rejected his award. Disagreeing, the U.S. Court of Appeals (First Circuit) found that no statutory rights were involved.

These and other cases fail to indicate whether the NLRB—and the courts—expect arbitrators to consider statutory issues enmeshed with questions of contract interpretation. If the statutory issues are not separated from the contractual ones, it does not help in determining the arbitrators' proper role. To understand the relevant issues, a comparison with the Board's treatment of dual-jurisdiction problems would be useful.

Because there are no qualitative standards for deciding whether the NLRB is exercising forbearance, the conclusion seems to depend upon one's concept of the NLRB's role in regulating labor-management relations. I conclude that the Board is hardly restraining itself because the decisions show it more often ignores than follows *Spielberg*.

One might respond that the Board could assert the full sweep of its power and ignore awards. It could, and this would sustain the point that it does exercise some self-restraint by relying occasionally upon *Spielberg*. But the Board could show meaningful self-restraint—and the entire scheme of the

statute supports this—if it did not intervene unless the employer committed substantial, independent unfair labor practices.

I welcome additional studies of the NLRB and arbitration. My brief comments are intended to cast the dual-jurisdiction issue in a broader perspective and to question whether the NLRB's dis-

position of arbitration awards is furthering our national labor policies. To develop useful and acceptable public policies consistent with a dynamic collective bargaining system, we need as much systematic data as we can get. Jay W. Waks' article contributes to our understanding and evaluation of arbitration and the NLRB. □

—FOOTNOTES—

¹ *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1968, pp. 1-5.

² *Spielberg Manufacturing Co.*, 112 NLRB 1080 (1955).

³ "Arbitration, Not NLRB Intervention," *Labor Law Journal*, October 1967, pp. 602-631.

⁴ Two recent decisions reflect the uncertainty over whether the Board will intervene. In *Joseph Schlitz Brewing Co.*, 175 NLRB 23 (1969), the Board deferred to arbitration because of its belief that "the policy of promoting industrial peace and stability through collective bargaining [obliged it] to defer the parties to the grievance-arbitration procedures they themselves have voluntarily established." However, in *Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen*, 168 NLRB 93 (1967), enforced court of appeals—D.C. (1969), the Board declined to defer, with court approval.

⁵ *NLRB v. Hershey Chocolate Corp. and Local 464, American Bakery and Confectionary Workers International Union, AFL-CIO*, 297 F. 2d 286, CA-3, (1961), setting aside 129 NLRB 1052; and *Raytheon Co. v. NLRB*, 326 F. 2d 471, CA-1 (1965), setting aside 140 NLRB 883 (1963).

⁶ Frank W. McCulloch, "Arbitration and/or the NLRB," in Mark L. Kahn, ed., *Labor Arbitration and Industrial Change*, (Washington, Bureau of National Affairs, 1963), p. 180.

⁷ See footnote 4.

⁸ *Labor Relations Reporter*, No. 64, March 20, 1967, pp. 246-257.

⁹ Bernard D. Meltzer, *Ibid.*, p. 247. Peter Seitz expressed a similar view in "The Limits of Arbitration," *Monthly Labor Review*, July 1965, pp. 763-764.

¹⁰ Robert G. Howlett in *Labor Relations Reporter*, No. 64, March 20, 1967, p. 249. See also I. Robert Feinberg, "The Arbitrator's Responsibility Under the Taft-Hartley Act," *Arbitration Journal*, June 1963, p. 86.

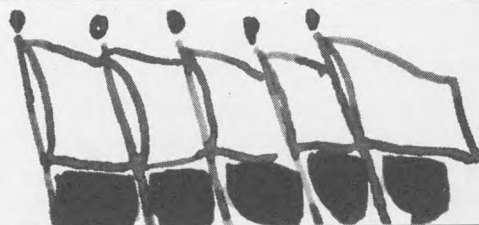
¹¹ *Labor Relations Reporter*, No. 64, March 20, 1967, p. 248.

¹² Robert O. Harris, "The National Labor Relations Board and Arbitration—The Battle of Concurrent Jurisdictions," *Syracuse Law Review*, Spring 1965, p. 549.

¹³ 130 NLRB 1078 (1961).

¹⁴ 130 NLRB 1097 (1961).

Foreign Labor Briefs



United Kingdom

The Government plans to replace the present national pension system with one that would relate pensions to earnings, and would be of particular benefit to the lowest paid workers. The change is to be completed by 1972.

Under the present system, employees pay flat-rate contributions to the fund and receive standard basic pensions. Supplemental benefits are derived from additional contributions and from other occupational pension plans. As submitted to the Parliament, the new plan calls for benefits that would eventually amount to 60 percent of earnings up to the national average wage, plus 25 percent for the remainder up to an earnings ceiling. Under this formula, the lowest paid workers would contribute toward the plan less than they do now; employers would pay 6¾ percent of their payroll, with no earnings ceiling.

Furthermore, the proposed legislation gives workers transferable rights to supplemental benefits when they change employers, and provides for automatic cost-of-living adjustments of benefits every 2 years.

Italy

The wage zone system, under which industrial workers in central and southern regions are paid lower minimum wages than in the industrialized northern provinces, is under concerted attack by major trade unions. Their demand for abolition of the system, which was established by a central labor-management agreement in 1954 and modified in 1961, has been backed by labor unrest, demonstrations, and strikes since the fall of 1968, when

the current agreement was due to expire. Management organizations for state-controlled industry agreed last December to abolish wage differentials in their firms over a 30-month period beginning January 1, 1969. In private industry, however, negotiations reached an impasse in January, when unions rejected management's compromise offer of a 55-percent across-the-board reduction in wage differentials and stepped up strike activities.

Private industry, employing 90 percent of Italy's industrial workers, claims that national minimum wage parity would remove an important incentive for private investment in the South, and would impose an intolerable burden on southern firms that might force many of them to close down and lay off thousands of workers. The unions respond that there has been relatively little private investment in the South over the past 15 years, and that, anyway, investment should be based on such inducements as tax incentives and a region's economic and geographic potential, rather than on low wages. Chances are that a settlement in private industry will eventually be reached, although it may be several years before wage zones completely disappear.

Netherlands

Organized labor is changing its stance vis-a-vis the Government from close cooperation to challenge and assertiveness where necessary. In the past, the country's major union federations—Netherlands Federation of Trade Unions (Socialist), Netherlands Catholic Workers' Federation, and National Federation of Christian Workers (Protestant)—did not interfere with the Government's control over wages and consulted it about the provisions of contracts negotiated at the national level. But recent membership losses and rank-and-file apathy toward union activities have made the labor leaders realize that they must be-

Prepared in the Office of Foreign Labor and Trade, Bureau of Labor Statistics, on the basis of material available in early March.

come more responsive to the members' interests.

Faced with their members' desire for unity, the three federations have established a joint executive body and initiated a common program of action, enabling them to speak as one voice for about 80 percent of the country's organized workers. Their more militant posture was responsible for the adoption of a new policy, early in 1968, which shifted the decisionmaking on wage increases from the Government and the Labor Foundation (the central labor-management consultative body) to the representatives of labor and management working through collective bargaining. Furthermore, the federations now demand a greater say for labor in economic decisions and call for employment security measures, codetermination, and profit sharing.

U.S.S.R.

In 1968, the annual rate of growth in output of consumer goods for the first time exceeded—"as planned"—that of producer goods. The economic report of the Central Statistical Office for the year stated that the increases were 8.3 and 8.0 percent, respectively. Total industrial output rose by 8.1 percent (compared with 10 percent in 1967).

Retail sales of State and cooperative outlets increased, in comparable prices, 8.7 percent. However, certain consumer goods were still unavailable to many Soviet citizens. Among the goods in short supply were woolen cloth, desirable types of clothing and footwear, household chemicals, building materials, refrigerators, and passenger cars. Personal savings in banks increased 24 percent (19 percent in 1967), reflecting the consumers' inability to buy.

National income (including income from services outside the production of goods) increased 7.2 percent (6.7 percent in 1967), and labor productivity in industry rose 5 percent (6 percent in 1967). The population, as of January 1, 1969, was 239 million, and the average annual number of wage and salary earners in 1968 was 85.1 million, or 2.8 million (3.5 percent) more than in 1967.

The average monthly monetary earnings of all wage and salary earners increased from 103 rubles (\$114) in 1967 to 112.5 rubles (\$125) in 1968. According to the report, government expenditures

for free consumer services and other benefits raised average monthly earnings to 151 rubles (\$168).

Honduras

A \$50,000 loan was negotiated in January by the union of United Fruit Co. employees for the purpose of expanding and improving the consumer cooperatives it operates in several cities. The loan was obtained from the new Regional Rotating Loan Fund, established by the American Institute of Free Labor Development in July 1968, and was the Fund's first lending transaction. It is interest-free and repayable over a period of 5 years. The existing cooperatives are located in La Lima, Puerto Cortes, El Progreso, and Tela.

The union plans to construct one new merchandising outlet and additional warehouse space and to acquire new trucks, not only to supply the stores but also to serve as mobile vendors of merchandise for workers living on banana plantations and in adjacent areas. The union's members who purchase shares in the cooperative are entitled to a 1.5-percent discount on purchases and a 4-percent return on the shares.

During the first few years of its operations, the cooperative suffered losses, simply because time was required to convince the customers of the advantage of paying cash to obtain low prices, rather than relying on credit. In the past 2 years, however, it has made an increasingly larger profit as the volume of its sales expanded. All customers buy at lower than prevalent prices, partly because the cooperative absorbs the general sales tax of 3 percent.

The union ventured into the consumer cooperative field largely as a means of fighting profiteering by local merchants and has proved that, at least in exceptional cases, a profitable operation of such cooperatives in Honduras is feasible. Hence, the present expansion program appears to be good business as well as a needed social investment.

Uruguay

The Government has attacked the critical problem of inflation by establishing a Commission of Productivity, Price, and Income (called COPRIN for the initials of its name in Spanish), and giving it sweeping powers to control prices

and wages and also to arbitrate labor disputes. The law (No. 13,720, published last December 19) which created the Commission was promulgated after previous attempts to break the disastrous inflationary spiral had been largely offset by wage and price increases in the private sector. These quickly nullified the effect of repeated currency devaluations made in the effort to keep exports competitive. To break the cycle, President Jorge Pacheco Areco had issued a decree (June 28, 1968), temporarily freezing wages and prices in the private industry. In the public sector, however, wages had lagged far behind those in the private sector, and were allowed a modest increase in mid-1968.

To replace the temporary wage and price freeze with a more flexible system, the President proposed legislation designed to control private sector wages and prices, and to regulate labor disputes. The new Commission, consisting of five government, two management, and two labor representatives, is authorized to establish uniform categories of employment, adjust collective agreements and arbitration awards to general policy requirements, fix minimum and maximum wages, set maximum prices for essential goods and services, and act as an arbitrator in labor disputes. No strikes or lockouts will be legal unless 7 days' notice is given to the Commission.

When public or private services are threatened by a strike, the Commission is empowered to indicate within 5 days of notification what essential services must be maintained; strikes and lockouts seriously affecting those services may be declared illegal. The Commission may insist that all of the workers or employers are consulted by means of a secret ballot before a strike or a lockout is declared.

Mexico

A step toward the much discussed goal of a single union of electrical workers was taken on January 28, when the Director of the Federal Electricity Commission and union leaders signed an agreement to integrate the industry. The agree-

ment provides for cooperation of three unions to achieve a single countrywide 60-cycle system by 1977. The National Union of Electrical Workers and the National Trade Union of Electricians and Related Workers are in the process of coordinating their contracts and salaries as a step toward molding one union. The Mexican Electrical Workers' Union has not yet taken this step, but has shown a cooperative attitude.

Guatemala

Guatemala's first civil service law, affecting approximately 45,000 employees of the executive branch of the Government, went into effect on January 1, 1969. A review and reclassification of all positions within the executive branch will be made to bring about equal pay for equal work. Heretofore, there have been inequalities in the salaries paid for the same work performed in different ministries. To correct these discrepancies, the Ministry of the Treasury has allocated Q200,000 (\$200,000).

Another step taken by the Government preparatory to the implementation of the law was freezing permanent civil service jobs and placing all appointments on a temporary basis until a complete personnel system is set up by the National Civil Service Office. These measures will serve to allay the often expressed fears of wholesale dismissals of government workers and their replacement by supporters of the Government party, the Partido Revolucionario, just before the law goes into effect.

The final step, still to be taken, is the nomination of a three-member National Civil Service Committee by the President, which must be set up within 30 days of the effective date of the law. These appointments are crucial to the success or failure of the career civil service in Guatemala.

The government of President Mendez Montenegro appears to be committed to civil service reform. It reportedly considers the civil service law, along with the labor code and the organic law of the Guatemalan Social Security System, as a basic element of the Nation's social legislation. □

Research Summaries



Wages in laundry and cleaning services

Straight-time earnings of nonsupervisory employees, except routemen, in laundry and cleaning service establishments averaged \$1.67 an hour in April 1968, nearly 8 percent above a year earlier, according to a Bureau of Labor Statistics survey.

Percentage increases in wages during the year ending April 1968 were substantially larger for relatively low-paid workers than for those with higher earnings. At least part of the earnings rise was due to an increase in the Federal minimum wage for newly covered nonfarm employees, including those in laundry and cleaning establishments. The minimum for these workers, set at \$1 an hour on February 1, 1967, was raised to \$1.15 on February 1, 1968. It rose to \$1.30 an hour on February 1, 1969, and will be increased in 15-cent annual increments to \$1.60 2 years later.

Regionally, average earnings for nonsupervisory employees in April 1968 were lowest in the South, which accounted for about a third of the 442,000 workers covered by the survey, and highest in the Northeast and West. Increases during the year amounted to 11 percent in the South and approximately 6 percent in the other regions. As the table indicates, the interregional spread in average earnings was reduced substantially between mid-1966¹ and April 1968; in mid-1966, workers in the West averaged 51 percent more than those in the South, whereas in 1967 the spread was 39 percent and in 1968, 32 percent.

Earnings levels in April 1968 were higher in metropolitan areas than in smaller communities (\$1.72 and \$1.43), and higher for men than for women (\$2.04 and \$1.56). Similar earnings relationships existed in April 1967 although proportionate differences in averages by sex and community size were somewhat greater than in April 1968. Average hourly earnings in 1968 among

the 17 major metropolitan areas studied separately ranged from \$1.33 in Memphis to \$2.29 in San Francisco-Oakland. Memphis registered the largest increase in average earnings (12 percent) over the year.

Individual earnings of nearly all nonsupervisory employees were within a range of \$1.15 to \$3 an hour in April 1968. The proportions of workers at lower earnings levels were greater in nonmetropolitan than in metropolitan areas, and greater in the South than in the other regions. (See table.)

Among the occupations studied separately, average earnings in April 1968 ranged from \$1.44 an hour for flatwork finishers and retail receiving clerks to \$2 for machine drycleaning pressers. Women, three-fourths of the industry's work force, made up over nine-tenths of the workers in each of the selected jobs, except machine drycleaning pressers (67 percent), tumbler operators (55 percent), and machine washers (12 percent). Increases in average earnings between April 1967 and April 1968 amounted to 10 percent for flatwork finishers and machine wearing apparel pressers and from 6 to 8 percent for nearly all other jobs.

Establishments having collective bargaining agreements covering a majority of their nonsuper-

Average hourly earnings of nonsupervisory laundry and cleaning service workers,¹ by region

Region	Average hourly earnings			Percent of employees with hourly earnings in April 1968 of less than		
	April 1968	April 1967	Mid-1966	\$1.20	\$1.25	\$1.30
United States.....	\$1.67	\$1.55	\$1.44	15.9	18.8	26.0
Metropolitan areas ²	1.72	1.60	1.50	11.9	14.5	20.8
Nonmetropolitan areas.....	1.43	1.31	1.20	33.8	37.9	48.8
Northeast.....	1.88	1.77	1.62	2.5	3.2	5.2
South.....	1.42	1.28	1.15	34.8	39.9	51.7
North Central.....	1.69	1.59	1.52	9.4	12.3	20.4
West.....	1.88	1.78	1.74	4.1	5.5	8.4

¹ Except routemen.

² Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas, as defined by the U.S. Bureau of the Budget through April 1967.

visory inside-plant workers accounted for approximately a third of the industry's employment. This is considerably higher than collective bargaining agreement coverage in all service industries combined. Information on the extent of collective bargaining agreement coverage and the incidence of supplementary wage benefits, such as paid holidays and vacations and health and insurance plans, is limited to provisions for inside-plant workers in April 1968. Inside-plant workers made up 96 percent of the industry's nonsupervisory employees, except routemen.

Paid holidays, most commonly 6 days annually, and paid vacations were provided by establishments employing approximately four-fifths of the inside-plant workers. Typically, employees received 1 week of paid vacation after 1 year of service, and at least 2 weeks after 5 years. Provi-

¹ See Joseph C. Bush, "Earnings in Laundry and Cleaning Services," *Monthly Labor Review*, April 1967, pp. 52-54.

Wages in nursing homes and related facilities

Straight-time earnings of nonsupervisory employees in nursing homes and related facilities averaged \$1.64 an hour in April 1968, up 7 percent since October 1967. According to the most recent BLS survey, percentage increases in earnings levels during the 7-month period were greater for comparatively low-paid workers than for those with higher wages. The increases are partly the result of upward adjustments in the Federal minimum wage for newly covered nonfarm employees, which applies to certain workers in nursing homes and related facilities. The minimum wage for these workers was set at \$1 an hour beginning February 1, 1967, with 15-cent annual increments to reach \$1.60 on February 1, 1971.

Average hourly earnings for nonsupervisory employees in April 1968 ranged from \$1.39 in the South to \$1.91 in the Northeast. Between October 1967 and April 1968, earnings levels rose 10 percent in the South, 8 percent in the West, and nearly 7 percent in the Northeast and North Central regions. Since 1965, when a similar survey was conducted,¹ substantial increases in employment and earnings levels have occurred. There has also been a proportionate narrowing of regional wage differentials, as indicated in the table. Most of the employment rise during the April 1965-68 period

sions for 3 weeks of paid vacation after 15 years of service were reported by establishments accounting for about three-tenths of the workers. Life, hospitalization, and surgical insurance plans for which employers paid all or part of the cost were available to approximately half of the workers in the industry. One-fifth of the employees were in establishments providing retirement pension plans.

The survey covered laundries, laundry service establishments, and cleaning and dyeing plants (SIC 721). Earnings information excludes premium pay for overtime and for work on weekends, holidays, and late shifts, and thus is not comparable with the gross average hourly earnings published in the Bureau's monthly hours and earnings series. A comprehensive report on the survey will be issued this summer.

—FRED R. NAGY

Division of Occupational Wage Structures

was due to an increase in the number of workers in proprietary homes—those operated for profit.

Workers in proprietary homes, approximately seven-tenths of the 424,362 nonsupervisory employees in the industry in April 1968, averaged \$1.64 an hour—2 cents less than workers in voluntary (nonprofit) homes. Workers in voluntary homes had an average wage advantage in the South (\$1.44 compared with \$1.37), the North Central region (\$1.59 compared with \$1.51), and in the West (\$1.82 over \$1.78). This relationship was reversed in the Northeast where workers in voluntary homes averaged \$1.88 an hour compared with \$1.92 for employees in proprietary homes.

Wage levels in April 1968 were higher in metropolitan areas² (\$1.75) than in smaller communities (\$1.43), higher for men (\$1.73) than for women (\$1.63), and higher in large than in small

Average hourly earnings of nonsupervisory employees in nursing homes,¹ by region

Region	Number of nonsupervisory employees (in thousands)			Average hourly earnings		
	April 1965	October 1967	April 1968	April 1965	October 1967	April 1968
United States.....	227.0	373.0	388.8	\$1.23	\$1.53	\$1.65
Northeast.....	63.5	87.6	93.9	1.46	1.79	1.91
South.....	49.4	88.2	89.9	0.90	1.26	1.39
North Central.....	76.0	133.9	140.8	1.14	1.46	1.56
West.....	38.1	63.3	64.2	1.44	1.67	1.80

¹ Licensed facilities with 20 beds or more.

homes (workers in homes with 100 beds or more averaged \$1.73, compared with \$1.65 in homes with 50-99 beds, \$1.54 in homes with 20-49 beds, and \$1.44 in homes with less than 20 beds).

The 280,749 full-time employees, those regularly scheduled to work 35 hours or more a week, averaged \$1.61 an hour in April 1968—10 cents less than the 143,613 part-time employees. Most of this difference results from variations in the occupational mix of the two groups of employees. Registered professional nurses accounted for 5 percent of the full-time and 10 percent of the part-time employees. Eliminating this occupation, one of the highest-paid in the industry, results in an average of \$1.54 for full-time and \$1.56 for part-time employees.

Individual earnings of all but about one-tenth of the workers were within a range of \$1.15 to \$3 an hour in April 1968. There were greater proportions of workers at lower earnings levels in the nonmetropolitan than in metropolitan areas, and in the South than in other regions. For example, about 55 percent of the nonsupervisory employees in nonmetropolitan areas earned less than \$1.30 an hour compared with 23 percent of the metropolitan workers. Approximately 67 percent of the nonsupervisory employees in the South had hourly earnings of less than \$1.30 compared with 40 percent in the North Central region, about 14 percent in the West, and 7.5 percent in the Northeast.

The occupations studied separately included about 85 percent of the industry's nonsupervisory work force. Average hourly earnings for these jobs in April 1968 ranged from \$1.39 for laundry workers to \$3.04 for registered professional nurses. Nurses' aids and licensed practical nurses, the two occupations with the largest number of workers, averaged \$1.42 and \$2.12, respectively. Between October 1967 and April 1968, average earnings increased more in the lower-paid jobs than in higher-paying occupations, narrowing the percentage spread in occupational wage levels.

Information on the extent of collective bargaining agreement coverage was obtained for two em-

ployment categories—full-time service and maintenance employees and full-time clerical, professional, and technical employees. Homes having collective bargaining agreements covering a majority of their nonsupervisory employees in the respective employment categories, accounted for 7 percent of the service and maintenance workers and about 3 percent of the clerical, professional, and technical employees. These estimates are somewhat below the proportion of workers covered by collective bargaining agreements in all service industries combined.

Paid holidays, most commonly 6 a year, were provided to approximately three-fifths of the workers. About nine-tenths of the employees were provided paid vacations, typically 1 week after 1 year of service and 2 weeks after 2 years. Provisions for 3 weeks of vacation pay after 10 years of service applied to about one-fourth of the employees.

Between three- and four-tenths of the service and maintenance employees were in homes providing hospitalization, surgical and medical insurance, and paid sick leave; one-fourth had life insurance coverage. The proportions of clerical, professional, and technical employees receiving these benefits were slightly larger than for service and maintenance employees. About one-tenth of the employees in both groups were provided retirement pension benefits.

The survey covered unlicensed facilities, as well as facilities licensed by the several States to operate as nursing homes or as homes for the aged. It included proprietary and voluntary skilled nursing care homes, convalescent homes, rest homes, and homes for the aged, and excluded homes operated by government agencies (local, State, and Federal), facilities operated as departments of hospitals, and facilities primarily established to admit alcoholics, drug addicts, persons with mental or communicable diseases, and the blind. Earnings information developed by the survey included shift differential pay, but excluded premium pay for overtime and for work on week-ends and holidays, as well as the value of room and board or other perquisites that may have been provided. The full report on the survey is expected to be issued this summer.

—ROBERT G. BRYAN

Division of Occupational Wage Structures

¹ The 1965 survey was limited to proprietary and voluntary (nonprofit) establishments licensed by the several States to operate as nursing homes or personal care homes. Establishments with less than 20 beds were excluded. For an account of the survey see *Monthly Labor Review*, March 1966, pp. 291-295.

² Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas as defined by the U.S. Bureau of the Budget through April 1967.

Work injuries

The rate of work injuries in the Federal Government (7.1) in 1967 was about half as high as that in manufacturing industries (14.0), the Bureau of Labor Statistics reports.

The injury-frequency rate—the number of disabling injuries per million employee-hours worked—has been rising in manufacturing over the past decade, while the rate in contract construction has declined from 32.1 in 1959 to 26.0 in 1967. In contract construction, increased mechanization has eliminated many injuries that resulted from manual handling.

Part of the rise in the injury-frequency rate in manufacturing can be attributed to the high rate of new hires and heavy overtime resulting from high economic activity. Inexperience and fatigue from long hours contribute to the frequency of injuries. The rate in coal mining remained high, at 41.2.

A detailed report on *Injury Rates by Industry* will be available in mid-1969.

Atomic energy workers

Job growth in the atomic energy field (3 percent) was slower than in the nonagricultural economy in general (4.5 percent) from March 1967 to May 1968, according to a survey conducted for the Atomic Energy Commission by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Atomic energy employment increased in research activities and in privately owned establishments, but continued to decline gradually in nuclear defense activities. Of the 141,700 workers counted, about 40 percent were scientists, engineers, or technicians, a much higher proportion than in nonagricultural industrial establishments generally. More than four-fifths of the scientists were engaged in research and development work, compared with about 3 out of 5 engineers.

Scientists and engineers in private industry

Engineers continued to outnumber scientists in private industry by approximately 4 to 1 in the year ending January 1967. In the same year, technician jobs rose by 9 percent, topping the growth rate for scientists and engineers for the first time since 1961.

Scientific and technical personnel employed in private industry, year ending January 1967¹

Occupation	Number	Percent change, 1966-67
Total, scientists and engineers.....	1,013,100	6.1
Engineers.....	824,000	6.2
Scientists, total.....	189,100	6.0
Physical scientists.....	135,300	5.6
Chemists.....	85,200	1.1
Physicists.....	16,200	7.1
Metallurgists.....	12,000	8.9
Geologists and geophysicists.....	16,400	18.8
Other physical scientists.....	5,500	17.7
Life scientists.....	22,400	-----
Mathematicians.....	31,300	15.2
Total, technicians.....	734,700	9.1
Draftsmen.....	270,700	10.7
Surveyors.....	22,800	-14.4
Engineering and physical science technicians.....	328,300	9.5
Electrical and electronic.....	161,000	7.1
Other.....	167,400	12.0
Life science technicians.....	29,300	3.1
Other technicians.....	83,600	13.5

¹ Preliminary estimate.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals, due to rounding. For information on earlier years, see Scientists and Technical Personnel in Industry, 1961-66 (BLS Bulletin 1609, 1968).

Preliminary estimates from a survey conducted by BLS in cooperation with the National Science Foundation indicate that the number of scientists and engineers rose between January 1966 and January 1967 by 6 percent compared with a 4-percent increase in all wage and salary worker employment.

Education and job success

Lack of a high school diploma makes it more difficult to get a job, but is not necessarily a guide to performance on the job, according to a new study by the Manpower Administration.

Credentials and Common Sense: Jobs for People Without Diplomas (Manpower Report No. 13) draws on data from a recent BLS Special Labor Force Report and finds that "millions of workers without high school diplomas are making a major contribution to the economic well-being of society: they are producing, transporting, and distributing goods and providing services of every conceivable variety."

Here are other findings of the study. The proportion of workers in agriculture who have not finished high school is high, as expected: over two-thirds in 1967. The proportions are high also in construction and personal services—in 1967, more than half the highly skilled carpenters,

building trades workers, and metal workers lacked a high school diploma, as did 46 percent of the workers in manufacturing.

About a fourth of those without a high school diploma in 1967 were age 55 or over, and thus likely to leave the labor force within the next decade—but another fourth were age 34 or less.

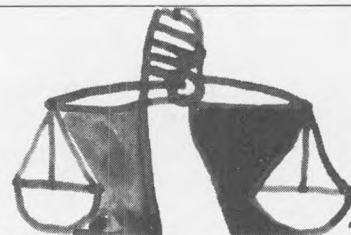
Recent studies conducted for the Manpower Administration show that “few firms bother to learn whether more education among their employees results in better work, or whether high school education is necessary for good performance in the job.” Yet the requirement of a high school diploma has become a kind of shibboleth in hiring, often applied without thought as to its usefulness in selecting workers able to perform the jobs that are to be filled. *Credentials and Common Sense* suggests that the use of the diploma as a work permit shuts the door to many capable workers. “The aim should be to screen *in* rather than to screen *out* job applicants, and to make the most productive use of all persons.”

Emergency disputes

Since the enactment of the Taft-Hartley law in 1947, nearly 1.75 million workers have been enjoined from striking under the law's emergency provisions. Through 1968, 29 disputes have come within the scope of the law. Of these, 5 were settled without a strike, although injunctions were issued in 2 cases. In another dispute, an injunction was not requested despite a long strike. The remaining disputes were settled after the emergency provisions of the law had been invoked to halt a strike. Thirteen of these were settled during the 80-day “cooling off” period, 3 ended without continuation of the strike after the injunction period, and 7 were settled after the renewal of the strike following the expiration of the injunction. Of the latter, 6 involved longshoremen.

A forthcoming BLS bulletin, *National Emergency Disputes Under the Labor Management Relations (Taft-Hartley) Act*, will provide details on emergency disputes for the period 1947–68.

Significant Decisions in Labor Cases



Civil Rights Act of 1871

PUBLIC EMPLOYEES. A rarely traveled road to justice in labor relations was recently used by two public employees discharged for joining a union: A court action against the official who had fired them. The suit produced the latest judicial reminder that a government worker need not fear loss of job if he engages in union activity. For his right to freedom of association for any lawful purpose, including promotion of workingmen's interests, is protected by the First Amendment to the Federal Constitution—a protection that is extended to the States by the Fourteenth Amendment.

Applying the Civil Rights Act of 1871, the U.S. Court of Appeals in St. Louis ordered (in *AFSCME v. Woodward*¹) a commissioner of the City of North Platte, Nebr., to reinstate the discharged employees and to pay them damages. The court thus reaffirmed the principle that "State officials are not immune from suits when they transcend their lawful authority by invading constitutional rights."

The plaintiffs sued the commissioner under section 1-1983 of the act of 1871, which imposes liability upon anyone who deprives another person of guarantees under U.S. Constitution and statutes while acting "under color" of law or usage of a State or territory.² Specifically, they charged that by firing them, the official deprived them of the freedom of association under the First Amendment, as extended to the States.

Upholding the plaintiffs and overruling a district court's opinion that the facts in the case did not constitute a claim under the old law, the appeals court held that the defendant commissioner had, indeed, violated the First Amendment's guarantee by discharging the employees while act-

ing "under color" of law: he exceeded his official authority by invading constitutional rights of the employees.

The court reviewed a number of important Supreme Court decisions and an appellate decision, to show that freedom of association in a labor union is protected by the two amendments to the U.S. Constitution, public employees included. Here are some of the citations from the Supreme Court's comments.

In 1945:

... Great secular causes, with small ones, are guarded. . . . And the rights of free speech and a free press are not confined to any field of human interest. The idea is not sound, therefore, that the First Amendment's safeguards are wholly inapplicable to business or economic activity. . . .

... The right . . . to discuss, and inform people concerning, the advantages and disadvantages of unions and joining them is protected not only as part of free speech, but as part of free assembly. . . .³

In 1952—a statement whose theme was subsequently repeated on several occasions, and which provided an answer to the present defendant's claim that the discharged employees had no federally protected right to continued public employment:

... [T]he facile generalization that there is no constitutionally protected right to public employment [obscures] the issue. [The Court has upheld the Hatch Act, which limits the right to Federal employment, as a necessary restraint on Federal employees in matters of political activity. But the Court has also ruled that Congress cannot indulge in such unwarranted enactments as would bar people of certain political or racial groups from holding a Federal office.] We need not pause to consider whether an abstract right to public employment exists. It is sufficient to say that constitutional protection does extend to the public servant whose exclusion . . . is patently arbitrary or discriminatory.⁴

In 1967—a specific rejection of the theory that public employment "may be conditioned upon surrender of constitutional rights which could not be

Prepared by Eugene Skotzko of the Office of Publications, Bureau of Labor Statistics, in cooperation with the Office of the Solicitor of Labor.

abridged by direct government action.”⁵

In 1968, on the strength of the above pronouncements of the Supreme Court, the U.S. Court of Appeals in Chicago generalized that

... Public employment may not be subjected to unreasonable conditions. . . . Unless there is some illegal intent, an individual's right to form and join a union is protected by the First Amendment. . . .⁶

The court observed that there were “no paramount public interest[s]” of the city or the State of Nebraska that would demand limitation of the plaintiffs’ right to freedom of association while in public employment. It also cited the State constitution’s provision that “no person shall be denied employment because of membership in or affiliation with . . . a labor organization,” adding that this provision was not limited to private employment.

As for the defendant’s contention that the plaintiffs were not entitled to Federal adjudication because they had not exhausted State remedies (the court of industrial relations, and the conciliation and arbitration machinery), the court disposed of it rather briefly. It cited the record indicating that courts and agencies of Nebraska could not be counted upon to provide adequate remedy.

Labor relations

RACIAL DISCRIMINATION. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 is not the only—nor necessarily the most effective—weapon in the war on racial discrimination in employment. Recently, the issue of such discrimination by employer was brought within the purview of the National Labor Relations Act for the first time, and its adjudication by the National Labor Relations Board was subsequently upheld by a Federal Court of Appeals. In *Packinghouse Workers*,⁷ the court not only found that the NLRB had authority in actions of this kind, but indicated that it may be more advantageous for aggrieved workers to seek relief under the NLRA than to follow the procedure under Title VII. Substantively, the court ruled that an employer’s policy and practice of racial discrimination in themselves are unlawful under the NLRA since they interfere with employees’ statutory rights of concerted activity on behalf of their interests.

A union had charged an employer with a series

of unfair labor practices committed during contract negotiations, including refusal to bargain over a condition of racial discrimination against Negroes and Latin Americans which allegedly existed in the company’s plants. The NLRB ruled that, indeed, the company violated the NLRA (section 8(a)(5)) when it refused to bargain over its discriminatory practice. But the Board failed to rule, as the union claimed it should have ruled, that the company’s policy of racial discrimination in itself was an unfair labor practice.

As the court of appeals later pointed out, adjudication of suits involving racial discrimination by unions was nothing new to the NLRB. Such issues had in the past been decided on the principle of a union’s duty to provide fair and equal representation to all members. But prior to the present instance, the Board had received no complaints in which an employer’s policy of discrimination because of race was charged to be a violation of the NLRA.

Thus, the question that stood before the court for obviously a trail-blazing decision was, “can an employer’s policy and practice of invidious discrimination against its employees on account of race or national origin violate section 8(a)(1) of the [NLRA]?” The answer was a somewhat conditional “yes”: “in order to hold that employer racial discrimination violates [the section] it must be found that such discrimination is not merely unjustifiable, but that it interferes with or restrains discriminated employees from exercising their statutory right to act concertedly for their own aid and protection, as guaranteed by section 7 of the act.”

At this point, the conditionality of the court’s language suggests that the court recognized the possibility of a racial discrimination that would not be illegal under the NLRA. But this impression is quickly obliterated by subsequent unequivocal statements. First, the court pointed out that racial discrimination never was justified, even before it was made unlawful by Title VII, and its impact on the flow of interstate commerce was “enormous.” Second, the organizational and moral effects of such discrimination upon employees are destructive. As regards the latter, the court asked “whether that discrimination inhibits its victims from asserting themselves against their employer to improve their lot,” and answered that it does.

The court proceeded :

. . . This effect is twofold : (1) racial discrimination sets up an unjustified clash of interests between groups of workers, which tends to reduce the likelihood and the effectiveness of their working in concert to achieve their legitimate goals under the act; and (2) racial discrimination creates in its victims an apathy or docility which inhibits them from asserting their rights against the perpetrator of the discrimination. We find that the confluence of these two factors sufficiently deters the exercise of section 7 rights as to violate section 8(a) (1).

For support, the court turned to an authoritative sociological study (Gunnar Myrdal, *An American Dilemma*, 1944), which forcefully depicts the cruel effects of racial discrimination, and then cited the Supreme Court's decision in *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka*,⁸ one of the school integration cases, where the High Court said, ". . . To separate [Negroes] from others of similar age and qualifications solely because of their race generates a feeling of inferiority as to their status in the community that may affect their hearts and minds in a way unlikely ever to be undone. . . ."

Significantly, the court went to considerable lengths in establishing the NLRB's jurisdiction in the case, citing legislative history of Title VII, particularly the request of the Department of Justice that the NLRB be not deprived of jurisdiction over actions violative of both Title VII and the NLRA. And since Title VII gives the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission no enforcement power of its own, and aggrieved individuals themselves must ask a court for the protection of their rights, the court suggested, "it is open to the employees to use either Title VII or the NLRA, or both. The [NLRB] has concurrent jurisdiction with the EEOC." The Civil Rights Act itself says nothing about the Board's being ousted from jurisdiction in matters of racial discrimination. "It may be advantageous for a person aggrieved by racial discrimination in employment to use other means of obtaining relief," the court said.

The case was remanded to the NLRB for determination of whether the company indeed does have such a policy and practice of racial discrimination.

COMPANY HOUSING. It would seem that conditions of employment, like wages, being bargainable under the law, should be clearly determined in an agreement between the employer and his em-

ployees or their representative. Yet they seldom are, and what constitutes a bargainable condition of employment must frequently be deduced from pertinent circumstances. When, for instance, a company provides housing to meet the needs of its employees, the housing may be subject to bargaining even if it has not been explicitly agreed upon to be an employment condition. One point of certainty has emerged from litigation so far, namely, that it is not a matter-of-law rule that company housing is—or is not—a bargainable factor.

In the instant case (*American Smelting and Refining Co. v. NLRB*⁹), a court of appeals upheld an NLRB decision that housing provided by a mine company for its employees was bargainable, and that the company, in effect, unlawfully refused to bargain with the employees' union when it unilaterally raised the rental charges. But the court ruled so only because the circumstances in the situation dictated such a verdict.

The pertinent facts were these: A town wholly owned and operated by the employer, and located near the company's mine, housed about two-thirds of the workers employed in the mine. Only a few residents were not company employees. The nearest place where some private housing was available was 25 miles away, and 25 percent of the workers commuted from a town 40 miles distant. The company town was at the end of a dirt road, 20 miles from the nearest main road. Rents had not been raised for 12 years. As workers left the company they were asked to vacate their dwellings, and there was a waiting list for prospective occupants. Once, during a bargaining negotiation, the company rejected the union's demand for a travel allowance on the ground that company housing was available near the mine.

In line with the NLRA's provision (section 9(a)) for bargaining over conditions of employment, the NLRB adopted its trial examiner's conclusion, reached apparently as a matter of law, that in this instance the rental on company housing "is by its very nature an integral part of the employment relation . . . and thus necessarily included among the conditions of . . . employment and bargainable [as such] whether or not it is treated as included within the term 'wages' as used in section 9(a) of the act." The company challenged this holding, relying on an appellate decision (*NLRB v. Bemis Brothers Bag Co.*¹⁰) in

which the court refused to consider company-supplied housing as a condition of employment.

The court disagreed with the matter-of-law stance of both the trial examiner and the company. It upheld the Board's decision and order, but said, "We think that the determination whether the rental of company housing constitutes a 'condition of employment' . . . depends upon an evaluation of the relevant facts of the particular case." As for the employer's reliance on the *Bemis* decision, the court in effect told the company that it had misread the decision. The situation there was different since the company-provided housing was not a crucial factor in employment (the company housing was on the outskirts of a town of 13,000 inhabitants, public

transportation was adequate, and only one-third of employees lived in the company town). Rather, the court said, the governing test in the instant situation was that established in *NLRB v. Lehigh Portland Cement Co.*,¹¹ where the court had said, "It is sufficient to bring them [company housing] within the field of collective bargaining if their ownership and management materially affect the condition of employment." In this case, the Board found that low rents and the proximity of the dwellings to the place of work, in an area where housing was unavailable, "materially affected conditions of employment." The company was dutybound to bargain with the union over the increase in rental charges. □

FOOTNOTES

¹ *American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees v. Woodward* (C.A. 8, January 17, 1969).

² Section 1-1983 of the Civil Rights Act of 1871 provides:

Every person who under color of any statute, ordinance, regulation, custom, or usage, of any State or Territory, subjects, or causes to be subjected, any citizen of the United States or other person within the jurisdiction thereof to the deprivation of any rights, privileges, or immunities secured by the Constitution and laws, shall be liable to the party injured in an action of law, suit in equity, or other proper proceeding for redress.

³ *Thomas v. Collins*, 323 U.S. 516 (1945).

⁴ *Wieman v. Updegraff*, 34 U.S. 183, 191-92 (1952).

⁵ *Keyishian v. Board of Regents of New York*, 385 U.S. 589, 605 (1967).

⁶ *McLaughlin v. Tilendis*, 398 F.2d 287 (C.A. 7, 1968).

⁷ *United Packinghouse Workers v. NLRB* (C.A.-D.C., February 7, 1969).

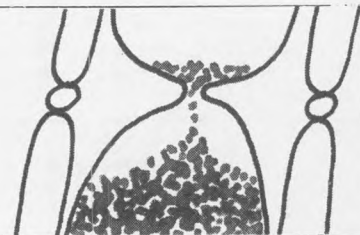
⁸ 347 U.S. 483, 494 (1954).

⁹ C.A. 9, January 22, 1969.

¹⁰ 206 F.2d 33 (C.A. 5, 1953).

¹¹ 205 F.2d 821 (C.A. 4, 1953).

Major Agreements Expiring Next Month



This list of collective bargaining agreements ending in June 1969, prepared in the Bureau's Office of Wages and Industrial Relations, includes agreements covering 1,000 workers or more in all industries except government.

Company and location	Industry	Union ¹	Number of workers
Allied Building Metal Industries (New York)	Construction	Iron Workers	1,100
Allied Building Metal Industries (New York, N.Y.)	Construction	Iron Workers	1,200
Allied Underwear Assn., Inc. (New York, N.Y.)	Apparel	Ladies' Garment Workers	6,000
American Airlines, Inc., Pilots (Interstate) ²	Air transportation	Air Line Pilots	3,500
Assn. of Motion Picture and Television Producers, Inc. (Interstate)	Amusements	Writers Guild (Ind.)	1,750
Associated Brick Mason Contractors of Greater New York, Inc. (Nassau and Suffolk Counties, N.Y.)	Construction	Laborers	1,500
Associated General Contractors of America:			
Alaska Chapter (Alaska)	Construction	Carpenters	3,000
Alaska Chapter (Alaska)	Construction	Laborers; Bricklayers; Plasterers; Lathers; and Operating Engineers	5,000
Atlanta Contractors' Labor Committee of the Georgia Branch (Atlanta, Ga.)	Construction	Carpenters	3,200
Connecticut State Chapter; and Connecticut Steel Fabricators and Erectors Assn., Inc. (Connecticut)	Construction	Iron Workers	1,000
Houston Chapter; and Construction Employers' Assn. of Texas (Texas)	Construction	Laborers	5,000
Keystone Building Contractors Assn. (Western Pennsylvania)	Construction	Laborers	1,200
Mississippi Gulf Coast Chapter (Mississippi)	Construction	Carpenters	1,250
Mississippi Gulf Coast Chapter (Mississippi)	Construction	Laborers	1,000
Southern California Chapter; Building Contractors Assn. of California, Inc.; Engineering and Grading Contractors Assn., Inc.; and Home Builders Assn. (Southern California)	Construction	Operating Engineers	10,000
Utah Chapter (Utah)	Construction	Carpenters	2,500
Utah Chapter (Utah)	Construction	Operating Engineers	1,200
Atlanta Transit System, Inc. (Georgia)	Transit	Amalgamated Transit Union	1,000
Atlas Chemical Industries, Inc. (Tamaqua, Pa.)	Chemicals	Mine Workers, District 50 (Ind.)	1,100
Auburn Shoe Manufacturers Assn. (Auburn and Lewiston, Maine)	Leather	Lewiston-Auburn Shoeworkers Protective Assn. (Ind.)	
Bell Aerospace Corp., Bell Aerosystems Co. Division (Niagara and Erie Counties, N.Y.)	Transportation equipment	Auto Workers (Ind.)	2,300
Bell Aerospace Corp., Bell Helicopter Co. Division, 2 agreements (Tarrant and Dallas Counties, Tex.)	Transportation equipment	Auto Workers (Ind.)	6,600
Boeing Co. (State of Washington and Ogden, Utah)	Transportation equipment	Seattle Professional Engineering Employees Assn. (Ind.)	13,350
Boeing Co. (Wichita, Kans.)	Transportation equipment	Wichita Engineering Assn. (Ind.)	1,200
Building Contractors' and Mason Builders' Assn. of Greater New York, Inc.; and Investing Builders Assn., Inc. (New York, N.Y., area)	Construction	Elevator Constructors	2,800
Building Material Industry Contract ³ (New York, N.Y., area)	Retail trade	Teamsters (Ind.)	1,100
Building Trades Employers Assn. of Long Island, Inc. (Nassau and Suffolk Counties, N.Y.)	Construction	Laborers	1,500
Building Trades Employers Assn. of Long Island, Inc. (Nassau and Suffolk Counties, N.Y.)	Construction	Operating Engineers	2,200
Carpenters ³ (Nassau County, N.Y., and vicinity)	Construction	Carpenters	4,000
Cement League (New York)	Construction	Lathers	1,000
Cement League; and Metropolitan Building Contractors Assn. (New York)	Construction	Plasterers and Cement Masons	1,500
Cement League; and Metropolitan Building Contractors Assn. (New York)	Construction	Laborers	5,200
Central Hudson Gas and Electric Co. (Poughkeepsie, N.Y.)	Utilities	Electrical Workers (IBEW)	1,100
Chicago Pneumatic Tool Co. (Utica, N.Y.)	Machinery	Machinists; Molders	1,650
Cincinnati Culinary Council, Inc. (Cincinnati, Ohio)	Restaurants	Hotel and Restaurant Employees	1,000
Confectioners Industrial Relations Board, Inc. (New York and New Jersey)	Food products	American Bakery Workers	4,500
Copeland Refrigeration Corp. (Sidney, Ohio)	Machinery	Electrical Workers (IUE)	2,300
Dairies ³ (Washington, D.C., area)	Food products	Teamsters (Ind.)	1,750
Detroit Edison Co. (Michigan)	Utilities	Utility Workers	3,500
Dock and Pier Carpenters ³ (New York and New Jersey)	Construction	Carpenters	1,950
Dow Chemical Co., Texas Division (Freeport, Tex.)	Chemicals	Ten maintenance and operating unions, including Teamsters (Ind.)	3,900
East Ohio Gas Co. (Ohio)	Utilities	Service Employees	2,600
Empire State Cloth Hat and Cap Manufacturers, Inc.; National Headwear Manufacturers Assn., Inc.; Uniform Manufacturers Exchange, Inc. (New York, N.Y.)	Apparel	Hatters	2,550
Employing Metallic Furring and Lathing Assn. of New York (New York)	Construction	Lathers	1,500
Federal Pacific Electric Co. (Newark, N.J.)	Electrical products	Electrical Workers (IBEW)	1,500
Fieldcrest Mills, Inc. (North Carolina and Virginia)	Textiles	Textile Workers Union	4,900

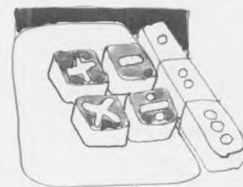
See footnotes at end of table.

Major agreements expiring next month—Continued

Company and location	Industry	Union ¹	Number of workers
Gates Rubber Co. (Denver, Colo.)	Rubber	Rubber Workers	3,000
General Contractors Assn. and 6 other associations (New York, N.Y., area)	Construction	Laborers	5,400
General Contractors Assn. of New York City (New York, N.Y.)	Construction	Operating Engineers	3,400
General Dynamics Corp., Electric Boat Division (Groton, Conn.)	Transportation equipment	Marine Draftsmen's Assn. of Port of New London (Ind.)	2,500
General Time Corp., Westclox Division (Peru, Ill.)	Controlling instruments	Mine Workers, District 50 (Ind.)	2,350
Glass Management Assn. (California)	Stone, clay, glass, and concrete products	Painters and Paperhangers	1,000
Great Atlantic and Pacific Tea Co. (New York)	Retail trade	Teamsters (Ind.)	1,100
Ingersoll Rand Co. (Athens, Pa.)	Machinery	Machinists	1,200
Iowa Manufacturing Co. (Cedar Rapids, Iowa)	Machinery	Machinists	1,000
Iron League of New York, Inc. (New York, N.Y.)	Construction	Operating Engineers	1,300
Jefferson City Cabinet Co. (Jefferson City, Tenn.)	Furniture	Electrical Workers (IUE)	1,850
John Hancock Mutual Life Insurance Co. (Interstate)	Finance, insurance, and real estate	Insurance Workers	5,450
John H. Swisher & Son, Inc. (Jacksonville, Fla.) ²	Tobacco manufactures	Cigar Makers	1,250
Kansas Power and Light Co. (Topeka, Kans.)	Utilities	Electrical Workers (IBEW)	1,200
Kimberly Clark Corp. (Niagara Falls, N.Y.) ²	Paper	Mine Workers, District 50 (Ind.)	1,250
Knitted Outerwear Manufacturers Assn., Pennsylvania District (Philadelphia, Pa., area)	Textiles	Ladies' Garment Workers	8,300
Lingerie Manufacturers Assn. (New York, N.Y., area)	Apparel	Ladies' Garment Workers	2,000
Louis Marx & Co. of West Virginia (Glen Dale, W. Va.)	Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	Retail, Wholesale, and Department Store Union	1,200
Maritime Service Committee, Inc.; and Tanker Service Committee, Inc. (standard freightship and tanker agreements) (Atlantic and Gulf Coasts): ²			
(1) Unlicensed seamen	Water transportation	Seafarers	12,000
(2) Unlicensed personnel	Water transportation	Maritime	27,000
(3) Licensed engineers	Water transportation	Marine Engineers	4,500
(4) Licensed deck officers	Water transportation	Masters, Mates, and Pilots	6,500
Marshall Field & Co. (Chicago, Ill.)	Retail trade	Service Employees	1,000
Meat Trade Institute, Inc. (New York and New Jersey)	Food products	Meat Cutters	3,600
Mechanical Contractors Assn. of New York, Inc. (New York)	Construction	Plumbers and Pipefitters	4,200
Miehle-Goss-Dexter, Inc., Goss Co. Division (Chicago, Ill.)	Machinery	Machinists	1,050
National Electrical Contractors Assn., Inc., Puget Sound Chapter (Seattle, Wash.)	Construction	Electrical Workers (IBEW)	1,600
National Screw and Manufacturing Co. (Northern Ohio)	Fabricated metal products	Auto Workers (Ind.)	1,000
Negligee Manufacturers Assn. (New York, N.Y., area)	Apparel	Ladies' Garment Workers	1,800
New York Electrical Contractors Assn., Inc.; Master Electrical Contractors' Assn., Inc.; Greater City Electrical Contractors' Assn., Inc.; and Assn. of Electrical Contractors, Inc. (New York, N.Y.)	Construction	Electrical Workers (IBEW)	9,600
New York State Electric and Gas Corp. (New York)	Utilities	Electrical Workers (IBEW)	2,600
Northwest Paper Co. (Cloquet and Brainerd, Minn.)	Paper	Papermakers and Paperworkers; Pulp and Sulphite Workers; and Firemen and Oilers	2,000
Norton Co., Behr-Manning Co. Division (Watervliet, N.Y.)	Stone, clay, glass, and concrete products	Papermakers and Paperworkers	1,700
Ohio Edison Co. (Ohio)	Utilities	Utility Workers	1,750
Pacific Maritime Assn. (Interstate):			
(1) Licensed engineers	Water transportation	Marine Engineers	2,300
(2) Licensed deck officers	Water transportation	Masters, Mates, and Pilots	2,100
(3) Unlicensed seamen	Water transportation	Seafarers	13,450
Painters and Decorators Joint Committees (Southern California)	Construction	Painters and Paperhangers	13,450
Painting and Decorating Contractors Assn. of San Diego County, Inc.; Orange County, Palm Springs and Tri-Associated Drywall Contractors, Inc. (California)	Construction	Painters and Paperhangers	4,000
Painting and Decorating Employers Assn. of Boston (Boston, Mass., and vicinity)	Construction	Painters and Paperhangers	1,300
Pan American World Airways, Inc., service supply clerks (Interstate) ²	Air transportation	Teamsters (Ind.)	1,150
Plumbing-Heating and Piping Employers Council (Southern California)	Construction	Plumbers and Pipefitters	15,000
Retail Drug Store Operators ³ (California)	Retail trade	Retail Clerks	4,900
Sheet Metal Contractors Assn. of New York City, Inc.; and Mechanical Contractors Assn. of New York, Inc. (New York)	Construction	Sheet Metal Workers	3,350
Southern California Lumber Employers Council (Los Angeles, Calif.)	Lumber	Carpenters	2,500
Sperry Rand Corp., Remington Office Machines Division (Elmira, N.Y.)	Machinery	Machinists	1,500
Sperry Rand Corp., Univac Division (Utica, N.Y.)	Machinery	Machinists	2,250
Union Electric Co., office, clerical, sales, and technical classifications (Interstate)	Utilities	Electrical Workers (IBEW)	1,150
Union Electric Co., power plant employees (Interstate)	Utilities	Operating Engineers	1,300
Union Electric Co., production and maintenance (Interstate)	Utilities	Electrical Workers (IBEW)	1,950
United Underwear Contractors' Assn., Inc.; and Greater Blouse and Skirt Contractors' Assn., Inc. (New York, N.Y., area)	Apparel	Ladies' Garment Workers	4,500
Wheelabrator Corp., Twin Industries Corp. Division (Buffalo, N.Y.)	Transportation equipment	Machinists	1,000
Wisconsin Electric Power Co. (Wisconsin)	Utilities	Electrical Workers (IBEW)	1,000
Wrecking Contractors Assn. of the City of New York (New York, N.Y.)	Construction	Laborers	1,400

¹ Union affiliated with AFL-CIO except where noted as independent (Ind.).² Information is from newspaper account of settlement.³ Industry area (group of companies signing same contract).

Developments in Industrial Relations



DISPUTES IN TRANSPORTATION drew the spotlight in contract bargaining during March. In railroads, Presidential Emergency Board recommendations led to 18-month agreements for 35,000 Locomotive Engineers and 15,000 Conductors and Brakemen with the Nation's Class I railroads. Another Presidential board recommendation was subject to approval by 11,000 Signalmen who also were bargaining with Class I railroads.

Airlines were also affected. A 3-week strike over economic issues at American Airlines ended on March 19, following agreement on a contract for nearly 13,000 ground service and related employees. At Pan American, the NLRB certified the Teamsters as bargaining agent for 8,100 clerical employees, following a long representation dispute. Meanwhile, a strike-lockout of over 1,000 Machinists continued at National Airlines; supervisory and other personnel helped maintain flight service.

Railroads

On March 10, the independent Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers reached an 18-month agreement with Class I railroads based on a Presidential Emergency Board's February 12 recommendations.¹ The settlement gave 35,000 employees a 5-percent increase in basic daily rates and a 3½-percent boost in mileage rates retroactive to July 1, 1968, and daily wage and mileage rate increases of 2 percent on January 1, 1969, and of 3 percent on July 1, 1969.

In addition, road service engineers will receive a 2-percent special adjustment after the calculation of the July 1, 1969, wage boosts. However, engineers operating without a fireman will receive a

\$4 increase in basic daily rates and 4 cents per mile for miles in excess of 100, in lieu of the July 1, 1969, general wage hikes and special adjustments. Supplementary benefits were also improved.

Later in March, 15,000 conductors and brakemen represented by the United Transportation Union concluded an 18-month agreement with the railroads. Basic daily rates were increased 5 percent and mileage rates were hiked 3½ percent, retroactive to July 1, 1968. Employees other than conductors received up to an additional 2 cents; and employees in local freight service received another 40-cent boost in basic daily rates. Both daily and mileage rates increased 2 percent retroactive to January 1, 1969, and 3 percent on July 1, 1969. After July 1, 1969, wage scales have been calculated, road service conductors will receive an additional 1 percent plus a 32-cent boost in basic daily rates. Car scale additives, holidays, and vacations improved.

An emergency board created on January 13 by former President Johnson recommended wage increases averaging 14½ percent over 18 months for 11,000 Railroad Signalmen on Class I railroads. The proposed increases were 3½ percent (plus a 20-cent-an-hour skill adjustment for 8,000 of the workers) retroactive to July 1, 1968, 2 percent effective January 1, 1969, and 3 percent on July 1, 1969. The skill adjustment is aimed at restoring wage parity with electricians, who received a 20-cent skill adjustment under a 1967 arbitration award for shopcraft employees.² Under the Railway Labor Act, the Signalmen were barred from striking until April 7.

Airlines

Following the Administration's decision not to invoke the emergency provisions of the Railway Labor Act, ground service, stores, and communications employees struck at American Airlines, Inc. On March 19, the Transport Workers ratified

Prepared by Leon Bornstein and other members of the staff of the Division of Trends in Employee Compensation, Bureau of Labor Statistics, and based on information from newspapers and other secondary sources available in March.

a 34-month contract with the carrier. Workers won pay boosts of 5 percent retroactive to May 1, 1968, and another 5 percent retroactive to January 1, 1969, 5 percent on August 30, 1969, 4 percent on February 14, 1970, and 4 percent on August 15, 1970. A 5-cent-an-hour premium for mechanics was established for each license held, up to a maximum of 10 cents per employee, effective May 24, 1969. The accord stipulated a 10-cent-an-hour increase in shift differentials for employees on the third and on rotating shifts in 1970.

Workers will receive a minimum \$15-a-month pension benefit for each year of service and full pension vesting at any age, after 10 years of participation in the plan. Employee pension contributions remain the same. Health and welfare gains included a maximum \$20,000 comprehensive benefit, with automatic \$2,000 restoration, coverage of retirees under the same group insurance plan as active employees with the carrier paying the full cost, and improved emergency out-patient and maternity benefits. Other terms of the agreement included a ninth paid holiday, a fifth week of vacation after 20 years of service in 1970, improved jury provisions, and restrictions on weekend work.

A protracted dispute involving 8,100 clerical employees at Pan American World Airways, Inc., ended on February 14, when the National Mediation Board certified the Teamsters as the bargaining agent. The dispute began in 1965 when the Teamsters petitioned the Board for an election. Subsequently, two elections were held but both were invalidated by the Board on technicalities. The carriers' clerical employees have been without a contract since March 16, 1967; however, the company granted 5-percent wage increases in September 1967, March 1968, and September 1968. The Teamsters, who won the January 1969 election, are planning to focus their bargaining on winning retroactive pay increases.

An arbitration panel³ ruled on February 22 that there should be a third crew member in the cockpit of all Boeing 737 jets at United Airlines through March of next year. United and the Air Line Pilots Association had agreed to the arbitration in March 1968 after they were unable to solve a dispute over the need for a 3-man crew.⁴

In making its decision, the panel said that "the presence of a third man in the cockpit of the 737 during the 'debugging' period will make a sig-

nificant contribution to flight safety." The panel also said that, after the crews have gained operating experience, two-man operation of the craft should eventually be possible. Accordingly, the panel recommended that the parties meet by October 1, 1969, to negotiate procedures for permanent settlement of the dispute by March 1, 1970, when their collective bargaining agreement and the panel's ruling expire. The decision is of interest to other lines since it could affect their operating costs for planes similar to the twin-engine 737.

In Miami, Fla., a U.S. district court judge found National Airlines, Inc., guilty of violating the Railway Labor Act in a dispute involving more than 1,000 Machinists. The March ruling pointed out that the carrier changed the status quo of working conditions after notices for bargaining had been exchanged by the parties. In late 1968, National reduced the size of Boeing 727 air taxi crews from 3 to 2 men. In January, 3 mechanics at New York City's JFK International Airport refused to taxi the aircraft with 2-man crews. They were subsequently suspended and a work stoppage ensued. National later ordered over 1,000 strikers back to work; when they refused to comply, the carrier fired them. The airline has been operating on reduced schedules using supervisors, some newly hired employees, and a few regular employees to maintain the aircraft. Since the order was issued, the airline has been using 3-man supervisory crews to taxi the aircraft.

Maritime

Over 10,000 employees of 3 West Coast affiliates of the Seafarers (SIU) won parity adjustments in wages and benefits from the Pacific Maritime Association (PMA) in late March. The boosts which are retroactive to January 1, 1969, matched raises won by other seagoing unions. All three affiliates won \$2.10 per man-day increases in total employment costs. Allocation of the moneys varied. The Marine Cooks and Stewards received a \$30-a-month increase in basic wages; 50 cents per man-day to establish a deferred income severance plan; 50 cents per man-day for dental care; and 10 cents per man-day for the jointly administered hiring hall fund. The Pacific Coast Marine Firemen allocated the entire \$2.10 to wages. The Sailors Union of the Pacific allocated \$2 to a supplemental pen-

sion plan and the remaining 10 cents per man-day to the hiring hall fund.

Local and intercity transit

The Amalgamated Transit Union ratified 3-year contracts with the Eastern, Southern, and Central divisions of Greyhound Lines, Inc., in mid-February.⁵ The agreements, covering 13,000 drivers, maintenance, and terminal employees, provided a wage increase of 1 mill per mile or 2 cents an hour for Eastern Division employees and 5 mills or 12 cents an hour for the others, retroactive to November 1, 1968. All employees will receive increases of 4 mills per mile or 12 cents an hour effective November 1 of both 1969 and 1970. Mechanics won additional boosts of 8 cents on November 1, 1968, and 2 cents on November 1, 1969.

Other terms included incorporation of the 11-cent cost-of-living escalator allowance into base rates and continuation of the formula on a revised basis, a ninth paid holiday effective in 1970, improved vacations and sick leave, increased company contributions to the health and welfare fund, and improved pension benefits, together with company assumption of the full cost of the pension plan at Eastern Greyhound.

The Amalgamated Transit Union reached a 3-year agreement with the Massachusetts Bay Transportation Authority in late February for 4,500 Boston area transit employees. The settlement provided pay boosts of 5 cents an hour retroactive to January 1, 1969, 8 cents on July 1, 1969, 5 cents on January 1, 1970, 8 cents on July 1, 1970, and 13 cents on July 1, 1971. In addition, vacations, life and hospital insurance, and sick leave provisions improved.

Mining

Mine walkouts in several States created news. Coal miners in West Virginia returned to work in mid-March after Governor Arch W. Moore signed a law extending workmen's compensation protection to victims of pneumoconiosis, the "black lung" disease which results from inhalation of coal dust. The 43,000 miners began the walkout in mid-February to force passage of the bill. Several hundred miners in Kentucky and Ohio also struck to show their support. In Pennsylvania, a 1-week strike by 6,000 miners over job bidding procedures

ended early in March. These strikes severely reduced the coal stockpiles of many utilities and manufacturing companies.

About 8,000 hard coal miners in eastern Pennsylvania benefited from a 3-year contract negotiated in mid-March between the United Mine Workers and the anthracite operators. Wages were increased \$1.40 a day—70 cents effective April 1, 1969, and 35 cents on April 1, 1970, and 1971. Among the changes in supplementary benefits was the adoption of employer-financed Blue Cross-Blue Shield coverage for 10,000 retired workers. In recent years, both active and retired miners have had to pay most of their health care costs because declining demand for hard coal had resulted in a reduction in employer payments to the health and welfare fund. The payment rate is 70 cents for each ton of coal mined, compared with 40 cents in the soft coal industry, which has a separate fund.

Petroleum

Settlements ended walkouts at refineries of two major oil producers. A strike of almost 7 weeks by 7,400 workers at Texaco, Inc., refineries across the Nation⁶ ended in mid-February when the Oil Workers signed 2-year contracts. The agreements followed the general pattern in the oil refining industry set by Union Oil Co. of California's January 12 settlement with the union.⁷

On March 2, the American Oil Co., a subsidiary of Standard Oil Co. (Indiana), and the Independent Petroleum Workers of America agreed to a 2-year contract for 2,300 production and maintenance employees at its Whiting, Ind., refinery. A 17-day strike preceded the settlement. Terms were a 6-percent (minimum 22 cents an hour) general wage increase effective immediately, and a 4.5-percent increase in 1970; second- and third-shift differentials of 15 and 30 cents, respectively; retirement at full benefit rates at age 62 plus company assumption of full cost of the pension plan; and a one-third increase in the company's contribution to the hospitalization plans.

Metalworking

About 4,800 employees of the Olin Mathieson Chemical Corp. in East Alton, Ill., were affected by a February settlement with the Machinists.

Wage terms included a 20-cent-an-hour general increase retroactive to December 1, 1968, with an additional 10-cent-an-hour increase for skilled employees, a 6-percent general increase the second year, and an 18-cent-an-hour general increase in the third and final year. Other terms included higher shift differentials, a ninth paid holiday, 4 weeks of vacation after 15 years rather than 20, and improved pensions and funeral leave. Effective January 1, 1970, employees become eligible to participate in the Olin Incentive Thrift Plan. Earlier, about 10 other unions representing a total of 1,000 workers accepted similar terms.

Page Aircraft Maintenance, Inc., a contractor engaged in helicopter overhaul for the Army at Ft. Rucker, Ala., and Ft. Stewart, Ga., settled in February with the Machinists on a 3-year contract for 3,500 employees. Wage terms were an immediate 20-cent-an-hour increase and 25-cent increases in both 1970 and 1971. Terms included increased shift and odd workweek differentials, a tenth paid holiday, and improved vacation eligibility, health insurance, and sick leave.

About 3,000 General Electric Co. employees in Fort Wayne, Ind., received wage increases on March 3 as a result of the company's evaluation of job rates within the plant and a comparison with rates at other firms in the area. The increase, affecting locals of the Electrical Workers (IUE) and the Machinists, were 1- or 2-step upgradings for 90 percent of daywork employees and a 1-step increase for 600 lower-rated nonexempt salaried employees. Incentive employees did not receive increases because their rates were "already competitive," and the question of increases for skilled employees other than maintenance machinists was postponed until completion of discussions at the national level on skilled rates at various company plants. Although the major GE union contracts do not expire until October 1969, the Fort Wayne increases were carried out under provisions allowing local negotiations on wage rates.

Leather

In Massachusetts, a settlement between the United Shoe Workers and 25 shoe companies provided for 15-cent-an-hour wage increases effective in January of both 1969 and 1970. Other terms of the 2-year contract, which covered 6,000 workers

in Beverly, Haverhill, Lynn, and Wakefield, included a ninth paid holiday (Patriots Day) and revised holiday pay; an 11- instead of 7-cent-an-hour employer payment to the pension fund effective in January 1970; an \$11.50 instead of \$3-a-month payment for health and welfare coverage, increasing to \$15 in February 1970; and improved funeral leave and jury duty provisions.

Jewelry

A 34-day strike ended on March 6, after 2,500 members of Local 1 of the Jewelry Workers ratified a new 3-year agreement with 125 precious jewelry manufacturers in mid-town New York. The workers, who produce gold, platinum, and diamond jewelry, received wage increases of 30, 20, and 25 cents in the respective contract years and the starting rate for inexperienced employees rose immediately to \$2 an hour, from \$1.66. In addition, the contract included a provision giving the employees additional pay increases if the rise in the Consumer Price Index during the contract term more than offsets the specified wage increases. Pensions were raised; a ninth paid holiday (Yom Kippur) and vacation, medical, and life insurance improvements completed the package.

Chemicals

Two locals of District 50 of the Mine Workers recently signed similar agreements with the Ethyl Corp. for 3,000 workers at facilities in Houston, Tex., and Baton Rouge, La. The 2-year pacts provided a first-year wage boost of 6 percent retroactive to January 1 and a 4.5-percent increase in the second year. Other provisions included increased shift differentials, company assumption of one-half the employee's retirement contribution in the first year and the full contribution in the second year, full retirement at age 62, and a \$5-a-month increase in the company payment for hospital-surgical insurance.

Apparel

Cost-of-living reopeners^a under existing 3-year Ladies' Garment Workers' contracts resulted in wage increases for nearly 60,000 workers in three major women's and children's apparel industries.

The union and the Atlantic Apparel Contractors Association negotiated a 4-percent general wage increase and higher minimum rates, effective February 3, for approximately 12,000 workers in 140 eastern Pennsylvania shops. In addition, a 3-percent deferred wage increase for pieceworkers, originally scheduled to be effective June 1, 1969, was advanced to February 3.

About 40,000 workers in the women's and children's coat and suit industry in the New York metropolitan area, including sections of New Jersey and Connecticut, received a 6-percent wage increase effective April 1, 1969. The reopener settlement, announced on February 26, provided increases of not less than \$5 nor more than \$8 for a 35-hour workweek.

Earlier in 1969, announcement was made of length-of-service bonuses, paid the first week in March, for 18,000 to 20,000 coat and suit workers. For each employee, the bonus was equal to 2 percent of his earnings for calendar year 1968, with the total cost to employers estimated at \$1.5 million. The bonus, equivalent to a third week's vacation pay, was provided in 3-year contracts negotiated by the Ladies' Garment Workers and three associations of manufacturers.⁹ The length-of-service payment, adopted in 1967 and designed to aid industry stabilization, provided for a 2-percent bonus each year (beginning in 1969) to those workers who, as of December 31 of the previous year, had at least 3 years of continuous service in one shop or that of his employer's contractors.

For the fourth time in the past 2 years, 4,000 members of the Ladies' Garment Workers Union in Kansas City and other areas of Kansas and Missouri received a wage increase under a provision for bargaining when the Consumer Price Index rises 2 percent. The provision is part of a 3-year contract negotiated in 1966 between the union and the Kansas City Garment Manufacturers Association.

The Associated Fur Manufacturers, Inc., and the Meat Cutters reached agreement on a 3-year contract for approximately 6,000 workers in the New York City area. The pact provided wage increases of \$15 a week in 1969 and \$8 a week in 1970 and 1971, improved holiday provisions, a third week of paid vacation after 8 years of service, pensions of \$100, instead of \$70, a month, and a 2-

percent increase in company payments to the health and welfare fund.

Trade and services

Teamsters Local 743 and Aldens, Inc., in Chicago negotiated a 3-year contract in early March for 3,000 warehouse and mail-order employees. Wage increases totaled 55 cents an hour in increments of 25 cents, 15 cents, and 15 cents in the respective contract years. Changes in supplementary benefits included an eighth paid holiday (June 15, birthday of Rev. Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.), a fifth week of vacation after 20 years of service and 4 weeks after 18 instead of 20 years, \$10,000 major medical coverage, instead of \$5,000, and \$5,000 of company-financed life insurance.

Four Meat Cutters locals ratified a 2-year contract in early March with the Acme, A & P, and Food Fair food store chains in southeastern Pennsylvania, southern New Jersey, and Delaware. About 4,500 workers in 560 stores were affected by the settlement, which provided a March 1 wage increase of \$15 a week for all meat department employees, followed by a March 1, 1970, increase of \$14 for head meat cutters, \$12 for journeymen meat cutters, and \$10 for weighers and wrappers. Other terms included a fifth week of vacation after 25 years of service and 4 weeks after 15 instead of 18 years, and retirement at age 62 instead of 65 for employees with 5 years of service.

In February, the A. C. Nielsen Co., an international market research organization, announced a distribution of 55,400 shares of Class A common stock to over 2,700 employees with at least 5 years of service. The shares, valued at about \$2 million, were a gift from A. C. Nielsen, Sr., chairman of the company's board of directors. For employees in the United States, the action included cash payments approximating the income tax payable on the gift. The number of shares distributed ranges from 5 shares for employees with 5 years of service to 120 shares for those with 40 years. Retired employees or their survivors will receive one share for each year of service.

Entertainment

A 12-percent wage hike on February 1, 1969, highlighted 4-year settlements negotiated by 32 film industry local unions¹⁰ and the Association of

Motion Picture and Television Producers, Inc. The pacts affected some 25,000 employees, mainly in Hollywood, Calif., and also provided for a 5-percent wage increase on February 1, 1971, and for 4 percent on February 1, 1972.

Basic pension benefits increased to \$225 a month, from \$200, and the supplemental pension formula improved, substantially increasing benefits. Employer contributions to the pension fund increased to 25.95 cents per hour, from 20.3 cents, and the employee contribution went to 16.4 cents per hour, from 12.8 cents. Employer contributions to the health and welfare fund increased by 5 cents.

Baseball

Baseball's first general strike since 1890 was averted when the owners and the Major League Baseball Players' Association agreed on a 3-year contract February 25. The "strike" would have become effective on March 1, the official start of spring training; a player "boycott" was already in effect against camps opened earlier.

Pension improvements highlighted the pact: the owners agreed to increase their annual fund contribution to \$5.45 million, from \$4.1 million, and to reduce the minimum eligibility to 4 years in the major leagues. Players may now receive actuarially reduced benefits at age 45. The normal benefit rate increased to \$60, from \$50, a month for each of the first 10 years of league service. Thus a 10-year baseball veteran would receive \$600 a month at retirement, compared with the \$1,600 monthly pension afforded 10-year veterans of the National Football League. Baseball players, however, are eligible for normal retirement benefits at age 50, compared with age 65 for gridiron retirees.¹¹ Baseball players also won an increased rate of \$20 (up from \$10) for each of the 11th through 20th years of service.

Other terms included the establishment of a dental plan, and improvements in life insurance, health care, disability, widow, and maternity benefits. The players' percentage share of television revenue, a major issue in the negotiations, was not changed.

Government

TAYLOR LAW. Penalties for strikes by public employees were increased as a result of amendments

to New York State's Taylor law passed in March by the legislature and signed by Governor Nelson Rockefeller. The changes removed a \$10,000-a-day limit on fines against striking unions and the 18-month limit on suspension of dues checkoff. The legislature adopted penalties against individual strikers—2 days' loss of pay for each strike day and a year's probation with loss of job tenure. The Taylor law was passed in 1967, replacing the Condon-Wadlin law, which was rarely enforced because of the severity of its penalties. New York City teachers and sanitationmen¹² struck in 1967 and 1968 in defiance of the law, causing outcries for stiffer penalties.

MUNICIPAL EMPLOYEES. All of New York City's 300,000 union-represented municipal employees could eventually become subject to agency shop provisions as a result of a March settlement negotiated by Local 420 of the State, County and Municipal Employees. The settlement requires each of the 21,000 municipal hospital workers in the bargaining unit who is not a member of the local to pay a "service fee" equal to the members' dues. Implementation of the provision is, however, subject to passage of a State law permitting the agency shop for public employees, and to individual negotiations with each union.

Mayor John Lindsay said that he would support a bill to extend the agency shop to all unions subject to the Office of Collective Bargaining, an independent agency created in 1966 to assist in reaching settlements with the municipal employee unions. Only two unions, the United Federation of Teachers and the Transport Workers, are not now part of this bargaining procedure; they may participate if both they and their employing agencies agree to do so.

New York City's firemen and sanitationmen ratified (in February and March, respectively) an improvement and 3-month extension of the 2-year contracts they had accepted in November 1968. At that time, city officials promised to revise the agreements if the policemen, who had rejected a similar 2-year pact, gained a better settlement. In January, the policemen agreed to a 27-month contract that provided an increase \$200 higher in annual salaries than the rejected offer. The modifications for firemen and sanitationmen were similar to the policemen's agreement,¹³ with the firemen receiving \$200 and sanitationmen \$180 increases

in 2 steps with 2 additional hours of premium pay for Saturday work.

Faced with the elimination of 9,000 welfare department jobs by attrition, the City of New York and locals of the State, County and Municipal Employees agreed on an average 25-percent salary raise over 2 years to compensate workers for the planned cutback and loss of promotion opportunities. The cutback, resulting from a city plan to investigate only 10 percent of welfare applicants instead of the present 100 percent, will eventually eliminate the casework concept. Welfare workers would then provide personal assistance only to clients with special problems.

Caseworkers and supervisors received an 8-percent increase retroactive to January 1 and another 8-percent raise on January 1, 1970; homemakers received 9 percent on January 1 of both 1969 and 1970. In addition, the 15,000 workers will receive \$400 a year to compensate for the decrease in promotion opportunities, and \$340 in 1969 for increased workloads (supervisors received \$375). A 1970 adjustment will be based on the workload increase in 1969. Salaries previously averaged \$7,200 for caseworkers, \$9,500 for supervisors, and \$4,700 for homemakers.

Colleges

The 2-month strike by teachers at San Francisco State College ended in March, when AFT Local 1352 and the College trustees agreed to a pact. The key provision was a change in the grievance procedure to permit a teacher to select from a master list 1 of the 3 members of a panel appointed to hear an appeal. The agreement included amnesty for teachers arrested or disciplined during the strike, negotiations for full reimbursement of any who might have lost benefits because of the strike, and no reduction in teaching positions. The teachers also won independent staffing and financing of the Black Studies Department, a reduction of teaching loads to 9 units a week (from 12), and access to personnel files.

Manpower training

On March 13, President Richard Nixon announced a major reorganization of the Department of Labor's Manpower Administration. Labor Department officials said that the reorganization

creates a single "direct line" between Washington and field offices. The reorganization, which does not require Congressional approval, also established the U.S. Training and Employment Service, combining the functions of the former U.S. Employment Service and the Bureau of Work Training Programs. The new service will oversee all programs providing job training and all agencies furnishing recruitment and job placement services.

Under the plan, the Assistant Secretary of Labor for Manpower will determine policy while a separate manpower administrator will serve under him as operating director. Previously, one person held both jobs. The reorganization also provides for a deputy manpower administrator for employment security.

In 1968, minority group apprentices increased at a rate more than double that for all apprentices. An announcement by Secretary of Labor George P. Shultz revealed that minority apprentices in the Nation rose 19 percent, to 15,600, while the total number of registered apprentices¹⁴ reached an estimated 240,000, an increase of 9 percent. Further, since 1967, minority participation in registered apprenticeship programs rose 68 percent, compared with 16 percent overall. Secretary Shultz expressed confidence that the number of minority apprentices would continue to increase.

Election

Joseph E. Curran was elected to his 15th term as president of the 55,000-member National Maritime Union (NMU) following a court-ordered repeat of the union's 1966 election. In April 1968, a Federal court declared the 1966 election illegal because the union's restrictive eligibility rules for office violated the Landrum-Griffin Act.¹⁵

Mr. Curran, a founder of the NMU in 1937, led a full slate of 94 other candidates to victory over an insurgent group led by James M. Morrissey. Mr. Morrissey announced that he would ask Secretary of Labor George P. Shultz to "review" the election, which took place under Department of Labor supervision. He questioned the right of over 3,000 "shoreside" nonseafaring NMU members in the Panama Canal Zone to vote in an election affecting seamen and alleged that several thousand sailors were "artificially" barred from voting. In the overall vote, Mr. Curran received 17,395 votes, against 4,891 cast for three other

candidates for his post; Shannon J. Wall was reelected secretary-treasurer, defeating Mr. Morrissey by 13,507 to 7,317.

Coordinated bargaining

Ten AFL-CIO unions¹⁶ met in March to plan their controversial coordinated bargaining strategy for over 200,000 workers at General Electric Co. and Westinghouse Electric Corp., where contracts expire in October and November of 1969. An IUE official at the conference announced, "on advice of counsel," that "we don't plan or intend to engage in joint or multiunion bargaining—and that coordinated bargaining doesn't exclude the autonomous right of each union to negotiate its own contract." This limit on union bargaining methods resulted from an NLRB ruling in October

1968 upholding the principle of coordinated bargaining but providing that a union negotiating committee can include officials of other unions only as long as the group bargains solely for workers covered by the contract under negotiation.¹⁷ GE has disputed the legality of coordinated bargaining ever since the unions employed it in 1966.

Strike idleness

Idleness caused by strikes in February amounted to 2,590,000 man-days, or 0.19 percent of the estimated total working time, compared with 0.27 percent in February 1968 and 0.10 percent the prior February.¹⁸ Major strikes included the walk-out of Longshoremen at Atlantic and Gulf Coast ports, the bituminous coal miners' strike, and Transport Workers' work stoppage at American Airlines. □

—FOOTNOTES—

¹ For the recommendations, see *Monthly Labor Review*, April 1969, p. 78.

² For details of the award, see *Monthly Labor Review*, November 1967, p. 59.

³ Arbitrators were Arthur M. Ross, vice president of the University of Michigan; Sylvester Garrett, a Pittsburgh, Pa., lawyer; and Charles C. Killingsworth, a Michigan State University economist.

⁴ See *Monthly Labor Review*, June 1968, p. 77.

⁵ The settlement did not affect employees of the Western Division, where a 1-year contract expired March 1, 1969.

⁶ Two refineries in California and Washington were not affected by the settlement.

⁷ For details of the Union Oil Co. settlement, see *Monthly Labor Review*, March 1969, p. 68.

⁸ For a recent listing of settlements under cost-of-living wage reopeners for members of the Ladies' Garment Workers, see *Monthly Labor Review*, April 1969, p. 80–81.

⁹ New York Coat and Suit Association, Infants' and Children's Coat Association, and American Coat and Suit Manufacturers Association.

¹⁰ The unions involved were locals of the Stage Employees, Teamsters, Hotel and Restaurant Employees, Service Employees, Laborers, Electrical Workers (IBEW), Plasterers, Plumbers, Guards (Ind.), and Office Employees.

¹¹ For details of the football pension plan, see *Monthly Labor Review*, September 1968, p. 68.

¹² See various issues of *Monthly Labor Review*, beginning in August 1967, for details of the two teachers' strikes and the sanitationmen's walkout.

¹³ See *Monthly Labor Review*, April 1969, p. 80, for details of the New York City police settlement.

¹⁴ With the U.S. Department of Labor or with State apprenticeship agencies.

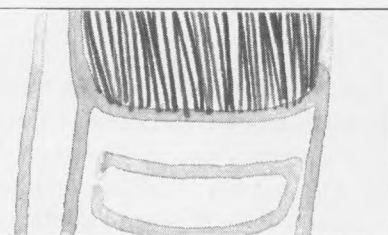
¹⁵ See *Monthly Labor Review*, June 1968, p. 78.

¹⁶ The Electrical Workers (IUE), Brotherhood of Electrical Workers (IBEW), Sheet Metal Workers, Technical Engineers, Steelworkers, Machinists, Allied Industrial Workers, Plumbers, Carpenters, and Flint Glass Workers.

¹⁷ For details of the NLRB decision, see *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1969, pp. 73–74.

¹⁸ Data for 1968 and 1969 are preliminary.

Book Reviews and Notes



A touch of unreality

The Politics and Economics of Public Spending.

The 1968 H. Rowan Gaither Lectures at the University of California, Berkeley. By Charles L. Schultze. Washington, Brookings Institution, 1969. \$4.95, clothbound; \$1.95, paperbound.

In this gem of a little book, Charles Schultze draws on his experience as director of the Bureau of the Budget to discuss the role of the Planning, Programming, Budgeting System in the political decisionmaking process. The book is a worthy successor to Charles Hitch's fine essays that initiated the Gaither Memorial Lectures at the University of California, Berkeley. Schultze's principal theme is the tension between the philosophy of PPB, which essentially embodies the economist's view of the rational decisionmaking process, and the political process by which decisions actually are reached. In contrast to Hitch's lectures, which should be recognized as a sage essay in persuasion, Schultze's book is an analysis of the proper place and limits of the economist's concept of rational decisionmaking. It suggests not just that there are (unfortunate) political constraints on the role of rationality, but that these constraints may well reflect an inherent wisdom of the system.

Chapter 1 presents a short and useful review of the budgetary process of the Federal Government, discussing three different roles of the budget and their evolution. One is that of detailed control of expenditures for a given program. The second is program design. The third is "strategic planning"—facilitating the choice of which programs to undertake. The PPB system is concerned largely with this strategic function—that of making better social choices.

As a mechanism to increase the rationality of decisionmaking, PPB requires an attempt to be clearer about objectives, to try to identify and

somehow to measure the effect of different kinds of "outputs" upon the achievement of these objectives, to develop and assess a range of possible alternatives, and to estimate the "costs" of these alternative programs so that they can be evaluated in terms not only of how well they do in meeting program objectives but also of how much they will detract from our ability to meet other objectives.

Chapters 3, 4, and 5 are the heart of the book. Lindblom, Wildavsky, and others have written at length, and often persuasively, on the characteristics of political decision processes, and the social rationality that these processes embody. Lindblom, in particular, has stressed the blurring of lines between means and ends when one cannot "optimize" his choices. He has pointed out that limits on knowledge and information processing mean that, at any time, only a few alternatives can and should be receiving deliberate policy attention. Given such limitations he has stressed the importance of minimizing chances of dispute (hence very lengthy and costly decisionmaking) about higher order objectives among people who can agree on a mutually satisfactory policy option if the process does not develop too much heat. He has argued for the rationality of an "adaptive," incrementalist system. He has suggested that interest groups plan a very useful role in protecting certain dimensions of welfare.

From this point of view, PPB has a touch of unreality. Worse than this, PPB is designed to shed bright light on policy issues. If policymaking, like lovemaking, is best conducted in a dim room, the result may be pernicious.

Schultze presents this analysis of Lindblom's position fairly, and even somewhat sympathetically, I think, and tries to come to grips with it. He points out that many mistakes, as well as more desirable things, happen when the room is dark. While incrementalism usually is fine, many important issues are not incremental. While decentralization of power and influence often can achieve

some good, there is a time and place for a more comprehensive look at certain problems. He recognizes not only the existence but also the desirability of the political decisionmaking machinery, but suggests that PPB can play a useful role within that machinery. To summarize much too briefly, he argues that the institution of PPB can strengthen the role of one of the advocacy groups—those interested in “efficiency” and “rationality”—and of one of the sets of players in the political game—department heads and the executive office.

In his concluding chapters, Schultze makes a number of interesting observations. One is that many governmental programs require, for their implementation, the actions of people and groups not directly under Government command and control. He suggests that a failing of PPB up to now has been, on the one hand, too much focus on direct governmental actions, and, on the other, not enough analysis of how the actions of private groups can prostitute the purposes of these programs. He proposes that PPB must, in the future, be much more concerned with these facets of the policy problem.

This is an excellent book. I recommend it highly.

—RICHARD R. NELSON
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Yale University

Human interest

The People Specialists. By Stanley M. Herman.
New York, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1968.
320 pp. \$6.95.

Beginning from the early 1900's, the author sketches the history of the personnel man's function and finds him to be in an uneasy state. Many, says the author, have locked themselves into a “pro-fit, anti-do-good” stance, and consider themselves to be a part of the hard-hitting management team who see human relations and better communications simply as a means to increased productivity and profitability. At this point, they become separated from the employee body, but seldom more accepted by top management.

Lucidly, and with considerable persuasion, Mr. Herman urges the personnel practitioner to concern himself with people rather than production. Although this change in role will require courage, he says that management is now veering away

from “human relations” concepts in which workers are to be given merely the impression that their work is important, toward directly accepting that working with people and their feelings is an important and concrete task.

New behavioral science methods, primarily group dynamics or “sensitivity” training, are strongly, but not unqualifiedly, endorsed as leading steps toward industrial humanism. It is pointed out that this style of management, and the organizational functioning that develops, will not always mean increased efficiency, but will mean a more fulfilling work place, greater freedom in trying new ideas, and voluntary rather than manipulated cooperation. According to the author, a growing number of companies are sending increasingly more managerial and supervisory people to group dynamics training, although there is no proof it helps profits or organizational operations. The trend, however, is a recognition of the personal experience involved and the focus of the training on the realities of the human factor in how men work together.

All of the standard personnel functions—recruiter, interviewer, wage administrator, public relations, and complaint center—are fully discussed and peppered with highly fascinating anecdotes. This book, however, is an appeal to the personnel man to move beyond the standard functions by sensing and representing the interests of people and by interpreting to the company the attitudes and values of the outside society.

This volume will probably provoke some controversy, but will undoubtedly remain as an insightful description of the state of modern personnel arts, its shortcomings and potential direction for the future.

—K. G. VAN AUKEN, JR.
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Defining goals

Business Leadership and the Negro Crisis. Edited by Eli Ginzberg. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1968. 175 pp. \$5.95.

The contributions, presented at a 3-day seminar at Columbia University, are organized into five categories, with little effort to tie them together.

The readings tell us what to do, but not how to do it. We are told that we do need: More and better jobs for minority groups; some black capitalism; mass transit systems to transport inner city residents to suburban jobs; low-cost suburban housing near newly located suburban establishments; and better urban education.

Kenneth Clark reiterates these goals following Dr. Ginzberg's opening discussion of our racial and urban problems. However, Professor Clark may be over optimistic particularly when he says "business should insist on clean cities." Why? Will cities cleaned by business yield greater returns than if firms allocated their resources in some other fashion? Perhaps this is the underlying question raised in the book—how do the private and social products and/or the costs affect decisionmaking? Dale Hiestand echoes Dr. Clark's discussion, although he did raise a credibility gap in my mind when he called the JOBS program (Job Opportunities in the Business Sector) the Job Corps in his opening paragraph. I enjoyed the chapters by Andrew Brimmer, Robert C. Wood, and Courtney Brown. Mr. Brimmer points out many ways in which the white community, especially bankers, could help black financiers establish banks in the ghetto. He also notes that desegregation has had a negative effect in the ghetto, and black leaders have left the inner city without leadership as they move to better opportunities.

Robert C. Wood packs a lot of material on our urban dilemma into 11 pages. He argues for mass-produced, low-cost ghetto housing and transit systems to take workers to jobs outside the city.

Dean Courtney Brown asks the question: What are the proper uses of the university? His comments are brief, and to the point.

In the chapter entitled "Black Power," Nathan Wright theorizes that black people have not improved their economic position since 1900, but he fails to give a valid argument. He says that since 17 percent of the population is black, then 17 percent of a particular firm's work force should be black. It would have been better if he compared labor force participation rates and the percent of blacks and whites in the labor force qualified for particular occupations.

From the standpoint of finding out how important the various goals are to each contributor, the

book is interesting. As an aid to policymakers, it offers little help.

—JOHN E. DROTNING

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The cost of spending

Unemployment, Idle Capacity, and the Evaluation of Public Expenditures: National and Regional Analyses. By Robert H. Haveman and John V. Krutilla. Baltimore, Md., Johns Hopkins Press, 1968. 159 pp. \$6.50.

Two fundamental economic policy questions are how much will a certain public expenditure cost in diverted real resources, and how much will it use unemployed resources. The authors estimate the opportunity cost of a sample of water resources projects during a period of excessive unemployment to find direct onsite labor and industry demands. They use the Office of Business Economics interindustry relations table to derive labor demands by industry and the Bureau of Labor Statistics industry-occupation matrix to derive occupational demands. "Labor response functions" are used to translate occupational labor demands into reemployment of unemployed workers; similar functions are used to translate underutilized capital into capital requirements for production. For 1960, the authors estimate that real costs range from 70 to 95 percent of market costs, depending on project type and response functions. Also, the interregional spillover from local projects is large and varies with region and project type.

The methods they develop may be applied to any public expenditure. It may be inferred that such an approach might reorder the priorities for public expenditure projects during a period of high national or regional unemployment. For instance, the cost reduction attributable to use of unemployed resources in space projects is likely to be smaller than the corresponding cost reduction in some water resource projects, because most of the induced labor demand for space projects is for occupations that usually have low unemployment.

Within the limits of the method and available data, the authors have performed creditably and provide a handbook for future applications. The method itself is open to serious question. It is com-

parative—static, rather than dynamic. It assumes (1) fixed coefficients of production, rather than allowing for substitution, (2) linearity rather than system response varying with the size of the project, and (3) occupational immobility.

The net error attributable to these assumptions is impossible to measure, but the method may (1) underestimate the degree of reemployment resulting from an increase in demand, (2) overestimate the opportunity cost of public expenditure projects, and (3) exaggerate differences between projects. Increases in output of various industries differ sharply in their employment effects. The use of a single labor response function for all occupations, then, is probably inadequate. The authors, for lack of data, cannot estimate, but can only postulate, labor response functions. This is one obvious area in which further research is required.

While it is proper to stress the limitation of the method, it must be admitted that there is, at present, no workable alternative. The systematic application of the method here presented should go far to permit the rational analysis of pleas for localized public expenditure to create employment. Those who favor special attention to other public expenditure programs must now do their homework to catch up with water resource proponents. This book is a good text for that homework.

—HUGH FOLK

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Health imbalance

The Uneasy Equilibrium. By Odin W. Anderson.
New Haven, Conn., College and University
Press, 1968. 240 pp. \$10.

The title of Dr. Anderson's new book alone should serve as sufficient incentive for many to read it. Those who do will find it to be a particularly good source of reference on the development of private and public financing of health services in the United States.

It is evident that a significant amount of historical research was involved in this work, but the end product is not an excessively documented chronological survey of events. The author intended, rather, a review of the evolution of the financing of health services that would provide historical

insight. The particular perspective he sought to provide was that of the interaction of the health services system with the political, social, and economic systems in the past century.

The uneasy equilibrium evolved through the mix of private and public financing of health services from 1875 to 1965. The beginning of the time period was chosen because it represents the transition of medical care practice from that practiced before the scientific discoveries in bacteriology and anesthesiology to that practiced after these discoveries. The end of the period was apparently chosen to coincide with the Social Security Amendments of 1965—Medicare and Medicaid. (For some reason, Dr. Anderson never discusses Medicaid.) The longer period is viewed as being composed of four shorter periods chosen in turn on the basis of what appear in historical perspective to have been characterized by convergent trends, pivotal events, or unique decisions.

The basic structure of the health services system developed during the 1875–1915 period. Government's role was exceedingly limited. The Federal Government had but one function, the power to quarantine incidental to interstate and international commerce. State governments had power over basic public health matters and established licensing requirements. All subsequent periods are characterized either by refinement of the basic structure of the health care system that developed during this period, or by some expansion of the role of government, or both.

Medical practice became more specialized between 1915 and 1935; professional medicine sought to develop its own standards. The role of government expanded during this period to include responsibility for special disease programs and population groups. Finally, there were a number of abortive attempts during this period to establish compulsory health insurance.

The period between 1935 and 1952 is characterized as the time when third party payment began, grew, and was established; the issue of prepaid group practice also evolved. For much of this period, the issue of governmental or voluntary sponsorship of health insurance remained open. By 1952, the issue was resolved in favor of voluntary health insurance.

During the 1952–65 period, financing of the health care system expanded, in large part by third party payments. Providers of service, third

parties, and the big buyers of services accommodated one another. The cost of medical care became an issue. Further, the issue of compulsory insurance was reopened and the debate culminated in the Social Security Amendments of 1965.

Dr. Anderson has provided within this framework certain historical insight to the development of the system for organizing, delivering, and financing health care services in the United States. He has succeeded in part in establishing the particular perspective of the interaction of the health care system with the political, social, and economic systems. For those who might prefer detailed documentation, there are sufficient supportive references cited and this would be a good place to start. For those who prefer simplifications that allow one to grasp the highlights, this book is certainly appropriate.

—RALPH E. BERRY, JR.

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The process of policymaking

Politics and Policy: The Eisenhower, Kennedy, and Johnson Years. By James L. Sundquist. Washington, Brookings Institution, 1968. 560 pp. \$8.75, clothbound; \$3.50, paperbound.

A common public assumption is that the legislative building blocks of the Great Society were created by President John F. Kennedy and legislatively placed through the leadership of President Lyndon Johnson. This brilliant and detailed study shows this view to be simplistic and misleading.

Mr. Sundquist has examined the genesis and history of six areas of recent major legislative effort—the creation of jobs for the unemployed, new opportunities for the poor, Federal aid for public education, equal rights for minorities, health care for the aged, and the preservation of our national scenic beauty and resources. The basic problem the author set for himself was to discover why the American policymaking process seems to alternate between spurts of creative energy and longer periods of deadlock and relative inaction. The time period covered falls between the high-water mark of the Republicans' political strength, 1953, and that of the Democrats, 1965.

The author shows that almost every one of the Great Society programs had its origin, not in the Democratic administrations of the 1960's, but in the early and middle 1950's. Activist members of the Congress, along with private pressure groups, initiated the studies and the proposals that led to the legislative outpouring of the 1960's. In the early years of the period, the problems were identified and the initial forms of remedial action were devised. In the middle and late years of the Eisenhower Administration, political and popular support were mobilized for these programs, ordinarily in the face of Administration opposition, and specific measures themselves were refined in public debate. The late years of the period—the Kennedy and early Johnson Administration—were times of solidifying popular support and of maneuvering the program through the policymaking institutions of the government.

In political terms, Mr. Sundquist sees the policymaking process as one in which the party out of the White House assembled the measures as its program and took them to the people to win a mandate in the 1960, 1962, and 1964 Presidential and Congressional elections. The Republican party during these years was unable to convince the voters that fiscal conservatism and local government responsibility were issues overriding other problems facing the Nation and, thus, throughout the period the GOP tended to waver between a posture of negativism and one of "too little and too late." The policy formulation and legislative history of these measures, as well as the author's voting-behavior analysis of the period, suggest that where problems are real in their effect upon the people, and where a national solution is indicated by the failure of local efforts, then time is on the side of the activists. Unless the problems vanish or abate, the pressure for national solutions will grow to be insurmountable.

This book is an outstanding contribution to the literature on public policy formation. Though one might question individual points or placement of emphasis, the overall effect is persuasive. It cannot be too highly recommended to all who wish to influence or teach the policymaking and legislative process.

—CHARLES M. REHMUS

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Development problems

The Global Partnership: International Agencies and Economic Development. Edited by Richard N. Gardner and Max F. Millikan. New York, Frederick A. Praeger, Publishers, 1968. 498 pp., bibliography. \$9.50.

Considering the vast array of articles and books dealing with the economic development of the underdeveloped areas of the world, it is surprising that so few have reported on the significant role of international agencies. Therefore, it is gratifying to find a volume that does such an admirable job of filling this need. The book consists of 20 essays which originally appeared in a special issue of *International Organization*, Winter 1968. Nearly all the authors are distinguished scholars and practitioners who have drawn upon their own rich experiences to provide, in a lucid manner, descriptive, analytical, and, at times, critical accounts of the major international agencies and some of the more important problems with which they deal. A 22-page index, a 16-page bibliography (emphasizing trade problems), and numerous footnotes enhance the value of the book.

Max F. Millikan of M.I.T. introduces the book and Robert E. Asher of the Brookings Institution ends it with an overview of the situation. Their two essays provide an excellent summary and synthesis of the intervening articles.

If any criticism can be made of these two essays, it is that there is an overemphasis upon "poverty," "income gap," and "rich and poor." Since "poverty" is a relative matter and "rich and poor" invokes moral undertones, "the successful abolishment of poverty" is not necessarily a primary goal of economic development. Furthermore, a "global partnership to abolish poverty" is an idealistic objective with little likelihood of fulfillment in the foreseeable future.

The other 18 essays deal with a wide array of development problems and agencies. As might be expected, some overlap exists, and some agencies are not discussed at all. The World Bank, the United Nations Development Program, and United Nations Conference on Trade and Development appear frequently throughout the book, as do problems pertaining to food supply and population, trade, financing, and multilateralism. The quality of each article is unusually high. In con-

clusion, the book as a whole is excellent, suitable for government officials and laymen.

—LLOYD D. BLACK

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Education management

The World Educational Crisis: A Systems Analysis. By Philip H. Coombs. New York, Oxford University Press, 1968. 241 pp. \$6.

There are two audiences for whom this book is a must—those inside the educational system who want help in thinking about how to change the system, and those outside the system who have a role in shaping the social and governmental policies affecting education. For both groups, the central message is the same: there is a world educational crisis and it will not be surmounted except by careful and massive planning, taking into full account the complexity of education as a system.

Avoiding educational and systems jargon, Philip Coombs gives a lucid exposition of the inputs (students, teachers, money), outputs (finished and unfinished), and processes of the system. He uses this analysis to demonstrate that the crisis results from problems in each area: The flood of students, resource scarcity, and low teacher productivity; mismatch of output and social and individual need; and internal inertia and inefficiency. He then argues that a systems approach can identify the points where the system is amenable to influence.

Dr. Coombs tells us, "The needed revolution in education must begin with educational management." Those people inside the system who may recognize this point will have difficulty bringing about this change by themselves, because of the inertia of the system. The people outside the system who have a role in selecting educational managers must help recruit "well-trained modern management personnel of many sorts."

The author goes on to say that there must be "a new attitude toward change." "Innovation must become what it has not been before: it must become a way of life for education. . . . The people most directly involved in education must be convinced that there is no other way out of the crisis." This change in attitude must be supported by institu-

tionalized arrangements for supporting the processes of change.

For readers specifically concerned with problems of labor, there are two areas of particular interest. The first is the quality and costs of teachers. Quality is likely to decline and costs certainly will go up as education remains, for the foreseeable future, more labor-intensive than sectors with which it competes for manpower. The policy implication is that we will pay more for even poorer education and must expect to provide much more for significant gains in quality. "Costly education can be poor, but good education is never cheap. And the world needs a great deal more good education."

The second area concerning labor deals with the fitness of the products of the educational system to meet manpower requirements. At present, in most countries there is a poor fit between the processes influencing what students will do in the educational system and the processes of influencing the manpower requirements of the society. The policy implication is that far more attention must be paid to the processes that channel individuals through the educational system. A graduate for whom there is no employment, and a vital job for which there is no one trained, are massive hidden costs of an inefficient system.

Dr. Coomb's argument is bolstered by quantitative data throughout the text and in a number of useful appendixes. An annotated guide to further study is also supplied.

—NORMAN D. KURLAND
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Local unrest

Sit-Down in Anderson: UAW Local 663, Anderson, Indiana. By Claude E. Hoffman. Detroit, Mich., Wayne State University Press, 1968. 124 pp. \$4.95.

The sitdown strike as a weapon in industrial conflict was of importance in the United States only in 1936 and early 1937 and has since almost completely disappeared. Mainly responsible for the decline of this tactic was the April 1937 decision of the Supreme Court in *NLRB v. Jones & Laughlin Steel Corp.* (301 U.S. 1: 1937), which upheld the

right of workers to bargain collectively through representatives of their own choosing, thus weakening if not entirely ending management resistance to recognition of international unions as bargaining agents. The *Fansteel* decision of the Court in 1939, denying sitdown strikers reinstatement rights, and, since then, restrictive State laws, as well as NLRB and judicial rulings classifying the sitdown as an unprotected work stoppage, have further inhibited the use of the weapon by labor.

However, the decline of the sitdown as a tactic does not detract from the usefulness of this book, especially as a social and economic history of the 1930's. The central event of Mr. Hoffman's account is a sitdown occurring in early 1937 in the Guide Lamp plant of General Motors in Anderson, Ind., carried out almost simultaneously with sitdowns in GM plants in other locations. (At a second GM plant in Anderson, Delco-Remy, a brief lockout occurred in the same period.) The book deals about equally with the sitdown and the practical problems of creating an enduring local organization for dealing with the familiar litany of worker complaints—arbitrary discharge, favoritism, speedup, company unionism, and wage and hour grievances. The later chapters deal with internal union dissension and the improvement in wages and working conditions won through negotiations at local and international levels. By 1967, Local 663 is prosperous and seems well-established in the community. Nevertheless, with reference to minor picket-line altercations during a 2-day strike over contract delays in 1967, Mr. Hoffman comments, "Apparently, Anderson still belongs to General Motors."

This account of the formation and struggles of Local 663 is not a scholarly historical study, footnoted with references to primary sources and the literature. Rather, it is a reminiscence of a dedicated unionist actively involved in the creation and sustaining of a small group of men seeking primarily the dignity of bargaining equality, in opposition to a large automotive corporation wielding considerable power in the economic life of their community. Union members were a minority at the time of the sitdown, numbering about 200 at Guide Lamp, out of a work force of 2,900. By the time an NLRB election was held in April 1940, Guide Lamp workers cast 1,297 votes for the UAW-CIO, 590 for the UAW-AFL, and 370 for "neither union."

Because of the 30-year time lapse since the central events, the narrative suffers somewhat from lack of supporting and enlivening detail. Its virtue consists in fleshing out the textbook analyses of the organizational structure of local unions, and in focusing on one small midwestern city caught in the social and economic revolutions of the 1930's. Townspeople form back-to-work committees, a former union leader denounces the strike, sitdown leaders exhort their fellows, while shotgun blasts and automobile chases mark the struggle between union and antiunion forces.

A frankly partisan but straightforward account of events as recollected by the author, the book seems primarily useful to increase student understanding of the development of union institutions and attitudes. It may also serve to remind the general reader of the considerable amount of violence produced in a community under stress, even in the absence of racial conflict, welfare demonstrations, and similar current phenomena. A condition for violence is that men feel powerless to change intolerable conditions by lawful means. Until the Supreme Court acted in 1937 to uphold the Wagner Act, that condition was met in Anderson.

—BLANCHE FITZPATRICK
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Summaries of recent books

National Emergency Strikes. By Donald E. Cullen. Ithaca, N.Y., Cornell University, New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, 1968. 134 pp. (ILR Paperback 7.) \$2.

In this brief discussion of emergency strikes in peacetime and in private industry, the author examines the public's opinion of large-scale strikes, the dividing line between emergency strikes and other disputes, merits of present strike controls, and the alternatives to current policy.

After outlining some of the proposed methods of strike controls, the author points out that once a particular control becomes the law of the land, as with the Taft-Hartley Act's 80-day injunction and the Railway Labor Act's emergency board procedures, "the burden of proof rests heavily on those

who argue for a change . . . if Congress in 1947 had adopted some other strike control which had then compiled a mixed record over the next 20 years, imagine how difficult it would be today to argue for a change to such a one-sided and inconclusive technique as an 80-day injunction."

The Affluent Worker: Industrial Attitudes and Behavior. By John H. Goldthorpe and others. London, Cambridge University Press, 1968. 206 pp. \$7, Cambridge University Press, New York.

On the basis of interviews and other sources, the authors offer a detailed account of workers experience in their industrial jobs, relationships with co-workers and the extent of attachment to the firm and to the union. The research on this monograph was done as part of a more general study of the affluent worker. The main objective was to test the thesis that ". . . as manual workers and their families achieve relatively high incomes and living standards, they assume a way of life which is more characteristically 'middle class' and become in fact progressively assimilated into middle-class society." Three firms were selected, representing three major types of production systems—small-batch, large-batch and mass, and process production. The authors argue in their introduction that workers in industrial jobs, as studied here, "by no means represent figures of diminishing significance on the industrial scene; and the great interest which automation now excites should not be allowed to distract us from learning more about such workers, particularly in the condition new to them of relative prosperity."

Labor Education in the United States. By Lawrence Rogin and Marjorie Rachlin. Final report of a study financed by a grant from the Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Washington, American University, National Institute of Labor Education, 1968. 275 pp. \$3.50.

"Labor education or workers' education is the branch of adult education that attempts to meet workers' educational needs and interests as these arise out of participation in unions." From this first sentence, the authors go on to analyze the present state of labor education in the United States. The problems that unions and universities

must contend with in developing labor education are discussed. The study, based on data for the years 1965 and 1966, concludes that labor education "works" and that one key to its success is "its approach to students through the union; another is its relevance to the workers' concerns."

Children, Poverty, and Family Allowances. By James C. Vadakin. New York, Basic Books, Inc., 1968. 222 pp. \$6.50.

As Daniel P. Moynihan tells us in his foreword, "what the poor need most is income. A national government concerned to be of help to the poor should increase their income. . . . In every industrial democracy on earth save the United States, this has been done by means of a family allowance, a fast, efficient, nonbureaucratic method of income redistribution which has as its primary beneficiary the children of the coming generation." This book examines the concept of family allowances throughout the world and demonstrates how a workable system of family allowances can be devised for the United States. Mr. Vadakin proposes a universal plan which would provide benefits at the rate of \$10 a month for each child in the family under the age of 18 years, with all families being eligible regardless of income or employment status.

Strategies Against Poverty. By Frank Riessman. New York, Random House, Inc., 1969. 114 pp. \$6.95.

The author examines three major antipoverty strategies that have emerged in the 1960's. The Alinsky conflict model is directed toward increasing the power of the poor through developing conflict. "A continuous state of militancy is emphasized, and demonstrations, pickets, boycotts, direct action, and publicity are stressed in order to involve people in building the organization." Other strategies examined are the welfare crisis strategy, developed by Richard Cloward and Francis Piven, and the New Careers model set forth by Frank Riessman and Arthur Pearl. In the second half of the book, the author turns to more specific strategies regarding education, health, and family planning, and includes a critique of the Moynihan report.

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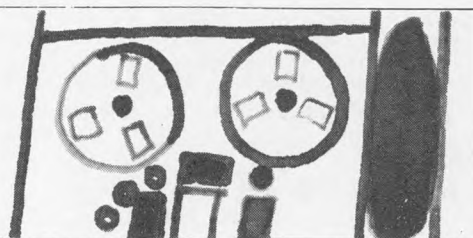
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Current Labor Statistics



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1. Employment status of the noninstitutional population, 16 years and over, 1947 to date

[In thousands]

Year	Total non-institutional population	Total labor force		Civilian labor force						
		Number	Percent of population	Total	Employed			Unemployed		Not in labor force
					Total	Agriculture	Nonagri-cultural industries	Number	Percent of labor force	
1947	103,418	60,941	58.9	59,350	57,039	7,891	49,148	2,311	3.9	42,477
1948	104,527	62,080	59.4	60,621	58,344	7,629	50,713	2,276	3.8	42,447
1949	105,611	62,903	59.6	61,286	57,649	7,656	49,990	3,637	5.9	42,708
1950	106,645	63,858	59.9	62,208	58,920	7,160	51,760	3,288	5.3	42,787
1951	107,721	65,117	60.4	62,017	59,962	6,726	53,239	2,055	3.3	42,604
1952	108,823	65,730	60.4	62,138	60,254	6,501	53,753	1,883	3.0	43,093
1953	110,601	66,560	60.2	63,015	61,181	6,261	54,922	1,834	2.9	44,041
1954	111,671	66,993	60.0	63,643	60,110	6,206	53,903	3,532	5.5	44,678
1955	112,732	68,072	60.4	65,023	62,171	6,449	55,724	2,852	4.4	44,660
1956	113,811	69,409	61.0	66,552	63,802	6,283	57,517	2,750	4.1	44,402
1957	115,065	69,729	60.6	66,929	64,071	5,947	58,123	2,859	4.3	45,336
1958	116,363	70,275	60.4	67,639	63,036	5,586	57,450	4,602	6.8	46,088
1959	117,881	70,921	60.2	68,369	64,630	5,565	59,065	3,740	5.5	46,960
1960	119,759	72,142	60.2	69,628	65,778	5,458	60,318	3,852	5.5	47,617
1961	121,343	73,031	60.2	70,459	65,746	5,200	60,546	4,714	6.7	48,312
1962	122,981	73,442	59.7	70,614	66,702	4,944	61,759	3,911	5.5	49,539
1963	125,154	74,571	59.6	71,833	67,762	4,687	63,076	4,070	5.7	50,583
1964	127,224	75,830	59.6	73,091	69,305	4,523	64,782	3,786	5.2	51,394
1965	129,236	77,178	59.7	74,455	71,088	4,361	66,726	3,366	4.5	52,058
1966	131,180	78,893	60.1	75,770	72,895	3,979	68,915	2,875	3.8	52,288
1967	133,319	80,793	60.6	77,347	74,372	3,844	70,527	2,975	3.8	52,527
1968	135,562	82,272	60.7	78,737	75,920	3,817	72,103	2,817	3.6	53,291

2. Employment status, by color, sex and age, seasonally adjusted, quarterly averages

[In thousands]

Characteristic	1969	1968				1967				1966				Annual average	
	1st	4th	3d	2d	1st	4th	3d	2d	1st	4th	3d	2d	1st	1968	1967
WHITE															
Civilian labor force	71,421	70,388	70,016	69,813	69,668	69,432	68,915	68,170	68,301	67,936	67,307	66,983	66,771	69,977	68,699
Men, 20 years and over	41,705	41,428	41,365	41,222	41,250	41,178	40,963	40,645	40,630	40,376	40,243	40,322	40,297	41,318	40,851
Women, 20 years and over	23,601	23,138	22,830	22,701	22,593	22,640	22,265	21,749	21,735	21,635	21,217	20,903	20,757	22,821	22,100
Both sexes, 16-19 years	6,115	5,822	5,821	5,890	5,825	5,614	5,687	5,776	5,936	5,925	5,847	5,758	5,717	5,839	5,748
Employed	69,285	68,271	67,753	67,578	67,403	67,034	66,526	65,850	66,052	65,734	65,087	64,709	64,488	67,751	66,361
Men, 20 years and over	40,982	40,678	40,540	40,392	40,403	40,300	40,087	39,745	39,802	39,525	39,360	39,433	39,340	40,503	39,985
Women, 20 years and over	22,833	22,394	22,043	21,951	21,807	21,781	21,394	20,942	20,930	20,922	20,526	20,185	20,062	22,052	21,263
Both sexes, 16-19 years	5,470	5,199	5,170	5,235	5,193	4,953	5,045	5,163	5,320	5,287	5,201	5,091	5,086	5,195	5,113
Unemployed	2,137	2,117	2,263	2,235	2,265	2,398	2,389	2,320	2,249	2,202	2,220	2,274	2,283	2,226	2,338
Men, 20 years and over	723	750	825	830	847	878	876	860	828	851	883	889	957	814	866
Women, 20 years and over	768	744	787	750	786	859	871	807	805	713	691	718	695	768	837
Both sexes, 16-19 years	645	623	651	655	632	661	642	613	616	638	646	667	631	644	635
Unemployment rate	3.0	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.2	3.4
Men, 20 years and over	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.0	2.1
Women, 20 years and over	3.3	3.2	3.4	3.3	3.5	3.8	3.9	3.7	3.7	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.8
Both sexes, 16-19 years	10.5	10.7	11.2	11.1	10.8	11.8	11.3	10.6	10.4	10.8	11.0	11.6	11.0	11.0	11.0
NONWHITE															
Civilian labor force	8,947	8,724	8,706	8,818	8,782	8,727	8,634	8,624	8,614	8,538	8,534	8,440	8,473	8,760	8,648
Men, 20 years and over	4,563	4,507	4,520	4,561	4,548	4,492	4,509	4,503	4,504	4,492	4,483	4,426	4,473	4,535	4,502
Women, 20 years and over	3,568	3,467	3,416	3,456	3,442	3,444	3,349	3,338	3,371	3,322	3,299	3,295	3,288	3,446	3,375
Both sexes, 16-19 years	816	750	770	801	792	791	776	783	739	724	752	719	712	779	771
Employed	8,418	8,147	8,133	8,219	8,181	8,062	8,005	7,974	8,001	7,916	7,889	7,821	7,873	8,169	8,011
Men, 20 years and over	4,408	4,329	4,350	4,385	4,359	4,301	4,329	4,300	4,305	4,268	4,263	4,209	4,259	4,356	4,309
Women, 20 years and over	3,375	3,262	3,200	3,238	3,215	3,190	3,107	3,108	3,132	3,097	3,064	3,085	3,086	3,229	3,134
Both sexes, 16-19 years	635	556	583	596	607	571	569	566	564	551	562	527	528	585	569
Unemployed	529	577	573	599	601	665	629	650	613	622	645	619	600	590	638
Men, 20 years and over	155	178	170	176	189	191	180	203	199	224	220	217	214	179	193
Women, 20 years and over	193	205	216	218	227	254	242	230	239	225	235	210	202	217	241
Both sexes, 16-19 years	181	194	187	205	185	220	207	217	175	173	190	192	184	195	204
Unemployment rate	5.9	6.6	6.6	6.8	6.8	7.6	7.3	7.5	7.1	7.3	7.6	7.3	7.1	6.7	7.4
Men, 20 years and over	3.4	3.9	3.8	3.9	4.2	4.3	4.0	4.5	4.4	5.0	4.9	4.9	4.8	3.9	4.3
Women, 20 years and over	5.4	5.9	6.3	6.3	6.6	7.4	7.2	6.9	7.1	6.8	7.1	6.4	6.1	6.3	7.1
Both sexes, 16-19 years	22.2	25.9	24.3	25.6	23.4	27.8	26.7	27.7	23.7	23.9	25.3	26.7	25.8	25.0	26.5

3. Full- and part-time status of the civilian labor force

[In thousands—not seasonally adjusted]

Employment status	1969			1968										Annual average	
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	1968	1967
FULL TIME															
Civilian labor force.....	67,799	67,700	67,233	67,610	67,747	67,740	68,365	71,888	72,049	71,255	66,943	66,729	66,713	68,332	67,465
Employed:															
Full-time schedules ¹	63,778	63,588	63,126	64,073	64,212	64,279	64,682	67,294	67,052	65,884	63,499	63,150	62,567	64,225	63,010
Part-time for economic reasons.....	1,961	1,906	1,897	1,871	1,784	1,685	1,844	2,370	2,371	2,465	1,646	1,693	1,910	1,970	2,163
Unemployed, looking for full-time work.....	2,060	2,206	2,211	1,667	1,751	1,776	1,838	2,224	2,626	2,906	1,797	1,885	2,236	2,138	2,293
Unemployment rate.....	3.0	3.3	3.3	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.7	3.1	3.6	4.1	2.7	2.8	3.4	3.1	3.4
PART TIME															
Civilian labor force.....	11,467	11,404	11,000	11,508	11,438	11,134	10,181	8,315	8,914	9,633	11,292	10,906	10,733	10,405	9,882
Employed (voluntary part-time).....	10,781	10,687	10,335	10,757	10,613	10,399	9,413	7,768	8,323	8,924	10,785	10,300	10,040	9,726	9,199
Unemployed, looking for part-time work.....	686	717	665	752	825	735	768	547	591	708	506	606	693	679	683
Unemployment rate.....	6.0	6.3	6.0	6.5	7.2	6.6	7.5	6.6	6.6	7.4	4.5	5.6	6.5	6.5	6.9

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

4. Employment and unemployment, by age and sex, seasonally adjusted

[In thousands]

Employment status	1969			1968										Annual average	
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	1968	1967
TOTAL															
Total labor force.....	83,999	83,831	83,351	82,868	82,559	82,403	82,438	82,338	82,504	82,486	82,278	81,933	82,137	82,272	80,793
Civilian labor force.....	80,495	80,356	79,874	79,368	79,042	78,800	78,847	78,749	78,917	78,919	78,742	78,427	78,645	78,737	77,347
Employed.....	77,767	77,729	77,229	76,765	76,388	76,002	76,000	75,973	76,020	76,005	75,932	75,653	75,764	75,920	74,372
Agriculture.....	3,732	3,881	3,752	3,842	3,706	3,525	3,651	3,751	3,825	3,849	3,905	3,916	3,978	3,817	3,844
Nonagriculture.....	74,035	73,848	73,477	72,923	72,682	72,477	72,349	72,222	72,195	72,156	72,027	71,737	71,786	72,103	70,528
Unemployed.....	2,728	2,627	2,645	2,603	2,654	2,798	2,847	2,776	2,897	2,914	2,810	2,774	2,881	2,817	2,975
MEN, 20 YEARS AND OVER															
Total labor force.....	49,378	49,336	49,189	49,132	48,926	48,911	48,981	49,023	48,983	48,906	48,746	48,661	48,635	48,834	48,184
Civilian labor force.....	46,297	46,280	46,131	46,093	45,871	45,782	45,863	45,906	45,916	45,903	45,770	45,759	45,795	45,852	45,353
Employed.....	45,422	45,422	45,231	45,254	44,940	44,773	44,858	44,921	44,913	44,861	44,787	44,780	44,777	44,859	44,294
Agriculture.....	2,706	2,732	2,680	2,763	2,753	2,656	2,711	2,784	2,848	2,848	2,858	2,857	2,886	2,816	2,821
Nonagriculture.....	42,716	42,690	42,551	42,491	42,187	42,117	42,147	42,137	42,065	42,013	41,929	41,923	41,891	42,043	41,473
Unemployed.....	875	858	900	839	931	1,009	1,005	985	1,003	1,042	983	979	1,018	993	1,060
WOMEN, 20 YEARS AND OVER															
Civilian labor force.....	27,189	27,230	26,950	26,737	26,630	26,480	26,394	26,216	26,354	26,285	26,259	25,996	26,112	26,266	25,475
Employed.....	26,228	26,264	25,999	25,802	25,702	25,495	25,375	25,240	25,341	25,311	25,281	25,028	25,127	25,281	24,397
Agriculture.....	638	731	691	722	621	541	550	580	569	599	620	624	656	606	619
Nonagriculture.....	25,590	25,533	25,308	25,080	25,081	24,954	24,825	24,660	24,772	24,712	24,661	24,404	24,471	24,675	23,778
Unemployed.....	961	966	951	935	928	985	1,019	976	1,013	974	978	968	985	985	1,078
BOTH SEXES, 16-19 YEARS															
Civilian labor force.....	7,009	6,846	6,793	6,538	6,541	6,538	6,590	6,627	6,647	6,731	6,713	6,672	6,738	6,618	6,519
Employed.....	6,117	6,043	5,999	5,709	5,746	5,734	5,767	5,812	5,766	5,833	5,864	5,845	5,860	5,780	5,682
Agriculture.....	388	418	381	357	332	328	390	387	408	402	427	435	436	394	405
Nonagriculture.....	5,729	5,625	5,618	5,352	5,414	5,406	5,377	5,425	5,358	5,431	5,437	5,410	5,424	5,385	5,277
Unemployed.....	892	803	794	829	795	804	823	815	881	898	849	827	878	839	838

5. Employment totals, by occupation, with unemployment rates, seasonally adjusted, quarterly averages

Characteristic	1969	1968				1967				1966				Annual average	
	1st	4th	3d	2d	1st	4th	3d	2d	1st	4th	3d	2d	1st	1968	1967
EMPLOYMENT (In thousands)															
White-collar workers.....	36,217	35,906	35,756	35,445	35,109	34,882	34,481	33,955	33,616	33,686	33,420	32,800	32,373	35,551	34,232
Professional and technical.....	10,628	10,452	10,393	10,326	10,142	10,057	9,953	9,784	9,731	9,596	9,446	9,228	8,976	10,325	9,879
Managers, officials, and proprietors.....	7,828	7,900	7,838	7,661	7,706	7,639	7,640	7,445	7,254	7,429	7,508	7,387	7,298	7,776	7,495
Clerical workers.....	13,158	12,889	12,828	12,808	12,685	12,619	12,351	12,245	12,115	12,158	11,962	11,638	11,486	12,803	12,333
Sales workers.....	4,603	4,665	4,697	4,650	4,576	4,567	4,537	4,481	4,516	4,503	4,504	4,547	4,613	4,647	4,525
Blue-collar workers.....	28,255	27,756	27,509	27,466	27,342	27,273	27,356	27,140	27,276	26,962	26,946	26,962	26,940	27,524	27,261
Craftsmen and foremen.....	10,334	10,158	9,953	9,979	9,964	9,840	9,774	9,831	9,942	9,709	9,671	9,555	9,396	10,015	9,845
Operatives.....	14,293	14,032	13,943	13,928	13,915	13,904	14,022	13,773	13,836	13,826	13,728	13,898	13,879	13,955	13,884
Nonfarm laborers.....	3,629	3,566	3,613	3,559	3,463	3,529	3,560	3,536	3,498	3,427	3,547	3,509	3,665	3,555	3,533
Service workers.....	9,575	9,427	9,367	9,392	9,343	9,334	9,264	9,275	9,426	9,408	9,222	9,053	9,163	9,381	9,325
Farm workers.....	3,479	3,307	3,401	3,536	3,683	3,620	3,556	3,472	3,610	3,585	3,592	3,744	3,784	3,464	3,554
Unemployment rate															
White-collar workers.....	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.0	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.2
Professional and technical.....	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.3
Managers, officials, and proprietors.....	1.0	1.0	1.1	.9	.9	1.0	.9	.9	.9	.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.0	.9
Clerical workers.....	2.9	2.8	3.0	2.9	3.1	3.4	3.4	2.7	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.7	2.8	3.0	3.1
Sales workers.....	2.9	2.9	2.6	2.6	2.9	3.2	3.6	2.9	3.2	2.4	2.7	3.1	2.9	2.8	3.2
Blue-collar workers.....	3.7	3.8	4.2	4.0	4.4	4.5	4.5	4.6	4.2	4.1	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.4
Craftsmen and foremen.....	2.1	2.1	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.8	2.4	2.8	2.8	2.7	3.0	2.4	2.5
Operatives.....	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.3	4.8	5.1	5.1	5.0	4.8	4.2	4.5	4.4	4.3	4.5	5.0
Nonfarm laborers.....	6.4	6.7	7.6	6.9	7.6	7.8	7.8	7.9	7.1	7.5	7.7	7.5	7.1	7.2	7.6
Service workers.....	3.9	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.3	4.9	4.5	4.2	4.5	4.5	4.6	4.9	4.5	4.4	4.5
Farm workers.....	1.6	1.7	2.4	2.3	1.9	2.3	2.5	2.4	2.2	2.0	1.9	2.6	2.3	2.1	2.3

6. Unemployed persons, by reason for unemployment

[In thousands—not seasonally adjusted]

Reason for unemployment, age, and sex	1969			1968										Annual average	
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	1968	1967 ¹
Total, 16 years and over.....	2,746	2,923	2,876	2,419	2,577	2,511	2,606	2,772	3,217	3,614	2,303	2,491	2,929	2,817	3,008
Lost last job.....	1,186	1,245	1,266	914	886	857	841	965	1,022	851	924	1,090	1,360	1,070	1,229
Left last job.....	391	409	463	339	415	430	497	493	470	413	380	378	437	431	438
Reentered labor force.....	869	947	881	822	900	873	903	870	1,014	1,514	697	752	833	909	945
Never worked before.....	301	323	265	343	375	351	366	443	711	837	302	271	299	407	396
Male, 20 years and over.....	1,048	1,134	1,142	873	844	810	816	913	921	997	843	969	1,219	993	1,061
Lost last job.....	689	707	721	512	502	443	446	534	536	481	505	599	820	599	678
Left last job.....	139	167	179	129	139	168	157	163	160	179	176	151	188	167	165
Reentered labor force.....	203	232	212	211	182	172	189	205	208	308	149	194	192	205	194
Never worked before.....	19	28	29	21	20	27	23	11	17	29	14	25	19	22	25
Female, 20 years and over.....	964	1,061	1,031	818	956	977	1,050	1,036	994	1,020	845	903	988	985	1,088
Lost last job.....	353	394	385	286	270	297	280	282	324	282	325	385	391	341	401
Left last job.....	144	153	168	132	170	159	220	215	198	142	118	149	167	167	179
Reentered labor force.....	414	457	438	360	458	448	474	468	426	526	364	327	385	422	454
Never worked before.....	52	57	41	40	58	73	75	71	46	70	38	42	45	55	54
Both sexes, 16 to 19 years.....	734	729	703	728	776	724	741	822	1,302	1,598	615	620	722	839	859
Lost last job.....	147	145	160	116	114	117	115	150	162	88	94	107	149	130	151
Left last job.....	107	89	116	78	106	103	119	115	113	92	87	78	82	97	94
Reentered labor force.....	252	257	232	251	260	253	239	197	380	679	184	232	256	281	297
Never worked before.....	229	238	195	283	297	250	267	361	648	739	250	203	235	330	317

¹ Unemployment levels and rates for 1967 differ somewhat from those published elsewhere. The first half of 1967 was the initial period for which data for this series were available on a regular monthly basis, and the procedures used in the Current

Population Survey require several months of continuous data before the necessary statistical techniques exert their full effects.

7. Unemployment rates, by age and sex, seasonally adjusted

Age and sex	1969			1968										Annual average	
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	1968	1967
TOTAL															
16 years and over.....	3.4	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.6	3.6	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.5	3.7	3.6	3.8
16 to 19 years.....	12.7	11.7	11.7	12.7	12.2	12.3	12.5	12.3	13.3	13.3	12.6	12.4	13.0	12.7	12.9
16 and 17 years.....	14.0	13.1	13.5	15.0	13.7	14.6	14.4	13.8	15.3	15.2	14.5	13.8	14.9	14.7	14.7
18 and 19 years.....	11.6	11.1	10.5	10.9	10.5	10.8	11.2	11.2	11.7	11.7	11.4	11.2	11.6	11.2	11.5
20 to 24 years.....	5.3	5.5	5.2	5.3	5.9	6.1	5.9	6.0	5.6	6.2	5.5	5.5	5.9	5.8	5.7
25 years and over.....	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.4	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.6
25 to 54 years.....	2.2	2.0	2.2	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.7
55 years and over.....	1.9	2.0	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.1	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.5
MALE															
16 years and over.....	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.6	2.7	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.0	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.1
16 to 19 years.....	11.5	11.0	11.8	11.6	11.3	11.7	10.9	10.9	11.7	12.3	10.8	11.0	11.9	11.6	12.3
16 and 17 years.....	12.9	12.5	13.2	14.2	13.7	14.1	12.9	12.8	14.3	14.5	13.9	13.9	14.0	13.9	14.5
18 and 19 years.....	10.2	9.5	10.6	9.5	8.6	10.0	9.3	9.5	9.7	10.2	8.4	8.5	10.1	9.7	10.5
20 to 24 years.....	4.5	4.9	5.0	4.2	4.7	5.7	5.2	5.3	4.9	5.3	5.1	5.1	5.3	5.1	4.7
25 years and over.....	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8	2.0
25 to 54 years.....	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.9
55 years and over.....	1.8	1.7	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.1	1.9	2.2	2.3	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.1	2.5
FEMALE															
16 years and over.....	4.6	4.5	4.3	4.5	4.4	4.6	4.9	4.8	5.0	4.8	4.9	4.8	4.9	4.8	5.2
16 to 19 years.....	14.3	12.7	11.6	14.1	13.3	13.1	14.4	14.0	15.2	14.6	14.9	14.1	14.4	14.0	13.5
16 and 17 years.....	15.6	13.9	14.0	16.2	13.7	15.3	16.6	15.4	16.8	16.1	15.4	13.7	16.3	15.9	14.8
18 and 19 years.....	13.3	13.0	10.4	12.6	12.8	11.8	13.3	13.1	14.0	13.3	14.6	14.0	13.2	12.9	12.7
20 to 24 years.....	6.3	6.1	5.5	6.5	7.2	6.6	6.8	6.8	6.4	7.3	5.9	6.1	6.7	6.7	7.0
25 years and over.....	3.0	3.1	3.2	2.9	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.4	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.2	3.2	3.7
25 to 54 years.....	3.3	3.2	3.4	3.1	3.1	3.3	3.5	3.4	3.7	3.2	3.4	3.7	3.5	3.4	4.1
55 years and over.....	1.9	2.5	1.9	2.4	2.5	2.4	2.1	2.1	2.4	2.3	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.3	2.5

8. Unemployment indicators, seasonally adjusted

[In percent]

Selected categories	1969			1968										Annual average	
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	1968	1967
Total (all civilian workers).....	3.4	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.6	3.6	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.5	3.7	3.6	3.8
Men, 20 years and over.....	1.9	1.9	2.0	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.3
Women, 20 years and over.....	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.7	3.9	3.7	3.8	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.8	3.8	4.2
Both sexes, 16-19 years.....	12.7	11.7	11.7	12.7	12.2	12.3	12.5	12.3	13.3	13.3	12.6	12.4	13.0	12.7	12.9
White.....	3.1	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.2	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.4
Nonwhite.....	6.0	5.7	6.0	6.0	6.5	7.3	6.6	6.4	6.8	7.1	6.5	6.8	6.9	6.7	7.4
Married men.....	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.8
Full-time workers.....	2.9	2.8	2.9	2.7	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.4
Unemployed 15 weeks and over ¹	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.5	.5	.5	.6	.5	.5	.5	.6	.5	.6
State insured ²	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.6
Labor force time lost ³	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.2	4.1	3.7	3.8	4.0	4.0	4.2
OCCUPATION															
White-collar workers.....	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.0	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.2
Professional and managerial.....	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.1	.9	1.0	1.1	1.1
Clerical workers.....	3.1	2.7	3.0	2.7	3.1	2.6	3.1	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.1
Sales workers.....	2.9	3.3	2.6	2.9	2.5	3.2	2.5	2.7	2.5	2.8	2.1	2.9	3.0	2.8	3.2
Blue-collar workers.....	3.7	3.6	3.8	3.6	3.9	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.1	3.8	4.0	4.4	4.1	4.4
Craftsmen and foremen.....	2.2	2.1	2.1	1.9	2.3	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.4	2.5	2.3	2.3	2.6	2.4	2.5
Operatives.....	3.9	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.4	4.0	4.5	4.7	4.5	5.0
Nonfarm laborers.....	7.0	5.5	6.6	6.1	6.8	7.3	6.9	7.5	8.3	7.4	6.8	6.5	7.7	7.2	7.6
Service workers.....	3.8	3.8	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.7	4.4	4.1	4.9	5.2	4.3	4.5	4.1	4.4	4.5
INDUSTRY															
Nonagricultural private wage and salary workers ⁴	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.8	3.8	3.4	3.5	3.7	3.6	3.9
Construction.....	6.2	5.5	5.5	5.4	6.5	6.0	5.7	6.9	7.0	7.7	6.7	5.6	7.9	6.9	7.3
Manufacturing.....	3.1	2.9	3.2	2.8	3.2	3.4	3.3	3.3	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.5	3.3	3.7
Durable goods.....	2.7	2.4	2.7	2.6	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.0	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.1	3.0	3.4
Nondurable goods.....	3.7	3.6	3.9	3.3	3.3	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.9	3.7	3.7	4.0	3.9	3.7	4.1
Transportation and public utilities.....	2.4	1.8	1.8	1.6	2.1	2.2	2.6	2.2	2.2	1.9	1.7	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.4
Wholesale and retail trade.....	3.8	3.9	3.8	4.1	3.9	4.0	4.0	3.9	4.0	4.5	3.5	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.2
Finance and service industries.....	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.0	3.4	3.3	3.3	4.0	3.6	3.5	3.5	3.3	3.4	3.6
Government wage and salary workers.....	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.7	2.0	1.7	2.0	2.0	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.8
Agricultural wage and salary workers.....	5.9	4.1	5.8	5.7	4.5	5.8	7.6	7.8	8.1	7.3	6.3	6.2	6.4	6.3	6.9

¹ Unemployment rate calculated as a percent of civilian labor force.² Insured unemployment under state programs as a percent of average covered employment.³ Man-hours lost by the unemployed and persons on part time for economic reasons as a percent of potentially available labor force man-hours.
Includes mining, not shown separately.

9. Duration of unemployment, seasonally adjusted

[In thousands]

Period	1969			1968										Annual average	
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	1968	1967
Less than 5 weeks.....	1,646	1,436	1,476	1,363	1,576	1,542	1,631	1,629	1,657	1,701	1,681	1,542	1,703	1,594	1,635
5 to 14 weeks.....	757	829	741	825	785	892	811	765	844	830	711	829	768	810	893
15 weeks and over.....	355	346	316	322	348	381	373	400	470	423	418	402	449	412	449
15 to 26 weeks.....	237	237	193	177	221	253	235	238	295	260	278	244	272	256	271
27 weeks and over.....	118	109	123	145	127	128	138	162	175	163	140	158	177	156	177
15 weeks and over as a percent of civilian labor force.....	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.5	.5	.5	.6	.5	.5	.5	.6	.5	.6

10. Unemployment insurance and employment service operations ¹

[All items except average benefit amounts are in thousands]

Item	1969		1968										
	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.
Employment service: ²													
New applications for work.....	794	849	608	687	807	819	783	961	1,209	923	867	829	865
Nonfarm placements.....	373	392	360	426	540	561	531	542	538	496	482	438	400
State unemployment insurance programs:													
Initial claims ^{3,4}	890	1,240	1,161	788	701	604	778	1,080	642	696	822	762	969
Insured unemployment ⁵ (average weekly volume) ⁶	1,459	1,491	1,172	913	794	802	955	991	883	964	1,142	1,390	1,556
Rate of insured unemployment ⁷	2.9	3.0	2.3	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.9	2.0	1.8	2.0	2.3	2.8	3.2
Weeks of unemployment compensated.....	5,159	5,547	3,896	2,853	2,961	2,887	3,536	3,544	3,166	3,883	4,666	5,451	5,769
Average weekly benefit amount for total unemployment.....	\$46.80	\$46.16	\$45.34	\$44.72	\$44.37	\$43.78	\$43.73	\$42.39	\$42.25	\$42.42	\$43.12	\$43.64	\$43.58
Total benefits paid.....	\$234,199	\$246,117	\$170,340	\$122,494	\$125,979	\$121,369	\$149,996	\$145,567	\$129,108	\$159,101	\$195,097	\$231,107	\$243,736
Unemployment compensation for ex-servicemen: ^{8,9}													
Initial claims ¹⁰	27	32	29	26	26	22	26	28	20	17	18	21	24
Insured unemployment ⁶ (average weekly volume).....	43	44	38	32	27	28	32	30	25	25	29	36	40
Weeks of unemployment compensated.....	169	191	151	111	109	110	128	116	99	105	114	164	158
Total benefits paid.....	\$8,016	\$9,046	\$7,218	\$5,305	\$5,169	\$5,169	\$5,919	\$5,298	\$4,504	\$4,660	\$4,888	\$7,025	\$6,673
Unemployment compensation for Federal civilian employees: ^{9,10}													
Initial claims ³	9	13	10	9	11	9	9	12	9	10	9	9	11
Insured unemployment ⁵ (average weekly volume).....	24	24	22	21	20	19	20	20	19	20	23	26	29
Weeks of unemployment compensated.....	97	102	95	81	82	74	84	83	81	88	92	123	116
Total benefits paid.....	\$4,344	\$4,595	\$4,246	\$3,637	\$3,627	\$3,299	\$3,751	\$3,679	\$3,592	\$3,855	\$3,970	\$5,248	\$4,945
Railroad unemployment insurance:													
Applications ¹¹	6	12	11	6	9	7	10	19	13	4	8	15	12
Insured unemployment (average weekly volume).....	23	24	19	18	20	18	16	16	14	16	20	26	26
Number of payments ¹²	47	54	42	39	46	36	36	32	32	40	49	62	56
Average amount of benefit payment ¹³	\$92.20	\$91.23	\$87.90	\$91.89	\$92.16	\$91.54	\$89.67	\$79.63	\$70.57	\$70.70	\$68.86	\$67.50	\$73.39
Total benefit paid ¹⁴	\$4,251	\$4,797	\$3,590	\$3,404	\$3,966	\$3,104	\$3,124	\$2,316	\$2,124	\$2,608	\$3,289	\$4,120	\$4,019
All programs: ¹⁵													
Insured unemployment ⁶	1,550	1,584	1,252	984	861	867	1,023	1,057	942	1,025	1,214	1,478	1,651

¹ Includes data for Puerto Rico.² Includes Guam and the Virgin Islands.³ Initial claims are notices filed by workers to indicate they are starting periods of unemployment. Excludes transition 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 or 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. Data for latest month are subject to revision.

11. Employees¹ on nonagricultural payrolls, by industry division, 1947 to date

[In thousands]

Year	TOTAL	Mining	Contract construction	Manufacturing	Transportation and public utilities	Wholesale and retail trade			Finance, insurance, and real estate	Services	Government		
						Total	Wholesale trade	Retail trade			Total	Federal	State and local
1947	43,881	955	1,982	15,545	4,166	8,955	2,361	6,595	1,754	5,050	5,474	1,892	3,582
1948	44,891	994	2,169	15,582	4,189	9,272	2,489	6,783	1,829	5,206	5,650	1,863	3,787
1949	43,778	930	2,165	14,441	4,001	9,264	2,487	6,778	1,857	5,264	5,856	1,908	3,948
1950	45,222	901	2,333	15,241	4,034	9,386	2,518	6,868	1,919	5,382	6,026	1,928	4,098
1951	47,849	929	2,603	16,393	4,226	9,742	2,606	7,136	1,991	5,576	6,389	2,302	4,087
1952	48,825	898	2,634	16,632	4,248	10,004	2,687	7,317	2,069	5,730	6,609	2,420	4,188
1953	50,232	866	2,623	17,549	4,290	10,247	2,727	7,520	2,146	5,867	6,645	2,305	4,340
1954	49,022	791	2,612	16,314	4,084	10,235	2,739	7,496	2,234	6,002	6,751	2,188	4,563
1955	50,675	792	2,802	16,882	4,141	10,535	2,796	7,740	2,335	6,274	6,914	2,187	4,727
1956	52,408	822	2,999	17,243	4,244	10,858	2,884	7,974	2,429	6,536	7,277	2,209	5,069
1957	52,894	828	2,923	17,174	4,241	10,886	2,893	7,992	2,477	6,749	7,616	2,217	5,399
1958	51,363	751	2,778	15,945	3,976	10,750	2,848	7,902	2,519	6,806	7,839	2,191	5,648
1959 ²	53,313	732	2,960	16,675	4,011	11,127	2,946	8,182	2,594	7,130	8,083	2,233	5,850
1960	54,234	712	2,885	16,796	4,004	11,391	3,004	8,388	2,669	7,423	8,353	2,270	6,083
1961	54,042	672	2,816	16,326	3,903	11,337	2,993	8,344	2,731	7,664	8,594	2,279	6,315
1962	55,596	650	2,902	16,853	3,906	11,566	3,056	8,511	2,800	8,028	8,890	2,340	6,550
1963	56,702	635	2,963	16,995	3,903	11,778	3,104	8,675	2,877	8,325	9,225	2,358	6,868
1964	58,332	634	3,050	17,274	3,951	12,160	3,189	8,971	2,957	8,709	9,596	2,348	7,249
1965	60,832	632	3,186	18,062	4,036	12,716	3,312	9,404	3,023	9,087	10,091	2,378	7,714
1966	64,034	627	3,275	19,214	4,151	13,245	3,437	9,808	3,100	9,551	10,871	2,564	8,307
1967	66,030	616	3,203	19,434	4,271	13,613	3,538	10,074	3,217	10,060	11,616	2,719	8,897
1968	68,146	625	3,259	19,740	4,348	14,111	3,669	10,442	3,357	10,504	12,202	2,737	9,465

¹ 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).

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 one establishment during the reporting period are counted more

than once. Proprietors, self-employed persons, unpaid family workers, and domestic servants are excluded.

² Data include Alaska and Hawaii beginning 1959. This inclusion has resulted in an increase of 212,000 (0.4 percent) in the nonagricultural total for the March 1959 benchmark month.

12. Employees on nonagricultural payrolls, by State

[In thousands]

State	Feb. 1969	Jan. 1969	Feb. 1968	State	Feb. 1969	Jan. 1969	Feb. 1968
Alabama	961.8	958.5	942.9	Montana	188.4	188.7	181.5
Alaska	72.9	73.5	70.3	Nebraska	462.2	460.8	445.6
Arizona	489.5	487.1	452.9	Nevada	177.5	177.0	166.3
Arkansas	511.7	510.9	492.4	New Hampshire	239.0	239.0	236.7
California	6,663.5	6,663.0	6,429.5	New Jersey	2,419.2	2,420.4	2,378.0
Colorado	689.7	691.8	658.3	New Mexico	274.8	274.3	266.8
Connecticut	1,151.8	1,149.8	1,132.8	New York	6,972.8	6,973.5	6,836.9
Delaware	202.9	207.7	195.5	North Carolina	1,666.3	1,661.9	1,613.3
District of Columbia	(1)	672.9	665.5	North Dakota	151.3	151.3	147.3
Florida	2,024.7	2,012.7	1,924.7	Ohio	3,786.1	3,780.9	3,648.5
Georgia	1,458.3	1,453.4	1,407.9	Oklahoma	736.2	736.5	708.6
Hawaii	261.3	258.5	243.6	Oregon	672.6	671.4	644.2
Idaho	190.4	190.9	183.0	Pennsylvania	4,220.2	4,221.6	4,141.0
Illinois	4,292.3	4,281.3	4,152.3	Rhode Island	338.7	338.8	334.9
Indiana	1,830.1	1,819.0	1,766.5	South Carolina	779.2	778.2	761.2
Iowa	858.8	857.0	836.9	South Dakota	165.5	164.7	160.5
Kansas	(1)	678.2	670.1	Tennessee	1,288.0	1,284.8	1,225.8
Kentucky	859.8	861.2	831.8	Texas	3,482.4	3,463.3	3,300.1
Louisiana	1,043.0	1,041.4	1,007.7	Utah	336.5	336.6	317.3
Maine	318.0	319.9	313.5	Vermont	139.6	139.1	134.5
Maryland	1,232.0	1,224.8	1,182.0	Virginia	1,392.9	1,391.8	1,338.5
Massachusetts	2,176.9	2,184.6	2,145.6	Washington	1,082.6	1,083.6	1,057.0
Michigan	2,921.6	2,917.9	2,867.6	West Virginia	502.2	502.9	494.2
Minnesota	1,235.3	1,237.6	1,187.7	Wisconsin	1,473.5	1,471.0	1,419.2
Mississippi	551.1	550.5	532.1	Wyoming	97.9	98.7	94.3
Missouri	1,615.1	1,629.4	1,594.1				

¹ Not available.

NOTE: Data for the current month are preliminary.

SOURCE: State agencies in cooperation with U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. More detailed industry data are available from the State agencies. For addresses, see inside back cover of Employment and Earnings and Monthly Report on the Labor Force.

13. Employees ¹ on nonagricultural payrolls, by industry division and major manufacturing group

In thousands

Industry division and group	1969			1968										Annual average	
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	1968	1967
TOTAL.....	69,172	68,711	68,525	70,123	69,585	69,292	68,923	68,508	68,327	68,724	67,724	67,422	66,713	68,146	66,030
MINING.....	631	628	629	637	639	593	646	653	652	647	631	626	594	625	616
CONTRACT CONSTRUCTION.....	3,054	2,981	3,015	3,241	3,374	3,498	3,515	3,553	3,498	3,387	3,255	3,157	2,967	3,259	3,203
MANUFACTURING.....	19,952	19,864	19,786	19,990	20,015	19,999	20,023	19,884	19,729	19,897	19,569	19,507	19,447	19,740	19,434
Production workers ²	14,633	14,570	14,499	14,687	14,725	14,718	14,739	14,561	14,415	14,622	14,352	14,303	14,248	14,485	14,300
Durable goods.....	11,798	11,732	11,718	11,753	11,735	11,663	11,655	11,496	11,584	11,678	11,531	11,507	11,440	11,578	11,422
Production workers ²	8,604	8,552	8,530	8,568	8,559	8,497	8,491	8,306	8,397	8,518	8,401	8,388	8,325	8,427	8,354
Ordnance and accessories.....	347.5	348.4	351.4	353.2	350.5	334.6	349.0	349.2	346.8	342.2	336.3	336.2	335.3	342.1	317.0
Lumber and wood products.....	598.2	593.5	592.3	602.6	602.5	609.8	613.2	623.3	620.0	616.4	593.3	588.0	587.2	601.6	597.9
Furniture and fixtures.....	491.8	489.9	488.1	489.9	489.8	484.8	481.5	480.1	467.0	474.2	464.9	463.5	463.1	473.6	455.1
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	647.5	640.1	640.3	651.0	656.2	657.0	660.1	665.3	660.1	657.1	641.8	636.9	574.6	638.2	629.0
Primary metal industries.....	1,322.7	1,311.8	1,298.0	1,288.9	1,266.4	1,256.5	1,277.3	1,301.0	1,328.6	1,334.8	1,330.9	1,326.5	1,303.5	1,300.9	1,318.2
Fabricated metal products.....	1,436.9	1,433.1	1,428.7	1,433.6	1,430.2	1,418.3	1,401.0	1,386.1	1,373.6	1,400.0	1,371.4	1,366.1	1,363.3	1,389.1	1,360.8
Machinery, except electrical.....	2,007.4	2,000.5	1,983.6	1,965.7	1,965.6	1,946.5	1,948.7	1,947.5	1,947.5	1,966.7	1,952.6	1,958.3	1,970.3	1,957.6	1,967.3
Electrical equipment.....	2,003.6	2,004.6	1,999.8	2,000.1	1,992.3	1,980.7	1,973.9	1,961.3	1,940.9	1,955.9	1,939.9	1,939.2	1,943.3	1,963.1	1,952.7
Transportation equipment.....	2,050.2	2,028.4	2,058.0	2,066.0	2,060.5	2,056.1	2,042.8	1,876.1	2,024.1	2,044.8	2,027.5	2,026.6	2,031.9	2,025.6	1,947.4
Instruments and related products.....	459.1	456.8	455.4	458.0	456.8	454.1	452.4	454.2	445.9	449.9	444.7	445.7	448.0	450.6	447.8
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	432.9	425.0	422.5	443.9	464.5	464.9	454.6	451.5	429.8	436.2	427.9	419.5	419.0	436.1	428.6
Nondurable goods.....	8,154	8,132	8,068	8,237	8,280	8,336	8,368	8,388	8,145	8,219	8,038	8,000	8,007	8,162	8,012
Production workers ²	6,029	6,018	5,969	6,119	6,166	6,221	6,248	6,255	6,018	6,104	5,951	5,915	5,923	6,058	5,946
Food and kindred products.....	1,701.4	1,709.4	1,721.1	1,775.9	1,805.1	1,865.0	1,906.3	1,911.4	1,817.7	1,787.6	1,710.5	1,699.4	1,690.4	1,780.1	1,785.3
Tobacco manufactures.....	77.3	81.0	84.9	90.1	91.3	99.9	102.2	96.1	76.8	76.5	75.2	71.7	79.7	85.6	87.3
Textile mill products.....	987.5	986.2	982.0	992.0	997.2	993.5	994.3	997.8	979.6	998.9	980.7	976.5	975.0	984.9	956.9
Apparel and other textile products.....	1,434.5	1,426.7	1,407.4	1,420.9	1,434.6	1,442.9	1,438.9	1,434.9	1,372.1	1,438.4	1,412.2	1,401.9	1,418.0	1,416.8	1,400.4
Paper and allied products.....	714.2	712.3	709.4	714.3	712.1	706.2	706.0	709.5	700.4	704.8	689.0	686.4	683.3	698.1	681.3
Printing and publishing.....	1,074.8	1,073.9	1,070.8	1,080.6	1,076.4	1,071.1	1,064.5	1,068.4	1,063.9	1,064.6	1,057.2	1,057.2	1,056.3	1,063.4	1,047.9
Chemicals and allied products.....	1,052.0	1,045.3	1,039.0	1,042.6	1,040.5	1,037.3	1,039.5	1,048.4	1,043.4	1,035.3	1,023.7	1,023.7	1,021.8	1,031.9	1,002.4
Petroleum and coal products.....	183.4	166.0	124.6	185.8	187.6	188.0	189.4	192.0	192.4	190.5	185.6	183.6	182.8	186.7	183.1
Rubber and plastics products, nec.....	580.0	577.9	574.8	578.3	574.9	574.1	569.2	565.7	550.3	559.3	549.1	546.2	543.4	557.6	516.0
Leather and leather products.....	348.8	353.1	354.0	356.9	360.3	357.9	358.0	363.5	348.4	362.8	355.2	353.0	356.1	356.9	351.4
TRANSPORTATION AND PUBLIC UTILITIES.....	4,390	4,338	4,324	4,409	4,414	4,400	4,417	4,410	4,394	4,375	4,268	4,296	4,276	4,348	4,271
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE.....	14,193	14,124	14,217	15,124	14,561	14,328	14,208	14,141	14,112	14,139	13,959	13,910	13,658	14,111	13,613
Wholesale trade.....	3,733	3,719	3,724	3,766	3,756	3,738	3,713	3,727	3,717	3,690	3,607	3,594	3,581	3,669	3,538
Retail trade.....	10,460	10,405	10,493	11,358	10,805	10,590	10,495	10,414	10,395	10,449	10,352	10,316	10,077	10,442	10,074
FINANCE, INSURANCE, AND REAL ESTATE.....	3,459	3,439	3,420	3,421	3,412	3,404	3,397	3,430	3,407	3,365	3,327	3,310	3,288	3,357	3,217
SERVICES.....	10,741	10,665	10,576	10,658	10,648	10,631	10,587	10,675	10,687	10,634	10,488	10,402	10,290	10,504	10,060
Hotels and other lodging places.....	688.4	680.3	669.9	675.3	678.8	701.8	738.4	844.3	848.4	757.3	714.3	690.3	676.2	720.3	695.9
Personal services.....	1,005.9	1,002.2	1,006.4	1,025.7	1,025.4	1,022.4	1,015.4	1,015.6	1,024.8	1,037.9	1,026.3	1,020.2	1,012.9	1,020.7	1,024.4
Medical and other health services.....	2,804.9	2,789.0	2,765.5	2,745.9	2,737.8	2,716.3	2,692.7	2,693.8	2,687.1	2,662.0	2,611.6	2,597.7	2,582.4	2,653.3	2,436.1
Educational services.....	1,122.1	1,117.3	1,092.0	1,113.6	1,115.3	1,091.9	1,000.2	894.3	907.3	999.1	1,081.6	1,081.1	1,086.6	1,043.6	1,002.9
GOVERNMENT.....	12,752	12,672	12,558	12,643	12,522	12,439	12,130	11,762	11,848	12,280	12,227	12,214	12,193	12,202	11,616
Federal ¹	2,740	2,739	2,735	2,769	2,703	2,694	2,705	2,795	2,844	2,815	2,710	2,712	2,699	2,737	2,719
State and Local.....	10,012	9,933	9,823	9,874	9,819	9,745	9,425	8,967	9,004	9,465	9,517	9,502	9,494	9,465	8,897

¹ For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to July 1968, and coverage of these series, see footnote 1, table 11.

² Production 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 watchman 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.

³ Beginning January 1969, Federal employment includes approximately 39,000 civilian technicians of the National Guard, who were transferred from State to Federal status in accordance with Public Law 90-486.

NOTE: Data for the 2 most recent months are preliminary.

14. Employees ¹ on nonagricultural payrolls, by industry division and major manufacturing group, seasonally adjusted

[In thousands]

Industry division and group	1969			1968									
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.
TOTAL	70,102	69,955	69,620	69,310	68,955	68,701	68,382	68,314	68,170	68,039	67,792	67,755	67,656
MINING	647	646	644	638	637	591	639	638	638	632	631	632	609
CONTRACT CONSTRUCTION	3,428	3,491	3,380	3,387	3,279	3,285	3,252	3,195	3,189	3,174	3,245	3,313	3,330
MANUFACTURING	20,118	20,054	20,005	19,974	19,871	19,807	19,755	19,748	19,776	19,777	19,693	19,657	19,607
Production workers ²	14,778	14,738	14,692	14,663	14,568	14,524	14,476	14,474	14,512	14,523	14,449	14,439	14,386
Durable goods.....	11,858	11,811	11,803	11,724	11,661	11,603	11,577	11,563	11,619	11,571	11,545	11,533	11,495
Production workers ²	8,656	8,616	8,604	8,535	8,475	8,432	8,410	8,399	8,458	8,424	8,401	8,406	8,371
Ordnance and accessories.....	348	347	349	352	348	334	348	350	349	344	338	337	336
Lumber and wood products.....	619	621	620	615	603	603	598	597	597	592	594	599	607
Furniture and fixtures.....	495	494	491	488	484	478	476	476	471	474	471	468	466
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	666	668	665	662	653	649	643	644	642	642	640	641	591
Primary metal industries.....	1,323	1,316	1,308	1,302	1,284	1,272	1,279	1,291	1,314	1,310	1,322	1,320	1,304
Fabricated metal products.....	1,448	1,443	1,437	1,426	1,416	1,410	1,391	1,385	1,385	1,386	1,376	1,373	1,374
Machinery, except electrical.....	1,997	1,997	1,986	1,968	1,985	1,962	1,957	1,953	1,944	1,951	1,949	1,949	1,960
Electrical equipment.....	2,018	2,009	1,996	1,980	1,971	1,957	1,964	1,963	1,962	1,960	1,963	1,955	1,957
Transportation equipment.....	2,036	2,014	2,044	2,025	2,020	2,046	2,035	2,013	2,070	2,031	2,013	2,015	2,018
Instruments and related products.....	460	458	457	457	455	454	451	452	446	448	447	448	449
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	448	444	450	449	442	438	435	439	439	433	432	428	433
Nondurable goods.....	8,260	8,243	8,202	8,250	8,210	8,204	8,178	8,185	8,157	8,206	8,148	8,124	8,112
Production workers ²	6,122	6,122	6,088	6,128	6,093	6,092	6,066	6,075	6,054	6,099	6,048	6,033	6,015
Food and kindred products.....	1,789	1,797	1,791	1,792	1,777	1,778	1,773	1,778	1,777	1,797	1,778	1,783	1,777
Tobacco manufactures.....	85	84	86	84	82	84	87	90	87	87	87	81	87
Textile mill products.....	991	994	995	994	992	988	987	990	987	990	982	979	979
Apparel and other textile products.....	1,425	1,418	1,432	1,425	1,419	1,426	1,412	1,412	1,416	1,433	1,422	1,417	1,408
Paper and allied products.....	721	719	715	713	708	704	700	702	697	699	696	692	690
Printing and publishing.....	1,077	1,077	1,076	1,074	1,073	1,068	1,063	1,067	1,064	1,062	1,061	1,058	1,058
Chemicals and allied products.....	1,054	1,054	1,049	1,050	1,046	1,041	1,037	1,036	1,033	1,030	1,023	1,020	1,024
Petroleum and coal products.....	186	169	127	189	188	187	186	187	188	188	186	185	186
Rubber and plastics products, nec.....	583	580	575	574	568	570	566	566	559	559	552	550	546
Leather and leather products.....	349	351	356	355	357	358	357	357	349	361	361	359	357
TRANSPORTATION AND PUBLIC UTILITIES	4,448	4,418	4,390	4,400	4,392	4,374	4,365	4,358	4,346	4,336	4,281	4,331	4,332
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE	14,503	14,473	14,442	14,271	14,326	14,298	14,222	14,181	14,117	14,086	14,049	14,009	13,999
Wholesale trade.....	3,786	3,768	3,746	3,725	3,722	3,708	3,695	3,683	3,680	3,679	3,655	3,641	3,632
Retail trade.....	10,717	10,705	10,696	10,546	10,604	10,590	10,527	10,498	10,437	10,407	10,394	10,368	10,367
FINANCE, INSURANCE, AND REAL ESTATE	3,483	3,474	3,462	3,442	3,426	3,411	3,387	3,376	3,350	3,335	3,334	3,323	3,311
SERVICES	10,871	10,849	10,792	10,755	10,702	10,610	10,545	10,548	10,498	10,467	10,425	10,402	10,415
Hotels and other lodging places.....	742	735	734	732	724	723	715	717	722	717	717	715	729
Personal services.....	1,016	1,017	1,017	1,022	1,023	1,017	1,018	1,019	1,018	1,023	1,019	1,019	1,023
Medical and other health services.....	2,808	2,795	2,779	2,760	2,738	2,719	2,693	2,678	2,660	2,649	2,625	2,603	2,585
Educational services.....	1,080	1,076	1,057	1,072	1,064	1,050	1,029	1,029	1,026	1,028	1,048	1,046	1,046
GOVERNMENT	12,604	12,550	12,505	12,443	12,322	12,325	12,217	12,270	12,256	12,232	12,134	12,088	12,053
Federal ³	2,759	2,764	2,760	2,715	2,696	2,705	2,716	2,751	2,788	2,795	2,721	2,717	2,718
State and local.....	9,845	9,786	9,745	9,728	9,626	9,620	9,501	9,519	9,468	9,437	9,413	9,371	9,335

¹ For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to July 1968, and coverage of these series, see footnote 1, table 11.

² For definition of production workers, see footnote 2, table 13.

³ See footnote 3, table 13.

NOTE: Data for the 2 most recent months are preliminary.

15. Labor turnover rates in manufacturing, 1959 to date ¹

[Per 100 employees]

Year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual average
Total accessions													
1959	3.8	3.7	4.1	4.1	4.2	5.4	4.4	5.2	5.1	3.9	3.4	3.6	4.2
1960	4.0	3.5	3.3	3.4	3.9	4.7	3.9	4.9	4.8	3.5	2.9	2.3	3.8
1961	3.7	3.2	4.0	4.0	4.3	5.0	4.4	5.3	4.7	4.3	3.4	2.6	4.1
1962	4.1	3.6	3.8	4.0	4.3	5.0	4.6	5.1	4.9	3.9	3.0	2.4	4.1
1963	3.6	3.3	3.5	3.9	3.9	4.8	4.3	4.8	4.8	3.9	2.9	2.5	3.9
1964	3.6	3.4	3.7	3.8	3.9	5.1	4.4	5.1	4.8	4.0	3.2	2.6	4.0
1965	3.8	3.5	4.0	3.8	4.1	5.6	4.5	5.4	5.5	4.5	3.9	3.1	4.3
1966	4.6	4.2	4.9	4.6	5.1	6.7	5.1	6.4	6.1	5.1	3.9	2.9	5.0
1967	4.3	3.6	3.9	3.9	4.6	5.9	4.7	5.5	5.3	4.7	3.7	2.8	4.4
1968	4.2	3.8	3.9	4.3	4.6	5.9	4.9	5.7	5.7	5.0	3.8	3.0	4.6
1969	4.6	3.9											
New hires													
1959	2.0	2.1	2.4	2.5	3.7	2.7	3.0	3.5	3.5	2.6	1.9	1.5	2.6
1960	2.2	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.3	3.0	2.4	2.9	2.8	2.1	1.5	1.0	2.2
1961	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.1	2.9	2.5	3.1	3.0	2.7	2.0	1.4	2.2
1962	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.8	3.5	2.9	3.2	3.1	2.5	1.8	1.2	2.5
1963	1.9	1.8	2.0	2.3	2.5	3.3	2.7	3.2	3.2	2.6	1.8	1.4	2.4
1964	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.5	3.6	2.9	3.4	3.5	2.8	2.2	1.6	2.6
1965	2.4	2.4	2.8	2.6	3.0	4.3	3.2	3.9	4.0	3.5	2.9	2.2	3.1
1966	3.2	3.1	3.7	3.6	4.1	5.6	3.9	4.8	4.7	4.2	3.1	2.1	3.8
1967	3.0	2.7	2.8	2.8	3.3	4.6	3.3	4.0	4.1	3.7	2.8	2.0	3.3
1968	3.0	2.7	2.9	3.2	3.5	4.7	3.7	4.3	4.5	4.0	2.9	2.2	3.5
1969	3.3	3.0											
Total separations													
1959	3.7	3.1	3.3	3.6	3.5	3.6	4.0	4.6	5.3	5.5	4.7	3.9	4.1
1960	3.6	3.5	4.0	4.2	3.9	4.0	4.4	4.8	5.3	4.7	4.5	4.8	4.3
1961	4.7	3.9	3.8	3.4	3.5	3.6	4.1	4.2	5.1	4.2	4.0	4.0	4.0
1962	3.9	3.4	3.6	3.6	3.8	3.8	4.4	5.1	5.0	4.4	4.0	3.8	4.1
1963	4.0	3.2	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.4	4.1	4.8	4.9	4.1	3.9	3.7	3.9
1964	4.0	3.3	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.5	4.4	4.3	5.1	4.2	3.6	3.7	3.9
1965	3.7	3.1	3.4	3.7	3.6	3.6	4.3	5.1	5.6	4.5	3.9	4.1	4.1
1966	4.0	3.6	4.1	4.3	4.3	4.4	5.3	5.8	6.6	4.8	4.3	4.2	4.6
1967	4.5	4.0	4.6	4.3	4.2	4.3	4.8	5.3	6.2	4.7	4.0	3.9	4.6
1968	4.4	3.9	4.1	4.1	4.3	4.1	5.0	6.0	6.3	4.9	4.1	3.8	4.6
1969	4.5	3.9											
Quits													
1959	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	2.1	2.6	1.7	1.2	1.0	1.5
1960	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.8	2.3	1.3	.9	.7	1.3
1961	.9	.8	.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.7	2.3	1.4	1.1	.9	1.2
1962	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.4	2.1	2.4	1.5	1.1	.8	1.4
1963	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	2.1	2.4	1.5	1.1	.8	1.4
1964	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.5	2.1	2.7	1.7	1.2	1.0	1.5
1965	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	2.6	3.5	2.2	1.7	1.4	1.9
1966	1.9	1.8	2.3	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	3.6	4.5	2.8	2.1	1.7	2.6
1967	2.1	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.1	3.2	4.0	2.5	1.9	1.5	2.3
1968	2.0	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.3	2.3	3.7	4.1	2.8	2.1	1.6	2.5
1969	2.3	2.1											
Layoffs													
1959	2.1	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.4	1.8	1.8	2.0	3.2	2.9	2.4	2.0
1960	1.8	1.7	2.2	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.8	3.1	3.6	2.4
1961	3.2	2.6	2.3	1.9	1.8	1.8	2.3	1.8	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.6	2.2
1962	2.1	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	2.2	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.0
1963	2.2	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.4	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.3	1.8
1964	2.0	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.4	1.3	2.1	1.4	1.5	1.8	1.7	2.1	1.7
1965	1.6	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.8	1.6	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.9	1.4
1966	1.3	1.0	1.0	1.0	.9	1.0	2.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.7	1.2
1967	1.5	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.9	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.4
1968	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0	.9	1.7	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.2
1969	1.2	.9											

¹ For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to July 1968, see footnote 1, table 11.

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.

NOTE: Data for the current month are preliminary.

16. Labor turnover rates ¹ in manufacturing, by major industry group

[Per 100 employees]

Major industry group	Accession rates							Separation rates							
	Total				New hires			Total			Quits			Layoffs	
	Feb. 1969	Jan. 1969	Dec. 1968	Jan. 1968	Jan. 1969	Dec. 1968	Jan. 1968	Jan. 1969	Dec. 1968	Jan. 1968	Jan. 1969	Dec. 1968	Jan. 1968	Jan. 1969	Dec. 1968
MANUFACTURING	3.9	4.6	3.8	3.0	3.3	2.7	3.9	4.5	3.9	2.1	2.3	1.9	0.9	1.2	1.2
Seasonally adjusted.....	4.6	4.9	4.5	3.7	3.9	3.3	4.7	4.6	4.7	2.8	2.7	2.5	1.0	1.1	1.4
Durable goods	3.8	4.4	3.6	3.0	3.2	2.6	3.6	4.2	3.7	1.9	2.1	1.7	.8	1.1	1.2
Ordnance and accessories.....	2.1	2.5	3.4	1.8	1.9	2.9	3.7	3.3	3.2	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.0	.9
Lumber and wood products.....	5.7	5.9	5.2	4.7	5.0	4.1	5.6	6.2	6.2	3.6	3.8	2.9	1.1	1.3	2.3
Furniture and fixtures.....	5.2	6.2	5.0	4.6	5.4	4.2	5.3	5.8	5.2	3.5	4.0	3.3	.8	.6	.9
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	4.1	4.3	4.0	3.2	3.2	2.9	3.8	5.1	4.0	2.0	2.2	1.9	1.0	1.9	1.3
Primary metal industries.....	3.6	4.4	3.1	2.7	2.7	2.2	2.8	3.2	2.8	1.4	1.6	1.2	.3	.5	.7
Fabricated metal products.....	4.3	5.2	4.2	3.7	4.2	3.2	4.5	5.2	5.0	2.5	2.7	2.1	.9	1.3	1.9
Machinery, except electrical.....	3.2	3.7	2.8	2.6	2.9	2.1	2.6	3.2	2.8	1.5	1.7	1.3	.3	.5	.6
Electrical equipment.....	3.6	4.0	3.0	2.8	2.9	2.1	3.4	4.0	3.6	1.9	2.0	1.7	.6	.8	1.0
Transportation equipment.....	3.3	4.1	4.0	2.4	2.6	2.3	3.6	4.2	3.6	1.3	1.6	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.5
Instruments and related products.....	3.1	3.5	2.7	2.7	3.0	2.2	2.9	3.5	2.8	1.8	1.9	1.5	.4	.5	.5
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	5.9	7.1	5.6	4.0	4.4	3.8	5.1	6.3	4.6	2.9	3.0	2.4	1.2	2.1	1.2
Nondurable goods	4.0	4.8	4.0	3.0	3.5	2.9	4.2	5.0	4.1	2.3	2.7	2.1	1.1	1.4	1.2
Food and kindred products.....	4.5	5.2	4.5	3.2	3.7	2.8	5.5	6.6	5.4	2.5	2.9	2.2	2.1	2.8	2.5
Tobacco manufactures.....	2.3	3.7	3.6	1.7	2.7	2.5	4.7	7.3	6.6	1.6	2.3	2.1	2.6	4.2	3.8
Textile mill products.....	4.4	5.4	4.7	3.5	4.1	3.6	4.8	5.3	4.5	3.3	3.6	3.0	.6	.6	.6
Apparel and other textile products.....	5.0	6.2	5.4	3.5	3.8	3.5	5.1	5.7	4.7	2.6	2.9	2.4	1.7	1.9	1.6
Paper and allied products.....	3.2	3.9	3.0	2.8	3.4	2.5	3.2	4.0	3.2	1.9	2.3	1.7	.4	.6	.6
Printing and publishing.....	3.0	3.6	3.1	2.4	2.9	2.5	2.9	3.8	3.1	1.8	2.3	1.7	.5	.7	.8
Chemicals and allied products.....	2.5	2.8	2.5	2.1	2.2	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.1	1.3	1.4	1.0	.4	.3	.4
Petroleum and coal products.....	2.0	2.3	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.5	2.0	2.4	1.7	1.0	1.1	.7	.2	.3	.4
Rubber and plastics products, n.e.c.....	4.7	5.4	4.1	3.9	4.3	3.2	4.5	5.1	4.2	2.7	2.9	2.3	.8	.9	.9
Leather and leather products.....	4.6	6.4	5.5	3.3	4.3	4.0	5.4	6.4	5.2	3.1	3.7	3.3	1.2	1.6	.9

¹ For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to July 1968, see footnote 1, table 11. For relationship to employment series see footnote 1, table 15.

NOTE: Data for the current month are preliminary.

17. Gross hours and earnings of production and nonsupervisory workers¹ on private nonagricultural payrolls by industry division, 1947 to date

Year	Averages			Averages			Averages			Averages		
	Weekly earnings	Weekly hours	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Weekly hours	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Weekly hours	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Weekly hours	Hourly earnings
	Total private			Manufacturing			Durable goods			Nondurable goods		
1947	\$45.58	40.3	\$1.131	\$49.17	40.4	\$1.217	\$51.76	40.5	\$1.278	\$46.03	40.2	\$1.145
1948	49.00	40.0	1.225	53.12	40.0	1.328	56.36	40.4	1.395	49.50	39.6	1.250
1949	50.24	39.4	1.275	53.88	39.1	1.378	57.25	39.4	1.453	50.38	38.9	1.295
1950	53.13	39.8	1.335	58.32	40.5	1.440	62.43	41.1	1.519	53.48	39.7	1.347
1951	57.86	39.9	1.45	63.34	40.6	1.56	68.48	41.5	1.65	56.88	39.5	1.44
1952	60.65	39.9	1.52	67.16	40.7	1.65	72.63	41.5	1.75	59.95	39.7	1.51
1953	63.76	39.6	1.61	70.47	40.5	1.74	76.63	41.2	1.86	62.57	39.6	1.58
1954	64.52	39.1	1.65	70.49	39.6	1.78	76.19	40.1	1.90	63.18	39.0	1.62
1955	67.72	39.6	1.71	75.70	40.7	1.86	82.19	41.3	1.99	66.63	39.9	1.67
1956	70.74	39.3	1.80	78.78	40.4	1.95	85.28	41.0	2.08	70.09	39.6	1.77
1957	73.33	38.8	1.89	81.59	39.8	2.05	88.26	40.3	2.19	72.52	39.2	1.85
1958	75.08	38.5	1.95	82.71	39.2	2.11	89.27	39.5	2.26	74.11	38.8	1.91
1959 ²	78.78	39.0	2.02	88.26	40.3	2.19	96.05	40.7	2.36	78.61	39.7	1.98
1960	80.67	38.6	2.09	89.72	39.7	2.26	97.44	40.1	2.43	80.36	39.2	2.05
1961	82.60	38.6	2.14	92.34	39.8	2.32	100.35	40.3	2.49	82.92	39.3	2.11
1962	85.91	38.7	2.22	96.56	40.4	2.39	104.70	40.9	2.56	85.93	39.6	2.17
1963	88.46	38.8	2.28	99.63	40.5	2.46	108.09	41.1	2.63	87.91	39.6	2.22
1964	91.33	38.7	2.36	102.97	40.7	2.53	112.19	41.4	2.71	90.91	39.7	2.29
1965	95.06	38.8	2.45	107.53	41.2	2.61	117.18	42.0	2.79	94.64	40.1	2.36
1966	98.82	38.6	2.56	112.34	41.3	2.72	122.09	42.1	2.90	98.49	40.2	2.45
1967	101.84	38.0	2.68	114.90	40.6	2.83	123.60	41.2	3.00	102.03	39.7	2.57
1968	107.73	37.8	2.85	122.51	40.7	3.01	132.07	41.4	3.19	109.05	39.8	2.74
Year	Mining			Contract construction			Wholesale and retail trade			Finance, insurance, and real estate		
1947	\$59.94	40.8	\$1.469	\$58.87	38.2	\$1.541	\$38.07	40.5	\$0.940	\$43.21	37.9	\$1.140
1948	65.56	39.4	1.664	65.27	38.1	1.713	40.80	40.4	1.010	45.48	37.9	1.200
1949	62.33	36.3	1.717	67.56	37.7	1.792	42.93	40.5	1.060	47.63	37.8	1.260
1950	67.16	37.9	1.772	69.68	37.4	1.863	44.55	40.5	1.100	50.52	37.7	1.340
1951	74.11	38.4	1.93	76.96	38.1	2.02	47.79	40.5	1.18	54.67	37.7	1.45
1952	77.59	38.6	2.01	82.86	38.9	2.13	49.20	40.0	1.23	57.08	37.8	1.51
1953	83.03	38.8	2.14	86.41	37.9	2.28	51.35	39.5	1.30	59.57	37.7	1.58
1954	82.60	38.6	2.14	88.91	37.2	2.39	53.33	39.5	1.35	62.04	37.6	1.65
1955	89.54	40.7	2.20	90.90	37.1	2.45	55.16	39.4	1.40	63.92	37.6	1.70
1956	95.06	40.8	2.33	96.38	37.5	2.57	57.48	39.1	1.47	65.68	36.9	1.78
1957	98.65	40.1	2.46	100.27	37.0	2.71	59.60	38.7	1.54	67.53	36.7	1.84
1958	96.08	38.9	2.47	103.78	36.8	2.82	61.76	38.6	1.60	70.12	37.1	1.89
1959 ²	103.68	40.5	2.56	108.41	37.0	2.93	64.41	38.8	1.66	72.74	37.3	1.95
1960	105.44	40.4	2.61	113.04	36.7	3.08	66.01	38.6	1.71	75.14	37.2	2.02
1961	106.92	40.5	2.64	118.08	36.9	3.20	67.41	38.3	1.76	77.12	36.9	2.09
1962	110.43	40.9	2.70	122.47	37.0	3.31	69.91	38.2	1.83	80.94	37.3	2.17
1963	114.40	41.6	2.75	127.19	37.3	3.41	72.01	38.1	1.89	84.38	37.5	2.25
1964	117.74	41.9	2.81	132.06	37.2	3.55	74.28	37.9	1.96	85.79	37.3	2.30
1965	123.52	42.3	2.92	138.38	37.4	3.70	76.53	37.7	2.03	88.91	37.2	2.39
1966	130.24	42.7	3.05	146.26	37.6	3.89	79.02	37.1	2.13	92.13	37.3	2.47
1967	135.89	42.6	3.19	154.95	37.7	4.11	82.13	36.5	2.25	95.46	37.0	2.58
1968	142.62	42.7	3.34	163.81	37.4	4.38	86.40	36.0	2.40	102.12	37.0	2.76

¹ For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to July 1968, see footnote 1, table 11.

Data relate to production workers in mining and manufacturing; to construction workers in contract construction, and to nonsupervisory workers in wholesale and retail trade, finance, insurance, and real estate; transportation and public utilities,

and services. These groups account for approximately four-fifths of the total employment on private nonagricultural payrolls. Transportation and public utilities, and services are included in total private but are not shown separately in this table.

² Data include Alaska and Hawaii beginning 1959.

18. Gross average weekly hours of production or nonsupervisory workers ¹ on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry division and major manufacturing group

Industry division and group	1969			1968										Annual average	
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	1968	1967
TOTAL PRIVATE	37.5	37.3	37.4	37.7	37.5	37.8	38.1	38.3	38.2	38.1	37.7	37.3	37.6	37.8	38.0
MINING	41.9	42.5	42.9	43.4	42.9	41.8	43.3	43.4	43.7	43.4	42.8	42.5	41.8	42.7	42.6
CONTRACT CONSTRUCTION	37.3	36.6	36.6	37.1	35.0	38.4	38.7	38.8	38.6	38.4	37.6	37.3	36.2	37.4	37.7
MANUFACTURING	40.5	39.9	40.4	41.1	40.9	41.1	41.2	40.7	40.7	41.1	40.9	39.8	40.6	40.7	40.6
Overtime hours.....	3.5	3.3	3.6	3.9	3.9	3.9	4.0	3.6	3.5	3.7	3.6	2.9	3.3	3.6	3.4
Durable Goods.....	41.2	40.6	41.1	41.7	41.7	41.8	41.8	41.1	41.2	41.8	41.6	40.5	41.3	41.4	41.2
Overtime hours.....	3.7	3.6	3.7	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.2	3.7	3.6	3.9	3.8	3.0	3.5	3.8	3.5
Ordinance and accessories.....	39.8	40.2	40.4	41.9	41.7	42.2	42.0	41.5	41.0	41.6	41.5	40.6	41.6	41.5	41.7
Lumber and wood products.....	40.5	40.1	39.6	40.9	40.2	41.1	41.3	41.2	40.7	41.2	40.7	40.2	40.2	40.5	40.2
Furniture and fixtures.....	40.0	39.6	40.0	41.3	40.8	41.5	41.4	41.2	40.3	41.1	40.6	39.2	40.5	40.6	40.4
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	41.6	41.2	41.1	41.9	41.8	42.6	42.6	42.4	42.1	42.4	42.1	41.7	41.1	41.8	41.6
Primary metal industries.....	42.2	41.5	41.8	41.6	41.2	40.9	41.3	40.1	41.9	42.4	42.2	42.4	41.9	41.6	41.1
Fabricated metal products.....	41.5	40.7	41.4	42.0	42.4	42.4	42.5	41.8	41.4	42.1	41.9	40.2	41.3	41.7	41.5
Machinery, except electrical.....	42.6	42.2	42.4	42.7	42.3	42.3	42.3	41.5	41.7	42.2	42.1	41.0	42.3	42.1	42.6
Electrical equipment and supplies.....	40.2	39.6	40.3	40.8	40.8	40.7	40.9	40.4	39.9	40.6	40.2	39.1	40.1	40.3	40.2
Transportation equipment.....	40.8	40.7	41.5	42.6	43.2	43.1	42.8	41.4	41.9	42.5	43.0	40.6	42.0	42.2	41.4
Instruments and related products.....	40.3	39.8	40.5	40.9	40.8	40.8	40.8	40.4	40.2	40.7	40.5	39.4	40.7	40.5	41.3
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries.....	38.6	37.7	38.7	39.1	39.7	39.9	39.8	39.4	38.7	39.7	39.5	38.2	39.6	39.4	39.4
Nondurable goods.....	39.5	38.9	39.4	40.1	39.9	40.1	40.3	40.2	40.0	40.1	39.8	38.8	39.7	39.8	39.7
Overtime hours.....	3.1	3.0	3.3	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.8	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.2	2.7	3.1	3.3	3.1
Food and kindred products.....	40.3	40.0	40.3	41.1	40.8	41.0	41.6	41.5	41.4	41.2	40.6	39.6	40.1	40.8	40.9
Tobacco manufactures.....	35.4	36.2	36.1	37.7	37.5	39.0	39.8	39.0	37.7	38.9	37.6	34.1	37.1	37.7	38.6
Textile mill products.....	40.5	40.0	40.5	41.7	41.4	41.5	41.6	41.3	41.1	41.6	41.2	40.1	41.4	41.2	40.9
Apparel and other textile products.....	36.1	35.3	35.7	36.0	36.0	36.4	36.4	36.5	36.1	36.5	36.3	34.9	36.6	36.1	36.0
Paper and allied products.....	43.0	42.0	42.9	43.6	43.2	43.4	43.6	43.2	43.1	43.1	42.9	41.6	42.4	42.9	42.8
Printing and publishing.....	38.5	37.7	37.9	38.9	38.4	38.6	38.7	38.6	38.2	38.2	38.1	37.6	38.2	38.3	38.4
Chemicals and allied products.....	42.1	41.5	41.6	42.1	42.0	41.9	42.0	41.6	41.6	41.8	41.8	41.8	41.6	41.8	41.6
Petroleum and coal products.....	42.4	41.8	41.3	42.1	42.6	42.7	43.1	42.3	43.4	42.6	42.8	43.0	41.8	42.5	42.7
Rubber and plastics products, nec.....	40.5	40.2	41.3	41.8	41.7	42.0	42.1	41.6	41.3	41.8	41.6	39.9	41.1	41.5	41.4
Leather and leather products.....	36.9	35.8	37.7	38.4	37.9	38.3	37.9	38.3	38.6	39.0	38.5	36.9	38.4	38.3	38.1
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE	35.4	35.3	35.5	35.9	35.5	35.7	36.1	37.0	36.9	36.4	35.7	35.8	35.8	36.0	36.5
Wholesale trade.....	39.9	39.8	39.9	40.2	40.0	40.1	40.2	40.4	40.4	40.3	39.8	39.7	39.8	40.0	40.3
Retail trade.....	33.9	33.8	34.0	34.6	34.1	34.3	34.7	35.8	35.8	35.1	34.3	34.5	34.4	34.7	35.3
FINANCE, INSURANCE, AND REAL ESTATE	37.2	37.1	37.2	37.1	36.9	37.1	37.0	37.1	37.1	37.0	37.0	36.9	37.1	37.0	37.0

¹ For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to July 1968, see footnote 1, table 11. For employees covered, see footnote 1, table 17.

NOTE: Data for the 2 most recent months are preliminary.

19. Gross average weekly hours of production or nonsupervisory workers ¹ on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry division and major manufacturing group, seasonally adjusted

Industry division and group	1969			1968									
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.
TOTAL PRIVATE	37.7	37.6	37.7	37.5	37.5	37.7	38.0	37.9	37.9	37.9	37.8	37.6	37.8
MINING	42.4	43.2	43.2	43.4	43.2	41.3	43.1	42.8	43.4	42.9	42.6	42.8	42.3
CONTRACT CONSTRUCTION	47.9	38.3	37.7	37.8	36.0	37.5	37.9	37.5	37.3	37.6	37.2	37.8	36.8
MANUFACTURING	40.6	40.1	40.6	40.7	40.8	41.0	41.1	40.7	40.9	40.9	40.9	40.1	40.7
Overtime hours.....	3.7	3.5	3.8	3.7	3.8	3.7	3.7	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.0	3.4
Durable Goods.....	41.3	40.8	41.2	41.2	41.7	41.6	41.7	41.1	41.5	41.7	41.5	40.7	41.4
Overtime hours.....	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.8	4.1	4.0	3.9	3.7	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.1	3.7
Ordnance and accessories.....	40.0	40.4	40.1	41.3	41.5	42.0	42.0	41.6	41.3	41.6	41.5	40.9	41.9
Lumber and wood products.....	40.8	40.9	40.0	41.2	40.4	40.8	41.1	40.7	40.7	40.7	40.3	40.1	40.5
Furniture and fixtures.....	40.4	40.1	40.7	40.4	40.4	40.8	40.8	40.6	40.7	41.1	41.2	40.0	40.9
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	42.2	42.1	41.9	42.0	41.7	42.2	42.2	41.9	41.9	42.0	41.8	41.7	41.7
Primary metal industries.....	42.1	41.6	41.7	41.5	41.4	41.4	41.3	40.2	41.9	42.1	42.0	42.3	41.8
Fabricated metal products.....	41.7	41.1	41.9	41.6	42.3	42.2	42.1	41.7	41.9	41.7	41.7	40.4	41.5
Machinery, except electrical.....	42.4	42.1	42.4	42.3	42.3	42.3	42.4	41.9	42.0	42.0	41.9	41.0	42.1
Electrical equipment and supplies.....	40.3	39.6	40.4	40.2	40.6	40.5	40.9	40.5	40.3	40.6	40.2	39.5	40.2
Transportation equipment.....	41.2	41.2	41.4	41.6	42.5	42.6	42.6	41.9	42.6	42.5	42.9	41.1	42.4
Instruments and related products.....	40.4	39.8	40.7	40.6	40.6	40.6	40.6	40.5	40.5	40.6	40.5	39.6	40.8
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries.....	38.5	37.7	39.1	38.8	39.3	39.5	39.7	39.2	39.2	39.7	39.7	38.5	39.5
Nondurable Goods.....	39.6	39.2	39.7	39.9	39.7	39.9	40.1	39.9	39.9	40.0	39.8	39.2	39.8
Overtime hours.....	3.3	3.2	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.3	3.5	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.3	2.8	3.3
Food and kindred products.....	40.9	40.7	40.7	40.9	40.6	40.8	40.9	41.1	40.8	41.1	40.7	40.4	40.7
Tobacco manufactures.....	36.2	38.3	36.9	36.3	37.6	37.6	38.5	38.9	38.1	38.5	38.0	34.1	37.9
Textile mill products.....	40.7	40.1	40.8	41.4	41.0	41.1	41.6	41.1	41.5	41.3	41.2	40.6	41.6
Apparel and other textile products.....	35.7	35.3	36.2	36.2	35.9	36.4	36.5	36.0	36.1	36.4	36.3	35.0	36.2
Paper and allied products.....	43.3	42.4	43.3	43.3	42.9	43.1	43.2	42.9	43.1	43.0	43.0	42.0	42.7
Printing and publishing.....	38.5	37.9	38.2	38.4	38.4	38.6	38.4	38.4	38.3	38.2	38.1	37.8	38.2
Chemicals and allied products.....	42.1	41.7	41.9	42.0	41.9	41.9	42.0	41.7	41.7	41.7	41.6	41.4	41.6
Petroleum and coal products.....	42.8	42.6	41.8	42.4	42.6	42.6	42.5	42.1	42.8	42.3	42.5	42.7	42.2
Rubber and plastics products, nec.....	40.8	40.6	41.4	41.3	41.5	41.7	41.6	41.4	41.8	41.7	41.7	40.3	41.4
Leather and leather products.....	37.2	35.6	37.4	37.6	37.9	38.7	38.4	37.8	38.1	38.7	38.8	38.1	38.7
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE	35.7	35.6	35.8	35.7	35.8	35.9	36.1	36.3	36.2	36.3	35.9	36.1	36.1
Wholesale Trade.....	39.7	40.0	40.0	39.9	40.0	40.1	40.2	40.3	40.1	40.3	39.8	39.9	39.9
Retail trade.....	34.2	34.2	34.3	34.3	34.5	34.5	34.7	34.9	34.9	34.9	34.6	34.8	34.7
FINANCE, INSURANCE, AND REAL ESTATE	37.2	37.1	37.2	37.0	36.9	37.0	37.1	37.0	37.0	37.1	37.1	36.9	37.1

¹ For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to July 1968, see footnote 1, table 11. For employees covered, see footnote 1, table 17.

NOTE: Data for the 2 most recent months are preliminary.

20. Gross average hourly earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers ¹ on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry division and major manufacturing group

Industry division and group	1969			1968										Annual average	
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	1968	1967
TOTAL PRIVATE	\$2.98	\$2.97	\$2.95	\$2.93	\$2.93	\$2.92	\$2.91	\$2.86	\$2.86	\$2.85	\$2.83	\$2.80	\$2.79	\$2.85	\$2.68
MINING	3.51	3.51	3.49	3.48	3.46	3.32	3.38	3.33	3.33	3.32	3.30	3.30	3.28	3.34	3.19
CONTRACT CONSTRUCTION	4.60	4.54	4.56	4.53	4.52	4.50	4.47	4.38	4.34	4.29	4.32	4.27	4.28	4.38	4.11
MANUFACTURING	3.13	3.12	3.12	3.11	3.08	3.06	3.05	2.99	3.00	3.00	2.99	2.97	2.96	3.01	2.83
Durable Goods	3.32	3.31	3.31	3.31	3.28	3.25	3.23	3.17	3.18	3.18	3.18	3.15	3.14	3.19	3.00
Ordnance and accessories.....	3.37	3.37	3.35	3.37	3.33	3.31	3.28	3.23	3.21	3.23	3.22	3.21	3.22	3.26	3.17
Lumber and wood products.....	2.62	2.60	2.59	2.62	2.62	2.62	2.64	2.60	2.58	2.58	2.53	2.51	2.50	2.56	2.36
Furniture and fixtures.....	2.56	2.55	2.53	2.55	2.53	2.52	2.52	2.47	2.46	2.46	2.46	2.43	2.43	2.47	2.33
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	3.08	3.07	3.06	3.07	3.06	3.06	3.06	3.02	3.01	3.01	3.00	2.97	2.90	3.00	2.82
Primary metal industries.....	3.71	3.70	3.70	3.67	3.63	3.60	3.60	3.55	3.55	3.54	3.52	3.55	3.49	3.55	3.34
Fabricated metal products.....	3.30	3.27	3.27	3.26	3.25	3.23	3.22	3.16	3.15	3.15	3.15	3.10	3.11	3.17	2.98
Machinery, except electrical.....	3.53	3.52	3.50	3.48	3.46	3.44	3.40	3.36	3.36	3.35	3.36	3.31	3.33	3.37	3.19
Electrical equipment and supplies.....	3.05	3.04	3.04	3.04	3.01	2.98	2.96	2.93	2.92	2.91	2.90	2.88	2.88	2.93	2.77
Transportation equipment.....	3.82	3.82	3.86	3.87	3.82	3.78	3.74	3.64	3.64	3.66	3.66	3.60	3.61	3.69	3.44
Instruments and related products.....	3.11	3.11	3.09	3.08	3.06	3.03	3.03	3.00	2.97	2.97	2.96	2.93	2.94	2.99	2.85
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries.....	2.60	2.61	2.60	2.58	2.52	2.51	2.50	2.48	2.49	2.50	2.50	2.49	2.49	2.50	2.35
Nondurable Goods	2.85	2.84	2.83	2.82	2.81	2.79	2.78	2.75	2.75	2.73	2.72	2.70	2.69	2.74	2.57
Food and kindred products.....	2.92	2.91	2.91	2.88	2.86	2.81	2.80	2.77	2.80	2.80	2.80	2.78	2.77	2.80	2.64
Tobacco manufactures.....	2.65	2.62	2.57	2.55	2.51	2.37	2.37	2.45	2.64	2.63	2.61	2.56	2.48	2.49	2.27
Textile mill products.....	2.29	2.27	2.28	2.28	2.27	2.27	2.26	2.24	2.17	2.18	2.17	2.15	2.17	2.21	2.06
Apparel and other textile products.....	2.30	2.27	2.28	2.26	2.26	2.27	2.26	2.23	2.19	2.20	2.19	2.18	2.19	2.21	2.03
Paper and allied products.....	3.15	3.15	3.15	3.14	3.12	3.11	3.11	3.08	3.07	3.03	3.01	2.98	2.97	3.05	2.87
Printing and publishing.....	3.63	3.61	3.60	3.59	3.56	3.55	3.55	3.51	3.48	3.48	3.45	3.41	3.42	3.48	3.28
Chemicals and allied products.....	3.35	3.36	3.37	3.36	3.33	3.31	3.30	3.28	3.28	3.26	3.23	3.22	3.19	3.26	3.10
Petroleum and coal products.....	3.94	3.88	3.69	3.79	3.80	3.77	3.77	3.73	3.76	3.73	3.73	3.78	3.69	3.75	3.58
Rubber and plastics products, nec.....	3.00	3.00	3.02	3.01	2.99	2.98	2.98	2.94	2.94	2.91	2.89	2.84	2.85	2.92	2.75
Leather and leather products.....	2.35	2.33	2.32	2.30	2.27	2.26	2.25	2.23	2.21	2.24	2.22	2.22	2.22	2.23	2.07
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE	2.52	2.51	2.49	2.45	2.46	2.45	2.44	2.40	2.40	2.40	2.39	2.37	2.37	2.40	2.25
Wholesale trade.....	3.18	3.17	3.14	3.14	3.12	3.09	3.10	3.05	3.04	3.05	3.04	3.02	3.01	3.05	2.88
Retail trade.....	2.26	2.26	2.24	2.21	2.21	2.20	2.19	2.16	2.16	2.16	2.14	2.13	2.12	2.16	2.01
FINANCE, INSURANCE, AND REAL ESTATE	2.93	2.92	2.88	2.84	2.83	2.81	2.80	2.77	2.77	2.76	2.73	2.71	2.69	2.76	2.58

¹ For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to July 1968, see footnote 1, table 11. For employees covered, see footnote 1, table 17.

NOTE: Data for the 2 most recent months are preliminary.

21. Gross average weekly earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers¹ on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry division and major manufacturing group

Industry division and group	1969			1968										Annual average	
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	1968	1967
TOTAL PRIVATE	\$111.75	\$110.78	\$110.33	\$110.46	\$109.88	\$110.38	\$110.87	\$109.54	\$109.25	\$108.59	\$106.69	\$104.44	\$104.90	\$107.73	\$101.84
MINING	147.07	149.18	149.72	151.03	148.43	138.78	146.35	144.52	145.52	144.09	141.24	140.25	137.10	142.62	135.89
CONTRACT CONSTRUCTION	171.58	166.16	166.90	168.06	158.20	172.80	172.99	169.94	167.52	164.74	162.43	159.27	154.94	163.81	154.95
MANUFACTURING	126.77	124.49	126.05	127.82	125.97	125.77	125.66	121.69	122.10	123.30	122.29	118.21	120.18	122.51	114.90
Durable goods.....	136.78	134.39	136.04	138.03	136.78	135.85	135.01	130.29	131.02	132.92	132.29	127.58	129.68	132.07	123.60
Ordnance and accessories.....	134.13	135.47	135.34	141.20	138.86	139.68	137.76	134.05	131.61	134.37	133.63	130.33	133.95	135.29	132.19
Lumber and wood products.....	106.11	104.26	102.56	107.16	105.32	107.68	109.03	107.12	105.01	106.30	102.97	100.90	100.50	103.68	94.87
Furniture and fixtures.....	102.40	100.98	101.20	105.32	103.22	104.58	104.33	101.76	99.14	101.52	99.88	95.26	98.42	100.28	94.13
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	128.13	126.48	125.77	128.63	127.91	130.36	130.36	128.05	126.72	127.62	126.30	123.85	119.19	125.40	117.31
Primary metal industries.....	156.56	153.55	154.66	152.67	149.56	147.24	148.68	142.36	148.75	150.10	148.54	150.52	146.23	147.68	137.27
Fabricated metal products.....	136.95	133.09	135.38	136.92	137.80	136.95	136.85	132.09	130.41	132.62	131.99	124.62	128.44	132.19	123.67
Machinery, except electrical.....	150.38	148.54	148.40	148.60	146.36	145.51	143.82	139.44	140.11	141.37	141.46	135.71	140.86	141.88	135.89
Electrical equipment and supplies.....	122.61	120.38	122.51	124.03	122.81	121.29	121.06	118.37	116.51	118.15	116.58	112.61	115.49	118.08	111.35
Transportation equipment.....	155.86	155.47	160.19	164.86	165.02	162.92	160.07	150.70	152.52	155.55	157.38	146.16	151.62	155.72	142.42
Instruments and related products.....	125.33	123.78	125.15	125.97	124.85	123.62	123.62	121.20	119.39	120.88	119.88	115.44	119.66	121.10	117.71
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries.....	100.36	98.40	100.62	100.88	100.04	100.15	99.50	97.71	96.36	99.25	98.75	95.12	98.60	98.50	92.59
Nondurable goods.....	112.58	110.48	111.50	113.08	112.12	111.88	112.03	110.55	110.00	109.47	108.26	104.76	106.79	109.05	102.03
Food and kindred products.....	117.68	116.40	117.27	118.37	116.69	115.21	116.48	114.96	115.92	115.36	113.68	110.09	111.08	114.24	107.98
Tobacco manufactures.....	93.81	94.84	92.78	96.14	94.13	92.43	94.33	95.55	99.53	102.31	98.14	87.30	92.01	93.87	87.62
Textile mill products.....	92.75	90.80	92.34	95.08	93.98	94.21	94.02	92.51	89.19	90.69	89.40	86.22	89.84	91.05	84.25
Apparel and other textile products.....	83.03	80.13	81.40	81.36	81.36	82.63	82.26	81.40	79.06	80.30	79.50	76.08	80.15	79.78	73.08
Paper and allied products.....	135.45	132.30	135.14	136.90	134.78	134.97	135.60	133.06	132.32	130.59	129.13	123.97	125.93	130.85	122.84
Printing and publishing.....	139.76	136.10	136.44	139.65	136.70	137.03	137.39	135.49	132.94	132.94	131.45	128.22	130.64	133.28	125.95
Chemicals and allied products.....	141.04	139.44	140.19	141.46	139.86	138.69	138.60	136.45	136.45	136.27	135.01	134.60	132.70	136.27	128.96
Petroleum and coal products.....	167.06	162.18	152.40	159.56	161.88	160.98	162.49	157.78	163.18	158.90	159.64	162.54	154.24	159.38	152.87
Rubber and plastics products, n e c.....	121.50	120.60	124.73	125.82	124.68	125.16	125.46	122.30	121.42	121.64	120.22	113.32	117.14	121.18	113.85
Leather and leather products.....	86.72	83.41	87.46	88.32	86.03	86.56	85.28	85.41	85.31	87.36	85.47	81.92	85.25	85.41	78.87
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE	89.21	88.60	88.40	87.96	87.33	87.47	88.08	88.80	88.56	87.36	85.32	84.85	84.85	86.40	82.13
Wholesale trade.....	126.88	126.17	125.29	126.23	124.80	123.91	124.62	123.22	122.82	122.92	120.99	119.89	119.80	122.00	116.06
Retail trade.....	76.61	76.39	76.16	76.47	75.36	75.46	75.99	77.33	77.33	75.82	73.40	73.49	72.93	74.95	70.95
FINANCE, INSURANCE, AND REAL ESTATE	109.00	108.33	107.14	105.36	104.43	104.25	103.60	102.77	102.77	102.12	101.01	100.00	99.80	102.12	95.46

¹ For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to July 1968, see footnote 1, table 11. For employees covered, see footnote 1, table 17.

NOTE: Data for the 2 most recent months are preliminary.

22. Gross and spendable average weekly earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers¹ on private nonagricultural payrolls, in current and 1957-59 dollars

Item	1969		1968												Annual average	
	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	1968	1967	
TOTAL PRIVATE																
Gross average weekly earnings:																
Current dollars.....	\$110.78	\$110.33	\$110.46	\$109.88	\$110.38	\$110.87	\$109.54	\$109.25	\$108.59	\$106.69	\$104.44	\$104.90	\$104.53	\$107.73	\$101.84	
1957-59 dollars.....	88.91	88.90	89.30	89.04	89.81	90.73	89.86	89.92	89.82	88.69	87.11	87.78	87.84	88.89	87.57	
Spendable average weekly earnings:																
Worker with no dependents:																
Current dollars.....	88.14	87.81	88.35	87.92	88.29	88.65	87.67	87.46	86.97	85.57	83.91	85.70	85.42	85.71	83.38	
1957-59 dollars.....	70.74	70.76	71.42	71.25	71.84	72.55	71.92	71.98	71.94	71.13	69.98	71.72	71.78	71.54	71.69	
Worker with 3 dependents:																
Current dollars.....	97.08	96.74	97.28	96.84	97.22	97.59	96.58	96.36	95.85	94.40	92.68	93.30	93.01	95.28	90.86	
1957-59 dollars.....	77.91	77.95	78.64	78.48	79.10	79.86	79.23	79.31	79.28	78.47	77.30	78.08	78.16	78.61	78.13	
MANUFACTURING																
Gross average weekly earnings:																
Current dollars.....	124.49	126.05	127.82	125.97	125.77	125.66	121.69	122.10	123.30	122.29	118.21	120.18	119.36	122.51	114.90	
1957-59 dollars.....	99.91	101.57	103.33	102.08	102.34	102.83	99.83	100.49	101.99	101.65	98.59	100.57	100.30	101.08	98.80	
Spendable average weekly earnings:																
Worker with no dependents:																
Current dollars.....	98.21	99.36	101.17	99.80	99.65	99.57	96.64	96.94	97.83	97.08	94.07	97.29	96.66	97.70	93.28	
1957-59 dollars.....	78.82	80.06	81.79	80.88	81.08	81.48	79.28	79.79	80.92	80.70	78.46	81.41	81.23	80.61	80.21	
Worker with 3 dependents:																
Current dollars.....	107.58	108.78	110.65	109.22	109.06	108.98	105.91	106.23	107.16	106.38	103.23	105.50	104.85	106.75	101.26	
1957-59 dollars.....	86.34	87.66	89.45	88.51	88.74	89.18	86.88	87.43	88.64	88.43	86.10	88.28	88.11	88.02	87.07	

¹ For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to July 1968, see footnote 1, table 11. For employees covered, see footnote 1, table 17.

Spendable average weekly earnings are based on gross average weekly earnings as published in table 21 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.

These series are described in "The Spendable Earnings Series: A Technical Note on its Calculation," in Employment and Earnings and Monthly Report on the Labor Force, February 1969, pp. 6-13.

Beginning April 1968, data reflect the income tax surcharge imposed by the Revenue and Expenditure Control Act of 1968.

NOTE: Data for the most recent month are preliminary.

A NOTE ON BENCHMARKS

The Bureau of Labor Statistics periodically adjusts the industry employment series to a recent benchmark to improve their accuracy. These adjustments may also affect the hours and earnings series because employment levels are used as weights. The national series of employment, hours and earnings, and labor turnover (tables 11 through 22) 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. The State series of employment have been adjusted to the latest benchmarks.

Information concerning the preparation of the labor force, employment, hours and earnings, and labor turnover series—concepts and scope, survey methods, and limitations—is contained in technical notes for each of these series, available from the BLS free of charge.

For additional detail see Employment and Earnings and Monthly Report on the Labor Force. See also BLS Bulletin 1312-6, Employment and Earnings Statistics for the United States, 1909-68, and BLS Bulletin 1370-5, Employment and Earnings Statistics for States and Areas, 1939-67.

23. Consumer Price Index—general summary

[The official name of the index is, "Consumer Price Index for Urban Wage Earners and Clerical Workers." It measures the average change in prices of goods and services purchased by families and single workers. The indexes shown below represent the average of price changes in 56 metropolitan areas, selected to represent all U.S. urban places having populations of more than 2500.]

[1957-59=100 unless otherwise specified]

Item and group	1969					1968								Annual average	
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	1968	1967
All items.....	125.6	124.6	124.1	123.7	123.4	122.9	122.2	121.9	121.5	120.9	120.3	119.9	119.5	121.2	116.3
All items (1947-49=100).....	154.1	152.9	152.3	151.8	151.4	150.9	150.0	149.6	149.1	148.4	147.6	147.1	146.6	148.7	142.7
Food.....	122.4	121.9	122.0	121.2	120.5	120.9	120.4	120.5	120.0	119.1	118.8	118.3	117.9	119.3	115.2
Food at home.....	118.5	118.1	118.3	117.4	116.6	117.2	116.8	117.1	116.7	115.8	115.6	115.1	114.7	115.9	112.3
Food away from home.....	141.3	140.7	140.3	139.9	139.4	138.9	138.0	137.2	136.5	135.7	135.1	134.4	133.7	136.3	129.3
Housing.....	124.4	123.3	122.7	122.3	121.7	120.9	120.4	120.1	119.5	118.7	117.8	117.5	117.2	119.1	114.3
Rent.....	117.5	117.2	116.9	116.7	116.3	116.0	115.7	115.4	115.1	114.9	114.6	114.4	114.2	115.1	112.4
Homeownership.....	135.7	133.6	132.7	132.0	131.1	130.0	129.1	128.8	127.8	126.1	124.3	124.0	123.8	127.0	120.2
Apparel and upkeep.....	124.9	123.9	123.4	124.3	124.0	123.3	122.2	120.3	119.7	119.9	119.5	118.4	117.6	120.1	114.0
Transportation.....	124.3	122.0	120.7	120.2	121.2	120.6	119.5	120.0	119.8	119.7	119.1	119.0	119.0	119.6	115.9
Health and recreation.....	134.3	133.7	133.3	132.8	132.4	131.9	131.1	130.5	130.2	129.7	129.2	128.8	128.3	130.0	123.8
Medical care.....	152.5	151.3	150.2	149.1	148.2	147.4	146.4	145.5	145.1	144.4	144.0	143.5	142.9	145.0	136.7
Special groups:															
All items less shelter.....	124.4	123.5	123.1	122.7	122.5	122.2	121.5	121.2	120.8	120.4	120.0	119.6	119.1	120.6	115.9
All items less food.....	126.8	125.6	124.9	124.7	124.4	123.8	123.0	122.6	122.1	121.6	121.0	120.6	120.2	121.9	116.8
All items less medical care.....	124.0	123.0	122.5	122.2	121.9	121.5	120.8	120.5	120.1	119.5	118.9	118.5	118.1	119.7	115.0
Commodities.....	118.7	117.8	117.4	117.2	117.1	116.8	116.1	115.9	115.5	115.1	114.7	114.3	113.9	115.3	114.0
Nondurables.....	121.8	121.1	121.0	120.7	120.3	120.2	119.6	119.2	118.7	118.2	117.8	117.3	116.9	118.4	111.2
Durables.....	111.1	109.7	108.6	108.7	109.3	108.5	107.6	107.7	107.6	107.4	106.8	106.9	106.6	107.5	106.1
Services.....	140.9	139.7	139.0	138.1	137.4	136.6	136.0	135.5	134.9	133.9	133.0	132.5	132.1	134.3	127.2
Commodities less food.....	116.8	115.7	115.0	115.2	115.3	114.7	113.9	113.5	113.2	113.0	112.5	112.2	111.9	113.2	109.7
Nondurables less food.....	121.4	120.5	120.1	120.3	120.2	119.7	118.9	118.1	117.6	117.5	117.0	116.4	116.1	117.7	113.4
Apparel commodities.....	124.3	123.1	122.6	123.7	123.4	122.7	121.5	119.5	118.9	119.1	118.7	117.6	116.6	119.3	113.0
Apparel commodities less footwear.....	121.6	120.5	119.9	121.2	121.0	120.3	119.0	116.8	116.3	116.6	116.2	115.0	114.0	116.8	110.5
Nondurables less food and apparel.....	119.7	118.9	118.6	118.3	118.3	117.9	117.4	117.3	116.9	116.6	116.0	115.8	115.8	116.8	113.1
Household durables.....	104.4	103.7	103.3	103.0	102.8	102.3	102.0	101.6	101.5	101.3	101.1	100.8	100.4	101.4	98.2
Household furnishings.....	107.8	107.1	106.6	106.6	106.5	105.9	105.4	104.9	104.8	104.7	104.4	104.2	103.8	104.7	100.8
Service less rent.....	146.1	144.6	143.9	142.9	142.0	141.2	140.5	140.0	139.3	138.1	137.1	136.6	136.1	138.6	131.1
Household services less rent.....	142.5	140.6	139.8	139.2	138.5	137.6	137.0	136.7	135.6	133.7	132.1	131.5	131.1	134.5	127.0
Transportation services.....	140.9	139.8	139.2	136.8	135.2	134.6	133.8	133.6	133.5	133.3	132.9	132.7	132.4	133.5	128.4
Medical care services.....	165.8	164.3	162.8	161.4	160.3	159.4	158.2	157.1	156.6	155.5	155.0	154.3	153.6	156.3	145.6
Other services.....	143.2	142.7	142.3	142.0	141.5	140.9	140.3	139.7	139.2	138.9	138.3	137.6	137.0	138.8	131.5

24. Consumer Price Index—U.S. average for groups, subgroups, and selected items

[1957-59=100 unless otherwise specified]

Item or group	Other index bases	1969					1968								Annual average 1968
		Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	
FOOD.....		122.4	121.9	122.0	121.2	120.5	120.9	120.4	120.5	120.0	119.1	118.8	118.3	117.9	119.3
Food away from home.....		141.3	140.7	140.3	139.9	139.4	138.9	138.0	137.2	136.5	135.7	135.1	134.4	133.7	136.3
Restaurant meals.....		141.4	140.8	140.4	140.0	139.6	139.1	138.3	137.5	136.7	136.0	135.3	134.6	134.1	136.5
Snacks.....	Dec. 63	123.0	122.4	122.2	121.6	121.1	120.8	119.1	118.6	118.2	117.4	117.1	116.4	115.4	118.0
Food at home.....		118.5	118.1	118.3	117.4	116.6	117.2	116.8	117.1	116.7	115.8	115.6	115.1	114.7	115.9
Cereals and bakery products.....		121.2	120.8	120.5	120.1	120.1	119.8	119.6	119.2	118.6	118.4	118.3	118.1	118.1	119.0
Flour.....		111.5	111.7	110.4	110.2	112.0	112.4	112.0	111.7	112.5	112.3	112.7	112.8	113.3	112.4
Cracker meal.....	Dec. 63	117.8	117.6	117.6	117.5	117.5	117.4	117.4	117.1	117.1	117.2	117.3	117.1	117.3	117.3
Corn flakes.....		129.3	129.4	129.6	129.3	129.0	128.5	128.5	128.8	128.4	128.3	128.0	129.1	129.1	128.7
Rice.....		111.3	111.6	111.2	111.1	111.0	110.7	110.8	110.7	110.8	110.7	110.4	110.0	109.7	110.3
Bread, white.....	Dec. 63	127.4	126.8	126.6	126.0	126.6	125.4	125.9	125.6	124.7	123.7	123.3	123.0	122.5	124.4
Bread, whole wheat.....		119.2	118.5	117.1	117.9	117.5	117.2	116.7	115.6	115.1	114.2	114.2	114.1	113.0	115.3
Cookies.....	Dec. 63	100.8	99.5	101.1	100.6	100.1	100.8	100.9	100.9	100.8	100.1	99.8	101.1	100.7	100.5
Layer cake.....	Dec. 63	111.1	111.3	110.5	110.5	110.3	110.4	110.0	109.9	109.3	108.4	108.1	106.7	107.1	108.8
Cinnamon rolls.....	Dec. 63	111.8	111.5	111.1	109.0	108.3	107.8	108.2	108.2	107.1	106.9	107.0	106.2	106.2	107.3
Meats, poultry, and fish.....		116.5	116.2	115.6	114.4	114.6	115.4	115.5	115.3	114.0	113.2	113.0	112.7	113.1	113.7
Meats.....		119.1	119.0	118.6	117.1	117.4	118.2	118.0	117.9	116.6	115.8	115.7	115.0	115.3	116.4
Beef and veal.....		121.4	121.3	121.1	118.7	119.5	119.2	119.1	118.8	117.7	117.3	117.1	116.0	116.3	117.7
Steak, round.....	Apr. 60	116.8	117.0	116.8	112.7	114.6	113.3	113.5	113.4	112.1	111.7	112.9	110.0	111.7	112.5
Steak, sirloin.....	Dec. 63	113.5	113.8	114.7	111.1	112.4	112.2	113.5	113.6	111.0	111.8	110.8	107.9	109.6	111.0
Steak, porterhouse.....	Dec. 63	118.5	118.6	119.4	116.7	117.4	118.3	118.9	118.6	116.2	116.4	115.7	113.5	114.0	116.1
Rump roast.....	Dec. 63	112.3	111.9	111.5	108.8	110.1	109.3	109.9	109.0	108.4	107.8	108.9	107.2	108.1	108.7
Rib roast.....		114.3	114.0	113.1	110.4	111.7	111.2	110.0	110.5	110.1	108.6	109.0	110.4	109.7	109.9
Chuck roast.....		125.0	124.4	124.0	123.1	122.9	122.8	122.1	121.5	120.2	119.9	119.1	119.2	118.8	120.6
Hamburger.....	Dec. 63	107.7	108.1	106.4	106.2	107.5	108.3	107.4	107.9	108.6	106.7	106.6	106.3	105.6	106.8
Beef liver.....		147.7	146.1	145.0	143.8	144.7	143.5	144.1	143.4	143.7	143.3	141.6	141.6	140.0	142.2
Veal cutlets.....															

24. Consumer Price Index—U.S. average for groups, subgroups, and selected items—Continued

Index or group	Other index bases	1969				1968									Annual average 1968
		Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	
FOOD—Continued															
Meats—Continued															
Pork.....	Apr. 60 Dec. 63	116.4	116.6	115.7	114.9	114.5	117.6	117.4	117.8	116.3	113.9	114.0	113.6	114.5	115.0
Chops.....		121.0	121.9	120.1	118.0	116.6	122.6	123.0	123.4	123.0	116.2	116.6	117.2	119.2	118.8
Loin roast.....		126.6	127.8	126.2	124.6	124.9	129.1	128.7	130.1	127.8	123.4	122.7	123.4	125.2	125.3
Pork sausage.....		125.7	125.5	124.5	125.4	126.4	128.4	128.0	126.7	123.3	122.8	122.7	121.6	121.0	124.0
Ham, whole.....		113.1	112.4	114.5	112.4	111.6	112.2	112.2	111.4	108.9	110.0	109.1	109.9	110.3	110.9
Picnics.....		118.3	118.4	117.9	117.2	114.1	116.5	115.8	117.7	115.7	112.7	113.0	115.0	115.0	115.0
Bacon.....		114.3	113.6	112.6	113.0	114.2	116.0	115.7	116.3	115.4	116.8	117.3	113.8	114.2	114.8
Other meats.....															
Lamb chops.....	Dec. 63	122.0	121.4	121.2	120.7	120.7	121.0	120.3	120.3	118.9	119.1	118.9	118.9	118.3	119.5
Frankfurters.....		132.4	131.9	130.6	129.9	129.9	130.8	129.1	129.6	130.0	129.1	128.3	126.6	126.1	128.3
Ham, canned.....	Dec. 63	119.2	118.5	118.1	117.9	118.4	118.7	118.7	118.2	115.0	117.0	116.3	117.5	116.5	117.2
Bologna sausage.....	Dec. 63	117.2	115.0	116.4	115.5	116.5	115.9	115.3	114.7	112.8	113.4	115.1	114.6	115.4	115.0
Salami sausage.....	Dec. 63	121.8	121.8	121.5	121.3	120.9	121.3	120.3	120.5	118.8	118.8	118.2	118.5	118.2	119.4
Liverwurst.....	Dec. 63	116.6	116.7	116.8	116.1	116.1	116.1	115.5	115.7	114.4	113.9	113.5	113.9	112.8	114.6
	Dec. 63	118.3	118.4	117.5	117.6	116.1	117.2	116.8	117.3	116.4	116.1	115.6	116.0	114.9	116.4
Poultry.....															
Frying chicken.....	Dec. 63	94.2	93.0	90.8	90.8	91.1	92.4	94.5	93.6	91.6	91.5	91.0	92.7	94.4	91.7
Chicken breasts.....		95.5	93.0	90.9	91.2	91.2	92.8	96.0	95.3	92.8	92.8	92.3	94.4	96.5	92.7
Turkey.....		105.3	103.9	103.6	103.6	103.5	104.9	105.5	104.2	102.7	102.5	102.6	103.3	104.4	103.2
		99.7	100.5	100.4	98.4	101.4	101.5	99.2	97.8	96.9	96.9	95.6	96.8	96.8	97.9
Fish.....															
Shrimp, frozen.....	Dec. 63	127.7	127.7	127.0	126.3	125.5	125.2	124.8	124.3	124.1	123.6	122.9	122.2	121.4	123.8
Fish, fresh or frozen.....		116.5	115.6	114.5	112.5	111.5	109.8	109.5	108.7	109.0	107.9	106.7	107.1	105.4	108.6
Tuna, fish, canned.....	Dec. 63	128.6	128.3	128.1	127.5	126.4	126.5	126.1	125.9	125.8	125.0	124.8	124.3	124.0	125.5
Sardines, canned.....		112.4	113.3	112.4	112.1	111.6	112.0	111.9	111.7	110.9	111.1	110.5	108.5	108.2	110.7
		123.5	123.9	123.6	123.6	123.3	123.3	122.7	122.1	121.8	121.6	121.1	120.8	119.9	121.7
Dairy products.....															
Milk, fresh, grocery.....	Dec. 63	123.0	122.8	122.7	122.6	122.6	122.3	121.6	121.5	121.0	120.9	120.2	118.8	118.7	120.6
Milk, fresh, delivered.....		120.7	120.3	120.5	120.7	120.6	120.5	119.6	119.5	118.9	118.8	118.3	116.5	116.4	118.5
Milk, fresh, skim.....		127.0	126.7	126.4	126.3	126.1	125.8	124.9	124.6	124.3	123.9	123.4	121.5	121.5	123.7
Milk, evaporated.....		121.4	121.1	120.3	121.0	120.3	120.1	119.0	118.6	118.2	117.8	117.5	114.5	114.5	117.5
		122.4	121.8	121.7	121.5	121.7	121.2	121.3	121.4	121.0	120.7	118.9	117.4	117.3	119.8
Ice cream.....		98.9	99.4	99.4	99.0	99.7	99.2	99.1	99.2	97.8	98.7	98.2	98.9	98.9	98.8
Cheese, American process.....		142.5	142.7	142.1	141.2	141.3	141.1	140.5	140.4	139.8	139.4	138.4	137.5	137.4	139.2
Butter.....		117.4	117.6	117.8	117.1	117.3	117.1	116.6	116.8	116.9	116.8	116.8	116.5	116.5	116.8
Fruits and vegetables.....															
Fresh fruits and vegetables.....	Dec. 63	127.6	124.7	127.0	126.4	123.8	123.4	122.9	128.2	132.2	130.0	130.7	128.3	126.1	126.8
Apples.....		137.2	132.3	136.4	135.2	130.6	129.8	128.6	138.3	145.7	141.7	142.7	138.9	135.4	136.0
Bananas.....		164.7	160.1	156.0	150.0	142.6	141.8	168.7	204.8	200.2	185.4	170.5	160.0	152.4	163.4
Oranges.....		91.4	94.7	92.9	87.8	88.2	97.4	95.3	94.6	96.3	94.4	103.5	94.4	93.1	93.0
Orange juice, fresh.....		126.9	126.6	127.1	131.5	162.4	171.0	167.0	157.4	144.1	138.0	141.8	137.7	142.9	147.6
		90.2	88.0	87.4	88.1	87.7	87.7	87.2	86.8	85.5	84.7	84.4	82.9	81.6	84.5
Grapefruit.....	Dec. 63	134.3	141.6	143.1	151.3	183.1	205.6	188.9	187.0	177.1	173.9	167.3	150.4	143.8	167.4
Grapes.....		(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	144.6	121.7	114.5	144.1	194.9	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	144.0
Strawberries.....		(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	126.8	122.0	137.7	(1)	128.8
Watermelon.....		(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	109.4	109.5	154.7	(1)	(1)	(1)	124.5
Potatoes.....	Dec. 63	139.1	136.4	133.7	133.4	131.9	127.4	132.0	146.8	163.5	160.4	142.1	119.6	120.1	135.1
Onions.....		123.6	128.2	131.5	132.0	130.0	133.7	137.9	148.6	151.2	159.1	171.8	181.8	149.0	146.6
Asparagus.....		171.5	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	121.4	118.4	122.9	112.1	148.0	124.6
Cabbage.....		149.7	153.8	174.3	156.3	141.2	143.9	132.1	151.8	142.6	148.6	161.4	150.1	153.7	147.4
Carrots.....		113.0	114.3	114.2	112.6	107.0	105.0	109.2	117.9	118.9	112.7	113.0	124.4	168.8	128.4
Celery.....	Dec. 63	110.6	111.6	117.7	110.7	106.6	100.7	99.5	110.4	137.7	118.5	111.2	106.6	109.9	113.3
Cucumbers.....		145.3	171.5	237.8	217.1	134.6	99.8	97.9	115.3	110.7	122.0	159.1	218.8	191.6	150.8
Lettuce.....	Dec. 63	156.0	115.3	143.9	138.6	126.0	151.5	122.4	117.8	134.5	114.3	114.1	140.1	102.5	127.8
Peppers, green.....		192.9	192.1	167.2	160.1	148.0	128.2	122.9	142.2	152.4	190.2	211.8	186.7	172.7	162.7
Spinach.....	Dec. 63	110.0	110.3	110.2	107.1	103.9	107.3	102.1	104.0	105.7	103.5	102.3	104.7	105.1	104.5
Tomatoes.....		144.3	133.2	135.9	166.0	132.4	106.6	95.3	106.5	131.5	125.2	163.0	148.0	144.0	133.0
Processed fruits and vegetables.....															
Fruit cocktail, canned.....	Dec. 63	115.8	115.3	115.3	115.7	115.6	115.7	116.1	115.7	115.3	115.4	115.6	115.1	114.6	115.3
Pears, canned.....		106.6	106.9	107.2	107.9	107.5	107.6	109.1	109.1	108.6	108.9	109.1	108.2	108.3	108.3
Grapefruit-pineapple juice, canned.....	Dec. 63	110.1	110.1	110.9	111.5	112.9	113.9	116.9	118.2	118.1	117.7	118.3	117.9	117.0	116.3
Orange juice concentrate, frozen.....		99.4	98.7	98.4	98.5	98.3	97.0	97.9	95.7	95.2	95.4	95.2	94.3	94.0	95.9
		99.5	94.8	92.6	91.8	91.9	91.1	89.6	88.3	88.4	87.4	86.6	84.7	82.7	87.0
Lemonade concentrate, frozen.....	Apr. 60	91.4	91.2	90.7	90.6	89.9	89.5	87.8	87.4	86.3	88.9	90.0	91.1	91.0	89.5
Beets, canned.....	Dec. 63	113.5	113.2	113.3	113.2	113.3	112.3	111.4	111.9	111.7	111.2	110.7	110.3	110.1	111.3
Peas, green, canned.....		120.6	120.1	120.7	121.6	121.3	120.8	122.0	121.7	121.3	120.6	121.5	120.9	120.1	121.4
Tomatoes, canned.....		124.3	124.9	125.7	126.4	126.2	127.2	128.7	130.0	130.6	130.8	131.0	130.8	130.3	129.3
Dried beans.....	Dec. 63	124.8	125.3	124.9	125.5	125.2	126.5	125.5	123.8	123.7	123.7	123.4	123.7	122.7	124.1
Broccoli, frozen.....		101.3	100.7	101.2	101.2	101.1	102.1	102.1	101.1	100.3	100.6	100.9	99.8	100.3	100.9
Other food at home.....															
Eggs.....	Dec. 63	108.5	109.4	109.8	108.4	106.7	108.6	107.4	105.5	103.3	102.5	101.9	103.0	102.2	104.5
Fats and oils.....		108.5	116.2	119.8	112.2	102.6	115.9	109.4	99.1	88.9	83.9	81.9	89.7	86.1	95.3
Margarine.....		103.0	102.3	102.6	102.7	102.5	102.7	101.8	102.4	103.7	103.9	103.8	103.6	104.5	103.3
Salad dressing, Italian.....		102.6	102.3	101.6	101.3	101.3	101.6	102.1	102.7	102.7	102.5	102.9	103.0	102.7	102.4
Salad or cooking oil.....	Dec. 63	122.8	123.5	123.2	122.4	122.8	121.8	121.9	121.8	121.5	122.0	121.9	122.1	121.7	122

See footnotes at end of table.

24. Consumer Price Index—U.S. average for groups, subgroups, and selected items—Continued

Item or group	Other index bases	1969			1968										Annual average 1968
		Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	
Food—Continued															
Other food at home—Continued															
Nonalcoholic beverages.....		102.5	102.2	102.3	102.3	102.1	101.7	101.6	101.7	101.1	101.3	101.1	100.5	99.9	101.0
Coffee, can and bag.....		87.0	87.0	87.2	87.4	87.5	87.5	87.4	87.4	87.7	87.8	87.4	87.0	86.8	87.3
Coffee, instant.....	July 61	101.2	99.7	99.7	100.6	100.6	99.4	98.9	98.9	98.6	98.8	98.1	96.8	96.4	98.5
Tea.....		101.6	101.5	101.8	101.2	100.7	100.8	100.6	101.0	100.8	100.9	101.2	101.2	101.0	100.7
Cola drink.....		152.8	152.4	152.1	151.6	150.6	149.5	149.7	149.2	147.5	147.7	147.7	146.4	145.0	147.7
Carbonated fruit drink.....	Dec. 63	119.3	119.1	119.2	119.0	118.6	117.5	117.9	117.8	115.1	115.8	115.9	115.0	113.3	116.0
Prepared and partially prepared foods.....															
Bean soup, canned.....	Dec. 63	105.1	104.5	104.3	103.9	103.8	103.6	103.5	102.8	102.4	102.3	102.1	102.1	102.1	102.7
Chicken soup, canned.....	Dec. 63	103.5	102.4	101.2	100.8	100.5	101.0	100.9	100.9	100.4	100.5	100.9	100.7	101.2	100.8
Spaghetti, canned.....	Dec. 63	96.7	96.2	96.5	95.9	96.1	96.1	96.2	96.0	96.1	96.0	96.0	95.9	96.0	96.0
	Dec. 63	115.7	115.1	114.6	114.4	113.5	113.0	112.6	111.7	111.8	111.8	112.1	112.0	111.8	112.3
Mashed potatoes, instant.....	Dec. 63	104.5	103.2	102.6	102.7	102.5	102.6	102.8	102.2	101.8	102.3	102.2	102.1	102.3	102.4
Potatoes, french fried, frozen.....	Apr. 60	90.7	89.0	89.7	89.0	89.0	88.9	88.5	87.3	87.3	86.6	86.8	85.6	85.0	87.0
Baby foods, canned.....		111.1	111.8	111.8	111.1	111.2	110.7	110.5	109.8	108.2	106.9	105.7	105.7	106.2	108.3
Sweet pickle relish.....	Dec. 63	112.8	112.3	112.4	111.9	112.0	110.6	109.3	107.9	108.7	108.4	109.8	109.8	109.6	109.7
Pretzels.....	Dec. 63	106.7	106.9	106.7	106.5	106.6	106.5	106.3	106.1	105.8	105.8	105.5	105.5	105.6	105.8
HOUSING															
Shelter.....		124.4	123.3	122.7	122.3	121.7	120.9	120.4	120.1	119.5	118.7	117.8	117.5	117.2	119.1
Rent.....		130.5	128.9	128.2	127.6	126.9	126.0	125.3	125.0	124.2	122.9	121.6	121.3	121.0	123.6
Homeownership.....		117.5	117.2	116.9	116.7	116.3	116.0	115.7	115.4	115.1	114.9	114.6	114.4	114.2	115.1
		135.7	133.6	132.7	132.0	131.1	130.0	129.1	128.8	127.8	126.1	124.3	124.0	123.8	127.0
Mortgage interest rates.....	Dec. 63	129.5	126.1	125.4	125.3			125.6			117.8			113.7	119.5
Property taxes.....		127.7	126.4	126.1	125.1			123.7			121.8			118.9	121.8
Property insurance rates.....		146.1	146.0	145.7	145.6			144.3			141.8			140.6	142.5
Maintenance and repairs.....		137.4	135.4	134.3	133.5			131.4			129.7			127.4	129.8
Commodities.....	Dec. 63	115.9	113.9	112.1	111.2			109.2			109.0			107.6	108.8
Exterior house paint.....	Dec. 63	115.5	114.6	114.0	113.4			111.9			112.6			111.5	112.0
Interior house paint.....	Dec. 63	111.6	111.2	109.9	110.2			109.2			109.0			107.7	108.7
Services.....	Dec. 63	132.0	130.1	129.6	129.0			127.0			124.7			122.3	125.0
Repainting living and dining rooms.....		167.1	166.5	165.5	164.9			161.8			158.2			155.1	159.0
Reshingling roofs.....	Dec. 63	150.4	149.4	148.5	147.5			144.2			141.3			137.3	141.6
Residing houses.....	Dec. 63	125.3	123.3	122.9	122.3			121.0			119.3			117.3	119.4
Replacing sinks.....	Dec. 63	133.7	131.1	130.8	130.0			128.2			126.5			124.1	126.5
Repairing furnaces.....	Dec. 63	134.5	131.5	130.8	130.4			128.6			125.9			123.5	126.1
Fuel and utilities.....		112.2	111.8	111.7	111.5	111.3	110.4	110.5	110.7	110.6	110.3	110.3	110.0	109.9	110.4
Fuel oil and coal.....		117.2	116.9	116.7	116.2	115.9	115.9	115.8	115.7	115.7	115.4	115.3	114.0	113.9	115.1
Fuel oil, #2.....		114.5	114.3	114.0	113.5	113.2	113.3	113.4	113.5	113.5	113.1	113.0	111.4	111.4	112.7
Gas and electricity.....		110.6	110.2	110.2	110.0	109.9	109.9	109.3	109.7	109.5	109.4	109.5	109.5	109.3	109.5
Gas.....		116.2	116.1	116.0	115.6	115.4	113.8	114.4	115.3	114.8	114.5	114.7	114.6	114.4	114.7
Electricity.....		104.5	104.0	104.0	103.9	103.9	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.7	103.8
Other utilities:															
Residential telephone services.....		103.1	103.1	103.0	102.9			102.5			102.2			101.6	102.2
Residential water and sewerage.....		143.4	141.6	141.6	141.6			135.2			133.8			133.8	135.3
Household furnishings and operation.....															
Housefurnishings.....		116.4	115.8	115.2	115.1	114.8	114.2	113.9	113.3	113.1	112.9	112.5	112.2	111.8	113.0
		107.8	107.1	106.6	106.6	106.5	105.9	105.4	104.9	104.8	104.7	104.4	104.2	103.8	104.7
Textiles.....		113.6	112.7	111.7	113.7			110.9			111.4			109.8	111.0
Sheets, percale or muslin.....		119.6	119.6	117.5	121.2			118.9			119.5			115.1	117.8
Curtains, tailored, polyester marquisette.....		109.3	108.0	108.1	107.9			107.1			106.1			105.2	106.3
Bedsprings, chiefly cotton, tufted.....		116.3	113.5	111.2	113.7			112.8			112.8			112.6	112.8
Drapery fabric, cotton or rayon/acetate.....		121.1	120.1	119.7	119.3			117.9			116.7			114.3	116.6
Slipcovers, ready made, chiefly cotton.....	Dec. 63	108.6	108.0	108.4	108.9			104.4			107.2			106.1	106.3
Furniture and bedding.....		119.7	118.3	117.6	117.4			116.0			114.9			113.5	114.9
Bedroom suites, good or inexpensive quality.....		122.3	121.2	120.6	120.7			118.7			116.2			114.3	116.7
Living room suites, good and inexpensive quality.....		121.9	121.2	120.4	120.3			119.3			118.2			117.0	118.3
Lounge chairs, upholstered.....	Dec. 63	112.7	112.0	111.3	111.7			110.0			107.7			107.0	108.5
Dining room suites.....	Dec. 63	125.0	124.5	123.6	121.2			120.3			119.2			118.0	119.2
Sofas, upholstered.....	Dec. 63	112.7	112.0	112.1	111.6			110.6			108.2			106.2	108.7
Sofas, dual purpose.....		114.8	114.1	113.2	113.0			111.8			110.6			110.4	111.1
Sleep sets, Hollywood bed type.....	Dec. 63	110.0	109.3	108.2	108.8			107.3			107.3			106.2	107.0
Box springs.....	Dec. 63	120.4	119.7	117.2	116.8			115.9			113.0			111.0	113.5
Cribs.....	Dec. 63	115.1	113.2	113.4	113.5			111.7			110.9			109.8	111.0
Floor coverings.....		106.1	106.1	105.8	105.5			105.0			104.8			104.2	104.6
Rugs, soft surface.....		104.4	104.5	104.0	103.6			103.3			103.2			102.6	103.0
Rugs, hard surface.....		110.0	110.0	110.0	109.6			108.9			108.6			108.0	106.5
Tile, vinyl.....	Dec. 63	107.2	106.8	107.3	107.2			106.5			105.7			105.0	105.8
Appliances.....		85.4	85.4	85.5	85.5			85.2			84.6			84.4	84.8
Washing machines, electric, automatic.....		89.9	90.0	90.0	89.8			89.2			88.7			88.3	88.8
Vacuum cleaners, canister type.....		81.1	81.1	81.2	80.9			80.4			79.5			80.0	80.1

See footnotes at end of table.

24. Consumer Price Index—U.S. average for groups, subgroups, and selected items—Continued

Index or group	Other index bases	1969			1968										Annual average 1968
		Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	
HOUSING—Continued															
Appliances—Continued															
Refrigerators or refrigerator-freezers, electric.....		84.7	84.7	84.6	84.6			84.1			83.5			83.4	83.8
Ranges, free standing, gas or electric.....		97.1	96.5	96.6	96.7			95.7			94.7			94.7	95.2
Clothes dryers, electric, automatic.....	Dec. 63	98.8	98.4	98.6	98.7			97.7			97.4			96.8	97.4
Air conditioners, demountable.....	June 64	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)			(2)			96.9			(2)	(2)
Room heaters, electric, portable.....	Dec. 63	98.0	97.5	97.7	97.2			96.9			(2)			95.7	96.4
Garbage disposal units.....	Dec. 63	102.8	103.2	103.0	102.9			102.5			99.9			99.4	100.9
Other house furnishings:															
Dinnerware, earthenware.....		132.0	131.8	130.9	130.0			128.9			128.4			128.3	128.6
Flatware, stainless steel.....	Dec. 63	117.0	117.0	118.2	118.2			116.3			114.0			110.7	113.5
Table lamps, with shade.....	Dec. 63	112.4	111.3	109.6	109.3			108.6			108.1			107.0	108.0
Housekeeping supplies:															
Laundry soaps and detergents.....		105.6	105.3	105.3	105.4			106.2			105.2			103.7	105.0
Paper napkins.....		127.5	127.6	127.0	126.5			125.2			120.4			119.3	122.3
Toilet tissue.....		116.8	116.5	116.1	115.5			115.6			115.7			113.4	114.7
Housekeeping services:															
Domestic service, general housework.....		170.2	169.8	168.7	168.4			162.7			162.7			161.2	162.6
Baby sitter service.....	Dec. 63	131.0	130.1	129.4	129.0			126.5			125.3			122.0	124.9
Postal charges.....		165.5	165.5	165.5	165.5			162.0			162.0			162.0	160.9
Laundry, flatwork, finished service.....	Dec. 63	137.9	136.6	134.4	133.4			131.3			129.1			127.6	129.6
Licensed day care service, preschool child.....	Dec. 63	124.1	123.7	123.4	123.3			124.5			123.3			122.5	123.1
Washing machine repairs.....	Dec. 63	129.0	127.3	125.8	125.2			123.2			121.2			118.9	121.5
APPAREL AND UPKEEP															
Men's and boys'.....		124.9	123.9	123.4	124.3	124.0	123.3	122.2	120.3	119.7	119.9	119.5	118.4	117.6	120.1
Men's:		126.4	125.3	124.9	125.3	125.0	124.1	123.2	121.2	120.1	120.1	119.8	119.2	117.9	120.8
Topcoats, wool.....		137.7	137.5	139.4	140.1			137.0			(2)			129.5	134.1
Suits, year round weight.....	June 64	146.8	144.6	144.1	146.1			141.4			136.1			133.2	138.1
Suits, tropical weight.....	Dec. 63	126.2	(2)	(2)	(2)			(2)			117.5			114.0	(2)
Jackets, lightweight.....		123.1	122.7	122.3	120.6			119.6			113.1			113.1	115.9
Slacks, wool or wool blend.....		125.3	123.4	125.1	126.3			123.5			119.2			116.8	120.6
Slacks, cotton or manmade blend.....		112.9	111.0	107.7	108.9			105.8			104.3			102.4	104.6
Trousers, work, cotton.....		115.5	115.1	115.2	114.4			112.8			112.3			110.4	112.1
Shirts, work, cotton.....		121.8	121.1	120.7	120.6			119.2			118.7			118.3	118.9
Shirts, business, cotton.....		120.4	120.1	120.5	120.1			119.1			117.7			115.6	117.6
T-shirts, chiefly cotton.....		129.2	128.7	127.9	127.3			126.3			122.1			117.8	122.5
Socks, cotton.....		118.1	117.5	116.6	116.9			116.2			113.7			112.6	114.2
Handkerchiefs, cotton.....	Dec. 63	111.4	110.9	109.9	109.2			107.0			104.2			104.4	105.6
Boys':															
Coats, all purpose, cotton or cotton blend.....	Dec. 63	108.7	108.2	109.2	111.5			111.7			(2)			105.3	108.9
Sport coats, wool or wool blend.....	Dec. 63	(2)	(2)	117.6	118.4			115.2			(2)			(2)	113.7
Dungarees, cotton or cotton blend.....		124.3	124.9	123.8	123.1			121.1			119.5			117.7	119.6
Undershorts, cotton.....		125.0	124.0	123.1	122.2			122.2			118.3			115.0	118.7
Women's and girls'.....		120.6	119.3	118.7	120.8	120.7	120.1	118.5	115.8	115.7	116.5	116.2	114.5	113.6	116.4
Women's:															
Coats, heavyweight, wool or wool blend.....	Sept. 61	(2)	(2)	119.9	130.0			128.9			(2)			(2)	126.7
Skirts, wool or wool blend.....	Mar. 62	(2)	104.4	118.3	127.9			117.5			(2)			(2)	119.7
Skirts, cotton or cotton blend.....		(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)			(2)			121.3			119.3	(2)
Blouses, cotton.....		123.1	121.2	121.9	122.5			119.1			115.3			112.0	116.3
Dresses, street, chiefly manmade fiber.....		148.4	146.3	143.7	145.2			141.1			134.6			132.7	137.0
Dresses, street, wool or wool blend.....		(2)	(2)	128.0	136.8			130.3			(2)			(2)	128.4
Dresses, street, cotton.....		(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)			(2)			146.1			137.9	(2)
Housedresses, cotton.....		144.2	142.5	141.3	139.8			129.6			129.3			122.6	128.6
Slips, nylon.....		109.4	109.4	109.8	109.6			109.1			107.1			106.1	107.7
Panties, acetate.....		107.9	108.1	107.9	108.1			106.2			105.6			104.1	105.6
Girdles, manmade blend.....		118.2	118.2	116.4	113.9			112.8			110.8			109.9	111.5
Brassieres, cotton.....	Dec. 63	119.4	119.1	118.8	118.8			117.9			117.2			113.8	116.4
Hose, nylon, seamless.....		99.1	98.0	98.2	99.5			99.0			99.8			99.4	99.4
Anklets, cotton.....	Dec. 63	114.7	114.6	114.0	113.9			113.1			110.3			108.4	110.9
Gloves, fabric, nylon or cotton.....	Dec. 63	107.8	106.7	105.7	105.5			105.3			104.0			104.5	104.7
Handbags, rayon faille or plastic.....	Dec. 63	111.4	110.8	109.7	109.1			106.8			105.4			102.4	105.2
Girls':															
Raincoats, vinyl plastic or chiefly cotton.....	Dec. 63	118.3	118.9	116.3	117.1			118.8			(2)			104.2	112.5
Skirts, wool or wool blend.....		(2)	(2)	115.0	118.9			116.0			(2)			(2)	116.2

See footnote at end of table.

24. Consumer Price Index—U.S. average for groups, subgroups, and selected items—Continued

Index or group	Other index bases	1969			1968										Annual average 1968
		Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	
APPAREL AND UPKEEP—Continued															
Woman's and girls'—Continued															
Girls'—Continued															
Dresses, cotton.....		133.5	132.5	130.6	131.2			126.6			124.7			120.5	125.1
Slacks, cotton.....	Dec. 63	(?)	117.7	119.9	123.9			121.5			(?)			(?)	120.1
Slips, cotton blend.....	Dec. 63	106.9	106.6	106.0	106.1			105.9			103.4			102.1	104.0
Handbags.....	Dec. 63	108.0	107.7	106.6	107.4			103.1						99.7	102.9
Footwear.....															
Men's:		137.6	136.8	136.3	136.3	135.7	134.9	134.0	133.0	132.0	131.7	131.2	130.4	129.7	132.2
Shoes, street, oxford.....		136.0	134.4	134.0	135.0			132.0			131.8			129.7	131.6
Shoes, work, high.....		134.5	133.5	132.6	131.9			130.6			129.8			129.0	130.0
Women's:															
Shoes, street, pump.....		145.9	144.9	144.0	144.8			141.7			138.3			135.4	139.0
Shoes, evening, pump.....	Dec. 63	117.9	117.4	117.1	116.3			114.8			112.7			110.8	131.1
Shoes, casual, pump.....	Dec. 63	123.3	122.5	121.5	123.1			121.4			119.0			117.5	119.6
Houseslippers, scuff.....	Dec. 63	123.0	122.7	122.1	121.5			117.8			114.6			112.3	115.6
Children's:															
Shoes, oxford.....		137.6	137.1	137.2	136.7			135.1			132.4			129.8	132.8
Sneakers, boys', oxford type.....	Dec. 63	115.7	115.7	115.5	114.9			113.8			113.0			112.1	113.1
Dress shoes, girls', strap.....	Dec. 63	127.6	127.7	127.0	126.8			125.0			120.8			119.4	122.3
Miscellaneous apparel:															
Diapers, cotton gauze.....		101.7	101.9	101.3	101.9			101.2			100.3			98.6	100.1
Yard goods, cotton.....		118.1	115.8	115.0	114.8			112.6			111.5			108.6	111.2
Apparel services:															
Drycleaning, men's suits and women's dresses.....		129.4	129.1	128.3	128.0			126.2			125.2			122.9	125.1
Automatic laundry service.....	Dec. 63	108.4	107.9	107.8	107.9			106.7			106.0			106.6	106.5
Laundry, men's shirts.....	Dec. 63	121.9	121.3	120.7	119.9			117.9			117.4			116.4	117.4
Tailoring charges, hem adjustment.....	Dec. 63	121.8	121.3	120.1	119.9			117.6			116.3			114.2	116.5
Shoe repairs, women's heel lift.....		119.6	119.6	120.7	120.4			119.8			119.7			119.3	119.7
TRANSPORTATION.....															
		124.3	122.0	120.7	120.2	121.2	120.6	119.5	120.0	119.8	119.7	119.1	119.0	119.0	119.6
Private.....															
Automobiles, new.....		121.6	119.3	117.9	117.5	118.9	118.4	117.2	117.7	117.6	117.4	116.8	116.8	116.7	117.3
Automobiles, used.....		102.4	102.3	102.3	102.7	103.8	102.8	98.4	99.1	99.8	100.1	100.3	100.3	100.6	100.8
Gasoline, regular and premium.....		130.5	122.6	115.5	118.7	(?)	(?)	126.7	(?)	(?)	(?)	126.7	126.3	(?)	(?)
Gasoline, regular and premium.....		117.2	114.5	114.5	113.3			113.9			113.2			113.4	113.3
Motor oil, premium.....		135.5	134.6	134.1	134.0			133.1			131.5			130.0	131.7
Tires, new, tubeless.....		114.8	114.9	115.0	114.3			112.0			110.8			111.5	111.8
Auto repairs and maintenance.....		132.0	131.1	130.3	128.9			127.0			125.3			124.2	125.7
Auto insurance rates.....		156.1	155.7	154.7	150.0			147.5			146.6			146.0	147.1
Auto registration.....		133.5	130.7	131.0	127.4			127.4			127.4			125.5	126.3
Public.....															
Local transit fares.....		147.5	145.5	144.8	144.3	139.4	138.7	138.7	138.6	138.5	138.4	137.3	137.2	137.1	138.2
Taxicab fares.....	Dec. 63	158.6	158.4	157.3	156.5			147.8			147.3			146.6	148.2
Railroad fares.....		124.8	124.8	124.8	124.8			122.9			122.9			118.2	121.7
Railroad fares, coach.....		114.6	108.4	108.4	108.4			107.4			107.0			107.0	107.3
Airplane fares, chiefly coach.....	Dec. 63	110.7	103.3	103.3	103.3			103.3			103.4			102.7	103.0
Bus fares, intercity.....	Dec. 63	118.6	117.8	117.8	117.8			117.0			117.0			115.6	116.3
HEALTH AND RECREATION.....															
		134.3	133.7	133.3	132.8	132.4	131.9	131.1	130.5	130.2	129.7	129.2	128.8	128.3	130.0
Medical care.....															
Drugs and prescriptions.....		152.5	151.3	150.2	149.1	148.2	147.4	146.4	145.5	145.1	144.4	144.0	143.5	142.9	145.0
Over-the-counter items.....	Dec. 63	98.8	98.6	98.6	98.5			98.0			98.0			98.2	98.1
Multiple vitamin concentrates.....	Dec. 63	106.6	106.4	106.7	106.6			106.3			106.1			105.7	106.0
Aspirin compounds.....	Dec. 63	92.2	92.2	92.9	92.2			93.9			94.3			93.9	93.7
	Dec. 63	106.5	105.6	105.2	105.7			105.3			105.9			105.1	105.5
Liquid tonics.....	Dec. 63	100.9	101.0	100.9	100.9			100.9			100.6			101.4	101.0
Adhesive bandages, package.....	Dec. 63	116.4	116.5	116.4	116.3			115.0			113.9			113.7	114.3
Cold tablets or capsules.....	Dec. 63	108.8	108.1	107.8	107.7			108.0			107.1			106.6	107.2
Cough syrup.....	Dec. 63	113.5	113.8	115.5	115.6			113.5			113.9			112.8	113.5
Prescriptions.....															
Anti-infectives.....	Mar. 60	88.2	88.0	87.8	87.6			87.0			87.2			87.8	87.5
Sedatives and hypnotics.....	Mar. 60	62.5	62.4	62.4	62.2			62.4			63.2			64.0	63.2
Ataractics.....	Mar. 60	105.9	105.0	104.3	103.4			101.9			100.7			100.0	101.2
Anti-spasmodics.....	Mar. 60	89.7	89.8	89.8	89.8			89.7			89.8			89.8	89.8
	Mar. 60	101.1	101.1	101.1	100.7			100.4			100.6			100.9	100.6
Cough preparations.....	Mar. 60	106.7	106.4	105.1	104.5			103.1			102.4			102.0	102.7
Cardiovasculars and antihypertensives.....	Mar. 60	96.5	95.9	95.4	95.1			94.3			94.7			94.8	94.7
Analgesics, internal.....	Mar. 67	102.4	102.1	101.8	101.5			100.9			101.4			101.4	101.2
Anti-obesity.....	Mar. 67	102.8	102.1	101.9	101.4			98.9			98.7			99.4	99.5
Hormones.....	Mar. 67	94.3	94.7	94.9	95.5			93.9			94.1			97.5	95.5
Professional services:															
Physicians' fees.....		152.6	151.1	149.7	149.1			146.6			144.9			143.2	145.3
Family doctor, office visits.....		154.1	152.0	151.0	150.5			148.1			146.4			144.9	146.8
Family doctor, house visits.....		161.5	158.8	157.6	157.0			154.3			151.6			148.4	151.9
Obstetrical cases.....		146.5	145.9	144.1	142.9			141.7			138.4			136.5	139.2

See footnote at end of table.

24. Consumer Price Index—U.S. average for groups, subgroups, and selected items—Continued

Index or group	Other index bases	1969			1968										Annual average 1968
		Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	
HEALTH AND RECREATION—CONTINUED															
Physicians' fees—Continued															
Pediatric care, office visits.....	Dec. 63	139.6	139.0	134.7	133.3			130.2			129.0			128.1	129.6
Psychiatrist, office visits.....	Dec. 63	125.5	125.2	123.7	123.3			120.6			119.0			118.7	119.7
Herniorrhaphy, adult.....	Dec. 63	123.1	122.8	121.3	121.2			119.9			119.3			117.7	119.1
Tonsillectomy and adenoidectomy.....		146.4	146.3	145.5	145.3			141.5			140.6			138.8	140.9
Dentists' fees.....		140.1	139.4	138.9	137.3			135.9			134.1			132.9	134.5
Fillings, adult, amalgam, one surface.....		141.1	140.2	139.1	137.3			136.2			134.6			133.7	135.0
Extractions, adult.....		138.9	138.4	138.3	137.6			134.7			132.8			130.9	133.3
Dentures, full upper.....	Dec. 63	124.3	124.1	124.0	122.5			121.7			119.8			119.0	120.3
Other professional services:															
Examination, prescription, and dispensing of eyeglasses.....		128.9	128.5	127.8	127.6			126.5			125.2			124.9	125.7
Routine laboratory tests.....	Dec. 63	115.4	115.1	114.3	114.2			114.3			112.3			112.1	113.0
Hospital service charges:															
Daily service charges.....		249.2	246.2	243.1	239.3			231.8			224.6			219.9	226.6
Semiprivate rooms.....		245.1	242.2	239.0	235.1			227.6			220.7			215.9	222.5
Private rooms.....		241.6	238.4	235.8	232.3			225.1			218.1			213.8	220.2
Operating room charges.....	Dec. 63	160.4	158.1	155.1	150.9			146.4			142.7			138.6	143.2
X-ray, diagnostic series, upper G.I.....	Dec. 63	121.4	120.3	119.9	119.0			118.6			116.7			115.6	117.1
Personal care.....															
Toilet goods.....		124.8	124.1	123.7	123.4	122.8	122.1	121.5	120.9	120.4	120.1	119.6	119.0	118.4	120.3
Toothpaste, standard dentifrice.....		109.8	109.2	108.7	108.6			106.7			105.9			104.4	106.0
Toilet soap, hard milled.....		113.9	113.3	112.8	111.3			106.8			107.3			106.9	107.8
Hand lotions, liquid.....	Dec. 63	123.9	123.5	122.6	122.9			123.2			122.5			121.7	122.3
Shaving cream, aerosol.....		106.4	105.4	105.1	104.3			100.7			99.2			97.7	99.9
Face powder, pressed.....		101.9	102.4	102.6	102.8			102.8			101.6			100.8	101.9
Deodorants, cream or roll-on.....	Dec. 63	123.1	121.4	120.4	120.8			120.2			118.3			113.4	117.5
Cleansing tissues.....		94.9	93.9	93.9	94.7			92.6			92.2			91.3	92.3
Home permanent refills.....		107.1	106.8	106.2	106.5			105.8			104.9			102.8	104.5
Personal care services.....		96.6	96.0	95.4	94.6			91.5			90.6			89.6	91.2
Men's haircuts.....		143.2	142.5	142.1	141.6			139.6			137.6			135.6	137.9
Beauty shop services.....		151.7	150.5	150.0	149.7			146.8			144.3			141.7	144.7
Women's haircuts.....	Dec. 63	134.2	133.9	133.5	133.0			131.5			130.0			128.4	130.2
Shampoo and wave sets, plain.....		120.7	120.5	120.3	119.7			118.1			117.2			116.0	117.2
Permanent waves, cold.....		150.1	149.7	149.0	148.3			146.6			144.3			141.8	144.6
Reading and recreation.....		105.4	105.3	105.1	104.9			104.3			103.5			103.2	103.8
Recreational goods.....	Dec. 63	128.7	128.4	128.4	128.2	128.0	127.5	126.7	126.3	125.9	125.6	125.3	124.9	124.2	125.7
TV sets, portable and console.....		97.9	97.7	97.8	97.9			97.4			96.9			96.3	96.9
TV replacement tubes.....		79.8	80.1	80.3	80.5			80.4			80.2			79.9	80.2
Radios, portable and table model.....		114.8	114.7	114.8	114.0			110.9			108.7			106.9	109.3
Tape recorders, portable.....	Dec. 63	76.3	76.3	76.7	76.8			76.9			77.2			76.9	77.0
Phonograph records, stereo-phonics.....	Dec. 63	91.2	91.1	90.6	91.2			91.5			91.8			91.9	91.8
Movie cameras, Super 8, zoom lens.....	Dec. 63	96.4	95.9	95.6	96.7			96.5			96.5			97.0	96
Film, 35mm, color.....	Dec. 63	84.8	84.5	85.0	85.3			85.5			85.1			86.1	85.6
Bicycle, boys'.....	Dec. 63	98.9	98.6	98.6	98.6			98.7			99.3			97.0	98.0
Tricycles.....	Dec. 63	107.8	107.3	107.2	106.7			106.4			104.2			104.4	105.0
Recreational services.....	Dec. 63	107.5	107.2	107.8	107.7			107.7			107.0			105.9	106.8
Indoor movie admissions.....		127.1	126.7	126.6	126.3			125.1			123.6			121.2	123.4
Adult.....		193.2	192.6	192.6	190.3			187.4			185.0			182.5	185.3
Children's.....		188.6	188.2	187.9	185.3			183.6			181.1			178.3	181.2
Drive-in movie admissions, adult.....	Dec. 63	208.6	207.4	208.5	207.0			200.4			198.3			196.7	199.1
Bowling fees, evening.....	Dec. 63	153.1	153.6	153.9	153.7			151.6			145.7			139.4	146.2
Golf greens fees.....	Dec. 63	110.4	110.1	109.8	109.2			107.3			106.8			107.4	107.4
TV repairs, picture tube replacement.....	Dec. 63	127.3	125.0	124.8	127.2			127.9			127.0			120.2	124.9
Film developing, black and white.....		102.7	102.6	102.6	102.6			103.4			102.7			103.0	102.9
Reading and education:		120.2	120.0	120.1	120.2			119.3			119.3			116.6	118.3
Newspapers, street sale and delivery.....	Dec. 63	152.7	152.3	152.1	151.3			149.2			147.4			145.4	147.7
Piano lessons, beginner.....		121.7	121.6	121.3	121.1			118.7			116.9			115.9	117.5
Other goods and services.....															
Tobacco products.....		126.1	125.8	125.6	125.6	125.4	125.1	124.4	124.2	123.9	123.5	122.6	122.5	122.4	123.6
Cigarettes, nonfilter tip, regular size.....		141.8	141.7	141.6	141.3			140.5			139.3			137.1	139.1
Cigarettes, filter tip, king size.....	Mar. 59	148.7	148.6	148.5	148.0			147.2			146.0			143.5	145.7
Cigars, domestic, regular size.....		140.7	140.5	140.5	104.4			139.4			138.1			136.0	138.0
Alcoholic beverages.....		105.9	105.9	105.6	105.4			104.8			104.5			104.0	104.5
Beer.....		115.9	115.6	115.3	115.6			114.2			113.3			112.9	113.7
Whiskey, spirit blended and straight bourbon.....		113.5	113.0	112.8	112.6			112.3			111.5			111.6	111.9
Wine, dessert and table.....	Dec. 63	108.9	108.9	109.0	109.0			108.8			108.7			108.4	108.7
Beer, away from home.....	Dec. 63	108.0	107.8	107.4	107.1			106.2			105.9			105.8	106.0
Financial and miscellaneous personal expenses:		118.9	118.8	118.1	119.3			115.9			114.3			112.9	114.9
Funeral services, adult.....	Dec. 63	113.6	113.1	112.5	112.3			111.4			110.6			109.7	110.7
Bank service charges, checking accounts.....	Dec. 63	107.5	107.4	106.9	106.6			106.8			108.1			107.5	107.3
Legal services, short form will.....	Dec. 63	129.5	128.2	128.3	127.6			124.8			123.7			122.8	124.3

1 Priced only in season.

2 Not available.

NOTE: Monthly data for individual nonfood items not available for 1968.

25. Consumer Price Index¹—U.S. average, and selected areas

[1957-59=100 unless otherwise specified]

Area ²	1969			1968										Annual average	
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	1968	1967
All items															
U.S. average ³	125.6	124.6	124.1	123.7	123.4	122.9	122.2	121.9	121.5	120.9	120.3	119.9	119.5	121.2	116.3
Atlanta, Ga.	124.9	(⁴)	(⁴)	122.1	(⁴)	(⁴)	121.2	(⁴)	(⁴)	119.0	(⁴)	(⁴)	117.8	119.6	115.0
Baltimore, Md.	125.7	(⁴)	(⁴)	124.0	(⁴)	(⁴)	122.4	(⁴)	(⁴)	120.6	(⁴)	(⁴)	118.7	120.9	116.1
Boston, Mass.	(⁴)	117.3	127.9	(⁴)	(⁴)	126.6	(⁴)	(⁴)	124.7	(⁴)	(⁴)	123.6	(⁴)	124.7	119.8
Buffalo, N.Y. (Nov. 1963=100)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	116.9	(⁴)	(⁴)	115.7	(⁴)	(⁴)	114.3	(⁴)	(⁴)	114.8	109.9
Chicago, Ill.—Northwestern Ind.	122.9	121.9	121.4	121.0	120.3	120.2	119.8	119.3	118.9	118.3	117.8	117.4	117.0	118.5	113.6
Cincinnati, Ohio—Kentucky	122.7	(⁴)	(⁴)	121.1	(⁴)	(⁴)	120.3	(⁴)	(⁴)	118.6	(⁴)	(⁴)	117.1	118.9	113.5
Cleveland, Ohio	(⁴)	123.1	(⁴)	(⁴)	121.8	(⁴)	(⁴)	120.0	(⁴)	(⁴)	119.1	(⁴)	(⁴)	119.6	112.9
Dallas, Tex. (Nov. 1963=100)	(⁴)	116.8	(⁴)	(⁴)	115.4	(⁴)	(⁴)	113.7	(⁴)	(⁴)	112.7	(⁴)	(⁴)	113.0	108.1
Detroit, Mich.	125.1	123.4	122.8	122.5	122.1	121.7	121.2	120.6	120.3	119.8	118.9	118.5	(⁴)	118.2	114.9
Honolulu, Hawaii (Dec. 1963=109)	115.6	(⁴)	(⁴)	113.9	(⁴)	(⁴)	112.8	(⁴)	(⁴)	111.5	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	110.8	107.8
Houston, Tex.	(⁴)	123.2	(⁴)	(⁴)	121.1	(⁴)	(⁴)	119.3	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	118.0	(⁴)	119.3	114.4
Kansas City, Mo.—Kansas	128.1	(⁴)	(⁴)	125.5	(⁴)	(⁴)	124.4	(⁴)	(⁴)	124.1	(⁴)	(⁴)	121.7	123.5	118.7
Los Angeles—Long Beach, Calif.	126.6	125.2	124.7	124.2	124.2	123.8	122.8	122.8	122.3	121.9	120.9	121.1	121.1	122.2	117.6
Milwaukee, Wis.	(⁴)	120.8	(⁴)	(⁴)	118.7	(⁴)	(⁴)	117.4	(⁴)	(⁴)	115.9	(⁴)	(⁴)	116.8	112.9
Minneapolis—St. Paul, Minn.	(⁴)	122.9	(⁴)	(⁴)	122.0	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	121.8	(⁴)	(⁴)	120.4	(⁴)	121.2	115.9
New York, N.Y.—Northeastern N.J.	129.6	128.3	127.8	127.2	126.9	126.5	125.9	125.2	124.2	123.6	122.9	122.5	122.1	124.1	119.0
Philadelphia, Pa.—N.J.	127.0	126.0	125.2	125.1	124.9	124.5	123.8	123.0	122.6	122.0	121.5	121.0	120.7	122.4	116.8
Pittsburgh, Pa.	(⁴)	(⁴)	124.0	(⁴)	(⁴)	122.6	(⁴)	(⁴)	120.0	(⁴)	(⁴)	119.4	(⁴)	120.4	115.0
Portland, Oreg.—Wash. ⁵	(⁴)	125.3	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	123.9	(⁴)	(⁴)	122.5	(⁴)	(⁴)	121.3	(⁴)	122.3	118.2
St. Louis, Mo.—Ill.	125.4	(⁴)	(⁴)	123.4	(⁴)	(⁴)	122.7	(⁴)	(⁴)	121.3	(⁴)	(⁴)	120.2	121.5	116.8
San Diego, Calif. (Feb. 1965=100)	(⁴)	112.8	(⁴)	(⁴)	111.2	(⁴)	(⁴)	110.0	(⁴)	(⁴)	108.7	(⁴)	(⁴)	109.4	105.1
San Francisco—Oakland, Calif.	128.9	(⁴)	(⁴)	126.7	(⁴)	(⁴)	125.5	(⁴)	(⁴)	124.2	(⁴)	(⁴)	122.7	124.3	119.0
Scranton, Pa. ⁶	(⁴)	126.2	(⁴)	(⁴)	124.9	(⁴)	(⁴)	123.8	(⁴)	(⁴)	121.4	(⁴)	(⁴)	122.8	118.0
Seattle, Wash.	(⁴)	125.9	(⁴)	(⁴)	124.5	(⁴)	(⁴)	123.2	(⁴)	(⁴)	121.1	(⁴)	(⁴)	122.3	117.5
Washington, D.C.—Md.—Va.	(⁴)	126.3	(⁴)	(⁴)	124.9	(⁴)	(⁴)	123.1	(⁴)	(⁴)	121.0	(⁴)	(⁴)	122.0	116.5
Food															
U.S. average ³	122.4	121.9	122.0	121.2	120.5	120.9	120.4	120.5	120.0	119.1	118.8	118.3	117.9	119.3	115.2
Atlanta, Ga.	120.7	120.0	119.7	119.1	118.6	118.8	118.9	118.0	117.1	116.8	117.2	116.3	115.8	117.2	114.2
Baltimore, Md.	125.3	124.1	124.8	123.9	122.6	124.5	123.4	122.7	121.8	121.3	120.6	119.6	118.8	121.3	116.3
Boston, Mass.	126.3	126.0	125.1	124.6	123.7	124.1	123.6	123.5	123.2	121.9	122.5	121.4	121.6	121.6	119.4
Buffalo, N.Y. (Nov. 1963=100)	117.4	117.2	117.5	117.0	115.7	115.3	114.7	116.4	115.7	115.5	114.8	113.4	112.9	114.6	110.0
Chicago, Ill.—Northwestern Ind.	123.9	123.0	124.0	122.5	121.7	122.5	122.3	121.3	120.1	118.9	118.7	118.1	118.1	120.4	115.4
Cincinnati, Ohio—Kentucky	119.1	118.8	118.7	118.4	117.9	118.6	117.6	117.5	117.6	116.3	116.0	115.0	113.7	116.3	112.5
Cleveland, Ohio	119.6	120.0	119.9	119.2	118.6	118.1	118.8	118.7	117.3	116.9	115.8	115.3	114.6	116.7	111.4
Dallas, Tex. (Nov. 1963=100)	116.5	116.2	116.7	115.9	114.9	114.6	114.7	114.4	113.8	114.1	113.6	112.9	112.4	113.7	109.7
Detroit, Mich.	120.8	119.9	119.5	118.4	118.3	119.2	119.0	119.0	118.6	117.9	116.7	116.2	116.4	117.6	114.1
Honolulu, Hawaii (Dec. 1963=100)	115.7	115.7	115.6	113.9	114.1	113.0	112.8	112.1	111.3	111.8	112.2	112.4	110.7	112.2	108.3
Houston, Tex.	124.3	123.8	123.4	122.9	122.1	122.3	120.8	120.5	119.9	119.1	118.7	118.0	117.9	119.7	115.8
Kansas City, Mo.—Kansas	125.6	125.5	125.0	124.4	124.1	124.4	123.9	123.5	123.0	122.9	122.3	122.3	121.6	122.7	117.9
Los Angeles—Long Beach, Calif.	120.3	119.6	119.6	119.3	118.4	118.7	118.0	117.8	118.0	117.3	116.8	116.9	116.2	117.5	114.1
Milwaukee, Wis.	122.0	121.4	121.4	120.4	119.5	119.6	119.6	119.8	118.5	118.3	117.2	117.0	116.7	118.2	114.5
Minneapolis—St. Paul, Minn.	120.2	119.3	120.5	119.3	118.7	119.1	118.3	118.4	118.1	117.5	117.4	116.2	115.5	117.3	113.0
New York, N.Y.—Northeastern N.J.	123.6	123.1	123.3	122.3	121.8	122.2	121.6	121.5	120.8	119.7	119.4	118.8	118.4	120.2	115.7
Philadelphia, Pa.—N.J.	123.2	122.9	122.7	121.9	121.1	121.5	121.1	120.5	120.1	119.2	119.5	118.4	118.0	119.6	114.5
Pittsburgh, Pa.	119.2	118.7	119.6	118.8	117.2	117.6	117.7	116.9	116.3	115.2	115.0	114.6	114.3	115.9	111.2
Portland, Oreg.—Wash. ⁵			122.5			120.4			119.3				118.7	119.3	115.4
St. Louis, Mo.—Ill.	125.8	125.2	125.8	124.9	123.9	124.7	124.7	124.6	123.8	123.8	123.8	122.6	122.5	123.5	119.0
San Diego, Calif. (Feb. 1965=100)	114.5	113.8	113.4	112.9	112.5	112.0	113.1	112.1	111.8	111.4	111.2	110.3	109.8	111.3	107.6
San Francisco—Oakland, Calif.	121.4	120.2	120.1	119.6	119.3	119.6	118.8		119.2	118.1	118.0	118.1	117.2	118.4	114.7
Scranton, Pa. ⁶		121.6			119.8			120.2			117.7			118.4	113.6
Seattle, Wash.	122.3	121.5	121.4	120.5	119.8	120.2	119.9	119.8	118.8	118.6	118.2	118.0	117.5	118.8	114.6
Washington, D.C.—Md.—Va.	126.3	126.0	125.5	124.9	124.1	124.2	123.8	123.0	121.6	120.9	120.7	119.4	118.3	121.3	115.9

¹ See table 23. 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 Old series.

26. Wholesale price indexes,¹ by group and subgroup of commodities[1957-59=100 unless otherwise specified]²

Code	Commodity Group	1969				1968								Annual average 1968	
		Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.		Mar.
	ALL COMMODITIES.....	111.7	111.1	110.7	109.8	109.6	109.1	109.1	108.7	109.1	108.7	108.5	108.3	108.2	108.7
	FARM PRODUCTS AND PROCESSED FOODS AND FEEDS.....	110.7	110.0	109.8	108.4	108.3	107.4	108.6	107.7	109.4	108.0	107.9	106.8	106.9	107.6
	INDUSTRIAL COMMODITIES.....	112.0	111.4	110.9	110.2	109.9	109.7	109.2	108.9	108.8	108.8	108.6	108.8	108.6	109.0
	FARM PRODUCTS, AND PROCESSED FOODS AND FEEDS														
01	Farm products.....	106.5	105.0	104.9	103.3	103.1	101.2	102.8	101.4	103.9	102.5	103.6	102.1	102.1	102.2
01-1	Fresh and dried fruits and vegetables.....	112.1	108.7	112.0	109.3	109.4	99.8	97.6	97.4	108.2	106.4	123.6	112.0	114.5	108.2
01-2	Grains.....	81.6	82.0	82.5	80.4	82.0	78.7	76.5	75.1	80.0	82.0	86.4	84.7	85.1	81.9
01-3	Livestock.....	112.5	109.2	106.1	104.2	103.9	104.1	106.0	106.2	109.5	106.2	105.4	105.2	105.7	104.8
01-4	Live poultry.....	95.5	94.3	90.5	82.9	87.6	79.3	84.8	87.8	93.8	89.6	85.4	81.1	81.4	84.9
01-5	Plant and animal fibers.....	67.3	67.7	68.8	69.0	71.2	74.2	77.1	76.8	76.0	76.0	75.8	76.1	76.5	75.4
01-6	Fluid milk.....	132.8	132.6	131.8	132.3	132.4	132.2	131.1	130.7	130.7	129.4	128.3	126.5	123.9	128.8
01-7	Eggs.....	110.9	108.1	122.3	117.8	107.6	106.5	126.7	98.4	91.4	88.3	72.6	82.7	80.9	93.9
01-8	Hay, hayseeds, and oilseeds.....	112.5	112.4	111.5	108.8	107.3	105.3	109.5	113.0	113.2	112.9	114.1	113.9	114.1	111.5
01-9	Other farm products.....	106.8	106.4	105.9	107.7	106.9	104.1	104.1	103.1	101.8	101.6	101.8	101.6	101.4	103.1
02	Processed foods and feeds.....	116.4	116.3	116.0	114.7	114.7	114.4	115.3	114.9	115.9	114.6	113.6	112.8	112.9	114.1
02-1	Cereal and bakery products.....	119.3	119.3	119.3	119.3	119.3	119.4	119.0	119.3	118.4	117.0	117.1	117.3	117.4	118.2
02-2	Meats, poultry, and fish.....	112.2	111.4	111.1	107.3	107.7	106.9	111.2	109.7	113.6	109.8	107.0	105.8	107.0	108.3
02-3	Dairy products.....	130.4	130.2	130.1	130.4	130.0	130.1	129.1	128.8	128.8	128.7	128.9	125.9	123.3	127.7
02-4	Processed fruits and vegetables.....	115.1	114.5	113.6	113.3	114.1	114.0	113.6	113.6	114.7	114.8	114.6	114.6	114.4	114.1
02-5	Sugar and confectionery.....	119.5	119.2	119.2	118.8	117.9	118.2	117.6	116.2	116.4	116.0	114.2	114.0	113.7	115.8
02-6	Beverages and beverage materials.....	111.3	111.1	110.8	110.6	110.6	110.5	110.0	109.8	109.5	109.4	109.4	109.5	108.9	109.6
02-71	Animal fats and oils.....	96.1	90.3	84.0	74.1	78.2	73.5	65.5	64.2	64.2	63.5	66.6	71.9	72.5	69.6
02-72	Crude vegetable oils.....	83.0	83.4	80.4	78.0	76.2	72.1	78.4	87.0	84.5	87.5	92.7	88.8	90.4	84.5
02-73	Refined vegetable oils.....	91.6	95.0	91.5	90.0	90.0	84.6	95.9	102.1	93.5	94.4	98.9	93.0	98.7	94.4
02-74	Vegetable oil end products.....	103.1	102.9	101.1	100.5	99.9	98.8	100.6	100.6	100.2	100.2	100.2	100.2	100.2	100.2
02-8	Miscellaneous processed foods.....	119.3	119.1	118.2	118.2	118.5	118.4	116.9	114.8	114.7	114.5	113.9	114.0	114.1	115.5
02-9	Manufactured animal feeds.....	115.7	117.5	118.2	118.2	117.3	117.5	117.5	118.6	119.4	119.4	117.8	117.1	118.9	118.5
	INDUSTRIAL COMMODITIES														
03	Textile products and apparel.....	107.1	107.2	107.4	107.1	107.2	107.0	106.5	106.0	105.8	105.2	104.8	104.7	104.6	105.7
03-1	Cotton products.....	104.6	104.8	104.8	105.1	105.4	105.3	105.4	105.3	105.2	104.7	104.9	105.2	105.0	105.1
03-2	Wool products.....	104.2	104.4	104.7	104.6	104.6	104.7	104.1	104.1	103.9	103.8	103.5	103.0	103.1	103.7
03-3	Manmade fiber textile products.....	92.1	92.3	92.8	92.9	93.0	92.7	92.5	90.7	90.4	89.9	89.7	89.3	89.3	90.8
03-41	Silk yarns.....	155.0	156.4	160.8	165.2	172.0	175.5	177.5	175.1	182.5	184.0	183.8	189.7	196.3	183.0
03-5	Apparel.....	112.8	112.7	112.7	111.9	111.8	111.7	111.0	110.9	110.7	110.1	109.4	109.3	109.1	110.3
03-6	Textile housefurnishings.....	107.7	107.6	110.2	110.2	110.1	109.8	110.6	110.6	110.5	110.6	110.6	110.7	110.9	110.5
03-7	Miscellaneous textile products.....	121.9	127.1	126.2	125.3	125.2	121.3	118.4	117.0	113.8	112.4	110.1	110.1	109.9	115.5
04	Hides, skins, leather, and related products.....	123.4	123.4	123.5	122.8	122.4	122.3	120.7	119.5	119.5	118.7	118.8	118.3	117.9	119.5
04-1	Hides and skins.....	109.1	106.3	109.2	106.8	107.0	105.6	106.6	102.8	101.5	95.1	98.2	95.6	99.3	99.6
04-2	Leather.....	116.4	116.5	116.8	115.8	113.8	115.1	114.1	113.6	113.8	112.8	112.5	111.5	110.3	112.6
04-3	Footwear.....	131.5	132.2	132.1	131.7	131.7	131.3	128.8	127.2	127.3	127.1	127.0	126.6	125.6	128.0
04-4	Other leather and related products.....	115.3	114.8	114.2	113.8	113.3	113.4	112.6	112.6	112.5	112.6	112.5	112.5	112.4	112.7
05	Fuels and related products and power.....	104.2	102.7	102.4	102.2	102.0	101.9	102.5	102.6	103.3	103.7	102.4	102.4	102.0	102.4
05-1	Coal.....	112.7	112.7	112.7	112.7	111.0	108.3	105.8	105.5	105.4	105.3	105.2	105.4	105.5	106.7
05-2	Coke.....	120.3	120.3	120.3	120.3	117.0	117.0	117.0	117.0	117.0	117.0	117.0	117.0	117.0	116.0
05-3	Gas fuels (Jan. 1958=100).....	124.6	124.0	124.4	120.9	120.4	120.4	120.8	120.6	120.8	123.3	123.6	125.0	126.5	123.8
05-4	Electric power (Jan. 1958=100).....	102.3	102.2	102.0	102.1	102.0	101.9	101.8	101.8	101.2	101.3	101.3	101.3	101.2	101.5
05-61	Crude petroleum.....	103.7	99.9	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.4	99.3	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.4
05-7	Petroleum products, refined.....	101.7	99.5	98.9	99.0	99.2	99.3	100.9	101.0	102.8	103.1	100.5	100.3	99.5	100.3
06	Chemicals and allied products.....	98.0	97.8	97.6	97.7	97.8	97.8	97.9	98.1	98.2	98.5	98.7	98.8	98.6	98.2
06-1	Industrial chemicals.....	97.9	98.1	98.1	97.9	97.9	98.0	97.9	98.4	98.2	98.6	99.0	98.8	98.7	98.4
06-21	Prepared paint.....	118.7	118.2	118.2	115.9	115.9	115.2	115.2	114.4	114.4	114.4	114.4	114.4	114.1	114.6
06-22	Paint materials.....	91.9	92.0	92.0	91.9	91.9	91.9	91.9	92.1	92.3	92.4	92.4	92.5	92.5	92.2
06-3	Drugs and pharmaceuticals.....	93.6	93.4	93.4	93.6	93.5	93.3	93.0	93.2	93.4	93.5	93.4	93.4	93.4	93.3
06-4	Fats and oils, inedible.....	80.4	73.6	72.2	69.8	73.4	69.9	68.5	71.2	69.1	72.8	78.4	80.9	80.0	73.9
06-5	Agricultural chemicals and chem. products.....	92.3	92.2	92.9	96.4	96.7	98.1	98.7	99.4	101.3	101.3	101.6	101.6	101.2	99.7
06-6	Plastic resins and materials.....	91.3	81.5	80.8	80.5	80.8	80.9	80.6	80.9	81.1	81.0	82.3	83.2	82.8	82.0
06-7	Other chemicals and allied products.....	111.2	111.1	110.4	110.3	110.2	110.2	110.8	110.5	110.4	110.5	110.0	109.8	109.5	110.0
07	Rubber and rubber products.....	100.9	100.5	100.0	101.1	101.1	101.0	100.7	100.6	100.7	99.9	99.8	99.7	99.7	100.3
07-11	Crude rubber.....	88.9	87.5	86.4	86.8	86.7	85.8	85.0	85.3	85.0	85.2	84.5	84.1	84.0	84.9
07-12	Tires and tubes.....	96.3	96.3	96.3	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	100.9	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	99.2
07-13	Miscellaneous rubber products.....	109.7	109.3	108.7	108.3	108.3	108.3	108.1	107.8	106.9	106.9	106.9	106.9	106.9	107.4
08	Lumber and wood products.....	149.5	144.5	137.8	133.5	126.8	124.9	122.6	120.5	119.2	117.2	117.0	115.8	113.9	119.3
08-1	Lumber.....	164.7	155.8	147.9	142.2	136.2	133.4	131.5	129.8	127.7	125.0	125.3	123.6	120.3	127.2
08-2	Millwork.....	128.8	126.7	124.8	123.8	122.5	121.4	120.3	118.8	118.3	118.3	117.8	116.6	115.6	118.5
08-3	Plywood.....	146.9	146.5	135.0	128.9	112.6	111.8	106.7	102.3	101.3	98.2	97.3	97.3	96.9	103.1
08-4	Other wood products (Dec. 1966=100).....	112.4	111.2	111.0	110.3	109.2	108.0	107.5	106.7	106.6	106.3	106.3	106.1	105.9	106.7

See footnote at end of table.

26. Wholesale price indexes,¹ by group and subgroup of commodities—Continued[1957=100 unless otherwise specified]²

Code	Commodity Group	1969			1968										Annual average 1968
		Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	
	INDUSTRIAL COMMODITIES—Continued														
09	Pulp, paper, and allied products.....	107.4	106.8	106.2	105.2	105.2	105.2	105.1	104.9	104.9	104.7	105.5	105.2	105.2	105.2
09-1	Pulp, paper, and products, excluding building paper and board.....	107.7	107.1	106.6	105.6	105.7	105.6	105.5	105.3	105.4	105.2	106.0	105.7	105.7	105.6
09-11	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
09-12	Wastepaper.....	108.1	107.8	107.4	109.6	112.8	114.8	112.2	112.8	110.5	103.1	98.2	96.5	89.0	101.5
09-13	Paper.....	116.1	115.7	115.0	113.4	113.4	113.1	113.1	113.0	113.0	112.7	113.5	112.1	111.9	112.7
09-14	Paperboard.....	93.6	92.6	92.2	91.4	91.0	91.0	90.9	90.6	90.6	90.6	91.7	91.7	91.7	92.2
09-15	Converted paper and paperboard products.....	107.6	106.8	106.3	105.4	105.4	105.4	105.3	105.0	105.3	105.3	106.4	106.5	107.0	105.9
09-2	Building paper and board.....	99.6	98.2	97.3	94.8	93.8	93.7	93.5	92.9	92.3	92.3	92.3	92.1	92.0	92.8
10	Metals and metal products.....	115.8	115.2	114.4	112.8	112.4	112.5	112.2	111.3	111.4	111.7	111.7	113.3	113.8	112.4
10-1	Iron and steel.....	108.8	108.0	107.5	106.1	106.0	106.7	106.7	104.8	104.8	104.8	104.9	105.0	105.4	105.5
10-13	Steel mill products.....	111.7	110.7	110.4	109.1	109.1	110.5	110.5	108.0	108.0	108.0	107.9	107.7	107.7	108.5
10-2	Nonferrous metals.....	129.9	128.9	127.2	123.5	122.4	121.9	121.5	121.7	122.3	123.6	124.1	131.0	133.2	125.3
10-3	Metal containers.....	119.4	119.4	117.0	117.0	117.3	117.3	116.8	116.8	116.8	116.9	116.9	116.9	113.4	116.0
10-4	Hardware.....	119.1	119.0	118.5	117.7	117.6	117.3	117.1	116.9	116.9	116.8	116.7	116.6	116.8	116.9
10-5	Plumbing fixtures and brass fittings.....	116.6	116.1	115.8	115.3	115.0	114.6	114.4	114.2	114.1	114.1	114.6	114.6	114.3	114.1
10-6	Heating equipment.....	96.6	96.3	96.1	96.0	95.8	95.6	95.5	95.4	95.3	95.3	94.7	94.5	94.3	94.9
10-7	Fabricated structural metal products.....	109.6	109.4	109.3	109.0	108.8	108.8	108.4	107.9	107.6	107.5	106.7	107.1	106.8	107.6
10-8	Miscellaneous metal products.....	120.4	120.4	119.6	118.3	117.7	117.5	116.7	115.8	115.7	115.7	115.5	115.5	115.3	116.1
11	Machinery and equipment.....	117.8	117.3	117.0	116.7	116.6	116.1	115.8	115.4	115.2	115.0	115.0	114.8	114.3	115.2
11-1	Agricultural machinery and equipment.....	131.7	131.6	131.2	130.1	129.3	127.8	127.7	127.0	126.8	126.5	126.3	126.2	126.1	127.1
11-2	Construction machinery and equipment.....	134.0	133.6	133.5	132.7	132.1	131.5	130.3	129.0	129.2	129.4	129.4	128.9	128.3	129.6
11-3	Metalworking machinery and equipment.....	131.4	131.1	131.0	130.5	130.4	130.0	129.7	129.3	129.1	128.2	128.0	127.6	127.3	128.6
11-4	General purpose machinery and equipment.....	119.8	119.1	118.5	118.3	118.3	118.2	117.9	117.6	117.3	117.2	117.0	116.8	116.5	117.2
11-6	Special industry machinery and equipment (Jan. 1961=100).....	126.9	126.6	125.6	125.0	124.8	123.5	123.1	122.5	122.0	121.9	121.8	121.6	120.2	122.2
11-7	Electrical machinery and equipment.....	104.2	103.5	103.5	103.6	103.6	103.2	103.1	102.9	102.7	102.7	102.9	103.0	102.6	103.0
11-9	Miscellaneous machinery.....	116.5	116.1	115.7	115.6	115.2	115.0	114.5	114.6	114.3	114.3	114.2	113.0	112.7	114.0
12	Furniture and household durables.....	105.7	105.4	105.3	105.0	104.7	104.5	104.4	104.2	104.1	103.9	104.0	103.8	103.6	104.0
12-1	Household furniture.....	121.3	121.0	120.7	119.2	118.9	118.5	117.8	117.5	117.2	117.0	116.9	116.2	116.0	117.2
12-2	Commercial furniture.....	117.8	117.2	117.0	117.0	116.7	116.5	116.1	116.0	115.9	115.6	115.1	114.5	114.0	115.4
12-3	Floor coverings.....	95.5	95.5	95.5	94.8	94.8	94.8	94.8	95.3	95.0	95.0	95.1	95.2	95.2	95.0
12-4	Household appliances.....	92.8	92.5	92.6	92.9	92.7	92.7	92.6	92.5	92.4	92.0	92.2	92.2	91.9	92.2
12-5	Home electronic equipment.....	78.6	78.7	78.7	79.8	80.2	80.2	80.7	80.7	80.7	81.3	81.8	81.8	81.6	81.0
12-6	Other household durable goods.....	129.6	129.1	128.9	127.3	125.9	125.6	125.3	125.0	124.5	124.5	124.5	124.5	124.3	124.9
13	Nonmetallic mineral products.....	111.9	111.2	110.6	109.3	109.2	108.9	108.7	108.7	108.4	108.3	107.8	107.4	107.3	108.1
13-11	Flat glass.....	112.3	110.8	109.9	110.0	110.0	110.0	110.1	110.5	110.5	110.5	109.4	109.4	109.4	109.5
13-2	Concrete ingredients.....	115.5	113.8	112.2	110.2	110.2	109.6	109.6	109.6	109.4	109.3	109.1	109.0	108.6	109.2
13-3	Concrete products.....	111.2	110.8	110.7	109.5	109.2	109.1	108.6	108.5	108.1	108.2	107.6	107.5	107.0	108.1
13-4	Structural clay products exc. refractories.....	116.0	115.9	115.8	115.4	115.2	114.2	113.7	113.7	112.5	112.3	112.5	112.1	112.0	113.1
13-5	Refractories.....	112.6	112.6	112.6	112.6	112.6	112.6	112.6	112.6	112.5	112.5	112.5	112.5	112.6	112.1
13-6	Asphalt roofing.....	99.2	99.6	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.7	97.6	97.6	96.7	97.6	97.6	98.0	97.5
13-7	Gypsum products.....	106.2	106.2	106.2	106.2	106.2	106.2	106.6	106.6	105.0	105.1	105.1	105.1	105.1	105.5
13-8	Glass containers.....	116.1	116.1	116.1	110.3	110.3	110.0	109.8	109.8	109.8	109.8	109.7	106.3	106.3	108.4
13-9	Other nonmetallic minerals.....	107.6	107.6	107.2	106.8	106.8	106.8	105.8	105.8	105.2	105.1	103.7	103.8	103.9	105.0
14	Transportation equipment (Dec. 1968=100).....	100.0	100.1	100.1	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
14-1	Motor vehicles and equipment.....	106.3	106.4	106.5	106.6	106.6	106.5	106.5	104.1	104.4	104.2	104.5	104.3	104.3	104.9
14-4	Railroad equipment (Jan. 1961=100).....	110.2	108.5	108.5	108.5	108.5	108.5	107.1	107.1	106.9	106.9	105.4	105.4	105.4	106.6
15	Miscellaneous products.....	112.5	112.5	112.5	112.5	112.5	112.0	111.9	111.6	111.5	111.8	111.8	111.8	111.5	111.8
15-1	Toys, sporting goods, small arms, ammunition.....	110.5	110.1	110.2	109.3	109.2	109.1	109.0	108.9	108.7	108.2	108.2	108.1	107.4	108.3
15-2	Tobacco products.....	116.7	116.7	116.6	116.5	116.5	115.0	114.9	114.9	114.9	114.9	114.9	114.9	114.9	115.2
15-3	Notions.....	100.7	100.7	100.7	100.7	100.7	100.7	101.2	101.2	101.0	108.1	108.1	105.7	105.7	103.4
15-4	Photographic equipment and supplies.....	112.0	112.7	112.7	113.2	113.0	113.0	112.8	112.8	112.8	113.8	113.8	114.9	114.8	113.6
15-9	Other miscellaneous products.....	111.4	111.2	111.2	112.0	111.9	111.9	111.7	110.9	110.7	110.6	110.6	110.4	109.9	110.9

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 of 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.

27. Wholesale price indexes for special commodity groupings¹[1957-59=100, unless otherwise specified]²

Commodity group	1969			1968										Annual average 1968
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	
All commodities—less farm products.....	112.3	111.8	111.3	110.5	110.3	110.0	109.8	109.5	109.6	109.3	109.0	109.0	108.9	109.4
All foods.....	115.7	115.0	115.5	113.8	113.5	112.3	113.9	112.2	113.9	112.3	112.2	110.8	111.0	112.2
Processed foods.....	116.2	115.8	115.4	114.0	114.0	113.6	114.9	114.2	115.4	113.9	112.8	111.9	112.0	113.3
Textile products, excluding hard and bast fiber products.....	100.8	101.0	101.5	101.6	101.8	101.6	101.6	100.7	100.5	100.1	100.0	99.9	99.9	100.6
Hosiery.....	92.7	92.4	92.5	93.2	93.2	92.4	92.4	92.4	92.4	92.4	92.4	92.4	92.4	92.5
Underwear and nightwear.....	114.3	114.2	114.3	113.6	113.6	113.6	113.5	112.9	112.9	112.6	112.5	112.5	112.1	112.6
Refined petroleum products.....	101.7	99.5	98.9	99.0	99.2	99.3	100.9	101.0	102.8	103.1	100.5	100.3	99.5	100.3
East Coast.....	103.4	103.4	103.4	103.4	103.4	103.4	103.4	106.9	106.9	106.9	106.9	104.3	104.3	104.9
Mid-Continent.....	106.9	101.1	101.8	97.1	97.1	97.1	100.1	100.1	100.8	100.9	96.4	103.8	101.7	99.6
Gulf Coast.....	99.5	96.8	95.2	97.3	97.5	97.3	100.3	100.3	105.0	107.0	102.3	99.1	97.5	99.8
Pacific Coast.....	91.0	91.0	90.9	90.9	92.2	93.5	93.9	93.6	92.7	90.0	90.0	91.3	91.3	91.8
Midwest (Jan. 1961=100).....	98.4	95.8	95.8	96.4	95.6	95.6	95.6	95.6	95.6	95.6	94.4	94.9	94.9	95.3
Pharmaceutical preparations.....	96.1	95.9	95.9	96.1	96.0	95.7	95.3	95.4	95.3	95.5	95.4	95.3	95.3	95.4
Lumber and wood products excluding millwork and other wood products ³	161.6	155.0	146.0	140.1	131.0	128.7	125.8	123.4	121.6	118.7	118.7	117.4	114.9	121.7
Special metals and metal products ⁴	113.7	113.4	112.9	111.9	111.6	111.6	110.5	110.1	110.0	110.3	110.2	111.3	111.6	110.9
Machinery and motive products.....	114.3	114.0	113.8	113.6	113.5	113.2	112.1	112.0	111.7	111.8	111.7	111.5	111.2	112.0
Machinery and equipment, except electrical.....	126.4	126.0	125.5	125.0	124.8	124.2	123.8	123.3	123.0	122.8	122.7	122.2	121.7	123.0
Agricultural machinery, including tractors.....	134.4	134.1	133.7	132.6	131.7	130.0	130.0	129.3	129.0	128.7	128.5	128.4	128.3	129.4
Metalworking machinery.....	138.1	137.8	137.7	136.9	136.8	136.8	136.5	136.0	135.9	134.7	134.5	134.1	133.7	135.3
Total tractors.....	136.8	136.8	136.8	135.6	134.8	133.6	132.4	130.8	130.6	130.6	130.6	130.3	129.7	131.5
Industrial valves.....	122.4	120.4	120.6	121.0	123.8	125.1	126.3	126.3	126.3	126.3	126.3	125.0	123.0	124.6
Industrial fittings.....	114.7	113.0	112.0	112.0	109.0	107.5	106.1	106.1	106.1	106.1	106.1	109.2	109.2	107.7
Abrasive grinding wheels.....	102.6	102.6	102.6	102.3	102.3	98.3	98.3	98.3	98.3	98.3	98.3	98.3	98.3	99.0
Construction materials.....	121.6	119.8	117.4	115.4	113.5	112.8	112.0	111.3	110.9	110.5	110.2	110.5	109.7	111.1

¹ See footnote 1, table 26.² See footnote 2, table 26.³ Formerly titled "Lumber and wood products, excluding millwork."⁴ Metals and metal products, agricultural machinery and equipment, and motor vehicles and equipment.

28. Wholesale price indexes,¹ by stage of processing[1957-59=100]²

Commodity group	1969			1968										Annual average 1968
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	
ALL COMMODITIES.....	111.7	111.1	110.7	109.8	109.6	109.1	109.1	108.7	109.1	108.7	108.5	108.3	108.2	108.7
CRUDE MATERIALS FOR FURTHER PROCESSING.....	105.2	103.8	102.8	101.3	101.5	100.2	100.9	100.8	102.6	101.4	102.0	101.4	101.6	101.1
Foodstuffs and feedstuffs.....	107.6	105.9	104.5	102.6	103.2	101.2	102.1	102.0	104.9	103.2	104.1	102.9	102.6	102.5
Nonfood materials except fuel.....	99.5	98.3	97.9	97.1	96.8	97.0	97.7	97.4	96.8	96.7	96.6	97.6	98.9	97.4
Manufacturing.....	98.3	97.0	96.6	95.8	95.5	95.8	96.5	96.2	95.7	95.6	95.5	96.6	98.1	96.4
Construction.....	113.1	112.8	112.8	111.7	111.6	110.5	110.5	110.4	110.1	109.9	109.4	109.2	108.4	109.8
Crude fuel.....	115.8	115.4	115.7	115.3	114.3	113.2	112.6	112.4	112.5	112.2	112.4	112.3	112.2	112.7
Manufacturing industries.....	114.7	114.2	114.5	114.0	113.2	112.5	112.3	112.1	112.2	111.8	112.1	112.0	111.9	112.2
Nonmanufacturing industries.....	117.4	117.1	117.3	117.0	115.8	114.3	113.1	112.9	113.0	112.8	112.9	112.9	112.7	113.5
INTERMEDIATE MATERIALS, SUPPLIES AND COMPONENTS.....	111.4	110.7	110.1	109.2	108.6	108.5	108.3	107.9	107.9	107.8	107.7	107.9	107.7	108.0
Materials and Components for Manufacturing.....	109.6	109.1	108.5	107.8	107.6	107.4	107.3	106.8	106.9	106.8	106.9	107.2	107.1	107.1
Materials for food manufacturing.....	113.4	113.1	112.7	111.5	111.3	110.6	111.6	111.3	112.0	111.3	110.6	109.7	109.6	110.7
Materials for nondurable manufacturing.....	100.7	100.6	100.5	100.5	100.5	100.4	100.4	100.1	100.0	100.0	100.3	100.0	99.9	100.2
Materials for durable manufacturing.....	117.0	116.0	114.8	112.9	112.1	112.2	111.9	110.9	110.9	110.9	110.9	112.3	112.7	111.7
Components for manufacturing.....	112.4	111.9	111.5	111.4	111.3	111.0	110.6	110.5	110.4	110.3	110.5	110.6	110.0	110.5
Materials and Components for Construction.....	119.7	118.3	116.3	114.6	112.9	112.4	111.7	110.9	110.4	110.0	109.8	109.9	109.3	110.7
Processed fuels and lubricants.....	100.4	99.6	99.5	99.2	99.1	99.2	99.7	99.7	99.8	100.5	99.7	99.8	99.4	99.7
Manufacturing industries.....	102.8	102.8	102.6	101.9	101.7	101.7	101.6	101.6	101.2	101.8	101.8	102.0	102.1	102.0
Nonmanufacturing industries.....	96.7	94.7	94.8	94.9	95.1	95.2	96.6	96.6	97.5	98.4	96.2	96.3	95.3	96.2
Containers.....	112.3	111.7	110.9	109.1	109.2	109.2	109.0	108.7	109.1	109.2	110.2	109.7	109.1	109.2
Supplies.....	112.9	113.0	113.1	112.8	112.4	112.4	112.3	112.6	112.8	112.8	112.5	112.3	112.6	112.5
Manufacturing industries.....	115.8	115.2	115.0	114.6	114.5	114.3	114.2	114.1	113.8	113.8	113.8	113.8	113.6	113.8
Nonmanufacturing industries.....	111.0	111.4	111.5	111.3	110.7	110.9	110.8	111.2	111.7	111.7	111.3	111.0	111.4	111.2
Manufactured animal feeds.....	108.1	109.8	110.6	110.6	109.7	109.8	109.9	111.0	111.8	111.9	110.4	109.7	111.7	111.0
Other supplies.....	108.8	108.6	108.4	108.1	107.7	107.8	107.6	107.7	108.0	108.0	108.1	108.0	107.6	107.8
FINISHED GOODS (Including Raw Foods and Fuels).....	113.7	113.3	113.2	112.6	112.5	112.0	112.0	111.4	111.9	111.3	110.9	110.5	110.4	111.3
Consumer Goods.....	112.2	111.7	111.8	111.1	111.0	110.6	110.7	110.0	110.7	110.0	109.5	109.0	109.0	109.9
Foods.....	117.1	116.4	116.8	115.2	114.8	113.9	115.6	113.7	115.3	113.6	113.0	111.7	111.9	113.4
Crude.....	117.4	115.1	119.7	117.6	114.3	109.8	113.4	105.8	108.8	107.0	109.5	106.6	107.0	109.1
Processed.....	116.9	116.5	116.2	114.7	114.9	114.6	115.9	115.2	116.5	114.8	113.7	112.7	112.8	114.2
Other nondurable goods.....	111.2	110.7	110.4	110.2	110.2	110.0	109.9	109.7	110.0	109.8	109.1	109.0	108.6	109.4
Durable goods.....	105.3	105.1	105.1	105.0	105.0	104.9	103.4	103.6	103.3	103.5	103.5	103.5	103.6	103.9
Producer Finished Goods.....	118.0	117.8	117.6	117.1	116.9	116.4	115.7	115.4	115.2	115.1	114.9	114.8	114.4	115.3
Manufacturing industries.....	122.6	122.3	121.9	121.5	121.5	120.9	120.6	120.1	119.8	119.5	119.4	119.1	118.4	119.8
Nonmanufacturing industries.....	113.7	113.5	113.3	112.8	112.5	112.1	111.1	110.9	110.8	110.8	110.7	110.5	110.4	111.1
SPECIAL GROUPINGS														
Crude materials for further processing, excluding crude foodstuffs and feedstuffs, plant and animal fibers, oilseeds and leaf tobacco.....	107.2	105.5	105.0	103.8	103.0	102.2	101.5	101.0	100.9	100.6	100.5	101.7	103.1	101.8
Intermediate materials supplies and components, excluding intermediate materials for food mfg., and mfr.'d animal feeds.....	111.1	110.4	109.7	108.8	108.2	108.1	107.8	107.4	107.3	107.2	107.3	107.5	107.3	107.5
Consumer finished goods, excluding consumer foods.....	109.0	108.7	108.4	108.3	108.4	108.2	107.5	107.5	107.5	107.5	107.0	107.0	106.8	107.4

¹ See footnote 1, table 26.² See footnote 2, table 26.

NOTE: For description of the series by stage of processing, see "Wholesale Prices and Price Indexes," January 1967 (final) and February 1967 (final).

29. Wholesale price indexes,¹ by durability of product[1957-59=100]²

Commodity group	1969			1968										Annual average 1968
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	
All commodities.....	111.7	111.1	110.7	109.8	109.6	109.1	109.1	108.7	109.1	108.7	108.5	108.3	108.2	108.7
Total durable goods.....	116.1	115.4	114.6	113.6	113.1	112.8	112.0	111.6	111.3	111.3	111.2	111.5	111.4	111.8
Total nondurable goods.....	108.6	108.0	107.8	107.1	107.0	106.5	107.0	106.6	107.4	106.7	106.5	106.0	105.9	106.5
Total manufactures.....	112.2	111.7	111.3	110.5	110.3	110.0	109.9	109.5	109.7	109.4	109.1	109.1	108.9	109.4
Durable.....	116.3	115.6	114.8	113.9	113.4	113.1	112.3	111.9	111.7	111.6	111.5	111.8	111.5	112.0
Nondurable.....	108.3	108.0	107.7	107.2	107.2	107.0	107.4	107.2	107.7	107.2	106.7	106.4	106.3	106.9
Total raw or slightly processed goods.....	109.2	107.9	107.6	106.2	105.9	104.5	105.3	104.3	105.9	104.9	105.6	104.6	104.8	104.9
Durable.....	108.1	107.1	105.0	101.3	99.6	98.7	98.0	96.7	96.8	97.8	98.6	102.9	107.9	101.1
Nondurable.....	109.1	107.8	107.7	106.5	106.3	104.8	105.7	104.7	106.3	105.3	106.0	104.7	104.7	105.2

¹ See footnote 1, table 26.² See footnote 2, table 26.

NOTE: For description of the series by durability of product and data beginning with 1947, see "Wholesale Price and Price Indexes, 1957" (BLS Bulletin 1235, 1958).

30. Industry-sector price indexes for the output of selected industries¹

[1957-59=100 unless otherwise indicated]

1963 SIC Code	Industry	Other bases	1968												1967	Annual aver- age 1968
			Dec. ²	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	
MINING																
1111	Anthracite.....		107.0	102.8	102.8	100.0	97.7	97.7	95.8	95.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.5	99.5	99.9
1211	Bituminous coal.....		113.1	111.6	108.7	106.2	106.1	106.1	106.1	106.0	105.8	106.0	105.4	105.4	105.4	107.2
1311	Crude petroleum and natural gas.....		106.4	106.3	106.3	106.4	106.3	106.2	105.9	105.7	105.7	105.7	105.6	105.5	105.6	106.0
1421	Crushed and broken stone.....		111.3	111.3	110.0	109.9	109.9	109.9	109.9	109.4	109.1	108.0	108.0	107.7	107.0	109.5
1442	Construction sand and gravel.....		118.6	118.5	117.7	117.6	117.6	116.8	116.3	115.7	115.7	115.3	115.0	114.4	113.2	116.6
1475	Phosphate rock.....		147.4	147.4	147.4	147.4	147.4	147.4	147.4	147.4	147.4	147.4	147.4	147.4	147.4	147.4
1476	Rock salt.....		100.8	100.8	100.8	100.8	100.8	100.8	100.8	100.8	100.8	100.8	100.8	100.8	100.8	100.8
1477	Sulfur.....		173.7	173.7	173.7	173.7	173.7	173.7	173.7	173.7	173.7	173.7	161.3	161.3	161.3	171.6
MANUFACTURING																
2011	Meat slaughtering plants.....	12/66	100.1	100.6	99.8	103.8	102.3	106.1	102.6	99.3	98.4	100.5	100.4	99.0	98.0	101.1
2013	Meat processing plants.....	12/66	100.7	99.5	101.0	101.8	100.4	101.6	98.0	98.6	97.6	96.7	95.8	94.1	95.4	98.8
2015	Poultry dressing plants.....		90.4	92.6	89.8	96.4	95.5	100.6	96.4	94.3	91.7	92.1	95.7	89.5	79.6	93.8
2021	Creamery butter.....	12/66	105.0	103.8	104.7	103.8	102.7	103.1	103.1	103.4	102.5	99.7	99.8	99.7	102.1	102.6
2033	Canned fruits and vegetables.....	12/66	107.3	108.2	108.3	108.1	108.6	110.3	110.4	110.4	110.4	110.3	110.1	110.1	109.8	109.4
2036	Fresh or frozen packaged fish.....		131.6	132.0	128.9	124.1	121.5	122.9	122.1	120.6	119.9	117.5	122.7	125.4	126.1	124.1
2044	Rice milling.....		93.8	91.9	91.3	89.5	97.1	100.8	100.8	100.8	99.5	99.5	98.2	96.3	96.3	96.6
2052	Biscuits, crackers and cookies.....	12/66	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.2	104.3	104.2	104.3	104.2	104.3
2061	Raw cane sugar.....	12/66	106.8	105.8	107.8	106.6	106.6	105.9	105.9	104.8	104.1	103.2	103.5	103.9	102.3	105.4
2062	Cane sugar refining.....	12/66	103.2	102.9	103.1	103.0	103.0	103.7	102.2	100.5	100.4	100.3	100.9	99.6	99.1	101.9
2063	Beet sugar.....	12/66	102.5	102.1	102.5	103.2	103.2	103.3	103.0	102.3	102.3	101.5	101.3	100.5	100.2	102.3
2073	Chewing gum.....		106.1	106.1	106.1	106.0	105.9	105.9	105.9	105.9	105.9	105.9	105.9	105.8	105.8	106.0
2082	Malt liquors.....		104.9	104.9	104.9	105.0	105.0	104.7	104.4	104.1	104.5	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.0	104.6
2083	Malt.....	12/66	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8
2084	Wines and brandy.....		115.5	115.5	115.5	115.5	115.5	115.2	115.2	115.2	115.2	115.2	115.2	113.1	113.1	115.2
2091	Cottonseed oil mills.....		94.5	93.0	92.8	111.9	122.9	120.1	119.1	117.2	109.6	109.3	109.6	106.5	105.3	108.9
2092	Soybean oil mills.....	12/66	82.2	83.9	86.0	87.5	89.2	88.1	88.1	86.7	86.7	88.2	90.0	86.0	86.5	86.9
2094	Animal and marine fats and oils.....	12/66	79.7	83.1	81.2	78.5	79.0	79.3	79.1	78.2	79.3	77.9	75.4	77.0	76.2	79.0
2096	Shortening and cooking oils.....		100.3	99.8	98.4	100.7	101.1	100.5	100.6	101.1	100.9	100.9	100.8	100.5	100.5	100.5
2098	Macaroni and noodle products.....	12/66	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.3
2111	Cigarettes.....		117.4	117.4	115.6	115.6	115.5	115.5	115.5	115.5	115.5	115.5	115.5	115.5	115.5	115.8
2121	Cigars.....		101.7	101.7	101.7	101.7	101.7	101.7	101.7	101.7	101.6	101.6	101.1	101.1	101.0	101.6
2131	Chewing and smoking tobacco.....		132.4	132.4	132.3	130.5	130.1	130.1	130.1	130.1	130.1	130.1	130.1	130.1	130.1	130.7
2254	Knit underwear mills.....	12/66	105.7	105.8	105.7	105.7	105.1	105.1	104.6	104.5	104.5	103.9	103.4	102.5	102.2	104.7
2271	Woven carpets and rugs.....	12/66	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3	96.9	96.7	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.9	96.7	97.0	97.0	97.0
2311	Men's and boys' suits and coats.....		133.4	133.3	132.8	130.5	130.3	129.1	125.7	122.7	122.5	122.5	122.4	122.0	121.7	127.3
2321	Men's dress shirts and nightwear.....		115.5	115.4	115.4	115.3	115.0	115.0	114.5	113.8	113.8	113.5	113.0	112.8	112.0	114.4
2322	Men's and boys' underwear.....	12/66	106.4	106.4	106.4	106.4	104.2	104.2	103.8	103.7	103.7	103.3	103.0	102.5	102.4	104.5
2327	Men's and boys' separate trousers.....	12/66	103.9	103.8	103.8	103.6	103.6	103.6	102.3	102.2	102.2	101.7	101.6	101.6	101.3	102.8
2328	Work clothing.....		115.1	114.9	114.6	114.2	114.2	114.2	114.0	114.5	114.5	114.4	114.0	112.9	112.5	114.3
2381	Fabric dress and work gloves.....		128.4	128.4	128.4	128.3	128.5	128.5	128.5	127.9	127.7	126.9	125.0	123.6	122.5	127.5
2426	Hardwood dimension and flooring.....	12/66	114.7	111.9	110.6	108.2	106.9	107.0	106.3	106.1	104.6	102.4	101.1	99.1	98.9	106.6
2442	Wirebound boxes and crates.....	12/67	105.6	105.6	105.1	105.1	105.1	105.1	105.1	105.1	104.7	104.7	104.5	100.0	100.0	104.6
2515	Mattresses and bedsprings.....	12/66	104.3	104.3	104.1	104.0	104.0	103.9	103.8	103.8	103.7	103.7	102.6	101.8	101.5	103.7
2521	Wood office furniture.....		131.1	129.9	129.3	128.4	128.1	128.0	127.3	127.3	127.2	126.3	126.3	126.3	126.4	128.0
2647	Sanitary paper products.....	12/66	108.0	108.0	107.9	107.3	107.3	106.9	106.6	106.7	106.7	106.8	106.8	106.5	106.5	107.1
2654	Sanitary food containers.....	12/66	100.5	101.0	101.7	101.7	101.7	101.7	101.7	101.7	101.7	101.6	101.6	101.5	100.8	101.5

See footnote at end of table.

30. Industry-sector price indexes for the output of selected industries ¹—Continued

1963 SIC Code	Industry	Other bases	1968												1967	Annual Average 1968
			Dec. 2	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	
	MANUFACTURING—Continued															
2822	Synthetic rubber.....		94.7	94.7	94.7	94.8	94.8	94.8	94.9	96.0	96.0	96.0	96.0	96.0	96.1	95.3
2823	Cellulosic man-made fibers.....		95.7	95.7	95.7	95.5	95.6	95.5	95.1	95.0	95.0	94.8	94.6	94.6	94.5	95.2
2824	Organic fibers, noncellulosic.....	12/66	96.0	96.0	96.1	96.1	96.1	96.1	96.1	96.1	96.1	96.1	96.1	96.1	96.0	96.1
2871	Fertilizers.....	12/66	100.3	100.4	100.6	101.3	102.2	102.7	102.7	103.2	103.2	103.0	103.4	101.5	101.7	102.0
2872	Fertilizers, mixing only.....	12/66	94.8	95.2	95.6	97.2	99.0	99.6	99.6	100.5	100.5	100.3	101.4	100.5	100.3	98.7
2892	Explosives.....		114.6	113.9	113.9	114.0	114.0	114.0	114.8	114.8	114.8	114.0	111.3	111.3	111.8	113.8
2911	Petroleum refining.....		95.1	95.3	95.4	96.8	96.9	98.4	98.8	96.7	96.4	95.6	95.6	95.1	96.2	96.3
3111	Leather tanning and finishing.....		116.1	113.9	115.2	114.1	113.7	113.9	113.1	112.8	111.7	110.5	109.1	108.8	109.3	112.7
3121	Industrial leather belting.....	12/66	111.0	110.3	110.7	110.9	110.3	109.5	110.6	110.3	110.6	109.8	110.1	110.4	100.5	110.4
3221	Glass containers.....		110.3	110.3	110.0	109.8	109.8	109.8	109.8	109.7	106.3	106.3	106.3	102.9	101.1	108.4
3241	Cement, hydraulic.....		105.9	105.9	105.8	105.8	105.8	105.8	105.8	105.8	105.8	105.8	105.8	104.8	103.2	105.7
3251	Brick and structural clay tile.....		121.2	120.7	119.4	118.6	118.6	117.9	117.6	116.8	116.0	116.0	115.7	115.6	115.2	117.8
3255	Clay refractories.....		116.7	116.7	116.6	116.6	116.6	116.5	116.5	116.5	116.5	116.5	116.3	110.2	109.2	116.0
3259	Structural clay products, n.e.c.....		114.1	114.1	114.1	113.9	113.9	112.7	112.7	115.4	115.3	115.1	115.1	114.9	114.8	114.3
3261	Vitreous plumbing fixtures.....		99.1	98.7	98.5	98.6	98.5	98.5	98.5	98.6	99.0	97.8	97.2	95.7	95.8	98.2
3262	Vitreous china food utensils.....		134.3	131.7	131.7	131.7	131.7	131.7	131.7	131.7	131.7	129.2	126.4	126.4	121.8	130.8
3263	Fine earthenware food utensils.....		123.3	123.1	123.1	123.1	123.1	123.1	123.1	123.1	123.1	123.0	122.8	122.8	119.4	123.1
3271	Concrete block and brick.....		111.7	111.7	111.7	111.7	111.7	111.4	111.4	110.5	109.9	109.8	108.9	107.7	107.4	110.7
3273	Ready mixed concrete.....	1958	110.3	109.9	109.8	109.0	109.0	108.6	108.7	108.1	108.0	107.4	107.3	107.1	106.1	108.6
3275	Gypsum products.....		106.5	106.5	106.5	106.9	106.9	105.3	105.4	105.4	105.4	105.4	105.4	104.2	104.2	105.8
3312	Blast furnace and steel mills.....		107.7	107.7	109.3	109.3	107.2	107.2	107.2	107.1	107.0	106.9	106.9	106.7	106.1	107.5
3315	Steel wire drawing, etc.....	12/66	103.7	103.3	102.1	101.3	101.0	101.0	101.0	101.0	101.1	101.0	101.0	101.0	100.9	101.5
3316	Cold finishing of steel shapes.....	12/66	107.0	106.9	106.9	106.9	103.5	103.4	103.4	103.4	103.4	103.4	103.4	103.1	104.7	104.6
3317	Steel pipe and tube.....	12/66	104.7	104.7	104.7	104.7	104.3	104.2	104.0	103.1	102.1	102.1	102.0	102.0	102.0	103.6
3333	Primary zinc.....	12/66	93.9	93.9	93.9	93.9	93.8	93.8	93.9	93.9	93.9	93.9	93.8	93.8	93.8	93.9
3334	Primary aluminum.....	12/66	105.4	105.4	105.4	105.4	105.4	105.4	105.3	102.0	102.0	102.0	102.0	102.0	102.0	104.0
3339	Primary nonferrous metals, n.e.c.....	12/66	119.4	120.2	118.7	123.2	121.3	126.4	131.7	128.3	123.2	122.4	114.1	119.0	120.3	122.3
3351	Copper rolling and drawing.....		134.3	132.5	130.2	129.9	130.0	130.0	134.2	140.6	159.8	156.4	155.4	149.9	140.0	140.3
3411	Metal cans.....	12/66	106.2	106.5	106.4	106.4	106.4	106.5	106.5	106.5	106.5	102.9	102.9	102.9	102.9	105.6
3423	Hand and edge tools.....	12/67	104.8	104.3	103.7	103.3	103.0	102.4	102.2	102.1	102.1	101.7	101.2	100.4	100.0	102.6
3431	Metal plumbing fixtures.....		95.0	94.6	94.3	93.6	93.5	93.5	93.5	93.5	93.1	93.0	92.6	92.1	92.1	93.5
3493	Steel springs.....	12/66	105.2	104.9	103.4	102.4	102.4	102.4	102.1	102.0	102.0	101.4	101.4	101.4	101.3	102.6
3496	Collapsible tubes.....	1958	101.5	101.5	101.5	101.4	101.4	101.1	99.1	99.1	99.5	98.9	98.9	98.9	97.8	100.2
3498	Fabricated pipe and fittings.....		122.7	122.7	122.7	122.7	122.7	122.7	122.7	115.9	115.8	115.8	115.8	115.8	115.5	119.8
3519	Internal combustion engines.....	12/66	106.6	106.3	105.9	105.7	104.5	103.8	103.9	103.9	103.7	103.3	103.2	103.0	102.6	104.5
3533	Oil field machinery.....		118.0	117.0	116.8	115.9	115.8	115.6	115.5	115.5	111.9	111.6	110.9	110.5	110.2	114.6
3534	Elevators and moving stairways.....	12/66	103.9	103.9	103.9	103.9	103.1	102.2	102.2	102.2	102.2	102.2	102.2	101.4	101.4	102.8
3537	Industrial trucks and tractors.....		127.2	127.2	125.7	124.0	124.0	124.0	123.9	122.6	121.7	121.6	121.6	120.5	120.5	123.7
3562	Ball and roller bearings.....	12/66	101.6	101.7	101.7	101.6	101.2	100.6	100.5	100.4	100.0	100.2	100.1	99.5	99.5	100.8
3572	Typewriters.....	12/66	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	101.6	101.1	101.1	101.7	101.9	101.9	101.9	101.9	101.6	101.3
3576	Scales and balances.....		126.4	126.4	125.8	125.8	124.9	124.9	123.8	120.8	120.8	120.7	120.3	120.2	120.3	123.4
3612	Transformers.....	12/66	104.6	106.9	106.6	107.0	106.9	106.5	106.7	106.3	105.8	105.9	105.1	104.5	103.9	106.1
3613	Switchgear and switchboards.....	12/66	104.4	104.9	103.7	104.2	104.0	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.3	104.7	104.8	104.5	102.7	104.3
3624	Carbon and graphite products.....	12/67	101.0	101.0	100.9	100.9	101.0	100.9	100.9	100.9	100.9	100.4	100.4	100.3	100.0	100.0
3635	Household vacuum cleaners.....	12/66	99.5	99.5	102.3	102.3	102.3	102.3	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.1	100.4	101.2
3641	Electric lamps.....	12/66	103.0	103.0	105.6	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	104.0	104.0	103.4	104.9
3652	Phonograph records.....		119.8	119.8	119.8	119.8	119.8	119.8	119.8	119.8	119.8	119.8	119.8	119.8	119.8	119.8
3671	Electron tubes, receiving type.....	12/66	105.9	105.9	105.9	105.9	105.9	105.9	105.9	105.9	105.9	105.8	105.8	105.8	103.2	105.9
3672	Cathode ray picture tubes.....	12/66	92.4	92.4	92.3	92.3	92.3	92.2	92.8	96.7	96.8	96.5	96.5	100.7	101.8	94.5
3673	Electron tubes, transmitting.....	12/66	102.0	102.0	102.0	101.9	101.9	101.7	101.2	101.2	101.2	100.6	100.5	100.7	100.7	101.4
3674	Semiconductors.....	12/66	92.5	92.4	92.4	92.1	91.5	91.5	91.9	92.7	92.8	92.0	92.6	93.4	94.2	92.3
3692	Primary batteries, dry and wet.....		111.3	111.3	111.3	111.3	111.3	111.3	111.3	111.3	111.3	111.3	111.2	111.3	111.3	111.3
3693	X-ray apparatus and tubes.....	12/67	107.7	108.2	107.7	106.1	105.8	105.6	104.9	104.8	104.8	104.4	101.5	100.0	100.0	105.1
3941	Games and toys.....	12/66	110.1	110.1	109.8	109.8	109.8	109.8	109.8	109.8	109.8	109.7	108.4	107.2	107.0	109.3

¹ For a description of the series, see BLS Handbook of Methods for Surveys and Studies (BLS Bulletin 1458), Chapter 12. See also, "Industry and Sector Price indexes," in Monthly Labor Review, August 1965, pp. 974-982.

² Industry-sector Price indexes for 1969 are not available for this issue. Indexes beginning with January 1969 will appear in subsequent issues.

NOTE. Beginning in January 1967, index weights and classifications are based on the 1963 Censuses of Manufactures and Minerals. They were formerly based on the 1958 Industrial Censuses.

31. 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 ²
1945.....	4,750	-----	3,470,000	-----	38,000,000	0.31
1946.....	4,985	-----	4,600,000	-----	116,000,000	1.04
1947.....	3,693	-----	2,170,000	-----	34,600,000	.30
1948.....	3,419	-----	1,960,000	-----	34,100,000	.28
1949.....	3,606	-----	3,030,000	-----	50,500,000	.44
1950.....	4,843	-----	2,410,000	-----	38,800,000	.33
1951.....	4,737	-----	2,220,000	-----	22,900,000	.18
1952.....	5,117	-----	3,540,000	-----	59,100,000	.48
1953.....	5,091	-----	2,400,000	-----	28,300,000	.22
1954.....	3,468	-----	1,530,000	-----	22,600,000	.18
1955.....	4,320	-----	2,650,000	-----	28,200,000	.22
1956.....	3,825	-----	1,900,000	-----	33,100,000	.24
1957.....	3,673	-----	1,390,000	-----	16,500,000	.12
1958.....	3,694	-----	2,060,000	-----	23,900,000	.18
1959.....	3,708	-----	1,880,000	-----	69,000,000	.50
1960.....	3,333	-----	1,320,000	-----	19,100,000	.14
1961.....	3,367	-----	1,450,000	-----	16,300,000	.11
1962.....	3,614	-----	1,230,000	-----	18,600,000	.13
1963.....	3,362	-----	941,000	-----	16,100,000	.11
1964.....	3,655	-----	1,640,000	-----	22,900,000	.15
1965.....	3,963	-----	1,550,000	-----	23,300,000	.15
1966.....	4,405	-----	1,960,000	-----	25,400,000	.15
1967.....	4,595	-----	2,870,000	-----	42,100,000	.25
1966: January.....	238	389	113,000	140,000	1,090,000	.08
February.....	252	421	101,000	138,000	928,000	.07
March.....	336	536	217,000	265,000	1,410,000	.10
April.....	403	614	227,000	392,000	2,600,000	.19
May.....	494	720	240,000	340,000	2,870,000	.21
June.....	499	759	161,000	265,000	2,220,000	.15
July.....	448	704	286,000	347,000	3,100,000	.23
August.....	442	718	117,000	310,000	3,370,000	.22
September.....	422	676	132,000	226,000	1,780,000	.13
October.....	410	651	191,000	255,000	2,190,000	.16
November.....	288	533	126,000	234,000	2,150,000	.15
December.....	173	389	49,000	158,000	1,670,000	.12
1967: January.....	286	443	94,000	163,000	1,250,000	.09
February.....	292	485	104,000	159,000	1,280,000	.10
March.....	368	545	130,000	195,000	1,510,000	.10
April.....	462	638	398,000	439,000	2,540,000	.19
May.....	528	769	278,000	585,000	4,410,000	.30
June.....	472	759	212,000	405,000	4,930,000	.33
July.....	389	682	665,000	865,000	4,330,000	.32
August.....	392	689	91,000	233,000	2,860,000	.18
September.....	415	681	373,000	474,000	6,160,000	.45
October.....	449	727	179,000	459,000	7,110,000	.47
November.....	360	653	277,000	559,000	3,210,000	.22
December.....	182	445	74,000	210,000	2,550,000	.18
1968: January ³	310	470	135,000	211,000	2,520,000	.17
February ³	330	500	232,000	326,000	3,780,000	.27
March ³	330	510	130,000	302,000	3,550,000	.25
April ³	490	690	438,000	545,000	4,910,000	.32
May ³	600	810	252,000	580,000	5,650,000	.37
June ³	500	750	167,000	331,000	4,260,000	.30
July ³	370	630	163,000	316,000	3,810,000	.25
August ³	420	690	140,000	290,000	3,660,000	.24
September ³	400	670	151,000	268,000	2,820,000	.20
October ³	480	720	267,000	379,000	3,570,000	.22
November ³	270	500	112,000	224,000	2,210,000	.16
December ³	200	410	107,000	170,000	1,650,000	.11
1969: January ³	320	480	182,000	255,000	3,380,000	.22
February ³	330	500	137,000	266,000	2,590,000	.19

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 The idleness as a percent of estimated working time figures were revised in 1968 to reflect a more comprehensive base of working time by the inclusion of agricultural and government employment. For details see "Total Economy Measure of Strike Idleness," in Monthly Labor Review, October 1968, p. 54-56.

³ Preliminary.

32. Output per man-hour, hourly compensation and unit labor costs, private economy, seasonally adjusted

[Indexes 1957-59 = 100]

Year and quarter	Output		Man-hours		Output per man-hour		Compensation per man-hour ¹		Real compensation per man-hour ²		Unit labor costs	
	Private	Private nonfarm	Private	Private nonfarm	Private	Private nonfarm	Private	Private nonfarm	Private	Private nonfarm	Private	Private nonfarm
1967: 1st quarter.....	146.0	147.7	110.8	115.6	131.8	127.8	148.2	143.9	129.3	125.5	112.5	112.7
2d quarter.....	146.6	148.4	109.7	115.1	133.6	128.9	150.7	145.9	130.5	126.3	112.8	113.2
3d quarter.....	147.9	149.5	110.4	115.4	134.0	129.5	152.9	148.3	131.0	127.1	114.1	114.5
4th quarter.....	149.3	151.0	111.0	116.1	134.6	130.0	155.2	150.4	131.8	127.8	115.3	115.7
Annual average.....	147.5	149.1	110.5	115.6	133.5	129.0	151.7	147.2	130.6	126.6	113.7	114.1
1968: 1st quarter.....	151.7	153.7	111.4	116.6	136.2	131.9	159.1	154.5	133.8	129.9	116.9	117.1
2d quarter.....	154.1	156.0	112.2	117.6	137.3	132.7	161.2	156.2	134.0	129.9	117.4	117.8
3d quarter.....	156.0	158.2	112.8	118.4	138.3	133.5	164.1	158.6	134.8	130.2	118.7	118.8
4th quarter.....	157.4	159.6	112.7	118.4	139.7	134.8	167.7	161.9	136.1	131.4	120.1	120.2
Annual average.....	154.8	156.9	112.3	117.7	137.9	133.3	163.1	157.9	134.7	130.4	118.3	118.5
Percent change from previous quarter ³												
1967: 1st quarter.....	-0.4	-0.7	0.2	0	-0.6	-0.7	1.2	1.4	1.0	1.3	1.8	2.2
2d quarter.....	0.4	0.5	-0.9	-0.4	1.4	0.9	1.7	1.4	1.0	0.7	0.3	0.5
3d quarter.....	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.5	1.4	1.6	0.4	0.6	1.2	1.2
4th quarter.....	0.9	0.9	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.4	1.5	1.4	0.6	0.5	1.1	1.0
1968: 1st quarter.....	1.6	1.8	0.4	0.4	1.2	1.4	2.6	2.7	1.5	1.7	1.3	1.2
2d quarter.....	1.6	1.5	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.6	1.3	1.1	0.1	0.0	0.5	0.5
3d quarter.....	1.3	1.4	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.6	1.8	1.5	0.6	0.3	1.1	0.9
4th quarter.....	0.9	0.9	-0.1	0	1.0	0.9	2.2	2.1	1.0	0.9	1.2	1.1
Annual percent change ⁴												
Year ending—												
1968: 1st quarter.....	2.4	2.3	0.2	0.4	2.2	1.8	6.4	6.3	3.3	3.3	4.1	4.4
2d quarter.....	3.2	3.1	0.8	0.9	2.4	2.2	6.6	6.6	3.1	3.2	4.1	4.3
3d quarter.....	4.1	4.1	1.3	1.5	2.7	2.6	6.9	6.8	3.0	3.0	4.1	4.1
4th quarter.....	5.0	5.2	1.6	1.9	3.3	3.3	7.5	7.3	3.2	3.0	4.1	3.9

¹ Wages and salaries of employees plus employers' contributions for social insurance and private benefit plans. Also includes an estimate of wages, salaries, and supplementary payments for the self-employed.

² Compensation per man-hour adjusted for changes in the consumer price index.

³ Percent change based on aggregates.

⁴ Average for 12 months ending with quarter, divided by average for preceding 12 months.

SOURCE: Output data from the Office of Business Economics, U.S. Department of Commerce. Man-hours and compensation of all persons from the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

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How much
does the cost
of living
vary from place
to place?



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Spring, 1967. Bulletin 1570-5
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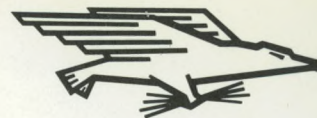
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