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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

U.S. Department of Labor
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February 1988

The Labor Department at 75



MAR 2 8



William B. Wilson
1913-1921



James J. Davis
1921-1930



William N. Doak
1930-1933



Frances Perkins
1933-1945



Lewis B. Schwellenbach
1945-1948



Maurice J. Tobin
1948-1953



Martin P. Durkin
Jan.-Sept. 1953



James P. Mitchell
1953-1961



Authur J. Goldberg
1961-1962



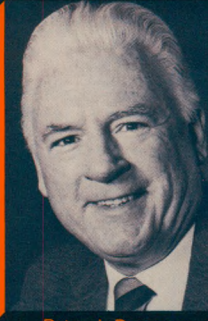
W. Willard Wirtz
1962-1969



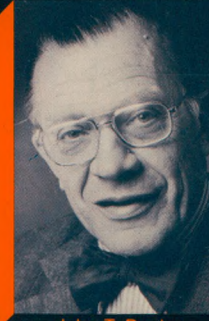
George P. Shultz
1969-1970



James D. Hodgson
1970-1973



Peter J. Brennan
1973-1975



John T. Dunlop
1975-1976



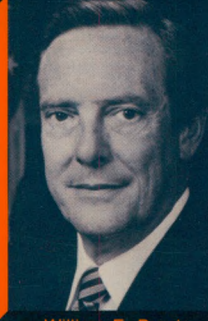
W. J. Usery, Jr.
1976-1977



Ray Marshall
1977-1981



Raymond J. Donovan
1981-1985



William E. Brock
1985-1987



Ann McLaughlin
1987-



U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
Ann McLaughlin, Secretary

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Janet L. Norwood, Commissioner

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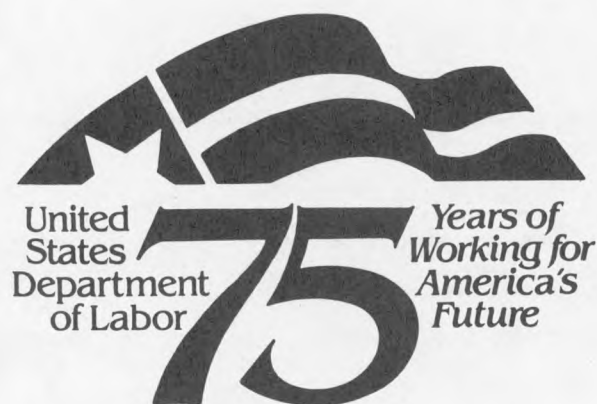
Henry Lowenstern, Editor-in-Chief
Robert W. Fisher, Executive Editor

THE LABOR DEPARTMENT AT 75

A department to protect workers' equity <i>The Labor Department attests to the ability of institutions to act on the social justice impulse rationally and democratically</i>	Jack Barbash	3
The careers of 18 Labor Secretaries <i>The role of a Secretary of Labor and his or her record is shaped by a combination of personal qualities and circumstances</i>	Jonathan Grossman	11
How the workplace has changed in 75 years <i>Dramatic developments in the economy and labor force have required changes in working conditions and standards</i>	Walter Licht	19
Gender, race, and Labor Department policies <i>Promoting equal job opportunity for women and minority men, of little concern originally, gained in the '60s and '70s</i>	Eileen Boris, Michael Honey	26
Reflections of eight former Secretaries <i>Men who headed the department in the last quarter-century assess achievements and disappointments in office</i>		
Labor-management relations a high priority: 1961-62	Arthur J. Goldberg	37
Humanitarian initiatives during the 1960's	Willard Wirtz	39
Enactment of OSHA: ingenious compromises	James D. Hodgson	41
A benchmark of progress: 1973-75	Peter J. Brennan	44
Some recollections of a brief tenure	John T. Dunlop	46
Government's role in labor-management cooperation	W. J. Usery, Jr.	49
Establishing an agenda for the Department of Labor	Ray Marshall	52
Workforce 2000 recognizes need to improve skills	William E. Brock	54

OTHER ARTICLES AND DEPARTMENTS

Job gains strong in 1987; unemployment rate declines <i>As the economic expansion reached the 5-year mark, the unemployment rate dropped below 6 percent</i>	Mark G. Ulmer, Wayne J. Howe	57
Major agreements expiring next month		68
Developments in industrial relations		70
Current labor statistics		73



To mark the 75th year of the Department of Labor as a Cabinet agency, the *Monthly Labor Review* asked several distinguished scholars to assess the impact of the Department on the work force and on the workplace. At the same time, the *Review* invited former Secretaries of Labor to reflect on their tenures and each to identify the most significant achievement of his departmental administration as well as his biggest disappointment.

Reflections of eight former Secretaries who responded to the invitation appear in these pages, together with assessments by the scholars. The *Review* will publish other historical articles in subsequent issues.

In commissioning these articles, the *Review* asked the authors to interpret events in accordance with their professional judgments, without conformance to any "official" view of the Department's history.

The special section was edited by *Monthly Labor Review* staff members Olivia G. Amiss, Anna H. Hill, Leslie Brown Joyner, Merv Knobloch, and Mary Kay Rieg.

The *Review* also received help from James F. Taylor, the coordinator of the Department's Diamond Jubilee Observance, and from historian Henry P. Guzda, designer Richard L. Mathews, and artist Richard L. Townsend, all of the Department.

A department to protect workers' equity

*The Labor Department stands as testament
to the ability of institutions to act
on the social justice impulse
rationally and democratically*

JACK BARBASH

Half a century ago, John R. Commons spoke of "a new equity that will protect the job just as the older equity protected the business."¹ Commons' concept of equity comes closest, for me, to getting at the bundle of rights implied by the U.S. Department of Labor's statutory mission "to foster, promote and develop the welfare of wage earners of the United States. . . ."²

A generation after Commons, Professor Richard A. Lester of Princeton University captured the modern essence of equity in his "welfare concept." The welfare concept encompasses the "network of employer obligations and employee rights that involve not only the dignity and well-being of the individual worker but also the security and well-being of the members of his family."³

This article takes as its standpoint the precept that the modern state requires a department of labor or equivalent to guarantee equity as a necessary condition of social stability. Our focus is on how this equity idea has fared in theory and practice over the 75 years of Department of Labor guarantorship.

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The meaning of equity

Equity starts with the premise that labor as a commodity differs from inanimate commodities in having a live human being attached to it. Indeed, the beginnings of the state interest in the labor question are closely associated with the moral outrage provoked by industrialism's treatment of labor as if it were only an inanimate commodity.

In common with the rest of the Western World, the United States has come to a broad consensus that labor as a human resource is entitled to protection against the most grievous consequences of gross exploitation, autocratic management, pervasive insecurity, and unhealthful work. Therefore, equity in employment has come to mean: (1) fair compensation; (2) security of job expectation; (3) reasonable treatment at work, including voice, participation, and representation; (4) due process in the resolution of perceived injustice; and (5) a safe and healthful workplace.

Equity for wage earners is deemed so necessary to social stability that state intervention to this end has been allowed to override freedom of contract and the free market. But equity is achieved not only by law but also through collective bargaining and management policy, the latter frequently referred to as human resource

management. Indeed, a discipline called industrial relations has emerged in the last half-century or so. The essence of industrial relations is equity. Its first principle is that equity is a condition of efficiency and, conversely, resources to pay for equity have to be generated by efficiency. The art of industrial relations consists of the right mix of efficiency and equity.

The Labor Department's theory and practice of equity appears to have been shaped by: (1) Great Events in the nature of labor policy watersheds; (2) the policy directions which presidents and their Labor Secretaries have drawn from these Great Events; (3) external and internal pressure groups and coparticipants in labor policy; and (4) the state of the arts in labor policy—labor standards, labor relations, labor market policy, equal opportunity, wage-price policy, and statistics and information.

Great Events

The Great Event is a critical development in the nature of war, mass unemployment, or a seminal idea providing the leverage for policy. The Great Events for the Department of Labor have been its founding, World War I, World War II, the Great Depression and the New Deal, the Great Society, and the Reagan revolution. The Department does not, of course, stop living in between. The Great Event establishes a dominant theme for the period ahead until the next Great Event comes along.

The Department's founding grew out of the facts of American industrial development. "Big industry, big business and the related social and political problems and benefits" came between the Civil War and World War I.⁴ Not unlike its British precursor a century earlier, the American industrial revolution brought in its wake, as Carroll D. Wright (the founding father of the movement for a labor bureau) surveyed the state of opinion in the 1880's: "(1) the breakup of home life by woman and child labor; (2) unhealthy conditions of labor; (3) increasing intemperance and dissipation; (4) increasing crime and prostitution; and (5) intellectual degeneracy of the worker." But Wright was confident that "if the Bureau of Labor showed government the truth the government would act in a humane and logical way for all the people."⁵ And even before Wright, in 1868, William H. Sylvis of the Molders Union—perhaps the first trade union leader of national stature—called for a Federal department of labor in words later to be used in the Department's founding statute, "to foster and promote. . . labor above all interests" and to act as labor's voice in the councils of government.⁶

On the eve of his appointment in 1913, William B. Wilson, the first Secretary of Labor, agonized over "slavery. . . in the mines, in lumber camps and in the steel plants. . . 1,700,000 children under 15 work[ing] 10 and 12 hours a day [and] government by injunction always in the interest of capital and never in the interest of labor."⁷

The Labor Department's founding was more important for its portents than for initial accomplishments. "The first labor laws were little more than the declarations of public policy against the exploitation of little children and, later, women."⁸ The Department's founding legitimized the labor question as worthy of public policy and raised the banner of social justice for wage earners as the Department's marching orders.

The purpose of World War I mobilization was to win a war, not to advance labor equity. But the need to cope with labor shortages and strikes which interfered with mobilization gave the new Department and the unions the leverage to press for labor standards equity. World War I also brought the Department to prominence and gave it its first experience with large-scale administration of labor policy.

Immediately after the war, obscurity returned to the Department, lasting until the next Great Event, the New Deal. The labor movement suffered a similar fate but only after a social convulsion which, for a moment, looked to many as if the Russian Revolution had crossed the Atlantic.

Frances Perkins, riding the New Deal momentum, presided over the creation of a modern labor policy and a modern department whose outlines she sketched early in her tenure:⁹

- I. Employment:
 - a. Steady work in private enterprise
 - b. Emergency work on public-works projects
 - c. Adequate facilities for securing jobs . . .
 - d. Adequate facilities for training . . .
- II. Conditions of employment:
 - a. Reasonably short hours of labor
 - b. Adequate annual income from wages
 - c. Safe and healthful physical conditions of work
 - d. Practical industrial relations based on:
 - (i) Collective bargaining
 - (ii) Conciliation, mediation, and arbitration through Government agencies
 - e. Elimination of child labor
- III. Social security:
 - a. Adequate provision as a matter of right when incapacitated to earn [as a result of] accident, industrial disease, unemployment, or old age
- IV. Social and living conditions:
 - a. Practical low-cost housing designed and built with wage-earner cooperation
 - b. Adult education planned and conducted with wage-earner cooperation



William B. Wilson

- c. Relief and ordinary rehabilitation of the victim of the unemployment crisis with wage-earner cooperation
- d. Community life (civic, social, cultural) designed to include wage-earner participation
- e. Assimilation of the foreign-born workers by the administration of the naturalization acts for this purpose.

World War II brought in new initiatives and refurbished old ones. Again, equity was not the war's primary purpose but the ensuing full employment served as equity's main chance. Manpower planning and mobilization and comprehensive systems of labor dispute resolution and wage policy amounting to compulsory arbitration opened new frontiers of labor policy, but in this war, administered by agencies independent of the Labor Department, the Department was relegated to a supporting role. A resurgent labor movement, even though divided, was now able to speak up vigorously for equity.

Policy directions

The big push for the Great Society came during President Lyndon Johnson's administration but many of its seeds were planted in the years of Presidents Eisenhower and Kennedy. The U.S.S.R's threat to "our preeminence" in the efficient production of goods prompted Secretary James P. Mitchell, in his 1959 annual report, to call for "a substantial increase in employment, improvement in the quality of our labor force and the more effective utilization of existing skill."¹⁰ President Kennedy and Secretary of Labor Arthur J. Goldberg presided over the pioneering Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962.

Manpower policy, geared successively to automation, depressed areas, and the young, evolved under the Johnson Great Society into a wholesale attack on the causes of poverty. It was not a "matter of adjusting to change," Secretary Willard Wirtz wrote in his annual report, or being "on the defensive against change. . .but how to be on the offensive with change and make it an influence for a man's deliverance, instead of. . .his destruction."¹¹ "The door of economic opportunity had opened for the great majority of Americans. . .but prospects for advancement for minorities and women remained bleak."¹²

The Great Society sought to break down the structural barriers of race, gender, age, ethnicity, depressed areas, obsolete skills, and discrimination resistant to aggregate-demand, full-employment strategies. Intervention by way of social policy was also necessary because aggregate demand alone was insufficient.

The Labor Department became "primarily a manpower department"¹³ deep into programs

for youth, veterans, hard-core unemployed, public job creation, able-bodied poor on welfare, welfare reform—in effect, adding "an active manpower policy. . .to fiscal and monetary policies that had been the chief tools for attaining 'full employment.'"¹⁴

The Reagan Presidency turned away from the New Deal and Great Society as Eisenhower, Nixon, and Ford had not. To be sure, their Secretaries had points of difference with the past. Secretary George P. Shultz thought the emphasis on strike avoidance was misplaced. Strikes served the function of confronting unions with the costs of uneconomic demands. Secretary John T. Dunlop objected strenuously to the undue legalism in labor policy.

The Reagan revolution was the culmination of two mutually reinforcing tendencies: (1) America's fall from preeminence in the world economy and (2) the emergence of a conservative tide in rebellion against the welfare state. The Labor Department in particular was criticized by the Heritage Foundation for its "general bias in favor of organized labor. . .and its general distrust of business."¹⁵ Equity's dysfunctions in the unionized sector—low productivity, high labor costs, inflexible work rules, and unions with too much power—now moved into center-stage.

Secretary Raymond J. Donovan, following up on the Reagan mandate, put the Department through, as he said, a "long and sometimes painful process of reevaluation and restructuring" to make it "leaner, more efficient and more purposeful." "Private cooperation" replaced "government confrontation," especially evident in the Occupational Safety and Health Administration's "first voluntary compliance program." Training was put "where it belongs, in partnership with the private sector."¹⁶

Relations with the unions turned unfriendly and hostile throughout the Donovan term. Secretary William E. Brock, who replaced Donovan, brought better union relations.¹⁷

Style differences

We need to say something about the diverse styles of the Secretaries to give substance to the President-Secretary relationship as an important variable.

Frances Perkins' long tenure in a time of crisis under a President who gave her free rein makes her unique both as to her strengths and failings.¹⁸ Her career provides almost a composite of the Labor Secretary's job specifications. It is also helpful that her times are sufficiently documented and removed from the present to allow something like a detached judgment.

As to her strengths: She had the President's full trust and the New Deal momentum to allow unparalleled freedom of action. Never wanting to be anything else, she stayed at the job long enough to master it completely; and perhaps, she felt, too long—as she kept telling the President in her unavailing attempts to resign during Franklin D. Roosevelt's third and fourth terms. She was a thorough professional by training, experience, and commitment even before her accession to the Cabinet. She was moved by a profound passion for social justice rooted in deeply held religious beliefs. But she nonetheless understood the limits of power—particularly of executive power—in enforcing social justice in a Federal democratic system.

Secretary Perkins fell somewhat short of being the “compleat” Secretary of Labor as we think of it. Neither she nor any other Secretary could successfully enforce the Labor Department's primacy in the labor field. There was little political side to her when it came to dealing with the Congress. And, perhaps for the same reason, she could not be one of the boys when it came to dealing with union leaders. She was probably more pro-labor than pro-union.

Pressure groups

In a democracy, the state intercedes for equity in the employment relationship in an environment of pluralism, pressure groups, and politics. The pressure groups that matter most to the Department, and for whom the Department matters most, are (1) the trade unions; (2) business; (3) the Department civil service: that is, Weber's classic bureaucracy; and (4) public interest pressure groups: that is, academic associations, learned societies, protective organizations on behalf of women, children, health, and so forth, sometimes—but never here—referred to negatively as “do-gooders.”

Day in, day out, the unions form probably the most persistent pressure group. They have the electoral, lobbying, and research resources; they employ staff experts to monitor agencies and policies; finally, in some indefinite sense, union leaders think of the Labor Department as “their” department. Most significantly, the unions constitute the single most important political base for the Department's programs.

Union influence varies from administration to administration. Democratic administrations are as capable of crossing union interests in any specific case as are Republican administrations. Conversely, most administrations do not deliberately incur the enmity of the unions. At the very least, they will make a bow in the union direction: Many Republican administrations typically do more to conciliate union interests.

Access to the state is necessary to the unions because the state's policies affect vital union interests. Even though American unions view public policy as auxiliary to collective bargaining, the state and the Department are, nonetheless, strategic resources for achieving most union ends; more so in times of adversity when collective bargaining power tends to wane. It is therefore rare for the union movement to sever diplomatic relations altogether with the administration in power.

The vehicles through which the unions, like other groups, seek to press their interests are lobbying, advisory committees, appointment of union officials to Department of Labor posts, and tripartism. Pressure group relationships are not one-way. The Department uses these vehicles as forums for the airing of tensions before they erupt publicly. Pressure group representatives on advisory committees, for example, are good sounding boards on how far or how little the Department and its agencies can go. John Dunlop has made the point that there is not enough interaction between the interest groups and the state. “The rulemaking and adjudicatory procedures do not include a mechanism for the development of mutual accommodation among the conflicting interests.”¹⁹

The incentive to settle questions in dispute between unions and the Department is greater in Democratic administrations because the parties, as political allies, are reluctant to bring disagreements out into the open.

Business spokesmen are more likely to want to restrain labor policy initiatives; the unions to advance them. Business' Department, so to speak, is historically Commerce; agribusiness' Department is, of course, Agriculture. Neither of these is centrally important to unions. But business is far from *un*-influential in the Labor Department. The Department cannot afford to have its evenhandedness questioned by business.

In Republican administrations, business groups will have much to say about the Department, with many occupants of the top posts recruited from the business community. Even Democratic administrations will include some personnel recruited because of their business background. Just as rare is a Republican administration that does not try to recruit some officeholders from the ranks of Republican labor leaders. An administration which wants to make a particularly strong bid for union support will appoint Secretaries from union circles even if they are Democrats. This invariably puts a heavy strain on the relationship. The official from the union ranks has to prove to his labor constituency that he has not sold out. For its part, a Republican administration cannot go so far in acquiescing to union demands as to raise



Frances Perkins

questions in party and business circles as to whose side the administration is really on. There is some sentiment in the unions that they are better off under a Republican administration with a nonunionist Labor Secretary, like a George Shultz, James Mitchell, or William Brock.

Many union officials have occupied subcabinet posts in the Department and some have even become Secretaries of Labor. But few officials at the top of a union or very close to it are inclined toward high government positions because of the job's impermanence, their unease with bureaucracy, the constant strain on their loyalties, and a sense of loss of autonomy. Union professionals—economists, lawyers, and so forth—do better in government where, by contrast, they are likely to feel less constrained than in the union.

Interagency relations

The Department of Labor also needs to find its way around interagency rivalries, intradepartmental interests, and the convolutions of Presidential politics. The Department is, therefore, as much a standard-bearer for equity as it is equity's exclusive representative.

The Department's influence over labor policy areas is uneven. Only the Secretary of Labor can range over the entire terrain and then mostly as spokesman and advocate, not as policymaker, which is actually quite circumscribed. Subject to the allocation of power within the Labor Department, the Department is most influential in labor standards and labor market policies and preeminent in statistics and information.

The Labor Department is influential in maintaining equal opportunity employment among Federal contractors. Other agencies enforce equal opportunity in private sector employment. The Department is also influential in unemployment insurance administration, which it shares with the States. The rest of Social Security is the jurisdiction of the Social Security Administration in the Department of Health and Human Services.

The Department plays a supporting role in labor relations policy in the private sector where the brunt of the action is borne by the National Labor Relations Board (NLRB). Wage-price policy (or, as the Europeans call it, incomes policy) becomes the responsibility of ad hoc agencies outside of the Department, agencies noted for their impermanence. Finally, the Department functions by precept, as it were, in areas where it lacks coercive sanctions. This has been the case in the Children's and Women's Bureaus, in State labor standards, and, most recently, in labor-management cooperative programs.

The Department's influence is, of course, circumscribed by the Congress and by the courts. The heyday of the courts and the States in labor policy was the half-century or so prior to the New Deal. The leading role of the Federal executive branch in labor policy began with the New Deal. The Reagan Presidency marked a resurgence of State interest and some lessening of the Federal role. But the States are still far from equal partnership in labor policy.

Department unity has had to contend with the fragmenting effects of intradepartmental decentralization. The Department "has traditionally operated as a group of independent 'administrations,' each carrying out its own programmatic mission largely independently with limited central direction and control . . . a key element of Labor's organizational 'culture' for many years," concluded a General Accounting Office report.²⁰

Equity is a means to extraneous ends as much as it is an end in itself. The equity gains achieved in time of war, for example, are mostly the price which unions demand for cooperation in reducing strikes and wage claims. When the contingency serving as equity's leverage passes, the situation can revert to the *status quo ante*, as happened after World War I. Or, when circumstances allow, equity continues to advance after the crisis, as after World War II.

At times, the state and the Labor Department are moved to assert species of "pure" equity; that is, equity is primary rather than secondary. The Great Society and New Deal appear to be the paramount examples here. In more recent times, the Department has had to restrain its advocacy of equity in the interests of retarding inflationary pressures and advancing the free and flexible market principle.

State of the art

By the state of the art, we mean (1) what's in and what's out in labor policy; (2) the growing emphasis on methodology in the administration of labor policy; and (3) the emergence of a formal "public interest" standpoint.

Substantive policy has alternated (relatively speaking) between (a) free and regulated markets; (b) full employment and varying levels of unemployment; (c) "pro" unionism and "anti" unionism; and (d) selective and comprehensive labor standards.

Public policy in the economy at large has moved from "free" markets, as the term was commonly understood, to the interventionist push of the Progressive era checked by the courts, to World War I mobilization, to free market "normalcy" of the 1920's, to macroeconomic intervention of the New Deal and World War II, and the Great Society to Reagan dereg-

"By the state of the art we mean 'what's in and what's out' . . ."

ulation and, currently, the prospect of counter-regulation.²¹

The New Deal sought to cope with mass unemployment, but full employment would be attained only under conditions of a war economy. The achievement of full employment or near it led to concern over sections of the population excluded from it because of race, color, gender, or skill obsolescence. Phillips-curve theory led to the conclusion that a little unemployment need not be a dangerous thing; it *may* even be a necessary condition for a price-stable economy.

The passage and constitutionality of the Wagner Act represented the high point in "pronoun" labor policy, we now know. World War II consolidated union gains by sustaining full employment and by discouraging counterunion offensives. Taft-Hartley and Landrum-Griffin marked declines in union membership, at first relatively and later absolutely. Union efforts to remove legislative impediments to organizing lately came a cropper even though endorsed by the administration which the unions had worked to elect. But it took the great recession of the early 1980's to reverse the labor relations field decisively, a process assisted by the "tilt" in NLRB decisions. The antiunion effects of recession have now become permanent. As noted, the Labor Department has had to address labor relations pathologies of racketeering and embezzlement.

The point is usually made that U.S. labor relations policy is mostly procedural, not substantive. Maybe. Within the Department of Labor's realm, the Fair Labor Standards Act, the Walsh-Healy Act, and the Davis-Bacon Act put wage floors under nonunion competition and, in effect, raised the bargaining threshold, as did the Occupational Safety and Health Act (OSHA) and the employers' legal *obligation* to bargain health and pensions.

In the United States, as everywhere, outrage at the plight of women and children in early industrialization ushered in state intervention on behalf of more-civilized labor standards. The New Deal extended *minimum* wage regulation to all private sector employment in commerce, and *prevailing* wages for work under Federal contract. Labor standards protection has been additionally extended to "undocumented aliens," plant safety, and, in one large stride, to the health effects of modern—particularly chemical—production technologies, so to speak, from the quantity of life's goods to the quality of life at work.

Comparable worth and pay equity grew out of demands by the feminist movement with eventual effects on the entire structure of compensation. At the moment, the action for pay equity comes mainly through the States and court liti-

gations, not from congressional action which the Reagan administration has opposed.

Secretary Ray Marshall, in his farewell annual report, described succinctly the road we have traveled in labor policy.²²

Workers are now assured that they will not be unfairly discriminated against on the basis of their race, religion, national origin, sex or race. Basic wage standards have been provided. Income and other protections have been enacted to assist the unemployed, the poor, our retired citizens, and those who experience work-related medical problems.

We attempt to protect workers against the perils of occupational diseases and injuries. We provide opportunities for job training and public service work for those who are unemployed. We have enacted a variety of laws to assure fair treatment for those with special needs.

In 1962, President Kennedy told a Yale audience that what the times needed were "sophisticated solutions to complex and obstinate issues . . . not some grand warfare of rival ideologies."²³ This is a concept, it seems to me, of a "positive" or "public interest" policy in which the agenda is shaped by government. As Kennedy's Secretary of Labor Arthur Goldberg said, government ought to "assert and define the national interest."²⁴

Positive public policy contrasts with partisan public policy. In the latter, the balance of pressure group power shapes public policy. The Wagner Act and the Taft-Hartley Act are examples of the latter; manpower policy of the 1960's, wage-price policy, OSHA, and equal opportunity are offered as examples of the former.

Positive public policy purports to be above pressure groups. The new discipline or science of "policy analysis" practiced by a new breed of social scientists, including economists and statisticians, and by behavioral, computer, and environmental scientists is very prominent in the making of labor policy.

The new policy sciences have undoubtedly narrowed the zones of disagreement. But they have not altogether replaced what Commons once called "due process of thinking,"²⁵ which includes "public hearing, notice of hearing and related procedures . . . the discovery through investigation and negotiation of what is the best practicable thing to do under the actual circumstances of conflicting economic interest."²⁶

No source has fed the movement of equity from social reform to "due process" of thinking and policy science more than the Labor Department itself. The Department's technique of policy analysis through investigation, research, administration, and evaluation has been fed back into the industrial relations environment to become part of the general stock of expert knowl-

"The essence of industrial relations . . . pay equity grew out of demands by the feminist movement. . . ."

edge, skill, and methodology. The willingness of the parties to industrial relations to act on this stock has undoubtedly normalized the labor bargain from class confrontation into something like an economic transaction.

There are still confrontations; nor have differences in interests been eradicated. But the struggles that rocked the industrial relations of the past are much less important in determining today's outcomes. Some part of this is due to the related process of industrial relations professionalism and the substitution of policy for trial by ordeal.

The Consumer Price Index is a good example of how a formula regularizes changes in the wage bargain and makes possible the practice of the long-term contract. Bureau of Labor Statis-

tics data have interacted with other influences to create a field and discipline, if not yet a full-dress science of industrial relations, with journals, professional associations, university degrees, and research institutions.

Vital differences still exist in industrial relations. They have only been moderated and civilized, not removed, by knowledge and technique. There is still room for mediation by human judgment, humane values, and the precepts of human experience.

The Department of Labor's implementation of equity began with an impulse to social justice. The Department stands as a testament—although it is much more than that—to the ability of institutions to act on the social justice impulse rationally and democratically; and yes, equitably. □

—FOOTNOTES—

¹ John R. Commons, *Legal Foundations of Capitalism* (New York, Macmillan, 1924), p. 307. Commons was a University of Wisconsin professor who, with his students and colleagues, laid much of the intellectual groundwork for the "new equity."

² Public Law 426, 62d Cong.

³ Richard A. Lester, "Revolution in Industrial Employment," in E. Wight Bakke, Clark Kerr, and Charles W. Anrod, *Unions, Management and the Public* (New York, Harcourt, Brace and World, 1967), p. 471; and *Labor Law Journal*, June 1958.

⁴ Jonathan Hughes, *American Economic History*, 2d ed. (Glenview, IL, Scott Foresman, 1987), p. 307.

⁵ Quoted in James Leiby, *Carroll Wright and Labor Reform: The Origin of Labor Statistics*, Harvard Historical Monographs 46 (Cambridge, MA, Harvard University Press, 1960), p. 40.

⁶ W. B. Wilson and others, *The Anvil and the Plow: A History of the United States Department of Labor, 1913-63* (Washington, U.S. Department of Labor, 1963), p. 259.

⁷ Roger W. Babson, *W. B. Wilson and the Department of Labor* (New York, Brentano's, 1919), p. 146.

⁸ U.S. Bureau of Labor Standards, *Growth of Labor Law in the United States* (Washington, U.S. Department of Labor, 1967), p. 1.

⁹ *Anvil and the Plow*, pp. 72-74.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 191.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 253-54.

¹² Sar A. Levitan, Peter E. Carlson, and Isaac Shapiro, *Protecting American Workers* (Washington, The Bureau of National Affairs, Inc., 1986), pp. 5-6.

¹³ Jonathan Grossman, *The Department of Labor* (New York, Praeger, 1973), p. 118.

¹⁴ U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, *Research and Development, A 16-Year Compendium (1963-78)* (Washington, 1979), p. vii.

¹⁵ Heritage Foundation, *Mandate for Leadership, Policy Management in a Conservative Administration* (Washington, 1981), p. 453.

¹⁶ U.S. Department of Labor, *Annual Report* (Washington, Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1983), p. ii.

¹⁷ Marianne Means, "Labor Secretary, Pragmatic Member of Reagan Cabinet," *Seattle Post Intelligencer*, Sept. 21, 1987.

¹⁸ Based mainly on George Martin, *Madam Secretary, Frances Perkins: A Biography of America's First Woman Cabinet Member* (Boston, MA, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1976).

¹⁹ "The Limits of Legal Compulsion," *Labor Law Journal*, February 1976, p. 70.

²⁰ U.S. General Accounting Office, *Strong Leadership to Improve Management at the Department of Labor* (Washington, 1985), p. 9.

²¹ Alan Murray and Ellen Hume, "Reagan's Fiscal Policy . . .," *The Wall Street Journal*, Nov. 17, 1987, p. 1.

²² U.S. Department of Labor, *Annual Report* (Washington, Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1980), pp. vii-viii.

²³ Quoted in *The New York Times*, June 12, 1962, p. 20.

²⁴ Quoted in H. S. Roberts, "Toward an Understanding of Public Interest in Collective Bargaining," in Jack Barbash, ed., *The Labor Movement: A Re-Examination* (Madison, WI, University of Wisconsin, Industrial Relations Research Institute, 1966), p. 142.

²⁵ Commons, *Legal Foundations of Capitalism*, p. 35.

²⁶ John R. Commons, *The Economics of Collective Action* (New York, Macmillan, 1950), p. 25.

Helping workers and employers

The Labor Department's role in helping workers and employers is illustrated by the following brief excerpt from the recollections of Clara M. Beyer, who began working in the Department in 1917 during the tenure of William B. Wilson, the Department's first Secretary, and served in a number of key executive positions until 1958, when she became a labor adviser for the Agency for International Development. Mrs. Beyer, now 94, lives in Washington, DC.

Miss Perkins was a strong supporter of workers' education—training to equip workers to improve their understanding of the role of unions, the importance of the labor movement, the skills of negotiation, and matters of that sort. The Labor Department assisted workers in organizing, but so much more was left undone.

The preparation of a model shop steward's manual proved to be an interesting affair, both in its conception and eventual publication.

One day the Personnel Director from Lockheed whom I knew, came to visit me in frustration. He said, "Clara, I'm wasting such time with these trade unionists. We have a union, but the leaders just don't know how to operate, or what their functions are. I spend all my time on grievances. I've got a group in here who have come all the way to Washington to try to settle a particular issue that should be settled right in the plant without any trouble. Could you talk to those men if I send them up?"

I agreed to see them and shortly five or six men trooped into my office. I put them in a good frame of mind by asking what their troubles were, and what problems they were dealing with downstairs, how negotiations were going. I then gave them a briefing on how I conceived the union should build itself into a strong organization to enable it to handle matters in dispute without having to come to Washington. I explained why they would need to have a complete understanding with the employer on how grievances were handled, an agreed procedure for resolving disputes from beginning to end. I gave them a good trade union speech and when they said

they didn't know where to begin, I said, "Do you want me to send somebody out to help you draw up your contract with the employer?" They responded, "That would be great."

I sent out Jean Flexner, a member of my staff, to work with the union in Los Angeles. She arrived on the West Coast on December 7, 1941, the day of the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor. Despite the pandemonium she spent about a month in intensive study and observations, sitting in on meetings, talking to foremen and workers, seeing the problems as they arose, and analyzing the cause of labor troubles in the past. Out of that, she drew up a contract of understanding of whose responsibility was what, at what stage the union representative took a matter back to the management, of what information they had to have, what management similarly had to have, among other matters. She had gotten that cleared by both the union and management, and it was all pulled together in a shop steward's manual, because it was on the shop floor where trouble usually started.

When she brought back the manual, I took it around to the A.F. of L. and showed it to them. They were quite excited about it; they agreed they should have a shop steward's manual for their people. They took whole paragraphs out of the manual Jean Flexner prepared, and copied it for their own use.

With the manual serving as a model, we also developed a similar guide for management entitled, "Foreman's Guide to Settlement of Grievances." These were the forerunners of supporting publications, all of which had wide circulation and use.



The careers of 18 Labor Secretaries

*The role of a Secretary of Labor
and his or her place in history
is determined by a combination
of personal qualities—and circumstances
beyond the Secretary's control while in office*

JONATHAN GROSSMAN

On March 4, 1913, Congress created “an executive department in the Government to be called the Department of Labor, with a Secretary of Labor, who shall be the head thereof, to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate . . .” The purpose of the Department of Labor shall be “to foster, promote, and develop the welfare of the wage earners of the United States . . .”¹ In the 75 years since then, there have been 19 Secretaries from varied backgrounds and with different philosophies regarding the Department. The first three Secretaries were labor leaders. Six came from the ranks of the trade union movement. Others have been lawyers, professors, politicians, businessmen, and personnel directors.

Early secretaries

The first Secretary of Labor, William B. Wilson, would not recognize the Department over which he presided from 1913 to 1921. When he assumed office under President Woodrow Wilson, there were about 2,000 employees, of whom more than 90 percent worked

on the immigration and naturalization functions of the Department. Now there are about 18,000 employees. In 1913 (aside from immigration laws), the Department administered no statutes but today the Department is a regulatory agency.

Secretary Wilson emigrated from Scotland when he was 8 years old and soon worked 10 hours a day loading carts in a Pennsylvania coal mine. At age 14, he was secretary of a coal miners' local union. He later became secretary-treasurer of the national union. In 1906, Wilson ran for Congress and won a narrow victory. He represented the 15th Pennsylvania District for 6 years and was a leading advocate of a bill to create a Cabinet-rank Department of Labor.

As Secretary of Labor, Wilson explained that even though the purpose of the Department was to promote the welfare of American workers, “in the execution of that purpose the element of fairness to every interest is of equal importance . . . fairness between wage earner and wage earner, between wage earner and employer . . .”² Despite this declaration of fairness, however, business generally mistrusted the Department. Secretary Wilson asserted that no other Department of the Federal Government had been organized under such

Jonathan Grossman retired in January 1982 as historian of the U.S. Department of Labor.

Labor Secretaries and the Presidents they served

Secretary of Labor	Period of service	President
William B. Wilson	Mar. 4, 1913–Mar. 4, 1921	Woodrow Wilson
James J. Davis	Mar. 5, 1921–Nov. 30, 1930	Warren G. Harding Calvin Coolidge Herbert Hoover
William N. Doak	Dec. 9, 1930–Mar. 4, 1933	Herbert Hoover
Frances Perkins	Mar. 4, 1933–June 30, 1945	Franklin D. Roosevelt Harry S Truman
Lewis B. Schwellenbach	July 1, 1945–June 10, 1948 (died in office)	Harry S Truman
Maurice J. Tobin	Aug. 13, 1948–Jan. 20, 1953	Harry S Truman
Martin P. Durkin	Jan. 21, 1953–Sept. 10, 1953	Dwight D. Eisenhower
James P. Mitchell	Oct. 9, 1953–Jan. 20, 1961	Dwight D. Eisenhower
Arthur J. Goldberg	Jan. 21, 1961–Sept. 20, 1962	John F. Kennedy
W. Willard Wirtz	Sept. 25, 1962–Jan. 20, 1969	John F. Kennedy Lyndon B. Johnson
George P. Shultz	Jan. 22, 1969–July 1, 1970	Richard M. Nixon
James D. Hodgson	July 2, 1970–Feb. 1, 1973	Richard M. Nixon
Peter J. Brennan	Feb. 2, 1973–Mar. 15, 1975	Richard M. Nixon
John T. Dunlop	Mar. 18, 1975–Jan. 31, 1976	Gerald R. Ford
W. J. Usery, Jr.	Feb. 10, 1976–Jan. 20, 1977	Gerald R. Ford
Ray Marshall	Jan. 27, 1977–Jan. 20, 1981	Jimmy Carter
Raymond J. Donovan	Feb. 4, 1981–Mar. 15, 1985	Ronald Reagan
William E. Brock	Apr. 29, 1985–Oct. 31, 1987	Ronald Reagan
Ann McLaughlin	Dec. 17, 1987–	Ronald Reagan

trying circumstances. One example is the fact that although Congress had authorized the Department to conciliate labor disputes, it provided no funds for that activity. Wilson drew from the limited resources of other bureaus and created a Conciliation Division, yet neither striking workers nor employers utilized the service to any great extent.

World War I changed the situation. If a Department of Labor had not existed at the outbreak of the war, Secretary Wilson said, Congress would have had to create one. To mobilize labor, 15 departmental bureaus, services, and boards were created. The number of employees increased to more than 6,000. While it is difficult to describe the achievements of all the labor agencies participating in the war effort, a partial listing indicates their scope and significance: the U.S. Employment Service, the War Labor Policies Board, the Women in Industry Service, the Division of Negro Economics, the Farm Service Division, the Child Labor Division, the Working Conditions Service, and the U.S. Housing Corp.

In 1917, Secretary Wilson became chairman of the President's Mediation Commission, a body which mediated thousands of wartime labor disputes. The President also created the War Labor Administration to coordinate labor activities of the government. Secretary Wilson, as head of this body, advised the President to establish a National War Labor Board, the most important wartime labor agency. The cochairmen of the Board were former President William Howard Taft for employers, and famous liberal lawyer Frank P. Walsh for labor. The Board published a "Magna Carta" of labor, which included the right to organize and bargain collectively, the 8-hour workday with overtime provisions, and the right to a living wage. Labor, in return for recognition of these rights, gave up practices deemed harmful to productivity.

The Department also cooperated with the International Labor Organization (ILO). Secretary Wilson served as chairman of the first international conference of the ILO which was held in Washington in 1918.



James J. Davis

When the war ended, Congress cut back on “big” government. Wilson argued that although reductions were necessary, some of the labor-related agencies created during the war were also needed in peacetime. But Congress disagreed and the Department lost most of the functions it had gained.

In 1921, President Warren G. Harding appointed James J. Davis as his Secretary of Labor. Davis, born in Wales, emigrated to the United States as a young child and began work in a Pennsylvania steel mill at the age of 8. Although Davis later became a wealthy man, he carried a union card and liked to be called “Puddler Jim,” a name taken from one of his mill jobs.

Davis’s chief interest as Secretary was immigration. He supervised the registration of immigrants and called for restrictions in the number of aliens allowed into the country. As part of his effort to reduce the number of illegal aliens entering the country, he established a Border Patrol.

Although immigration dwarfed other Department of Labor activities, it was not its only function. Secretary Davis strengthened the role of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Without the Bureau, Davis said, labor policies of the Department would be adopted in darkness.³ Davis also encouraged labor-management cooperation and, along with Secretary of Commerce Herbert Hoover, persuaded the U.S. Steel Corp. to abolish the 12-hour workday. In addition, when women won the right to vote, a Women’s Bureau was created in the Department of Labor.

In 1930, Davis was elected to the U.S. Senate, and William N. Doak became the third Secretary of Labor. The first American-born Secretary, Doak worked as a railroad yardman and rose through the hierarchy of the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen. He was also managing editor of the union journal.

Doak was sensitive to unemployment matters and supported studies of public works programs and unemployment insurance as ways to offset the effects of the Great Depression. But economic conditions worsened during his relatively brief tenure, and he was overwhelmed by the worldwide economic disaster.

The New Deal and World War II

In 1933, President Franklin D. Roosevelt appointed Frances Perkins as Secretary of Labor. Perkins, the first woman Cabinet member and Labor Secretary with the longest tenure—1933–45—made the Department a seedbed of ideas for social reform.

Perkins wavered about accepting the position, but women’s rights groups urged her to do

so. Mary Dewson, director of the Women’s Democratic Committee, told Perkins that “generations might pass” before another woman would have such a chance. “You mustn’t say no . . . Too much hangs on it.”⁴

Most labor leaders opposed the appointment. She was the first Secretary who was not a union member. William Green, president of the American Federation of Labor, said that unions “can never become reconciled to her selection.” Perkins replied at a press conference that Green was a man of vision and integrity, and if labor leaders would not come to her, she would “hasten to see them.”⁵

Perkins’ first priority was to alleviate unemployment, and she participated in most national programs in the field, including the Federal Emergency Relief Administration which in the early days of the Depression spent millions of dollars on food, shelter, and other human needs. The Civil Works Administration created 4 million temporary jobs during the winter of 1933–34. The Works Progress Administration provided work for 8 million people. The Public Works Administration undertook large-scale construction such as schools, hospitals, and river-control projects. The Civilian Conservation Corps paid young men, between 18 and 25, \$30 a month plus board to plant trees and preserve natural resources.

The National Recovery Administration (NRA) had a significant influence on the Department of Labor. The NRA stimulated business by ignoring the antitrust laws and creating codes of “fair competition.” Labor sections of NRA codes sought to abolish child labor, called for collective bargaining, and set maximum hours of work and minimum wages. Establishments supporting NRA principles displayed a blue eagle poster. However, in a case involving a Brooklyn, NY, poultry market, the U.S. Supreme Court declared the NRA unconstitutional, finding that the Federal Government had exceeded its power to regulate interstate commerce. A “sick chicken” killed the “blue eagle,” it was reported.

Frances Perkins searched for constitutional ways to continue some of the labor activities of the NRA. Some of her ideas on the right of workers to organize and bargain collectively through representatives of their own choosing were included in the National Labor Relations Act of 1935.

But continuing NRA’s labor standards was difficult. Both employers and unions (fearing that minimums might become maximums) opposed minimum standards. But standards were important to Secretary Perkins. When she accepted the position of Secretary of Labor, she said that



William N. Doak

she wanted laws protecting children at work, a ceiling over hours of work, and a floor under wages. In 1937, Congress met in special session to consider a law drawn up in the Department of Labor to set labor standards. At first, Congress rejected the proposals. When Perkins watered down the bill, Congress adopted the diluted version as the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938.

The high point of Perkins' career came in June 1934, when she served as head of a committee that developed Social Security. She worked tirelessly on this project. Congress passed a Social Security law in 1935, which included old age insurance, unemployment insurance, and grants for relief to needy children.

Also significant during Perkins' tenure was the rejuvenation of the U.S. Employment Service. The Service germinated in 1907, when it dealt with immigrant labor. During World War I, it expanded into a large manpower agency, but contracted after the War to a minor agency. The Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933 gave it new strength as a Federal-State service which provided free job assistance. From 1933 through 1940, the new U.S. Employment Service screened and selected 26 million workers for relief projects.

Of the many laws which Frances Perkins helped create, only a few were administered by the Department of Labor. Perkins was eager to supervise Social Security, but Congress created an independent Social Security Board. Moreover, besides her failure to gain new functions, she lost some traditional activities of the Department. For example, the Immigration Service, which had been a bureau of the Department of Labor when it was created and was by far its largest unit, was transferred to the Department of Justice in 1940.

During World War II, the United States turned from programs to fight the Depression to programs to make the Nation an "Arsenal of Democracy." The tendency to place labor agencies outside the Department of Labor accelerated. At the end of the war, there were about 20 Federal labor agencies in which the Department of Labor had little influence. Between 1932 and 1945, when the number of Federal jobholders increased sixfold, the number of employees in the Labor Department dropped from 6,000 to a little more than 5,000.

From an historical perspective, Frances Perkins contributed to the advancement of the welfare of workers on a national rather than a departmental scale.

The postwar Secretaries

In 1945, Harry S Truman became President and asked Lewis B. Schwellenbach, a former Sena-

tor and Federal judge, to be the fifth Secretary of Labor. Schwellenbach had a troubled tenure. He took office during a great wave of strikes and was often bypassed by special labor advisers in the mediation of labor disputes. In 1946, Congress slashed the departmental budget from \$113 million to \$15 million. When Schwellenbach died in office in June 1948, the number of Department employees had dropped to just above 3,000, the smallest number since 1917.

In August 1949, Maurice J. Tobin, former mayor of Boston and Governor of Massachusetts, became Secretary of Labor. Tobin fought the dispersing of departmental functions and saw the Bureau of Employment Security and some early apprenticeship monitoring functions placed under his stewardship. Tobin's goal was reinforced by recommendations of the Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Federal Government, headed by former President Herbert Hoover.

Durkin and Mitchell

In January 1953, President Dwight D. Eisenhower appointed Martin P. Durkin as Secretary of Labor. Durkin, president of the plumbers and pipefitters union, and the first officer of the American Federation of Labor to become Secretary of Labor, focused on changing the Taft-Hartley Act of 1947.

The administration had said it was opposed to any law "licensing union busting." Durkin believed that the administration had agreed to revise sections of the labor law dealing with the closed shop and secondary boycotts. But the administration did not accept Durkin's proposals. Durkin felt betrayed and resigned from office after a tenure of less than 8 months.

James P. Mitchell, an industrial relations executive in private industry, replaced Durkin. Mitchell became Secretary of Labor at a difficult time. Some labor leaders called his appointment "incredible." Joseph Loftus, of *The New York Times*, observed that Mitchell "was like a man heading into an Arctic gale in a sunsuit." But Mitchell succeeded beyond expectations. He said, at the outset, that he was dedicated to fairness to all. Although the administration was viewed as promanagement, Mitchell carefully cultivated labor leaders and convinced them of his fairness.

Mitchell achieved a breakthrough when, for the first time in decades, the Secretary of Labor became the chief government spokesman for labor. Mitchell provided labor leaders with access to the President. There were no "backstairs to the White House" for either labor leaders or employers. Mitchell assumed leadership over Federal labor agencies outside the Department of Labor. He met with the heads of these agen-



Lewis B. Schwellenbach

cies and he recommended Presidential appointments to the National Labor Relations Board and the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service.

Mitchell rebuilt the morale of the Department. During the Great Depression, able young people had flocked to the Federal Government as one of the few places where they could find jobs. Most of them started at low grades. This situation had created a pool of talented people eager to serve. Mitchell "discovered" and promoted capable employees, whose superior performance enhanced the reputation of the Department of Labor.

Mitchell initiated training programs which over time became one of the most important functions of the Department of Labor. He recognized the need to upgrade the skills of the work force. He observed that the United States was losing its advantage of producing goods more efficiently than any other nation in history. Mitchell appointed experts to plan for a manpower future with a larger and more skillful work force. Later administrations greatly expanded training programs. But the 7 years and 3 months that Mitchell served as Secretary of Labor showed more than average achievement by the Department.

Goldberg and Wirtz

In 1961, when President John F. Kennedy appointed Arthur J. Goldberg as Secretary of Labor, Goldberg already had a distinguished labor career. He had helped break the power of both racketeers and Communists in several large unions. He was one of the key figures in the merger of the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations, which subsequently spoke for 15 million American workers. And shortly before becoming Secretary, Goldberg helped settle a major steel strike.

No other Secretary of Labor has had as much influence on national labor policy as Goldberg. Because of his powerful role and closeness to the President, he was eager to demonstrate that he was impartial. Although he remained friends with labor, he broke his previous associations with the labor movement, even forfeiting a pension he had earned from a union.

One of Goldberg's goals was to create a better climate between workers and their employers. A President's Advisory Committee on Labor-Management Policies, which he sponsored, furthered this goal. Goldberg advocated human relations committees in large corporations, committees which would bring both sides together before a crisis. He promoted profit sharing because it gave workers part of the "fruits" of their toil.

Goldberg was a successful mediator. He knew from experience that if there were predictable procedures of government intervention, both sides would try to use these procedures to their advantage. To prevent this tactic, Goldberg called for an array of weapons to convince bargainers that labor contracts should be in the public interest. When Goldberg was appointed to the Supreme Court after 20 months of service as Secretary of Labor, President Kennedy said that Goldberg had raised the Department of Labor to a "stature and significance which have never been surpassed."

Willard Wirtz, Goldberg's Under Secretary, succeeded him in 1962 and served 7 years. Wirtz, a former law professor, had served on several Federal labor boards during and after World War II.

Wirtz believed that the Secretary of Labor should rarely intervene in labor disputes. Wirtz noted that during his tenure, the Department scene shifted from "haggard men spending the night glaring at each other across the bargaining table," with reporters and television cameras keeping a "death watch," to one where the Department was no longer a news beat.

Wirtz was particularly interested in manpower programs. Secretary Mitchell planted the seed, Secretary Goldberg cultivated it and sponsored training as part of the Area Redevelopment Act of 1961, and Wirtz supported skill training to adapt to technological changes. He especially emphasized aid to the poor.

Quoting from the French writer Anatole France, Wirtz said "the state, with its majestic justice and equality, forbids the rich man as well as the poor man to sleep under bridges, to beg in the streets, and to steal bread." Wirtz believed that there had to be equality of opportunity, as well as equality under the law.

During Wirtz's tenure, the Department of Labor managed a variety of employment and training programs. Among these were the Neighborhood Youth Corps, New Careers, Work Incentive Programs, Job Opportunities in the Business Sector, and a program to curb job discrimination on Federal contracts. In his final report, Wirtz declared that the Department of Labor had worked toward the goal of ensuring "that every American has a full and equal opportunity to earn a decent living."

Five secretaries in eight years

There were five Secretaries of Labor between 1969 and 1977 compared with only four Secretaries during the first 32 years of the Department's history. George P. Shultz, who assumed the Secretaryship in January 1969, had been dean of the Graduate School of Business at the University of Chicago and had worked in Wash-



Maurice J. Tobin



Martin P. Durkin



James P. Mitchell

ington with various groups studying important economic problems, including construction jobs for blacks and reform of the welfare system.

Schultz led an effort to promote minority employment in the construction industry, supporting a plan to set goals on Federally funded construction projects. Under the plan, contractors had to take "affirmative action" in employing minority workers. Starting with the Philadelphia plan, targeting job increases for blacks from 4 to 26 percent of the work force over a 4-year period, the administration hoped to expand other city plans on this model.

The Philadelphia Plan pressured white-dominated unions to admit blacks. Shultz distinguished between "quotas" that he perceived wrong because of rigid parameters and goals perceived right because of inherent flexibility. The distinction has been challenged. But the Philadelphia Plan expressed Schultz's philosophy that job opportunities were better than welfare.

Along the same line of favoring jobs over welfare, Shultz promoted the Family Assistance Plan. He argued that some poor people would not accept low-paying jobs if they were better off on welfare. The plan would remove the penalty for working by making 13 million low-paid workers eligible for relief, with the hope that they would work themselves off welfare into better jobs. Schultz believed that the plan was a worthwhile gamble. After a long legislative battle, however, the Family Assistance Plan died in the Senate Finance Committee.

Shultz won friends even among those who opposed his programs. He was a good listener, and his courteous, low-key manner won respect. Although Schultz and George Meany, president of the AFL-CIO, were on different sides on many issues, they worked well together. For example, when Meany opposed the Philadelphia Plan in a speech, he dropped his usually abrupt manner when asked about Schultz's views, and said mildly: "George is mistaken."

In mid-1970, when Schultz left the Department to head the newly created Office of Management and Budget, Under Secretary James D. Hodgson was appointed as the 12th Secretary of Labor. Hodgson had worked at Lockheed Aircraft Corp. for a quarter of a century and had become vice president for industrial relations. He had a lifelong interest in what he called "people business."

Hodgson was a champion of safety in the workplace. He was especially proud of his efforts in promoting passage of the Williams-Steiger Act of 1970, which created the Occupational Safety and Health Administration. The act set safety standards in 4 million workplaces.

During Hodgson's term, the government effort to control skyrocketing construction wages came to a head. In 1971, President Nixon suspended the Davis-Bacon "prevailing wage" for Federal construction. This was a hard blow to unions in the building trades, but Hodgson supported it as part of the administration's anti-inflation policy.

George Meany led the union battle against government efforts to hold down wages, and targeted his attack against the Secretary of Labor. He boycotted Hodgson, and went over his head to deal directly with the President. At a press conference, Meany talked about Hodgson, saying, "I don't pay too much attention to the Secretary . . . if you have a problem with the landlord, you don't discuss it with the janitor." Hodgson resigned in early 1973.

Peter J. Brennan, a construction trade union leader from New York, who led a "hardhat" demonstration supporting President Nixon's Vietnam policies in 1969, became the next Secretary of Labor. He believed that the top people of the administration were out of touch with the world of workers. President Nixon said that "Pete understands real people." When the Cabinet discussed accepting a 5-percent unemployment rate, Brennan pointedly depicted the human tragedy behind unemployment statistics. He supported long-term unemployment insurance for workers who had lost their jobs. Brennan also took pride in programs that gave job opportunities to women and minorities. In addition, he reactivated the Federal Committee on Apprenticeship, and appointed the first woman in 34 years to the body and the first black in history.

In 1975, John T. Dunlop, a distinguished scholar and experienced mediator, admired by both labor and management, became Secretary of Labor. Dunlop's position was enhanced because he also served as a member of the President's economic policy group.

Secretary Dunlop began his term with a thorough study of the programs of the Department of Labor. He was interested in promoting economic stability, worker safety, and pension plans. And he took a daring gamble in the legislative field to create a better labor-management climate.

The issue of situs picketing had been a thorn in the side of organized labor since 1951, when the Supreme Court declared that a strike against only one of several contractors on a job site was an illegal secondary boycott. Labor had fought the issue for nearly a quarter of a century. Dunlop performed a near miracle when he fashioned a bill approved by leaders of labor and management.

Congress passed the bill, lifting the Taft-Hartley Act's ban on construction site second-

ary picketing. The White House received 700,000 messages, most of them negative, in a campaign by the General Contractors of America for the bill's defeat. President Ford vetoed the bill, and Dunlop resigned.

In 1976, with 11 months remaining before a Presidential election, W. J. Usery, Jr. was appointed to this "hot spot" in the Cabinet. A former official of the Machinists Union, a former Assistant Secretary of Labor, and head of the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service, Usery had earned the reputation of being among the Nation's best labor mediators. Tireless, good-natured, and with a keen sense of timing, Usery, when necessary, could keep opposing sides at round-the-clock bargaining until they hammered out a settlement. As Secretary, Usery averted a national trucking strike and also helped end a major strike in the rubber industry.

An important achievement was Usery's use of his mediation skills and his friendship with George Meany to reestablish good relations between the administration and the American labor movement.

Ray Marshall, director of the Center for the Study of Human Resources at the University of Texas, was selected as Secretary of Labor in 1977, when Jimmy Carter became President. Marshall promoted a strong economic stimulus for the Nation's wage earners, with a primary emphasis on the problems of women and minorities. He practiced what he preached by appointing women and blacks to important positions in the Department. Public Service employment jumped from 310,000 in 1976 to a peak of 725,000 in 1978 and Marshall personally supported the Humphrey-Hawkins full employment bill of 1978.

During Marshall's tenure, the Department also devoted attention to occupational safety and health programs, publishing standards dealing with hazards caused by benzene, pesticides, cotton dust, and lead.

Mine safety and health also became a Labor Department function, when Congress transferred that function to Labor from the Bureau of Mines in the Department of the Interior, where it had been since 1910.

At this time, the pace of Departmental activities quickened in many fields. With rapidly growing programs, critics denounced what they viewed as wasteful practices and government interference. But Marshall and his supporters, especially trade unions and minorities, praised this activist role in promoting the welfare of American workers.

In 1981, President Ronald Reagan appointed Raymond J. Donovan, a construction company executive, as Secretary of Labor. As 1 of 12 children in a working class family, Donovan

was sensitive to workers' needs. He had been active in charities and had spoken out strongly for social justice. He stressed economic growth as the best way to combat joblessness.

Secretary Donovan carried out the administration's policies of regulatory relief and reduced spending on social programs. He lessened the burden of regulation through policies aimed at conciliation and cooperation, with punishment reserved for serious offenders. This policy was particularly important in the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA), the most active regulatory agency in the Department. In another area, the field of social programs, billions of dollars were cut from major employment and training projects, particularly public service jobs.

Because of the direction of the administration's economic and social policies, Secretary Donovan had difficulties. But the most serious problem he faced had nothing to do with the Department of Labor. He had to divert his time from Departmental programs to defend himself against charges of wrongdoing in private ventures. Rumors of unethical business actions involving Donovan had surfaced at the time of the Senate hearings on his nomination. Despite more than 4 years of accusations, Donovan insisted he was innocent, and refused to resign, until he was indicted in March 1985. After legal proceedings lasting 2 years, he was acquitted.

In 1985, William Brock became Secretary of Labor. Prior to his appointment as Labor Secretary, he held a Cabinet-level post as U.S. Trade Representative. He also had been a businessman, a four-term congressman, a U.S. Senator, and the chairman of the Republican National Committee. Under Brock, the Labor Department embarked on a program to view the rapidly changing work force, a reaction to the socio-technical advances and economic changes in the world, and the technical and educational skills that will predominate then.

On November 3, 1987, President Ronald Reagan nominated Ann McLaughlin as the 19th Secretary of Labor. She was sworn into office on December 17, 1987. McLaughlin is the second woman to serve as the Labor Secretary.

She brings to her Cabinet position wide experience as an executive, manager, and policymaker in public and private organizations. She has served as the Under Secretary of the U.S. Department of Interior, and as Assistant Secretary of the U.S. Department of the Treasury, where she received the Department's highest honor, the Alexander Hamilton Award for distinguished leadership. McLaughlin also has headed her own consulting firm in Washington.



George P. Shultz

Differing roles

It is difficult to isolate specific accomplishments of individual Secretaries. Some landmark changes can be attributed to a particular administration. But most progress evolves over long periods of time in small increments. Dealing with unemployment, safety in the workplace, minimum wages, helping older workers, opening jobs to blacks and minorities, mitigating the conditions of farm labor, improving the quality and usefulness of labor statistics, promoting good labor-management relations—are evolutionary in nature. They are achievements of the Labor Department. Although the Secretary of Labor is often a key figure, attribution to any one Secretary is misleading.

Most important of the many-sided functions of the Secretary is the fact that he or she represents the President. It is true that some Secretaries have influenced and advised Presidents, but other Secretaries have merely carried out the administration's policies.

Also significant are the Secretary's relations with many parts of the Government. Secretaries deal with Congress and several were helped or hurt because Congress increased or cut appropriations of the Department or added or subtracted functions. The Secretary also works with fellow Cabinet members, other branches of the Federal Government, and States and localities.

Indeed, the Secretary's responsibilities extend beyond government to many segments of American society. The news media have a potent influence. The Secretary works with consumer and business interests. But the key constituency is the American worker. Although he or she promotes the interests of all American workers, the Secretary deals mostly with labor unions and their leaders by virtue of the fact that unions are organized and have representatives. The careers of some Secretaries have been enhanced by labor support, while the lives of other Secretaries have been made miserable because of poor communication with organized labor.

Personal ability is a factor. While some Secretaries have been more able than others, all of the Secretaries were above average ability. But there are so many outside factors that a Secre-

tary has sometimes performed well during one part of his or her tenure and poorly in another. This was true of two of the Secretaries. William Wilson was successful until the administration tried to hold down prices and wages to curb inflation during World War I. Frances Perkins was effective during the New Deal and ineffective during World War II.

Two Secretaries, Arthur Goldberg and George Shultz, took office under activist Presidents with whom they had extraordinarily good relations. They were successful both in their administration of Department of Labor programs and in helping shape national policy. Other Secretaries were victims of events. Doak faced the Great Depression. Post-World War II strikes and an anti-labor Congress thwarted Schwellenbach. Durkin, Dunlop, and Hodgson were trapped in the crossfire of a battle between the labor movement and the administration over national labor policy. Brennan had the Vietnam conflict and Watergate. Usery was a lame duck. Donovan was beset by events before he became Secretary. Under other circumstances, these Secretaries may or may not have had outstanding careers. The role of a Secretary of Labor and his or her place in history is determined by a combination of personal qualities and circumstances somewhat beyond his or her control during the term of office.

American life has changed greatly since the Department of Labor was established in 1913. Agriculture, once providing work for the largest number of workers, now employs less than 3 percent of the work force. There has been a major shift from heavy industry and mining to service and high technology occupations. There are now more women, more minorities, and older employees in the work force. Although the level of worker education is much higher in the Nation than in 1913, requirements will be greater in the year 2000.

In 1913, President Woodrow Wilson and Secretary of Labor William B. Wilson approved the seal of the new Department of Labor, which features a blacksmith's anvil and a plow. Today, more Americans are familiar with computers than anvils. The Department of Labor strives to meet the challenge of change. □



Raymond J. Donovan

—FOOTNOTES—

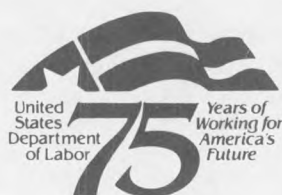
¹ Public Law 426, 62d Cong.

² *Annual Report, 1913*, quoted in O. L. Harvey, ed., *The Anvil and the Plow: U.S. Department of Labor, 1913-1963* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing office, 1963), pp. 11, 13.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 49.

⁴ George Martin, *Madame Secretary: Frances Perkins* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1976), p. 237.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 3.



How the workplace has changed in 75 years

*Dramatic developments in the economy,
in technology, and in the labor force
have required changes
in working conditions and standards*

WALTER LICHT

The Department of Labor owes its inception in 1913 to a crisis in the American workplace.¹ For four decades, starting with the great railroad strikes of July 1877, the Nation became witness to a contagion of work stoppages and protests. About 1,500 strikes a year involved more than 300,000 workers; momentous confrontations were accompanied by substantial loss of life, limb, property, and commerce.² This was the unnerving record of the period, and sufficient reason to search for answers and solutions.

Contemporary analysts can offer explanations for the industrial unrest of the late 19th and early 20th centuries: Low wages, long hours, unsafe working conditions, irregular employment, capricious supervision, and the antiunion tactics of some managers provided the visible sparks. The underlying powderkeg was the spread and fastening of the wage labor system; dampened prospects for independent producer-ship; increased specialization, weakening of skills, and mechanization of jobs; business

cycle fluctuations; the effects of immigration and urbanization; and the developing economic and political power of concentrated capital.

Gathering and reporting information about workers emerged as one remedy. Economic distress in the Nation's first industrial State, Massachusetts, compelled State legislators there to establish a Bureau of Statistics of Labor in 1869. The collection of data on the working and living conditions of the State's laboring men and women provided the basis for private and legislative reform. The success of Massachusetts' labor statistics bureau under its first effective commissioner, Carroll Wright, and other State-level experiments in social investigation served as the precedent and incentive for creation of an equivalent Federal agency by the Congress in 1884. The U.S. Bureau of Labor, first headed by Wright as well, was an initial step toward the establishment of a Department of Labor; information collection and dissemination became the Department's prime justification for existence, and remains the assigned role for the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Structured mediation loomed as a second solution to industrial conflict. Management and

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labor had to learn to deal across bargaining tables, not barricades; government could serve as a go-between. By the late 19th century, the Congress had enacted legislation creating government-assisted mediation procedures for railroad labor disputes—the most volatile area of industrial unrest in that period. In successive congressional debates over the creation of a Department of Labor (between 1874 and 1913, more than 100 bills and resolutions had been considered) the agency's potential function in conciliation drew constant support.

For workers, unionization emerged as the key to their plight. Changes in the workplace spurred the growth of trade unionism in this country, and as early as 1868, unions affiliated with the National Labor Union raised the issue of the need for a Federal bureau to sponsor legislation and presidential initiatives on behalf of workers. Because of organized labor's ambivalence toward state power, this demand was low key, but once the American Federation of Labor (AFL), under the leadership of Samuel Gompers, consolidated its power at the turn of the 20th century, the AFL became the main lobbying force behind the creation of the Department of Labor, despite Gompers' advocacy of voluntarism and nonpartisanship. Mainstream unionists viewed the Department as a vital way to influence legislation and executive action.

The Department of Labor, then, appeared as a remedy for industrial unrest. Reformers placed great stock in the power of investigation, exposure and publicity, and government-sponsored mediation. For trade unionists, a Cabinet-level agency meant direct access to state policymaking and a powerful, yet neutral, third party to promote "fairness" in labor disputes. If the Department of Labor emanated from a crisis in the workplace and a subsequent search for solutions, on its 75th anniversary, an assessment of its effect on the workplace is in order. How has the workplace changed since 1913? What role has the Department of Labor played in this change?

American workplace—then and now

Location of work. A survey of the workplace in the 20th century should begin with a discussion of its diversity. Americans work in a variety of settings from the home to mills and stores.³ Large-scale worksites, such as the multistoried office building, the hospital complex, and the sprawling plant, dominate the landscape, but small to medium size enterprises persist and proliferate, finding niches in our protean and layered market, receiving small-batch orders on contract from larger core sector firms. An array of services and products are produced in these various environments.

Some overall shifts in the setting of work in the 20th century are apparent. When the Department of Labor was dedicated in March 1913, slightly less than one-third of the work force was engaged in agricultural pursuits. Today, farmworkers are less than 5 percent of all workers. The share of manufacturing employment has remained relatively stable, with one-fourth at the turn of the century and less than one-fifth today. The proportion of workers in the service sector, largely in shops and stores, has stayed equally static, growing from 10 percent of the labor force to 15 percent. The greatest employment increase has occurred among white-collar office workers. These workers accounted for 20 percent of all workers when William B. Wilson became the first Secretary of Labor; they now account for about 60 percent of the total. In terms of the location of work, the shift from farm to office is the most notable story to be told in the history of the workplace in recent times.

Demographic profile. The demographic characteristics of the workplace have also changed. Compulsory school attendance laws and factory inspection acts, passed at the local and State levels, had begun to make a dent in the problem of child labor before 1913, but 15 to 18 percent of youngsters between age 10 and 15 still were gainfully employed, representing 6 percent of the total work force. (In certain areas, particularly textile mill and coal mining districts, these numbers were much higher.) Full-time child labor, a scandal in its day, has now passed, by and large, from the American scene.

On the opposite end of the age spectrum, there has been a precipitous decline in the employment of older workers. Seventy-five years ago, two-thirds of all men over age 65 were still drawing wages; today, less than 20 percent of our male senior citizens are in paid employment. The age profile of the labor force has thus changed, with a contraction of labor force participation at both ends of the age scale.

The changing role of women in the workplace is an even more dramatic story. In 1913, less than one-fourth of all adult women worked outside the home; in 1987, a clear majority do so. Seventy-five years ago, women made up less than 20 percent of the work force; today they represent nearly 50 percent. Women have not only entered the labor market in greater numbers, but they have remained there for longer periods. Only 10 percent of all 40-year-old women worked in 1913, compared with close to 50 percent of such middle-aged women today. Most notable has been the vast increase in the participation rates of married women. At the time of the inception of the Department of Labor, a small minority of married women, be-

“...a remedy
for industrial
unrest...”

tween 2 and 3 percent, were in the job market, compared with 40 percent today. The addition of women to the workplace certainly represents a major transformation.

The ethnic composition of the work force has also changed. Large-scale immigration at the turn of the century—more than 1 million immigrants reached these shores in 1910 alone—swelled the foreign-born component of the laboring population. While the foreign-born constituted no more than 20 percent of total workers at that time, in major manufacturing centers, particularly in the Midwest and Northeast, they were a visible majority. The enactment of quota restrictions in 1921 and 1924 slowed immigration to a trickle, and the proportion of foreign-born came to represent a declining proportion of workers, although second- and third-generation immigrants continued to dominate certain industries. However, two recent decades of increased immigration from Latin America and Southeast Asia have raised the proportion of foreign-born in the American workplace again.

The role of blacks in the workplace has changed, too. In 1913, nearly 90 percent of the black population lived in the South and worked in private homes as servants and on the land as sharecroppers and tenant farmers.⁴ Around World War I, blacks began migrating in great numbers to the North and West; today less than one-third of the black population reside in the South. Black migrants found few employment opportunities in the new areas: about 90 percent of the women found jobs as domestics, and the men occupied service and common day-labor positions. Only during and after World War II did blacks swell the industrial work force; unfortunately, progress came at a time when the Nation began a long-term process of industrial decline. The greater presence of blacks in the workplace in general is another part of the story of the changing demography of work.

Conditions and standards. Improvements during the last 75 years in the conditions and standards under which workers have labored represents a third way in which the American workplace has been transformed. The days worked each week and the hours worked each day have declined; safety on the job has improved; employment is more regular; various extra awards, such as paid vacations and sick leave, have been institutionalized; and a range of protections is offered—from grievance procedures, promotion systems, and seniority rights to unemployment, workplace injury, medical, life, and pension insurance. The comparison between 1913 and 1988 is clear.⁵

However, progress in fringe benefits and job security has not been uniform or universal. A

significant feature of work in 20th-century America is the emergence and development of two sets of occupational opportunities and experiences. Some workers now hold positions that are relatively well paid, safe, stable, rewarding, and open-ended in terms of advancement and responsibility. Other workers are confined to a sphere of dead-end, casual jobs that have none of these advantages. A bifurcated labor market based on standards and not just on skill is a feature of modern-day work.

Work experience. What about the content, nature, and organization of work in the United States during the 20th century? The vast diversity of work settings and pursuits makes generalizations on this subject open to qualification. Still, voluminous research literature attests to the reality that few American workers derive inherent pleasure or satisfaction from their work; that for most, work is not an end in itself, but a means toward greater income and consumption; and that social interaction at the workplace is valued more than the work itself.⁶ Whether alienation on the job is significantly greater now than it was 100 or 150 years ago is impossible to determine; the conditions breeding disaffection, however, certainly predate the establishment of the Department of Labor, with patterns established in the 19th century continuing into our own times. In the last 75 years, there has been precious little change in the nature of the work experience.

The long-range cause of modern workplace alienation can be traced to transformations in the organization of work that date to the early 19th century. Production of goods according to divisions of tasks on the basis of wage labor and with the use of machinery began then and evolved, albeit in an uneven fashion, throughout the 1800's. At the turn of the 20th century, the division of labor became a studied and concerted matter with time-and-motion studies, piece-rate incentive systems, and publicity efforts of people like Frederick Winslow Taylor. "Taylorism" also had an uneven history—there was notable resistance from workers and usurped supervisors alike, adding to the unrest of the day that led to the creation of the Department of Labor, and the whole process of task definition and ratemaking could be quite cumbersome in all but the most standardized production endeavors. Yet, detailed task work has become fixed practice in this century, and has been extended from manufacturing to office and service work. Moreover, innovation in "conveyor belt" technology, brought to the fore by Henry Ford and others, wed the machine to the principle of division of labor, leading to more

fully developed assembly-line production than ever contemplated or implemented in the 19th century.⁷ The overburdening of the workplace with new layers of hierarchy and bureaucracy added to the sense of powerlessness for workers. Thus, for some employees, work has gradually become more monotonous, meaningless, and dispiriting.

However, there are exceptions to this general portrait of work. Small work settings, small-batch work, and the production of goods according to craft practices persist; some workers, particularly those in new technical occupations, enjoy great autonomy and responsibility; the professional job market has expanded (although specialization increasingly marks the work of lawyers, doctors, and the like); and workers, too, either formally or informally, continue to counter the more dehumanizing aspects of work. Still, recent losses in productivity and the well-documented fact of worker dissatisfaction have rendered the reorganization of work an important issue. At stake is a possible reversal of patterns set in motion at the dawn of the industrial capitalist age.

Role of Labor Department

The setting and social demography of the workplace, as well as the conditions under which the great majority of workers toil, have changed remarkably since the Congress established the Department of Labor in 1913. What role has the Department played in these changes? The activities of the Department of Labor have affected the workplace, although it is in the area of standards that the agency's impact has been the greatest.

The Department of Labor has figured in only a limited and indirect way in shifts in the location of work in this country since 1913. Department enforcement of regulations on conditions of work has raised the costs of labor and contributed to sectoral shifts, but this aspect is relatively insignificant and misses more important parts of the total story. Increased agricultural productivity induced by mechanical, chemical, and organizational innovation, the rising capital costs of farming, and the lure of nonagrarian pursuits have brought about a precipitous absolute and relative fall in the number of people working the land.

Increased productivity, foreign competition, and capital mobility and flight similarly have led to very recent declines in manufacturing employment, although compared with farming, the industrial component of the work force has remained fairly stable over the last 75 years. The further formation of national and international markets as well as growth in the scale of enterprise have likewise contributed to an increase in

white-collar employment—more and more workers are needed for the coordination, monitoring, accounting, and facilitation of the flow of goods and services through our more complicated, global economy. Large-scale occupational shifts, then, have had little to do with the existence and operations of the Department of Labor, although there is one worksite—the home—where the agency has played a role in employment shifts.

Home work. The home has always been a critical location of both paid and unpaid work.⁸ Despite modern laborsaving devices and reductions in the drudgeries of home work, the hours spent in the uncompensated toil of home and family maintenance have not decreased notably over this century. Before 1800, moreover, practically all goods produced in this country were made in the home for direct family consumption or local barter. The spread of market activity and mechanized manufacture placed industry outside the home for the first time, but rather than disappearing, home work continued in the 19th century on the basis of the putting-out system and with goods produced expressly for sale in the marketplace. Such contracted home labor had the potential to be classically exploited and “sweated,” and by the 20th century, the practice was under increasing attack from reformers and trade unionists. In the 1940's, officials of the Department of Labor, relying on powers afforded under the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, banned or began policing home work in the most corrupt of instances, garment and apparel making. The Department, in monitoring paid work in the home in this way, played a direct role in changes in work settings. The question of home labor, however, is far from resolved. Pressure is mounting for the Department to lift its restrictions against work in the home, and as the microcomputer revolution is allowing for the dispersal of certain kinds of office work, the issue of standards by which family members work in the home on a contract basis becomes germane again.

Workplace demographics. The Department of Labor, on the surface, has had as minimal an impact on changes in the social composition of the work force as on the location of work. State compulsory school attendance laws, Federal and State acts banning child labor, the greater value families place on education of children, and general gains in real income have been responsible for the decline in labor force participation of young people. Similarly, Social Security legislation and improvements in real income accumulation have contributed to a reduction in the number of senior citizens at work. Changing

attitudes and family economics, as well as equal opportunity legislation and rulings, have dramatically increased the numbers of women in the workplace. Transformations in southern agriculture and civil rights agitation and enforcement have also made blacks a greater part of most workplaces. While the Department of Labor regulated immigration and naturalization until 1940 when the Department of Justice assumed charge, the reduction in the numbers of foreign-born at work in America has had more to do with popular feelings, politics, and congressional decisionmaking than direct Labor Department activity.

In at least three ways, however, the Department of Labor has played an important role in the changing demography of the workplace. The steady stream of investigative reporting flowing from the original Bureau of Labor, and then from the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Children's and Women's Bureaus of the Department of Labor have placed the easily hidden labor market problems of children, women, blacks, and immigrants clearly in view and provided ammunition for reformers and reason for legislative action. Various Secretaries of Labor have also been prime movers behind legislation and executive orders opening the doors of the American workplace to disadvantaged groups.

Job placement. The Department of Labor also significantly figures in the flow and funneling of workers into and through the labor market, particularly people in search of work. The Department, through the U.S. Employment Service, operates the largest labor exchange in the world, collecting information on job openings from employers and providing referrals to prospective employees.⁹ This function dates back to 1907 when the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization opened an employment office for immigrants. The Labor Department inherited this operation in 1913 and, in 1915, the U.S. Employment Service was created to assist the general population of unemployed and jobseekers. The Employment Service flourished during World War I, helping to allocate labor to wartime industries; then its role was curtailed in the 1920's. The Wagner-Peyser Act, passed in 1933, created a new U.S. Employment Service which now is in its sixth decade of service. Starting in the 1940's, various attempts were made to upgrade the Employment Service's image and function by asking it to handle more than low-level entry positions. In recent years, the Employment Service has made between 4 million and 5 million placements a year, upwards of 15 percent of the yearly total of new hires in the economy.

Worker training. A third way in which the Department of Labor affects the demography of the work force lies in worker training, especially in efforts to enhance the skills and potential for employment of young people and older displaced workers. This role has developed in a fuller manner only recently.¹⁰ The Department oversaw special training programs during World Wars I and II and in 1937, under the National Apprenticeship Act, received responsibility for promoting and monitoring the apprenticeship programs of businesses. Until the 1960's, the Federal Government's role in labor force participation, however, remained centered on schools and the encouragement and financing of vocational education. At that time, widespread youth unemployment and the severe employment problems of various disadvantaged groups called for a different approach and program. In 1961, the Congress enacted the Area Development Act and, in 1962, the Manpower Development and Training Act, which placed the Labor Department in charge of a number of training efforts. Jurisdiction for these projects was divided among a number of Federal agencies, and general support has wavered since the early 1970's; yet, the Department of Labor's record on manpower training gives it definite first claim on future initiatives.¹¹

Enforcing standards. As to the question of the standards and conditions under which men and women work, a number of developments can be cited to account for the change. The labor unrest of the late 19th and early 20th centuries was a sure sign that new strategies had to be forged to remotivate labor—the corporate form itself, bureaucratic structures of management, and assembly-line production techniques had destroyed incentives. If the work held no inherent interest or value now, if independent masterhood no longer served as a goal, diligence and loyalty had to be instilled and engendered in unprecedented ways. The stick approach—increased supervision, Taylorism, union-busting—worked only to a point; corporate managers were now forced to look for and experiment with more positive methods. Allow for careers within firms, create status hierarchies and promotion systems, offer new benefits, social programs, and insurance protections—these were paternalistic efforts first attempted at the turn of the century and greatly extended during the 1920's. Improved conditions thus came partially from top management in response both to the symptom, industrial conflict, and the cause of the problem, changes in the organization of production at the workplace.

Workers also forced new standards from below. Unions demanded higher wages, shorter

“...prime movers... opening the doors of the workplace....”

hours, guaranteed work, grievance and seniority rights, and pensions. Part of the great campaign to organize workers in the mass production industries in the 1930's, in fact, represented an effort by workers to reinstall under union control many of the paternalistic programs jettisoned by managers during the stringent times of the Great Depression; transforming jobs with few advantages to more secure and desirable employment was another aspect of the organizing campaign. In this way, the unions contributed to the creation of a two-tiered labor market and institutionalization of a new system of work incentives.

Government also played a critical role in improving conditions of employment, and here the Department of Labor figured as the key agent of change. The Department's role in setting and enforcing standards dates to World War I, when firms receiving government orders for goods and services had to abide by various stipulations on working conditions formulated and overseen by the Department. In 1934, a Division of Labor Standards was created in the Department with the responsibility to encourage and advise State officials in the formation of local ameliorative measures. Legislation passed during the New Deal years also placed the Department in charge of setting and upholding guidelines for work on Federal construction projects and, once again, firms under contract to the Government. The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, which among other items banned child labor and established maximum hours and minimum wage rates for enterprises engaged in interstate commerce, represented a crowning touch. The act rendered the Department of Labor the official policing agency of the workplace, a crucial function it fulfills to this day.

Safety and health. Finally, in the last two decades, the Department has assumed a new role specifically relating to safety and health standards at work, certainly a vital matter. In 1970, the Congress passed the Occupational Safety and Health Act, which gave the Department of Labor authority to set guidelines to protect workers from work-related accidents and diseases and the power to inspect workplaces and fine employers who violated Department-established regulations. In 1971, a separate executive agency, the Occupational Safety and Health Administration, was created to enforce the requirements set and revised by Labor Department officials. While the actual impact of the Occupational Safety and Health Administration remains an issue of debate, the Department continues its historical role in improving conditions of work by attending, since the early

1970's, to the specific but crucial matter of workplace safety.¹²

Future challenges

If there is one area of working conditions that remains impervious to change, it is in the nature of the work experience. The Department of Labor in its traditional charge of documentation and publication has helped make workplace alienation a public concern, but the agency has not played a transformative role. This raises the question of the future course of action. What place will the Department of Labor occupy in decades to come?

Any discussion of the future role of the Labor Department must acknowledge that the agency operates under severe limitations. The Congress delegates responsibilities and provides funding; respective Presidents and Secretaries of Labor shape the Department's practices and sway.

Over the last 75 years, the Department of Labor, through successive bureaucratic overhauls, has also seen its jurisdictions circumscribed, eliminated, and partitioned. The Department's authority over immigration was transferred to the Department of Justice in 1940; its authority over conciliation was passed to the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service in 1947. The Congress created a separate National Labor Relations Board and Social Security Administration which are involved in activities that could have been lodged in the Labor Department. During the 1960's, the agency further shared responsibility for worker training with numerous other Federal offices (creating a scattered and diffused initiative). Since 1913, questions about the Department's relationship with the trade union movement have made congressional legislators hesitant to render it full powers. The Department's future course and role, then, is not certain.

The Labor Department, however, could play an important part in the pressing current and continuing problem of workplace alienation. Worker-owned businesses, team production, quality-of-worklife groups, and greater worker participation in managerial decisionmaking are reforms presently being discussed and tried. A national commitment to transforming the organization and experience of work might see the Department of Labor, in the years ahead, becoming initiator, designer, monitor, and regulator of such efforts. In the absence of this new kind of mandate, the Department no doubt will continue to fulfill its original mission: to enforce standards already agreed to by legislators and gather the information necessary for the American people to make better decisions about the way we work. □

"...the official policing agency of the workplace..."

¹ Standard histories of the Department of Labor include *Twenty-Five Years of Service, 1913–1938* (Department of Labor, 1938); *The Anvil and the Plow: A History of the United States Department of Labor* (U.S. Department of Labor, 1963); Ewan Clague, *The Bureau of Labor Statistics* (New York, Praeger Publishers, Inc., 1968); and Jonathan Grossman, *The Department of Labor* (New York, Praeger Publishers, Inc., 1973).

² Melvyn Dubofsky, *Industrialism and the American Worker, 1865–1920* (Arlington Heights, IL, Harlan Davidson, 1985). Scholars remain in debt to the Department of Labor for its voluminous publications. Statistics reported in this essay are drawn from a remarkable historical compendium of information on the American workplace, *Two Hundred Years of Work in America* (U.S. Department of Labor, 1976).

³ Philip Scranton and Walter Licht, *Work Sights: Industrial Philadelphia, 1890–1950* (Philadelphia, Temple University Press, 1986).

⁴ William H. Harris, *The Harder We Run: Black Workers Since the Civil War* (New York, Oxford University Press, 1982).

⁵ Historical treatments of the American workplace in the 20th century include Richard Edwards, *Contested Terrain: The Transformation of the Workplace in the Twentieth Century* (New York, Basic Books, 1979); Andrew Zimbalist, ed., *Case Studies in the Labor Process* (New York, Monthly Review Press, 1979); Michael Burawoy, *Manufacturing Consent: Changes in the Labor Process Under Monopoly Capitalism* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1979);

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⁶ Special Task Force to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, *Work in America* (Cambridge, MA, MIT Press, 1973).

⁷ David Hounshell, *From American System to Mass Production, 1800–1932: The Development of Manufacturing Technology in the United States* (Baltimore, Johns Hopkins University Press, 1984).

⁸ Susan Strasser, *Never Done: A History of American Housework* (New York, Pantheon, 1982).

⁹ Henry Guzda, "The U.S. Employment Service at 50: it too had to wait its turn," *Monthly Labor Review*, June 1983, pp. 12–19.

¹⁰ Ewan Clague and Leo Kramer, *Manpower Policies and Programs: A Review, 1935–75* (Kalamazoo, MI, W. E. Upjohn Institute For Employment Research, 1976).

¹¹ Joseph Hamilton Ball, "The Implementation of Federal Manpower Policy, 1961–1971: A Study in Bureaucratic Competition and Intergovernmental Relations" (Ph. D dissertation, Columbia University, 1972).

¹² Charles Noble, *Liberation at Work: The Rise and Fall of OSHA* (Philadelphia, Temple University Press, 1986).

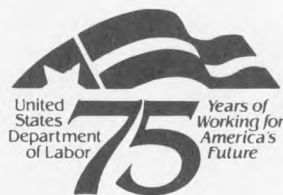
The day the Department was born

The law creating a U.S. Department of Labor, signed by President William H. Taft on March 4, 1913, was virtually overlooked among the historic events of that day. The city of Washington was bursting with goings on of all kinds. It was Inauguration Day for Woodrow Wilson and there was the usual social whirl that accompanies such an event. In addition, the 62d Congress was still in session on Inauguration morning. The retiring President had a pile of bills upon which to act, one of them being the Sulzer Bill to create a Department of Labor headed by a Cabinet officer.

Taft had mixed feelings about the bill and faced a difficult choice: he could sign it into law, even though he was not pleased with it; he could veto it outright, even though his objections to the bill might be misinterpreted; or, by taking no action, he could let the bill die when his term of office ran out—the so-called "pocket veto." That morning the *New York Times* reported that the outgoing President might veto the bill, send his reasons to Congress, and give the advocates of the measure a chance to override his veto, if they could.

After an early breakfast, with only a few hours before Woodrow Wilson took office, President Taft went to the executive office in the Senate. The Department of Labor bill was still unsigned. Following tradition, the President-elect arrived at the office before being received in the Senate. He could see the rotund figure of Taft at work in the next room signing bills. During these closing hours of his administration, President Taft signed into law the act giving birth to the Department of Labor.

—JONATHAN GROSSMAN,
"The origin of the U.S. Department of Labor,"
Monthly Labor Review, March 1973, p. 3.



Gender, race, and the policies of the Labor Department

*Promoting equal job opportunity for women
and minority men, of little concern
in the Department's early years,
made headway in the 1960's and 1970's*

EILEEN BORIS AND MICHAEL HONEY

When Congress established the Department of Labor in 1913, both women and minority men faced limited employment opportunities. Throughout the Nation, white women in the labor force found themselves in low-paying industrial, clerical, and retail positions. Most Afro-Americans remained in the South where they worked as sharecroppers and agricultural laborers or, if female, domestic servants. But, lured to the North by better-paying industrial work and the labor shortages of the World War I years, blacks would soon begin that mass exodus called the "Great Migration."¹

While race and gender stood as key determinants of occupation, neither the employment status of women nor that of minority men was among early DOL priorities. The first years of the Department were taken up with other matters,

particularly the conciliation of labor disputes. Moreover, the Department took its modern form at the very time that President Woodrow Wilson, under congressional pressure, segregated Federal eating and restroom facilities by race and phased most blacks out of the civil service.²

Early departmental programs reflected cultural attitudes towards both white women and Afro-Americans, and thus reinforced the existing division of labor by race and sex. They also suggest how the Department, and the Government as a whole, addressed the needs of women separately from those of minorities, with the problems of minority women often getting lost between the two. The United States Employment Service, an agency of the Labor Department, established a women's and girl's division at the end of 1916 "to guide [women] in desirable industry and avoidance of occupations and places where evil conditions exist." With its emphasis on "suitable" employments and its concern with labor standards such as minimum

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wages and maximum hours (known as protective labor legislation), this division embodied an attitude that would persist until the late 1960's: [White] women workers required protection on the job because their biology supposedly made them different from men, and thus only certain employments were appropriate for the mothers of the Nation.³

The social place of Afro-Americans similarly shaped DOL treatment of them. During the early years of the Great Migration, the U.S. Employment Service assisted blacks who sought employment in the North by advising them on available jobs; later, complaints from southern employers, who feared losing their abundant labor supply, led the agency to "withdraw its facilities from group migration."⁴

With the onset of World War I, the Nation hurried to mobilize its labor power while simultaneously increasing productivity. Thus, the Federal Government sought to make the best use of women and minority male laborers for the duration of the emergency. The state would "insure the effective employment of women while conserving their health and welfare" even as their labor was allocated temporarily to men's work; programs for blacks attempted "to increase the efficiency of Negro wage earners by improving their condition" and by "promoting cooperation between the races for the harmonizing of their relations."⁵

William B. Wilson, the first Secretary of Labor, and Assistant Secretary Louis Post, an early supporter of civil rights, both fought to improve the economic position of black workers. In consultation with W.E.B. DuBois, leader of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, they established the Division of Negro Economics within the U.S. Employment Service in 1917. The Division was responsible for recruiting and placing workers in war production, and was directed by George E. Haynes, a black professor from Fisk University. Under Haynes' leadership, the Labor Department established interracial labor advisory committees in the South, investigated the working conditions of black women, and attempted to enforce wage rates for blacks that were equal to those of whites. The Division of Negro Economics encouraged the Employment Service not only to mobilize black workers for the war effort but also to help them find housing and generally adjust to urbanization and industrial employment. As historian Henry Guzda has noted, "long before equal employment opportunity became a priority, this division promoted the concepts of that philosophy."⁶

Women's groups also demanded equality, including equal pay for equal work. The Labor

Department initially relied upon the efforts of voluntary women's organizations to furnish the Employment Service with data on needs for women's labor and on women's availability for the war effort. The Women in Industry Service, under Mary Van Kleeck of the Russell Sage Foundation and Mary Anderson of the Women's Trade Union League, formed in July 1918 as a policymaking and advisory agency. Not only did it coordinate other wartime agencies through the Council on Women in Industry, but its director, unlike the head of the Division of Negro Economics, sat on the War Labor Policies Board. Though so badly underfunded that it had to rely on women's organizations for resources and personnel—as would its successor, the Women's Bureau—the Women in Industry Service studied the conditions of women workers in industry. It recommended new labor standards and safeguarded existing ones, called for wage rates based on productivity rather than the sex of the worker, and especially fought for health and safety regulations. To protect women's reproductive capabilities, it sought to exclude women from jobs subject to lead poisoning. Otherwise, the Women in Industry Service promoted changing the conditions of labor, not the sex of the laborers.⁷

Responding to the perceived power of the women's movement and the enfranchisement of women voters, Congress created the Women's Bureau as a permanent agency of the Labor Department on June 5, 1920, "to formulate standards and policies which shall promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment." Essentially a factfinding agency, the Women's Bureau researched conditions in the Federal Government (including those of black charwomen), the general industrial outlook in various States, State labor laws and regulations, and the home life of wage-earning women, especially their problems in combining wage labor with child care and housework. The Bureau continued to push protective labor legislation for women, rejecting the Equal Rights Amendment as a threat to women workers because it would negate minimum wage and maximum hours laws. Without such protections, the Bureau argued, working women would be unable to fulfill their roles as childbearers and rearers. In 1921, 1922, and 1929, the Bureau reported on the substandard working conditions of black women, who earned less than white women and worked longer hours at the least desirable occupations. It pleaded "for the well-being of the community that there shall be no reduction in these standards but rather that for both races there shall be a steady improvement

"Early programs reflected cultural attitudes...."

in the relationship between earning and necessary expenses for healthful living."⁸

In contrast to the Women in Industry Service, the Division of Negro Economics left no institutional legacy after the war. Once mobilization ended, so did the Government's commitment towards lessening discrimination against black workers, even though their foothold in industry was precarious. In 1919, race riots, a product of growing competition for jobs and housing, exploded in major American cities, including the Nation's capital. In response to such tensions, Wilson and Post wanted to maintain Haynes and his Division as a permanent branch of the Labor Department, but white southern Congressmen killed proposals to extend the life of the Division. Without retaining even a factfinding agency devoted to black workers, the Labor Department focused its attention elsewhere during the 1920's.⁹

The New Deal and World War II

The New Deal improved the lives of women and minority male workers, but its programs ultimately reinforced the division of the labor market by gender and race.¹⁰ By the time the Roosevelt administration came to power in 1933, the unemployment and underemployment rates of Afro-Americans were double and triple those of whites in many areas of the Nation. Disproportionately employed in agriculture, Afro-Americans were among the first to lose jobs and the last to obtain relief. The New Deal recovery and reform programs, in combination with the rise of industrial unionism through the Congress of Industrial Organizations, offered hope to the Afro-American community. Many blacks also looked to the Labor Department for economic relief, particularly to Secretary of Labor Frances Perkins—a longtime supporter of racial equality.¹¹

Perkins attempted to fulfill these hopes, but the former social worker and her agency lacked the necessary political clout to overcome entrenched opposition to racial equality. Although she influenced the direction of the "alphabet" agencies of the New Deal, Congress removed the Department from direct control over nearly all significant labor programs. Within the Department, however, Secretary Perkins was able to abolish segregated eating facilities and to hire new black employees and promote others. She insisted that the Employment Service find jobs for blacks and whites on an impartial basis, added blacks to the Service's staff, and stopped efforts within the Department to dismiss black elevator operators. The Women's Bureau, the Children's Bureau, and other agencies of the Department studied black employment and working conditions, helped to publicize dis-

crimination against blacks, and recommended ways to end discrimination. In 1934, Perkins renewed the Department's commitment to black workers by appointing Conciliation Commissioner Lawrence Oxley as director of a Division of Negro Labor to coordinate the Department's activities and offer special advice to the Secretary.¹²

The 1938 Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA) proved to be the one exception to the Labor Department's overall lack of authority over labor programs, but the gaps in its original coverage made it a weak tool for improving the status of women and minority workers.¹³ Perkins protested FLSA exclusion from coverage of domestic servants and agricultural laborers, the occupations dominated by minority men and women. Because the act applied only to employers involved in interstate commerce, it also left most service employees, who tended to be women and minority men, unprotected. Under such limitations, the Labor Department had little power to stop discriminatory practices by private employers. Perkins, however, continued to testify against the employment and wage discrimination that Oxley and his staff documented.

Even where the Department had authority over hiring practices, as in the case of the U.S. Employment Service, it could not halt discrimination at the local level. Especially in the South, the Service's administrators cooperated with white building trades unionists, contractors, and local politicians to keep blacks out of Federally financed construction projects and make-work programs. Although the Department ultimately succeeded in securing permits for some black construction workers, local administrators of Federal relief and recovery programs hired whites before blacks, assigned blacks to the least-skilled jobs, supported interracial wage differentials, and often excluded blacks from work altogether. President Roosevelt was reluctant to intervene against racial exclusion and discrimination within the Civilian Conservation Corps, the Works Progress Administration, and other programs because he was dependent upon southern congressional votes; Secretary Perkins acquiesced in the President's wishes.¹⁴

While Afro-Americans and Chicanos in the Southwest faced persistent discrimination and were often excluded from New Deal programs, relief agencies assigned women (depending on their race) to traditional female pursuits, like sewing, housekeeping, or typing.¹⁵ Under Section 213 of the 1932 Economy Act, which called for the dismissal of married persons if their spouse also worked for the Government, Federal agencies tended to discriminate against women, causing the Women's Bureau to protest

that, contrary to public opinion, "marital status as a basis for employment or dismissal is not sound."¹⁶ Meanwhile, the industrial codes of the National Recovery Administration incorporated wage differentials by sex and region, which led to lower wages for southern black workers.¹⁷ The Department of Labor protested against these wage inequalities. The Women's Bureau, for example, lodged 465 protests against 182 approved codes, gaining 224 changes in 119 codes, of which nearly three-fourths addressed women's wages. In the end, sex distinctions in wages remained in only slightly more than one-fourth of the approved codes, while over 70 percent of the codes for industries in which industrial home work was prevalent called for its abolition.¹⁸ While NRA prohibition of home work ended with the demise of the codes, the Wage and Hour Division of the Labor Department, which administered FLSA, was able to prohibit home work in seven garment-related industries in the early 1940's.¹⁹

Because of the continuing activities of the Women's Bureau, the Labor Department addressed the conditions of female labor more consistently than it did the conditions of minority men. Throughout the 1930's, the Women's Bureau studied the impact of the depression on women industrial workers and their families. With the National Council of Negro Women, the Young Women's Christian Association, and other women's organizations, it sought to raise the wage, hours, and other standards of household employment, and thus improve the working conditions of domestics. Most significantly, the Bureau functioned as a clearinghouse for labor standards legislation for the States, especially for local efforts to pass minimum wage bills. Along with the Labor Department's new Division of Labor Standards, the Bureau was able to facilitate the passage of intrastate orders affecting women workers in service establishments such as laundries and beauty parlors. It thus extended minimum wage and maximum hour protections to numbers of minority women for the first time.

Throughout the 1930's, policymakers for the Women's Bureau continued to advocate that mothers remain at home. However, in part because there were mothers in the labor market, the Bureau sought to strengthen protective labor legislation for women. Despite clinging to traditional ideas of a "woman's place," the Women's Bureau remained a staunch defender of working women, recognizing that "the substitution of women for men at lower pay . . . brings all wages down to a lower level and seriously reduces the consumers' purchasing power." Bureau representatives argued that economic re-

covery depended on improving women's status in the labor market.²⁰

With the shift to war production in 1940 and the entry of women into jobs previously held only by men, the Women's Bureau began to monitor labor standards for war workers, including those relating to lunch and rest periods, nightwork, rotation of shifts, sanitation, and safety. The Bureau specified the labor processes where womanpower could be most efficiently mobilized, providing war plants with detailed analyses of appropriate jobs and working with Employment Service regional labor supply committees. Not content with merely deploying womanpower, the Bureau continued its mission to protect women workers, studying the burdensome double day of homemaker and wage earner and supporting the development of day care and other community services.²¹

Equal pay, or "the rate for the job regardless of the sex of the worker," became a prime goal of the Bureau. Because many women performed processes previously done by men, it appeared particularly important to maintain the rate for the job in order to sustain men's wages after the war. Despite the success of the Women's Bureau in incorporating equal pay into wage scales at Government arsenals and in public contracts, and despite the approval given by the National War Labor Board for the principle that all wage increases should conform to State equal pay laws, employers resisted and few wartime wage orders actually mandated equal pay for equal work.²²

Although the Women's Bureau probed the conditions of black women workers during the war, it concentrated on discrimination based on sex, not race.²³ The Women's Bureau served as an advocate for women, but no equivalent agency existed in the Department when it came to racial minorities. The Division of Negro Labor did not have the status of a Bureau and its tenure depended on the support of the Secretary of Labor; nor did it provide the sort of clearinghouse for information on civil rights that the Women's Bureau offered the Department for women's issues. Within the Federal Government, racial discrimination came under the purview of the Fair Employment Practices Committee—a product of black demands for full civil rights—and not the Department of Labor.²⁴

Thus, the contribution of the Labor Department toward improving the situation of black workers proved singularly disappointing, for reasons similar to those which limited the Department's role during the New Deal. Instead of expanding the Department, as was done during World War I, the President mobilized the labor force for World War II through the War Man-

“...few wartime wage orders actually mandated equal pay for equal work.”

power Commission and other agencies outside its jurisdiction. The most important Departmental division influencing wartime employment was the U.S. Employment Service, which became the "operating arm" of the War Manpower Commission. But, as in the 1930's, local administrators abetted segregation in the South and discrimination in the North. For example, local branches of the Employment Service, along with employers, excluded Afro-Americans from Gulf Coast shipyards, an act which led to intervention by the Fair Employment Practices Committee. The percentage of blacks placed in war industries by the Employment Service declined during the early mobilization effort, from 5.4 percent of those placed in 1940 to 2.5 percent in early 1941.²⁵

The Labor Department was aware of racial discrimination in employment at the local level and in defense plants. The *Monthly Labor Review* began some of its most extensive reporting of discrimination during the war years, and persisted in discussing sensitive issues, like promotion and seniority systems, racial wage differentials, and other forms of discrimination sanctioned by employers, unions, and government officials. Like the War Manpower Commission, the *Monthly Labor Review* issued numerous reports on the status of black laborers, and Lt. Oxley and his Division of Negro Labor continued to compile statistics and report on labor conditions. However, no effective machinery for fighting discrimination existed within the Department.²⁶

Thus, Employment Service job and training programs continued to discriminate against black men and women. While the *Monthly Labor Review* enthusiastically reported in November 1943 on the training of blacks for industrial work in Memphis, Division of Negro Labor reports indicated that these vocational programs systematically shunted black men into lesser skilled jobs than those offered white men, and ignored the training of black women altogether. Even where blacks were trained for skilled positions, the local branches of the Employment Service refused to release them for such work. Such discrimination produced predictable results: Although the number of blacks (mostly men) working as craftspersons and semiskilled operatives doubled from 1940 to 1944, at the end of the war 4 out of 5 black men remained unskilled laborers.²⁷ Perhaps the Labor Department was reluctant to intercede because the Employment Service was a Federal-State partnership. In any case, while the Employment Practices Committee conducted hearings and the War Labor Board issued directives abolishing racial wage differentials, the Labor Department had

little to show in the way of antidiscrimination efforts.²⁸

Postwar, Cold War: 1945-60

From demobilization in 1945, through the 1950's, advocates of racial and gender equality struggled with limited success for better jobs, wages, and employment levels for women and minority men. In the aftermath of the war, returning veterans regained higher-paying jobs as they replaced female and minority male workers who had been new to the industrial labor force. As disproportionate numbers of minorities and women were laid off, the Labor Department supported legislation to establish a national commission against employment discrimination and to make racial discrimination in hiring unlawful. It also lobbied for legislation that would prohibit discrimination between the sexes in the payment of wages, and called for a commission to study the status of women with the purpose of eliminating discriminatory State and Federal laws. Throughout the postwar period, and especially during the "manpower" crisis of the Korean war, the Department continued to advocate Federal action to end employment discrimination against minorities and to gain equal pay for women. But it persisted in viewing fair employment and equal pay as separate issues, rather than seeing the ways that sexual and racial divisions reflected similar discriminatory labor market mechanisms.²⁹

As during the period following World War I, an increasingly conservative political climate stymied the fight for fair employment and equal pay. The new Congress eliminated the Fair Employment Practices Committee, and passed the Taft-Hartley Act of 1947 which curbed the power of organized labor. In polarizing public opinion in this country, the onset of the Cold War not only undermined antidiscrimination programs and placed the labor movement on the defensive, but also encouraged congressional efforts to dismantle the Department of Labor, which by 1949 had its smallest staff since the administration of President Coolidge. Subsequent years saw Labor Department leaders spending much of their time fighting merely to keep the Department alive.³⁰

Under these circumstances, the Division of Negro Labor was allowed to die, and during the 1950's, discussion of antidiscrimination programs nearly disappeared from the annual reports of the Secretary of Labor. In contrast to the 1940's, during which studies of black labor by the Department had flourished, such investigations declined in scope, significance, and number.³¹ While the National Manpower Mobilization Policy of 1951 specified promoting the employment of women and minority men as

part of the Korean War effort, U.S. Employment Service labor recruitment policies increasingly served to screen out disadvantaged, and hence "least qualified," workers on the behalf of employers.³² In a similar vein, critics charged that the Employment Service served the interests of growers of farm produce in the West by working with State employment officials to supply cheap Hispanic labor through the Bracero program, which allowed workers to come from Mexico as seasonal farm laborers. (Having supplied 445,000 temporary workers at its peak in 1956, the Bracero program was phased out between 1965 and 1968 as part of a general effort to improve the wages and working conditions of all agricultural laborers.³³) With the Department and its anti-discrimination policies in eclipse, the Eisenhower administration relied upon economic growth to provide opportunity for women and minority men to advance themselves in the labor market.

Despite the setbacks of the postwar years, the Women's Bureau continued its efforts on behalf of women workers. It sought to expand employment opportunities for women by analyzing labor demand for specific occupations in the growing health, food, and social services sectors, but also in scientific and technical fields. The Bureau worked with the Employment Service to study public and private training and placement services and began to emphasize training and counseling, especially for the young, for older workers, and for "disadvantaged" minorities. During the next 15 years, the Bureau issued numerous bulletins devoted to career choices and preparation, including "The Outlook for Women in Police Work" (1949) and "Employment Opportunities for Women in Professional Accounting" (1955). Some of these broke through existing occupational segregation by sex, but most reflected the establishment of new arenas of "women's work."³⁴ And because women continued to hold different jobs than men, the Bureau found it easy to argue that women did not take jobs away from men.

Despite the attempt to keep up with the changing shape of the economy, the Bureau still tended to try to channel women back into traditional industries, like power-laundry and household employment, belying its stated aim to "salvag[e] wartime gains . . . and raise employment standards." While such channeling affected minority women disproportionately, the strengthening and extending of the minimum wage at the State level did much to improve their wages. In 1950, the Women's Bureau lobbied for a successful bill to extend Social Security protection to household workers, most of whom were Afro-American women.

During the early postwar years, the Women's Bureau also began to investigate the needs of Puerto Rican and migrant farm women, many of whom were Hispanic. Assisted by local women's organizations, it held earning opportunities forums for older women and other targeted groups. Traditional areas of women's work—teaching, clerical jobs, and nursing—suffered shortages, especially during the Korean war when women again could obtain higher-paying jobs. The Bureau encouraged women's entry into these fields through the expansion of part-time work. Thus, the Bureau appeared determined to improve the world of women's work rather than to break down the barriers between "male" and "female" jobs.

At a time when the popular press was advising women to leave the work force but the number of working mothers was rising, the Women's Bureau focused on the problems of married women workers. Under its aegis, the 1948 conference, "The American Woman, Her Changing Role—Worker, Homemaker, Citizen," set the agenda for the next two decades. The Bureau called for increased opportunities for part-time work for women (but not as a substitute for full-time jobs), maternity leave, improved status and standards for household workers, increased female participation in trade unions, establishment of adequate child care facilities, and "development of security and sufficiency of income." By 1958, after Russian success with Sputnik encouraged scientific training for the U.S. population, the Women's Bureau emphasized the Nation's need for "womanpower" but without disregarding the realities of women's responsibilities in the home, their intermittent work histories, and the inadequate training of many women. The Bureau also continued to advocate equal pay, rather than fair employment, legislation.³⁵ Only with the last-minute insertion of the word "sex" into Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act were the parallel but separate fights against racial and sexual discrimination brought together in the law.³⁶

Civil rights, women's rights: 1960–80

The struggles for civil rights and women's rights in the 1960's pushed the Federal Government to take a more active role in ending employment discrimination and improving the economic position of women and minority men. The years of the Kennedy administration set the stage for later affirmative action and manpower programs, with passage of the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 and the Equal Pay Act of 1963. The Women's Bureau provided research assistance to the President's Commission on the Status of Women which, in

"...during the 1960's and 1970's, programs represented a national commitment to equity. . . ."

its 1963 report, recommended equal opportunities in hiring, training, promotion, and pay; improved education and counseling for girls; better labor legislation for women; and "new and expanded services to enable women to meet more effectively their responsibilities as homemakers and workers," especially day care. In later years, the Bureau also supported equal employment opportunities for women, reflecting the changed legal climate generated by Title VII, which overturned protective labor laws for women.³⁷

The Presidency of Lyndon Johnson inaugurated a period of unprecedented willingness on the part of the Federal Government to intervene in uprooting structural unemployment, poverty, and employer and union discrimination. Employment opportunity and decent wages and working conditions for women and for black and other minority men were, according to then Secretary of Labor Willard Wirtz, "finally identified and significantly recognized as a matter of right" by the Nation. In large measure, the Nixon, Ford, and Carter administrations continued this commitment to reducing economic disparities between whites and blacks and between men and women.³⁸

Wirtz most clearly enunciated the philosophy of affirmative action, the use of government influence to better the status of blacks and other disadvantaged groups within the society. "There are two Americas—one characterized by general affluence and comfort, the other by grim deprivation and daily misery," he reported in 1967, concluding that "further economic growth would not alone rescue prosperity's disadvantaged." The position of minorities resulted from a history of societal prejudice, augmented by social policy and government action or inaction. Thus, only social policy and government action, in tandem with efforts to root out racial prejudice, could reverse this situation.³⁹

Hence, as part of the Great Society Program of the Johnson years, the Labor Department helped to initiate and administer programs such as the Neighborhood Youth Corps (aimed at providing jobs for young people), the Concentrated Employment Program (aimed at pulling the hardcore unemployed into the economic mainstream), and others which expended millions of dollars in an effort to break the cycle of poverty dominating minority communities. The Department cooperated with the Office of Economic Opportunity in its even more massive antipoverty and jobs programs. Reflecting a longstanding concern with standards for household work and the status of household workers, the Women's Bureau brought together numerous government and private organizations to

form the National Committee on Household Employment in 1965. The U.S. Employment Service became an agency which enforced equal rights; instead of buttressing pre-existing racial and sexual employment patterns, it began to focus its efforts on workers who had been pushed to the margins of the labor force. Equally significantly, under Executive Order 11246, the Department of Labor began to force companies with Federal Government contracts to take "affirmative action" and employ more women and minority men. By 1968, the Government had consolidated many labor-related programs under the control of the Labor Department, reversing earlier congressional and presidential whittling away of the Department's mandate. By then, Wirtz could boast that the percentage of blacks in higher grades of employment was twice as large in the Labor Department as in any other major Federal agency.⁴⁰

The Nixon and Ford administrations began to shift responsibility for economic and other initiatives from the Federal Government to the States, cut back social programs, and rely more upon private employers to reduce discrimination in the labor market. Under Nixon, the Office of Federal Contract Compliance of the Labor Department strengthened affirmative action by requiring Federal contractors to implement hiring goals and timetables for the employment of women and minority men. The Philadelphia Plan, a project supported by Labor Secretary George P. Shultz, extended these procedures to the construction trades, causing bitter fights between the Department and the AFL-CIO unions. While the Women's Bureau became part of the Wage and Labor Standards Administration within the Department of Labor in the early 1960's, it continued to promote the interests of working women, focusing on training and employment opportunities for racial and ethnic minorities, offenders and ex-offenders, youths, older women, and women in low-skilled, low-paying occupations.

The years of the Nixon and Ford administrations witnessed significant enforcement of the Fair Labor Standards Act and the Equal Pay Act—the latter extended to executive, administrative, professional, and outside salesworkers—and also saw a new inclusiveness in labor standards legislation. In 1973 alone, the Department's Employment Standards Division secured backpayments of over \$18 million to 29,618 workers, most of them women, while the Department, along with the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, negotiated a settlement of \$15 million with American Telephone and Telegraph Co. for violation of the Equal

Pay Act, thus providing a model for civil rights agreements for the rest of the decade. In 1974, coverage under the Fair Labor Standards Act was expanded to domestic service workers, finally protecting a large number of minority women. Two years later, unemployment insurance coverage was extended to agricultural and private household workers; also, pregnancy no longer could be used to deny benefits to unemployed women.

During the early 1970's, the Department sought to bring those thought to be "unemployable" into the labor force. "By overcoming traditional barriers," WIN (the Work Incentive Program) attempted to increase employment opportunities among women, who composed more than 75 percent of its participants. Critics believed that the true goal of WIN was to reduce welfare expenditures, but it proved a failure on both accounts. CETA (the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act), which decentralized manpower activities beginning in 1975, was more successful. Under CETA, special programs were developed to serve Indians and the overwhelmingly Hispanic migrant and seasonal farmworkers. The Women's Bureau also worked with CETA to create model programs for women in apprenticeship and in nontraditional jobs and the Women's Bureau too began to direct programs to reservation Indians and Hispanics, as well as the rural poor.⁴¹ These efforts continued during the Carter years.

The Carter administration faced economic "stagflation" during the second half of the 1970's as it sought to redress the economic consequences of racial discrimination. Probably no Secretary of Labor before Ray Marshall had as deep an understanding of the historical nature of the economic disadvantage of black workers.⁴² During Marshall's tenure, the Department participated in suits against the steel industry and other large employers for failing to live up to affirmative action agreements in Federal contracts, and helped to win backpay for workers who had been discriminated against. New regulations allowed for accurate documentation of employer discrimination. The Department placed all equal opportunity compliance programs within its Office of Federal Contract Compliance, producing what Marshall called "one-stop administration and enforcement" of equal opportunity laws. This step made it increasingly difficult for employers to evade affirmative action. In a number of cases, those who did so were debarred from Federal contracts.

In this climate, the percentage of minorities involved in apprenticeship programs dramatically expanded, providing a new avenue for access to skilled jobs. (At the same time, the Women's Bureau joined the Department's Bu-

reau of Apprenticeship and Training to increase the numbers of women in apprenticeships.) Under Federal pressure, public works contractors, universities, and other public institutions increased recruitment of minorities, who entered skilled and professional positions in growing numbers.⁴³ Meanwhile, the Carter administration launched the largest public service employment buildup since the 1930's, although this time, special efforts were directed to minorities and poor women. Displaced homemakers and mothers on welfare received special attention and the Women's Bureau also began to consider the employment needs of Asian-Pacific women. During the 1970's, the Bureau directed more resources than previously towards minority women, in keeping with the overall thrust of administration policy.⁴⁴ The Labor Department's role in antidiscrimination efforts decreased only slightly with President Carter's 1979 governmental reorganization plan, under which responsibility for enforcement of the Equal Pay Act and the Age Discrimination in Employment Act was taken from the Department and delegated to the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.⁴⁵

The 1980's

From the first tentative efforts to improve employment opportunities for women and minority males during World War I through the tough antidiscrimination programs of the late 1970's, the Department of Labor had operated from the assumption that the Federal Government had the right to intervene in the economy in order to redress national social and economic problems. During the 1980's, the Government under President Ronald Reagan has worked from other premises. It has emphasized private-sector initiatives for manpower development, as evinced by the Job Training Partnership Act, and proposed legislation for a Youth Employment Opportunity Wage. The Office of Civil Rights within the Labor Department now deals with enforcement in the context of reducing Government spending and regulatory paperwork. The Department has proposed deregulation of industrial homework. Women's Bureau programs for displaced homemakers, "disadvantaged" women, and new immigrants have relied upon demonstration projects financed by the private sector. The Bureau has sought to expand employer-sponsored child care and to encourage entrepreneurship among women, especially displaced homemakers and minorities. Yet, it has continued to investigate the impact of economic transformation by funding studies on the effects of new technologies on women workers.⁴⁶

Large cutbacks in Federal spending threatened to gut the Department's efforts to use job

"The labor market remains divided by sex and race...."

training and public employment to help pull disadvantaged communities out of economic depression. Federal job creation programs were particularly hard hit, beginning with the reduction of some 300,000 workers from CETA in 1981. Cutbacks also reduced the Labor Department staff available for implementation of affirmative action and wage and hour regulations. The Office of Federal Contract Compliance adopted a "nonconfrontational" approach, emphasizing technical services for employers. It took steps to eliminate the need for small contractors to adhere to affirmative action guidelines, it urged voluntary compliance, and it rewrote guidelines so as to eliminate the weakest claims for redress at lower administrative levels. By 1984, critics charged that OFCC failed to prosecute antidiscrimination cases. By 1987, it appeared to civil rights and equal rights proponents that vigorous Federal affirmative action programs and public employment programs belonged to the past.⁴⁷

Conclusion

Within its limits as an investigative and often underfunded agency, the Department of Labor has sought to improve the working conditions of women and minority men over the last three-quarters of a century. What was considered appropriate policy changed as concepts of female difference (biological and social) and ideas of racial inferiority gave way to commitments to social and political equality. Before the protest movements of the 1960's, the Department emphasized the needs of these groups only when public policy concentrated on mobilizing and utilizing the Nation's labor power. But during the 1960's and 1970's, employment and training programs, along with enforcement of affirmative action, equal pay, and labor standards legislation represented a national commitment to racial and sexual equity.

How does the situation of women and minority men appear as we look forward to the centennial celebration of the Department? Massive job losses in the industrial sector of the economy have undermined the income of Afro-Americans, a disproportionate share of whom are blue-collar workers. And while the wages of black and white women are close to parity, both fall badly behind those of white men. True, among full-time, year-round workers, women now make 64 cents to every dollar earned by men.⁴⁸ This represents a shrinking of the wage gap between the sexes, reflecting the real gains of the last two decades, during which affirmative action in education and employment led some women to better paying professional and blue-collar jobs. However, the feminization of poverty remains a countertrend. Disparity also characterizes the situation of minority men, some of whom have benefited from affirmative action, while others have sunk into the "underclass." The labor market remains divided by sex and race, while the movement for comparable worth, or equal pay for work of comparable value, remains stalled in controversy.⁴⁹

The next quarter-century will require imaginative policies to fulfill the vision of racial and gender justice. If the past is any guide to the future, only persistent Federal action can help win the battle for equal opportunity; the Department of Labor can play a crucial role in this battle. □

Men's and women's earnings

The data most often used to compare the earnings of women with the earnings of men include two series produced by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The first is annual earnings of year-round full-time workers; this series, produced once each year, was begun several decades ago. The second series—usual weekly earnings of full-time workers—has been produced on a quarterly basis since 1979. Both series are averages unadjusted for differences in experience, occupation, or industry mix.

Trends in the ratio of women's to men's earnings, selected years, 1960-87

Year	Ratio of median earnings (percent)	
	Annual earnings of year-round full-time workers	Usual weekly earnings of full-time workers
1960	60.8	N.A.
1970	59.4	N.A.
1979	59.7	62.5
1980	60.2	64.4
1986	64.3	69.2
1987	N.A.	70.0

N.A. = data not available.

NOTE: Data refer to earnings of wage and salary workers.

SOURCE: Annual earnings: Current Population Survey, March 1961, 1971, 1980, 1981, and 1987. Weekly earnings: Current Population Survey, 1979, 1980, 1986, and 1987 annual average data.

FOOTNOTES

¹ For a discussion of labor market segmentation by race and sex, see William Harris, *The Harder We Run: Black Workers Since the Civil War* (New York, Oxford University Press, 1982); and Alice Kessler-Harris, *Out to Work: A History of Wage-Earning Women in the United States* (New York, Oxford University Press, 1982).

² See John Hope Franklin and Alfred A. Moss, Jr., *From Slavery to Freedom: A History of Negro Americans*, 5th ed. (New York, Alfred A. Knopf, 1988), pp. 227-318. On the early history of the Department of Labor, see Jonathan Grossman, *The Department of Labor* (New York, Praeger Publishers, 1973), pp. 3-30.

³ For the history of protective legislation, see Judith Baer, *The Chains of Protection: The Judicial Response to Women's Labor Legislation* (Westport, CT, Greenwood Press, 1978). See also U.S. Department of Labor, *Fourth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1916), pp. 62–64.

⁴ *Reports of the Department of Labor, 1917* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1918), pp. 79–80.

⁵ For information on women workers during World War I, see Maurine Weiner Greenwald, *Women, War, and Work: The Impact of World War I on Women Workers in the United States* (Westport, CT, Greenwood Press, 1980); and *Reports of the Department of Labor, 1918* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1919), pp. 114–15, 118–24.

⁶ Henry Guzda, "The Labor Department's First Program to Assist Black Workers," *Monthly Labor Review*, June 1982, pp. 39–44, and his "Social Experiment of the Labor Department: The Division of Negro Economics," *The Public Historian*, Fall 1982, pp. 7–37. See also *Monthly Labor Review*, September 1918, pp. 513–14, on the establishment of the Division.

⁷ *Reports of the Department of Labor, 1917*, pp. 71–74; Mary Van Kleeck, "First Annual Report of the Director of the Women in Industry Service," *Reports of the Department of Labor, 1919* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1920), pp. 1133–59. She was particularly concerned with the impact of night work on the family and the functioning of State protective legislation in this and other areas during the war. As early as June 1917, the Children's Bureau, part of the Labor Department at the time, investigated the impact of mothers' work outside the home on their children. See *1917 Report*, pp. 140–41.

⁸ Judith Sealander, *As Minority Becomes Majority: Federal Reaction to the Phenomenon of Women in the Work Force, 1920–1963* (Westport, CT, Greenwood Press, 1983), pp. 13–55; Mary Anderson, "Second Annual Report of the Director of the Women's Bureau, for the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1920," in U.S. Department of Labor, *Reports of the Department of Labor, 1920* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1921), pp. 883–92; and "Report of the Director of the Women's Bureau," 1925 (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1926), p. 2. See also the annual reports from 1921 through 1932. On race and standards, see "Report of the Director of the Women's Bureau," 1922 (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1923), p. 12.

⁹ Guzda, "Social Experiment of the Labor Department," pp. 29–37.

¹⁰ For an extended analysis of this point, see Eileen Boris and Peter Bardaglio, "Gender, Race, and Class: The Impact of the State on the Family and the Economy, 1790–1945," in Naomi Gerstel and Harriet Engel Gross, eds., *Families and Work* (Philadelphia, Temple University Press, 1987), pp. 141–46.

¹¹ Harris, *The Harder We Run*, p. 95; and Philip S. Foner, *Organized Labor and the Black Worker, 1619–1973* (New York, International Publishers, 1974). For blacks and the New Deal, see Nancy Weiss, *Farewell to the Party of Lincoln* (Princeton, NJ, Princeton University Press, 1983); and Harvard Sitkoff, *A New Deal for Blacks* (New York, Oxford University Press, 1978).

¹² Henry Guzda, "Frances Perkins' Interest in a New Deal for Blacks," *Monthly Labor Review*, April 1980, pp. 31–35. On U.S. Employment Service policy of nondiscrimination, see "The Negro Applicant," *Twenty-Seventh Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1939), p. 28.

¹³ Grossman, *The Department of Labor*, p. 45.

¹⁴ Guzda, "Frances Perkins," p. 34; and George Martin, *Madame Secretary: Frances Perkins* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1976), p. 297.

¹⁵ See Jacqueline Jones, *Labor of Love, Labor of Sorrow: Black Women, Work and the Family* (New York, Basic Books, 1985), pp. 174–77; and Julia Kirk Blackwelder, *Women of the Depression: Caste and Culture in San Antonio, 1929–1939* (College Station, TX, Texas A&M University Press, 1984), pp. 110–26, 171–72.

¹⁶ For the attempt to dismiss married women workers from employment, including jobs in the Federal Government, see Lois Scharf, *To Work and Wed: Female Employment, Feminism, and the Great Depression* (Westport, CT, Greenwood Press, 1980), pp. 43–65. For the Women's Bureau response, see Sealander, *As Minority Becomes Majority*, pp. 58–61. See also Mary Anderson, "Women's Bureau," *Twenty-First Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1933), p. 93.

¹⁷ Mary Elizabeth Pidgeon, "Employed Women Under N.R.A. Codes," *Bulletin of the Women's Bureau*, no. 130 (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1935).

¹⁸ For information on the Women's Bureau and the National Recovery Administration, see the annual reports of the Labor Department for 1933, 1934, and 1935, especially *Twenty-Second Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1934), p. 100; and Pidgeon, "Employed Women."

¹⁹ For the history of home work regulation, see Eileen Boris, "Homework in the Past, Its Meaning for the Future," in Kathleen Christensen, ed., *New Era in Homework: Directions and Policy* (Boulder, CO, Westview Press, forthcoming 1988).

²⁰ Sealander, *As Minority Becomes Majority*, pp. 57–94; and annual reports of the Department of Labor, 1933–1939, especially *Twenty-Fourth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1936), p. 148. For the ways that Bureau programs for domestics reflected how white women regarded their black women servants, see Phyllis Palmer, "Housewife and Household Worker: Employer-Employee Relationships in the Home, 1928–1941," in Carol Groneman and Mary Beth Norton, eds., *To Toil the Livelong Day: America's Women at Work, 1790–1980* (Ithaca, NY, Cornell University Press, 1987), pp. 179–95.

²¹ For a summary of activities during the war, see "Women's Bureau," *Thirty-Fourth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1946), pp. 196–208.

²² See *Thirty-Fourth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor*, pp. 204–05. For a perceptive analysis of the struggle for equal pay during the war years, see Ruth Milkman, *Gender At Work: The Dynamics of Job Segregation by Sex during World War II* (Urbana, University of Illinois Press, 1987), pp. 63–83.

²³ "Negro Women War Workers," *Bulletin of the Women's Bureau*, no. 205 (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1945).

²⁴ Under Fair Employment Practices Committee scrutiny, the percentage of blacks as war workers increased from about 2.5 percent in 1942 to 8 percent by the end of 1944. See Harris, *The Harder We Run*, pp. 122, 117–18; and Foner, *Organized Labor and the Black Worker*, p. 243.

²⁵ See Foner, *Organized Labor and the Black Worker*, pp. 238–39, 243.

²⁶ For examples of such reports, see Philip Foner and Ronald Lewis, *The Black Worker, A Documentary History*

from *Colonial Times to the Present*, vol. 7 (Philadelphia, Temple University Press, 1983), pp. 232, 239–49.

²⁷ See *Monthly Labor Review*, November 1943, pp. 952–53; U.S. Employment Service, “Survey of the Employment Situation in Memphis,” June 1942; and “Negro Composition of Placements,” December 1941 to February 1942, in files of the Division of Negro Labor, National Archives, RG 183. See also John Beecher files on Memphis in FEPC files, National Archives, RG 228; and Merl E. Reed, “FEPC and the Federal Agencies in the South,” *Journal of Negro History*, Winter 1980, pp. 43–56.

²⁸ In surveying the annual reports of the Secretary of Labor from 1940 to 1945, we could find no significant discussion of racial discrimination or the problems of black workers. But, see Harris, *The Harder We Run*, 114–19; and Foner, *Organized Labor and the Black Worker*, chapter 17.

²⁹ Milkman, *Gender at Work*, pp. 99–127; Harris, *The Harder We Run*, pp. 125–30; *Thirty-Fifth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1947), pp. 18–19; *Thirty-Sixth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1948), pp. 6–7; and U.S. Department of Labor, “Mobilizing Labor for Defense: A Summary of Significant Labor Developments in Time of Emergency,” *Thirty-Ninth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1952), especially pp. 141–43.

³⁰ Grossman, *The Department of Labor*, pp. 65–74; and Vivian Vale, *Labour in American Politics* (New York, Barnes and Noble, 1971), pp. 100–28.

³¹ See *Index to the Monthly Labor Review* from 1941–1950 and 1951–1960 in the library of the Department of Labor, Washington.

³² *Thirty-Eighth Annual Report*, p. 68; and Grossman, *The Department of Labor*, p. 104.

³³ Richard B. Craig, *The Bracero Program, Interest Groups and Foreign Policy* (Austin, University of Texas Press, 1971); and Grossman, *The Department of Labor*, p. 80.

³⁴ *Thirty-Fourth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor*, pp. 211–13; and Sealander, *As Minority Becomes Majority*, Appendix B, “The Bulletins and Special Bulletins of the Women’s Bureau, United States Department of Labor, 1920–1963,” pp. 175–79.

³⁵ See Annual Reports of the Secretary of Labor from 1945 through 1962, especially *Thirty-Fourth Annual Report*, pp. 212–13; *Thirty-Fifth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1947), pp. 109–10; *Thirty-Sixth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1948), pp. 93–102; *Thirty-Eighth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1950), pp. 185–88; *Forty-Fourth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1956), pp. 258–60; *Forty-Sixth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1958), pp. 255–56; and *Forty-Seventh Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1959), pp. 265, 275.

³⁶ On the 1964 Civil Rights Act, see Patricia Zelman, *Women, Work, and National Policy: The Kennedy-Johnson Years* (Ann Arbor, MI, UMI Research Press, 1982), pp. 55–71.

³⁷ “Women’s Bureau,” *Fifty-Second Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor for the Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1964* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1964), pp. 217–21; and *Fifty-Fifth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor for the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1967* (Washington,

U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 11. See also Cynthia Harrison, “A ‘New Frontier’ for Women: The Public Policy of the Kennedy Administration,” *Journal of American History*, December 1980, pp. 635–45; and Sealander, *As Minority Becomes Majority*, pp. 133–51.

³⁸ On the impact of social movements in these years, see William Chafe, *The Unfinished Journey: America Since World War II* (New York, Oxford University Press, 1986). On equal pay, see Nancy E. McGlen and Karen O’Connor, *Women’s Rights: The Struggle for Equality in the 19th & 20th Centuries* (New York, Praeger, 1983), pp. 170–75. On manpower, see Grossman, *The Department of Labor*, p. 77.

³⁹ Secretary of Labor W. Willard Wirtz as quoted in *Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor*, 1967, pp. 1–2. See also *Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor*, 1966, p. 4.

⁴⁰ See Annual Reports, 1965–68, especially 1968, pp. 4, 8; and *Fifty-Third Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor for the Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1965* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1965), p. 220; and Grossman, *The Department of Labor*, pp. 79–82, 118–51. For a critical assessment of the National Committee on Household Employment, see Phyllis Palmer, “Housework and Domestic Labor: Racial and Technological Change,” in Karen Brodtkin Sacks and Dorothy Remy, eds., *My Troubles Are Going To Have Trouble With Me: Everyday Trials and Triumphs of Women Workers* (New Brunswick, NJ, Rutgers University Press, 1984), pp. 86–88.

⁴¹ *Sixty-First Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973), pp. 29–30. See also *Sixty-Second Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974), p. 21; *Sixty-Third Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975), pp. 11–16, 30–33; and *Sixty-Fourth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976), pp. 12–13, 31–32.

⁴² See, for example, Ray Marshall, *The Negro and Apprenticeship* (Baltimore, Johns Hopkins University Press, 1967); *The Negro and Organized Labor* (New York, Wiley, 1965); *The Negro Worker* (New York, Random House, 1967); and, with Virgil L. Christian, Jr., *Employment of Blacks in the South: A Perspective on the 1960s* (Austin, University of Texas Press, 1978).

⁴³ See the Annual Reports of the Secretary of Labor from 1976–78, especially *Sixty-Sixth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978), p. vi.

⁴⁴ For information on public works under the Carter administration, see Annual Reports, 1976–1980, especially *Sixty-Fifth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977), p. 24. For information on the Women’s Bureau, for example, see *Sixty-Eighth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1980), pp. 149–55.

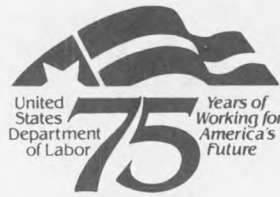
⁴⁵ *Sixty-Sixth Annual Report*, p. 62.

⁴⁶ For information on the Women’s Bureau, see Annual Reports of the Secretary of Labor, 1981–1986. For the philosophy of the Reagan administration, see the recent Annual Reports of the Secretary of Labor, 1982–1987.

⁴⁷ Annual Reports of the Secretary of Labor, 1981–1985.

⁴⁸ See *Money, Income, and Poverty Status of Families and Persons in the United States—Current Population Reports*, series P-60, no. 157 (Bureau of the Census, 1986).

⁴⁹ Barbara Bergmann, *The Economic Emergence of Women* (New York, Basic Books, 1986); and Alphonso Pinkney, *The Myth of Black Progress* (New York, Cambridge University Press, 1984).



Reflections of eight former Secretaries

*Men who headed the Department of Labor
during the last quarter-century
assess achievements
and disappointments in office*

Labor-management relations a high priority: 1961–62

ARTHUR J. GOLDBERG

The conventional wisdom about the Kennedy Administration is that it was high on charisma but bereft of legislative achievements.

I cannot speak of the experience of other executive departments of the Government, but the reality, rather than the myth, is that more labor and related legislation was enacted during 1961–62 than during the tenure of any prior Secretary of Labor, with the exception of the great legislation of the New Deal.

There follows a summary list of initiatives and accomplishments involving the Department of Labor during this period. This list is illustrative rather than all-encompassing:

- The Temporary Extended Unemployment Compensation Act of 1961, which temporarily extended unemployment benefits on a national basis, rather than State by State, without trigger points;
- A bill increasing the minimum wage (effective September 3, 1961);
- The Area Redevelopment Act, providing

Arthur J. Goldberg served as Secretary of Labor in 1961–62.

retraining for persons in high-unemployment areas (Public Law 87–27, signed May 1, 1961);

- A bill to provide for an additional Assistant Secretary of Labor, a woman, with enlarged responsibilities beyond heading the Women's Bureau (signed August 1961);

- Amendment of the Welfare and Pension Plans Disclosure Act (Public Law 87–420, signed March 20, 1962) to authorize the Secretary of Labor to examine reports from health and welfare plan administrators, and to investigate suspected cases of wrongdoing;

- Amendment of the Juvenile Delinquency Act to safeguard the rights of youthful offenders;

- An amendment to the Railroad Retirement Act which permitted early retirement on reduced benefits for certain workers (Public Law 87–285, signed September 22, 1961);

- Executive veto of a bill relating to longevity step increases for postal employees;

- A bill providing health and housing protection for migrant workers (Public Law 87–345, signed October 3, 1961); and

- The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, which authorized the appropriation of \$435 million for a 3-year program of occupa-

tional training for the unemployed and underemployed (Public Law 87-45, signed March 15, 1962).

In addition, there was a host of Executive Orders and important statements relating to labor matters. I shall cite only several:

- Establishment of the President's Advisory Committee on Labor-Management Policy;
- An order creating the President's Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity;
- The statement on Youth Employment Opportunities and Training;
- An order regarding minimum wage rates for government employees;
- An order requiring, for the first time, that Government agencies engage in collective bargaining with their employees (Executive Order 10988, signed January 17, 1962);
- Creation of the President's Commission on the Status of Women (Executive Order 10980, signed December 14, 1961);
- The establishment of the Pennsylvania Avenue Development Plan;
- An order improving the provision for aid for the handicapped.

Further, in recognition of the role of labor in our economic life, the Secretary of Labor was a member of a small "kitchen cabinet" advising the President on the state of the economy.

All of the above was surprising to some, in light of the fact that the Department of Labor was, at the time, the smallest department of the Government, but on the whole, this volume of activity was not controversial.

What was controversial during my tenure as Secretary Labor was the intervention of the Secretary and the Department in the settlement of major industrial disputes. This should not have been surprising, as both admirers and critics of the policy professed. President Kennedy believed in an activist government to protect the public interest. I shared this belief.

But what about the Conciliation Service?

The U.S. Conciliation Service had been severed from the Department and reestablished as an independent Federal agency in 1947, at the insistence of Senator Robert Taft, in a move viewed by some as a rather spiteful attack on then Secretary of Labor Frances Perkins. This separation was, and is, untenable. To successfully mediate settlements in major labor disputes, the prestige and "muscle" of the President and of the Secretary are often required and, on the whole, invited by the parties concerned. Thus, as Secretary, I—with the support of the President, and often with his personal participation—successfully mediated many important labor disputes.

Here, too, I shall mention only several of the areas in which we sought to mediate disputes: tugboats, steel, airlines, missile sites, maritime, aerospace, nuclear submarines, longshoring, automobile manufacture, construction, and, to the astonishment of many, the Metropolitan Opera.

In light of the peculiar nature of the last of the above-mentioned settlements, why should a secretary intervene in the case of the Metropolitan Opera? The reason is that the Metropolitan Opera is our only national opera company and, if a prolonged strike shuts down the opera, the principals, who are very much in demand, may be offered contracts of relatively long duration by European opera companies. Without the arbitration settlement reached in December 1961, the net result might well have been the end of the Metropolitan Opera, a national cultural asset. Besides, Jackie Kennedy asked the President to have me intervene and what President or Secretary of Labor could turn down a request from Mrs. Kennedy?

Inasmuch as I possessed no statutory power to enforce settlements and only mediated them, why the controversy over this approach? It is gospel for both management and labor at conventions, meetings, and the like to say that there should be no government interference with collective bargaining. This is empty rhetoric. I am not for compulsory arbitration, mandated by law, except in the most exigent circumstances, but mediation is a different matter.

All a good mediator can do is try to persuade the parties to agree upon a responsible compromise. Surely any administration, faced with economic problems of great magnitude, cannot afford prolonged strikes. At the very least, it should exercise its powers of persuasion to prevent them.

It needs emphasis that mediation in no way interferes with but, on the contrary, facilitates collective bargaining settlements.

In mediating these strikes, was I violating the law which separated the Conciliation Service from the Department of Labor? My answer to that is simple. The President can certainly offer his good services to mediate any industrial dispute which may have profound economic consequences. And, because the President can do this, his designated Cabinet officer, the Secretary of Labor, can do likewise.

In all of these highly publicized strike settlements, in virtually every case solicited by influential members of both parties, I had the complete support of Mr. William E. Simkin, the Director of the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service, which was the successor agency to the U.S. Conciliation Service. This wise mediator knew the value of having the power and



Arthur J. Goldberg

prestige of the Presidency, as exercised through his Secretary of Labor, employed in the settlement of strikes affecting the national interest. Mr. Simkin and the Mediation Service were not lacking for other disputes in which to employ their undisputed talents of mediation.

As a by-product of the high-profile strike settlements and the public support which they engendered, Congress voted the Department of Labor the most effective Department in our Government in a Gallup poll. And because this was Congress' view, the legislation we sponsored was by and large supported on a bipartisan basis by Congress. This, I think, is something to reflect upon at the present time and perhaps for the future.

A final word. My agreement with President Kennedy, before accepting appointment, was that there would be no John Steelman in the White House. In previous administrations, the

President's staff often exercised the final word in labor matters. This was notably true during the tenure of John Steelman, a Presidential aide in the White House during the Truman administration.

There is a Parkinson's law applicable to both labor and management. The White House is the ultimate seat of executive power, and both labor and management sought to override the Secretary of Labor in their own interest by resorting to the White House when they did not get the results they wanted from the Labor Department.

This did not happen during my tenure. I had direct access to the President when necessary.

I express the hope, rather than the conviction, that all Secretaries will have similar access, without having to clear proposals with a staff member at the White House who usually does not possess the Secretary's expertise. □

"...all a good mediator can do is try to persuade...."

Humanitarian initiatives during the 1960's

WILLARD WIRTZ

When he was asked, shortly after the 1956 presidential campaign, to comment on the American political process, Adlai Stevenson demurred—on the grounds that an egg (or an egghead, the erudite candidate added) is a poor judge of an eggbeater. He was not pressed further.

Although Cabinet service is a less harrowing experience, former Secretaries subpoenaed to testify regarding their tenures properly recognize related restraints. The view from the front office is inevitably skewed. Its occupants play only a small part in the operations that 10,000 or 15,000 people in the Department carry on. And especially after 20 years, the realization sets in that memory serves more as a filter than a looking glass. This testimony will benefit from brevity.

The early and middle 1960's were unquestionably a gratifying, often exhilarating, time to be in the Department of Labor. A new President, John F. Kennedy, looking with youth's idealism at the stars of human purpose, charted

a course for the Nation that would be hard to hold. When totally senseless and inconceivable tragedy tore those hands from the tiller, casting a pall that never lifted, history's perhaps most skillful political navigator, Lyndon B. Johnson, kept that course and carried it forward. In 2 years, 1964 and 1965, more was done to reassert the country's authentic human values, as many of us see them today, than during any previous decade, with the possible exception of the 1930's.

Whatever is properly identified as the Labor Department's significance and character during the 1962-68 period is drawn from broader developments. They centered on the outlawing of two centuries of discrimination, bordering on bigotry, that had been based on race and gender. One critical expression of these biases had been in employment. The Department's performance would be properly measured by what was done or was not done to establish equal job opportunity. I remember our feeling at the time was more of frustration than satisfaction. Yet perhaps we went as far—in adding the "affirmative action" requirement, for example—as we could.

"...more was done to reassert the country's human values...."

Willard Wirtz served as Secretary of Labor during 1962-69.

Establishing equal job opportunity became more than just a matter of enforcing new laws. It seemed fair to say in my 1968 Annual Report (perhaps one of the few in this series written by the person who signed it):

There emerged in the Department during this period. . . a sense of a dimension of the "welfare of the wage earner" not contemplated when that phrase was adopted in 1913 as the Department's charge and charter. This is his or her welfare. . . not just as a wage earner but as a human being. . . (There was) new questioning of the extent to which the worker is correctly conceived of as being created to meet the needs of the enterprise and the system, and of the extent to which it is the other way around. . . It was the unifying and dignifying theme in the history of the Department of Labor, 1963 to 1968, that wage earners—and those seeking that status—are people. Not statistics. Not drones. Human beings—for whom work. . . constitutes one of the potential ultimate satisfactions.

If, in time's perspective, the reach of our rhetoric appears to have exceeded the grasp of our achievements, this is what we are looking for.

The 1963–68 period is commonly marked in the Department's history by the emergence of what was called, until the phrase became obsolete, a manpower program. Subsequent questioning of the effectiveness of that startup phase of this program confirms its significance. Our satisfaction was not in providing employment or training for 3 million people—which was too few—but in getting it recognized that the working of the economy includes no dynamic that will assure a match between available jobs and people's competence to perform them. Two decades later, the country is still only edging toward the realization that achieving the national potential depends on a vastly enlarged and invigorated educational program, in which job and career training is a carefully articulated piece—and in my own view, on the development of a national service program, directed particularly at the needs of young people.

In a broader sense, whatever were the important elements of the Department's character then, as in any period, emerges from looking at what seeds were planted rather than from measuring the harvest of legislative accomplishment. It was a period when, despite the gains in 1964 and 1965, the country was *trying* beyond its achievements.

The Department provided a regiment for the "war on poverty." If this, too, stands out in time's perspective more for its aspirations than for its results, the instruction of the effort was that, here again, the neutralizing of poverty requires giving all children, regardless of their roots and circumstances, the tools to make the

highest and best use of what they have in them.

We tried in 1965 and 1966 to press the Congress to make substantial changes in the unemployment insurance system, which was then—as it is today—essentially the same as it had been for 30 years. The potential for tying this system into a retraining program for displaced workers is immense.

Our efforts to stop the slow murder that was going on in the uranium mines were at least partly successful, and the President's "Mission Safety" program to reduce injuries to Federal employees made significant gains. However, efforts to get a national occupational health and safety program enacted fell short. Our successors did what we were not able to.

I suspect that one of the Department's major contributions during the 1960's was in the area of Federal employment relationships. At the President's instruction in 1967, an interagency committee—chaired by the Secretary of Labor, directed in large measure by the Assistant Secretary for Labor-Management Relations, and assisted immeasurably by a distinguished panel of experts from outside the Government—prepared a report recommending the establishment of a new system for handling collective bargaining and grievance adjustments within the Government. The report—published, but not formally transmitted—would constitute much of the basis for Title VII of the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978.

It has been interesting to watch from the sidelines the evolving appraisal of the "humanitarian" initiatives the Government—and the country—took in the 1960's. They are sometimes judged by standards that question the advisability of large governmental expenditures and of reducing unemployment at the risk of increasing the threat of inflation. As of 1968, unemployment stood at 3.3 percent, exactly half of what it had been in 1960; annual inflation had averaged, over those 8 years, 2.2 percent; the national debt stood in 1986 at \$369.8 billion, a fraction of its current level. No one in the Department of Labor would claim the slightest credit for this record. It suggests broadly the context in which these programs developed.

Even briefest appraisal of what happened during the 1960's would be critically incomplete without recognition of the key role that organized labor was playing then in the country's affairs. This is sometimes recalled in terms of the frequent recurrence during that period of industry-wide collective bargaining controversies that seemed to threaten the entire economy. That problem has been outgrown. It was more important that the AFL-CIO supported every human welfare initiative taken by the adminis-



W. Willard Wirtz

tration—involving civil rights, civil liberties, education, housing, the fight against poverty—and represented the political swing force on many of them.

The national momentum from which the Department had drawn much of its strength was lost late in the decade. I suppose the bitterness of divided feelings about Vietnam was primarily responsible. We learned that any government agency's effectiveness in shaping policy is largely a function of forces that it can control only in very slight measure.

It is harder, perhaps impossible, to appraise the Department's performance during that period on the operational fronts which cover 95 percent or so of its job. These are in large measure the responsibility, as a practical matter, of career personnel. The Department has always been the beneficiary of a tradition of proud and competent civil servants.

We did try to improve the effectiveness of what is essentially a two-government system: one professional (and relatively permanent), the other political (and temporary). New political officers get little real feel the first year or two of the workings of a career staff. We had the advantages of having only three Secretaries of Labor during the 16-year period between 1952 and 1968 and of having an unusual continuity among subcabinet officers during most of the 1960's.

The 1968 annual report details the efforts that were made to increase the effectiveness of the two-government system. They were concentrated on improving the channels of communi-

cations, especially those that ought to carry ideas up the line as well as down. We didn't get very far. Our conclusion that "the Department's effectiveness would be doubled if its prose were cut in half" stopped just short of indicating how this would be accomplished.

We tried to develop, under the leadership of an extraordinary Assistant Secretary for Administration, a "modern management system" that would permit objective measurements of work performance. Considering this particularly important in the two-government system, we encountered the related difficulty that "such a system is resisted by political executives as another restraint on their instinct for management and by those down the line as a checkup on their performance." The 1968 report concluded evasively that "quite a lot of progress in this direction leaves a good deal more required."

A special effort to make service in the Department attractive to competent young people reflected the expressed view that "the single most ominous long-range problem in Government administration is (how) to attract top-flight college graduates in substantial numbers." I guess, in retrospect, that this is less a matter of departmental administration than of how overall Government policies consist with youth's impossible dreams.

I haven't mentioned one highlight of being in the Department in the 1960's. It meant our hosting its Fiftieth Anniversary. That was a proud occasion. So, half again more, of the Seventy-Fifth. □

"...carry ideas up the line as well as down."

Enactment of OSHA required ingenious compromises and strategies

JAMES D. HODGSON

At my confirmation hearings, the committee chairman was all business. From behind his walnut barrier, Senator Ralph Yarborough of Texas fixed me with an appraising eye, bade me welcome, and shot a direct question: "Mr. Hodgson, if you are confirmed as this Nation's 12th Secretary of Labor, is there anything in particular you will seek to accomplish?"

James D. Hodgson served as Secretary of Labor during 1970-73.

I was ready for the question. "I hope to do something to improve the environment of the American workplace," I responded.

In retrospect, I shudder at my phrasing. After only 16 months in Washington I had obviously acquired an advanced case of "bureauspeak" disease. A straightforward answer would have found me saying, "I will work for a new job safety law." For that is exactly what I had in mind.

These reflections retrace the events that hooked me into pressing for Federal action in the job health and safety sphere and recall the

strategies I used to bring about enactment of the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 (OSHA). Although OSHA has been roundly condemned in many quarters, I regard its passage as the most satisfying step forward—both for American industry and its more than 100 million workers—that occurred during my tenure at the U.S. Department of Labor. I certainly put a lot of myself into it.

When I arrived at the Labor Department as Under Secretary, I could not claim to have had a personal passion for health and safety legislation. I had come from the aircraft industry, which had outstanding job safety records. Because lives depended directly on the safety of our product, everyone in the air transportation industry was intensely safety conscious—management, unions, engineers—everyone. A remarkably safe workplace was the result.

With this background shaping my views, I had little reason to believe safety legislation ranked as a priority for Federal regulation. It took less than 3 months in Washington to open my eyes and reverse my view.

This is what happened: In early 1969, when Secretary George Shultz and I suddenly found ourselves front and center in the Department of Labor, two pesky safety issues awaited our immediate attention. A new set of safety standards to the Public Contract (Walsh-Healey) Act of 1936 had been issued in a storm of protest, with “overkill” and “arbitrary” among the milder epithets applied. This act, among other matters, prescribes health and safety standards for Federal construction projects.

At the same time, from deep in Utah’s new uranium mines came critical rumblings. Some mysterious radioactive compounds were being loosed in mineshafts—compounds suspected of having a deleterious effect on human lungs. Action was required.

Eventually, we solved both of these issues. But in the process, I underwent a crash course in American workplace health and safety. After poring over a myriad of tracts and texts, reviewing reams of recorded data, soliciting the views of scores of professionals, and sending an assistant to Europe to study safety measures there, two points struck me.

First, many—far too many—American industries had deplorable, even inexcusable, job health and safety performance. Second, those industries with good performance had uniformly installed sound standards and instilled positive attitudes on the subject. The conclusion was almost inescapable. Here was an area where Federal attention could make a difference—a difference that often involved lives. Sadly, more American lives were then being lost in the

workplace than in the Vietnam conflict. And the trend was worsening.

So, what to do? Should we offer legislation?

One Department of Labor expert of long experience suggested legislation would be a waste of time. “Forget it,” he counseled, “the last Administration tried it and got shot down. . . industry is dead set against it.”

Coming from industry, I was skeptical. So I carried my inquiries into corporate mahogany row.

“I’m told American management opposes job safety legislation,” I began. Then I demanded, “I want to know why.” The answer came back loud and clear.

“We are not antisafety. We simply did not like several features found in the previous bill.”

So I compiled a list of industry objections. Among other things, industry considered the earlier bill faulty because:

- It would “junk” a number of fully proven health and safety laws then existing at the State level.
- It would give the Labor Department power to play all roles in a safety case—from investigator and prosecutor to judge and jury.
- It would install enforcement procedures believed to be punitive rather than remedial.

There were other reasons but, importantly, from no source did I hear that the Federal Government should stay out of the job health and safety arena, nor did anyone question the need for better health and safety standards in the American workplace.

So outright resistance by industry was not a problem. The solution seemed to lie in fashioning a bill that would produce results without giving industry the feeling that the “Feds were bent on a power grab.”

To do this, we sought ideas on health and safety issues from professionals, unions, industries, and legislators. We created a broad-based advisory council. One of our basic tenets for drafting a workable act was to be as broadly consultative as possible.

After several weeks, we had a rough draft. With a bit of innocent pride, I sent it to Patrick Moynihan, then head of the White House Domestic Council. Back it came with a message: “Where are the megathoughts? Reach a little!”

I had to admit Moynihan was right. Our first version had been strictly a standard “meat and potatoes” presentation, a serving of only the basics. It needed some forward-thinking ideas to whet congressional appetites.

So we expanded our exploratory consultations. Senator Jacob Javits of New York provided us astute counsel on how to expand the health component of the bill. Howard Pyle,



James D. Hodgson

head of the National Safety Council, favored us with practical suggestions. A recognized health and safety expert, William Haddon, injected creative perspective.

About this time, President Richard M. Nixon was preparing his 1970 state of the Nation speech. A memo arrived from the White House asking, "Anything you want included in the speech?"

You bet! I wrote a strong paragraph on the need for health and safety legislation. Well, we didn't get a paragraph, but we did get a sentence. That was enough, for then we knew we had the blessing of the President. After a few more weeks of diligent revisions, our proud health and safety bill was eagerly tossed into the congressional hopper.

Its reception, I'm afraid, resembled a massive yawn. Organized labor favored a competing bill, which we believed repeated faulty features of the former proposal. Industry management still seemed wary.

In retrospect, I realize I had two responsibilities: first, to persuade management that our bill was fair and, second, to persuade the unions that the bill they favored was a loser.

To win management over, my first move was to get invited to a convention of top industrial executives at the Chamber of Commerce headquarters in Washington, DC. There I "tub-thumped" at length on the need for a bill and explained how our bill dealt fairly with industry's previous objections. The ensuing applause could not be called deafening, but it was adequate. If we could hold to our basic principles, industry would, at least, not oppose our bill.

To fortify our stance with professionals in the working world, we bombarded safety engineers throughout the country with pleas for support. Gradually, they took our side. To ensure that State governments would not block our efforts, I explained our bill at a Governors' conference in San Francisco and got a good reception.

However, organized labor's preference for a competing bill was a tough barrier to surmount. Labor did not actually oppose our bill. The unions merely preferred another one which we believed was flawed.

With competing health and safety bills deadlocked and stalled in congressional committees,

we needed to get things moving. So I did something I have never liked to do. At the Steelworkers convention in Atlantic City, I announced at a news conference that I would recommend presidential veto of the opposing bill should it clear the Congress. This tactic is hardly a route to personal popularity, but I believed it was needed to stimulate action. Happily, it did.

Faced with a possible prospect of no health and safety bill at all, interested congressmen now rallied support for legislation that would at least resemble our bill. Efforts by Labor Committee members William Hathaway of Maine and the late William Steiger of Wisconsin got things moving. At the Labor Department, Under Secretary Larry Silberman picked up the ball. Day after day, he prowled congressional offices, cajoling the uncommitted and devising ingenious compromises. With incomparable tenacity, Silberman kept the ball rolling forward.

The health and safety bill slowly wound its tortuous way through committees, constantly being reshaped and refined, and onto the floor.

Then one day it was passed by both the House of Representatives and the Senate!! A comprehensive health and safety bill was on its way to the White House for the President's signature.

Should I recommend the President sign it? At best, the final bill was only a first cousin of the one the administration had originally proposed. Nonetheless, it contained the needed essentials. I endorsed it. The President signed the Occupational Safety and Health Act into law on December 29, 1970.

Later, in a celebration ceremony at the Labor Department with many notables looking on, I got carried away. "This OSHA bill," I trumpeted, "is as important a milestone for the American worker as the Fair Labor Standards Act or the Labor-Management Relations Act."

On second thought, maybe my elation was not that far off the mark. Today, OSHA's influence is felt in the American workplace. Clearly the act has provided a sharp escalation of attention and priority for industrial health and safety. However, it has not been without its glitches and detractors. This troubles me not. Despite its critics, OSHA is a worthwhile measure with a worthy purpose. I am glad to have had a part in its birth. □

"...a worthwhile measure with a worthy purpose...."

A benchmark of progress: 1973-75

PETER J. BRENNAN

Each administration develops a record of achievements, as well as a sense of disappointment with respect to projects and programs not completed. For the most part, our sense of disappointment resulted not from lack of experience and dedication, nor from lack of drive and initiative to solve the many and complex issues. The simple truth is that there is always much to be done and so little time in any Secretary's term in which to complete every important part of his or her, and the Department's, general program. It must also be remembered that the period of my service as Secretary of Labor was unusually turbulent because of the energy crisis, and the resulting high unemployment, and the traumatic political climate of the Watergate years.

The unique task of improving the rights of and protections for the American labor force involves the difficult and lengthy process of changing ingrained traditions and practices, as well as overcoming political inertia. Under these circumstances, change may only take place through new or revised regulations (which need endless government review); amendments of existing statutes; and, of major importance, the recommendation and active pursuit of new and enlightened legislation. A comprehensive labor legislative agenda often requires action not only by the U.S. Congress, but also by State, city, and county elected officials.

In addition to seeking legislation, America's salaried workers and the various levels of government must be prepared administratively and philosophically to seek adjudication in the courts. During and since my tenure, the courts have demonstrated a greater recognition of the existing inequities which have retarded reasonable progress in the important areas of basic rights and safety for working men and women.

In spite of general concern and disappointment in not having completed my total agenda, I do believe that American workers did achieve many new and important rights and protections during my tenure. With a clear conscience and conviction, I can say that the Department's achievements far outweighed its incomplete general program. By way of example, the following were among the most significant and prominent changes in public policy during the years 1973-75:

Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) of 1973. Consistent with a general government effort to decentralize authority and responsibility, the Department on its own initiative revamped its field organization and operations in this area. This placed Federal funds and decisionmaking authority in the hands of State and local government officials. This, in turn, improved effectiveness, clearly reduced administrative delay, and brought the system closer to the people who needed assistance.

Enactment of CETA was a significant signal from the Congress and the administration that decentralization was indeed an important step in bringing the full range of Federal, State, and local government efforts to the grass roots level. It could only help needy citizens to train and qualify for useful and productive employment.

Job security assistance. The Department made strong representations to the Congress in support of the concept of extending unemployment insurance in areas with especially high unemployment. We were concerned that unemployment generated by the energy crisis, natural disasters, or similar emergencies would dislocate a trained work force and produce further economic problems for the geographic area involved.

Ultimately, the Congress passed a package, which included a bill to set up an emergency public jobs program and extend unemployment compensation coverage to approximately 12 million persons not previously eligible (H.R. 16596); a bill to give unemployed workers an additional 13 weeks of unemployment compensation (H.R. 17597); and a bill appropriating \$4 billion in 1975 to fund the emergency programs (H.J. Res. 1180).

Employee Retirement Income Security Act (ERISA) of 1974. One of the tragic ironies facing our retiring workers was the loss of retirement income because of inadequate protection against a number of possible fund deficiencies. We worked tirelessly in supporting congressional action to protect the benefit rights of millions of workers in the private sector.

The Department began extensive preparations to ensure that this landmark legislation was implemented as an important part of the new and emerging public policy as passed by the Congress and signed into law by the President.

Federal Committee on Apprenticeship. With our constant focus on the disadvantaged,



Peter J. Brennan

Peter J. Brennan served as Secretary of Labor during 1973-75.

we organized a joint labor-management Task Force on Apprenticeship, which met in Washington on July 25 and 26, 1973. The August 3 report of the Task Force led to the reactivation and expansion of the Federal Committee on Apprenticeship, which subsequently convened on July 23, 1974. Significantly, the recognition of the continued labor market difficulties of minorities was beginning to be reflected in the composition of the committee and its agenda. For the first time, the committee had minority representation, along with its first women members in 34 years. Our goal was to broaden the apprenticeship program generally to create more opportunity for all races and both sexes by extending its reach to many more occupations and industries.

Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA). In April 1974, President Nixon signed into law amendments to FLSA (P.L. 93-256), which contained a broad spectrum of provisions affecting the national minimum wage structure. Among the numerous changes and new provisions, the amended Fair Labor Standards Act:

- Increased the hourly minimum wage for all nonfarm employees covered by FLSA prior to 1966 amendments as well as for those employees covered by the 1966 amendments.
- Increased the hourly minimum wage for Federal employees covered by the 1966 amendments.
- Extended minimum wage and overtime coverage to approximately 5 million Federal, State, and local government employees.
- Extended the Age Discrimination Act of 1967 to a vast new group of workers in Federal, State, and local governments.

As soon as all of the amendments became law, we took immediate action to implement these dramatic changes. For example, we pursued an unrelenting campaign against age discrimination in the private sector. Through our decisive action, we negotiated a \$2 million settlement of an age discrimination suit against a Standard Oil Co. of California division. We intended to be fair but firm in eliminating discrimination in the workplace.

The Rehabilitation Act of 1973. The Department continued its outreach efforts to the physically and mentally handicapped. Through the Rehabilitation Act, the Department moved to end discriminatory practices by issuing regulations forcing firms holding Federal contracts to hire the handicapped. We took our new author-

ity one step further, by requiring firms with large contracts to have an approved, written hiring plan. We came down hard in this area and were soon seeing positive results. We had broken through the barrier.

There are other significant requirements I might mention which every Secretary of Labor takes most seriously and which are essential to effective political and working relationships. First, there must be serious efforts by the Secretary and designated staff members to maintain open and forthright communications with the Congress. Secondly, the Secretary must endeavor to act prudently as a neutral catalyst in encouraging vital and continued communication between labor and management groups, with the objectives of preventing misunderstandings and encouraging the maintenance of mutual respect and responsiveness.

Finally, I think I speak for all former Secretaries of Labor when I say that none of our achievements should be taken for granted, none of our objectives should be accepted as completed. Safety and health problems and discrimination in the workplace will continue if we are not vigilant, decisive, and prepared. In the field of labor relations, there will always be new goals to set, additional programs to complete, the satisfaction of achievement, and disappointment because of the normal constraints of time.

During the closing days of my tenure as Secretary, I had one last pleasant task to perform. In early 1975, I moved the Department into the newly constructed Department of Labor office building, which was subsequently named after the distinguished Secretary under President Roosevelt, Frances Perkins. This was both an honor and a gratifying experience because it created an atmosphere of accomplishment, it immediately sparked enthusiasm among the staff, and, most certainly, it gave a boost to morale. It was a time which I enjoyed—it is a time which I remember.

At the completion of my term, my staff and I were satisfied that the achievements which we can claim, as well as my team's unfinished business, provided a benchmark of progress. We felt we were leaving the Department well prepared to assist future administrations and future Secretaries in the pursuit of the valid expectations of America's hardworking and efficient men and women of all races and backgrounds. In closing, I want to make note that I had an outstanding, dedicated, and loyal team of men and women, without whom none of the above could have been accomplished. □

“...our goal was to create more opportunities for all...”

Some recollections of a brief tenure

JOHN T. DUNLOP

I was the first tenant-Secretary of the new Labor Department building (except for 1 week) that previous Secretaries had dreamed of and planned. But the larger environment was not strange. I had worked for the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1938. I had known each Secretary beginning with Frances Perkins, and I had often worked directly with them before they held office on problems of labor-management-government relations. Under President Nixon, I had been chairman of the tripartite Construction Industry Stabilization Committee, and director of the Cost of Living Council, attending Cabinet meetings and serving as a member of the Economic Policy group which met daily at the White House and on a weekly basis with the President. I had also been chastened by congressional committees and the press. Shortly after President Ford took office, he asked me to recommend a labor-management advisory committee which he announced on September 28, 1974, at the end of the Conference on Inflation; I served as coordinator of the committee¹ through my tenure as Secretary of Labor.²

When President Ford invited me to be Secretary, I asked him what the job was as he saw it, and what he wanted done in the post. He responded that he had two particular concerns: (1) he wanted to improve communications between the labor movement and himself and his administration, and (2) he recognized that the economy was entering a serious recession, and he wanted the best advice and judgment of labor and management as to how to deal with the situation. At its December 1974 meeting, the Labor-Management Advisory Committee had unanimously recommended a precise form and distribution of a tax cut that was later accepted by the President and the Congress.³ In the swearing-in ceremony of March 18, 1975, President Ford said, "The labor-management committee he chairs told us that what we most need is a tax cut even before I asked for a tax cut in my State of the Union Message in January."⁴

My response to the President at the swearing-in ceremony formulated major elements of a philosophy of the assignment publicly undertaken. The major themes were the need for a strong collective bargaining system with labor and management working together with government, the limitations of regulation, and the short-term concern to get the economy moving

and the related long-term need for attention to structural problems. A few paragraphs express the spirit and philosophy:

The group here this afternoon, Mr. President, is symbolic of the diversity of our country—labor and management, academics and practitioners, old hands and young specialists, both sides of the legislative aisle, and active minority groups—and no one can neglect the historical tensions of geography.

Mr. President, we are a 'can-do' people. Again, as you said. . . , Mr. President, 'Our people cannot live on islands of self-interest. We must build bridges and communicate our agreements as well as our disagreements. Only then can we honestly solve the Nation's problems.'

A corollary of that theme is that a great deal of government needs to be devoted to improving understanding, persuasion, accommodation, mutual problem solving, and informal mediation. . . . I have a sense that in many areas the growth of regulations and law has outstripped our capacity to develop consensus and mutual accommodation to our common detriment. . . .

It is my hope that business, labor and government, working together, can address the immediate problems of the Nation while having a deep appreciation of our longer run necessities and opportunities, not only for the economy as a whole but in individual sectors and industry and regions as well.

I believe it is appropriate to comment briefly on what appear to me to have been some of the major activities of the period.⁵

1. In recent decades, the regulatory responsibilities of the Labor Department had increased rapidly, exposing quite a different posture to management, labor, and the public, and creating a different internal spirit from its traditional role as compiler of data, preparer of reports, stimulator of training, and convener of labor and management representatives. In 1940, the Department administered 18 regulatory programs; by 1960, the number had expanded to 40; in 1975, the number stood at 134, including recent complex programs such as the Employee Retirement Income Security Act of 1974 and the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970. Even manpower programs, which accounted for the large bulk of the appropriations, were significantly and excessively regulatory in their approach. I prepared a paper, "The Limits of Legal Compulsion,"⁶ presented at the visit to each of the Department's regional offices expressing concern with the "limitations on bringing about social change through legal compulsion." The paper closed with the following:



John T. Dunlop

John T. Dunlop served as Secretary of Labor in 1975-76.

The development of new attitudes on the part of public employees and new relationships and procedures with those who are required to live under regulations is a central challenge of democratic society. Trust cannot grow in an atmosphere dominated by bureaucratic fiat and litigious controversy; it emerges through persuasion, mutual accommodation, and problem solving.

To effectuate this approach, I took the lead in developing labor standards under Section 13(c) of the Urban Mass Transportation Act and convened labor and management representatives to seek agreement on standards to be written into the Federal Register for comments and for subsequent formal issuance. I also became directly involved in seeking to mediate the complex Coke Oven standard under OSHA. I generally advocated "negotiated rulemaking" where appropriate and feasible.⁷

It is a source of considerable satisfaction that negotiated rulemaking has come to be recognized as an appropriate means of establishing regulations supported by the Administrative Conference of the United States, and its use is growing within the Environmental Protection Agency, the Occupational Safety and Health Administration, and other Federal agencies. It needs to be made clear that negotiated rulemaking, when properly applied, does not constitute a diminution of government responsibility, nor does it represent the privatization of public functions. But such means may operate faster, reduce subsequent litigation, engender better compliance, and better serve both private parties and the public weal. Would that the Labor Department made greater use of these means.

The current Regulatory Management developed by the White House and centered in the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) by Executive Orders 12291 and 12498 raises serious questions for me as to the centralization of such authority.⁸ No White House or OMB staff is ever going to know as much about a subject or have as direct an understanding of the affected parties as the Secretary. In 1984 and 1985, OMB made changes in 48.6 and 26.3 percent of all Labor Department proposed rules.⁹ Concerns of the White House and OMB are appropriate, and consultation and raising serious issues to higher levels have always been appropriate, of course, but for me such centralization is obnoxious to constructive industrial relations, efficient labor markets, and participatory labor-management-government relations.

2. From the outset, I was interested in a greater degree of procedural cooperation and professional reinforcement among the labor relations agencies with private parties; the objective did not focus on substantive decisions. Accordingly, I met periodically with the heads of

the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service, the National Mediation Board, and the National Labor Relations Board. There are a number of things that a Secretary can do informally for these agencies with respect to budgets, staffing, access, and with respect to appointments. Moreover, officials of these agencies have a perspective on labor and management and their interactions that is of considerable interest to a Secretary. These agencies help to shape the labor-management climate of an era and the consequent quality of economic performance that has to be a priority of any President. The labor-management arena as a whole must be the concern of the Secretary of Labor.

3. The President's Labor-Management Advisory Committee was given a broad charter to advise and make recommendations to the President. The Committee met regularly, with the President usually in attendance; the Secretary of the Treasury and other economic officials also attended. The Committee also concerned itself with national energy policy, housing, financing public utilities, unemployment, and labor-management committees in private sectors. At each session with the President, the Committee also provided its individual and group views of the economic outlook, often more immediate than permitted by government data.

The Committee provided a significant opportunity for direct communications between the President and his administration and the labor-management community. Both groups interacted with each other. Other business groups were consulted separately.

4. A significant illustration of the interactions among industrial relations developments, economic policy, and foreign affairs is afforded by the U.S.-U.S.S.R. grain agreement of 1975.¹⁰ The possibility of a longshore strike communicated in advance to the Secretary alerted the administration to serious problems, including the consequences of further significant Soviet purchases for domestic grain and meat prices, shipping usage, and to the potentials of significant agricultural and foreign policy opportunities. A Cabinet-level group was enabled to follow developments, advise the President, and secure his approval to negotiate a 5-year agreement, assist farmers, and resolve the longshore stoppage.

The centrality of industrial relations and their complex interweaving with other vital issues of the Nation are well-illustrated by these events in which the Labor Department had a major role.

5. The international labor-management arena has long been a concern of the Labor Department, including representation in the International Labor Organization (ILO), the only

"No White House staff is ever going to know as much as the Secretary. . . ."

“The labor-management arena must be the concern of the Secretary of Labor. . . .”

United Nations agency in which both labor and management are directly represented. Prior to 1975, the United States had a growing series of difficulties with the International Labor Organization that were related to the selection of top associates of the Director General and the representation of the Soviets among the labor and management members of the Governing Body. Other difficulties included budgetary levels and allocations among countries, the uneven treatment of reports on violations of human rights and conventions made by committees of experts, and the use of the annual conference as a political forum for attacks on Israel and U.S. policy. In close consultation with labor and management, and with the full collaboration of Secretary of State Henry Kissinger, a letter of notice of intent to withdraw 2 years hence was approved by the President and sent on November 5, 1975.

In order to improve governmental policymaking on ILO matters and to enhance participation of management organizations and labor, a Cabinet-level committee was established involving the Secretaries of State, Commerce, and Labor, and later the National Security Advisory Committee, with labor and management members to be regular attendants. This committee remains in operation.

Subsequent events and negotiations helped to create desirable changes in ILO structure and policies, and I was particularly pleased that, in 1977, President Carter assured the continued membership of the United States. I have had close ties to the ILO over the years, having spent the year 1957–58 at the ILO—but not on its payroll—at the invitation of David Morse, then the Director General, writing my *Industrial Relations Systems*.

6. Brief reference should be made to a few other efforts in the 1975–76 period. I experimented to develop new approaches to the congressional oversight function, both by regular visits with key committee members and a comprehensive presentation on manpower and training, rather than awaiting specialized hearings on politically sensitive issues or administrative problems. Seldom do congressional committees get a comprehensive view of a topic developed by a Cabinet officer.¹¹ I organized a weekly seminar on future or underlying questions for the press and media before a regular press conference and passed out diplomas at the end of my tenure. A special staff unit assisted in my participation in the general economic policymaking of the administration.

It would probably be inappropriate not to include some comment on the situs picketing legislation, the more so because a view in some circles has developed that I privately lobbied the

President and obtained his promise to support the legislation if enacted.¹² Good staff work at the White House, it has been said, would have prevented the subsequent problem for the President.

The reality is that at the earliest meetings with the President on the topic, he stated he wished to support the legislation; he said he had become familiar with the issue after 25 years in the House. I insisted that any political arrangement for support in the 1976 elections be directly arranged with labor representatives, particularly those in the building trades. At meetings on the topic on May 21 and June 4, 1975, with the President, OMB Director James Lynn and senior White House aids, including Donald Rumsfeld, William Seidman, or Richard Cheney, were present. The President met with President Robert Georgine of the AFL-CIO Building Trades Department on April 22 and July 8, 1975; on the latter date, the President announced his intention to run in 1976. My approved testimony on June 5, 1975, followed, but with more restraint, the testimony of Secretary Shultz on the same subject in 1969. The draft legislation was significantly modified from June through November and was made more responsive to the concerns of contractors; new machinery for all labor management disputes in the industry was added in Title II with the agreement of virtually all parties to collective bargaining in the industry.

The reality, then as now, seems quite clear. President Ford was anxious in his quest for election to secure the endorsement of a number of unions, particularly the building trades, as President Nixon had done in 1972. He sought the invitation and spoke before the Building Trades convention in San Francisco in September. But the politics of the Republican Party changed from May and June to December when the situs picketing bill sat on the President's desk. President Ford was concerned that if he signed the bill into law, Ronald Reagan would use it to defeat him in the Republican primaries and caucuses. On December 11, 1975, he told me (with Richard Cheney present) that it was a good bill, and that I had done what he had asked, but he would have to veto it because otherwise he would be defeated in his quest for his party's nomination as he explained the politics of various States.¹³

I responded that I respected his decision, but it would not be the first time in U.S. politics that positions taken to secure nomination precluded subsequent election success. As I stated following my letter of resignation of January 13, 1976, his veto destroyed my capacity to perform the duties the President had invited me to do. I retain a high regard for President Ford. □

¹ *The Conference on Inflation*, held at the request of President Gerald R. Ford and the Congress of the United States, Washington, DC, Sept. 27–28, 1974, pp. 291–92.

² Subsequently, labor and management members decided to continue their joint meetings as a private group and asked me to continue to serve as coordinator. The labor-management group continues to the present. See John T. Dunlop, *Dispute Resolution, Negotiation and Consensus Building* (Dover, MA, Auburn House Publishing Co., 1984), pp. 252–66.

³ On Jan. 10, 1975, the White House released the recommendations of the Committee. This was the first time organized labor had supported an investment tax credit.

⁴ *Weekly Compilation of Presidential Documents*, Mar. 24, 1975, pp. 281–82.

⁵ Also see Abraham J. Siegel and David B. Lipsky, eds., *Unfinished Business: An Agenda for Labor, Management and the Public* (Cambridge, MA, The MIT Press, 1978), pp. 29–36.

⁶ John T. Dunlop, "The Limits of Legal Compulsion," *Labor Law Journal*, February 1976, pp. 67–74.

⁷ For a discussion of the historical background to negotiated rulemaking, see Henry H. Perritt, Jr., "Analysis of Four Negotiated Rulemaking Efforts for the Administrative

Conference of the United States," Nov. 15, 1985; "Negotiated Rulemaking Before Federal Agencies: Evaluation of Recommendations by the Administrative Conference of the United States," *The Georgetown Law Journal*, August 1986, pp. 1627–1717; and Administrative Conference of the United States, *Sourcebook: Federal Agency Use of Alternative Means of Dispute Resolution* (Washington, 1987).

⁸ See *Presidential Management of Rulemaking in Regulatory Agencies* (Washington, National Academy of Public Administration, 1987).

⁹ *Ibid.*, table 3, p. 14.

¹⁰ For a detailed internal account, see, Roger B. Porter, *The U.S.-U.S.S.R. Grain Agreement* (New York, Cambridge University Press, 1984).

¹¹ "Comprehensive Employment and Training Act—Review and Oversight," Dec. 5, 1975.

¹² See Frederic V. Malek, *Washington's Hidden Tragedy: The Failure to Make Government Work* (New York, The Free Press, 1978), p. 26. Richard Cheney on TV, January 1986, referred to the decision of the President to support situs picketing as "Oh By-the-Way Decisions."

¹³ See Jonathan A. Kantar, "The Ford Administration and the 1975 Common Situs Picketing Issue" (Ph.D. diss., University of Michigan, 1985).

Government's role in promoting labor-management cooperation

W. J. USERY, JR.

The founding in 1913 of the U.S. Department of Labor represented a landmark in prescribed governmental influence on labor-management relations. The founders of the Labor Department gave the Department the mandate to "foster, promote, and develop the welfare of the wage earners of the United States, to improve their working conditions and to advance their opportunities for profitable employment."¹

In 1976, when I became the 15th Secretary of Labor, that mandate stood foremost in my mind. Since its inception, the Department had grown from less than 200 employees administering one child labor law to more than 14,000 employees administering hundreds of laws.

The challenge, as I saw it, was to ensure two basic trusts. First, that I actively address the substantive concerns of the American working people. And second, that I manage the Department efficiently and effectively. While I cer-

W. J. Usery, Jr. served as Secretary of Labor in 1976–77.

tainly supported the many hard-working, dedicated career employees who believed in the departmental mission, I also endeavored to instill in each of them the acute awareness that our constituents were all working people of this Nation, regardless of race, age, gender, class, or creed—that their concerns were our concerns. I believe that ensuring those two fundamental trusts offers any Secretary of Labor his or her greatest professional and bureaucratic challenge.

I have been asked to share with readers the most difficult problem I encountered as Labor Secretary, as well as the achievement in which I took greatest pride. The choices are not easy to make.

My most difficult and trying experience demands an anecdotal telling. It began one day in late summer of 1976. And it began, of all places, on the 18th green at the Burning Tree Country Club near Washington, DC.

President Ford was playing the course, and I had been waiting for his foursome to play out.

A foursome ahead of the President included late Teamsters President Frank E. Fitzsimmons.

As we gathered about the 18th green to watch the President finish his round, Fitzsimmons told me he planned to ask the President to address the upcoming Teamsters convention in Las Vegas. I felt concerned. The President was running for reelection. The Teamsters were under investigation, and the whole country knew it. I could visualize the possible news stories if the President appeared before the Teamsters convention. Nevertheless, Fitzsimmons approached the President, who agreed to speak.

Advisers at the White House urged the President not to make the appearance, and it was agreed that I would speak at the convention instead. We prepared the speech—the only speech I recall ever submitting to the White House for approval. To minimize the potential risk, it was decided that I would fly to the convention and return the same day.

At the convention, Fitzsimmons set the stage by attacking the media for recent news coverage of the Teamsters. Of course, the media were present, although they were located in the far top corner of the hall, where Fitzsimmons had arranged to put them. After the tirade, Fitzsimmons introduced me to the convention as his good friend.

One learns to tell a joke or two under such circumstances. So I told a joke about a golfer. The punch line of the story ended with “I don’t even believe he belongs in this club.” After finishing the joke, and after the laughter died down, I announced to the Teamsters, “Well, when it comes to collective bargaining, I’m a member of this club.” Then I made my carefully prepared speech.

The speech went well, and all was fine until the story was reported by the media. The wire services ignored the speech but highlighted my “member of this club” remark, characterizing me as a member of the Teamsters club.

As a result, several U.S. Senators and members of the House called for my resignation as Labor Secretary. I even received the dubious honor of appearing in several Herblock and Oliphant cartoons.

When I next visited the White House, the President smiled and shook my hand. “Well, Bill, welcome to the club.” Then he laughed and added, “I sure am glad you were able to get in and out of that speech in Las Vegas without any trouble.”

My present humor about the incident, of course, comes with considerable distance and perspective. During the actual occurrence, I suffered greatly. To become the center of controversy while in a Cabinet post is exceedingly uncomfortable. One is embarrassed both per-

sonally and professionally. For me, it was the low point of my tenure. But I managed through it because the business of the Labor Department was infinitely more important.

Fortunately, one’s failures are brought into healthier focus by one’s successes. And as I look back, 1976–77 also stands out as an important and successful time for the Labor Department.

Serving as Labor Secretary while our Nation celebrated its 200th birthday proved one of the high points of my tenure. I grew up in the rural South during the Great Depression. I came up through the ranks of the labor movement, and graduated from the school of hard knocks. To have the President introduce me at the White House, to be seated next to the Vice President, to have the Chief Justice swear me in, and finally, to have such distinguished men listen as I expressed my views in an acceptance speech surpassed all I could have imagined as a young boy in Georgia.

I felt a great sense of honor in representing the interests of the American working people during the Bicentennial year of a Nation founded on democratic freedoms. Industrial democracy, it seemed, had emerged as a natural extension of those freedoms. By the 1970’s, though, problems global in scope were chipping away at the progress we had made; inflation, unemployment, and recession hindered economic stability. Jobs became a primary concern.

As Labor Secretary, I took the same pragmatic, hands-on approach that I always take to problemsolving. My successes in solving the practical problems of working people constitute the achievement in which I take greatest pride. President Ford, by his strong support of both me and the Department, deserves inestimable credit for those successes.

No aspect of labor-management relations attracts more publicity or demands more thoughtful, pragmatic action than a strike. As Labor Secretary, I encouraged the resolution of labor-management disputes with strong, effective mediation. Negotiated settlements prevented potentially harmful and lengthy strikes in several cases. When the direct intervention of the Labor Department became necessary, we guided our actions with prudence and fairness. Round-the-clock negotiations helped end the longest strike in the history of the rubber industry, and a potentially crippling nationwide trucking strike was halted after only 3 days.

Less prone to draw publicity—but equally important—were major departmental programs aimed at helping American workers adapt to a changing workplace and economic uncertainty. Working with trade associations, national unions, professional organizations, and



W. J. Usery, Jr.

schools, we launched a program which expanded apprenticeship opportunities in highly skilled occupations. By expanding the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA), and by developing special emphasis programs, we helped address the employment concerns of several million people, including veterans, migrant and seasonal farmworkers, women, and minority group members.

Still more workers were aided by major changes in the unemployment insurance program; more money was made available and coverage was expanded. Concerned about the future of the unemployment insurance program, we instituted long-range planning and established a national commission to recommend changes and improvements.

The Labor Department also acted decisively in carrying out its mandate to improve the working conditions of American wage earners. Despite great resistance, the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) made a comprehensive effort to correct the health and safety problems in injury- and illness-prone industries. We made monies available to educational institutions and professional associations to educate the public about job safety and health.

Such programmatic efforts represent one aspect of the positive, pivotal role the U.S. Government historically has played in the lives of American workers. That role is much easier to play, of course, when social values and economic values are aligned. When basic tenets of industrial democracy like collective bargaining and workers' rights clearly make economic sense to both labor and management, then the role of the Federal Government is reduced. When the long-term economic benefits of labor-management cooperation become less obvious and conflict emerges, then the need for an expanded role is apt to increase.

In either case, the U.S. Government's role in maintaining a healthy environment for cooperative labor-management relations has been—and remains—essential. Collective bargaining, the foundation of American industrial democracy, remains fundamental to the well-being of the free enterprise system.

Unfortunately, during recent years, contemporary issues confronting labor-management relations have languished in a kind of purgatory—an isolated landscape inhabited almost exclusively by labor union leaders and corporate labor relations executives. Critical issues over which these labor and business leaders preside affect all of us, especially in a highly competitive world where events in one corner of the globe affect those in another. But because the

issues are often highly controversial and complex, they have been ignored, for the most part, by the remainder of the republic.

That clearly must change if the United States is to remain strong and maintain a leadership role in an emerging, restructured world economy. It is imperative that we openly explore, debate, and resolve the labor-management issues challenging the tradition of industrial democracy in America. To do otherwise is to seek solace and hope in ignorance; to do otherwise is to invite economic decline.

Historically, the joint efforts of business and labor built the great productive capacity of our Nation, even though the apparent interests of those two parties have at times been in conflict. The future, too, will be determined by the institutions of business and labor and their respective abilities to adapt to a changing world, to find mutuality of interest, and to join forces. If we are to understand how that cooperative process has occurred in the past, we simply cannot ignore the role of government.

Until recently, the Federal Government actively sought a positive, pivotal role in labor-management relations. Collective bargaining is but an extension of political democracy, and the U.S. Government since the early years of this century has upheld the rights of American workers—and at times even encouraged them—to organize and negotiate with employers. The U.S. Government has played an essential, integral role in the establishment of collective bargaining and American industrial democracy.

Now that we are commemorating the 75th anniversary of the Department of Labor, I sincerely hope the celebrated occasion will force the issues confronting the American working people back to center stage, where they will receive not a curtain call but the spotlight of public and political attention. I believe the U.S. Government, through the policies and activities of the Labor Department, can and must help in that process, just as it has done in the past.

We cannot afford to regress down the path of protracted labor-management conflict. Nor can we afford indecision regarding critical issues which demand attention. We must choose, instead, to travel the road of enlightened cooperation between business and labor, each depending on the other. I do not believe it is an exaggeration to say that the productive vitality of our great Nation and the American working people hangs in the balance. □

“We must travel the road of enlightened cooperation between business and labor. . . .”

—FOOTNOTE—

¹ Public Law 426, 62d Cong.

Establishing an agenda for the Department of Labor

RAY MARSHALL

The achievement in which I take the greatest pride as Secretary of Labor is in having helped establish an agenda for the Department of Labor and having assembled the people and promoted the relationships to carry it out. I was aided in this by several factors. The first was that President Jimmy Carter gave me almost complete freedom in appointments and establishing the administration's labor agenda. It was also very fortunate that I worked this agenda out with the President before we ever took office. In our system of government, a Cabinet officer's main constituent is the President. There will inevitably be policy conflicts within an administration. An early commitment from the President, therefore, helps minimize and resolve these conflicts.

President Carter's general instructions to all Cabinet officers were (1) to make every effort to recruit qualified women and minorities for top positions; (2) to do everything possible to improve the efficiency of our departments; and (3) to concentrate on important things and simplify our operations to achieve our objectives as efficiently as possible.

With respect to specific Department of Labor programs, President Carter was particularly concerned about widespread criticism of the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) for having too many expensive, onerous, and nit-picking regulations which detracted from very important objectives of working with labor and management to improve safety and health in the workplace. We therefore simplified and concentrated—we eliminated many regulations, simplified the rest, and concentrated on the most serious problems. Our basic approach was to strengthen knowledge and ability of labor and management to deal with health and safety problems. We thought it particularly important to strengthen workers' knowledge of safety and health problems, as well as their power to deal with them and to use Federal resources to address the most serious problems. While we still had a lot of work to do in this area, I am proud of our OSHA accomplishments.

President Carter's second special interest was in employment and training programs. We agreed that active labor market policies should be important components of economic policy. These policies met the test of efficiency, stabil-

ity, and equity. They were efficient because they could reduce unemployment at lower cost than any alternative. Because they could target particular employment and labor market problems, these programs could reduce unemployment and avoid inflationary pressures that were likely to result from macroeconomic policies. Selective programs were equitable because they could target the groups with the greatest need.

Because of our concern about unemployment, our general approach was to enlarge the employment and training systems as fast as we could, consistent with efficiency in the delivery system. In areas where programs had demonstrated their effectiveness (for example, the Job Corps), our objective was to expand as fast as possible. Where we were uncertain as to effectiveness, we initiated research and demonstration projects (such as youth programs, welfare reform, and worker adjustment).

Because I had studied these programs in some depth before becoming Secretary of Labor, I knew the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) was seriously flawed. When CETA decentralized Federal programs, the relative participation by young people, the private sector, and the most seriously disadvantaged declined. We therefore attempted to correct these defects through the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977, and through special efforts to minimize substitution (that is, local units of government using Federal funds to pay regular employees), to get the private sector more heavily involved (which we did by strengthening the National Alliance of Business and providing for the Private Industry Councils in the 1978 CETA reauthorization), and targeting programs to special groups (veterans, youth, and seriously disadvantaged, for example), who were likely to receive inadequate attention from local prime sponsors.

The most difficult problems with the CETA system related to the delivery system and the funding cycle. CETA's fundamental flaw was the assumption that State and local governments could implement a Federal program without an unacceptably large support and oversight mechanism. Perhaps these problems could have been corrected with enough time, but the nature of the defects and events (especially inflation and growing resistance to government programs) made it impossible to do this in CETA's short life. The system was caught up in a Catch-22

“Selective programs could target the groups with the greatest need.”

Ray Marshall served as Secretary of Labor during 1977–81.

problem: attempting to correct the problems by, for example, introducing a special investigations unit (which we did—it later became the Office of the Inspector General) helped correct problems, but it also caused the media and the political system to exaggerate the system's weaknesses and therefore weakened support for it. We mounted a media campaign to attempt to keep the problems in perspective while we corrected them. The campaign did some good, but was not enough to save public service employment. The other features of CETA were included in the Job Training Partnership Act, which improved the delivery system by focusing on the States, but it was a mistake not to have public service employment at all and to greatly reduce overall funding at a time when unemployment was soaring to 10.8 percent.

I still believe very strongly that selective labor market policies should be integral components of economic policy. However, we should do more to improve the delivery systems (especially making the Private Industry Councils more effective local labor market committees). We should also improve the linkages among employment and training programs, educational institutions (especially community colleges), companies, and labor organizations.

The funding problem could be corrected by forward funding or the creation of trust funds. It is very difficult to undertake a complex program to deal with serious structural employment and training programs with an annual funding cycle. On balance, despite CETA's inherent flaws, independent investigations have concluded that the programs were successful by any reasonable criteria; they were cost effective and helped their participants.

I take great pride in having made good appointments and establishing good working relationships with the career staff. An early decision any Cabinet officer has to make is what approach to take with respect to career employees. It is a huge mistake to alienate permanent employees through negative attitudes and comments. I had been around the Labor Department as an adviser, contractor, or grantee long enough before becoming its Secretary to know and respect the Department's career people; they are overwhelmingly dedicated, conscientious people willing to work hard to carry out the Department's mandate to protect and promote the interests of America's wage earners—a mandate I enthusiastically support. I knew, moreover, that whatever we accomplished during my tenure would be done mainly by the career people. My basic policy, therefore, was to try to work with the civil servants to develop consensus on programs. I also included career people in the pool from which we made political appointments. In each case, I selected what

seemed to me to be the very best people for the job. My Under Secretary and four of the Department Assistant Secretary-level appointees were career Department of Labor people and one other Assistant Secretary was selected from the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service, a closely related agency. Without exception, these appointments vindicated my judgment.

My basic management approach was to select the best people we could find, develop consensus on goals and objectives, help find other jobs for those who could not agree with those goals and objectives, and then give the agency heads considerable freedom and as much support as possible in carrying out those objectives.

I also take considerable pride in our accomplishments in the program areas. In addition to those mentioned above, the most noteworthy are:

We developed a policy of strengthening collective bargaining by good appointments to such agencies as the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Services, National Labor Relations Board, Federal Labor Relations Authority, and the National Mediation Board. I held frequent joint meetings with the heads of these agencies. Our basic policy was to strengthen workers' right to choose whether or not to be represented by unions. In order to encourage the parties to bargain and give major responsibility to Federal Mediation and Conciliation Services, our policy was to intervene in collective bargaining only in rare cases where there was a strong national interest reason to do so. I do not believe we should have intervened in the 1977-78 coal strike, but we did so on the basis of exaggerated information about its impact. From then on, the Bureau of Labor Statistics and my staff had careful strike assessments available to defend our non-intervention strategy. My biggest disappointment in this area was our inability to break the filibuster to pass labor law reform to strengthen the workers' freedom of choice under the National Labor Relations Act. Because of the weak penalties for violation of the Act and legalistic delays with the National Labor Relations Board procedures, that right currently is not adequately protected. I also believe, however, that our collective bargaining structures and policies need to be modernized. The law's basic assumptions relate more to the 1930's, 1940's, and 1950's than to the conditions of the 1980's and 1990's. We need to develop labor-management and bipartisan consensus for reforming these important laws. Despite our efforts to do so (and contrary to some of our critics), we were not able to get any significant employer support for labor law reform, despite their recognition that free labor movements are essential components of free enterprise systems.



Ray Marshall

“...free labor movements are essential components of free enterprise systems.”

We also developed a strategy to demonstrate that the Employee Retirement Income Security Act (ERISA) could be used to protect pension funds. I am proud of our policies in this area, especially over handling of the important Central States case, in which we caused the fund's management to be shifted to outside financial institutions. We also brought civil suit for restitution against the trustees accused of violating their fiduciary responsibilities. We did this through a unified government position under the Department's leadership. We still have a lot of work to do to make pensions more secure and to give beneficiaries greater control, but we demonstrated that ERISA could be used to protect the funds from the worst forms of fraud and abuse.

Finally, I take considerable pride in the relationships we established with outside organizations and agencies. We worked very hard at establishing good relations with the Congress; unions; civil rights, employer, and community organizations; the White House; the media; and State and local governments. Our relationships with the Congress were particularly good—we were blessed with strong bipartisan support in both the Senate and the House, but particularly in the Senate, where Senator Jacob Javits, ranking minority member of the Labor Committee, was a staunch supporter of the Department's programs.

We strengthened the Women's Bureau and elevated its status within the Department, and the Women's Bureau maintained close and effective relationships with women's groups. Similarly, we strengthened the Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs (OFCCP), consolidated it in the Department, and got close cooperation from civil rights and community groups. Some of our strongest support came from those State and local government officials who gave high priority to workers' problems in their jurisdictions.

Our relationships with foreign ministries of labor—particularly the Copenhagen Group—were very valuable. We learned a lot from each other about common problems, and these relationships helped us with international political problems. In an international information world, the Department of Labor cannot adequately carry out its mandate without being heavily involved in foreign policy and international economic decisions and activities.

In conclusion, I take the greatest pride in the agenda we formulated to carry out the Department's mandate and the people, systems, and relationships we put together to carry out that agenda. We had our share of problems and made our share of mistakes, but we also had our share of successes. From my perspective, being Secretary of Labor was a good and satisfying job. □

Workforce 2000 agenda recognizes lifelong need to improve skills

WILLIAM E. BROCK

When I came to the Labor Department as its Secretary in May 1985, I told the employees that I hoped we could open ourselves to new ideas and initiatives, not just from within our own ranks, but from all of the people and organizations which have a stake in the Department's wide-ranging activities. I was not disappointed. There is a growing awareness that the world is changing rapidly and that methods and concepts which served us well in the past must be rigorously reexamined.

William E. Brock served as Secretary of Labor during 1985-87.

We are beginning to have a national dialogue on the relevant issues and questions that will determine our economic future, and I am gratified that the Labor Department contributed to that through a project called "Workforce 2000."

The programs, policies, and issues that are part of Workforce 2000 are rooted in Labor Department studies and projections of what kinds of jobs our economy will produce in the future, and who will be available to do them. For example, 3 of every 4 workers in the year 2000 will be people who are already in our Nation's labor force. Eighty percent of the new entrants will come from three groups—women, minorities, and immigrants.

Of the new jobs expected to be created over the next 13 years, every category requiring higher skills will grow faster than those requiring less skills. Almost half of the 20 occupations projected to lead the growth over the next decade are related to the computer and health fields. The occupational mix of jobs also will change, with employment in managerial and professional positions growing almost five times as fast as operative and laborer jobs.

Unless every portent of where the domestic and world economies are headed is wrong, the workers of the future will have to be better educated and better trained than our current labor force, or we will be unable to maintain a leadership position in the high technology industries and services that offer the greatest promise for America's continued prosperity.

Each of the groups that will account for the bulk of new workers—women, immigrants, and minorities—presents particular challenges. The growing number of women in the labor force has highlighted the problem of parents who must balance the demands of the jobs with child care responsibilities. Immigrants often must overcome language barriers that make it difficult for them to find and keep jobs and to learn skills. Minority and disadvantaged youths are more likely to be functionally illiterate, to drop out of school, to become pregnant as teenagers, or to abuse drugs and alcohol.

The specter of millions of youngsters continuing to reach adulthood without acquiring the basic skills needed to become productive, self-supporting, self-respecting members of society is especially disquieting. We run the risk—and it is a risk with grave consequences—of creating a permanent underclass, a group of people who are not just unemployed, but unemployable. Because of the importance of this problem, the Labor Department—as part of Workforce 2000—increased the emphasis on basic education in its youth programs, especially programs serving young people in welfare families. Society must concentrate more employment and training resources, private as well as public, on young parents and children in welfare families because they can benefit most from such help.

Our economy is expected to produce more than 10 million new jobs by 1995. At the same time, our population and work force will be expanding at an unusually slow pace, and the number of young people seeking jobs actually will decline. The convergence of these trends could result in a shortage of workers, particularly at the entry level, but for some higher paying skilled jobs as well. All of this adds up to a potential “window of opportunity” to bring minority youth, the handicapped, and others with longstanding employment problems into the mainstream of the U.S. economy. It is an opportunity we dare not squander by failing to give

these people the tools to take advantage of it.

There is no tool more important to workers today than education and training that will enable them to function in a job market requiring more flexibility and adaptability than ever before. Yet many of our educational institutions and job training programs persist in preparing people for a first occupation as though it will also be the last. The average American wage earner today can expect to work in three or more careers in a lifetime.

Education and occupational training too often are viewed as institutional processes that end when a young person begins earning a living. We need to look beyond the classroom and realize that education—especially work-related education and training—is a lifelong endeavor. We must make the rhetoric of “continuing education” a reality. Every industry and every union should be involved in programs to train, retrain, and upgrade the skills of workers. If it has taught us nothing else, the human suffering and economic waste caused by cutbacks in steel and other basic industries should have demonstrated the folly of waiting until workers are faced with redundancy before preparing them for new jobs.

Although the private sector must take the lead in worker training, the government has a role to play. To improve the effectiveness of the government's efforts, the Labor Department's Workforce 2000 agenda includes a proposed new worker adjustment program.

Helping dislocated workers must be a cooperative effort that brings together labor and management in a common cause. The same can be said of every aspect of our Nation's drive to produce quality goods and services that are fully competitive in what is fast becoming an integrated world economy. Confrontation no longer is a viable approach to labor-management relations. American business and industry must not just accept but invite involvement in every phase of their operations from design to production to marketing. Organizations that stress employee participation will be the most successful and the best prepared to lead America into the competitive cauldron of the next century.

Acceptance of the need for change, however, is not necessarily followed quickly by substantive change in the way government operates. That should not be surprising—the laws of human nature are not easily revoked—nor is it all bad. Government services and protections that affect millions of people should not imitate the commercial consumer market where periodic remodeling of products all too often reflects advertising considerations rather than improved quality. Still, in looking back on 2½ rewarding and stimulating years. I must admit the measured pace of institutional change probably ranks as my chief frustration.

“...no tool more important than education....”

The Employment Service, for example, has been bringing together workers and employers for more than half a century. Techniques for matching jobs and jobseekers have changed, but the relationship between this essentially local activity and the Federal Government is little different than it was during the depression years of the 1930's. That does not make much sense. Labor and job market conditions vary widely in a Nation as geographically vast and economically dynamic as ours. Workers and employers would benefit if States exercised greater control over the financing and programs of the Employment Service. We made a start in that direction, but a good deal more remains to be done.

Few, if any, Labor Department responsibilities are more important than protecting the health and safety of American workers. It is a daunting mission in size and complexity as well as in the controversies and passions it engenders. Rulemaking is at the heart of administering the job safety law, and it can be, and at times has been, a cumbersome if not chaotic process.

In its first 16 years of existence, the Occupational Safety and Health Administration approved fewer than 20 standards for handling toxic substances. Admittedly, developing such standards is difficult, involving as it often does passionate partisans for and against every proposal, substantial economic considerations, and complicated and even conflicting scientific data. But part of the problem was the agency's decision to set out on a course of establishing a separate standard for each of the hundreds, or perhaps thousands, of substances that might be hazardous to workers. That way lies madness.

Generic regulations and mediated rulemaking are better approaches. In generic rulemaking, a general standard is established for a whole range of hazardous substances. The standard requires employers to inform workers about hazardous substances they may encounter on the job and to train them in the proper handling of such substances.

Mediated rulemaking involves the establishment of committees composed of all interested parties to draft regulations on specific job safety and health issues. Participants normally include representatives of labor, management, government, and, where appropriate, the scientific community. The Occupational Safety and Health Administration reviews the work of the committee, makes any changes it deems necessary, and then issues the rule as a proposal for public comment. The idea is that disagreements will be diminished and the process accelerated if those who have the biggest stake in job safety regulations are given a role in formulating them. Although mediated rulemaking is no panacea, its potential for resolving difficult issues is evident in the progress that has been made on establishing a standard for methylenedianiline.

Generic standards and mediated rulemaking are steps in the right direction. That they are not yet standard operating procedures, and that they have been so long in coming attest to the difficulty of achieving institutional change.

Rules governing working at home, a new program to help dislocated workers return to productive employment, and stronger protections for private pension plan participants are some other areas in which we sought to alter the status quo in ways that would make Labor Department programs and policies compatible with our changing economy. None of these efforts was complete at the time of my departure, but home work rules based on common sense and fair play were near the finish line, an expanded program to help displaced workers had broad support, and pension issues were nearing a very positive resolution on Capitol Hill.

My disappointment in the inertia that seems built into most large institutions was tempered by the acceptance of the need for change in what some might consider an unlikely quarter—labor-management relations. Cooperation may not yet be the dominant theme in labor-management relations, but it is gaining adherents on both sides of the bargaining table at a rate that only the most optimistic would have thought possible just a few years ago. The Labor Department has played a limited but important role in this development by encouraging labor and management to work together and by serving as a clearinghouse for a broad range of information on innovative approaches to employee participation.

The growing interest in an acceptance of labor-management cooperation could not have come at a better time. Labor-management cooperation, or employee participation, which is another name for the same concept, is an essential element in building the skilled, flexible work force the Nation will need as we move into the 21st century.

America faces a future of great challenge and great opportunity. We have an unmatched history of accomplishment and keen competitive instincts. Time and again, we have demonstrated our ability to adapt to change. But the term "adapt to change" implies taking action after the fact. That is no longer good enough. We must anticipate change and be ready to make the most of it.

Change has been one of the constants of the American experience. As a Nation, we have embraced it, not feared it, because we are optimists. We must maintain that philosophy, but adopt a new timetable in applying it. If we do, and if business, labor, and the academic community work together—in the national interest as well as in mutual self-interest—then when the 21st century dawns, Americans will be ready. □



William E. Brock

Job gains strong in 1987; unemployment rate declines

*As the economy completed
the fifth year of expansion,
employment increased by 3 million;
the jobless rate fell below 6 percent*

MARK G. ULMER AND WAYNE J. HOWE

Labor market performance in 1987, by most measures, was the best in several years, as the economic expansion reached the 5-year mark. Job growth was stronger than it had been since 1984, and the jobless rate fell almost a full percentage point after changing little in 1985 and 1986.

Following are highlights of employment and unemployment developments in 1987:

- Nonagricultural payroll employment, as measured by the survey of business establishments, and total employment, as measured by the household survey, both showed a healthy increase of roughly 3 million in 1987. The proportion of the population with jobs reached a record high of 61.9 percent.
- After 2 years of declines, the goods-producing sector posted a moderate over-the-year rise in employment. Employment in the service-producing sector continued to expand at a rapid pace, with the largest increase in the service industries.
- All three major racial and ethnic groups contributed to the job growth in 1987. The rate of employment growth among black and Hispanic workers was roughly twice that for white workers.
- The civilian unemployment rate dropped by nearly a full percentage point to 5.9 percent at the end of 1987. Most of

the decline occurred in the first 6 months. Virtually all worker groups shared in this improvement.

Nonfarm payroll employment

Nonagricultural payroll employment, as measured by the Bureau of Labor Statistics' business survey, grew at a healthy pace in 1987. Employment reached 103.3 million in the fourth quarter of 1987, an increase of nearly 3 million from the fourth quarter of 1986. This marked the fifth straight year in which job growth exceeded 2 million. These gains have resulted in an increase of roughly 15 million jobs during the current expansion. (See table 1.)

While job gains were recorded in every major industry division, the composition of growth revealed marked differences among industries and contrasted sharply to earlier years of the recovery. Following back-to-back years of declines, the goods-producing sector posted significant job gains in 1987, with renewed employment growth in both manufacturing and mining. This marked a dramatic turnaround from the persistent job losses incurred in those industries throughout the prior 2 years. Construction, a strong force during the earlier phases of the recovery, peaked in the fourth quarter after experiencing job reductions through much of the year. The service-producing sector continued to dominate the employment increases, accounting for 4 out of every 5 new jobs in 1987. The service

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industries alone added more than 1 million jobs over the year. (See chart 1.)

Industry developments

The *goods-producing sector* showed renewed strength in 1987, gaining 545,000 jobs during the year. (All over-the-year comparisons refer to the fourth quarter of 1986 to the

fourth quarter of 1987, unless otherwise noted.) After experiencing substantial employment declines in 1985 and 1986, *manufacturing* added 370,000 jobs in 1987, virtually all of them in the second half of the year. The demand for factory products was apparently beginning to benefit from the dollar's weak exchange rate, which was spurring foreign demand for American goods.

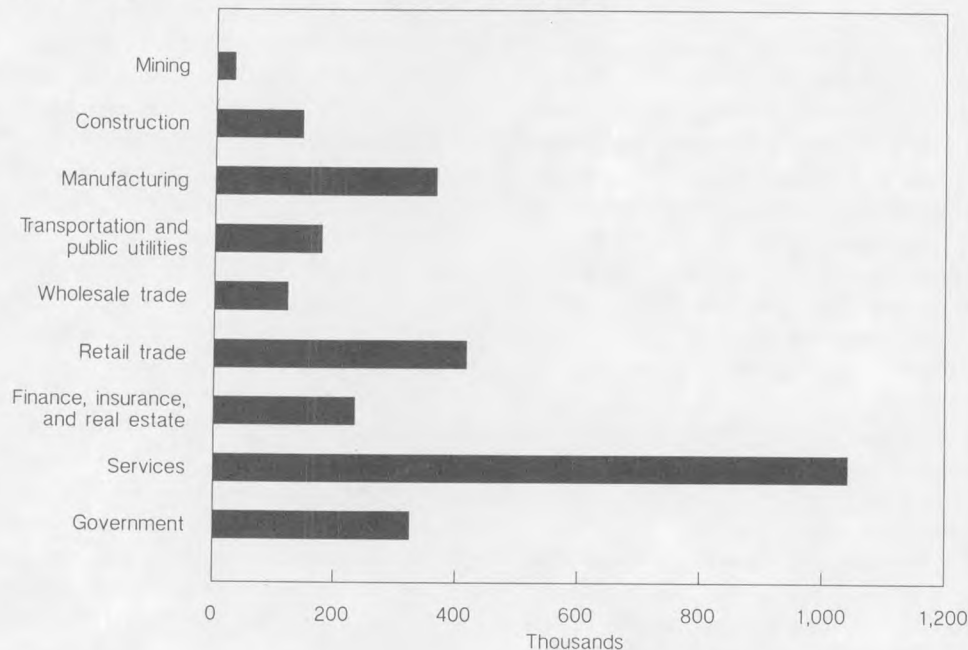
Table 1. Employees on nonagricultural payrolls by industry, selected seasonally adjusted quarterly averages, 1982-87

[In thousands]

Industry	1982	1984	1985	1986	1987			
	IV				I	II	III	IVP
Total	88,717	95,882	98,444	100,397	101,133	101,708	102,278	103,267
Total private	72,893	79,721	81,905	83,498	84,183	84,675	85,240	86,042
Goods-producing	22,980	24,943	24,788	24,624	24,733	24,757	24,884	25,169
Mining	1,029	957	898	730	720	734	751	762
Oil and gas extraction	651	610	559	411	406	420	434	441
Construction	3,837	4,501	4,757	4,941	5,035	5,009	4,999	5,087
General building contractors	959	1,188	1,289	1,285	1,304	1,268	1,261	1,285
Manufacturing	18,115	19,485	19,133	18,953	18,979	19,015	19,134	19,320
Durable goods	10,484	11,634	11,392	11,173	11,171	11,175	11,237	11,358
Lumber and wood products	596	703	700	723	733	736	739	748
Furniture and fixtures	425	493	494	499	501	508	519	526
Stone, clay, and glass products	558	593	587	582	587	584	582	587
Primary metal industries	824	844	789	733	733	744	756	769
Blast furnaces and basic steel products	344	318	294	260	260	273	279	286
Fabricated metal products	1,349	1,483	1,454	1,421	1,420	1,422	1,426	1,445
Machinery, except electrical	2,051	2,235	2,124	2,016	2,013	2,025	2,043	2,071
Electrical and electronic equipment	1,953	2,248	2,154	2,119	2,105	2,086	2,093	2,119
Transportation equipment	1,662	1,931	2,010	2,018	2,019	2,011	2,014	2,018
Motor vehicles and equipment	659	877	887	854	855	844	833	836
Instruments and related products	699	721	717	700	695	693	695	699
Miscellaneous manufacturing	367	382	363	362	364	366	371	376
Nondurable goods	7,631	7,851	7,741	7,780	7,808	7,839	7,897	7,962
Food and kindred products	1,628	1,607	1,599	1,626	1,631	1,636	1,636	1,640
Tobacco manufactures	68	64	63	58	58	57	56	56
Textile mill products	729	726	698	713	722	727	734	738
Apparel and other textile products	1,139	1,156	1,115	1,105	1,103	1,106	1,119	1,126
Paper and allied products	654	682	674	678	678	677	679	681
Printing and publishing	1,271	1,404	1,437	1,472	1,482	1,496	1,507	1,521
Chemical and allied products	1,055	1,056	1,034	1,019	1,018	1,018	1,029	1,041
Petroleum and coal products	200	188	174	165	164	164	165	167
Rubber and miscellaneous plastics products	679	792	785	797	805	809	819	840
Leather and leather products	209	176	162	147	147	149	153	153
Service-producing	65,737	70,939	73,656	75,773	76,399	76,951	77,394	78,098
Transportation and public utilities	5,023	5,201	5,261	5,272	5,317	5,347	5,385	5,451
Transportation	2,735	2,964	3,028	3,067	3,099	3,124	3,154	3,209
Communication and public utilities	2,288	2,237	2,233	2,204	2,218	2,223	2,231	2,242
Wholesale trade	5,213	5,643	5,747	5,728	5,755	5,776	5,806	5,851
Durable goods	3,034	3,336	3,401	3,381	3,391	3,401	3,424	3,459
Nondurable goods	2,179	2,307	2,346	2,347	2,363	2,375	2,383	2,392
Retail trade	15,189	16,923	17,562	17,999	18,119	18,209	18,281	18,417
General merchandise stores	2,141	2,316	2,331	2,376	2,370	2,387	2,411	2,440
Food stores	2,510	2,685	2,819	2,908	2,938	2,956	2,960	2,980
Automotive dealers and service stations	1,634	1,834	1,913	1,964	1,979	1,980	1,986	2,005
Eating and drinking places	4,872	5,527	5,772	5,928	5,955	5,973	5,998	6,047
Finance, insurance, and real estate	5,356	5,779	6,077	6,421	6,502	6,573	6,620	6,656
Finance	2,664	2,890	3,034	3,214	3,245	3,276	3,292	3,299
Insurance	1,715	1,785	1,868	1,990	2,017	2,035	2,049	2,072
Real estate	977	1,105	1,175	1,217	1,241	1,262	1,279	1,285
Services	19,131	21,231	22,469	23,455	23,757	24,011	24,263	24,498
Business services	3,289	4,195	4,610	4,883	4,985	5,071	5,130	5,204
Health services	5,892	6,177	6,377	6,665	6,747	6,825	6,918	7,026
Government	15,824	16,161	16,539	16,899	16,949	17,033	17,038	17,225
Federal	2,745	2,830	2,904	2,900	2,917	2,934	2,946	2,973
State	3,641	3,771	3,863	3,916	3,929	3,941	3,958	3,987
Local	9,438	9,560	9,772	10,082	10,104	10,158	10,134	10,265

p = preliminary.

Chart 1. Employment increases by major industry division, fourth quarter 1986-87, seasonally adjusted



Job growth in the durable goods industries was little changed through the first half of 1987, but accounted for 185,000 of manufacturing's strong second-half gains. The primary metals industry rebounded from 3 consecutive years of steady declines to regain 35,000 jobs between 1986 and 1987; 25,000 of these jobs were in the steel industry. Nonelectrical machinery recaptured 55,000 jobs in 1987, following 2 consecutive years of losses in excess of 100,000. The steel and machinery industries, which had suffered from strong import competition, began to benefit from the declining dollar. Transportation equipment was virtually unchanged over the year, as employment decreases in motor vehicles and equipment were offset by increases in defense-related industries (aircraft and guided missiles).

The nondurable goods industries posted job increases for the second straight year, adding 180,000 jobs in 1987. Printing and publishing continued its strong growth, gaining 50,000 jobs over the year (and 250,000 since the recovery began). The rubber and plastics industry continued its upward trend, adding 45,000 jobs. The plastics segment accounted for the entire increase. New uses for plastics, mainly in the form of revamped packaging, fueled job expansion. The textiles and apparel industries also posted significant job gains in 1987 after experiencing declines through much of the 1980's.

Backed by the resurgence of the oil and gas industry, *mining* employment increased 45,000 between its trough in early 1987 and year's end. Oil and gas extraction accounted for almost all of this increase, much of which can be attributed to a rise in oil prices. This industry had suffered from a worldwide oil surplus, causing a sharp decline in oil prices and leading to employment declines totaling half a million between the first quarters of 1982 and 1987. Thus, the small recent job gains are a promising sign for the mining industry.

The *construction industry* ended 1987 with about 145,000 more jobs than a year earlier, the smallest increase of the 5-year expansion. Job gains were quite uneven during the year—in fact, on a seasonally adjusted basis, they occurred mostly in January and October through December. Because these are all months of seasonal employment cutbacks, the strength in these months indicates that fewer workers than normal had been laid off during the slower months. Residential and commercial construction were both affected by rising interest rates through much of 1987, and changes in the tax laws made commercial investment in building less attractive.

The *service-producing sector* continued to expand at a rapid pace, adding 2.3 million jobs in 1987. Since the November 1982 recession trough, this sector has accounted for 85 percent of the jobs gained. The largest increases

continued to be in services and retail trade. The service industries alone accounted for nearly 45 percent of the employment growth in this sector since the recession trough and represented 36 percent of all nonagricultural jobs added in 1987.

Employment in *transportation and public utilities* increased steadily, gaining 180,000 jobs from the fourth quarter of 1986 and more than 300,000 from mid-1986. The bulk of this increase occurred in the transportation industry. Most of that industry's strong performance can be linked to the rise in manufacturing orders and shipments, and to increased industrial production. Air transportation also showed consistent growth, particularly in the second half of 1987, when airline passenger traffic reached record levels. Railroads continued their long-term decline, while communication and public utilities posted modest gains over the year.

Wholesale trade experienced steady growth in 1987, with both the durables and nondurables portions posting small but consistent job increases.

Retail trade showed much more substantial gains, as retail sales remained strong throughout much of the year. The industry added nearly 420,000 jobs in 1987, with eating and drinking places, food stores, and automotive dealers and service stations continuing their long upward trends. Radio, television, and music stores remained prosperous as demand for video cassette recorders, video rental clubs, and home

computers continued to spur employment gains in this industry. Department stores, backed by record high consumer confidence (at least up to the October stock market collapse), posted substantial employment increases in 1987; after peaking in October, employment in department stores declined on a seasonally adjusted basis.

Employment in *finance, insurance, and real estate* increased 235,000 in 1987, with two-thirds of the increase having occurred in the first half of the year. The three major components all showed significant job gains in 1987. In finance, the largest increase was in security brokers and dealers. This industry grew as more investors entered the securities market. At yearend, however, many financial firms announced plans to substantially reduce their work forces. Real estate agents and managers also exhibited substantial employment growth in 1987.

The *services* industries continued to pace employment growth, accounting for nearly 4 out of every 10 nonagricultural jobs created in 1987. Since the start of the current expansion, these industries has gained 5.4 million jobs. This year's 1 million increase was led by business services and health services. These two industries, which account for approximately half of all service industries employment, have also dominated the sectors' long-term growth.

The temporary help industry, which contracts out employees for temporary assignments in other establishments,

Chart 2. Goods- and service-producing sector shares of payroll employment, 1967 and 1987 annual averages

□ Goods producing
 ■ Service producing

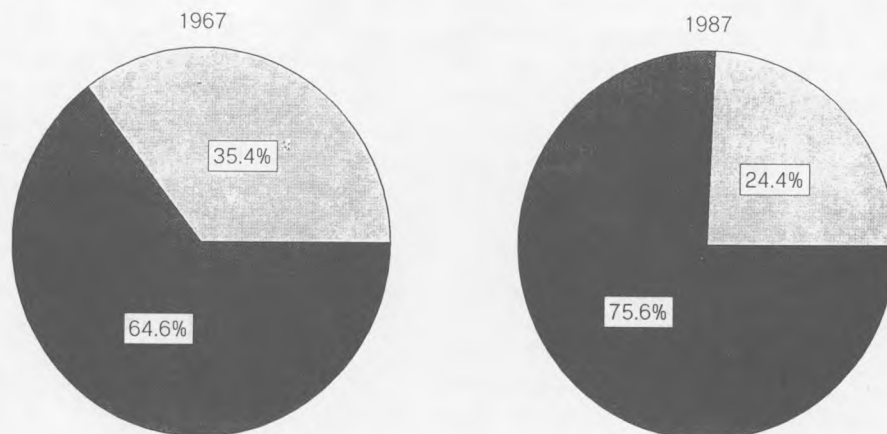
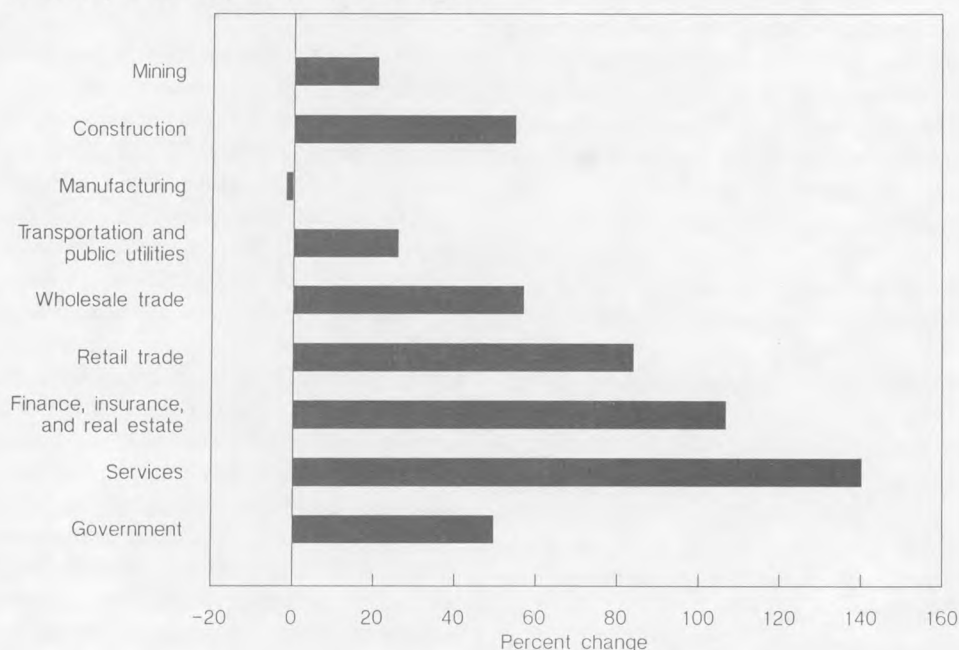


Chart 3. Percentage change in employment by major industry division, 1967-87 annual averages



has been one of the fastest-growing industries during the 1982-87 economic expansion. Temporary work arrangements are attractive to workers who require flexible schedules, such as mothers with young children, who might otherwise not be in the labor force. They are also beneficial to employers when they prefer not to make long-term hiring commitments.

The health services industry was paced by significant employment gains in hospitals and offices of physicians. The long-term increase in this industry has, to some extent, been linked to the aging of the population. This factor, coupled with the increased demand for routine and preventive health care, increased use of diagnostic procedures, and advances in medical technology, has led to rapid job expansion in health services.

Government employment rose 325,000 in 1987, a growth pace consistent with that over the last few years. Federal, State, and local governments all posted employment increases over the year. Most of this increase occurred in local government. In particular, employment in education benefited from increased school enrollments. Growth in local government was also spurred by increased revenues generated by lotteries, revised tax laws, and general business expansion.

Hours of work

The workweek of production or nonsupervisory workers

on private nonagricultural payrolls, which had declined to a low of 34.7 hours in the fourth quarter of 1986, fluctuated during 1987, standing at 34.8 by year's end. Over the longer term, the average workweek has been in a decline, which is largely attributable to the increasing proportion of employment in the retail trade and service industries, which employ many part-time workers. The slight rise in average weekly hours is explained by manufacturing's recent strength in both employment and hours.

Average weekly hours in manufacturing continued to climb in 1987, reaching 41.2 hours by the final quarter, extremely high by historical standards. Between the first quarter of 1985 and the final quarter of 1987, the factory workweek increased about an hour. Factory overtime showed consistent increases in 1987, reaching a peak of 3.9 hours in the fourth quarter.

The index of aggregate weekly hours, a comprehensive measure which takes into account both the number of production workers and their average hours, increased by 4.1 percent in 1987, reaching a record level of 122.0 by year's end (1977=100). This was the largest over-the-year increase since 1984 and marked the fifth consecutive yearly gain in this index. The index of aggregate hours for manufacturing also rose, increasing 3.2 percent from the fourth quarter of 1986.

Long-term employment trends. The service-sector domination of job growth in 1987 represents the continuation of a long-term trend. Chart 2 illustrates the relative employment in the service-producing versus the goods-producing sector in 1987 compared with 20 years earlier. The goods-producing sector has shown little employment growth (7 percent), while becoming a significantly smaller component of total employment. The service-producing sector has grown dramatically, increasing 82 percent from its 1967 employment level and now accounting for 3 out of every 4 nonagricultural jobs.

In the goods-producing sector, mining has gained jobs over this 20-year period, but, after peaking at a level of 1.2 million in early 1982, has suffered substantial employment declines in subsequent years. Construction accounted for most of the modest employment gains in the goods-producing sector over this period. The manufacturing share of total employment has dwindled, falling from 30 percent in 1967 to less than 19 percent in 1987. Such declines have not been experienced by other measures of manufacturing's health; for example, manufacturing has largely maintained its share of gross national product.

Chart 3 illustrates long-term industry employment growth. While all service-sector industries continue to expand, many make up roughly the same proportion of total jobs as they did 20 years earlier. Thus, wholesale trade's portion of employment has remained constant, while government and transportation and public utilities have shown slight losses of job share. The finance, insurance, and real estate industry, while increasing at a brisk pace, has gained less than 2 percent of the total job distribution. This is still impressive, because the industry consists of such a small portion of total employment. Retail trade has increased its share of jobs by nearly 3 percent, while services have shown the largest gain in job share, increasing by more than 8

percent. Services currently compose roughly 25 percent of total nonagricultural employment.

Civilian employment

Total civilian employment, which includes a large number of self-employed workers, rose by 3.1 million in 1987 to 113.5 million. Overall, employment increased by 14.6 million between late 1982 and 1987. Up until 1987, the current economic expansion had followed the cyclical pattern for an economic recovery—robust employment growth in the first few years, succeeded by much smaller gains in subsequent years. The employment spurt in 1987, however, resulted in the strongest over-the-year job growth since 1984.

Age and sex. The demographic pattern of employment growth has followed a "normal" cyclical pattern during the expansion. Having borne the brunt of recessionary layoffs, adult men made up a large percentage of the early job gains, accounting for more than half of the increase between the fourth quarters of 1982 and 1984. As the expansion continued, adult women made up a larger share, reflecting their long-term trend of growing labor market participation. In 1985 and 1986, women accounted for 70 and 56 percent, respectively, of the over-the-year increases in employment. In 1987, however, women made up only about half of the employment growth. Also, for the second straight year, teenagers experienced a job gain. The increase followed large losses in the 1980–82 recession years and little movement between 1983 and 1985, a reflection of teenagers' declining population during this period.

These strong employment advances are also reflected in the gains in the employment-population ratio (the proportion of the civilian working age population with jobs) for each of the three groups. The proportions of women and teenagers with jobs increased by 1.2 and 1.4 percentage points over the year, to 53.6 and 46.0 percent. The proportion of men rose only 0.6 percentage point to 74.0 percent. The overall ratio was 61.9 percent in the fourth quarter of 1987, the highest in history.

Whites, blacks, and Hispanics. All three major racial-ethnic groups benefited from the job growth in 1987. The fastest rate of growth was registered by Hispanic workers. Although they make up only 7 percent of the U.S. work force, Hispanic workers accounted for 19 percent of the overall job gain in 1987. During that period, their employment-population ratio climbed to a new high of 61.3 percent.

Hispanic workers also accounted for a relatively large share of the overall employment increase, as their employment-population ratio climbed to 61.1 percent, also a record. Although whites also experienced employment growth, their share of the 1987 job gain was small relative to their share of the labor force.

Table 2. Employment gains and losses by major occupation, 1983–IV to 1987–IV
[In percent]

Occupation	1983–84	1984–85	1985–86	1986–87	1983–87
Total	3.3	2.0	2.3	2.8	10.7
Managerial and professional specialty	5.1	4.3	2.9	4.5	17.8
Executive, administrative, and managerial	7.4	4.7	4.4	5.5	23.8
Professional specialty	3.2	3.9	1.6	3.6	12.8
Technical, sales, administrative support	3.2	2.7	3.6	2.1	12.1
Technicians and related support	3.4	2.7	3.4	0.5	10.3
Sales occupations	5.3	0.7	5.5	0.6	12.5
Administrative support, including clerical	1.5	4.2	2.3	3.6	7.1
Service occupations	0.9	2.6	1.2	2.3	7.0
Precision production, craft, and repair	3.5	1.4	0.6	0.7	6.3
Operators, fabricators, and laborers	3.1	-1.0	0.8	3.8	6.8
Farming, fishing, and forestry	0.8	-7.9	2.8	1.6	-3.1

Table 3. Selected labor force indicators by sex, age, race, and Hispanic origin, selected seasonally adjusted quarterly averages, 1982-87

[Numbers in thousands]

Characteristic	1982	1984	1985	1986	1987			
	IV				I	II	III	IV
Total								
Civilian labor force	110,959	114,257	116,187	118,557	119,151	119,626	120,053	120,568
Percent of population	64.1	64.5	64.9	65.4	65.5	65.5	65.6	65.7
Employed	99,120	105,944	107,984	110,436	111,271	112,147	112,854	113,486
Agriculture	3,471	3,327	3,093	3,176	3,212	3,237	3,180	3,212
Nonagriculture	95,649	102,616	104,891	107,260	108,059	108,910	109,674	110,274
Employment-population ratio	57.3	58.8	60.3	60.9	61.1	61.4	61.7	61.9
Unemployed	11,839	8,313	8,203	8,121	7,880	7,479	7,199	7,082
Unemployment rate	10.7	7.3	7.1	6.8	6.6	6.3	6.0	5.9
Men, 20 years and over								
Civilian labor force	58,375	60,015	60,586	61,657	61,925	62,051	62,091	62,253
Percent of population	78.8	78.3	78.1	78.2	78.2	78.1	77.9	77.9
Employed	52,553	56,252	56,936	57,873	58,308	58,607	58,858	59,129
Employment-population ratio	70.9	73.4	73.4	73.4	73.6	73.8	73.9	74.0
Unemployed	5,822	3,763	3,650	3,784	3,617	3,444	3,233	3,124
Unemployment rate	10.0	6.3	6.0	6.1	5.8	5.6	5.2	5.0
Women, 20 years and over								
Civilian labor force	44,112	46,354	47,736	49,005	49,308	49,648	49,926	50,237
Percent of population	52.9	54.0	54.9	55.7	55.9	56.1	56.3	56.5
Employed	40,127	43,254	44,686	46,070	46,452	46,959	47,255	47,621
Employment-population ratio	48.1	50.4	51.4	52.4	52.6	53.1	53.3	53.6
Unemployed	3,985	3,200	3,050	2,935	2,856	2,689	2,671	2,615
Unemployment rate	9.0	6.7	6.4	6.0	5.8	5.4	5.3	5.2
Both sexes, 16 to 19 years								
Civilian labor force	8,472	7,887	7,865	7,895	7,919	7,927	8,036	8,078
Percent of population	54.3	54.1	54.4	54.3	54.4	54.3	54.9	55.2
Employed	6,440	6,438	6,362	6,492	6,511	6,581	6,740	6,736
Employment-population ratio	41.3	44.2	44.0	44.6	44.8	45.1	46.0	46.0
Unemployed	2,032	1,449	1,503	1,402	1,408	1,346	1,296	1,342
Unemployment rate	24.0	18.4	19.1	17.8	17.8	17.0	16.1	16.6
White								
Civilian labor force	96,623	98,814	100,538	102,425	102,777	103,179	103,374	103,769
Percent of population	64.4	64.7	65.2	65.7	65.7	65.8	65.8	65.9
Employed	87,452	92,618	94,491	96,350	96,941	97,622	98,056	98,529
Employment-population ratio	58.3	60.7	61.3	61.8	62.0	63.3	62.4	62.6
Unemployed	9,171	6,176	6,047	6,075	5,835	5,558	5,318	5,240
Unemployment rate	9.5	6.3	6.0	5.9	5.7	5.4	5.1	5.0
Black								
Civilian labor force	11,503	12,254	12,477	12,719	12,851	12,853	13,072	13,187
Percent of population	61.5	62.9	63.0	63.2	63.6	63.3	64.1	64.4
Employed	9,155	10,400	10,588	10,918	11,051	11,160	11,438	11,583
Employment-population ratio	48.9	53.4	53.5	54.3	54.7	54.9	56.1	56.6
Unemployed	2,348	1,854	1,889	1,800	1,800	1,693	1,634	1,603
Unemployment rate	20.4	15.1	15.1	14.2	14.0	13.2	12.5	12.2
Hispanic origin								
Civilian labor force	6,826	7,618	7,809	8,256	8,402	8,495	8,526	8,730
Percent of population	63.5	65.4	64.7	66.0	66.2	66.3	66.0	66.9
Employed	5,783	6,823	6,973	7,425	7,593	7,740	7,832	7,990
Employment-population ratio	53.8	58.6	57.7	59.4	59.8	60.4	60.6	61.3
Unemployed	1,043	795	836	831	809	755	694	739
Unemployment rate	15.3	10.4	10.7	10.1	9.6	8.9	8.1	8.5

NOTE: Detail for race and Hispanic-origin groups will not sum to totals because data for the "other races" group are not presented and Hispanics are included in both the white and black

population groups.

Occupations. Consistent with the overall employment increase in 1987, most occupations gained workers during the past year. However, the rate of employment growth was markedly different among occupations.¹ Table 2 shows the percent change in employment for major occupations by year, beginning with the fourth quarter of 1983 and ending with the fourth quarter of 1987. It also shows the percent change in employment for this entire period.

As had been the case in the 1983-86 period, the greatest job expansion in 1987 occurred among executive, administrative, and managerial workers. In the past 4 years, the number of these relatively highly educated, highly paid workers grew more than twice as fast as did total employment. In contrast, the number of operator, fabricator, and laborer jobs—the typical factory tasks—increased at a very slow pace. Despite benefiting from the rebound in manufac-

turing during 1987, total growth in these occupations over the 1983–87 period was much less than the gain in total employment. Farming, forestry, and fishing jobs showed an outright decline between 1983 and 1987.

Part-time workers. As has been the case throughout the entire expansionary period, the vast majority of the employment growth in 1987 occurred among full-time workers (those working 35 hours or more per week). At the end of the year, there were 20 million part-time workers, 14.6 million of whom worked part time voluntarily. This represented an increase of about 515,000 voluntary part-time workers over the previous year.²

In addition to voluntary part-time workers, about 5.4 million persons worked part time for economic reasons—that is, they would have preferred full-time work. Their number was down slightly from the fourth quarter of 1986. After declining by 1.3 million in the first 3 years of the current economic expansion, the number of such workers has remained relatively high.

Unemployment

The civilian worker unemployment rate dropped by 0.9 percentage point to 5.9 percent during the course of 1987, with the bulk of the decline occurring in the first 6 months. Over the year, the number of unemployed persons fell by a million to 7.1 million. Both the number unemployed and the rate of unemployment had shown very limited improvement in 1985 and 1986. (See table 3.)

Age and sex. The 1987 drop in joblessness was shared by virtually all major labor force groups. The rate for adult men fell by 1.1 percentage points to 5.0 percent. However, that level was still above those recorded just before the two recessions in the early 1980's. The rate for adult women declined by 0.8 percentage point to 5.2 percent at year's end—its lowest level since the first half of 1974. An increase in the teenage rate of unemployment in the fourth quarter tempered second- and third-quarter declines. As a result, teenagers were the only major labor force group to have shown little improvement over the year.

Whites, blacks, and Hispanics. Each of the three major racial-ethnic groups experienced a decrease in unemployment in 1987. Jobless rates for whites and blacks reached the lowest levels since the beginning of the current expansion. As the tabulation below shows, at year's end these rates had returned to their 1979 levels, after substantial increases in the 1980–82 recession years. The rate for blacks, at 12.2 percent, remained almost 2½ times the 5.0 percent rate for whites, while the rate for Hispanics, at 8.5 percent, stayed in an intermediate position.

Unemployment rate, fourth quarter

	1979	1982	1987
<i>White</i>			
Total, 16 years and over	5.2	9.5	5.0
Men, 20 years and over	3.8	8.9	4.4
Women, 20 years and over	5.0	8.0	4.4
Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	14.1	21.3	14.0
<i>Black</i>			
Total, 16 years and over	12.1	20.4	12.2
Men, 20 years and over	9.4	19.9	10.0
Women, 20 years and over	10.5	16.5	10.9
Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	36.7	48.4	33.7
<i>Hispanic origin</i>			
Total	9.0	15.3	8.5

Industry and occupation. Unemployment declined for all major industrial groups during 1987.³ The tabulation below shows that the greatest improvements occurred in mining, construction, and manufacturing. Improvements in mining and manufacturing reflected a turnaround in the employment situations of these two industrial groups. However, with regard to the construction industry, using the fourth quarter of 1986 (14.0 percent) as a period of comparison may exaggerate the actual improvement; in every other quarter of 1986 and 1987, the construction jobless rate was between 11 and 13 percent. The general trend has been one of slow improvement.

Unemployment rate, fourth quarter

	1984	1985	1986	1987
Mining	11.1	8.7	14.7	7.8
Construction	13.6	13.0	14.0	10.8
Manufacturing	7.3	7.5	7.1	5.4
Durable goods	7.1	7.5	6.8	4.9
Nondurable goods	7.5	7.5	7.5	6.0
Transportation and public utilities	5.3	5.2	4.7	4.5
Wholesale and retail trade	7.7	7.7	7.3	6.5
Finance and service industries	5.9	5.4	5.3	4.8

Related to the unemployment rate declines in the manufacturing and construction industries during the past year, occupations which are concentrated in these industries—operators, fabricators, and laborers, and precision production, craft, and repair workers—experienced the largest unemployment rate declines in 1987. Nevertheless, at 8.4 percent in the fourth quarter of 1987, operators, fabricators, and laborers still had the highest unemployment rate among the major occupational groups. The jobless rate for managerial and professional workers, 2.1 percent in late 1987, was the lowest rate among all major occupational groups.

Table 4. Unemployment by duration, seasonally adjusted fourth-quarter averages, 1982-87

[Number in thousands]

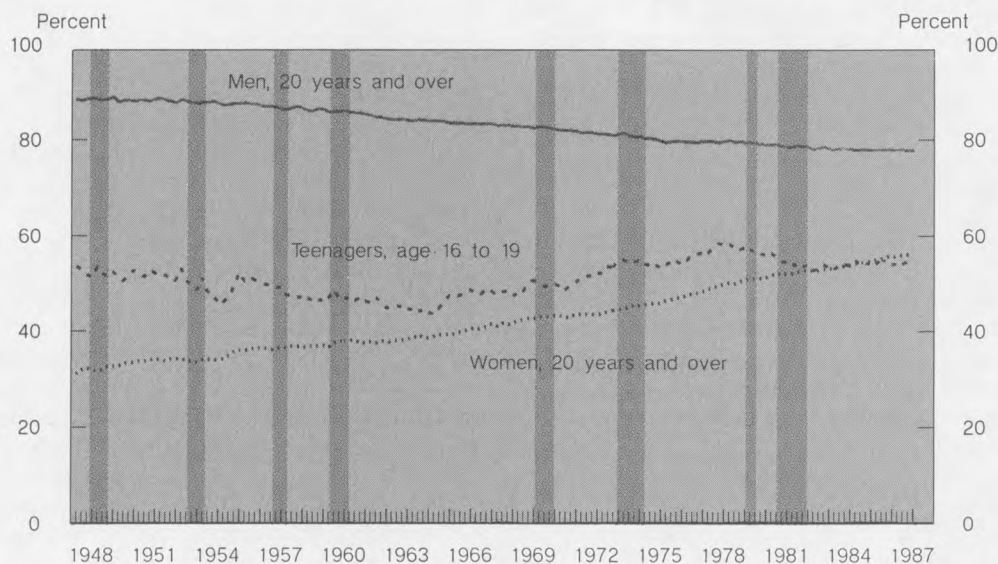
Weeks of unemployment	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
	IV	IV	IV	IV	IV	IV
Duration						
Less than 5 weeks	3,929	3,431	3,399	3,437	3,376	3,223
5 to 14 weeks	3,471	2,634	2,429	2,489	2,513	2,030
15 weeks and over	4,444	3,521	2,462	2,250	2,211	1,809
15 to 26 weeks	2,061	1,352	1,049	1,016	1,031	878
27 weeks and over	2,383	2,168	1,413	1,234	1,180	930
Average (mean) duration, in weeks	17.5	19.7	16.8	15.4	15.1	14.1
Median duration, in weeks	10.0	9.1	7.2	6.9	7.0	6.1
Percent distribution						
Total unemployed	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 5 weeks	33.2	35.8	41.0	42.0	41.7	45.6
5 to 14 weeks	29.3	27.5	29.3	30.4	31.0	28.7
15 weeks and over	37.5	36.7	29.7	27.5	27.3	25.6
15 to 26 weeks	17.4	14.1	12.7	12.4	12.7	12.4
27 weeks and over	20.1	22.6	17.0	15.1	14.6	13.2

Duration and reasons. The average spell of unemployment was also shorter in 1987 than in recent years. The

mean duration of unemployment fell from 15.1 weeks in the fourth quarter of 1986 to 14.1 weeks at the end of 1987. Similarly, the median duration fell 0.9 weeks to end the year at 6.1 weeks. Both measures were down sharply from 1983 highs of 20.5 and 11.5 weeks. Although there are now fewer unemployed persons in all duration categories, this is particularly true with regard to the number of persons with unemployment spells of 15 weeks and over. On a percentage basis, those jobless more than 15 weeks have declined considerably as a proportion of total unemployment. Conversely, as one would expect, those unemployed less than 5 weeks made up a gradually increasing percentage of the unemployed. At the extreme end, 13.2 percent of all unemployed persons had been out of work for 6 months or more in the fourth quarter of 1987, a very high proportion after 5 years of economic expansion. (See table 4.)

Among the unemployed, the numbers of job losers, job leavers, labor force reentrants, and new entrants all declined in 1987, and there was only a slight redistribution among those categories. Since late 1982, however, there has been a large decrease in the proportion of the unemployed that had lost their last job—from 61 to less than 47 percent.

Chart 4. Labor force participation rates for adult men and women, and teenagers, seasonally adjusted quarterly averages, 1948-87



NOTE: Shaded areas indicate recessionary periods as designated by the National Bureau of Economic Research.

Unemployment in families. Most labor force participants live in family units. The proportion of families having at least one member unemployed declined by 1.4 percentage points in 1987, to 5 percent at yearend. It is worthy to note, that, in almost two-thirds of those 5.0 million families, the effects of unemployment were partly mollified by the full-time employment of some other family member.

The unemployment rates for married men and women (spouse present), at 3.5 and 4.2 percent in the fourth quarter of 1987, were well below the national average of 5.9 percent. However, the 8.6-percent rate of unemployment

among women who maintain families was well above average.

The proportions of families with unemployment differed appreciably by race and ethnic origin in 1987. The proportion among black families was more than 17 percent in the fourth quarter of 1987, compared with 12 percent for Hispanic and less than 7 percent for white families.

Discouraged workers

Another useful indicator of the state of labor markets is the number of persons who want a job but are not looking

Employment then and now: one parallel, many changes

“Employment has advanced strongly and unemployment has fallen sharply in the past 5 years.” This statement, applicable today, could also have been used to describe the developments over the 5 years leading up to 1913, when the Department of Labor was born. By coincidence, labor market changes during both the 1908–13 period and the past 5 years were marked by strong recoveries from deep recessions. For example, in the 1908–13 period the number of persons employed rose by about 15 percent and the unemployment rate fell from 8.0 to 4.3 percent (according to estimates by Stanley Lebergott that are designed to be comparable with those from the Current Population Survey). Similarly, in the 5 years after the end of the 1981–82 recession, employment rose by 14 percent and the jobless rate dropped from 10.7 to 5.9 percent.

Despite these similarities in cyclical behavior, vast changes have taken place in both the size and composition of the U.S. work force in the 75 years of the Department’s existence. The number of Americans working or seeking work has more than tripled, and women have become a much larger proportion of the labor force. Many long-run changes in social and economic structure contributed to these labor force shifts. Among the most important factors were the urbanization of the population, the secular decline in the birth rate, a rise in the number of years of schooling, and increased life expectancy combined with greater pension coverage.

The shift of population from rural to urban areas has had tremendous impact on the nature of employment. In 1913, 3 out of 10 American workers were in agriculture; at the end of 1987, the proportion was down to only 3 out of 100. Also, just about half of all employed persons in 1913 worked in what might be described as the “informal” sector, that is, on farms, in other family-owned businesses, or as domestics in private households. As shown below, in late 1987 nearly 9 out of 10 employed persons were nonfarm wage and salary workers. Another major difference is that in 1913 nearly half of all nonfarm employees worked in mining, construction, or manufacturing. Today less than 1 in 4 workers are in these goods-producing industries.

	1913	1987
Employed (in thousands)	37,004	113,486
Percent distribution	100.0	100.0
Farm	29.7	2.8
Nonfarm:		
Wage and salary workers	50.6	88.6
Self-employed workers	13.4	7.3
Unpaid family workers	0.6	0.2
Domestics	5.6	1.1

Since 1913, urbanization has also opened up a much wider range of job opportunities for women. This shift, combined with the long-term decline in the birth rate (which was interrupted temporarily after World War II) and changing views about gender roles, contributed to the huge increase in the proportion of women working outside the home. It is estimated that in 1913 only 25 percent of women of working age were in the labor force; today, the proportion is 57 percent. Participation rates jumped even more for women in the prime childbearing and raising years of 25 to 44—from 20 percent in 1913 to 74 percent currently.

Over the same period, there was a decline in labor market participation of teenage boys and men in their early twenties. This was attributable primarily to the extension of high school and college education to larger and larger proportions of the population. At the other end of the age spectrum, people today are living much longer and retiring much sooner than they did 75 years ago. The introduction of Social Security and increased availability of private pensions has made retirement from work a viable alternative for millions. Reflecting these changes, the labor force participation rate of men age 65 and over plummeted from approximately 60 percent in 1913 to 15 percent today. The social and economic changes sketched here resulted in a work force today that is both larger and radically different from the labor force in 1913.

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because they believe no work is available—the so-called discouraged workers. Although reporting that they want a job, discouraged workers are excluded from the count of the unemployed because they are not actively looking for work. Changes in their number have generally followed cyclical changes in unemployment. Their number rose from about 800,000 in 1979 to 1.8 million at the recession trough in the fourth quarter of 1982, and then dropped considerably in 1983 and 1984. There was only slight improvement over the next 2 years, but, in 1987, the number of such “workers” edged down in each quarter, declining 235,000 over the year to 910,000 as of the fourth quarter.

The bulk of discouraged workers cited job-market factors as their reason for not seeking work, and this was the group in which all of the improvement in 1987 occurred. The number that cited personal reasons—such as age or lack of skill, education, or training—was little changed in 1987.

Labor force growth

The civilian labor force, at 120.6 million in the fourth quarter of 1987, rose by 2.0 million during the year. Adult women were responsible for almost two-thirds of this increase. As chart 4 shows, their labor force participation rate

(the proportion of their population in the labor force) continued its long-term expansion, rising to 56½ percent in the fourth quarter of the year. In contrast, the labor force participation rate for adult men has been declining fairly consistently—edging down to 78 percent in the fourth quarter of 1987. While teenage participation rose in 1987, it was still below the levels of the late 1970's.

Hispanic workers made up an unusually large share of the 1987 labor force growth—about one-fourth—even though they account for only about one-fourteenth of the civilian labor force. This labor force gain resulted mostly from the rapid expansion in their population.

IN SUMMARY, 1987 was a year of strong labor market performance, as employment growth accelerated and substantial reductions were made in the number of unemployed workers. At year's end, there were doubts about the future course of the economy, particularly in view of developments in the stock market. Nevertheless, the renewed growth of the goods-producing sector, particularly in factory employment, was an encouraging sign. And, finally, the jobless rate dropped to just below 6 percent, the lowest since 1979. □

—FOOTNOTES—

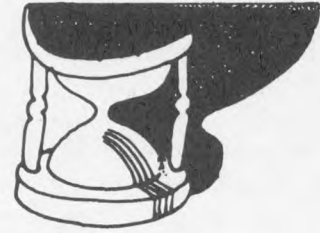
¹ Comparisons are based on unadjusted data averaged for the fourth quarter of each year.

² A more comprehensive measure of part-time workers based on “usual hours” instead of voluntary or involuntary status was recently introduced. The more traditional measure is used in this article to differentiate trends

in the number of persons working part time for economic or for other reasons. See Thomas J. Nardone, “Part-time workers: who are they?” *Monthly Labor Review*, February 1986, pp. 13–19.

³ Unemployed persons are classified according to the industry and occupation of their last full-time job lasting 2 weeks or more.

Major Agreements Expiring Next Month



This list of selected collective bargaining agreements expiring in March is based on information collected by the Bureau's Office of Compensation and Working Conditions. The list includes agreements covering 1,000 workers or more. Private industry is arranged in order of Standard Industrial Classification.

Industry or activity	Employer and location	Labor organization ¹	Number of workers	
Private				
Construction	Associated General Contractors, Broward, Dade, Palm Beach Counties (Florida)	Carpenters	1,800	
	Associated General Contractors and others, Southern Florida (Florida)	Laborers	1,800	
	Associated General Contractors and Construction Employers Association of Texas (Houston, TX)	Iron Workers	1,000	
	Associated General Contractors, Houston and Galveston (Texas)	Carpenters	3,500	
	Associated General Contractors (New Mexico)	Carpenters	2,000	
	Associated General Contractors, Labor Relations Division Upstate (New York)	Laborers	1,000	
	Associated General Contractors, Upstate (New York)	Carpenters	10,000	
	Associated General Contractors, Upstate (New York)	Teamsters	2,000	
	Associated General Contractors, Upstate (New York)	Operating Engineers	3,000	
	Associated General Contractors and Construction Employers Association (Houston, TX)	Operating Engineers	1,000	
	Construction Employers Association (Houston, TX)	Laborers	1,000	
	Contractors Association of Sabine Area (Beaumont, TX)	Plumbers	3,200	
	Mechanical Contractors Association (Albuquerque, NM)	Plumbers	1,200	
	National Fire Sprinkler Association (Interstate)	Plumbers	7,000	
	Dried fruit industry (California)	Teamsters	1,000	
	Weyerhaeuser Co., Dierks Division (Oklahoma and Arkansas)	Woodworkers	2,300	
	Petroleum	Exxon Co., USA Division (Baton Rouge, LA)	Baton Rouge Oil and Chemical Workers (Ind.)	2,000
		Wheaton Industries (Millville, NJ)	Glass, Pottery, Plastics and Allied Workers	1,400
	Primary metals	Kaiser Aluminum and Chemical Co. (Interstate)	Steelworkers	6,500
	Electrical products	Zenith Radio Corp. (Springfield, MO)	Electrical Workers (IBEW)	2,200
Transportation equipment	Budd Co. (Interstate)	Auto Workers	6,300	
Miscellaneous manufacturing	Jewelry Manufacturers Association, Inc. (New York)	Service Employees	1,600	
Transit	Queens Transit, Steinway Transit, Triborocoach and Jamaica Buses (New York, NY)	Transport Workers	1,200	
Trucking	Trucking Management Inc. and 1 other, over-the-road, National Master Freight agreement (Interstate)	Teamsters	50,000	
	Trucking Management Inc. and 1 other, local cartage National Master Freight agreement (Interstate)	Teamsters	100,000	
	Master Rail Truck agreement, Southwestern States (Interstate)	Teamsters	3,500	
	Joint Area Cartage agreement (Chicago, IL)	Teamsters	10,000	
	Western States Trucking Maintenance agreement	Teamsters	2,800	
	Master Cartage agreement (Chicago, IL)	Chicago Truck Drivers (Ind.)	2,500	
Utilities	Virginia Electric and Power Co. (Virginia, West Virginia, and North Carolina)	Electrical Workers (IBEW)	4,700	
	Puget Sound Power and Light Co. (Bellevue, WA)	Electrical Workers (IBEW)	1,500	
	Southern California Gas Co. (California)	Utility Workers; Chemical Workers	7,200	
Retail trade	Bloomingdale Bros. Dept. Store (New York, NY)	Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Union	4,000	
	Eagle Food Stores (Illinois and Iowa)	Food and Commercial Workers	1,150	
	Associated Mens Wear Retailers of New York (New York)	Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Union	2,000	
Public				
Transit	Massachusetts: Massachusetts Bay Transportation Authority	Transit Union	3,500	
Education	Wrentham State Mental and Physically Handicapped School, teachers	State, County and Municipal Employees	1,950	

See footnote at end of table

Industry or activity	Employer and location	Labor organization ¹	Number of workers
General government	New York: State administrative services unit	State, County and Municipal Employees	37,700
Hospitals	State institutional services unit	State, County and Municipal Employees	41,000
Services	State operational services, blue collar	State, County and Municipal Employees	25,500
	State professional, scientific, and technical unit	Public Employees Federation	51,000
	State security services	State, County and Municipal Employees	15,800
	State unified court system	State, County and Municipal Employees	1,500
	New York City surface and roads unit	Transport Workers	5,500
Transit	New York City Transit Authority	Transport Workers	28,500
Education	Ohio: Ohio State Medical College	State, County and Municipal Employees	1,600
	Ohio State University, service unit	Ohio State University Employees (Ind.)	1,800

¹Affiliated with AFL-CIO except where noted as independent (Ind.).

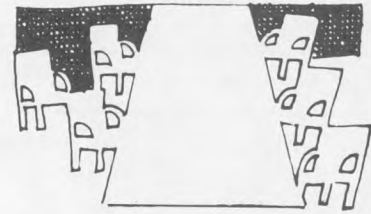
Shiskin award nominations

The Washington Statistical Society invites nominations for the ninth annual Julius Shiskin Award in recognition of outstanding achievement in the field of economic statistics.

The award, in memory of the former Commissioner of Labor Statistics, is designed to honor an unusually original and important contribution in the development of economic statistics, or in the use of economic statistics in interpreting the economy. The contribution could be in statistical research, in the development of statistical tools, in the application of computers, in the use of economic statistics to analyze and interpret the economy, in the management of statistical programs, or in developing public understanding of measurement issues, to all of which Mr. Shiskin contributed. Either individuals or groups can be nominated.

The award will be presented, with an honorarium of \$250, at the Washington Statistical Society's annual dinner in June 1988. A nomination form may be obtained by writing to the Julius Shiskin Award Committee, American Statistical Association, 1429 Duke Street, Alexandria, VA 22314-3402. Completed nomination forms must be received by April 1, 1988.

Developments in Industrial Relations



Auto industry update

The Electronic Workers and General Motors Corp. negotiated a 3-year contract covering 24,000 employees at nine plants in Ohio, Mississippi, New York, and New Jersey.

Terms, which were similar to those negotiated by the Auto Workers (see *Monthly Labor Review*, November 1987, p. 51), included a Secure Employment Numbers program that protects eligible employees against layoffs; a ban on plant closings except under "extraordinary" circumstances; tighter restrictions on subcontracting work and overtime work; an immediate 3-percent specified wage increase; continuation of the provision for automatic quarterly cost-of-living adjustments, leading off with a 14-cent-an-hour adjustment retroactive to the September 14 expiration date of the prior contract, with all adjustments no longer subject to a 1- or 2-cent reduction; and lump-sum payments in the second and third years equal to 3 percent of the employee's earnings during the preceding 12 months.

Elsewhere in the automobile industry, Chrysler Corp. and the Auto Workers agreed on a 5-year contract for 5,800 workers at the Jeep plant in Toledo, OH. The previous contract, negotiated in 1985, had been scheduled to expire in February 1988, but the union agreed to bargain early after Chrysler purchased American Motors Corp. and its Jeep operations in August. Chrysler asked for the early negotiations to bring wages and benefits at Jeep in line with those in its 1985 "national" agreement with the union. To some extent, Jeep employees were induced to bargain early because their plant was one of several being considered for shutdown. After the settlement, Chrysler said the plant would be kept open for at least the duration of the contract. The company also agreed to a minimum staffing level of 4,500 employees, based on anticipated production needs in September 1988, when Chrysler negotiates a new national agreement. If the actual employment need is higher at that time, the higher level will prevail.

The contract continued existing restrictions on subcontracting, but specified that any additional restrictions resulting from the 1988 Chrysler-UAW talks would apply to the Jeep plant. The Jeep settlement also provides that if the plant is sold, the new owner must honor the labor contract with the union.

In January 1988, the workers received a lump-sum payment equal to 3 percent of their earnings during the preceding 12 months. This payment was scheduled under the 1985 agreement. A month later, they received a 2.25-percent increase in base rates under the 1987 agreement, bringing the range to \$13.80-\$15.79 an hour.

After the employees ratified the 1987 contract, they received a lump-sum payment averaging \$2,950, representing a partial payback of wage increases and paid holidays they had given up in 1982 to improve Jeep's financial condition. At that time, the parties agreed to finance the payback from the company profits, but there were no profits, so they later agreed to finance it through a \$100 "tax" on each vehicle produced in the plant. The payback had been scheduled to occur early in 1989, but in the 1987 settlement, the parties agreed to move up the payment date and to liberalize the formula. The Auto Workers said that the \$2,950 average payment was about \$1,350 more than the originally scheduled amount but was still only 55 percent of the amount the employees had lost as a result of their 1982 sacrifices.

Events were less optimistic elsewhere in the industry, as Volkswagen announced that it will close its New Stanton, PA, plant by the end of 1988. The company said it made the decision after a "thorough analysis of both the financial implications and market outlook" based on the fact that the plant had been operating at 50 percent of capacity and losing money during the past 5 years.

The Auto Workers called the proposed shutdown a betrayal of "a loyal and productive U.S. work force in Pennsylvania." The union also contended that Volkswagen had failed to develop new vehicle models that would appeal to enough American consumers to sustain the plant, which employs 2,500 people.

When the plant began operating in 1978, Volkswagen expected to capture 5 percent of the U.S. automobile market. It peaked at 3 percent in 1980 and dropped to 1.9 percent during the first 10 months of 1987. After the closing, Volkswagen will service the U.S. market with cars produced in Europe and South America.

Food store settlements

Grocery store accords in the Cleveland and Akron-Canton, OH, areas featured a new provision intended to counter increasing inroads by nonunion stores. Under the new "unfair competition" clause, a covered retailer facing

"Developments in Industrial Relations" is prepared by George Ruben of the Division of Developments in Labor-Management Relations, Bureau of Labor Statistics, and is largely based on information from secondary sources.

competition from a nonunion store in the area can reopen bargaining for the purpose of reducing employee compensation to the level of the nonunion operator. If the union cannot demonstrate that it is actively attempting to raise the compensation of the nonunion employees to the prevailing level for union employees by informational picketing and other tactics, the covered retailer can cut its employees' compensation to the nonunion level. If this occurs, the employees will be permitted to initiate a work stoppage.

Another provision of the contracts negotiated by the United Food and Commercial Workers and the Cleveland and Akron Food Industry Councils, comprising 13 grocery store chains, reduces the number of part-time employees of high school age to 25 percent of the work force in the first contract year, 23 percent in the second year, and 20 percent in the final year. The union withdrew its demand that full-time employees hold 50 percent of all jobs in the stores, but did win elimination of a "buyout" provision under which employers had offered senior workers inducements to resign, then replaced them with lower paid workers.

The settlement, which covered 13,000 clerks and meat department employees, does not provide for wage increases for top-scale employees, but they receive lump-sum payments of up to \$850 in each year, calculated at 4 percent of their earnings in the preceding year. Lower rated employees receive 10- to 25-cent-an-hour wage increases in each year.

The settlement was preceded by a work stoppage involving 9,000 workers in the Cleveland area. The new contract, which was retroactive to September 13, 1987, runs to September 9, 1990.

Meeting the competition of nonunion food stores also was a major factor in negotiations between the Food and Commercial Workers and Albertson's, Safeway, and Rosauers chains in the Spokane, WA, area. About 1,450 grocery and meat department employees in 29 stores were covered by the resulting settlement.

The chief management negotiator said that the net effect of a number of changes in the health insurance plan would be to hold the stores' financial obligation at \$184.26 a month for each employee who works at least 80 hours a month. If this amount is not enough to cover premium increases, employees will pay any additional costs after fund reserves are exhausted. Changes in benefits include plan payment of 80 percent of hospital-medical-surgical expenses up to \$3,000 a year (was \$1,500) and 100 percent of the balance (unchanged); a new \$5 employee payment for each visit to a doctor's office; \$2 and \$4 deductibles for generic and brand-name prescription drug purchases (was \$1 for both); and adoption of a fixed fee schedule of payments for prosthetic dental procedures, replacing a provision for payment of 60 percent of usual and customary charges.

The 3-year agreement, which runs to October 6, 1990, did not provide for wage changes. A meat department coun-

ter clerk job category was established, paying \$4 an hour to start and a top of \$7.96 after 2 years' service. Top-scale meatcutters currently earn \$13 an hour.

About 20,000 employees in Michigan were covered by a 4-year contract between the Food and Commercial Workers and Meijer Inc. Top-scale store and warehouse employees received immediate lump-sum payments ranging from \$125 for baggers to \$975 for grocery clerks. Top-scale store employees will receive another lump-sum payment in November 1990. Warehouse workers receive wage increases ranging from 85 cents to \$1.20 an hour over the term, bringing top-scale rates to \$12.59 an hour, varying by job category.

At stores in eastern Michigan, top-scale clerks and cashiers receive wage increases totaling 66 cents to 90 cents over the term, bringing top rates to \$14.53 for food warehouse workers, to \$12.59 for general warehouse workers, and to \$15.59 for drivers. A lower pay schedule remains in effect for employees hired after September 1988, but those hired earlier (currently totaling 3,500) will be advanced to the higher schedule.

Top rates for clerks and cashiers hired in 1977 or earlier advance to \$10.73 in central Michigan and to \$10.70 in western Michigan. For those hired later, the new top rates are \$9.60 and \$9.28, respectively.

Baggers and utility clerks at all locations advance to \$4.77 an hour by November 1989.

Terms for all employees also included a \$200 increase, to \$1,000, in annual dental insurance coverage; a \$295 a month increase, to \$1,025, in the maximum pension payable after 35 years' service; and elimination of all health insurance deductibles for hospital stays.

In central Illinois, the Kroger Co. and Food and Commercial Workers Local 536 adopted a profit-sharing plan in a contract running to February 2, 1991. Under the plan, the 1,200 clerks will receive seven payments with the first, early in 1988, expected to be about \$600 based on Kroger's 1987 profits, according to a union official.

The contract, which does not call for any wage changes, does obligate Kroger to pay any additional costs of maintaining health and welfare and pension benefits.

In the Portland, OR, area, the store chains making up Food Employers, Inc. did not win their demand for a two-tier pay system, but Food and Commercial Workers Local 555 did agree to a wage freeze and other cost moderation changes. The chains, including Safeway Stores, Albertson's Food Centers, and Fred Meyer Inc., contended that cost moderation was necessary to help them compete with CUB Stores, a growing warehouse-type chain that generally operates with lower paid nonunion employees.

Under the contract, which was retroactive to July 13, top-rated grocery clerks are paid \$11.05 an hour for the 3-year term and top-rated meat cutters are paid \$12.99. Premium pay for work on Sundays remained at \$1 an hour for clerks but was cut to 132 percent of straight-time rates (previously, 150 percent) for meatcutters.

In another cost-saving change, the parties agreed to increase the proportion of courtesy clerks to 25 percent of the work force, from 20 percent. The clerks are paid \$4.17 an hour.

The employers continue to pay 90 cents an hour for health, dental, and vision care insurance and existing reserves were deemed adequate to cover any premium increases. If not, the 7,700 employees will pay the additional costs.

In other contract areas, the parties agreed to drug testing of employees for "reasonable cause" only, and to establish a committee to consider establishing a child care program.

Navistar gets new job security plan

In truck manufacturing, Navistar International Transportation Corp. and the Auto Workers negotiated a job security plan that permits the company to furlough employees only in specific limited circumstances. Workers furloughed in those circumstances receive existing Supplemental Unemployment Benefits plus a new \$100 a week payment. Those furloughed for other reasons receive their full pay and are eligible for company-financed job training. The 3-year contract also calls for a 16-cent-an-hour wage increase effective immediately; a \$200 lump-sum payment in the second year; and continuation of the provision for automatic quarterly cost-of-living pay adjustments. A separate 5-year pension agreement provides for a \$6 increase in the benefit rate for current employees over the term, bringing the rate to \$24.50 a month for each year of credited service. Benefit rates were also increased for current retirees, and they received a \$450 lump-sum payment.

The basic agreement covered 7,000 active and 10,000 laid-off employees at eight plants. Navistar is the former International Harvester Co.

Crowley Maritime settles with ILA

The International Longshoremen's Association (ILA) effort to prevent shippers from shifting to ports where the union does not represent employees was bolstered by a 5-year accord with Crowley Maritime Corp., which had long refused to employ ILA members. Under the accord, Crowley will continue to call at ports that do not use ILA members to handle cargo, but it will also be free to extend its operations to East and Gulf coasts ports where stevedoring concerns employ ILA members.

Union President John M. Bowers said the 5-year agreement was a "message to anyone who wants to get out from under the ILA." He also said that shifts to non-ILA ports that had already occurred had cost the union several thousand jobs in Gulf Coast ports.

The shifts that had occurred apparently resulted from higher labor costs in ILA ports. Reportedly, ILA wage and benefit costs per employee amounted to \$35 an hour in some ports, about 40 percent higher than in non-ILA ports. In the 1986 bargaining in the industry, the ILA allowed some of its locals to reduce the cost disparity by negotiating cuts in labor costs.

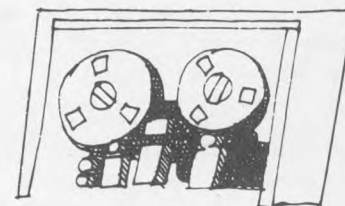
The ILA-Crowley accord also called for terminating a 1984 lawsuit in which the union had charged that a Crowley subsidiary had violated a contract with the union when it shifted to using non-ILA labor.

The ILA was continuing to bargain with various shipping associations on how to counter a ruling by the Federal Maritime Commission invalidating the longstanding rule that all packing and unpacking of cargo containers within 50 miles of an ILA port be performed by the union's members.

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, DC 20212.

Current Labor Statistics



Schedule of release dates for major BLS statistical series	74
Notes on Current Labor Statistics	75
Comparative indicators	
1. Labor market indicators	84
2. Annual and quarterly percent changes in compensation, prices, and productivity	85
3. Alternative measures of wage and compensation changes	85
Labor force data	
4. Employment status of the total population, data seasonally adjusted	86
5. Employment status of the civilian population, data seasonally adjusted	87
6. Selected employment indicators, data seasonally adjusted	88
7. Selected unemployment indicators, data seasonally adjusted	89
8. Unemployment rates by sex and age, data seasonally adjusted	90
9. Unemployed persons by reason for unemployment, data seasonally adjusted	90
10. Duration of unemployment, data seasonally adjusted	90
11. Unemployment rates of civilian workers by State	91
12. Employment of workers by State	91
13. Employment of workers by industry, data seasonally adjusted	92
14. Average weekly hours by industry, data seasonally adjusted	93
15. Average hourly earnings by industry	94
16. Average weekly earnings by industry	95
17. Hourly Earnings Index by industry	95
18. Indexes of diffusion: proportion of industries in which employment increased, seasonally adjusted	96
19. Annual data: Employment status of the noninstitutional population	96
20. Annual data: Employment levels by industry	96
21. Annual data: Average hours and earnings levels by industry	97
Labor compensation and collective bargaining data	
22. Employment Cost Index, compensation, by occupation and industry group	98
23. Employment Cost Index, wages and salaries, by occupation and industry group	99
24. Employment Cost Index, private nonfarm workers, by bargaining status, region, and area size	100
25. Specified compensation and wage adjustments from contract settlements, and effective wage adjustments, situations covering 1,000 workers or more	100
26. Average specified compensation and wage adjustments, bargaining situations covering 1,000 workers or more	101
27. Average effective wage adjustments, bargaining situations covering 1,000 workers or more	101
28. Specified compensation and wage adjustments, State and local government bargaining situations covering 1,000 workers or more	102
29. Work stoppages involving 1,000 workers or more	102
Price data	
30. Consumer Price Index: U.S. city average, by expenditure category and commodity and service groups	103
31. Consumer Price Index: U.S. city average and local data, all items	106
32. Annual data: Consumer Price Index, all items and major groups	107
33. Producer Price Indexes by stage of processing	108
34. Producer Price Indexes, by durability of product	109
35. Annual data: Producer Price Indexes by stage of processing	109
36. U.S. export price indexes by Standard International Trade Classification	110
37. U.S. import price indexes by Standard International Trade Classification	111
38. U.S. export price indexes by end-use category	112
39. U.S. import price indexes by end-use category	112
40. U.S. export price indexes by Standard Industrial Classification	112
41. U.S. import price indexes by Standard Industrial Classification	113

Contents—Continued

Productivity data

42. Indexes of productivity, hourly compensation, and unit costs, data seasonally adjusted 113
 43. Annual indexes of multifactor productivity 114
 44. Annual indexes of productivity, hourly compensation, unit costs, and prices 115

International comparisons

45. Unemployment rates in nine countries, data seasonally adjusted 115
 46. Annual data: Employment status of civilian working-age population, 10 countries 116
 47. Annual indexes of productivity and related measures, 12 countries 117

Injury and illness data

48. Annual data: Occupational injury and illness incidence rates 118

Schedule of release dates for BLS statistical series

Series	Release date	Period covered	Release date	Period covered	Release date	Period covered	MLR table number
Productivity and costs: Nonfarm business and manufacturing ..	February 4	4th quarter	2; 42-44
Nonfinancial corporations	March 3	4th quarter	2; 42-44
Employment situation	February 5	January	March 4	February	April 1	March	1; 4-21
Producer Price Index	February 12	January	March 11	February	April 15	March	2; 33-35
Consumer Price Index	February 26	January	March 23	February	April 20	March	2; 30-32
Real earnings	February 26	January	March 23	February	April 20	March	14-17
Major collective bargaining settlements	April 26	1st quarter	3; 25-28
Employment Cost Index	April 26	1st quarter	1-3; 22-24
U.S. Import and Export Price Indexes	April 28	1st quarter	36-41

NOTES ON CURRENT LABOR STATISTICS

This section of the *Review* presents the principal statistical series collected and calculated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics: series on labor force; employment; unemployment; collective bargaining settlements; consumer, producer, and international prices; productivity; international comparisons; and injury and illness statistics. In the notes that follow, the data in each group of tables are briefly described, key definitions are given, notes on the data are set forth, and sources of additional information are cited.

General notes

The following notes apply to several tables in this section:

Seasonal adjustment. Certain monthly and quarterly data are adjusted to eliminate the effect on the data of such factors as climatic conditions, industry production schedules, opening and closing of schools, holiday buying periods, and vacation practices, which might prevent short-term evaluation of the statistical series. Tables containing data that have been adjusted are identified as "seasonally adjusted." (All other data are not seasonally adjusted.) Seasonal effects are estimated on the basis of past experience. When new seasonal factors are computed each year, revisions may affect seasonally adjusted data for several preceding years. (Seasonally adjusted data appear in tables 1-3, 4-10, 13, 14, 17, and 18.) Beginning in January 1980, the BLS introduced two major modifications in the seasonal adjustment methodology for labor force data. First, the data are seasonally adjusted with a procedure called X-11 ARIMA, which was developed at Statistics Canada as an extension of the standard X-11 method previously used by BLS. A detailed description of the procedure appears in *The X-11 ARIMA Seasonal Adjustment Method* by Estela Bee Dagum (Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 12-564E, February 1980). The second change is that seasonal factors are calculated for use during the first 6 months of the year, rather than for the entire year, and then are calculated at midyear for the July-December period. However, revisions of historical data continue to be made only at the end of each calendar year.

Seasonally adjusted labor force data in tables 1 and 4-10 were revised in the February 1988 issue of the *Review*, to reflect experience through 1987.

Annual revisions of the seasonally adjusted payroll data shown in tables 13, 14, and 18 were made in the July 1987 *Review* using the X-11 ARIMA seasonal adjustment methodology. New seasonal factors for productivity data in table 42 are usually introduced in the September issue. Seasonally adjusted indexes and percent changes from month to month and from quarter to quarter are published for numerous Consumer and Producer Price Index series. However, seasonally adjusted indexes are not published for the U.S. average All Items CPI. Only seasonally adjusted percent changes are available for this series.

Adjustments for price changes. Some data—such as the Hourly Earnings Index in table 17—are adjusted to eliminate the effect of changes in price. These adjustments are made by dividing current dollar values by the Consumer Price Index or the appropriate component of the index, then multiplying by 100. For example, given a current hourly wage rate of \$3 and a current price index number of 150, where 1977 = 100, the hourly rate expressed in 1977 dollars is \$2 ($\$3/150 \times 100 = \2). The \$2 (or any other resulting values) are described as "real," "constant," or "1977" dollars.

Additional information

Data that supplement the tables in this section are published by the Bureau in a variety of sources. News releases provide the latest statistical information published by the Bureau; the major recurring releases are published according to the schedule preceding these general notes. More information about labor force, employment, and unemployment data and the household and establishment surveys underlying the data are available in *Employment and Earnings*, a monthly publication of the Bureau. More data from the household survey are published in the two-volume data book—*Labor Force Statistics Derived From the Current Population Survey*, Bulletin 2096. More data from the establishment survey appear in two data books—*Employment, Hours, and Earnings, United States*, and *Employment, Hours, and Earnings, States and Areas*, and the annual supplements to these data books. More detailed information on employee compensation and collective bargaining settlements is published in the monthly periodical, *Current Wage Developments*. More detailed data on consumer and producer prices are published in the monthly periodicals, *The CPI Detailed Report*, and *Producer Prices and Price Indexes*. Detailed data on all of the series in this section are provided in the *Handbook of Labor Statistics*, which is published biennially by the Bureau. BLS bulletins are issued covering productivity, injury and illness, and other data in this section. Finally, the *Monthly Labor Review* carries analytical articles on annual and longer term developments in labor force, employment, and unemployment; employee compensation and collective bargaining; prices; productivity; international comparisons; and injury and illness data.

Symbols

p = preliminary. To increase the timeliness of some series, preliminary figures are issued based on representative but incomplete returns.

r = revised. Generally, this revision reflects the availability of later data but may also reflect other adjustments.

n.e.c. = not elsewhere classified.

n.e.s. = not elsewhere specified.

COMPARATIVE INDICATORS

(Tables 1-3)

Comparative indicators tables provide an overview and comparison of major BLS statistical series. Consequently, although many of the included series are available monthly, all measures in these comparative tables are presented quarterly and annually.

Labor market indicators include employment measures from two major surveys and information on rates of change in compensation provided by the Employment Cost Index (ECI) program. The labor force participation rate, the employment-to-population ratio, and unemployment rates for major demographic groups based on the Current Population ("household") Survey are presented, while measures of employment and average weekly hours by major industry sector are given using nonagricultural payroll data. The Employment Cost Index (compensation), by major sector and by

bargaining status, is chosen from a variety of BLS compensation and wage measures because it provides a comprehensive measure of employer costs for hiring labor, not just outlays for wages, and it is not affected by employment shifts among occupations and industries.

Data on **changes in compensation, prices, and productivity** are presented in table 2. Measures of rates of change of compensation and wages from the Employment Cost Index program are provided for all civilian nonfarm workers (excluding Federal and household workers) and for all private nonfarm workers. Measures of changes in: consumer prices for all urban consumers; producer prices by stage of processing; and the overall export and import price indexes are given. Measures of productivity (output per hour of all persons) are provided for major sectors.

Alternative measures of wage and compensation rates of change, which reflect the overall trend in labor costs, are summarized in table 3. Differences in concepts and scope, related to the specific purposes of the series, contribute to the variation in changes among the individual measures.

Notes on the data

Definitions of each series and notes on the data are contained in later

sections of these notes describing each set of data. For detailed descriptions of each data series, see *BLS Handbook of Methods*, Volumes I and II, Bulletins 2134-1 and 2134-2 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1982 and 1984, respectively), as well as the additional bulletins, articles, and other publications noted in the separate sections of the *Review's* "Current Labor Statistics Notes." Historical data for many series are provided in the *Handbook of Labor Statistics*, Bulletin 2217 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1985). Users may also wish to consult *Major Programs, Bureau of Labor Statistics*, Report 718 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1985).

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT DATA

(Tables 1; 4-21)

Household survey data

Description of the series

EMPLOYMENT DATA in this section are obtained from the Current Population Survey, a program of personal interviews conducted monthly by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The sample consists of about 59,500 households selected to represent the U.S. population 16 years of age and older. Households are interviewed on a rotating basis, so that three-fourths of the sample is the same for any 2 consecutive months.

Definitions

Employed persons include (1) all civilians who worked for pay any time during the week which includes the 12th day of the month or who worked unpaid for 15 hours or more in a family-operated enterprise and (2) those who were temporarily absent from their regular jobs because of illness, vacation, industrial dispute, or similar reasons. Members of the Armed Forces stationed in the United States are also included in the employed total. A person working at more than one job is counted only in the job at which he or she worked the greatest number of hours.

Unemployed persons are those who did not work during the survey week, but were available for work except for temporary illness and had looked for jobs within the preceding 4 weeks. Persons who did not look for work because they were on layoff or waiting to start new jobs within the next 30 days are also counted among the unemployed. The **overall unemployment rate** represents the number unemployed as a percent of the labor force, including the resident Armed Forces. The **civilian unemployment rate** represents the number unemployed as a percent of the civilian labor force.

The **labor force** consists of all employed or unemployed civilians plus members of the Armed Forces stationed in the United States. Persons **not in the labor force** are those not classified as employed or unemployed; this group includes persons who are retired, those engaged in their own household work, those not working while attending school, those unable to work because of long-term illness, those discouraged from seeking work because of personal or job-market factors, and those who are voluntarily idle. The **noninstitutional population** comprises all persons 16 years of age and older who are not inmates of penal or mental institutions, sanitariums, or homes for the aged, infirm, or needy, and members of the Armed Forces stationed in the United States. The **labor force participation rate** is the proportion of the noninstitutional population that is in the labor force. The **employment-population ratio** is total employment (including the resident Armed Forces) as a percent of the noninstitutional population.

Notes on the data

From time to time, and especially after a decennial census, adjustments are made in the Current Population Survey figures to correct for estimating errors during the preceding years. These adjustments affect the comparability of historical data. A description of these adjustments and their effect on

the various data series appear in the Explanatory Notes of *Employment and Earnings*.

Data in tables 4-10 are seasonally adjusted, based on the seasonal experience through December 1987.

Additional sources of information

For detailed explanations of the data, see *BLS Handbook of Methods*, Bulletin 2134-1 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1982), chapter 1, and for additional data, *Handbook of Labor Statistics*, Bulletin 2217 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1985). A detailed description of the Current Population Survey as well as additional data are available in the monthly Bureau of Labor Statistics periodical, *Employment and Earnings*. Historical data from 1948 to 1981 are available in *Labor Force Statistics Derived from the Current Population Survey: A Databook*, Vols. I and II, Bulletin 2096 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1982).

A comprehensive discussion of the differences between household and establishment data on employment appears in Gloria P. Green, "Comparing employment estimates from household and payroll surveys," *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1969, pp. 9-20.

Establishment survey data

Description of the series

EMPLOYMENT, HOURS, AND EARNINGS DATA in this section are compiled from payroll records reported monthly on a voluntary basis to the Bureau of Labor Statistics and its cooperating State agencies by more than 290,000 establishments representing all industries except agriculture. In most industries, the sampling probabilities are based on the size of the establishment; most large establishments are therefore in the sample. (An establishment is not necessarily a firm; it may be a branch plant, for example, or warehouse.) Self-employed persons and others not on a regular civilian payroll are outside the scope of the survey because they are excluded from establishment records. This largely accounts for the difference in employment figures between the household and establishment surveys.

Definitions

An **establishment** is an economic unit which produces goods or services (such as a factory or store) at a single location and is engaged in one type of economic activity.

Employed persons are all persons who received pay (including holiday and sick pay) for any part of the payroll period including the 12th of the month. Persons holding more than one job (about 5 percent of all persons in the labor force) are counted in each establishment which reports them.

Production workers in manufacturing include working supervisors and all nonsupervisory workers closely associated with production operations. Those workers mentioned in tables 12-17 include production workers in manufacturing and mining; construction workers in construction; and non-supervisory workers in the following industries: transportation and public utilities; wholesale and retail trade; finance, insurance, and real estate; and

services. These groups account for about four-fifths of the total employment on private nonagricultural payrolls.

Earnings are the payments production or nonsupervisory workers receive during the survey period, including premium pay for overtime or late-shift work but excluding irregular bonuses and other special payments. **Real earnings** are earnings adjusted to reflect the effects of changes in consumer prices. The deflator for this series is derived from the Consumer Price Index for Urban Wage Earners and Clerical Workers (CPI-W). The **Hourly Earnings Index** is calculated from average hourly earnings data adjusted to exclude the effects of two types of changes that are unrelated to underlying wage-rate developments: fluctuations in overtime premiums in manufacturing (the only sector for which overtime data are available) and the effects of changes and seasonal factors in the proportion of workers in high-wage and low-wage industries.

Hours represent the average weekly hours of production or nonsupervisory workers for which pay was received and are different from standard or scheduled hours. **Overtime hours** represent the portion of average weekly hours which was in excess of regular hours and for which overtime premiums were paid.

The Diffusion Index, introduced in the May 1983 *Review*, represents the percent of 185 nonagricultural industries in which employment was rising over the indicated period. One-half of the industries with unchanged employment are counted as rising. In line with Bureau practice, data for the 1-, 3-, and 6-month spans are seasonally adjusted, while those for the 12-month span are unadjusted. The diffusion index is useful for measuring the dispersion of economic gains or losses and is also an economic indicator.

Notes on the data

Establishment data collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics are periodically adjusted to comprehensive counts of employment (called "benchmarks"). The latest complete adjustment was made with the release of May 1987 data, published in the July 1987 issue of the *Review*. Consequently, data published in the *Review* prior to that issue are not necessarily comparable to current data. Unadjusted data have been revised back to April 1985; seasonally adjusted data have been revised back to January 1982. These revisions were published in the *Supplement to Employment and Earnings* (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1987). Unadjusted data from April 1986 forward, and seasonally adjusted data from January 1983 forward are subject to revision in future benchmarks.

In the establishment survey, estimates for the 2 most recent months are based on incomplete returns and are published as preliminary in the tables (13 to 18 in the *Review*). When all returns have been received, the estimates are revised and published as final in the third month of their appearance. Thus, August data are published as preliminary in October and November and as final in December. For the same reason, quarterly establishment data (table 1) are preliminary for the first 2 months of publication and final in the third month. Thus, second-quarter data are published as preliminary in August and September and as final in October.

COMPENSATION AND WAGE DATA

(Tables 1-3; 22-29)

COMPENSATION AND WAGE DATA are gathered by the Bureau from business establishments, State and local governments, labor unions, collective bargaining agreements on file with the Bureau, and secondary sources.

Employment Cost Index

Description of the series

The **Employment Cost Index (ECI)** is a quarterly measure of the rate of change in compensation per hour worked and includes wages, salaries, and employer costs of employee benefits. It uses a fixed market basket of

Additional sources of information

Detailed national data from the establishment survey are published monthly in the BLS periodical, *Employment and Earnings*. Earlier comparable unadjusted and seasonally adjusted data are published in *Employment, Hours, and Earnings, United States, 1909-84*, Bulletin 1312-12 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1985) and its annual supplement. For a detailed discussion of the methodology of the survey, see *BLS Handbook of Methods*, Bulletin 2134-1 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1982), chapter 2. For additional data, see *Handbook of Labor Statistics*, Bulletin 2217 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1985).

A comprehensive discussion of the differences between household and establishment data on employment appears in Gloria P. Green, "Comparing employment estimates from household and payroll surveys," *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1969, pp. 9-20.

Unemployment data by State

Description of the series

Data presented in this section are obtained from two major sources—the Current Population Survey (CPS) and the Local Area Unemployment Statistics (LAUS) program, which is conducted in cooperation with State employment security agencies.

Monthly estimates of the labor force, employment, and unemployment for States and sub-State areas are a key indicator of local economic conditions and form the basis for determining the eligibility of an area for benefits under Federal economic assistance programs such as the Job Training Partnership Act and the Public Works and Economic Development Act. Insofar as possible, the concepts and definitions underlying these data are those used in the national estimates obtained from the CPS.

Notes on the data

Data refer to State of residence. Monthly data for 11 States—California, Florida, Illinois, Massachusetts, Michigan, New York, New Jersey, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Texas—are obtained directly from the CPS, because the size of the sample is large enough to meet BLS standards of reliability. Data for the remaining 39 States and the District of Columbia are derived using standardized procedures established by BLS. Once a year, estimates for the 11 States are revised to new population controls. For the remaining States and the District of Columbia, data are benchmarked to annual average CPS levels.

Additional sources of information

Information on the concepts, definitions, and technical procedures used to develop labor force data for States and sub-State areas as well as additional data on sub-States are provided in the monthly Bureau of Labor Statistics periodical, *Employment and Earnings*, and the annual report, *Geographic Profile of Employment and Unemployment* (Bureau of Labor Statistics). See also *BLS Handbook of Methods*, Bulletin 2134-1 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1982), chapter 4.

labor—similar in concept to the Consumer Price Index's fixed market basket of goods and services—to measure change over time in employer costs of employing labor. The index is not seasonally adjusted.

Statistical series on total compensation costs and on wages and salaries are available for private nonfarm workers excluding proprietors, the self-employed, and household workers. Both series are also available for State and local government workers and for the civilian nonfarm economy, which consists of private industry and State and local government workers combined. Federal workers are excluded.

The Employment Cost Index probability sample consists of about 2,200 private nonfarm establishments providing about 12,000 occupational observations and 700 State and local government establishments providing

3,500 occupational observations selected to represent total employment in each sector. On average, each reporting unit provides wage and compensation information on five well-specified occupations. Data are collected each quarter for the pay period including the 12th day of March, June, September, and December.

Beginning with June 1986 data, fixed employment weights from the 1980 Census of Population are used each quarter to calculate the indexes for civilian, private, and State and local governments. (Prior to June 1986, the employment weights are from the 1970 Census of Population.) These fixed weights, also used to derive all of the industry and occupation series indexes, ensure that changes in these indexes reflect only changes in compensation, not employment shifts among industries or occupations with different levels of wages and compensation. For the bargaining status, region, and metropolitan/nonmetropolitan area series, however, employment data by industry and occupation are not available from the census. Instead, the 1980 employment weights are reallocated within these series each quarter based on the current sample. Therefore, these indexes are not strictly comparable to those for the aggregate, industry, and occupation series.

Definitions

Total compensation costs include wages, salaries, and the employer's costs for employee benefits.

Wages and salaries consist of earnings before payroll deductions, including production bonuses, incentive earnings, commissions, and cost-of-living adjustments.

Benefits include the cost to employers for paid leave, supplemental pay (including nonproduction bonuses), insurance, retirement and savings plans, and legally required benefits (such as Social Security, workers' compensation, and unemployment insurance).

Excluded from wages and salaries and employee benefits are such items as payment-in-kind, free room and board, and tips.

Notes on the data

The Employment Cost Index data series began in the fourth quarter of 1975, with the quarterly percent change in wages and salaries in the private nonfarm sector. Data on employer costs for employee benefits were included in 1980 to produce, when combined with the wages and salaries series, a measure of the percent change in employer costs for employee total compensation. State and local government units were added to the ECI coverage in 1981, providing a measure of total compensation change in the civilian nonfarm economy (excluding Federal employees). Historical indexes (June 1981=100) of the quarterly rates of change are presented in the May issue of the BLS monthly periodical, *Current Wage Developments*.

Additional sources of information

For a more detailed discussion of the Employment Cost Index, see the *Handbook of Methods*, Bulletin 2134-1 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1982), chapter 11, and the following *Monthly Labor Review* articles: "Employment Cost Index: a measure of change in the 'price of labor'," July 1975; "How benefits will be incorporated into the Employment Cost Index," January 1978; "Estimation procedures for the Employment Cost Index," May 1982; and "Introducing new weights for the Employment Cost Index," June 1985.

Data on the ECI are also available in BLS quarterly press releases issued in the month following the reference months of March, June, September, and December; and from the *Handbook of Labor Statistics*, Bulletin 2217 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1985).

Collective bargaining settlements

Description of the series

Collective bargaining settlements data provide statistical measures of negotiated adjustments (increases, decreases, and freezes) in compensation

(wage and benefit costs) and wages alone, quarterly for private industry and semiannually for State and local government. Compensation measures cover all collective bargaining situations involving 5,000 workers or more and wage measures cover all situations involving 1,000 workers or more. These data, covering private nonagricultural industries and State and local governments, are calculated using information obtained from bargaining agreements on file with the Bureau, parties to the agreements, and secondary sources, such as newspaper accounts. The data are not seasonally adjusted.

Settlement data are measured in terms of future specified adjustments: those that will occur within 12 months after contract ratification—first-year—and all adjustments that will occur over the life of the contract expressed as an average annual rate. Adjustments are worker weighted. Both first-year and over-the-life measures exclude wage changes that may occur under cost-of-living clauses that are triggered by future movements in the Consumer Price Index.

Effective wage adjustments measure all adjustments occurring in the reference period, regardless of the settlement date. Included are changes from settlements reached during the period, changes deferred from contracts negotiated in earlier periods, and changes under cost-of-living adjustment clauses. Each wage change is worker weighted. The changes are prorated over all workers under agreements during the reference period yielding the average adjustment.

Definitions

Wage rate changes are calculated by dividing newly negotiated wages by the average hourly earnings, excluding overtime, at the time the agreement is reached. Compensation changes are calculated by dividing the change in the value of the newly negotiated wage and benefit package by existing average hourly compensation, which includes the cost of previously negotiated benefits, legally required social insurance programs, and average hourly earnings.

Compensation changes are calculated by placing a value on the benefit portion of the settlements at the time they are reached. The cost estimates are based on the assumption that conditions existing at the time of settlement (for example, methods of financing pensions or composition of labor force) will remain constant. The data, therefore, are measures of negotiated changes and not of total changes in employer cost.

Contract duration runs from the effective date of the agreement to the expiration date or first wage reopening date, if applicable. Average annual percent changes over the contract term take account of the compounding of successive changes.

Notes on the data

Care should be exercised in comparing the size and nature of the settlements in State and local government with those in the private sector because of differences in bargaining practices and settlement characteristics. A principal difference is the incidence of cost-of-living adjustment (COLA) clauses which cover only about 2 percent of workers under a few local government settlements, but cover 50 percent of workers under private sector settlements. Agreements without COLA's tend to provide larger specified wage increases than those with COLA's. Another difference is that State and local government bargaining frequently excludes pension benefits which are often prescribed by law. In the private sector, in contrast, pensions are typically a bargaining issue.

Additional sources of information

For a more detailed discussion on the series, see the *BLS Handbook of Methods*, Bulletin 2134-1 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1982), chapter 10. Comprehensive data are published in press releases issued quarterly (in January, April, July, and October) for private industry, and semi-

annually (in February and August) for State and local government. Historical data and additional detailed tabulations for the prior calendar year appear in the April issue of the BLS monthly periodical, *Current Wage Developments*.

Work stoppages

Description of the series

Data on **work stoppages** measure the number and duration of major strikes or lockouts (involving 1,000 workers or more) occurring during the month (or year), the number of workers involved, and the amount of time lost because of stoppage.

Data are largely from newspaper accounts and cover only establishments directly involved in a stoppage. They do not measure the indirect or secondary effect of stoppages on other establishments whose employees are idle owing to material shortages or lack of service.

Definitions

Number of stoppages: The number of strikes and lockouts involving 1,000 workers or more and lasting a full shift or longer.

Workers involved: The number of workers directly involved in the stoppage.

Number of days idle: The aggregate number of workdays lost by workers involved in the stoppages.

Days of idleness as a percent of estimated working time: Aggregate workdays lost as a percent of the aggregate number of standard workdays in the period multiplied by total employment in the period.

Notes on the data

This series is not comparable with the one terminated in 1981 that covered strikes involving six workers or more.

Additional sources of information

Data for each calendar year are reported in a BLS press release issued in the first quarter of the following year. Monthly data appear in the BLS

monthly periodical, *Current Wage Developments*. Historical data appear in the *BLS Handbook of Labor Statistics*.

Other compensation data

Other BLS data on pay and benefits, not included in the Current Labor Statistics section of the *Monthly Labor Review*, appear in and consist of the following:

Industry Wage Surveys provide data for specific occupations selected to represent an industry's wage structure and the types of activities performed by its workers. The Bureau collects information on weekly work schedules, shift operations and pay differentials, paid holiday and vacation practices, and information on incidence of health, insurance, and retirement plans. Reports are issued throughout the year as the surveys are completed. Summaries of the data and special analyses also appear in the *Monthly Labor Review*.

Area Wage Surveys annually provide data for selected office, clerical, professional, technical, maintenance, toolroom, powerplant, material movement, and custodial occupations common to a wide variety of industries in the areas (labor markets) surveyed. Reports are issued throughout the year as the surveys are completed. Summaries of the data and special analyses also appear in the *Review*.

The National Survey of Professional, Administrative, Technical, and Clerical Pay provides detailed information annually on salary levels and distributions for the types of jobs mentioned in the survey's title in private employment. Although the definitions of the jobs surveyed reflect the duties and responsibilities in private industry, they are designed to match specific pay grades of Federal white-collar employees under the General Schedule pay system. Accordingly, this survey provides the legally required information for comparing the pay of salaried employees in the Federal civil service with pay in private industry. (See Federal Pay Comparability Act of 1970, 5 U.S.C. 5305.) Data are published in a BLS news release issued in the summer and in a bulletin each fall; summaries and analytical articles also appear in the *Review*.

Employee Benefits Survey provides nationwide information on the incidence and characteristics of employee benefit plans in medium and large establishments in the United States, excluding Alaska and Hawaii. Data are published in an annual BLS news release and bulletin, as well as in special articles appearing in the *Review*.

PRICE DATA (Tables 2; 30-41)

PRICE DATA are gathered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from retail and primary markets in the United States. Price indexes are given in relation to a base period (1967 = 100, unless otherwise noted).

Consumer Price Indexes

Description of the series

The **Consumer Price Index (CPI)** is a measure of the average change in the prices paid by urban consumers for a fixed market basket of goods and services. The CPI is calculated monthly for two population groups, one consisting only of urban households whose primary source of income is derived from the employment of wage earners and clerical workers, and the other consisting of all urban households. The wage earner index (CPI-W) is a continuation of the historic index that was introduced well over a half-century ago for use in wage negotiations. As new uses were developed for the CPI in recent years, the need for a broader and more representative index became apparent. The all urban consumer index (CPI-U), introduced in 1978, is representative of the 1982-84 buying habits of about 80 percent of the noninstitutional population of the United States at that time, compared with 32 percent represented in the CPI-W. In addition to wage earners

and clerical workers, the CPI-U covers professional, managerial, and technical workers, the self-employed, short-term workers, the unemployed, retirees, and others not in the labor force.

The CPI is based on prices of food, clothing, shelter, fuel, drugs, transportation fares, doctors' and dentists' fees, and other goods and services that people buy for day-to-day living. The quantity and quality of these items are kept essentially unchanged between major revisions so that only price changes will be measured. All taxes directly associated with the purchase and use of items are included in the index.

Data collected from more than 21,000 retail establishments and 60,000 housing units in 91 urban areas across the country are used to develop the "U.S. city average." Separate estimates for 15 major urban centers are presented in table 31. The areas listed are as indicated in footnote 1 to the table. The area indexes measure only the average change in prices for each area since the base period, and do not indicate differences in the level of prices among cities.

Notes on the data

In January 1983, the Bureau changed the way in which homeownership costs are measured for the CPI-U. A rental equivalence method replaced the

asset-price approach to homeownership costs for that series. In January 1985, the same change was made in the CPI-W. The central purpose of the change was to separate shelter costs from the investment component of homeownership so that the index would reflect only the cost of shelter services provided by owner-occupied homes. An updated CPI-U and CPI-W were introduced with release of the January 1987 data.

Additional sources of information

For a discussion of the general method for computing the CPI, see *BLS Handbook of Methods, Volume II, The Consumer Price Index*, Bulletin 2134-2 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1984). The recent change in the measurement of homeownership costs is discussed in Robert Gillingham and Walter Lane, "Changing the treatment of shelter costs for homeowners in the CPI," *Monthly Labor Review*, July 1982, pp. 9-14. An overview of the recently introduced revised CPI, reflecting 1982-84 expenditure patterns, is contained in *The Consumer Price Index: 1987 Revision*, Report 736 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1987).

Additional detailed CPI data and regular analyses of consumer price changes are provided in the *CPI Detailed Report*, a monthly publication of the Bureau. Historical data for the overall CPI and for selected groupings may be found in the *Handbook of Labor Statistics*, Bulletin 2217 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1985).

Producer Price Indexes

Description of the series

Producer Price Indexes (PPI) measure average changes in prices received in primary markets of the United States by producers of commodities in all stages of processing. The sample used for calculating these indexes currently contains about 3,200 commodities and about 60,000 quotations per month selected to represent the movement of prices of all commodities produced in the manufacturing, agriculture, forestry, fishing, mining, gas and electricity, and public utilities sectors. The stage of processing structure of Producer Price Indexes organizes products by class of buyer and degree of fabrication (that is, finished goods, intermediate goods, and crude materials). The traditional commodity structure of PPI organizes products by similarity of end use or material composition.

To the extent possible, prices used in calculating Producer Price Indexes apply to the first significant commercial transaction in the United States from the production or central marketing point. Price data are generally collected monthly, primarily by mail questionnaire. Most prices are obtained directly from producing companies on a voluntary and confidential basis. Prices generally are reported for the Tuesday of the week containing the 13th day of the month.

Since January 1987, price changes for the various commodities have been averaged together with implicit quantity weights representing their importance in the total net selling value of all commodities as of 1982. The detailed data are aggregated to obtain indexes for stage-of-processing groupings, commodity groupings, durability-of-product groupings, and a number of special composite groups. All Producer Price Index data are subject to revision 4 months after original publication.

Notes on the data

Beginning with the January 1986 issue, the *Review* is no longer presenting tables of Producer Price Indexes for commodity groupings, special composite groups, or SIC industries. However, these data will continue to be presented in the Bureau's monthly publication *Producer Price Indexes*.

The Bureau has completed the first major stage of its comprehensive overhaul of the theory, methods, and procedures used to construct the Producer Price Indexes. Changes include the replacement of judgment sampling with probability sampling techniques; expansion to systematic

coverage of the net output of virtually all industries in the mining and manufacturing sectors; a shift from a commodity to an industry orientation; the exclusion of imports from, and the inclusion of exports in, the survey universe; and the respecification of commodities priced to conform to Bureau of the Census definitions. These and other changes have been phased in gradually since 1978. The result is a system of indexes that is easier to use in conjunction with data on wages, productivity, and employment and other series that are organized in terms of the Standard Industrial Classification and the Census product class designations.

Additional sources of information

For a discussion of the methodology for computing Producer Price Indexes, see *BLS Handbook of Methods*, Bulletin 2134-1 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1982), chapter 7.

Additional detailed data and analyses of price changes are provided monthly in *Producer Price Indexes*. Selected historical data may be found in the *Handbook of Labor Statistics*, Bulletin 2217 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1985).

International Price Indexes

Description of the series

The BLS **International Price Program** produces quarterly export and import price indexes for nonmilitary goods traded between the United States and the rest of the world. The export price index provides a measure of price change for all products sold by U.S. residents to foreign buyers. ("Residents" is defined as in the national income accounts: it includes corporations, businesses, and individuals but does not require the organizations to be U.S. owned nor the individuals to have U.S. citizenship.) The import price index provides a measure of price change for goods purchased from other countries by U.S. residents. With publication of an all-import index in February 1983 and an all-export index in February 1984, all U.S. merchandise imports and exports now are represented in these indexes. The reference period for the indexes is 1977 = 100, unless otherwise indicated.

The product universe for both the import and export indexes includes raw materials, agricultural products, semifinished manufactures, and finished manufactures, including both capital and consumer goods. Price data for these items are collected quarterly by mail questionnaire. In nearly all cases, the data are collected directly from the exporter or importer, although in a few cases, prices are obtained from other sources.

To the extent possible, the data gathered refer to prices at the U.S. border for exports and at either the foreign border or the U.S. border for imports. For nearly all products, the prices refer to transactions completed during the first 2 weeks of the third month of each calendar quarter—March, June, September, and December. Survey respondents are asked to indicate all discounts, allowances, and rebates applicable to the reported prices, so that the price used in the calculation of the indexes is the actual price for which the product was bought or sold.

In addition to general indexes of prices for U.S. exports and imports, indexes are also published for detailed product categories of exports and imports. These categories are defined by the 4- and 5-digit level of detail of the Standard Industrial Trade Classification System (SITC). The calculation of indexes by SITC category facilitates the comparison of U.S. price trends and sector production with similar data for other countries. Detailed indexes are also computed and published on a Standard Industrial Classification (SIC-based) basis, as well as by end-use class.

Notes on the data

The export and import price indexes are weighted indexes of the Laspeyres type. Price relatives are assigned equal importance within each weight category and are then aggregated to the SITC level. The values assigned to each weight category are based on trade value figures compiled

by the Bureau of the Census. The trade weights currently used to compute both indexes relate to 1980.

Because a price index depends on the same items being priced from period to period, it is necessary to recognize when a product's specifications or terms of transaction have been modified. For this reason, the Bureau's quarterly questionnaire requests detailed descriptions of the physical and functional characteristics of the products being priced, as well as information on the number of units bought or sold, discounts, credit terms, packaging, class of buyer or seller, and so forth. When there are changes in either the specifications or terms of transaction of a product, the dollar value of each change is deleted from the total price change to obtain the "pure" change. Once this value is determined, a linking procedure is employed which allows for the continued repricing of the item.

For the export price indexes, the preferred pricing basis is f.a.s. (free alongside ship) U.S. port of exportation. When firms report export prices f.o.b. (free on board), production point information is collected which enables the Bureau to calculate a shipment cost to the port of exportation.

An attempt is made to collect two prices for imports. The first is the import price f.o.b. at the foreign port of exportation, which is consistent with the basis for valuation of imports in the national accounts. The second is the import price c.i.f. (cost, insurance, and freight) at the U.S. port of importation, which also includes the other costs associated with bringing the product to the U.S. border. It does not, however, include duty charges.

Additional sources of information

For a discussion of the general method of computing International Price Indexes, see *BLS Handbook of Methods*, Bulletin 2134-1 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1982), chapter 8.

Additional detailed data and analyses of international price developments are presented in the Bureau's quarterly publication *U.S. Import and Export Price Indexes* and in occasional *Monthly Labor Review* articles prepared by BLS analysts. Selected historical data may be found in the *Handbook of Labor Statistics*, Bulletin 2217 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1985).

PRODUCTIVITY DATA

(Tables 2; 42-44)

U. S. productivity and related data

Description of the series

The productivity measures relate real physical output to real input. As such, they encompass a family of measures which include single-factor input measures, such as output per unit of labor input (output per hour) or output per unit of capital input, as well as measures of multifactor productivity (output per unit of labor and capital inputs combined). The Bureau indexes show the change in output relative to changes in the various inputs. The measures cover the business, nonfarm business, manufacturing, and nonfinancial corporate sectors.

Corresponding indexes of hourly compensation, unit labor costs, unit nonlabor payments, and prices are also provided.

Definitions

Output per hour of all persons (labor productivity) is the value of goods and services in constant prices produced per hour of labor input. **Output per unit of capital services** (capital productivity) is the value of goods and services in constant dollars produced per unit of capital services input.

Multifactor productivity is the ratio output per unit of labor and capital inputs combined. Changes in this measure reflect changes in a number of factors which affect the production process such as changes in technology, shifts in the composition of the labor force, changes in capacity utilization, research and development, skill and efforts of the work force, management, and so forth. Changes in the output per hour measures reflect the impact of these factors as well as the substitution of capital for labor.

Compensation per hour is the wages and salaries of employees plus employers' contributions for social insurance and private benefit plans, and the wages, salaries, and supplementary payments for the self-employed (except for nonfinancial corporations in which there are no self-employed)—the sum divided by hours paid for. **Real compensation per hour** is compensation per hour deflated by the change in the Consumer Price Index for All Urban Consumers.

Unit labor costs are the labor compensation costs expended in the production of a unit of output and are derived by dividing compensation by output. **Unit nonlabor payments** include profits, depreciation, interest, and indirect taxes per unit of output. They are computed by subtracting compensation of all persons from current dollar value of output and dividing by output. **Unit nonlabor costs** contain all the components of unit nonlabor payments except unit profits.

Unit profits include corporate profits and the value of inventory adjustments per unit of output.

Hours of all persons are the total hours paid of payroll workers, self-employed persons, and unpaid family workers.

Capital services is the flow of services from the capital stock used in production. It is developed from measures of the net stock of physical assets—equipment, structures, land, and inventories—weighted by rental prices for each type of asset.

Labor and capital inputs combined are derived by combining changes in labor and capital inputs with weights which represent each component's share of total output. The indexes for capital services and combined units of labor and capital are based on changing weights which are averages of the shares in the current and preceding year (the Tornqvist index-number formula).

Notes on the data

Output measures for the business sector and the nonfarm business sector exclude the constant dollar value of owner-occupied housing, rest of world, households and institutions, and general government output from the constant dollar value of gross national product. The measures are derived from data supplied by the Bureau of Economic Analysis, U.S. Department of Commerce, and the Federal Reserve Board. Quarterly manufacturing output indexes are adjusted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics to annual estimates of output (gross product originating) from the Bureau of Economic Analysis. Compensation and hours data are developed from data of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Bureau of Economic Analysis.

The productivity and associated cost measures in tables 42-44 describe the relationship between output in real terms and the labor time and capital services involved in its production. They show the changes from period to period in the amount of goods and services produced per unit of input. Although these measures relate output to hours and capital services, they do not measure the contributions of labor, capital, or any other specific factor of production. Rather, they reflect the joint effect of many influences, including changes in technology; capital investment; level of output; utilization of capacity, energy, and materials; the organization of production; managerial skill; and the characteristics and efforts of the work force.

Additional sources of information

Descriptions of methodology underlying the measurement of output per hour and multifactor productivity are found in the *BLS Handbook of Methods*, Bulletin 2134-1 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1982), chapter 13. Historical data for selected industries are provided in the Bureau's *Handbook of Labor Statistics*, 1985, Bulletin 2217.

INTERNATIONAL COMPARISONS (Tables 45–47)

Labor force and unemployment

Description of the series

Tables 45 and 46 present comparative measures of the labor force, employment, and unemployment—approximating U.S. concepts—for the United States, Canada, Australia, Japan, and six European countries. The unemployment statistics (and, to a lesser extent, employment statistics) published by other industrial countries are not, in most cases, comparable to U.S. unemployment statistics. Therefore, the Bureau adjusts the figures for selected countries, where necessary, for all known major definitional differences. Although precise comparability may not be achieved, these adjusted figures provide a better basis for international comparisons than the figures regularly published by each country.

Definitions

For the principal U.S. definitions of the **labor force**, **employment**, and **unemployment**, see the Notes section on EMPLOYMENT DATA: Household Survey Data.

Notes on the data

The adjusted statistics have been adapted to the age at which compulsory schooling ends in each country, rather than to the U.S. standard of 16 years of age and over. Therefore, the adjusted statistics relate to the population age 16 and over in France, Sweden, and from 1973 onward, the United Kingdom; 16 and over in Canada, Australia, Japan, Germany, the Netherlands, and prior to 1973, the United Kingdom; and 14 and over in Italy. The institutional population is included in the denominator of the labor force participation rates and employment-population ratios for Japan and Germany; it is excluded for the United States and the other countries.

In the U.S. labor force survey, persons on layoff who are awaiting recall to their job are classified as unemployed. European and Japanese layoff practices are quite different in nature from those in the United States; therefore, strict application of the U.S. definition has not been made on this point. For further information, see *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1981, pp. 8–11.

The figures for one or more recent years for France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom are calculated using adjustment factors based on labor force surveys for earlier years and are considered preliminary. The recent-year measures for these countries are, therefore, subject to revision whenever data from more current labor force surveys become available.

Additional sources of information

For further information, see *International Comparisons of Unemployment*, Bulletin 1979 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1978), Appendix B, and unpublished Supplements to Appendix B available on request. The statistics are also analyzed periodically in the *Monthly Labor Review*. Additional historical data, generally beginning with 1959, are published in the *Handbook of Labor Statistics* and are available in unpublished statistical supplements to Bulletin 1979.

Manufacturing productivity and labor costs

Description of the series

Table 47 presents comparative measures of manufacturing labor productivity, hourly compensation costs, and unit labor costs for the United

States, Canada, Japan, and nine European countries. These measures are limited to trend comparisons—that is, intercountry series of changes over time—rather than level comparisons because reliable international comparisons of the levels of manufacturing output are unavailable.

Definitions

Output is constant value output (value added), generally taken from the national accounts of each country. While the national accounting methods for measuring real output differ considerably among the 12 countries, the use of different procedures does not, in itself, connote lack of comparability—rather, it reflects differences among countries in the availability and reliability of underlying data series.

Hours refer to all employed persons including the self-employed in the United States and Canada; to all wage and salary employees in the other countries. The U.S. hours measure is hours paid; the hours measures for the other countries are hours worked.

Compensation (labor cost) includes all payments in cash or kind made directly to employees plus employer expenditures for legally required insurance programs and contractual and private benefit plans. In addition, for some countries, compensation is adjusted for other significant taxes on payrolls or employment (or reduced to reflect subsidies), even if they are not for the direct benefit of workers, because such taxes are regarded as labor costs. However, compensation does not include all items of labor cost. The costs of recruitment, employee training, and plant facilities and services—such as cafeterias and medical clinics—are not covered because data are not available for most countries. Self-employed workers are included in the U.S. and Canadian compensation figures by assuming that their hourly compensation is equal to the average for wage and salary employees.

Notes on the data

For most of the countries, the measures refer to total manufacturing as defined by the International Standard Industrial Classification. However, the measures for France (beginning 1959), Italy (beginning 1970), and the United Kingdom (beginning 1971) refer to manufacturing and mining less energy-related products, and the figures for the Netherlands exclude petroleum refining from 1969 to 1976. For all countries, manufacturing includes the activities of government enterprises.

The figures for one or more recent years are generally based on current indicators of manufacturing output, employment, hours, and hourly compensation and are considered preliminary until the national accounts and other statistics used for the long-term measures become available.

Additional sources of information

For additional information, see the *BLS Handbook of Methods*, Bulletin 2134-1 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1982), chapter 16, and periodic *Monthly Labor Review* articles. Historical data are provided in the Bureau's *Handbook of Labor Statistics*, Bulletin 2217, 1985. The statistics are issued twice per year—in a news release (generally in May) and in a *Monthly Labor Review* article (generally in December).

OCCUPATIONAL INJURY AND ILLNESS DATA

(Table 48)

Description of the series

The Annual Survey of Occupational Injuries and Illnesses is designed to collect data on injuries and illnesses based on records which employers in the following industries maintain under the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970: agriculture, forestry, and fishing; oil and gas extraction; construction; manufacturing; transportation and public utilities; wholesale and retail trade; finance, insurance, and real estate; and services. Excluded from the survey are self-employed individuals, farmers with fewer than 11 employees, employers regulated by other Federal safety and health laws, and Federal, State, and local government agencies.

Because the survey is a Federal-State cooperative program and the data must meet the needs of participating State agencies, an independent sample is selected for each State. The sample is selected to represent all private industries in the States and territories. The sample size for the survey is dependent upon (1) the characteristics for which estimates are needed; (2) the industries for which estimates are desired; (3) the characteristics of the population being sampled; (4) the target reliability of the estimates; and (5) the survey design employed.

While there are many characteristics upon which the sample design could be based, the total recorded case incidence rate is used because it is one of the most important characteristics and the least variable; therefore, it requires the smallest sample size.

The survey is based on stratified random sampling with a Neyman allocation and a ratio estimator. The characteristics used to stratify the establishments are the Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) code and size of employment.

Definitions

Recordable occupational injuries and illnesses are: (1) occupational deaths, regardless of the time between injury and death, or the length of the illness; or (2) nonfatal occupational illnesses; or (3) nonfatal occupational injuries which involve one or more of the following: loss of consciousness, restriction of work or motion, transfer to another job, or medical treatment (other than first aid).

Occupational injury is any injury such as a cut, fracture, sprain, amputation, and so forth, which results from a work accident or from exposure involving a single incident in the work environment.

Occupational illness is an abnormal condition or disorder, other than one resulting from an occupational injury, caused by exposure to environmental factors associated with employment. It includes acute and chronic illnesses or disease which may be caused by inhalation, absorption, ingestion, or direct contact.

Lost workday cases are cases which involve days away from work, or days of restricted work activity, or both.

Lost workday cases involving restricted work activity are those cases which result in restricted work activity only.

Lost workdays away from work are the number of workdays (consecutive or not) on which the employee would have worked but could not because of occupational injury or illness.

Lost workdays—restricted work activity are the number of workdays (consecutive or not) on which, because of injury or illness: (1) the employee was assigned to another job on a temporary basis; or (2) the em-

ployee worked at a permanent job less than full time; or (3) the employee worked at a permanently assigned job but could not perform all duties normally connected with it.

The number of days away from work or days of restricted work activity does not include the day of injury or onset of illness or any days on which the employee would not have worked even though able to work.

Incidence rates represent the number of injuries and/or illnesses or lost workdays per 100 full-time workers.

Notes on the data

Estimates are made for industries and employment-size classes and for severity classification: fatalities, lost workday cases, and nonfatal cases without lost workdays. Lost workday cases are separated into those where the employee would have worked but could not and those in which work activity was restricted. Estimates of the number of cases and the number of days lost are made for both categories.

Most of the estimates are in the form of incidence rates, defined as the number of injuries and illnesses, or lost workdays, per 100 full-time employees. For this purpose, 200,000 employee hours represent 100 employee years (2,000 hours per employee). Only a few of the available measures are included in the *Handbook of Labor Statistics*. Full detail is presented in the annual bulletin, *Occupational Injuries and Illnesses in the United States, by Industry*.

Comparable data for individual States are available from the BLS Office of Occupational Safety and Health Statistics.

Mining and railroad data are furnished to BLS by the Mine Safety and Health Administration and the Federal Railroad Administration, respectively. Data from these organizations are included in BLS and State publications. Federal employee experience is compiled and published by the Occupational Safety and Health Administration. Data on State and local government employees are collected by about half of the States and territories; these data are not compiled nationally.

Additional sources of information

The Supplementary Data System provides detailed information describing various factors associated with work-related injuries and illnesses. These data are obtained from information reported by employers to State workers' compensation agencies. The Work Injury Report program examines selected types of accidents through an employee survey which focuses on the circumstances surrounding the injury. These data are not included in the *Handbook of Labor Statistics* but are available from the BLS Office of Occupational Safety and Health Statistics.

The definitions of occupational injuries and illnesses and lost workdays are from *Recordkeeping Requirements under the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970*. For additional data, see *Occupational Injuries and Illnesses in the United States, by Industry*, annual Bureau of Labor Statistics bulletin; *BLS Handbook of Methods*, Bulletin 2134-1 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1982), chapter 17; *Handbook of Labor Statistics*, Bulletin 2217 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1985), pp. 411-14; annual reports in the *Monthly Labor Review*; and annual U.S. Department of Labor press releases.

1. Labor market indicators

Selected indicators	1985	1986	1985	1986				1987		
			IV	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III
Employment data										
Employment status of the civilian noninstitutionalized population (household survey) ¹										
Labor force participation rate	64.8	65.3	64.9	65.0	65.2	65.4	65.4	65.5	65.5	65.6
Employment-population ratio	60.1	60.7	60.3	60.5	60.6	60.8	60.9	61.1	61.4	61.7
Unemployment rate	7.2	7.0	7.1	7.0	7.2	7.0	6.8	6.6	6.3	6.0
Men	7.0	6.9	6.9	6.8	7.0	7.0	6.9	6.6	6.3	5.9
16 to 24 years	14.1	13.7	14.2	13.4	14.1	13.9	13.4	13.3	12.9	12.2
25 years and over	5.3	5.4	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.4	5.4	5.1	4.9	4.6
Women	7.4	7.1	7.2	7.2	7.3	7.0	6.8	6.6	6.2	6.1
16 to 24 years	13.0	12.8	13.1	13.1	13.1	12.7	12.5	12.5	11.8	11.4
25 years and over	5.9	5.5	5.6	5.6	5.7	5.4	5.3	5.0	4.7	4.7
Unemployment rate, 15 weeks and over	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.6
Employment, nonagricultural (payroll data), in thousands: ¹										
Total	97,519	99,610	98,444	98,901	99,321	99,804	100,397	101,133	101,708	102,278
Private sector	81,125	82,900	81,905	82,299	82,670	83,119	83,498	84,183	84,675	85,240
Goods-producing	24,859	24,681	24,788	24,767	24,702	24,629	24,624	24,733	24,757	24,884
Manufacturing	19,260	18,994	19,133	19,086	19,003	18,939	18,953	18,979	19,015	19,134
Service-producing	72,660	74,930	73,656	74,134	74,619	75,175	75,773	76,399	76,951	77,394
Average hours:										
Private sector	34.9	34.8	34.9	34.9	34.8	34.7	34.7	34.8	34.8	34.8
Manufacturing	40.5	40.7	40.8	40.7	40.7	40.7	40.8	41.0	40.9	40.9
Overtime	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.7
Employment Cost Index										
Percent change in the ECI, compensation:										
All workers (excluding farm, household, and Federal workers)	4.3	3.6	.6	1.1	.7	1.1	.6	.9	.7	1.2
Private industry workers	3.9	3.2	.6	1.1	.8	.7	.6	1.0	.7	1.0
Goods-producing ²	3.4	3.1	.6	1.1	.9	.6	.5	.5	.7	.8
Service-producing ²	4.4	3.2	.5	1.1	.6	.8	.6	1.3	.7	1.0
State and local government workers	5.7	5.2	.7	1.0	.6	2.8	.8	.8	.3	2.3
Workers by bargaining status (private industry):										
Union	2.6	2.1	.5	1.0	.2	.5	.3	.5	.5	.6
Nonunion	4.6	3.6	.6	1.2	.9	.8	.7	1.1	.7	1.1

¹ Quarterly data seasonally adjusted.

² Goods-producing industries include mining, construction, and manufacturing. Service-

producing industries include all other private sector industries.

2. Annual and quarterly percent changes in compensation, prices, and productivity

Selected measures	1985	1986	1985	1986				1987			
			IV	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	
Compensation data ^{1, 2}											
Employment Cost Index--compensation (wages, salaries, benefits):											
Civilian nonfarm	4.3	3.6	0.6	1.1	0.7	1.1	0.6	0.9	0.7	1.2	
Private nonfarm	3.9	3.2	.6	1.1	.8	.7	.6	1.0	.7	1.0	
Employment Cost Index--wages and salaries											
Civilian nonfarm	4.4	3.5	.6	1.0	.8	1.1	.6	1.0	.5	1.3	
Private nonfarm	4.1	3.1	.6	1.0	.9	.7	.5	1.0	.7	1.0	
Price data ¹											
Consumer Price Index (All urban consumers): All items	3.8	1.1	.9	-.4	.6	.7	.3	1.4	1.3	1.3	
Producer Price Index:											
Finished goods	1.8	-2.3	2.5	-3.1	.5	-.7	1.1	.8	1.2	.2	
Finished consumer goods	1.5	-3.6	2.5	-4.1	.4	-.7	.8	.9	1.5	.3	
Capital equipment	2.7	2.1	2.5	.2	.6	-.7	2.0	.1	.3	-.1	
Intermediate materials, supplies, components	-.3	-4.4	.4	-2.9	-.9	-.2	-.4	1.4	1.9	1.2	
Crude materials	-5.6	-9.0	4.3	-7.6	-1.5	-.5	.6	4.2	5.2	.6	
Productivity data ³											
Output per hour of all persons:											
Business sector	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.8	2.3	1.3	1.5	.2	.4	1.4	
Nonfarm business sector	1.2	1.6	1.0	2.3	1.9	1.1	1.5	-.1	.3	1.3	
Nonfinancial corporations ⁴	2.1	1.6	2.3	2.6	1.8	.7	1.5	.0	.2	.6	

¹ Annual changes are December-to-December change. Quarterly changes are calculated using the last month of each quarter. Compensation and price data are not seasonally adjusted and the price data are not compounded.

² Excludes Federal and private household workers.

³ Annual rates of change are computed by comparing annual averages.

Quarterly percent changes reflect annual rates of change in quarterly indexes. The data are seasonally adjusted.

⁴ Output per hour of all employees.

3. Alternative measures of wage and compensation changes

Components	Quarterly average						Four quarters ended--					
	1986			1987			1986			1987		
	II	III	IV	I	II	III	II	III	IV	I	II	III
Average hourly compensation: ¹												
All persons, business sector	4.4	3.7	3.3	2.8	2.8	3.1	3.5	3.0	3.6	1.4	3.3	4.0
All employees, nonfarm business sector	4.1	3.6	3.4	2.7	2.7	3.0	2.9	2.8	4.0	1.1	3.0	3.8
Employment Cost Index--compensation:												
Civilian nonfarm ²7	1.1	.6	.9	.7	1.2	4.0	3.6	3.6	3.4	3.3	3.4
Private nonfarm8	.7	.6	1.0	.7	1.0	3.8	3.2	3.2	3.1	3.0	3.3
Union2	.5	.3	.5	.5	.6	2.5	2.3	2.1	1.6	1.9	2.0
Nonunion9	.8	.7	1.1	.7	1.1	4.2	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.4	3.7
State and local governments6	2.8	.8	.8	.3	2.3	5.8	5.2	5.2	5.0	4.7	4.2
Employment Cost Index--wages and salaries:												
Civilian nonfarm ²8	1.1	.6	1.0	.5	1.3	4.1	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.2	3.4
Private nonfarm9	.7	.5	1.0	.7	1.0	3.7	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.0	3.3
Union4	.6	.2	.4	.5	.6	2.5	2.3	2.0	1.7	1.7	1.7
Nonunion9	.7	.7	1.2	.8	1.1	4.1	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.3	3.8
State and local governments4	3.2	.7	.8	.2	2.3	5.7	5.4	5.4	5.2	5.0	4.1
Total effective wage adjustments ³	.7	.5	.5	.4	1.0	.9	2.9	2.3	2.3	2.0	2.2	2.6
From current settlements2	.1	.2	(⁴)	.1	.2	.5	.5	.5	.4	.3	.5
From prior settlements6	.5	.2	.3	.7	.6	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.7
From cost-of-living provision	(⁴)	(⁴)	.1	.1	.2	.1	.7	.2	.2	.1	.3	.4
Negotiated wage adjustments from settlements: ³												
First-year adjustments	1.3	.8	2.0	1.2	2.6	2.1	1.6	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.5	2.1
Annual rate over life of contract	2.0	1.5	2.1	1.8	2.9	2.0	2.2	1.7	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.2
Negotiated wage and benefit adjustments from settlements: ³												
First-year adjustment7	.7	2.7	1.7	4.1	2.5	1.4	.9	1.1	1.2	1.9	2.8
Annual rate over life of contract	1.6	1.2	2.4	2.4	3.9	2.1	2.0	1.4	1.6	1.7	2.1	2.6

¹ Seasonally adjusted.

² Excludes Federal and household workers.

³ Limited to major collective bargaining units of 1,000 workers or more. The most recent data are preliminary.

⁴ Data round to zero.

⁵ Limited to major collective bargaining units of 5,000 workers or more. The most recent data are preliminary.

4. Employment status of the total population, by sex, monthly data seasonally adjusted

(Numbers in thousands)

Employment status	Annual average		1986	1987											
	1986	1987	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
TOTAL															
Noninstitutional population ^{1, 2}	182,293	184,490	183,297	183,575	183,738	183,915	184,079	184,259	184,421	184,605	184,738	184,904	185,052	185,225	185,370
Labor force ²	119,540	121,602	120,326	120,726	120,970	120,982	121,098	121,633	121,326	121,610	122,042	121,706	122,128	122,349	122,472
Participation rate ³	65.6	65.9	65.6	65.8	65.8	65.8	65.8	66.0	65.8	65.9	66.1	65.8	66.0	66.1	66.1
Total employed ²	111,303	114,177	112,407	112,762	113,084	113,191	113,541	114,060	114,018	114,359	114,786	114,615	114,951	115,259	115,494
Employment-population ratio ⁴	61.1	61.9	61.3	61.4	61.5	61.5	61.7	61.9	61.8	61.9	62.1	62.0	62.1	62.2	62.3
Resident Armed Forces ¹	1,706	1,737	1,750	1,748	1,740	1,736	1,735	1,726	1,718	1,720	1,736	1,743	1,741	1,755	1,750
Civilian employed	109,597	112,440	110,657	111,014	111,344	111,455	111,806	112,334	112,300	112,639	113,050	112,872	113,210	113,504	113,744
Agriculture	3,163	3,208	3,153	3,174	3,225	3,237	3,250	3,269	3,192	3,212	3,143	3,184	3,249	3,172	3,215
Nonagricultural industries	106,434	109,232	107,504	107,840	108,119	108,218	108,556	109,065	109,108	109,427	109,907	109,688	109,961	110,332	110,529
Unemployed	8,237	7,425	7,919	7,964	7,886	7,791	7,557	7,573	7,308	7,251	7,256	7,091	7,177	7,090	6,978
Unemployment rate ⁵	6.9	6.1	6.6	6.6	6.5	6.4	6.2	6.2	6.0	6.0	5.9	5.8	5.9	5.8	5.7
Not in labor force	62,752	62,888	62,971	62,849	62,768	62,933	62,981	62,626	63,095	62,995	62,696	63,198	62,924	62,876	62,898
Men, 16 years and over															
Noninstitutional population ^{1, 2}	87,349	88,476	87,868	88,020	88,099	88,186	88,271	88,361	88,442	88,534	88,598	88,683	88,756	88,849	88,924
Labor force ²	66,973	67,784	67,409	67,602	67,655	67,590	67,604	67,802	67,623	67,671	67,937	67,776	67,947	68,019	68,030
Participation rate ³	76.7	76.6	76.7	76.8	76.8	76.6	76.6	76.7	76.5	76.4	76.7	76.4	76.6	76.6	76.5
Total employed ²	62,443	63,684	62,960	63,153	63,281	63,263	63,390	63,543	63,543	63,711	63,916	63,949	64,048	64,174	64,245
Employment-population ratio ⁴	71.5	72.0	71.7	71.7	71.8	71.7	71.8	71.9	71.8	72.0	72.1	72.1	72.2	72.2	72.2
Resident Armed Forces ¹	1,551	1,577	1,593	1,591	1,584	1,575	1,575	1,566	1,559	1,561	1,575	1,581	1,580	1,593	1,589
Civilian employed	60,892	62,107	61,367	61,562	61,697	61,688	61,815	61,977	61,984	62,150	62,341	62,368	62,468	62,581	62,656
Unemployed	4,530	4,101	4,449	4,449	4,374	4,327	4,214	4,259	4,080	3,960	4,021	3,827	3,899	3,845	3,785
Unemployment rate ⁵	6.8	6.1	6.6	6.6	6.5	6.4	6.2	6.3	6.0	5.9	5.9	5.6	5.7	5.7	5.6
Women, 16 years and over															
Noninstitutional population ^{1, 2}	94,944	96,013	95,429	95,556	95,639	95,729	95,808	95,898	95,979	96,071	96,140	96,221	96,295	96,376	96,446
Labor force ²	52,568	53,818	52,917	53,124	53,315	53,392	53,494	53,831	53,703	53,939	54,105	53,930	54,181	54,330	54,442
Participation rate ³	55.4	56.1	55.5	55.6	55.7	55.8	55.8	56.1	56.0	56.1	56.3	56.0	56.3	56.4	56.4
Total employed ²	48,861	50,494	49,447	49,609	49,803	49,928	50,151	50,517	50,475	50,648	50,870	50,666	50,903	51,085	51,249
Employment-population ratio ⁴	51.5	52.6	51.8	51.9	52.1	52.2	52.3	52.7	52.6	52.7	52.9	52.7	52.9	53.0	53.1
Resident Armed Forces ¹	155	160	157	157	156	161	160	160	159	159	161	162	161	162	161
Civilian employed	48,706	50,334	49,290	49,452	49,647	49,767	49,991	50,357	50,316	50,489	50,709	50,504	50,742	50,923	51,088
Unemployed	3,707	3,324	3,470	3,515	3,512	3,464	3,343	3,314	3,228	3,291	3,235	3,264	3,278	3,245	3,193
Unemployment rate ⁵	7.1	6.2	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.5	6.2	6.2	6.0	6.1	6.0	6.1	6.1	6.0	5.9

¹ The population and Armed Forces figures are not adjusted for seasonal variation.

² Includes members of the Armed Forces stationed in the United States.

³ Labor force as a percent of the noninstitutional population.

⁴ Total employed as a percent of the noninstitutional population.

⁵ Unemployment as a percent of the labor force (including the resident Armed Forces).

5. Employment status of the civilian population, by sex, age, race and Hispanic origin, monthly data seasonally adjusted

(Numbers in thousands)

Employment status	Annual average		1986	1987											
	1986	1987	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
TOTAL															
Civilian noninstitutional population ¹	180,587	182,753	181,547	181,827	181,998	182,179	182,344	182,533	182,703	182,885	183,002	183,161	183,311	183,470	183,620
Civilian labor force	117,834	119,865	118,576	118,978	119,230	119,246	119,363	119,907	119,608	119,890	120,306	119,963	120,387	120,594	120,722
Participation rate	65.3	65.6	65.3	65.4	65.5	65.5	65.5	65.7	65.5	65.6	65.7	65.5	65.7	65.7	65.7
Employed	109,597	112,440	110,657	111,014	111,344	111,455	111,806	112,334	112,300	112,639	113,050	112,872	113,210	113,504	113,744
Employment-population ratio ²	60.7	61.5	61.0	61.1	61.2	61.2	61.3	61.5	61.5	61.6	61.8	61.6	61.8	61.9	61.9
Unemployed	8,237	7,425	7,919	7,964	7,886	7,791	7,557	7,573	7,308	7,251	7,256	7,091	7,177	7,090	6,978
Unemployment rate	7.0	6.2	6.7	6.7	6.6	6.5	6.3	6.3	6.1	6.0	6.0	5.9	6.0	5.9	5.8
Not in labor force	62,752	62,888	62,971	62,849	62,768	62,933	62,981	62,626	63,095	62,995	62,696	63,198	62,924	62,876	62,898
Men, 20 years and over															
Civilian noninstitutional population ¹	78,523	79,565	78,973	79,132	79,216	79,303	79,387	79,474	79,536	79,625	79,668	79,740	79,807	79,885	80,002
Civilian labor force	61,320	62,095	61,848	61,911	61,930	61,933	61,970	62,129	62,054	62,106	62,083	62,085	62,211	62,299	62,248
Participation rate	78.1	78.0	78.3	78.2	78.2	78.1	78.1	78.2	78.0	78.0	77.9	77.9	78.0	78.0	77.8
Employed	57,569	58,726	58,120	58,220	58,324	58,380	58,516	58,673	58,632	58,783	58,825	58,967	59,037	59,164	59,185
Employment-population ratio ²	73.3	73.8	73.6	73.6	73.6	73.6	73.7	73.8	73.7	73.8	73.8	73.9	74.0	74.1	74.0
Agriculture	2,292	2,329	2,304	2,287	2,317	2,361	2,378	2,383	2,316	2,333	2,289	2,345	2,343	2,297	2,298
Nonagricultural industries	55,277	56,397	55,816	55,933	56,007	56,019	56,138	56,290	56,316	56,450	56,536	56,622	56,694	56,867	56,887
Unemployed	3,751	3,369	3,728	3,691	3,606	3,553	3,454	3,456	3,422	3,323	3,258	3,118	3,174	3,135	3,063
Unemployment rate	6.1	5.4	6.0	6.0	5.8	5.7	5.6	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.2	5.0	5.1	5.0	4.9
Women, 20 years and over															
Civilian noninstitutional population ¹	87,567	88,583	88,016	88,150	88,237	88,321	88,395	88,464	88,546	88,632	88,685	88,785	88,843	88,923	89,010
Civilian labor force	48,589	49,783	48,947	49,167	49,343	49,414	49,494	49,728	49,722	49,886	49,969	49,922	50,095	50,254	50,361
Participation rate	55.5	56.2	55.6	55.8	55.9	55.9	56.0	56.2	56.2	56.3	56.3	56.2	56.4	56.5	56.6
Employed	45,556	47,074	46,121	46,290	46,485	46,582	46,761	47,028	47,088	47,206	47,308	47,251	47,480	47,634	47,750
Employment-population ratio ²	52.0	53.1	52.4	52.5	52.7	52.7	52.9	53.2	53.2	53.3	53.3	53.2	53.4	53.6	53.6
Agriculture	614	622	609	625	634	602	603	629	619	620	609	600	636	636	643
Nonagricultural industries	44,943	46,453	45,512	45,665	45,851	45,980	46,158	46,399	46,469	46,586	46,699	46,651	46,844	46,998	47,107
Unemployed	3,032	2,709	2,826	2,877	2,858	2,832	2,733	2,700	2,634	2,680	2,661	2,671	2,615	2,620	2,611
Unemployment rate	6.2	5.4	5.8	5.9	5.8	5.7	5.5	5.4	5.3	5.4	5.3	5.4	5.2	5.2	5.2
Both sexes, 16 to 19 years															
Civilian noninstitutional population ¹	14,496	14,606	14,558	14,545	14,546	14,555	14,562	14,595	14,621	14,628	14,649	14,637	14,661	14,663	14,609
Civilian labor force	7,926	7,988	7,781	7,900	7,957	7,899	7,899	8,050	7,832	7,898	8,254	7,956	8,081	8,041	8,113
Participation rate	54.7	54.7	53.4	54.3	54.7	54.3	54.2	55.2	53.6	54.0	56.3	54.4	55.1	54.8	55.5
Employed	6,472	6,640	6,416	6,504	6,535	6,493	6,529	6,633	6,580	6,650	6,917	6,654	6,693	6,706	6,809
Employment-population ratio ²	44.6	45.5	44.1	44.7	44.9	44.6	44.8	45.4	45.0	45.5	47.2	45.5	45.7	45.7	46.6
Agriculture	258	258	240	262	274	274	269	257	257	259	245	239	270	239	274
Nonagricultural industries	6,215	6,382	6,176	6,242	6,261	6,219	6,260	6,376	6,323	6,391	6,672	6,415	6,423	6,467	6,535
Unemployed	1,454	1,347	1,365	1,396	1,422	1,406	1,370	1,417	1,252	1,248	1,337	1,302	1,388	1,335	1,304
Unemployment rate	18.3	16.9	17.5	17.7	17.9	17.8	17.3	17.6	16.0	15.8	16.2	16.4	17.2	16.6	16.1
White															
Civilian noninstitutional population ¹	155,432	156,958	156,111	156,313	156,431	156,561	156,676	156,811	156,930	157,058	157,134	157,242	157,342	157,449	157,552
Civilian labor force	101,801	103,290	102,474	102,669	102,825	102,836	102,972	103,416	103,150	103,248	103,516	103,357	103,669	103,731	103,907
Participation rate	65.5	65.8	65.6	65.7	65.7	65.7	65.7	65.9	65.7	65.7	65.9	65.7	65.9	65.9	66.0
Employed	95,660	97,789	96,544	96,749	97,001	97,074	97,338	97,829	97,698	97,917	98,181	98,069	98,317	98,492	98,779
Employment-population ratio ²	61.5	62.3	61.8	61.9	62.0	62.0	62.1	62.4	62.3	62.3	62.5	62.4	62.5	62.6	62.7
Unemployed	6,140	5,501	5,930	5,920	5,824	5,762	5,634	5,587	5,452	5,331	5,335	5,288	5,352	5,239	5,128
Unemployment rate	6.0	5.3	5.8	5.8	5.7	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.3	5.2	5.2	5.1	5.2	5.1	4.9
Black															
Civilian noninstitutional population ¹	19,989	20,352	20,152	20,187	20,218	20,249	20,279	20,312	20,341	20,373	20,396	20,426	20,453	20,482	20,508
Civilian labor force	12,654	12,993	12,706	12,807	12,894	12,853	12,778	12,889	12,892	13,039	13,150	13,028	13,152	13,193	13,215
Participation rate	63.3	63.8	63.1	63.4	63.8	63.5	63.0	63.5	63.4	64.0	64.5	63.8	64.3	64.4	64.4
Employed	10,814	11,309	10,968	10,995	11,086	11,072	11,114	11,129	11,238	11,381	11,513	11,421	11,556	11,589	11,605
Employment-population ratio ²	54.1	55.6	54.4	54.5	54.8	54.7	54.8	54.8	55.2	55.9	56.4	55.9	56.5	56.6	56.6
Unemployed	1,840	1,684	1,738	1,812	1,808	1,781	1,664	1,760	1,654	1,658	1,637	1,607	1,596	1,604	1,610
Unemployment rate	14.5	13.0	13.7	14.1	14.0	13.9	13.0	13.7	12.8	12.7	12.4	12.3	12.1	12.2	12.2

See footnotes at end of table.

5. Continued— Employment status of the civilian population, by sex, age, race and Hispanic origin, monthly data seasonally adjusted

(Numbers in thousands)

Employment status	Annual average		1986	1987											
	1986	1987	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Hispanic origin															
Civilian noninstitutional population ¹	12,344	12,867	12,540	12,653	12,692	12,732	12,770	12,809	12,848	12,887	12,925	12,965	13,003	13,043	13,082
Civilian labor force	8,076	8,541	8,328	8,387	8,423	8,395	8,468	8,549	8,468	8,447	8,549	8,581	8,654	8,763	8,772
Participation rate	65.4	66.4	66.4	66.3	66.4	65.9	66.3	66.7	65.9	65.5	66.1	66.2	66.6	67.2	67.1
Employed	7,219	7,790	7,460	7,533	7,614	7,632	7,686	7,797	7,738	7,762	7,856	7,877	7,935	7,978	8,058
Employment-population ratio ²	58.5	60.5	59.5	59.5	60.0	59.9	60.2	60.9	60.2	60.2	60.8	60.8	61.0	61.2	61.6
Unemployed	857	751	868	854	809	763	782	752	730	685	693	704	719	785	714
Unemployment rate	10.6	8.8	10.4	10.2	9.6	9.1	9.2	8.8	8.6	8.1	8.1	8.2	8.3	9.0	8.1

¹ The population figures are not seasonally adjusted.

² Civilian employment as a percent of the civilian noninstitutional population.

because data for the "other races" groups are not presented and Hispanics are included in both the white and black population groups.

NOTE: Detail for the above race and Hispanic-origin groups will not sum to totals

6. Selected employment indicators, monthly data seasonally adjusted

(In thousands)

Selected categories	Annual average		1986	1987											
	1986	1987	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
CHARACTERISTIC															
Civilian employed, 16 years and over	109,597	112,440	110,657	111,014	111,344	111,455	111,806	112,334	112,300	112,639	113,050	112,872	113,210	113,504	113,744
Men	60,892	62,107	61,367	61,562	61,697	61,688	61,815	61,977	61,984	62,150	62,341	62,368	62,468	62,581	62,656
Women	48,706	50,334	49,290	49,452	49,647	49,767	49,991	50,357	50,316	50,489	50,709	50,504	50,742	50,923	51,088
Married men, spouse present ..	39,658	40,265	40,082	40,047	39,958	40,054	40,021	40,075	40,120	40,262	40,308	40,404	40,556	40,645	40,711
Married women, spouse present	27,144	28,107	27,517	27,713	27,837	27,966	28,130	28,314	28,282	28,283	28,189	28,069	28,099	28,175	28,249
Women who maintain families ..	5,837	6,060	5,958	5,958	5,925	5,946	5,971	5,963	6,011	6,033	6,107	6,151	6,178	6,237	6,227
MAJOR INDUSTRY AND CLASS OF WORKER															
Agriculture:															
Wage and salary workers	1,547	1,632	1,626	1,635	1,640	1,689	1,599	1,672	1,622	1,625	1,591	1,624	1,705	1,595	1,599
Self-employed workers	1,447	1,423	1,387	1,392	1,440	1,416	1,488	1,429	1,403	1,424	1,393	1,415	1,430	1,407	1,450
Unpaid family workers	169	153	149	143	132	152	170	165	162	153	155	139	140	155	156
Nonagricultural industries:															
Wage and salary workers	98,299	100,771	99,197	99,557	99,772	99,863	100,106	100,634	100,510	100,825	101,241	101,282	101,522	101,943	101,997
Government	16,342	16,800	16,458	16,492	16,553	16,594	16,518	16,708	16,920	16,876	16,794	16,928	17,033	17,118	17,064
Private industries	81,957	83,970	82,739	83,065	83,219	83,269	83,588	83,926	83,590	83,949	84,447	84,354	84,489	84,825	84,933
Private households	1,235	1,208	1,225	1,245	1,213	1,227	1,234	1,240	1,163	1,212	1,175	1,100	1,222	1,286	1,200
Other	80,722	82,762	81,514	81,820	82,006	82,042	82,354	82,686	82,427	82,737	83,272	83,254	83,267	83,539	83,733
Self-employed workers	7,881	8,201	8,057	8,136	8,166	8,082	8,139	8,157	8,293	8,216	8,214	8,204	8,274	8,222	8,280
Unpaid family workers	255	260	241	245	254	270	268	276	274	266	248	297	242	235	248
PERSONS AT WORK PART TIME¹															
All industries:															
Part time for economic reasons ..	5,588	5,401	5,592	5,508	5,766	5,459	5,394	5,333	5,254	5,428	5,283	5,261	5,353	5,534	5,262
Slack work	2,456	2,385	2,459	2,467	2,501	2,438	2,345	2,292	2,345	2,429	2,468	2,213	2,377	2,408	2,284
Could only find part-time work ..	2,800	2,672	2,895	2,721	2,773	2,707	2,725	2,677	2,623	2,683	2,526	2,683	2,655	2,696	2,638
Voluntary part time	13,935	14,395	13,860	14,147	14,110	14,201	13,940	14,498	14,836	14,437	14,573	14,415	14,488	14,523	14,711
Nonagricultural industries:															
Part time for economic reasons ..	5,345	5,122	5,324	5,211	5,458	5,180	5,104	5,058	4,979	5,154	5,016	4,986	5,067	5,241	5,004
Slack work	2,305	2,201	2,291	2,279	2,315	2,234	2,163	2,126	2,176	2,265	2,034	2,196	2,209	2,111	
Could only find part-time work ..	2,719	2,587	2,791	2,631	2,682	2,612	2,648	2,603	2,530	2,463	2,603	2,557	2,597	2,552	
Voluntary part time	13,502	13,928	13,459	13,706	13,635	13,717	13,544	13,995	14,334	13,953	14,099	13,987	14,011	14,064	14,222

¹ Excludes persons "with a job but not at work" during the survey period for such reasons as vacation, illness, or industrial disputes.

7. Selected unemployment indicators, monthly data seasonally adjusted

(Unemployment rates)

Selected categories	Annual average		1987												
	1986	1987	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
CHARACTERISTIC															
Total, all civilian workers	7.0	6.2	6.7	6.7	6.6	6.5	6.3	6.3	6.1	6.0	6.0	5.9	6.0	5.9	5.8
Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	18.3	16.9	17.5	17.7	17.9	17.8	17.3	17.6	16.0	15.8	16.2	16.4	17.2	16.6	16.1
Men, 20 years and over	6.1	5.4	6.0	6.0	5.8	5.7	5.6	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.2	5.0	5.1	5.0	4.9
Women, 20 years and over	6.2	5.4	5.8	5.9	5.8	5.7	5.5	5.4	5.3	5.4	5.3	5.4	5.2	5.2	5.2
White, total	6.0	5.3	5.8	5.8	5.7	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.3	5.2	5.2	5.1	5.2	5.1	4.9
Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	15.6	14.4	15.2	15.1	15.1	15.3	14.8	15.2	13.9	13.3	14.1	14.3	14.5	14.1	13.6
Men, 16 to 19 years	16.3	15.5	15.8	16.1	16.0	16.8	16.3	17.0	14.8	13.5	15.2	15.1	15.1	14.8	14.9
Women, 16 to 19 years	14.9	13.4	14.5	14.0	14.1	13.7	13.3	13.3	13.0	13.1	12.9	13.4	13.8	13.3	12.3
Men, 20 years and over	5.3	4.8	5.3	5.2	5.1	5.0	4.9	4.8	4.9	4.7	4.6	4.4	4.6	4.4	4.3
Women, 20 years and over	5.4	4.6	4.9	5.0	4.8	4.7	4.6	4.5	4.4	4.5	4.4	4.5	4.3	4.4	4.4
Black, total	14.5	13.0	13.7	14.1	14.0	13.9	13.0	13.7	12.8	12.7	12.4	12.3	12.1	12.2	12.2
Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	39.3	34.7	36.6	39.2	38.0	37.0	37.1	37.5	33.4	32.7	30.6	30.8	33.8	33.9	33.4
Men, 16 to 19 years	39.3	34.4	36.2	36.5	37.9	36.1	37.8	38.3	31.4	32.4	33.7	31.5	32.5	32.2	33.5
Women, 16 to 19 years	39.2	34.9	37.1	42.3	38.0	38.0	36.3	36.6	35.4	33.1	27.1	30.0	35.2	35.8	33.4
Men, 20 years and over	12.9	11.1	11.8	12.1	11.9	11.6	11.0	12.3	11.4	11.2	10.7	10.1	9.8	10.2	10.1
Women, 20 years and over	12.4	11.6	12.3	12.6	12.6	12.7	11.6	11.6	11.3	11.4	11.3	11.7	11.0	10.8	10.9
Hispanic origin, total	10.6	8.8	10.4	10.2	9.6	9.1	9.2	8.8	8.6	8.1	8.1	8.2	8.3	9.0	8.1
Married men, spouse present	4.4	3.9	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.1	4.0	4.0	3.8	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.5	3.4
Married women, spouse present	5.2	4.3	4.7	4.7	4.8	4.5	4.4	4.2	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.3
Women who maintain families	9.8	9.2	10.0	9.8	9.6	9.7	9.4	9.5	9.5	9.3	9.0	8.8	8.9	8.5	8.4
Full-time workers	6.6	5.8	6.4	6.3	6.2	6.1	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.7	5.6	5.5	5.6	5.5	5.4
Part-time workers	9.1	8.4	8.8	8.9	8.8	9.1	8.6	8.7	7.3	8.1	8.2	8.4	8.3	8.2	8.0
Unemployed 15 weeks and over	1.9	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.5
Labor force time lost ¹	7.9	7.1	7.6	7.6	7.5	7.4	7.3	7.2	7.1	6.9	6.9	6.8	6.8	6.8	6.6
INDUSTRY															
Nonagricultural private wage and salary workers	7.0	6.2	6.7	6.7	6.6	6.5	6.3	6.3	6.1	6.1	6.0	5.9	5.9	5.8	5.7
Mining	13.5	10.0	13.9	14.1	13.0	9.5	11.2	13.0	9.5	7.9	8.6	7.4	8.3	7.0	8.0
Construction	13.1	11.6	13.5	12.5	11.7	12.4	12.0	12.1	11.7	10.8	11.3	11.9	11.2	10.6	10.6
Manufacturing	7.1	6.0	6.9	6.8	6.8	6.7	6.3	6.3	5.7	6.0	5.6	5.6	5.7	5.3	5.1
Durable goods	6.9	5.8	6.5	6.8	6.7	6.6	6.2	6.2	5.4	6.0	5.5	5.4	5.2	4.8	4.8
Nondurable goods	7.4	6.3	7.6	6.7	6.9	7.0	6.4	6.5	6.1	5.9	5.8	5.9	6.5	5.9	5.6
Transportation and public utilities	5.1	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.1	4.5	4.7	4.4	4.8	4.4	4.4	4.1	4.4	4.5	4.6
Wholesale and retail trade	7.6	6.9	7.3	7.4	7.2	7.3	7.1	7.0	7.1	6.8	7.0	6.4	6.5	6.8	6.2
Finance and service industries	5.5	4.9	5.1	5.2	5.2	4.9	4.8	4.9	4.9	5.1	4.7	4.8	4.7	4.8	4.8
Government workers	3.6	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.7	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.2
Agricultural wage and salary workers	12.5	10.5	11.5	11.4	11.0	10.8	9.5	9.4	9.3	10.9	10.6	8.6	10.6	11.1	10.9

¹ Aggregate hours lost by the unemployed and persons on part time for economic reasons as a percent of potentially available labor force hours.

8. Unemployment rates by sex and age, monthly data seasonally adjusted

(Civilian workers)

Sex and age	Annual average		1986		1987										
	1986	1987	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Total, 16 years and over	7.0	6.2	6.7	6.7	6.6	6.5	6.3	6.3	6.1	6.0	6.0	5.9	6.0	5.9	5.8
16 to 24 years	13.3	12.2	13.0	13.0	13.0	12.8	12.6	12.5	12.1	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.6	11.2
16 to 19 years	18.3	16.9	17.5	17.7	17.9	17.8	17.3	17.6	16.0	15.8	16.2	16.4	17.2	16.6	16.1
16 to 17 years	20.2	19.1	19.1	19.9	19.8	19.9	18.9	21.0	18.8	17.5	18.3	18.3	20.4	19.2	17.8
18 to 19 years	17.0	15.2	16.3	16.2	16.4	16.2	15.9	15.2	14.5	13.9	14.7	15.2	14.7	14.8	14.7
20 to 24 years	10.7	9.7	10.7	10.7	10.4	10.2	10.1	9.8	10.0	9.7	9.4	9.4	8.8	8.9	8.5
25 years and over	5.4	4.8	5.1	5.2	5.1	5.0	4.8	4.8	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.6	4.6	4.5	4.5
25 to 54 years	5.7	5.0	5.4	5.5	5.5	5.3	5.1	5.1	4.9	5.0	4.9	4.8	4.8	4.7	4.8
55 years and over	3.9	3.3	3.5	3.3	3.1	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.2	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.1	3.4	3.2
Men, 16 years and over	6.9	6.2	6.8	6.7	6.6	6.6	6.4	6.4	6.2	6.0	6.1	5.8	5.9	5.8	5.7
16 to 24 years	13.7	12.6	13.5	13.4	13.5	13.2	13.1	13.2	12.4	11.9	12.5	12.1	12.1	12.0	11.7
16 to 19 years	19.0	17.8	18.2	18.5	18.5	19.0	18.7	19.6	16.4	15.9	17.8	17.3	17.4	17.2	17.2
16 to 17 years	20.8	20.2	19.0	21.1	20.5	20.3	21.0	22.7	19.1	17.1	20.5	19.7	20.9	20.4	19.3
18 to 19 years	17.7	16.0	17.2	17.1	17.1	17.9	17.1	17.2	15.4	13.7	15.9	15.9	14.8	14.8	15.3
20 to 24 years	11.0	9.9	11.2	10.8	10.9	10.2	10.3	9.9	10.4	9.9	9.6	9.3	9.2	9.2	8.7
25 years and over	5.4	4.8	5.2	5.2	5.1	5.1	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.7	4.7	4.5	4.5	4.4	4.4
25 to 54 years	5.6	5.0	5.5	5.6	5.4	5.3	5.1	5.1	5.0	4.9	4.9	4.7	4.8	4.6	4.6
55 years and over	4.1	3.5	3.9	3.7	3.4	3.6	3.7	3.9	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.2	3.1	3.5	3.2
Women, 16 years and over	7.1	6.2	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.5	6.3	6.2	6.0	6.1	6.0	6.1	6.1	6.0	5.9
16 to 24 years	12.8	11.7	12.5	12.7	12.4	12.4	12.0	11.8	11.7	11.7	11.0	11.5	11.5	11.2	10.7
16 to 19 years	17.6	15.9	16.9	16.8	17.1	16.6	15.9	15.6	15.5	15.7	14.4	15.4	16.9	16.0	14.8
16 to 17 years	19.6	18.0	19.1	18.6	19.0	19.6	16.6	19.1	18.4	18.0	16.0	16.9	19.9	17.9	16.2
18 to 19 years	16.3	14.3	15.3	15.3	15.7	14.3	14.7	13.1	13.6	14.1	13.4	14.4	14.6	14.7	14.1
20 to 24 years	10.3	9.4	10.2	10.5	9.9	10.1	10.0	9.7	9.6	9.5	9.0	9.4	8.5	8.6	8.4
25 years and over	5.5	4.8	5.0	5.1	5.1	5.0	4.8	4.7	4.5	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7
25 to 54 years	5.9	5.1	5.4	5.5	5.5	5.3	5.1	5.0	4.9	5.0	5.0	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9
55 years and over	3.6	3.0	2.9	2.8	2.7	3.0	2.9	3.0	2.8	2.6	2.9	3.5	3.1	3.2	3.3

9. Unemployed persons by reason for unemployment, monthly data seasonally adjusted

(Numbers in thousands)

Reason for unemployment	Annual average		1986		1987										
	1986	1987	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Job losers	4,033	3,566	3,913	3,971	3,835	3,791	3,705	3,612	3,554	3,529	3,389	3,313	3,388	3,307	3,200
On layoff	1,090	943	1,064	1,087	1,001	1,003	963	924	919	916	874	820	944	878	856
Other job losers	2,943	2,623	2,849	2,884	2,834	2,788	2,742	2,688	2,635	2,613	2,515	2,493	2,444	2,429	2,344
Job leavers	1,015	965	1,024	909	1,033	996	955	931	959	989	992	981	960	926	946
Reentrants	2,160	1,974	2,005	2,059	2,038	2,078	1,965	1,995	1,980	1,930	1,969	1,908	1,845	1,974	1,945
New entrants	1,029	920	990	1,048	1,007	952	918	999	854	844	855	882	914	855	909
PERCENT OF UNEMPLOYED															
Job losers	48.9	48.0	49.3	49.7	48.5	48.5	49.1	47.9	48.4	48.4	47.0	46.8	47.7	46.8	45.7
On layoff	13.2	12.7	13.4	13.6	12.7	12.8	12.8	12.3	12.5	12.6	12.1	11.6	13.3	12.4	12.2
Other job losers	35.7	35.3	35.9	36.1	35.8	35.7	36.4	35.7	35.9	35.8	34.9	35.2	34.4	34.4	33.5
Job leavers	12.3	13.0	12.9	11.4	13.1	12.7	12.7	12.4	13.1	13.6	13.8	13.8	13.5	13.1	13.5
Reentrants	26.2	26.6	25.3	25.8	25.8	26.6	26.1	26.5	26.9	26.5	27.3	26.9	26.0	28.0	27.8
New entrants	12.5	12.4	12.5	13.1	12.7	12.2	12.2	13.3	11.6	11.6	11.9	12.5	12.9	12.1	13.0
PERCENT OF CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE															
Job losers	3.4	3.0	3.3	3.3	3.2	3.2	3.1	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.7
Job leavers9	.8	.9	.8	.9	.8	.8	.8	.8	.8	.8	.8	.8	.8	.8
Reentrants	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.6
New entrants9	.8	.8	.9	.8	.8	.8	.8	.7	.7	.7	.7	.8	.7	.8

10. Duration of unemployment, monthly data seasonally adjusted

(Numbers in thousands)

Weeks of unemployment	Annual average		1986		1987										
	1986	1987	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Less than 5 weeks	3,448	3,246	3,335	3,365	3,343	3,352	3,195	3,308	3,138	3,186	3,203	3,220	3,223	3,218	3,229
5 to 14 weeks	2,557	2,196	2,403	2,489	2,444	2,411	2,256	2,165	2,151	2,144	2,142	1,949	2,093	2,029	1,968
15 weeks and over	2,232	1,983	2,194	2,187	2,129	2,055	2,060	2,067	2,029	1,920	1,896	1,904	1,801	1,834	1,791
15 to 26 weeks	1,045	943	1,042	1,023	1,004	944	984	974	973	945	834	917	844	899	892
27 weeks and over	1,187	1,040	1,152	1,164	1,125	1,111	1,076	1,093	1,056	975	1,062	987	957	935	899
Mean duration in weeks	15.0	14.5	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.9	14.8	14.8	14.7	14.2	14.3	14.2	14.1	14.0	14.2
Median duration in weeks	6.9	6.5	7.1	7.0	6.7	6.7	6.9	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.4	5.8	6.2	6.1	6.0

11. Unemployment rates of civilian workers by State, data not seasonally adjusted

State	Nov. 1986	Nov. 1987	State	Nov. 1986	Nov. 1987
Alabama	9.6	6.9	Montana	7.9	7.5
Alaska	10.6	9.6	Nebraska	4.6	4.5
Arizona	6.7	5.6	Nevada	5.5	6.1
Arkansas	8.9	7.7	New Hampshire	2.4	2.2
California	6.5	5.1	New Jersey	4.1	3.2
Colorado	7.6	6.7	New Mexico	9.1	8.7
Connecticut	3.3	3.2	New York	5.3	4.9
Delaware	3.5	2.9	North Carolina	5.4	4.0
District of Columbia	7.3	6.4	North Dakota	6.3	5.2
Florida	5.6	5.1	Ohio	7.3	5.8
Georgia	5.6	5.4	Oklahoma	8.1	6.2
Hawaii	4.6	3.8	Oregon	7.9	5.6
Idaho	7.8	6.4	Pennsylvania	6.0	5.2
Illinois	6.9	6.3	Rhode Island	3.3	3.1
Indiana	6.2	5.7	South Carolina	5.9	4.5
Iowa	5.8	5.3	South Dakota	5.6	5.5
Kansas	5.1	4.7	Tennessee	7.3	5.9
Kentucky	8.1	7.2	Texas	8.8	7.9
Louisiana	13.4	10.5	Utah	5.7	5.5
Maine	4.4	3.5	Vermont	4.5	3.4
Maryland	4.0	4.1	Virginia	4.7	3.6
Massachusetts	3.6	2.3	Washington	8.1	7.0
Michigan	8.0	7.4	West Virginia	11.0	10.8
Minnesota	4.8	5.9	Wisconsin	6.4	6.0
Mississippi	11.2	9.4	Wyoming	9.3	7.1
Missouri	5.8	6.1			

NOTE: Some data in this table may differ from data published elsewhere because of the continual updating of the database.

12. Employment of workers on nonagricultural payrolls by State, data not seasonally adjusted

(In thousands)

State	Nov. 1986	Oct. 1987	Nov. 1987 ^P	State	Nov. 1986	Oct. 1987	Nov. 1987 ^P
Alabama	1,473.0	1,503.3	1,503.2	Nebraska	666.8	677.3	679.2
Alaska	214.7	211.8	206.0	Nevada	481.0	509.1	511.6
Arizona	1,374.9	1,387.3	1,394.8	New Hampshire	496.8	517.6	517.0
Arkansas	824.5	856.3	853.7	New Jersey	3,545.2	3,621.5	3,634.6
California	11,478.9	11,824.7	11,887.9	New Mexico	533.1	540.7	540.9
Colorado	1,398.8	1,399.4	1,405.6	New York	8,056.6	8,218.2	8,259.6
Connecticut	1,635.4	1,663.2	1,673.6	North Carolina	2,791.7	2,880.1	2,891.1
Delaware	311.0	320.9	322.1	North Dakota	250.6	257.7	255.6
District of Columbia	645.1	648.8	652.3	Ohio	4,563.9	4,660.9	4,675.4
Florida	4,689.2	4,843.4	4,897.6	Oklahoma	1,141.7	1,135.1	1,132.8
Georgia	2,735.3	2,774.7	2,778.3	Oregon	1,077.4	1,122.7	1,124.2
Hawaii	444.1	454.5	459.4	Pennsylvania	4,878.5	5,017.5	5,029.5
Idaho	340.6	346.9	343.7	Rhode Island	453.1	455.4	456.4
Illinois	4,847.4	4,927.2	4,934.2	South Carolina	1,353.9	1,407.0	1,409.7
Indiana	2,278.6	2,359.0	2,362.2	South Dakota	256.1	258.9	257.6
Iowa	1,098.8	1,127.7	1,128.8	Tennessee	1,974.1	2,047.6	2,050.5
Kansas	1,000.7	1,015.8	1,018.9	Texas	6,536.9	6,567.8	6,582.8
Kentucky	1,304.1	1,325.9	1,326.8	Utah	644.2	647.4	650.2
Louisiana	1,514.1	1,510.6	1,511.2	Vermont	238.4	242.7	241.6
Maine	486.8	509.0	509.8	Virginia	2,620.2	2,666.9	2,681.9
Maryland	1,991.6	2,001.6	2,005.9	Washington	1,796.9	1,878.6	1,872.3
Massachusetts	3,028.5	3,080.1	3,096.9	West Virginia	600.8	608.5	609.9
Michigan	3,704.6	3,747.8	3,754.4	Wisconsin	2,050.7	2,101.5	2,102.3
Minnesota	1,925.7	1,998.4	1,996.5	Wyoming	193.4	193.5	190.4
Mississippi	859.7	878.0	879.1	Puerto Rico	723.8	746.3	748.7
Missouri	2,160.0	2,191.8	2,189.8	Virgin Islands	37.7	37.9	38.8
Montana	277.9	278.1	276.7				

^P = preliminary

NOTE: Some data in this table may differ from data published elsewhere

because of the continual updating of the database.

13. Employment of workers on nonagricultural payrolls by industry, monthly data seasonally adjusted

(In thousands)

Industry	Annual average		1986												
	1986	1987	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov. ^P	Dec. ^P
TOTAL	99,610	102,105	100,567	100,919	101,150	101,329	101,598	101,708	101,818	102,126	102,275	102,434	102,983	103,246	103,572
PRIVATE SECTOR	82,900	85,042	83,643	83,983	84,215	84,352	84,560	84,677	84,787	85,106	85,229	85,386	85,795	86,038	86,294
GOODS-PRODUCING	24,681	24,885	24,630	24,708	24,743	24,749	24,759	24,752	24,761	24,850	24,886	24,917	25,064	25,173	25,270
Mining	783	742	724	718	719	722	729	735	738	744	751	759	764	760	762
Oil and gas extraction	457	426	406	405	406	408	416	420	425	430	434	439	443	440	440
Construction	4,904	5,032	4,936	5,034	5,038	5,032	5,019	4,999	5,008	5,002	5,006	4,989	5,053	5,077	5,132
General building contractors	1,293	1,279	1,277	1,311	1,309	1,291	1,272	1,267	1,266	1,261	1,262	1,260	1,279	1,283	1,292
Manufacturing	18,994	19,112	18,970	18,956	18,986	18,995	19,011	19,018	19,015	19,104	19,129	19,169	19,247	19,336	19,376
Production workers	12,895	13,022	12,906	12,884	12,916	12,925	12,939	12,946	12,958	13,020	13,038	13,072	13,129	13,205	13,251
Durable goods	11,244	11,235	11,175	11,157	11,179	11,176	11,175	11,175	11,176	11,195	11,248	11,268	11,319	11,364	11,390
Production workers	7,432	7,458	7,393	7,370	7,398	7,399	7,406	7,409	7,421	7,425	7,475	7,494	7,530	7,573	7,602
Lumber and wood products	711	739	728	731	733	734	736	738	735	740	736	740	741	750	753
Furniture and fixtures	497	513	499	500	501	502	504	509	510	518	518	520	524	526	527
Stone, clay, and glass products	586	585	584	586	588	586	586	584	582	582	582	581	583	588	590
Primary metal industries	753	751	733	726	733	739	743	742	746	750	754	764	768	770	770
Blast furnaces and basic steel products	275	274	259	254	261	266	272	272	275	277	278	283	286	286	285
Fabricated metal products	1,431	1,428	1,422	1,422	1,419	1,419	1,423	1,420	1,424	1,424	1,425	1,429	1,438	1,446	1,450
Machinery, except electrical	2,060	2,038	2,011	2,007	2,018	2,015	2,022	2,025	2,028	2,033	2,044	2,053	2,064	2,070	2,080
Electrical and electronic equipment	2,123	2,101	2,118	2,111	2,106	2,099	2,092	2,087	2,080	2,088	2,095	2,096	2,111	2,118	2,128
Transportation equipment	2,015	2,015	2,018	2,014	2,022	2,022	2,011	2,011	2,010	1,995	2,028	2,018	2,019	2,018	2,016
Motor vehicles and equipment	865	842	853	851	859	854	847	843	842	814	848	837	838	836	833
Instruments and related products	707	696	698	697	695	694	694	693	693	695	695	695	697	701	700
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	362	369	364	363	364	366	364	366	368	370	371	372	374	377	376
Nondurable goods	7,750	7,876	7,795	7,799	7,807	7,819	7,836	7,843	7,839	7,909	7,881	7,901	7,928	7,972	7,986
Production workers	5,463	5,564	5,513	5,514	5,518	5,526	5,533	5,537	5,537	5,595	5,563	5,578	5,599	5,632	5,649
Food and kindred products	1,617	1,636	1,631	1,628	1,630	1,635	1,642	1,633	1,634	1,644	1,632	1,631	1,635	1,644	1,641
Tobacco manufactures	59	57	58	58	58	57	56	57	57	57	56	55	55	56	56
Textile mill products	705	730	715	718	722	725	724	727	729	736	732	735	736	738	740
Apparel and other textile products	1,106	1,114	1,110	1,106	1,101	1,103	1,104	1,107	1,108	1,130	1,110	1,117	1,123	1,128	1,126
Paper and allied products	674	679	679	678	679	678	677	677	676	678	677	681	678	682	684
Printing and publishing	1,457	1,501	1,474	1,479	1,483	1,485	1,493	1,497	1,498	1,504	1,508	1,509	1,514	1,522	1,526
Chemicals and allied products	1,023	1,027	1,017	1,018	1,018	1,017	1,018	1,022	1,014	1,026	1,031	1,031	1,035	1,042	1,047
Petroleum and coal products	169	165	163	164	164	164	164	164	164	164	164	166	167	166	167
Rubber and misc. plastics products	790	818	800	803	805	807	809	809	810	815	819	824	833	841	845
Leather and leather products	151	151	148	147	147	148	149	150	149	155	152	152	152	153	154
SERVICE-PRODUCING	74,930	77,219	75,937	76,211	76,407	76,580	76,839	76,956	77,057	77,276	77,389	77,517	77,919	78,073	78,302
Transportation and public utilities	5,244	5,377	5,286	5,304	5,315	5,333	5,348	5,344	5,350	5,363	5,377	5,416	5,436	5,460	5,458
Transportation	3,041	3,148	3,078	3,089	3,097	3,112	3,124	3,120	3,128	3,133	3,147	3,183	3,198	3,215	3,214
Communication and public utilities	2,203	2,229	2,208	2,215	2,218	2,221	2,224	2,224	2,222	2,230	2,230	2,233	2,238	2,245	2,244
Wholesale trade	5,735	5,797	5,725	5,741	5,757	5,766	5,772	5,775	5,781	5,797	5,807	5,815	5,831	5,851	5,871
Durable goods	3,383	3,419	3,383	3,386	3,391	3,397	3,397	3,401	3,405	3,418	3,422	3,431	3,444	3,458	3,475
Nondurable goods	2,351	2,378	2,342	2,355	2,366	2,369	2,375	2,374	2,376	2,379	2,385	2,384	2,387	2,393	2,396
Retail trade	17,845	18,259	18,007	18,080	18,140	18,136	18,197	18,205	18,226	18,274	18,256	18,314	18,408	18,424	18,420
General merchandise stores	2,363	2,402	2,363	2,358	2,373	2,380	2,385	2,390	2,387	2,407	2,411	2,415	2,459	2,437	2,425
Food stores	2,873	2,958	2,916	2,929	2,940	2,944	2,953	2,956	2,960	2,959	2,962	2,958	2,969	2,980	2,990
Automotive dealers and service stations	1,943	1,987	1,970	1,978	1,979	1,979	1,978	1,978	1,983	1,985	1,985	1,988	2,000	2,002	2,012
Eating and drinking places	5,879	5,994	5,938	5,946	5,956	5,964	5,962	5,976	5,982	5,985	5,992	6,018	6,032	6,047	6,063
Finance, insurance, and real estate	6,297	6,588	6,451	6,480	6,501	6,526	6,558	6,576	6,586	6,608	6,624	6,629	6,650	6,658	6,660
Finance	3,152	3,278	3,227	3,235	3,243	3,256	3,272	3,276	3,280	3,291	3,293	3,292	3,296	3,302	3,300
Insurance	1,945	2,043	1,999	2,012	2,016	2,022	2,032	2,037	2,037	2,043	2,050	2,054	2,068	2,069	2,078
Real estate	1,200	1,267	1,225	1,233	1,242	1,248	1,254	1,263	1,269	1,274	1,281	1,283	1,286	1,287	1,282
Services	23,099	24,136	23,544	23,670	23,759	23,842	23,926	24,025	24,083	24,214	24,279	24,295	24,406	24,472	24,615
Business services	4,781	5,098	4,912	4,950	4,984	5,020	5,044	5,083	5,086	5,105	5,133	5,152	5,194	5,192	5,227
Health services	6,551	6,880	6,691	6,721	6,748	6,773	6,800	6,822	6,853	6,887	6,923	6,943	6,987	7,025	7,066
Government	16,711	17,063	16,924	16,936	16,935	16,977	17,038	17,031	17,031	17,020	17,046	17,048	17,188	17,208	17,278
Federal	2,899	2,943	2,904	2,912	2,916	2,922	2,933	2,935	2,935	2,936	2,940	2,962	2,965	2,975	2,979
State	3,888	3,954	3,927	3,929	3,927	3,930	3,943	3,947	3,932	3,952	3,964	3,957	3,973	3,979	4,009
Local	9,923	10,167	10,093	10,095	10,092	10,125	10,162	10,149	10,164	10,132	10,142	10,129	10,250	10,254	10,290

P = preliminary

NOTE: See notes on the data for a description of the most recent benchmark revision.

14. Average weekly hours of production or nonsupervisory workers on private nonagricultural payrolls by industry, monthly data seasonally adjusted

Industry	Annual average		1987												
	1986	1987	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov. ^P	Dec. ^P
PRIVATE SECTOR	34.8	34.8	34.6	34.7	34.9	34.8	34.7	34.9	34.8	34.8	34.9	34.6	34.9	34.9	34.7
MANUFACTURING	40.7	41.0	40.8	40.9	41.1	40.9	40.6	41.0	41.0	41.0	40.6	41.3	41.2	41.1	
Overtime hours	3.4	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.5	3.8	3.7	3.8	3.6	4.0	3.9	3.9	
Durable goods	41.3	41.6	41.4	41.6	41.7	41.5	41.2	41.6	41.5	41.6	41.6	41.9	41.8	41.6	
Overtime hours	3.5	3.8	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.9	3.8	3.8	4.0	3.7	4.1	4.0	
Lumber and wood products	40.3	40.6	40.6	40.8	41.3	40.9	40.6	41.0	40.6	40.6	40.4	39.4	40.4	40.8	
Furniture and fixtures	39.8	39.9	39.9	40.2	40.2	40.0	39.1	39.9	40.0	40.0	40.1	39.3	40.0	39.7	
Stone, clay, and glass products	42.2	42.3	42.2	42.5	42.8	42.5	41.9	42.3	42.0	42.2	42.1	41.9	42.6	42.4	
Primary metal industries	41.9	43.1	42.5	42.6	42.6	42.6	42.3	43.1	43.1	43.4	43.5	43.4	43.7	43.6	
Blast furnaces and basic steel products	41.7	43.5	42.6	42.7	42.3	42.3	42.4	43.3	43.5	44.1	44.0	45.2	44.3	43.8	
Fabricated metal products	41.3	41.5	41.2	41.6	41.6	41.5	41.2	41.6	41.5	41.4	41.5	40.8	42.0	41.7	
Machinery except electrical	41.6	42.2	41.7	42.0	42.2	42.0	41.8	42.2	42.2	42.4	42.2	41.6	42.6	42.7	
Electrical and electronic equipment	41.0	40.9	41.0	41.0	41.1	40.9	40.6	40.8	41.1	41.1	41.0	40.4	41.1	41.0	
Transportation equipment	42.3	42.1	42.1	42.3	42.5	42.3	41.9	42.2	41.9	41.7	41.9	41.3	42.5	42.4	
Motor vehicles and equipment	42.6	42.3	42.4	42.9	43.0	42.9	42.1	42.5	42.0	41.9	41.9	41.3	43.0	43.1	
Instruments and related products	41.0	41.5	41.1	41.2	41.3	41.3	41.0	41.5	41.5	41.6	41.7	41.1	42.1	41.8	
Nondurable goods	39.9	40.2	40.0	40.1	40.3	40.1	39.7	40.2	40.2	40.3	40.3	40.1	40.5	40.4	
Overtime hours	3.3	3.6	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.3	3.7	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.8	3.7	
Food and kindred products	40.0	40.2	39.8	40.0	40.1	40.0	39.8	40.1	40.1	39.9	40.3	40.2	40.5	40.6	
Textile mill products	41.1	41.9	41.6	41.6	42.0	42.1	41.4	42.0	42.1	42.4	42.1	41.3	41.9	41.8	
Apparel and other textile products	36.7	37.1	37.0	37.0	37.4	37.0	36.1	37.2	37.1	37.3	37.4	36.3	37.4	37.1	
Paper and allied products	43.2	43.4	43.2	43.4	43.3	43.0	43.0	43.5	43.3	43.5	43.4	43.8	43.7	43.4	
Printing and publishing	38.0	38.0	38.0	37.9	38.1	37.9	37.7	37.9	38.1	38.1	37.9	38.2	38.0	38.0	
Chemicals and allied products	41.9	42.3	42.1	42.2	42.2	42.0	42.2	42.1	42.0	42.2	42.4	42.8	42.7	42.6	
Petroleum and coal products	43.8	43.8	43.6	44.6	44.0	44.1	43.9	44.3	43.3	44.4	43.3	43.2	43.5	43.5	
TRANSPORTATION AND PUBLIC UTILITIES	39.2	39.1	38.9	39.0	39.2	39.0	39.0	39.2	38.8	39.2	39.3	39.1	39.3	39.2	
WHOLESALE TRADE	37.7	-	38.2	38.3	38.3	38.1	38.2	38.3	38.2	38.1	38.3	38.0	38.4	38.3	
RETAIL TRADE	29.2	29.3	28.9	29.0	29.3	29.3	29.5	29.4	29.2	29.3	29.6	29.6	29.3	29.2	
SERVICES	32.5	32.5	32.4	32.4	32.6	32.5	32.4	32.5	32.5	32.5	32.5	32.5	32.5	32.6	

- Data not available.
^P = preliminary

NOTE: See "Notes on the data" for a description of the most recent benchmark adjustment.

15. Average hourly earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers on private nonagricultural payrolls by industry

Industry	Annual average		1986		1987										
	1986	1987	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov. ^P	Dec. ^P
PRIVATE SECTOR	\$8.76	\$8.98	\$8.86	\$8.90	\$8.92	\$8.92	\$8.91	\$8.93	\$8.92	\$8.91	\$8.94	\$9.06	\$9.09	\$9.14	\$9.13
Seasonally adjusted	-	-	8.84	8.86	8.88	8.91	8.91	8.95	8.94	8.96	9.02	9.02	9.08	9.13	9.11
MINING	12.44	12.44	12.63	12.66	12.56	12.51	12.43	12.42	12.44	12.31	12.32	12.43	12.34	12.46	12.46
CONSTRUCTION	12.47	12.66	12.77	12.58	12.51	12.59	12.55	12.60	12.61	12.57	12.67	12.77	12.79	12.81	12.81
MANUFACTURING	9.73	9.91	9.85	9.84	9.84	9.85	9.87	9.87	9.87	9.87	9.86	10.00	9.95	10.01	10.08
Durable goods	10.29	10.46	10.40	10.38	10.39	10.39	10.39	10.40	10.42	10.40	10.42	10.53	10.51	10.57	10.64
Lumber and wood products	8.33	8.40	8.32	8.27	8.31	8.28	8.34	8.37	8.44	8.46	8.49	8.48	8.44	8.48	8.45
Furniture and fixtures	7.46	7.67	7.65	7.61	7.58	7.58	7.58	7.64	7.66	7.67	7.74	7.75	7.73	7.74	7.79
Stone, clay, and glass products	10.05	10.27	10.17	10.17	10.15	10.13	10.23	10.26	10.29	10.33	10.31	10.40	10.31	10.34	10.34
Primary metal industries	11.86	11.98	11.82	11.76	11.78	11.82	11.96	11.96	11.97	11.97	11.98	12.24	12.05	12.08	12.15
Blast furnaces and basic steel products	13.73	13.84	13.74	13.55	13.59	13.66	13.84	13.80	13.83	13.70	13.81	14.17	13.97	13.97	14.04
Fabricated metal products	9.89	10.03	10.02	9.98	9.99	9.99	9.98	9.97	10.00	9.95	9.97	10.04	10.11	10.15	10.23
Machinery, except electrical	10.59	10.77	10.67	10.64	10.68	10.72	10.70	10.70	10.76	10.74	10.76	10.81	10.86	10.89	10.97
Electrical and electronic equipment	9.65	9.90	9.82	9.84	9.84	9.84	9.82	9.83	9.84	9.89	9.90	9.98	9.95	10.01	10.09
Transportation equipment	12.81	12.96	12.96	12.93	12.88	12.86	12.80	12.85	12.88	12.83	12.90	13.07	13.09	13.18	13.26
Motor vehicles and equipment	13.45	13.57	13.56	13.58	13.49	13.49	13.40	13.42	13.47	13.36	13.43	13.69	13.73	13.81	13.91
Instruments and related products	9.47	9.76	9.65	9.64	9.67	9.67	9.67	9.69	9.70	9.74	9.78	9.80	9.81	9.90	9.99
Miscellaneous manufacturing	7.54	7.74	7.69	7.69	7.68	7.66	7.67	7.72	7.74	7.72	7.70	7.76	7.77	7.81	7.89
Nondurable goods	8.94	9.16	9.07	9.09	9.08	9.09	9.14	9.13	9.11	9.16	9.12	9.28	9.18	9.24	9.30
Food and kindred products	8.74	8.92	8.88	8.90	8.91	8.93	8.95	8.96	8.91	8.88	8.80	8.92	8.86	8.97	9.07
Tobacco manufactures	12.85	13.82	12.93	12.97	13.44	13.80	14.28	14.53	15.57	14.85	14.20	12.89	12.77	13.59	13.58
Textile mill products	6.93	7.18	7.10	7.10	7.11	7.12	7.12	7.13	7.15	7.14	7.16	7.23	7.24	7.31	7.31
Apparel and other textile products	5.84	5.95	5.90	5.94	5.93	5.93	5.94	5.89	5.91	5.89	5.90	6.01	5.99	5.99	6.02
Paper and allied products	11.18	11.42	11.34	11.26	11.26	11.27	11.37	11.40	11.41	11.48	11.41	11.67	11.48	11.49	11.58
Printing and publishing	9.99	10.28	10.15	10.14	10.16	10.17	10.14	10.19	10.19	10.25	10.31	10.48	10.42	10.40	10.44
Chemicals and allied products	11.98	12.37	12.20	12.18	12.21	12.24	12.30	12.31	12.27	12.37	12.34	12.56	12.52	12.58	12.61
Petroleum and coal products	14.18	14.57	14.41	14.57	14.51	14.50	14.50	14.52	14.43	14.48	14.52	14.71	14.66	14.72	14.72
Rubber and miscellaneous plastics products	8.73	8.89	8.82	8.83	8.79	8.80	8.82	8.84	8.87	8.93	8.90	8.98	8.91	8.93	9.02
Leather and leather products	5.92	6.06	5.98	6.04	6.01	6.06	6.12	6.05	6.04	5.98	6.01	6.09	6.09	6.11	6.14
TRANSPORTATION AND PUBLIC UTILITIES	11.70	12.01	11.90	11.89	11.93	11.90	11.94	11.95	11.91	12.00	12.04	12.09	12.09	12.19	12.16
WHOLESALE TRADE	9.35	9.61	9.47	9.49	9.55	9.53	9.53	9.57	9.57	9.57	9.62	9.67	9.67	9.75	9.75
RETAIL TRADE	6.03	6.12	6.07	6.09	6.09	6.08	6.09	6.09	6.08	6.07	6.06	6.20	6.16	6.19	6.17
FINANCE, INSURANCE, AND REAL ESTATE	8.35	8.75	8.48	8.60	8.75	8.72	8.71	8.72	8.68	8.69	8.81	8.79	8.81	8.92	8.85
SERVICES	8.16	8.47	8.32	8.37	8.43	8.41	8.40	8.38	8.35	8.33	8.40	8.55	8.61	8.70	8.72

- Data not available.
P = preliminary

NOTE: See "Notes on the data" for a description of the most recent benchmark revision.

16. Average weekly earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers on private nonagricultural payrolls by industry

Industry	Annual average		1987												
	1986	1987	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov. ^P	Dec. ^P
PRIVATE SECTOR															
Current dollars	\$304.85	\$312.50	\$308.33	\$306.16	\$307.74	\$308.63	\$308.29	\$310.76	\$312.20	\$312.74	\$315.58	\$314.38	\$317.24	\$318.07	\$318.64
Seasonally adjusted	-	-	305.86	307.44	309.91	310.07	309.18	312.36	311.11	311.81	314.80	312.09	316.89	318.64	316.12
Constant (1977) dollars	171.07	-	171.87	169.52	169.74	169.48	168.28	169.17	169.21	169.14	169.76	168.30	169.38	169.64	-
MINING	524.97	526.21	535.51	538.05	527.52	522.92	519.57	526.61	527.46	518.25	522.37	523.30	526.92	529.55	533.29
CONSTRUCTION	466.38	478.55	469.94	467.98	460.37	470.87	469.37	485.10	480.44	485.20	489.06	464.83	496.25	475.25	484.22
MANUFACTURING															
Current dollars	396.01	406.31	408.78	401.47	401.47	402.87	398.75	403.68	405.66	400.72	403.27	408.00	410.94	414.41	422.35
Constant (1977) dollars	222.23	-	227.86	222.30	221.44	221.24	217.78	219.75	219.87	216.72	216.93	218.42	219.40	221.02	-
Durable goods	424.98	435.14	439.92	430.77	431.19	432.22	427.03	431.60	434.51	426.40	430.35	432.78	439.32	443.94	452.20
Lumber and wood products	335.70	341.04	337.79	331.63	337.39	337.00	338.60	345.68	348.57	341.78	345.54	338.35	342.66	342.59	343.92
Furniture and fixtures	296.91	306.03	314.42	302.88	299.41	301.68	294.10	301.78	306.40	300.66	311.92	308.45	313.84	312.70	318.61
Stone, clay, and glass products	424.11	434.42	427.14	421.04	423.26	425.46	430.68	439.13	437.33	439.03	439.21	442.00	443.33	437.38	437.38
Primary metal industries	496.93	516.34	508.26	500.98	503.01	505.90	508.30	514.28	517.10	514.71	515.14	531.22	522.97	527.90	535.82
Blast furnaces and basic steel products	572.54	602.04	589.45	575.88	577.58	581.92	593.74	598.92	605.75	602.80	600.74	639.07	610.49	610.49	623.38
Fabricated metal products	408.46	416.25	422.84	414.17	413.59	414.59	408.18	412.76	417.00	405.96	411.76	410.64	424.62	428.33	436.82
Machinery, except electrical	440.54	454.49	456.68	446.88	449.63	452.38	445.12	449.40	455.15	447.86	449.77	449.70	460.46	467.18	478.29
Electrical and electronic equipment	395.65	404.91	413.42	404.42	402.46	402.46	395.75	399.10	404.42	399.56	403.92	404.19	408.95	414.41	424.79
Transportation equipment	541.86	545.62	562.46	549.53	546.11	547.84	536.32	542.27	539.67	526.03	530.19	538.48	553.71	561.47	567.53
Motor vehicles and equipment	572.97	574.01	595.28	585.30	577.37	582.77	566.82	571.69	567.09	549.10	547.94	562.66	586.27	593.83	596.74
Instruments and related products	388.27	405.04	407.23	397.17	399.37	401.31	394.54	399.23	402.55	398.37	403.91	402.78	410.06	416.79	433.57
Miscellaneous manufacturing	298.58	304.96	309.14	303.76	301.06	301.04	297.60	302.62	304.18	299.54	303.38	302.64	310.80	309.28	316.39
Nondurable goods	356.71	368.23	368.24	362.69	362.29	363.60	361.03	366.11	367.13	366.40	368.45	374.91	371.79	375.14	381.30
Food and kindred products	349.60	358.58	357.86	354.22	351.05	352.74	351.74	359.30	357.29	354.31	358.16	363.94	360.60	365.98	374.59
Tobacco manufactures	480.59	533.45	483.58	481.19	486.53	525.78	536.93	571.03	624.36	527.18	512.62	501.42	526.12	559.91	559.50
Textile mill products	284.82	300.84	299.62	293.94	295.78	299.04	291.21	298.75	303.16	297.02	302.87	301.49	305.53	308.48	309.21
Apparel and other textile products	214.33	220.75	220.66	218.59	220.00	219.41	212.65	219.11	221.03	217.93	220.66	218.16	224.63	224.03	227.56
Paper and allied products	482.98	495.63	500.09	488.68	484.18	483.48	486.64	493.62	494.05	495.94	492.91	514.65	501.68	500.96	510.68
Printing and publishing	379.62	390.64	392.81	381.26	384.05	386.46	381.26	384.16	384.16	387.45	392.81	403.48	397.00	398.32	404.03
Chemicals and allied products	501.96	523.25	519.72	514.00	514.04	515.30	519.06	518.25	516.57	518.30	519.51	537.57	530.85	537.17	542.23
Petroleum and coal products	621.08	638.17	628.28	645.45	629.73	636.55	635.10	637.43	624.82	645.81	631.62	644.30	642.11	643.26	646.21
Rubber and miscellaneous plastics products	360.55	369.82	373.09	367.33	364.79	365.20	360.74	366.86	370.77	366.13	368.46	371.77	373.33	375.95	383.35
Leather and leather products	218.45	231.49	227.84	225.29	223.57	227.25	224.60	233.53	237.37	230.83	233.79	229.59	235.68	235.24	238.85
TRANSPORTATION AND PUBLIC UTILITIES	458.64	469.59	465.29	457.77	465.27	462.91	463.27	466.05	465.68	472.80	476.78	473.93	475.14	479.07	475.46
WHOLESALE TRADE	359.04	367.10	363.65	361.57	361.95	361.19	363.09	366.53	367.49	366.53	369.41	368.43	371.33	373.43	374.40
RETAIL TRADE	176.08	179.32	178.46	172.35	174.78	175.71	177.83	178.44	179.97	182.10	183.62	183.52	179.87	179.51	180.78
FINANCE, INSURANCE, AND REAL ESTATE	303.94	317.63	309.52	312.18	318.50	316.54	316.17	316.54	315.95	314.58	320.68	316.44	318.92	324.69	319.49
SERVICES	265.20	275.28	269.57	269.51	273.13	272.48	271.32	271.51	272.21	273.22	276.36	277.02	279.83	282.75	283.40

- Data not available.
P = preliminary

NOTE: See "Notes on the data" for a description of the most recent benchmark revision.

17. The Hourly Earnings Index for production or nonsupervisory workers on private nonagricultural payrolls by industry

Industry	Not seasonally adjusted				Seasonally adjusted					
	Dec. 1986	Oct. 1987	Nov. 1987 ^P	Dec. 1987 ^P	Dec. 1986	Aug. 1987	Sept. 1987	Oct. 1987	Nov. 1987 ^P	Dec. 1987 ^P
PRIVATE SECTOR (in current dollars)	171.6	174.9	176.0	176.2	171.1	174.1	174.6	174.9	175.8	175.6
Mining ¹	182.7	182.3	184.1	184.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
Construction	155.3	156.3	156.2	155.8	154.3	154.7	154.0	154.7	156.7	154.7
Manufacturing	173.7	175.7	176.5	177.4	173.4	175.5	176.7	176.3	176.7	177.0
Transportation and public utilities	174.7	177.3	178.6	178.6	173.5	177.0	176.6	176.9	177.3	177.3
Wholesale trade ¹	174.8	178.5	179.7	179.8	-	-	-	-	-	-
Retail trade	159.2	161.9	162.3	161.9	159.3	161.5	162.7	162.2	162.3	162.1
Finance, insurance, and real estate ¹	182.4	189.4	191.8	190.7	-	-	-	-	-	-
Services	177.5	183.9	185.7	186.0	176.6	182.4	182.3	183.9	185.1	184.9
PRIVATE SECTOR [in constant (1977) dollars]	95.6	93.4	93.9	-	95.3	93.7	93.8	93.7	93.8	-

¹ This series is not seasonally adjusted because the seasonal component is small relative to the trend-cycle, irregular components, or both, and consequently cannot be separated with sufficient precision.
- Data not available.

^P = preliminary.
NOTE: See "Notes on the data" for a description of the most recent benchmark revision.

18. Indexes of diffusion: industries in which employment increased, data seasonally adjusted

(In percent)

Time span and year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Over 1-month span:												
1985	55.9	47.0	52.4	47.3	53.2	46.8	53.8	53.8	47.8	53.2	54.3	57.3
1986	53.2	48.1	48.1	53.5	52.4	46.8	52.4	56.2	55.1	53.2	59.7	59.7
1987	53.5	56.8	58.6	58.4	58.6	55.7	68.6	54.6	65.4	65.4	70.3	62.4
Over 3-month span:												
1985	51.1	48.4	42.4	46.5	44.3	49.7	47.0	48.6	45.9	47.6	55.1	56.5
1986	49.7	44.9	45.7	48.4	47.6	45.4	48.4	55.1	55.9	58.1	58.6	60.3
1987	58.6	59.5	61.1	61.6	61.4	67.3	66.2	75.1	69.7	78.4	75.4	-
Over 6-month span:												
1985	46.5	46.5	43.2	44.3	44.3	45.1	43.0	44.3	49.2	49.2	47.3	45.9
1986	47.6	47.6	43.0	43.2	45.4	48.4	47.3	53.0	59.2	58.9	57.8	58.9
1987	61.9	62.7	58.9	67.3	67.6	71.1	76.2	80.3	80.3	-	-	-
Over 12-month span:												
1985	44.6	44.1	43.8	40.8	41.6	41.6	42.2	42.4	43.8	44.3	44.1	42.4
1986	43.2	44.1	46.2	45.7	47.8	49.5	49.5	51.6	54.9	52.2	55.1	56.5
1987	62.2	63.5	67.3	68.9	72.4	73.0	-	-	-	-	-	-

- Data not available.

NOTE: Figures are the percent of industries with employment rising. (Half of the unchanged components are counted as rising.) Data are centered within the

spans. Data for the 2 most recent months shown in each span are preliminary. See the "Definitions" in this section. See "Notes on the data" for a description of the most recent benchmark revision.

19. Annual data: Employment status of the noninstitutional population

(Numbers in thousands)

Employment status	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Noninstitutional population	166,460	169,349	171,775	173,939	175,891	178,080	179,912	182,293	184,490
Labor force:									
Total (number)	106,559	108,544	110,315	111,872	113,226	115,241	117,167	119,540	121,602
Percent of population	64.0	64.1	64.2	64.3	64.4	64.7	65.1	65.6	65.9
Employed:									
Total (number)	100,421	100,907	102,042	101,194	102,510	106,702	108,856	111,303	114,177
Percent of population	60.3	59.6	59.4	58.2	58.3	59.9	60.5	61.1	61.9
Resident Armed Forces	1,597	1,604	1,645	1,668	1,676	1,697	1,706	1,706	1,737
Civilian									
Total	98,824	99,303	100,397	99,526	100,834	105,005	107,150	109,597	112,440
Agriculture	3,347	3,364	3,368	3,401	3,383	3,321	3,179	3,163	3,208
Nonagricultural industries	95,477	95,938	97,030	96,125	97,450	101,685	103,971	106,434	109,232
Unemployed:									
Total (number)	6,137	7,637	8,273	10,678	10,717	8,539	8,312	8,237	7,425
Percent of labor force	5.8	7.0	7.5	9.5	9.5	7.4	7.1	6.9	6.1
Not in labor force (number)	59,900	60,806	61,460	62,067	62,665	62,839	62,744	62,752	62,888

20. Annual data: Employment levels by industry

(Numbers in thousands)

Industry	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987 ^P
Total employment	89,823	90,406	91,156	89,566	90,200	94,496	97,519	99,610	102,105
Private sector									
Goods-producing	26,461	25,658	25,497	23,813	23,334	24,727	24,859	24,681	24,885
Mining	958	1,027	1,139	1,128	952	966	927	783	742
Construction	4,463	4,346	4,188	3,905	3,948	4,383	4,673	4,904	5,032
Manufacturing	21,040	20,285	20,170	18,781	18,434	19,378	19,260	18,994	19,112
Service-producing	63,363	64,748	65,659	65,753	66,866	69,769	72,660	74,930	77,219
Transportation and public utilities	5,136	5,146	5,165	5,082	4,954	5,159	5,238	5,244	5,377
Wholesale trade	5,204	5,275	5,358	5,278	5,268	5,555	5,717	5,735	5,797
Retail trade	14,989	15,035	15,199	15,179	15,613	16,545	17,356	17,845	18,259
Finance, insurance, and real estate	4,975	5,160	5,298	5,341	5,468	5,689	5,955	6,297	6,588
Services	17,112	17,890	18,619	19,036	19,694	20,797	22,000	23,099	24,136
Government									
Federal	2,773	2,866	2,772	2,739	2,774	2,807	2,875	2,899	2,943
State	3,541	3,610	3,640	3,640	3,662	3,734	3,832	3,888	3,954
Local	9,633	9,765	9,619	9,458	9,434	9,482	9,687	9,923	10,167

 NOTE: See "Notes on the data" for a description of the most recent benchmark revision. ^P = preliminary.

21. Annual data: Average hours and earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers on nonagricultural payrolls, by industry

Industry	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987 ^P
Private sector									
Average weekly hours	35.7	35.3	35.2	34.8	35.0	35.2	34.9	34.8	34.8
Average hourly earnings (in dollars)	6.16	6.66	7.25	7.68	8.02	8.32	8.57	8.76	8.98
Average weekly earnings (in dollars)	219.91	235.10	255.20	267.26	280.70	292.86	299.09	304.85	312.50
Mining									
Average weekly hours	43.0	43.3	43.7	42.7	42.5	43.3	43.4	42.2	42.3
Average hourly earnings (in dollars)	8.49	9.17	10.04	10.77	11.28	11.63	11.98	12.44	12.44
Average weekly earnings (in dollars)	365.07	397.06	438.75	459.88	479.40	503.58	519.93	524.97	526.21
Construction									
Average weekly hours	37.0	37.0	36.9	36.7	37.1	37.8	37.7	37.4	37.8
Average hourly earnings (in dollars)	9.27	9.94	10.82	11.63	11.94	12.13	12.32	12.47	12.66
Average weekly earnings (in dollars)	342.99	367.78	399.26	426.82	442.97	458.51	464.46	466.38	478.55
Manufacturing									
Average weekly hours	40.2	39.7	39.8	38.9	40.1	40.7	40.5	40.7	41.0
Average hourly earnings (in dollars)	6.70	7.27	7.99	8.49	8.83	9.19	9.54	9.73	9.91
Average weekly earnings (in dollars)	269.34	288.62	318.00	330.26	354.08	374.03	386.37	396.01	406.31
Transportation and public utilities									
Average weekly hours	39.9	39.6	39.4	39.0	39.0	39.4	39.5	39.2	39.1
Average hourly earnings (in dollars)	8.16	8.87	9.70	10.32	10.79	11.12	11.40	11.70	12.01
Average weekly earnings (in dollars)	325.58	351.25	382.18	402.48	420.81	438.13	450.30	458.64	469.59
Wholesale trade									
Average weekly hours	38.8	38.5	38.5	38.3	38.5	38.5	38.4	38.4	38.2
Average hourly earnings (in dollars)	6.39	6.96	7.56	8.09	8.55	8.89	9.16	9.35	9.61
Average weekly earnings (in dollars)	247.93	267.96	291.06	309.85	329.18	342.27	351.74	359.04	367.10
Retail trade									
Average weekly hours	30.6	30.2	30.1	29.9	29.8	29.8	29.4	29.2	29.3
Average hourly earnings (in dollars)	4.53	4.88	5.25	5.48	5.74	5.85	5.94	6.03	6.12
Average weekly earnings (in dollars)	138.62	147.38	158.03	163.85	171.05	174.33	174.64	176.08	179.32
Finance, insurance, and real estate									
Average weekly hours	36.2	36.2	36.3	36.2	36.2	36.5	36.4	36.4	36.3
Average hourly earnings (in dollars)	5.27	5.79	6.31	6.78	7.29	7.63	7.94	8.35	8.75
Average weekly earnings (in dollars)	190.77	209.60	229.05	245.44	263.90	278.50	289.02	303.94	317.63
Services									
Average weekly hours	32.7	32.6	32.6	32.6	32.7	32.6	32.5	32.5	32.5
Average hourly earnings (in dollars)	5.36	5.85	6.41	6.92	7.31	7.59	7.90	8.16	8.47
Average weekly earnings (in dollars)	175.27	190.71	208.97	225.59	239.04	247.43	256.75	265.20	275.28

^P = preliminary.

22. Employment Cost Index, compensation,¹ by occupation and industry group

(June 1981 = 100)

Series	1985		1986				1987			Percent change	
	Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.	3 months ended	12 months ended
										Sept. 1987	
Civilian workers ²	128.4	129.2	130.6	131.5	133.0	133.8	135.0	135.9	137.5	1.2	3.4
Workers, by occupational group:											
White-collar workers	130.7	131.6	133.1	134.2	136.0	136.9	138.5	139.3	141.2	1.4	3.8
Blue-collar workers	124.4	124.9	126.2	126.8	127.8	128.4	129.1	130.1	131.3	.9	2.7
Service occupations	130.9	131.8	133.1	133.7	135.4	136.6	138.0	138.5	139.9	1.0	3.3
Workers, by industry division:											
Goods-producing	124.9	125.5	126.9	128.1	128.8	129.5	130.2	131.1	132.2	.8	2.6
Manufacturing	125.5	126.0	127.7	128.7	129.3	130.1	130.7	131.5	132.7	.9	2.6
Service-producing	130.7	131.5	132.9	133.7	135.6	136.5	138.1	138.9	140.8	1.4	3.8
Services	136.4	137.1	138.8	139.4	142.4	143.6	145.2	145.8	149.2	2.3	4.8
Health services	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.3	4.3
Hospitals	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.7	4.6
Public administration ³	134.2	134.8	136.8	138.0	140.6	141.6	144.1	144.7	146.4	1.2	4.1
Nonmanufacturing	129.7	130.6	131.9	132.8	134.6	135.4	136.9	137.8	139.6	1.3	3.7
Private industry workers	126.8	127.5	128.9	129.9	130.8	131.6	132.9	133.8	135.1	1.0	3.3
Workers, by occupational group:											
White-collar workers	128.8	129.8	131.3	132.5	133.5	134.3	136.1	137.0	138.5	1.1	3.7
Professional specialty and technical occupations	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.4	3.9
Executive, administrative, and managerial occupations	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.4	4.8
Sales occupations	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.0	1.5
Administrative support occupations, including clerical	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.1	3.9
Blue-collar workers	124.0	124.4	125.7	126.3	127.2	127.8	128.4	129.5	130.6	.8	2.7
Precision production, craft, and repair occupation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.1	2.8
Machine operators, assemblers, and inspectors	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.5	2.7
Transportation and material moving occupations	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.7	2.6
Handlers, equipment cleaners, helpers, and laborers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.9	2.2
Service occupations	128.8	129.5	130.9	131.1	132.3	133.5	134.7	135.2	135.9	.5	2.7
Workers, by industry division:											
Goods-producing	124.6	125.3	126.7	127.8	128.6	129.2	129.9	130.8	131.9	.8	2.6
Construction	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.8	3.1
Manufacturing	125.5	126.0	127.7	128.7	129.3	130.1	130.7	131.5	132.7	.9	2.6
Durables	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.7	2.3
Nondurables	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.3	3.3
Service-producing	128.7	129.4	130.8	131.6	132.7	133.5	135.3	136.3	137.7	1.0	3.8
Transportation and public utilities	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.5	2.7
Transportation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.2	2.2
Public utilities	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.0	3.4
Wholesale and retail trade	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.5	3.3
Wholesale trade	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.6	4.3
Retail trade	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.5	2.8
Finance, insurance, and real estate	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.3	2.7
Service	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.0	5.2
Health services	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.1	4.3
Hospitals	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.7	4.7
Nonmanufacturing	127.6	128.4	129.7	130.6	131.7	132.4	134.1	135.1	136.4	1.0	3.6
State and local government workers	136.5	137.5	138.9	139.7	143.6	144.7	145.9	146.3	149.7	2.3	4.2
Workers, by occupational group:											
White-collar workers	137.6	138.6	140.0	140.5	145.0	146.0	147.2	147.5	151.2	2.5	4.3
Blue-collar workers	131.9	132.7	134.7	136.3	138.5	139.5	140.8	141.3	143.3	1.4	3.5
Workers, by industry division:											
Services	137.9	139.1	140.4	140.8	145.5	146.6	147.3	147.6	151.8	2.8	4.3
Hospitals and other services ⁴	134.1	135.2	136.8	137.9	139.4	141.1	142.5	143.3	145.1	1.3	4.1
Health services	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.1	4.4
Schools	139.1	140.3	141.5	141.7	147.6	148.4	148.9	149.1	154.1	3.4	4.4
Elementary and secondary	140.9	142.0	143.0	143.2	149.4	150.3	150.5	150.7	156.5	3.8	4.8
Public administration ³	134.2	134.8	136.8	138.0	140.6	141.6	144.1	144.7	146.4	1.2	4.1

¹ Cost (cents per hour worked) measured in the Employment Cost Index consists of wages, salaries, and employer cost of employee benefits.

² Consist of private industry workers (excluding farm and household workers) and State and local government (excluding Federal Government) workers.

³ Consist of legislative, judicial, administrative, and regulatory activities.

⁴ Includes, for example, library, social, and health services.

- Data not available.

23. Employment Cost Index, wages and salaries, by occupation and industry group

(June 1981 = 100)

Series	1985		1986				1987			Percent change	
	Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.	3 months ended	12 months ended
										Sept. 1987	
Civilian workers ¹	126.3	127.0	128.3	129.3	130.7	131.5	132.8	133.5	135.2	1.3	3.4
Workers, by occupational group:											
White-collar workers	128.8	129.8	131.2	132.4	134.1	135.0	136.6	137.3	139.4	1.5	4.0
Blue-collar workers	122.0	122.3	123.4	124.1	125.0	125.6	126.2	127.1	128.3	.9	2.6
Service occupations	128.0	128.6	129.8	130.0	131.7	132.8	134.2	134.7	136.0	1.0	3.3
Workers, by industry division											
Goods-producing	122.5	123.1	124.4	125.6	126.3	127.0	127.8	128.5	129.8	1.0	2.8
Manufacturing	123.2	123.8	125.3	126.5	127.2	127.9	128.7	129.5	130.8	1.0	2.8
Service-producing	128.6	129.4	130.7	131.5	133.4	134.2	135.8	136.5	138.5	1.5	3.8
Services	134.2	134.8	136.4	137.0	139.9	141.1	142.7	143.4	146.8	2.4	4.9
Health services	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.5	4.7
Hospitals	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.8	4.9
Public administration ²	131.4	132.0	133.8	134.6	137.5	138.1	140.5	141.0	142.6	1.1	3.7
Nonmanufacturing	127.6	128.4	129.6	130.4	132.2	133.0	134.5	135.2	137.1	1.4	3.7
Private industry workers	124.9	125.6	126.8	127.9	128.8	129.5	130.8	131.7	133.0	1.0	3.3
Workers, by occupational group:											
White-collar workers	127.3	128.3	129.6	131.1	132.0	132.7	134.6	135.4	137.0	1.2	3.8
Professional, specialty and technical occupations	131.2	131.5	132.7	134.0	135.4	136.4	138.4	139.1	141.2	1.5	4.3
Executive, administrative, and managerial occupations	127.7	128.4	130.5	132.1	132.4	133.5	135.6	136.4	138.6	1.6	4.7
Sales occupations	119.3	122.5	122.4	124.3	125.2	124.9	126.7	127.1	127.0	-.1	1.4
Administrative support occupations, including clerical	127.1	127.9	129.6	130.8	131.7	132.7	134.3	135.5	137.1	1.2	4.1
Blue-collar workers	121.7	122.0	123.1	123.7	124.5	125.1	125.6	126.6	127.7	.9	2.6
Precision production, craft, and repair occupations	123.7	123.8	125.3	125.7	126.7	127.4	127.9	128.8	130.2	1.1	2.8
Machine operators, assemblers, and inspectors	121.1	121.6	122.6	123.6	124.1	124.9	125.5	126.7	127.5	.6	2.7
Transportation and material moving occupations	117.7	117.8	118.0	118.9	119.8	120.1	120.5	121.5	122.3	.7	2.1
Handlers, equipment cleaners, helpers, and laborers	118.6	119.8	120.0	120.3	120.9	121.4	121.9	122.6	123.7	.9	2.3
Service occupations	126.3	126.6	128.0	128.0	128.9	130.1	131.4	131.9	132.6	.5	2.9
Workers, by industry division:											
Goods-producing	122.3	122.9	124.2	125.4	126.1	126.8	127.5	128.3	129.6	1.0	2.8
Construction	117.3	117.9	118.3	119.8	120.5	120.8	121.7	122.7	123.8	.9	2.7
Manufacturing	123.2	123.8	125.3	126.5	127.2	127.9	128.7	129.5	130.8	1.0	2.8
Durables	122.7	123.4	124.8	125.8	126.4	127.2	127.7	128.7	129.7	.8	2.6
Nondurables	124.0	124.6	126.1	127.9	128.5	129.3	130.5	131.0	132.8	1.4	3.3
Service-producing	127.0	127.8	129.0	129.9	130.9	131.6	133.4	134.3	135.7	1.0	3.7
Transportation and public utilities	124.8	125.2	126.3	126.6	127.3	127.5	128.1	129.3	130.0	.5	2.1
Transportation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.4	1.6
Public utilities	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.6	2.8
Wholesale and retail trade	122.7	123.7	124.5	125.8	126.5	126.9	127.9	129.9	130.6	.5	3.2
Wholesale trade	127.7	128.3	129.7	131.2	131.8	133.1	134.8	137.2	137.8	.4	4.6
Retail trade	120.8	121.9	122.5	123.7	124.4	124.5	125.2	127.1	127.8	.6	2.7
Finance, insurance, and real estate	124.1	126.5	126.6	128.0	129.0	130.0	133.5	131.5	131.8	.2	2.2
Services	133.9	134.1	136.2	136.9	138.2	139.5	141.8	142.8	145.9	2.2	5.6
Health services	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.4	5.0
Hospitals	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.8	5.3
Nonmanufacturing	125.9	126.6	127.7	128.7	129.7	130.4	131.9	132.8	134.2	1.1	3.5
State and local government workers	133.2	134.2	135.5	136.0	140.4	141.4	142.5	142.8	146.1	2.3	4.1
Workers, by occupational group											
White-collar workers	134.3	135.3	136.6	137.0	141.8	142.8	143.9	144.1	147.7	2.5	4.2
Blue-collar workers	127.9	128.4	130.4	131.9	134.5	135.1	136.3	136.9	139.0	1.5	3.3
Workers, by industry division											
Services	134.5	135.6	136.8	137.1	142.1	143.3	143.9	144.2	148.2	2.8	4.3
Hospitals and other services ³	130.2	130.9	132.4	133.3	135.8	137.3	138.6	139.4	141.2	1.3	4.0
Health services	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.9	3.8
Schools	135.8	137.0	138.0	138.2	144.1	145.1	145.5	145.6	150.3	3.2	4.3
Elementary and secondary	137.5	138.5	139.4	139.4	145.7	146.4	146.5	146.6	152.0	3.7	4.3
Public administration ²	131.4	132.0	133.8	134.6	137.5	138.1	140.5	141.0	142.6	1.1	3.7

¹ Consists of private industry workers (excluding farm and household workers) and State and local government (excluding Federal Government) workers.

² Consists of legislative, judicial, administrative, and regulatory activities.

³ Includes, for example, library, social and health services.

- Data not available.

24. Employment Cost Index, private nonfarm workers, by bargaining status, region, and area size

(June 1981 = 100)

Series	1985		1986				1987			Percent change	
	Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.	3 months ended	12 months ended
										Sept. 1987	
COMPENSATION											
Workers, by bargaining status¹											
Union	126.5	127.1	128.4	128.7	129.4	129.8	130.5	131.2	132.0	0.6	2.0
Goods-producing	124.6	125.2	126.4	126.7	127.3	127.5	128.0	128.7	129.5	.6	1.7
Service-producing	129.5	130.2	131.6	131.9	132.8	133.4	134.4	135.2	135.9	.5	2.3
Manufacturing	125.0	125.5	127.0	126.9	127.5	127.9	128.0	128.7	129.5	.6	1.6
Nonmanufacturing	127.8	128.6	129.7	130.4	131.2	131.5	132.6	133.5	134.3	.6	2.4
Nonunion	126.8	127.5	129.0	130.2	131.2	132.1	133.6	134.6	136.1	1.1	3.7
Goods-producing	124.4	125.1	126.7	128.2	129.1	130.0	130.8	131.8	133.1	1.0	3.1
Service-producing	128.3	129.0	130.4	131.4	132.5	133.4	135.3	136.4	137.9	1.1	4.1
Manufacturing	125.7	126.3	128.1	129.7	130.4	131.4	132.2	133.2	134.6	1.1	3.2
Nonmanufacturing	127.3	128.1	129.5	130.4	131.6	132.5	134.3	135.3	136.8	1.1	4.0
Workers, by region¹											
Northeast	128.8	129.9	131.6	133.3	134.2	135.2	137.4	138.6	140.3	1.2	4.5
South	126.5	127.2	128.7	129.6	130.7	131.4	132.1	133.2	134.2	.8	2.7
Midwest (formerly North Central)	124.2	124.6	125.9	126.2	127.3	128.1	129.1	130.2	131.2	.8	3.1
West	129.1	129.8	130.8	131.6	132.1	132.8	134.1	134.2	135.8	1.2	2.8
Workers, by area size¹											
Metropolitan areas	127.3	128.1	129.5	130.5	131.4	132.2	133.5	134.4	135.8	1.0	3.3
Other areas	123.9	123.9	125.5	126.4	127.2	127.9	129.0	130.2	131.3	.8	3.2
WAGES AND SALARIES											
Workers, by bargaining status¹											
Union	124.1	124.7	125.6	126.1	126.9	127.2	127.7	128.3	129.1	.6	1.7
Goods-producing	122.2	122.7	123.4	124.1	124.5	124.8	125.0	125.8	126.5	.6	1.6
Service-producing	127.1	127.8	129.0	129.3	130.5	130.9	131.7	132.2	132.9	.5	1.8
Manufacturing	122.8	123.3	124.2	124.6	125.0	125.5	125.6	126.2	127.0	.6	1.6
Nonmanufacturing	125.3	125.9	126.9	127.4	128.5	128.7	129.5	130.1	130.8	.5	1.8
Nonunion	125.2	125.9	127.3	128.5	129.4	130.3	131.8	132.8	134.3	1.1	3.8
Goods-producing	122.3	123.0	124.5	126.1	127.0	127.8	128.8	129.6	131.1	1.2	3.2
Service-producing	126.9	127.7	128.9	129.9	130.8	131.7	133.6	134.6	136.2	1.2	4.1
Manufacturing	123.7	124.4	126.1	127.7	128.5	128.5	130.6	131.5	133.0	1.1	3.5
Nonmanufacturing	125.9	126.6	127.8	128.9	129.8	130.6	132.4	133.4	134.9	1.1	3.9
Workers, by region¹											
Northeast	126.8	128.1	129.2	131.3	132.3	133.1	135.4	136.6	138.3	1.2	4.5
South	124.8	125.4	126.8	127.8	128.8	129.4	130.1	131.1	132.1	.8	2.6
Midwest (formerly North Central)	122.5	122.9	124.2	124.4	125.3	126.2	127.4	128.5	129.6	.9	3.4
West	126.6	127.1	128.1	128.9	129.3	130.1	131.2	131.1	133.1	1.5	2.9
Workers, by area size¹											
Metropolitan areas	125.5	126.3	127.4	128.5	129.4	130.2	131.6	132.4	133.7	1.0	3.3
Other areas	121.9	122.0	123.6	124.5	125.0	125.6	126.6	127.8	129.1	1.0	3.3

¹ The indexes are calculated differently from those for the occupation and industry groups. For a detailed description of the index calculation, see the

Monthly Labor Review Technical Note, "Estimation procedures for the Employment Cost Index," May 1982.

25. Specified compensation and wage adjustments from contract settlements, and effective wage adjustments, private industry collective bargaining situations covering 1,000 workers or more (in percent)

Measure	Annual average		Quarterly average							
	1985	1986	1985	1986				1987		
			IV	I	II	III	IV	IP	IIP	IIIP
Specified adjustments:										
Total compensation ¹ adjustments, ² settlements covering 5,000 workers or more:										
First year of contract	2.6	1.1	2.0	0.6	0.7	0.7	2.7	1.7	4.1	2.5
Annual rate over life of contract	2.7	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.6	1.2	2.4	2.4	3.9	2.1
Wage adjustments, settlements covering 1,000 workers or more:										
First year of contract	2.3	1.2	2.1	.8	1.3	.8	2.0	1.2	2.6	2.1
Annual rate over life of contract	2.7	1.8	1.9	1.5	2.0	1.5	2.1	1.8	2.9	2.0
Effective adjustments:										
Total effective wage adjustment ³	3.3	2.3	.5	.6	.7	.5	.5	.4	1.0	.9
From settlements reached in period7	.5	.1	.0	.2	.1	.2	.0	.1	.2
Deferred from settlements reached in earlier periods	1.8	1.7	.2	.4	.6	.5	.2	.3	.7	.6
From cost-of-living-adjustments clauses7	.2	.1	.2	.0	.0	.1	.1	.2	.1

¹ Compensation includes wages, salaries, and employers' cost of employee benefits when contract is negotiated.

² Adjustments are the net result of increases, decreases, and no changes in compensation or wages.

³ Because of rounding, total may not equal sum of parts.

26. Average specified compensation and wage adjustments, major collective bargaining settlements in private industry situations covering 1,000 workers or more during 4-quarter periods (in percent)

Measure	Average for four quarters ending--							
	1985	1986				1987		
	IV	I	II	III	IV	IP	IIP	IIIP
Specified total compensation adjustments, settlements covering 5,000 workers or more, all industries:								
First year of contract	2.6	2.3	1.4	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.9	2.8
Annual rate over life of contract	2.7	2.5	2.0	1.4	1.6	1.7	2.1	2.6
Specified wage adjustments, settlements covering 1,000 workers or more:								
All industries								
First year of contract	2.3	2.0	1.6	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.5	2.1
Contracts with COLA clauses	1.6	1.6	1.8	2.2	1.9	2.0	1.8	2.1
Contracts without COLA clauses	2.7	2.2	1.5	.8	.9	.9	1.4	2.0
Annual rate over life of contract	2.7	2.5	2.2	1.7	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.2
Contracts with COLA clauses	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.0	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.7
Contracts without COLA clauses	2.8	2.5	2.1	1.6	1.8	1.8	2.2	2.6
Manufacturing								
First year of contract8	.8	.1	-1.0	-1.2	-1.6	-.9	1.1
Contracts with COLA clauses8	.8	.7	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.3	2.2
Contracts without COLA clauses9	.9	-.4	-2.0	-2.8	-3.5	-2.9	-.2
Annual rate over life of contract	1.8	1.8	1.4	.3	.2	(²)	.2	1.0
Contracts with COLA clauses	2.1	2.1	2.0	1.1	.9	.8	.8	1.0
Contracts without COLA clauses	1.6	1.5	.9	-.1	-.2	-.6	-.3	1.1
Nonmanufacturing								
First year of contract	3.3	2.8	2.6	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.5
Contracts with COLA clauses	3.6	3.5	3.4	2.7	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.1
Contracts without COLA clauses	3.3	2.7	2.4	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.6
Annual rate over life of contract	3.3	3.0	2.8	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.8
Contracts with COLA clauses	3.6	3.6	3.3	2.5	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.4
Contracts without COLA clauses	3.3	2.8	2.6	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.8	2.9
Construction								
First year of contract	1.5	1.6	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.4	2.7	3.0
Contracts with COLA clauses	(¹)	(¹)	1.1	1.4	1.4	1.6	3.7	(¹)
Contracts without COLA clauses	(¹)	(¹)	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.4	2.7	(¹)
Annual rate over life of contract	2.1	2.2	2.5	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.9	3.2
Contracts with COLA clauses	(¹)	(¹)	1.2	1.6	1.6	1.4	3.8	(¹)
Contracts without COLA clauses	(¹)	(¹)	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.6	2.9	(¹)

¹ Data do not meet publication standards.

P = preliminary.

² Between -0.05 and 0.05 percent.

27. Average effective wage adjustments, private industry collective bargaining situations covering 1,000 workers or more during 4-quarter periods (in percent)

Effective wage adjustment	Average for four quarters ending--						
	1986				1987		
	I	II	III	IV	IP	IIP	IIIP
For all workers:¹							
Total	3.1	2.9	2.3	2.3	2.0	2.2	2.6
From settlements reached in period6	.5	.5	.5	.4	.3	.5
Deferred from settlements reached in earlier period	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.7
From cost-of-living-adjustments clauses8	.7	.2	.2	.1	.3	.4
For workers receiving changes:							
Total	4.0	3.8	3.1	2.8	2.5	2.8	3.2
From settlements reached in period	2.9	2.5	1.7	1.6	1.2	1.0	1.9
Deferred from settlements reached in earlier period	3.5	3.4	3.8	3.9	3.7	3.5	3.3
From cost-of-living-adjustments clauses	2.5	2.0	1.0	1.0	.6	1.8	2.3

¹ Because of rounding, total may not equal sum of parts.

P = preliminary.

28. Specified compensation and wage adjustments from contract settlements, and effective wage adjustments, State and local government collective bargaining situations covering 1,000 workers or more (in percent)

Measure	Annual average		
	1985	1986	1987 ^P
Specified adjustments:			
Total compensation ¹ adjustments, ² settlements covering 5,000 workers or more:			
First year of contract	4.2	6.2	4.9
Annual rate over life of contract	5.1	6.0	4.8
Wage adjustments, settlements covering 1,000 workers or more:			
First year of contract	4.6	5.7	4.9
Annual rate over life of contract	5.4	5.7	5.1
Effective adjustments:			
Total effective wage adjustment ³	5.7	5.5	4.9
From settlements reached in period	4.1	2.4	2.6
Deferred from settlements reached in earlier periods	1.6	3.0	2.2
From cost-of-living-adjustment clauses	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)

¹ Compensation includes wages, salaries, and employers' cost of employee benefits when contract is negotiated.
² Adjustments are the net result of increases, decreases, and no changes in compensation or wages.

³ Because of rounding, total may not equal sum of parts.
⁴ Less than 0.05 percent.
^P = preliminary.

29. Work stoppages involving 1,000 workers or more

Measure	Annual totals		1986	1987											
	1986	1987	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Number of stoppages:															
Beginning in period	69	46	1	2	5	3	2	3	8	6	3	7	1	6	0
In effect during period	72	51	6	7	7	5	5	7	12	14	11	15	12	11	5
Workers involved:															
Beginning in period (in thousands)	533.0	174.4	3.0	7.3	37.6	12.2	2.7	7.0	16.1	14.1	18.4	45.9	1.3	11.8	.0
In effect during period (in thousands)	899.5	377.7	49.4	47.6	41.6	16.2	8.9	13.9	25.8	31.1	36.0	71.9	53.7	22.2	8.9
Days idle:															
Number (in thousands)	11,8	4,480.7	933.2	828.6	194.1	104.4	151.3	201.2	278.0	471.0	361.4	1,155.1	353.3	222.9	159.4
Percent of estimated working time ¹05	.02	.04	.04	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.02	.02	.05	.02	.01	.01

¹ Agricultural and government employees are included in the total employed and total working time: private household, forestry, and fishery employees are excluded. An explanation of the measurement of idleness as a percentage of the total time worked is found in "'Total economy' measure of strike idleness," *Monthly Labor Review*, October 1968,

pp. 54-56.
 - Data not available.

30. Consumer Price Index for All Urban Consumers: U.S. city average, by expenditure category and commodity or service group; and CPI for Urban Wage Earners and Clerical Workers, all items

(1967 = 100, unless otherwise indicated)

Series	Annual average		1987												
	1986	1987	1987												
			Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
CONSUMER PRICE INDEX FOR ALL URBAN CONSUMERS:															
All items	328.4	340.4	331.1	333.1	334.4	335.9	337.7	338.7	340.1	340.8	342.7	344.4	345.3	345.8	345.7
All items (1957-59=100)	381.9	395.9	385.1	387.4	388.9	390.7	392.7	393.9	395.6	396.3	398.5	400.5	401.6	402.2	402.0
Food and beverages	311.8	324.5	317.0	320.5	321.6	321.6	322.5	324.0	325.4	325.1	325.4	326.4	326.9	326.7	328.1
Food	319.7	333.0	325.2	328.9	330.1	330.0	331.0	332.5	334.1	333.6	333.8	334.9	335.3	335.1	336.7
Food at home	305.3	318.5	310.2	315.2	316.6	315.8	316.9	318.8	320.4	319.1	319.0	319.8	319.9	319.0	321.0
Cereals and bakery products	325.8	337.2	329.5	331.5	332.7	333.2	335.6	336.5	337.0	338.4	338.8	338.9	339.5	341.2	343.2
Meats, poultry, fish, and eggs	275.1	290.8	286.3	289.2	286.4	286.5	285.9	288.5	290.7	293.1	294.6	296.6	294.7	292.8	290.3
Dairy products	258.4	264.8	262.2	263.3	264.7	263.7	263.2	264.3	263.7	263.2	264.2	266.0	267.2	267.2	266.8
Fruits and vegetables	328.7	357.7	328.5	344.3	355.2	352.5	360.6	365.7	372.8	359.3	352.5	352.5	353.8	352.6	370.5
Other foods at home	373.6	377.3	372.2	378.7	380.0	378.6	377.6	377.5	376.4	375.9	377.0	376.6	377.7	376.3	375.5
Sugar and sweets	411.1	418.5	411.8	415.8	415.8	417.2	417.4	417.7	419.3	418.8	418.6	420.6	420.9	419.9	418.6
Fats and oils	287.8	292.0	286.0	293.2	290.3	291.8	293.3	291.4	292.9	292.6	292.6	291.2	290.1	291.8	291.0
Nonalcoholic beverages	478.2	465.6	470.2	482.6	481.9	475.4	469.8	467.9	462.6	458.5	458.8	458.4	462.3	455.0	453.7
Other prepared foods	301.9	314.7	305.2	308.4	312.1	311.3	313.2	313.5	314.5	315.4	317.5	316.9	317.2	318.2	318.0
Food away from home	360.1	374.4	367.1	368.6	369.6	370.9	371.5	372.3	373.8	374.9	375.9	377.4	378.4	379.6	380.4
Alcoholic beverages	239.7	246.0	240.8	242.5	243.2	243.6	244.3	245.0	245.9	246.7	247.3	247.8	248.4	248.9	248.8
Housing	360.2	371.0	362.1	363.9	365.1	366.4	367.7	368.9	371.3	372.5	374.9	375.4	375.2	374.9	375.3
Shelter	402.9	421.8	410.4	412.3	414.0	415.9	418.0	419.2	420.2	422.1	425.1	426.2	428.6	429.2	430.4
Renters' costs (12/82=100)	121.9	128.1	124.2	125.3	125.8	126.4	127.1	127.3	127.9	129.3	130.1	129.8	129.4	129.2	129.1
Rent, residential	280.0	291.5	286.0	287.1	288.0	288.3	288.8	289.4	289.6	291.2	291.3	294.5	295.4	295.2	297.2
Other renters' costs	416.2	446.9	418.2	428.3	430.8	438.7	446.1	446.1	453.1	465.9	467.7	458.0	448.0	444.6	435.5
Homeowners' costs (12/82=100)	119.4	124.8	121.6	122.0	122.5	123.0	123.6	124.0	124.2	124.4	125.4	126.0	127.1	127.4	128.0
Owners' equivalent rent (12/82=100)	119.4	124.8	121.6	122.0	122.5	123.0	123.6	124.1	124.2	124.4	125.4	126.0	127.2	127.5	128.0
Household insurance (12/82=100)	119.2	124.0	121.6	121.8	122.0	122.2	122.4	123.0	123.6	124.5	125.1	125.5	125.8	125.9	126.2
Maintenance and repairs	373.8	387.3	380.0	382.1	381.9	383.4	382.4	381.9	385.0	392.4	391.3	390.5	390.9	393.2	392.7
Maintenance and repair services	430.9	444.8	433.1	437.7	436.1	439.4	437.1	435.3	440.5	452.8	451.5	450.8	451.0	453.1	451.8
Maintenance and repair commodities	269.7	280.4	278.3	277.7	278.8	278.5	278.7	279.6	280.2	281.9	281.3	280.4	281.0	283.1	283.6
Fuel and other utilities	384.7	380.7	371.0	373.7	374.8	374.9	374.2	377.5	387.6	388.1	391.1	389.8	381.3	378.2	376.9
Fuels	463.1	454.3	438.1	443.7	445.1	444.6	442.0	448.7	470.8	468.9	473.6	471.6	452.6	445.9	444.3
Fuel oil, coal, and bottled gas	501.5	503.0	460.6	487.9	503.2	500.6	500.5	497.7	498.6	497.9	502.3	501.0	507.0	518.8	520.2
Gas (piped) and electricity	446.7	438.8	425.3	428.8	428.9	428.7	425.9	433.3	456.8	454.8	459.4	457.4	436.6	428.4	426.6
Other utilities and public services	253.1	257.9	254.9	254.9	255.6	256.2	257.2	256.4	258.6	259.9	259.3	260.2	260.3	260.3	259.5
Household furnishings and operations	250.4	254.9	252.4	253.1	253.5	254.3	255.2	254.9	254.9	255.1	255.4	255.8	255.6	255.6	259.3
Housefurnishings	201.1	203.8	202.5	203.0	203.2	203.8	204.7	203.7	203.6	203.9	204.2	204.6	203.9	203.9	203.3
Housekeeping supplies	319.5	329.4	322.9	324.6	325.3	327.7	328.2	330.1	330.5	330.1	329.5	330.4	331.7	332.0	332.2
Housekeeping services	346.6	353.2	349.3	349.8	350.6	351.0	352.2	353.1	353.0	353.8	354.3	354.6	355.3	355.1	355.7
Apparel and upkeep	207.8	216.9	210.9	207.1	208.4	215.2	218.7	218.0	214.5	210.5	214.7	222.2	226.3	226.4	221.1
Apparel commodities	192.0	200.6	194.9	190.9	192.1	199.1	202.6	201.8	198.1	194.0	198.3	206.0	209.9	209.9	204.5
Men's and boys' apparel	200.0	205.6	202.3	199.2	199.9	203.5	205.6	207.1	205.3	203.0	204.1	208.4	211.0	211.9	208.6
Women's and girls' apparel	168.0	178.3	171.7	166.6	167.8	177.0	182.2	179.6	173.7	168.3	175.0	186.2	191.0	190.1	181.8
Infants' and toddlers' apparel	312.7	313.4	312.7	301.8	304.5	319.6	319.1	316.4	308.0	301.2	304.8	313.6	324.9	326.3	320.1
Footwear	211.2	217.8	214.0	209.9	211.0	216.5	219.2	220.8	218.8	214.3	215.9	219.1	222.4	223.9	222.3
Other apparel commodities	217.9	231.4	220.0	223.2	226.0	227.4	227.0	226.7	230.6	231.9	234.2	236.4	237.3	237.2	238.4
Apparel services	334.6	347.5	339.5	342.5	343.2	344.7	344.7	346.8	347.4	348.7	348.2	348.4	351.0	352.0	352.8
Transportation	307.5	316.8	304.8	308.5	310.0	310.6	313.3	314.6	316.7	318.5	320.2	320.4	321.9	324.1	323.3
Private transportation	299.5	308.5	295.9	299.8	301.3	301.9	304.8	306.3	308.6	310.5	312.0	312.1	313.8	316.0	315.1
New vehicles	224.1	231.8	231.7	232.3	229.9	229.2	229.9	230.6	231.2	231.8	231.0	230.6	233.0	235.7	235.9
New cars	224.4	232.5	232.2	233.0	230.2	229.4	230.4	231.3	232.0	232.7	231.2	231.6	233.8	236.6	236.6
Used cars	363.2	377.6	356.6	354.6	356.9	363.0	371.6	378.6	383.0	385.5	385.7	387.3	388.0	389.0	388.4
Motor fuel	292.1	303.9	261.9	275.8	288.1	290.0	297.2	299.7	306.0	311.2	319.5	318.4	315.2	315.2	310.6
Gasoline	291.4	303.4	261.2	275.1	287.5	289.4	296.7	299.3	305.5	310.8	319.1	317.9	314.6	314.5	309.8
Maintenance and repair	363.1	377.7	370.7	371.3	373.0	373.0	376.1	376.1	376.3	376.8	378.6	380.7	382.0	383.5	384.7
Other private transportation	303.9	318.9	312.0	314.9	314.0	314.4	315.1	315.9	317.6	318.8	318.6	319.7	324.1	326.9	326.8
Other private transportation commodities	201.6	202.8	200.4	202.2	201.8	202.3	200.8	202.3	202.3	201.6	202.6	204.2	205.0	204.2	203.9
Other private transportation services	333.9	352.9	344.5	347.7	346.7	347.0	348.6	349.1	351.3	353.2	352.6	353.5	359.1	363.1	363.1
Public transportation	426.4	441.4	437.5	438.9	439.8	441.4	440.8	439.6	438.1	438.3	442.8	445.1	442.0	444.8	445.3
Medical care	433.5	462.2	446.8	449.6	452.4	455.0	457.3	458.9	461.3	464.1	466.1	467.8	469.8	471.7	472.9
Medical care commodities	273.6	291.9	280.8	282.4	283.9	286.3	287.5	289.6	291.5	293.4	294.6	295.8	297.4	299.1	300.7
Medical care services	468.6	499.6	483.4	486.5	489.6	492.1	494.7	496.0	498.4	501.5	503.6	505.4	507.4	509.3	510.3
Professional services	390.9	416.8	401.0	403.7	406.8	409.6	412.5	413.9	416.7	418.9	420.6	422.8	424.4	425.6	426.5
Hospital and related services	237.4	253.9	245.0	246.7	248.1	249.0	250.1	251.0	251.8	254.6	256.4	257.1	258.8	261.1	262.0
Entertainment	274.1	283.2	277.4	278.3	278.7	279.8	281.3	282.0	282.3	283.5	283.9	285.2	287.1	288.1	288.5
Entertainment commodities	265.9	272.2	267.4	268.1	268.1	269.9	270.8	271.7	271.8	272.8	272.5	272.6	274.0	276.5	277.3
Entertainment services	286.3	299.1	292.2	293.3	29										

30. Continued— Consumer Price Index for All Urban Consumers: U.S. city average, by expenditure category and commodity or service group; and CPI for Urban Wage Earners and Clerical Workers, all items

(1967 = 100, unless otherwise indicated)

Series	Annual average		1987												
	1986	1987	1987												
			Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
All items	328.4	340.4	331.1	333.1	334.4	335.9	337.7	338.7	340.1	340.8	342.7	344.4	345.3	345.8	345.7
Commodities	283.9	293.0	284.2	286.3	287.7	289.5	291.4	292.3	292.8	292.8	294.2	296.1	297.3	297.9	297.2
Food and beverages	311.8	324.5	317.0	320.5	321.6	321.6	322.5	324.0	325.4	325.1	325.4	326.4	326.9	326.7	328.1
Commodities less food and beverages	264.7	271.6	262.4	263.7	265.2	267.9	270.4	270.9	270.9	271.0	273.0	275.4	276.9	278.0	276.1
Nondurables less food and beverages	265.2	274.3	260.0	261.8	265.4	269.7	273.2	273.5	273.2	272.8	276.6	280.7	282.5	283.0	279.7
Apparel commodities	192.0	200.6	194.9	190.9	192.1	199.1	202.6	201.8	198.1	194.0	198.3	206.0	209.9	209.9	204.5
Nondurables less food, beverages, and apparel	307.3	318.9	298.0	304.8	310.3	311.9	315.0	316.4	319.1	322.0	325.2	325.7	325.4	326.2	325.1
Durables	270.2	274.3	271.7	272.4	271.2	271.7	273.0	273.6	274.2	274.9	274.6	276.0	277.8	277.6	
Services	400.5	417.1	406.6	408.6	409.9	411.2	412.8	414.2	416.7	418.3	420.7	422.4	423.1	423.4	424.0
Rent of shelter (12/82 = 100)	120.2	125.9	122.5	123.1	123.6	124.1	124.8	125.1	125.4	126.0	126.9	127.2	128.0	128.1	128.5
Household services less rent of shelter (12/82 = 100)	112.8	113.1	110.8	111.3	111.5	111.5	111.4	112.3	114.8	115.1	115.8	115.5	113.5	112.3	112.3
Transportation services	356.3	373.5	366.2	368.5	368.5	369.0	370.5	370.5	371.6	372.9	373.8	375.2	378.1	381.3	381.7
Medical care services	468.6	499.6	483.4	486.5	489.6	492.1	494.7	496.0	498.4	501.5	503.6	505.4	507.4	509.3	510.3
Other services	331.8	349.5	340.8	342.2	343.1	343.7	345.0	345.9	346.6	347.7	349.2	355.6	357.9	358.1	358.6
Special indexes:															
All items less food	328.6	340.1	330.6	332.2	333.6	335.4	337.3	338.3	339.6	340.5	342.7	344.6	345.6	346.2	345.7
All items less shelter	306.7	317.0	308.3	310.3	311.5	312.9	314.6	315.6	317.1	317.4	319.0	320.9	321.4	321.9	321.3
All items less homeowners' costs (12/82 = 100)	111.2	115.1	111.9	112.7	113.1	113.6	114.2	114.6	115.1	115.3	115.9	116.5	116.6	116.8	116.6
All items less medical care	322.6	333.8	324.8	326.7	328.0	329.4	331.1	332.2	333.5	334.1	336.0	337.7	338.6	339.0	338.8
Commodities less food	263.4	270.2	261.2	262.5	264.0	266.5	268.9	269.4	269.5	269.6	271.6	273.8	275.4	276.3	274.5
Nondurables less food	262.2	270.9	257.5	259.2	262.6	266.4	268.6	270.0	269.8	269.5	273.1	276.8	278.4	278.9	276.0
Nondurables less food and apparel	297.1	307.3	288.9	294.9	299.6	301.0	303.7	305.0	307.4	309.9	312.7	313.2	313.1	313.9	312.9
Nondurables	289.6	300.7	289.5	292.1	294.6	296.8	299.1	300.0	300.5	300.1	302.3	304.9	306.0	306.2	305.2
Services less rent of shelter (12/82 = 100)	118.7	123.1	120.2	120.8	121.1	121.3	121.6	122.1	123.2	123.7	124.2	124.9	124.6	124.6	124.6
Services less medical care	390.6	405.7	395.8	397.6	398.8	400.0	401.5	402.9	405.4	406.8	409.3	410.9	411.5	411.7	412.2
Energy	370.3	371.7	342.4	352.2	359.2	360.0	362.4	366.9	380.6	382.4	388.9	387.4	376.7	373.5	370.4
All items less energy	327.0	340.4	332.6	334.0	334.9	336.5	338.2	339.0	339.5	340.1	341.6	343.6	345.4	346.2	346.3
All items less food and energy	327.1	340.5	332.8	333.6	334.5	336.4	338.3	338.9	339.1	339.9	341.7	343.6	345.1	347.0	346.8
Commodities less food and energy	263.2	271.0	265.8	265.5	265.7	268.4	270.3	270.7	270.1	269.6	270.9	273.6	275.6	276.6	275.1
Energy commodities	322.4	334.7	290.5	306.1	319.2	320.9	328.0	330.2	336.4	341.4	349.9	348.7	346.0	346.9	342.5
Services less energy	397.1	415.9	405.7	407.5	408.9	410.4	412.3	413.2	414.1	416.0	418.3	420.2	422.6	423.5	424.3
Purchasing power of the consumer dollar:															
1967 = \$1.00	30.5	29.4	30.2	30.0	29.9	29.8	29.6	29.5	29.4	29.3	29.2	29.0	29.0	28.9	28.9
1957-59 = \$1.00	26.2	25.3	26.0	25.8	25.7	25.6	25.5	25.4	25.3	25.2	25.1	25.0	24.9	24.9	24.9
CONSUMER PRICE INDEX FOR URBAN WAGE EARNERS AND CLERICAL WORKERS:															
All items	323.4	335.0	325.7	327.7	329.0	330.5	332.3	333.4	334.9	335.6	337.4	339.1	340.0	340.4	340.2
All items (1957-59 = 100)	376.1	389.7	378.8	381.1	382.6	384.4	386.5	387.8	389.5	390.3	392.4	394.3	395.4	395.9	395.7
Food and beverages	311.6	324.2	316.8	320.3	321.3	321.2	322.1	323.5	325.0	324.8	325.1	326.2	326.6	326.5	327.5
Food	319.2	332.4	324.8	328.4	329.5	329.4	330.2	331.8	333.4	333.1	333.4	334.5	334.8	334.6	335.9
Food at home	303.7	316.7	308.7	313.4	314.6	313.8	314.9	316.8	318.5	317.5	317.4	318.3	318.3	317.5	318.9
Cereals and bakery products	324.2	335.7	328.0	330.0	331.2	331.6	334.1	334.8	335.4	336.8	337.1	337.4	338.1	339.6	341.7
Meats, poultry, fish, and eggs	274.4	290.1	286.6	288.5	285.8	285.6	285.2	287.9	290.0	292.5	293.9	293.1	294.3	292.2	289.4
Dairy products	257.1	263.5	260.9	262.0	263.6	262.4	262.0	263.1	262.5	261.9	262.9	264.7	266.0	265.9	265.3
Fruits and vegetables	323.8	351.5	323.4	338.2	348.2	346.0	353.6	358.5	366.7	354.1	347.1	347.1	346.7	347.4	364.0
Other foods at home	373.5	377.7	372.2	378.9	380.0	378.8	377.8	377.9	376.8	376.3	377.5	377.1	378.1	376.8	375.9
Sugar and sweets	410.5	417.8	411.2	414.9	414.8	416.5	416.5	417.1	418.7	418.3	419.3	420.1	420.4	419.1	417.8
Fats and oils	287.2	291.4	285.5	292.6	289.9	293.9	291.3	292.6	290.7	292.2	291.9	290.6	289.7	291.3	290.5
Nonalcoholic beverages	478.1	467.4	470.3	483.7	482.5	476.9	471.3	470.0	464.5	460.5	461.0	460.9	464.6	457.5	456.0
Other prepared foods	303.2	315.9	306.6	309.7	313.3	312.6	314.5	314.9	315.8	316.7	318.7	318.1	318.3	319.4	319.2
Food away from home	363.4	377.9	370.5	372.2	373.2	374.3	374.8	375.6	377.1	378.2	379.2	380.9	381.9	383.0	383.8
Alcoholic beverages	242.5	248.7	243.9	245.4	246.2	246.5	247.2	247.8	248.6	249.2	249.8	250.2	250.9	251.5	251.3
Housing	353.2	363.1	354.8	356.3	357.5	358.8	360.0	361.1	363.5	364.6	367.0	367.5	367.1	366.9	367.2
Shelter	390.7	408.7	398.1	399.6	401.2	403.2	405.1	406.3	406.9	408.7	411.7	413.0	415.4	416.0	417.1
Renters' costs (12/84 = 100)	109.5	114.6	111.6	112.3	112.7	113.3	113.8	114.0	114.2	115.3	116.0	116.2	116.0	115.9	115.9
Rent, residential	279.1	290.3	285.1	286.1	287.0	287.3	287.8	288.3	288.5	290.0	291.9	293.2	294.0	294.1	295.8
Other renters' costs	416.0	447.9	417.3	424.9	427.6	439.0	448.1	449.2	453.1	467.0	468.8	462.0	451.7	447.7	435.1
Homeowners' costs (12/84 = 100)	108.8	113.8	110.8	111.1	111.6	112.1	112.7	113.1	113.2	113.4	114.3	114.8	115.9	116.2	116.6
Owners' equivalent rent (12/84 = 100)	108.8	113.7	110.8	111.1	111.5	112.1	112.7	113.1	113.2	113.4	114.3	114.8	115.9	116.2	116.6
Household insurance (12/84 = 100)	109.4	114.1	111.7	111.9	112.1	112.4	112.5	113.1	113.8	114.6	115.1	115.5	115.8	115.9	116.1
Maintenance and repairs	369.4	382.0	374.6	377.3	376.9	378.5	378.0	378.0	380.9	386.4	385.7	384.6	384.8	386.6	386.0
Maintenance and repair services	425.3	441.5	428.1	434.5	432.5	436.8	435.7	433.2	438.3	449.8	448.7	447.9	446.5	448.2	446.2
Maintenance and repair commodities	262.5	269.8	268.0	267.6	268.4	267.9	267.9	269.7	270.5	270.7	270.4	269.4	270.6	272.1	272.6
Fuel and other utilities	385.4	380.8	371.1	373.9	374.9	375.1	374.3	377.5	388.0	388.3	391.5	390.0	381.1	378.1	376.9
Fuels	462.7	452.9	437.3	442.7	443.7	443.2	440.7	446.9	470.0	467.6	472.6	470.5	450.5	444.0	442.4
Fuel oil, coal, and bottled gas	504.5	503.5	463.5	489.3	503.9	501.4	501.1	498.2	499.4	498.4	507.5	507.5	507.2	519.1	520.3
Gas (piped) and electricity	445.6	437.0	423.8	427.4	427.3	427.0	424.4	431.2	455.4	453.0	457.8	455.7	434.2	426.4	424.7
Other utilities and public services	253.8	258.8	255.3	255.6	256.5	25									

30. Continued— Consumer Price Index for All Urban Consumers: U.S. city average, by expenditure category and commodity or service group; and CPI for Urban Wage Earners and Clerical Workers, all items

(1967 = 100, unless otherwise indicated)

Series	Annual average		1987												
	1986	1987	1987												
			Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Apparel commodities	191.5	200.0	194.5	190.5	191.5	198.3	202.1	201.2	197.5	193.6	197.4	205.0	209.3	209.3	204.2
Men's and boys' apparel	199.7	204.6	202.1	198.6	198.9	201.9	204.3	205.7	204.0	201.7	203.1	207.2	210.4	211.2	208.3
Women's and girls' apparel	169.4	180.1	173.1	168.2	169.2	178.6	184.4	181.8	175.8	170.4	176.6	188.0	192.9	192.0	183.8
Infants' and toddlers' apparel	329.4	330.8	329.3	319.1	322.2	337.3	336.3	334.7	324.2	318.3	320.9	330.5	344.1	344.3	337.7
Footwear	211.8	218.9	214.9	211.1	212.4	217.7	220.0	221.3	219.4	215.5	217.2	219.9	223.7	225.1	224.0
Other apparel commodities	206.1	217.7	207.8	210.1	212.1	214.1	213.9	213.1	217.0	217.6	219.4	222.6	223.9	224.0	224.2
Apparel services	332.0	344.1	336.6	339.7	340.5	341.8	341.6	343.3	343.8	344.8	344.2	344.6	347.2	348.3	349.0
Transportation	307.6	317.7	304.2	308.2	309.9	310.8	313.9	315.5	317.9	319.7	321.4	321.7	323.2	325.2	324.4
Private transportation	301.5	311.3	297.5	301.6	303.4	304.2	307.4	309.1	311.7	313.6	315.2	315.4	317.1	319.1	318.2
New vehicles	223.3	230.5	230.7	231.2	228.9	228.2	229.0	229.5	229.9	230.3	229.5	229.2	231.6	234.4	234.7
New cars	223.6	231.4	231.4	232.0	229.3	228.5	229.5	230.3	230.9	231.6	230.9	230.4	232.7	235.4	235.5
Used cars	363.2	377.6	356.6	354.7	357.0	363.1	371.7	378.7	383.0	385.6	387.1	387.7	387.7	388.1	388.1
Motor fuel	293.1	305.5	263.2	277.7	289.5	291.3	298.7	301.2	307.6	313.0	321.4	320.0	316.7	316.8	312.0
Gasoline	292.5	305.0	262.5	277.1	288.9	290.7	298.3	300.7	307.2	312.6	321.0	319.6	316.1	316.1	311.2
Maintenance and repair	364.7	379.5	372.3	373.4	375.1	374.9	377.9	378.1	378.3	378.8	380.6	382.6	383.7	384.8	385.9
Other private transportation	302.2	316.1	309.9	312.6	311.5	311.7	312.1	312.9	314.7	315.8	315.4	316.4	321.5	324.0	324.2
Other private transportation commodities	203.9	204.7	202.8	204.3	204.0	204.3	202.6	204.0	204.4	203.8	204.7	206.0	206.8	205.8	206.2
Other private transportation services	330.9	348.6	341.0	344.0	342.6	342.9	344.1	344.6	346.9	348.7	347.7	348.5	355.2	359.1	359.1
Public transportation	416.3	429.4	425.8	426.7	427.2	428.7	428.9	428.9	426.9	426.9	430.7	433.0	430.4	432.3	432.6
Medical care	431.0	460.1	443.9	446.7	449.7	452.3	454.9	456.6	459.3	462.1	464.2	466.2	468.4	470.0	471.3
Medical care commodities	272.8	290.6	279.8	281.4	282.9	285.1	286.2	288.2	290.5	292.1	293.2	294.4	296.1	297.7	299.4
Medical care services	465.7	497.4	480.1	483.2	486.5	489.2	492.1	493.6	496.2	499.4	501.7	503.9	506.1	507.7	508.7
Professional services	391.4	417.7	401.5	404.2	407.4	410.2	413.3	414.7	417.5	419.7	421.5	424.0	426.5	426.5	427.5
Hospital and related services	234.2	250.3	241.6	243.2	244.6	245.4	246.5	247.4	248.2	250.9	252.8	253.5	255.4	257.6	258.5
Entertainment	268.7	277.8	272.3	272.9	273.4	274.4	276.0	276.9	277.0	278.2	278.5	279.7	281.4	282.3	282.8
Entertainment commodities	259.5	266.2	261.7	262.2	262.3	263.7	264.7	265.9	265.9	266.8	266.8	266.9	267.9	269.9	271.0
Entertainment services	286.0	298.9	292.0	292.7	293.9	294.2	296.6	297.2	297.4	299.0	299.9	302.4	305.1	304.6	304.3
Other goods and services	341.7	361.3	349.5	352.8	354.6	355.1	356.0	356.9	357.8	360.5	361.9	368.3	369.8	370.5	371.2
Tobacco products	350.7	375.8	357.2	364.7	368.0	369.2	370.0	370.5	372.3	379.7	380.5	382.1	383.4	384.1	385.5
Personal care	289.0	297.0	291.3	293.2	294.1	293.9	294.7	296.4	296.4	297.3	298.2	299.1	299.9	300.1	300.6
Toilet goods and personal care appliances	288.6	295.6	290.3	292.0	293.2	292.7	293.6	294.9	294.8	296.1	296.2	297.4	298.4	298.6	298.7
Personal care services	289.8	299.0	292.7	294.9	295.4	295.5	296.2	298.4	298.8	299.1	300.4	301.5	302.0	302.3	303.3
Personal and educational expenses	430.7	463.2	450.0	452.0	453.7	454.3	455.5	456.1	457.3	458.4	460.6	475.3	477.5	478.6	479.2
School books and supplies	384.8	415.3	397.1	406.5	409.3	409.6	410.1	410.5	410.6	410.7	411.4	423.7	427.0	427.0	427.1
Personal and educational services	442.0	475.9	462.8	464.3	465.9	466.6	467.8	468.5	469.8	471.0	473.4	488.5	490.6	491.8	492.5
All items	323.4	335.0	325.7	327.7	329.0	330.5	332.3	333.4	334.9	335.6	337.4	339.1	340.0	340.4	340.2
Commodities	283.1	292.4	283.3	285.5	287.0	288.6	290.7	291.6	292.4	292.5	293.9	295.7	296.8	297.4	296.6
Food and beverages	311.6	324.2	316.8	320.3	321.3	321.2	322.1	323.5	325.0	324.8	325.1	326.2	326.6	326.5	327.5
Commodities less food and beverages	264.2	271.4	261.8	262.9	264.6	262.7	269.9	270.6	270.9	271.2	273.3	275.4	276.9	277.8	276.1
Nondurables less food and beverages	265.6	275.2	259.9	262.3	266.0	270.0	273.7	274.2	274.1	274.1	277.9	281.7	283.4	283.9	280.7
Apparel commodities	191.5	200.0	194.5	190.5	191.5	198.3	202.1	201.2	197.5	193.6	197.4	205.0	209.3	209.3	204.2
Nondurables less food, beverages, and apparel	306.7	319.2	296.9	304.4	310.2	311.5	315.0	316.5	319.5	322.8	326.2	326.5	326.0	326.8	325.4
Durables	264.0	268.3	265.0	265.4	264.5	265.3	266.8	267.8	268.5	269.1	269.0	270.2	271.8	271.9	
Services	395.7	411.7	401.5	403.3	404.5	405.9	407.3	408.8	411.4	412.8	415.3	416.9	417.6	417.9	418.4
Rent of shelter (12/84=100)	109.0	114.0	111.1	111.5	111.9	112.5	113.0	113.4	113.5	114.0	114.9	115.2	115.9	116.1	116.4
Household services less rent of shelter (12/84=100)	103.9	104.0	101.8	102.3	102.5	102.5	102.4	103.2	105.7	105.9	106.6	106.3	104.2	103.4	103.1
Transportation services	350.1	366.4	359.5	361.7	361.3	361.6	363.2	363.5	364.7	365.9	366.3	367.6	371.6	374.6	374.9
Medical care services	465.7	497.4	480.1	483.2	486.5	489.2	492.1	493.6	496.2	499.4	501.7	503.9	506.1	507.7	508.7
Other services	326.9	343.7	335.1	336.4	337.5	338.0	339.4	340.3	340.9	342.0	343.3	349.7	351.8	352.2	352.5
Special indexes:															
All items less food	323.0	334.1	324.4	326.0	327.4	329.3	331.3	332.3	333.7	334.6	336.8	338.5	339.6	340.2	339.6
All items less shelter	305.1	315.3	306.3	308.4	309.6	311.0	312.8	313.9	315.6	315.9	317.4	319.2	319.7	320.1	319.6
All items less homeowners' costs (12/84=100)	102.8	106.4	103.4	104.0	104.5	104.9	105.5	105.9	106.4	106.6	107.1	107.7	107.8	108.0	107.8
All items less medical care	318.0	328.9	319.8	321.8	323.0	324.5	326.2	327.3	328.8	329.3	331.1	332.8	333.7	334.1	333.8
Commodities less food	262.9	270.0	260.4	261.8	263.5	265.9	268.5	269.2	269.5	269.8	271.8	273.8	275.3	276.2	274.5
Nondurables less food	262.7	271.8	257.6	259.9	263.3	266.9	270.4	270.8	270.9	270.9	274.4	277.8	279.4	279.9	277.0
Nondurables less food and apparel	296.9	307.8	288.2	294.8	299.7	300.9	303.9	305.3	307.9	310.8	313.8	314.1	313.8	314.6	313.4
Nondurables	289.8	301.0	289.6	292.5	294.9	296.9	299.2	300.1	300.9	300.8	302.9	305.3	306.4	306.6	305.5
Services less rent of shelter (12/84=100)	107.1	110.8	108.3	108.8	109.0	109.2	109.5	109.9	111.1	111.5	112.0	112.5	112.2	112.2	112.2
Services less medical care	385.9	400.3	390.7	392.5	393.5	394.7	396.1	397.5	400.1	401.4	403.8	405.4	405.9	406.2	406.6
Energy	367.5	369.9	339.2	349.8	356.9	357.7	360.8	364.9	378.6	380.6	387.5	385.8	375.2	372.4	369.0
All items less energy	321.2	334.1	326.5	327.8	328.7	330.2	331.9	332.8	333.2	333.8	335.2	337.2	339.1	339.8	339.9
All items less food and energy	320.3	333.1	325.6	326.3	327.1	329.0	330.9	331.6	331.8	332.6	334.2	336.4	338.6	339.6	339.4
Commodities less food and energy	259.8	267.4	262.1	261.7	262.0	264.6	266.6	267.1	266.7	266.3	267.5	270.0	272.0	273.0	271.7
Energy commodities	322.9	335.9	291.1	307.2	319.9	321.5	328.9	331.2	337.7	343.1	351.8	350.4	347.3	348.1	343.4
Services less energy	391.9	410.1	400.2	401.9	403.2	404.7	406.5	407.5	408.2	410.1	412.3	414.2	416.8	417.8	418.6
Purchasing power of the consumer dollar:															

31. Consumer Price Index: U.S. city average and available local area data: all items

(1967 = 100, unless otherwise indicated)

Area ¹	Pricing schedule ²	Other index base	All Urban Consumers								Urban Wage Earners					
			1986	1987							1986	1987				
			Dec.	Jan.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Dec.	Jan.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
U.S. city average	M	-	331.1	333.1	342.7	344.4	345.3	345.8	345.7	325.7	327.7	337.4	339.1	340.0	340.4	340.2
Region and area size³																
Northeast urban	M	12/77	177.2	178.4	184.1	185.1	185.9	186.2	186.3	174.3	175.5	181.2	182.1	183.0	183.3	183.3
Size A - More than 1,200,000	M	12/77	174.7	176.1	182.1	183.5	184.1	184.3	184.5	170.3	171.6	177.7	179.0	179.7	179.8	179.9
Size B - 500,000 to 1,200,000	M	12/77	178.3	179.3	183.3	183.2	185.7	186.7	185.9	175.1	176.2	180.3	180.2	182.4	183.5	182.7
Size C - 50,000 to 500,000	M	12/77	186.3	187.1	192.5	192.2	192.3	192.6	192.9	190.5	191.4	196.6	197.0	197.2	197.3	197.6
North Central urban	M	12/77	177.1	178.3	184.0	184.8	184.6	184.7	184.3	173.0	174.3	179.8	180.6	180.5	180.6	180.2
Size A - More than 1,200,000	M	12/77	181.0	182.1	188.2	189.2	188.5	188.8	188.1	175.3	176.3	182.3	183.3	182.6	182.8	182.2
Size B - 360,000 to 1,200,000	M	12/77	176.1	177.2	182.0	182.4	182.7	182.6	182.7	171.5	172.7	177.4	177.8	178.3	178.3	178.2
Size C - 50,000 to 360,000	M	12/77	171.9	173.9	179.6	180.8	181.4	181.3	180.8	168.4	170.3	175.5	176.6	177.3	177.3	177.0
Size D - Nonmetropolitan (less than 50,000)	M	12/77	171.6	172.5	177.1	176.7	177.1	177.2	177.8	172.7	173.7	178.5	178.3	178.8	179.0	179.4
South urban	M	12/77	177.9	178.7	183.2	184.0	184.7	185.1	184.8	176.5	177.5	182.1	183.0	183.6	184.0	183.8
Size A - More than 1,200,000	M	12/77	177.9	178.6	184.0	184.7	185.4	186.0	185.5	177.0	177.8	183.3	184.2	184.8	185.4	185.0
Size B - 450,000 to 1,200,000	M	12/77	179.9	180.8	184.8	186.3	186.7	187.0	186.9	175.6	176.5	180.6	182.1	182.5	182.7	182.6
Size C - 50,000 to 450,000	M	12/77	176.4	177.5	181.7	182.0	182.6	183.0	182.6	176.7	177.9	182.5	182.9	183.3	183.8	183.4
Size D - Nonmetropolitan (less than 50,000)	M	12/77	176.6	177.4	180.0	181.1	182.1	182.9	182.9	177.0	177.9	180.9	181.9	182.8	183.5	183.4
West urban	M	12/77	179.6	180.6	185.6	186.7	187.4	187.4	187.8	177.0	177.9	183.0	183.9	184.6	184.7	185.0
Size A - More than 1,250,000	M	12/77	182.6	183.6	189.2	190.3	191.0	190.8	191.1	177.5	178.4	183.9	184.9	185.6	185.4	185.8
Size B - 330,000 to 1,250,000	M	12/77	178.9	179.9	184.3	185.8	187.0	186.7	187.1	179.0	180.0	184.6	185.9	187.1	186.9	187.1
Size C - 50,000 to 330,000	M	12/77	172.9	173.8	177.1	177.9	178.5	179.7	180.0	171.1	171.9	175.2	175.9	176.5	177.7	178.0
Size classes:																
A	M	12/77	100.0	100.6	103.8	104.4	104.6	104.8	104.7	100.0	100.6	103.9	104.5	104.7	104.8	104.7
B	M	12/77	178.7	179.6	183.9	184.8	185.8	186.0	185.9	175.5	176.5	180.8	181.7	182.6	182.9	182.7
C	M	12/77	176.5	177.7	182.4	182.9	183.4	183.8	183.6	176.2	177.5	182.2	182.9	183.4	183.7	183.5
D	M	12/77	175.4	176.1	179.7	180.3	181.0	181.6	181.8	175.9	176.7	180.7	181.3	182.1	182.6	182.8
Selected local areas																
Chicago, IL- Northwestern IN	M	-	331.0	334.3	348.8	349.9	343.9	345.7	345.7	315.8	319.1	332.5	333.5	328.2	329.4	329.5
Los Angeles-Long Beach, Anaheim, CA	M	-	332.9	335.1	346.7	348.6	350.4	349.3	350.2	325.3	327.4	338.8	340.4	342.1	341.1	342.0
New York, NY- Northeastern NJ	M	-	329.1	331.6	343.7	346.4	347.4	348.2	348.6	320.1	322.3	334.4	337.4	338.3	339.1	339.0
Philadelphia, PA-NJ	M	-	325.2	327.7	342.2	342.8	344.1	342.6	343.5	326.6	329.1	343.9	344.2	345.8	344.6	345.6
San Francisco- Oakland, CA	M	-	343.6	345.8	356.9	358.5	359.9	360.5	360.9	337.0	339.0	349.9	351.4	353.2	353.9	354.4
Baltimore, MD	1	-	-	334.1	-	346.0	-	346.2	-	-	331.1	-	344.3	-	343.6	-
Boston, MA	1	-	-	333.2	-	347.2	-	348.5	-	-	330.9	-	345.5	-	346.7	-
Cleveland, OH	1	-	351.8	352.9	-	367.5	-	366.9	-	328.9	330.1	-	343.4	-	343.5	-
Miami, FL	1	11/77	-	177.2	-	181.3	-	183.4	-	-	177.6	-	181.6	-	183.7	-
St. Louis, MO-IL	1	-	-	326.7	-	339.5	-	336.0	-	-	321.9	-	335.7	-	331.7	-
Washington, DC-MD-VA	1	-	-	335.7	-	347.8	-	349.7	-	-	337.7	-	350.8	-	351.1	-
Dallas-Ft. Worth, TX	2	-	342.8	-	356.0	-	360.5	-	357.4	335.0	-	349.5	-	353.8	-	350.8
Detroit, MI	2	-	324.7	-	333.5	-	339.3	-	334.6	314.0	-	322.7	-	327.8	-	323.4
Houston, TX	2	-	331.0	-	344.0	-	346.5	-	344.0	328.5	-	341.7	-	345.1	-	342.9
Pittsburgh, PA	2	-	333.0	-	341.7	-	344.1	-	344.9	311.8	-	320.3	-	322.2	-	323.0

¹ Area is the Consolidated Metropolitan Statistical Area (CMSA), exclusive of farms and military. Area definitions are those established by the Office of Management and Budget in 1983, except for Boston-Lawrence-Salem, MA-NH Area (excludes Monroe County); and Milwaukee, WI Area (includes only the Milwaukee MSA). Definitions do not include revisions made since 1983.

² Foods, fuels, and several other items priced every month in all areas; most other goods and services priced as indicated.

M - Every month.

1 - January, March, May, July, September, and November.

2 - February, April, June, August, October, and December.

³ Regions are defined as the four Census regions.

- Data not available.

NOTE: Local area CPI indexes are byproducts of the national CPI program. Because each local index is a small subset of the national index, it has a smaller sample size and is, therefore, subject to substantially more sampling and other measurement error than the national index. As a result, local area indexes show greater volatility than the national index, although their long-term trends are quite similar. Therefore, the Bureau of Labor Statistics strongly urges users to consider adopting the national average CPI for use in escalator clauses.

32. Annual data: Consumer Price Index all items and major groups

Series	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Consumer Price Index for All Urban Consumers:									
All items:									
Index	217.4	246.8	272.4	289.1	298.4	311.1	322.2	328.4	340.4
Percent change	11.3	13.5	10.4	6.1	3.2	4.3	3.6	1.9	3.7
Food and beverages:									
Index	228.5	248.0	267.3	278.2	284.4	295.1	302.0	311.8	324.5
Percent change	10.8	8.5	7.8	4.1	2.2	3.8	2.3	3.2	4.1
Housing:									
Index	227.6	263.3	293.5	314.7	323.1	336.5	349.9	360.2	371.0
Percent change	12.2	15.7	11.5	7.2	2.7	4.1	4.0	2.9	3.0
Apparel and upkeep:									
Index	166.6	178.4	186.9	191.8	196.5	200.2	206.0	207.8	216.9
Percent change	4.4	7.1	4.8	2.6	2.5	1.9	2.9	.9	4.4
Transportation:									
Index	212.0	249.7	280.0	291.5	298.4	311.7	319.9	307.5	316.8
Percent change	14.3	17.8	12.1	4.1	2.4	4.5	2.6	-3.9	3.0
Medical care:									
Index	239.7	265.9	294.5	328.7	357.3	379.5	403.1	433.5	462.2
Percent change	9.3	10.9	10.8	11.6	8.7	6.2	6.2	7.5	6.6
Entertainment:									
Index	188.5	205.3	221.4	235.8	246.0	255.1	265.0	274.1	283.2
Percent change	6.7	8.9	7.8	6.5	4.3	3.7	3.9	3.4	3.3
Other goods and services:									
Index	196.7	214.5	235.7	259.9	288.3	307.7	326.6	346.4	366.5
Percent change	7.3	9.0	9.9	10.3	10.9	6.7	6.1	6.1	5.8
Consumer Price Index for Urban Wage Earners and Clerical Workers:									
All items:									
Index	217.7	247.0	272.3	288.6	297.4	307.6	318.5	323.4	335.0
Percent change	11.5	13.5	10.2	6.0	3.0	3.4	3.5	1.5	3.6

33. Producer Price Indexes, by stage of processing

(1967=100)

Grouping	Annual average		1987											
	1986	1987	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Finished goods	289.7	295.7	291.8	292.3	292.6	294.9	295.8	296.2	297.4	297.3	296.7	298.2	298.1	296.8
Finished consumer goods	284.9	291.0	286.2	287.1	287.5	290.1	291.3	291.9	293.4	293.2	292.7	293.5	293.6	291.8
Finished consumer goods excluding foods	278.1	283.9	280.1	280.8	280.3	283.2	286.6	286.7	287.5	284.0	286.0	284.1	284.9	282.2
Nondurable goods less food	283.5	289.7	284.4	285.3	286.3	288.6	288.6	289.5	291.4	292.9	291.1	293.5	293.0	291.8
Durable goods	311.2	316.4	307.7	310.5	312.2	314.7	314.9	316.3	319.3	322.3	320.5	319.4	319.7	318.8
Capital equipment	246.8	252.7	253.2	250.7	250.6	252.5	252.1	252.1	252.3	251.4	249.4	257.6	256.0	254.3
Capital equipment	306.4	312.1	311.2	310.7	310.5	311.8	311.8	311.4	311.7	312.0	311.0	314.7	314.3	314.2
Intermediate materials, supplies, and components	307.6	315.2	307.0	308.9	309.3	311.0	313.1	315.2	316.9	318.2	318.9	320.0	321.3	322.0
Materials and components for manufacturing	296.1	305.1	297.8	298.7	299.5	301.4	303.2	304.5	305.8	306.6	308.0	310.7	311.8	313.4
Materials for food manufacturing	251.0	257.0	251.1	251.6	250.4	255.3	261.9	260.8	262.0	258.8	261.9	259.4	255.9	254.5
Materials for nondurable manufacturing ..	279.1	290.9	281.3	283.1	283.9	286.9	288.1	291.5	291.9	292.7	294.0	297.8	299.2	299.8
Materials for durable manufacturing	313.8	329.2	315.8	316.2	317.8	320.3	324.0	325.2	329.2	331.9	334.9	341.2	343.8	350.2
Components for manufacturing	294.4	297.9	295.8	296.1	297.0	297.0	297.1	297.2	297.8	298.2	298.5	299.4	300.2	300.9
Materials and components for construction	317.4	322.5	317.1	317.9	318.7	319.3	319.9	320.9	322.4	323.6	325.4	326.8	328.2	330.3
Processed fuels and lubricants	430.2	434.1	406.7	418.5	416.0	421.3	429.3	440.8	450.0	457.6	450.1	442.0	443.0	433.7
Containers	314.9	326.9	320.7	323.6	324.9	325.4	325.5	326.2	326.0	326.5	329.6	331.0	332.2	331.4
Supplies	287.3	293.1	289.0	289.5	289.6	290.5	292.0	292.8	293.2	293.4	294.5	295.9	297.7	299.6
Crude materials for further processing ...	280.3	299.2	284.2	287.2	288.6	295.3	302.9	303.7	306.8	308.4	305.4	304.3	302.2	301.3
Foodstuffs and feedstuffs	231.0	238.3	227.6	229.9	229.6	240.1	251.7	247.0	243.8	240.6	238.8	237.7	235.8	237.5
Crude nonfood materials	386.8	416.4	394.2	398.5	402.0	405.3	409.4	416.8	427.7	435.0	430.3	428.9	426.3	422.2
Special groupings														
Finished goods, excluding foods	291.1	297.1	293.2	293.6	294.3	296.3	296.3	296.7	298.1	299.3	297.7	300.5	300.1	299.2
Finished energy goods	518.5	508.2	477.4	489.6	495.5	507.4	506.9	514.3	522.0	533.9	521.8	514.5	513.5	501.0
Finished goods less energy	275.6	282.0	279.7	279.5	279.5	281.2	282.2	282.2	283.0	282.2	282.3	284.3	284.3	283.6
Finished consumer goods less energy	267.9	274.5	271.8	271.7	271.8	273.6	274.9	275.0	276.0	274.8	275.3	276.8	276.8	276.0
Finished goods less food and energy	274.9	281.6	279.8	279.3	279.5	280.7	280.7	280.7	281.5	281.8	281.1	284.7	284.4	284.5
Finished consumer goods less food and energy	258.4	265.6	263.4	262.9	263.3	264.4	264.5	264.6	265.8	265.9	265.5	269.1	268.7	269.0
Consumer nondurable goods less food and energy	253.0	260.2	256.4	257.2	257.9	258.4	258.8	258.9	260.7	261.6	262.3	262.5	263.0	264.7
Intermediate materials less foods and feeds	313.3	320.9	312.8	314.7	315.3	316.9	318.5	320.7	322.6	324.2	324.6	325.9	327.2	327.8
Intermediate foods and feeds	230.3	237.3	229.5	230.0	227.6	231.9	240.4	241.1	241.2	238.3	241.4	240.5	242.0	243.8
Intermediate energy goods	414.4	417.2	391.3	402.6	400.3	405.3	412.2	423.2	432.1	439.5	432.5	424.8	425.6	416.8
Intermediate goods less energy	303.5	311.6	305.2	306.1	306.8	308.2	309.8	310.9	312.0	312.6	314.1	316.3	317.7	319.4
Intermediate materials less foods and energy	304.4	312.8	306.2	307.2	308.1	309.3	310.5	311.7	312.9	313.9	315.3	317.8	319.3	321.0
Crude energy materials	575.8	601.2	578.0	584.4	590.1	594.1	597.4	606.3	623.8	632.3	615.4	604.9	598.3	589.4
Crude materials less energy	229.2	242.3	228.1	230.4	230.6	238.9	248.7	247.2	246.2	245.9	246.8	248.4	247.5	248.9
Crude nonfood materials less energy	245.6	275.2	250.3	252.8	254.4	257.4	263.2	270.2	275.5	282.6	291.2	300.1	301.8	302.4

34. Producer Price indexes, by durability of product

(1967 = 100)

Grouping	Annual average		1987											
	1986	1987	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Total durable goods	300.0	306.5	302.9	302.8	303.4	304.3	304.7	305.0	306.1	306.9	307.4	310.9	311.5	312.5
Total nondurable goods	298.8	307.4	298.2	300.7	301.1	304.4	307.7	309.5	311.5	312.1	311.5	310.7	311.0	309.9
Total manufactures	297.6	305.4	299.5	300.7	300.8	303.0	304.4	305.3	306.6	307.6	307.5	309.6	310.2	310.1
Durable	300.8	306.7	303.7	303.5	304.1	305.0	305.3	305.4	306.2	306.8	307.1	310.3	310.9	311.9
Nondurable	294.0	303.7	294.7	297.4	297.0	300.5	303.0	304.8	306.6	307.9	307.5	308.4	309.0	307.9
Total raw or slightly processed goods	305.6	312.1	301.6	303.6	305.9	308.4	313.9	315.9	318.8	318.4	317.8	314.0	313.7	312.8
Durable	252.0	286.0	258.8	260.9	261.1	262.1	267.8	277.2	284.8	293.8	302.8	318.7	322.0	322.0
Nondurable	308.6	313.2	303.9	305.8	308.3	310.9	316.4	317.9	320.4	319.5	318.3	313.2	312.6	311.7

35. Annual data: Producer Price Indexes, by stage of processing

(1967 = 100)

Index	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986
Finished goods:									
Total	195.9	217.7	247.0	269.8	280.7	285.2	291.1	293.7	289.7
Consumer goods	194.9	217.9	248.9	271.3	281.0	284.6	290.3	291.8	284.9
Capital equipment	199.2	216.5	239.8	264.3	279.4	287.2	294.0	300.5	306.4
Intermediate materials, supplies, and components:									
Total	215.6	243.2	280.3	306.0	310.4	312.3	320.0	318.7	307.6
Materials and components for manufacturing	208.7	234.4	265.7	286.1	289.8	293.4	301.8	299.5	296.1
Materials and components for construction	224.7	247.4	268.3	287.6	293.7	301.8	310.3	315.2	317.4
Processed fuels and lubricants	295.3	364.8	503.0	595.4	591.7	564.8	566.2	548.9	430.2
Containers	202.8	226.8	254.5	276.1	285.6	286.6	302.3	311.2	314.9
Supplies	198.5	218.2	244.5	263.8	272.1	277.1	283.4	284.2	287.3
Crude materials for further processing:									
Total	234.4	274.3	304.6	329.0	319.5	323.6	330.8	306.1	280.3
Foodstuffs and feedstuffs	216.2	247.9	259.2	257.4	247.8	252.2	259.5	235.0	231.0
Nonfood materials except fuel	272.3	330.0	401.0	482.3	473.9	477.4	484.5	459.2	386.8
Fuel	426.8	507.6	615.0	751.2	886.1	931.5	931.3	909.6	817.2

36. U.S. export price indexes by Standard International Trade Classification

(June 1977=100, unless otherwise indicated)

Category	1974 SITC	1985				1986				1987		
		Mar.	June	Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.
ALL COMMODITIES (9/83=100)		97.5	97.5	96.5	96.7	97.0	96.7	95.1	96.2	97.2	99.9	100.2
Food (3/83=100)	0	95.8	94.0	90.2	93.6	90.5	89.5	77.2	81.2	79.8	83.4	79.6
Meat (3/83=100)	01	103.9	104.7	106.1	112.2	111.5	114.7	122.0	122.6	123.4	129.0	127.9
Fish (3/83=100)	03	101.0	103.6	102.6	101.8	102.2	106.2	111.2	116.9	118.5	122.9	126.3
Grain and grain preparations (3/80=100)	04	92.4	90.3	82.6	87.1	82.1	79.1	59.0	64.8	62.9	66.5	62.1
Vegetables and fruit (3/83=100)	05	119.5	120.2	126.9	118.9	115.3	125.8	131.4	131.9	130.8	130.8	124.4
Feedstuffs for animals (3/83=100)	08	72.8	68.6	75.7	83.4	88.5	85.5	90.2	87.4	85.7	93.7	92.4
Misc. food products (3/83=100)	09	110.6	109.2	108.1	107.7	106.0	104.7	106.6	108.2	108.6	110.0	109.4
Beverages and tobacco (6/83=100)	1	99.9	100.1	99.7	98.6	95.6	96.5	96.3	101.6	101.7	104.0	104.4
Beverages (9/83=100)	11	104.0	105.3	101.8	100.9	101.9	103.0	102.2	102.9	104.7	104.8	104.4
Tobacco and tobacco products (6/83=100)	12	99.5	99.6	99.5	98.4	95.1	95.9	95.8	101.4	101.4	104.0	104.5
Crude materials (6/83=100)	2	97.5	96.8	93.3	92.5	95.8	95.6	92.3	94.8	97.1	106.3	109.1
Raw hides and skins (6/80=100)	21	121.0	126.2	129.0	139.9	138.9	148.9	138.0	148.3	168.8	191.2	189.1
Oilseeds and oleaginous fruit (9/77=100)	22	71.0	71.2	64.2	63.9	66.9	65.8	64.5	62.9	60.4	68.6	64.3
Crude rubber (including synthetic and reclaimed) (9/83=100)	23	106.4	106.3	107.1	106.0	106.0	106.1	105.3	104.4	106.2	107.5	109.0
Wood	24	128.7	125.7	124.5	128.1	128.7	128.7	129.7	135.5	139.0	146.2	174.0
Pulp and waste paper (6/83=100)	25	100.5	96.1	93.8	92.7	98.8	109.7	119.8	121.2	133.0	138.7	142.6
Textile fibers	26	102.4	105.8	103.6	97.7	101.6	98.6	74.7	92.2	99.7	115.0	119.2
Crude fertilizers and minerals	27	165.6	167.9	169.4	165.5	168.0	166.1	164.3	162.8	155.6	155.1	149.8
Metalliferous ores and metal scrap	28	89.2	82.0	80.1	78.7	83.4	80.5	84.6	80.7	82.2	90.7	99.7
Mineral fuels	3	100.1	99.2	97.6	96.6	91.9	86.7	85.7	84.7	85.6	84.4	85.6
Animal and vegetable oils, fats, and waxes	4	142.0	144.5	114.5	101.4	90.8	84.4	76.5	86.8	88.9	94.5	94.1
Fixed vegetable oils and fats (6/83=100)	42	152.9	164.8	128.8	108.7	95.4	95.3	80.8	87.0	89.1	94.7	94.3
Chemicals (3/83=100)	5	97.0	96.8	97.1	96.6	96.5	95.4	93.1	92.2	96.6	103.1	104.1
Organic chemicals (12/83=100)	51	93.8	96.5	97.1	95.4	93.5	89.3	88.0	89.4	99.5	114.3	111.1
Fertilizers, manufactured (3/83=100)	56	92.5	87.9	89.8	90.0	88.6	84.0	77.4	68.7	75.4	80.4	88.0
Intermediate manufactured products (9/81=100)	6	99.4	99.2	99.2	99.1	100.3	101.2	102.2	102.7	104.4	106.8	108.5
Leather and furskins (9/79=100)	61	82.5	79.2	75.9	78.5	77.8	82.5	84.2	88.0	96.3	101.1	99.7
Rubber manufactures	62	150.2	149.0	148.3	148.7	151.0	150.0	150.4	151.3	152.1	153.9	155.2
Paper and paperboard products (6/78=100)	64	155.0	151.6	149.6	148.2	152.2	158.7	165.3	167.9	174.4	177.7	182.3
Iron and steel (3/82=100)	67	95.5	95.3	95.9	98.2	98.4	99.4	100.2	100.1	101.5	101.5	102.4
Nonferrous metals (9/81=100)	68	79.7	79.6	79.8	78.2	80.2	79.1	79.4	78.8	80.3	90.1	94.6
Metal manufactures, n.e.s. (3/82=100)	69	105.4	105.2	105.4	104.4	105.3	105.5	105.6	105.7	105.7	105.6	106.2
Machinery and transport equipment, excluding military and commercial aircraft (12/78=100)	7	142.3	142.9	143.1	143.3	144.0	144.2	144.6	145.5	146.2	146.7	147.2
Power generating machinery and equipment (12/78=100)	71	165.3	167.4	167.1	167.5	169.1	169.2	169.5	171.4	173.0	171.7	173.4
Machinery specialized for particular industries (9/78=100)	72	155.0	155.7	156.0	156.2	155.5	154.7	155.0	155.7	154.7	155.9	156.5
Metalworking machinery (6/78=100)	73	153.4	155.1	156.3	158.4	159.0	158.9	160.4	161.8	165.0	165.8	167.8
General industrial machines and parts n.e.s. 9/78=100)	74	152.4	152.0	152.4	152.2	152.3	153.3	154.4	155.3	157.7	157.8	157.9
Office machines and automatic data processing equipment	75	100.9	100.0	99.9	99.4	99.9	99.2	98.9	98.1	96.1	96.0	95.5
Telecommunications, sound recording and reproducing equipment	76	133.3	133.3	134.1	134.5	136.5	137.0	137.8	139.7	141.3	140.8	141.2
Electrical machinery and equipment	77	114.9	116.1	115.3	113.8	115.1	114.2	114.4	114.9	117.0	117.4	117.6
Road vehicles and parts (3/80=100)	78	133.1	133.9	133.8	135.0	135.5	136.4	136.5	137.9	138.0	138.5	138.9
Other transport equipment, excl. military and commercial aviation	79	195.5	196.6	199.3	200.7	203.3	206.8	207.4	209.7	211.4	214.7	215.7
Other manufactured articles	8	99.5	100.4	100.3	100.3	102.6	103.4	104.1	104.3	105.3	107.3	107.7
Apparel (9/83=100)	84	104.7	104.7	105.0	105.3	-	-	-	110.0	-	-	-
Professional, scientific, and controlling instruments and apparatus	87	175.5	178.3	178.7	178.8	182.1	183.8	183.8	184.8	186.4	188.5	190.2
Photographic apparatus and supplies, optical goods, watches and clocks (12/77=100)	88	128.0	129.1	127.5	128.5	131.6	132.9	132.7	132.0	133.4	133.1	129.5
Miscellaneous manufactured articles, n.e.s.	89	92.4	93.1	93.1	92.4	95.6	95.6	97.6	97.7	98.1	102.1	103.0
Gold, non-monetary (6/83=100)	971	69.1	75.4	77.4	77.5	81.8	82.2	97.5	94.5	98.2	108.4	110.0

- Data not available.

37. U.S. import price indexes by Standard International Trade Classification

(June 1977 = 100, unless otherwise indicated)

Category	1974 SITC	1985		1986				1987		
		Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.
ALL COMMODITIES (9/82=100)		92.9	94.2	88.5	83.2	83.9	86.0	91.6	95.3	96.8
Food (9/77=100)	0	94.9	102.8	113.4	104.7	109.1	105.3	100.2	102.0	102.8
Meat	01	120.6	131.2	122.7	118.5	126.9	134.4	132.1	135.9	142.9
Dairy products and eggs (6/81=100)	02	99.1	100.5	106.7	107.1	109.4	111.5	116.8	119.6	118.9
Fish	03	129.7	132.7	139.3	144.8	149.6	157.1	161.6	167.4	174.4
Bakery goods, pasta products, grain and grain preparations (9/77=100)	04	136.3	141.9	146.9	149.2	154.0	155.3	161.0	165.2	161.2
Fruits and vegetables	05	120.2	131.3	119.4	119.4	127.1	125.5	120.5	125.4	124.5
Sugar, sugar preparations, and honey (3/82=100)	06	123.1	111.9	124.6	121.6	123.9	124.3	126.0	128.6	128.0
Coffee, tea, cocoa	07	54.4	64.6	85.9	69.2	71.8	61.0	50.9	49.3	48.3
Beverages and tobacco	1	158.0	162.1	163.2	165.5	165.8	168.0	170.8	174.1	174.4
Beverages	11	156.0	159.1	161.8	163.9	165.5	168.2	171.5	174.6	175.6
Crude materials	2	91.5	91.2	94.2	95.3	98.1	98.5	103.1	105.6	108.6
Crude rubber (inc. synthetic & reclaimed) (3/84=100)	23	68.9	73.2	78.8	75.5	76.9	78.5	79.1	84.5	89.4
Wood (9/81=100)	24	101.6	99.4	104.3	106.3	109.4	107.2	115.0	112.0	119.2
Pulp and waste paper (12/81=100)	25	76.8	75.8	74.9	79.9	86.0	92.8	100.5	104.6	105.9
Crude fertilizers and crude minerals (12/83=100)	27	102.7	102.1	101.5	100.0	100.4	100.2	99.5	98.5	97.3
Metalliferous ores and metal scrap (3/84=100)	28	89.5	90.1	94.5	95.6	98.2	95.4	98.0	100.0	102.9
Crude vegetable and animal materials, n.e.s.	29	102.5	102.5	103.6	104.4	104.8	104.7	113.4	120.3	113.6
Fuels and related products (6/82=100)	3	79.8	79.1	55.3	37.5	33.6	38.4	49.7	54.8	56.4
Petroleum and petroleum products (6/82=100)	33	80.3	80.1	54.7	36.1	32.1	37.9	49.9	55.2	57.3
Fats and oils (9/83=100)	4	57.6	50.6	41.4	39.3	35.5	51.6	50.8	54.5	61.3
Vegetable oils (9/83=100)	42	56.2	48.9	39.3	37.4	33.5	50.0	49.2	52.6	59.4
Chemicals (9/82=100)	5	94.5	94.2	94.6	93.3	93.4	93.2	95.9	98.7	99.5
Medicinal and pharmaceutical products (3/84=100)	54	95.3	96.7	102.9	104.9	110.0	110.1	116.2	120.3	118.8
Manufactured fertilizers (3/84=100)	56	80.8	78.5	79.2	79.7	77.4	79.7	81.8	83.6	98.8
Chemical materials and products, n.e.s. (9/84=100)	59	96.9	97.8	99.9	100.3	101.0	102.8	104.3	105.0	108.2
Intermediate manufactured products (12/77=100)	6	133.6	133.4	134.0	135.6	138.8	139.4	142.2	147.4	152.8
Leather and furskins	61	137.0	141.3	141.6	143.0	147.4	143.3	149.5	156.6	159.6
Rubber manufactures, n.e.s.	62	137.3	138.1	136.5	137.7	138.1	138.1	140.8	140.5	138.0
Cork and wood manufactures	63	123.4	124.0	130.8	134.3	137.4	142.7	144.3	151.6	156.3
Paper and paperboard products	64	157.8	156.5	157.1	157.1	157.5	164.8	165.2	165.0	174.6
Textiles	65	126.5	128.1	131.2	132.9	135.1	135.3	138.8	140.4	142.8
Nonmetallic mineral manufactures, n.e.s.	66	157.6	162.2	164.2	169.6	178.2	180.2	183.1	190.3	195.1
Iron and steel (9/78=100)	67	119.1	118.3	117.3	118.1	119.0	118.5	122.3	127.1	132.1
Nonferrous metals (12/81=100)	68	83.7	80.4	79.4	78.9	83.5	81.6	82.4	90.9	97.5
Metal manufactures, n.e.s.	69	119.5	121.6	124.4	127.8	129.1	129.1	133.4	134.5	136.0
Machinery and transport equipment (6/81=100)	7	103.5	107.2	111.5	115.3	118.1	120.2	123.9	126.1	126.4
Machinery specialized for particular industries (9/78=100)	72	101.4	104.9	112.1	115.4	120.1	121.0	127.5	130.0	130.0
Metalworking machinery (3/80=100)	73	94.2	98.1	105.0	107.7	110.7	115.7	122.4	126.1	129.8
General industrial machinery and parts, n.e.s. (6/81=100)	74	94.3	98.0	103.8	109.0	112.8	113.9	120.5	123.3	122.4
Office machines and automatic data processing equipment (3/80=100)	75	90.3	93.7	96.9	101.3	102.5	102.4	103.2	106.4	106.8
Telecommunications, sound recording and reproducing apparatus (3/80=100)	76	88.3	88.6	89.4	91.6	93.7	93.9	94.6	95.5	95.9
Electrical machinery and equipment (12/81=100)	77	81.4	83.1	84.5	87.5	89.5	91.7	93.6	94.8	94.2
Road vehicles and parts (6/81=100)	78	112.7	117.8	123.4	127.1	129.8	133.2	137.0	139.2	139.6
Misc. manufactured articles (3/80=100)	8	99.6	100.8	103.3	104.8	109.5	109.6	114.3	118.1	119.8
Plumbing, heating, and lighting fixtures (6/80=100)	81	117.8	115.0	120.1	123.5	125.5	125.5	125.5	130.6	131.1
Furniture and parts (6/80=100)	82	142.1	142.7	147.0	142.2	145.8	146.9	148.9	153.3	156.1
Clothing (9/77=100)	84	134.5	134.5	133.4	135.3	137.8	139.1	145.5	150.9	153.8
Footwear	85	142.1	142.7	147.0	142.2	145.8	146.9	148.9	153.3	156.1
Professional, scientific, and controlling instruments and apparatus (12/79=100)	87	98.8	102.4	106.4	112.5	118.3	118.0	125.6	129.5	127.0
Photographic apparatus and supplies, optical goods, watches, and clocks (3/80=100)	88	91.1	94.5	99.3	103.2	106.9	107.6	111.8	114.4	113.2
Misc. manufactured articles, n.e.s. (6/82=100)	89	96.4	97.9	102.1	103.4	112.3	111.0	116.9	121.8	124.6
Gold, non-monetary (6/82=100)	971	101.1	101.0	106.7	107.3	126.9	123.3	128.0	141.5	143.5

38. U.S. export price indexes by end-use category

(September 1983 = 100 unless otherwise indicated)

Category	Per-centage of 1980 trade value	1985		1986				1987		
		Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.
Foods, feeds, and beverages	16.294	76.2	77.5	75.5	74.7	66.0	68.4	67.1	71.3	68.0
Raw materials	30.696	96.5	95.9	96.0	94.9	93.3	94.8	98.2	103.1	105.9
Raw materials, nondurable	21.327	98.7	97.9	97.5	96.1	93.7	95.4	99.4	104.7	106.1
Raw materials, durable	9.368	91.1	91.0	92.5	91.9	92.5	93.2	95.1	99.2	105.3
Capital goods (12/82=100)	30.186	106.6	106.6	107.4	107.5	107.7	108.3	108.9	109.4	109.8
Automotive vehicles, parts and engines (12/82=100)	7.483	108.1	109.2	109.5	110.4	110.8	111.8	111.9	112.1	112.5
Consumer goods	7.467	101.9	101.4	103.7	104.5	104.5	105.7	106.9	107.1	107.5
Durables	3.965	100.4	99.5	101.8	101.8	102.1	102.7	103.9	103.6	104.3
Nondurables	3.501	103.3	103.3	105.5	107.2	106.9	108.5	109.8	110.5	110.5

39. U.S. import price indexes by end-use category

(December 1982=100)

Category	Per-centage of 1980 trade value	1985		1986				1987		
		Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.
Foods, feeds, and beverages	7.477	99.0	106.0	115.8	108.2	112.3	109.2	104.7	106.6	107.5
Petroleum and petroleum products, excl. natural gas	31.108	80.9	80.5	55.4	36.8	32.6	38.3	50.5	55.8	57.9
Raw materials, excluding petroleum	19.205	95.4	93.9	94.5	94.0	95.3	94.9	96.9	100.5	103.5
Raw materials, nondurable	9.391	93.5	91.8	91.1	89.7	89.5	89.7	91.8	94.5	95.4
Raw materials, durable	9.814	97.4	96.2	98.1	98.7	101.4	100.3	102.3	106.8	112.0
Capital goods	13.164	97.6	100.0	102.8	106.7	109.4	110.7	115.3	117.9	118.2
Automotive vehicles, parts and engines	11.750	106.4	111.4	115.6	119.0	121.0	123.9	126.2	128.0	127.9
Consumer goods	14.250	101.0	102.4	104.5	106.5	110.1	110.6	114.3	117.5	119.1
Durable	5.507	98.9	100.7	103.4	106.5	111.2	111.6	114.8	117.5	119.0
Nondurable	8.743	103.9	104.7	106.0	106.6	108.6	109.2	113.7	117.6	119.3

40. U.S. export price indexes by Standard Industrial Classification ¹

Industry group	1985		1986				1987		
	Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.
Manufacturing:									
Food and kindred products (6/83=100)	96.7	98.1	97.0	95.0	95.2	97.6	99.0	104.1	103.6
Lumber and wood products, except furniture (6/83=100)	98.3	101.2	101.5	101.2	102.1	105.7	109.8	113.0	133.1
Furniture and fixtures (9/83=100)	107.1	108.4	109.2	109.7	110.1	110.4	113.4	114.0	114.1
Paper and allied products (3/81=100)	93.2	92.1	95.7	101.5	106.1	108.7	113.7	116.7	120.3
Chemicals and allied products (12/84=100)	99.7	99.2	98.9	98.3	96.2	95.9	100.1	106.3	107.6
Petroleum and coal products (12/83=100)	102.0	99.1	93.5	83.1	83.1	82.2	83.5	86.8	87.1
Primary metal products (3/82=100)	88.1	87.9	89.8	89.8	90.7	89.9	91.7	97.4	100.1
Machinery, except electrical (9/78=100)	140.6	140.5	140.6	140.3	140.5	140.7	141.0	141.2	141.4
Electrical machinery (12/80=100)	111.9	111.2	112.6	112.3	112.6	113.6	115.2	115.3	115.8
Transportation equipment (12/78=100)	162.6	164.1	165.1	167.1	167.4	169.4	170.0	171.2	172.3
Scientific instruments; optical goods; clocks (6/77=100)	156.2	156.7	159.7	161.2	161.5	162.3	163.3	164.6	164.7

¹ SIC - based classification.

41. U.S. import price indexes by Standard Industrial Classification ¹

Industry group	1985		1986				1987		
	Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.	Dec.	Mar.	June	Sept.
Manufacturing:									
Food and kindred products (6/77=100)	114.2	115.1	117.7	115.6	118.0	122.4	122.7	125.9	128.5
Textile mill products (9/82=100)	100.4	101.8	104.7	106.4	107.1	108.0	111.7	113.6	116.2
Apparel and related products (6/77=100)	133.9	134.4	133.4	135.1	137.8	139.3	146.0	150.9	153.9
Lumber and wood products, except furniture (6/77=100)	117.5	115.8	122.1	124.8	127.9	127.9	134.5	135.0	141.3
Furniture and fixtures (6/80=100)	97.7	98.2	101.2	103.5	105.4	105.6	109.6	110.2	111.5
Paper and allied products (6/77=100)	138.7	137.4	137.6	139.4	142.2	150.3	154.0	155.7	162.9
Chemicals and allied products (9/82=100)	93.3	95.8	98.6	102.1	103.8	102.4	104.7	105.7	106.1
Rubber and miscellaneous plastic products (12/80=100)	96.6	97.5	100.9	100.6	101.9	102.1	104.4	105.8	104.9
Leather and leather products	142.3	144.0	145.8	144.6	147.7	148.7	151.8	156.2	159.8
Primary metal products (6/81=100)	84.3	82.6	82.0	82.4	84.9	84.0	85.4	91.3	96.0
Fabricated metal products (12/84=100)	101.0	102.6	104.9	108.5	110.3	111.1	115.5	116.2	118.1
Machinery, except electrical (3/80=100)	96.6	100.0	105.5	109.0	112.5	114.2	119.1	122.2	122.6
Electrical machinery (9/84=100)	94.5	95.8	97.0	100.2	102.6	104.0	105.7	106.9	106.6
Transportation equipment (6/81=100)	114.8	119.6	123.9	128.0	130.4	133.2	136.5	138.4	138.7
Scientific instruments; optical goods; clocks (12/79=100)	94.6	98.8	103.9	109.1	113.7	113.7	119.1	122.1	120.4
Miscellaneous manufactured commodities (9/82=100)	96.6	98.7	99.9	101.7	106.9	108.1	110.3	113.8	116.4

¹ SIC - based classification.

42. Indexes of productivity, hourly compensation, and unit costs, quarterly data seasonally adjusted

(1977=100)

Item	Quarterly Indexes										
	1985				1986				1987		
	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III
Business:											
Output per hour of all persons	106.5	107.2	108.2	107.9	109.5	109.7	109.6	109.6	109.7	110.1	111.1
Compensation per hour	172.4	174.6	177.0	179.3	180.7	182.2	183.6	185.2	185.8	187.3	189.2
Real compensation per hour	98.5	98.6	99.4	99.7	100.1	101.3	101.4	101.6	100.7	100.3	100.3
Unit labor costs	161.9	162.8	163.6	166.1	165.0	166.2	167.5	169.0	169.4	170.2	170.2
Unit nonlabor payments	158.7	160.4	161.8	160.2	163.1	163.9	165.7	162.4	166.0	168.6	171.3
Implicit price deflator	160.8	162.0	163.0	164.0	164.3	165.4	166.9	166.7	168.2	169.6	170.6
Nonfarm business:											
Output per hour of all persons	105.2	105.7	106.4	105.9	107.7	107.7	107.5	107.5	107.6	108.0	108.9
Compensation per hour	172.2	174.1	176.2	178.3	180.0	181.3	182.6	184.4	184.9	186.3	188.0
Real compensation per hour	98.4	98.3	98.9	99.2	99.7	100.8	100.9	101.2	100.2	99.7	99.7
Unit labor costs	163.6	164.7	165.7	168.3	167.2	168.4	169.8	171.5	171.8	172.5	172.6
Unit nonlabor payments	159.5	161.5	163.4	160.8	164.7	165.2	167.0	163.9	167.4	169.2	172.2
Implicit price deflator	162.2	163.6	164.9	165.7	166.4	167.3	168.8	168.8	170.3	171.4	172.5
Nonfinancial corporations:											
Output per hour of all employees	107.0	107.7	109.2	108.9	109.8	109.7	109.9	110.5	109.7	109.9	110.6
Compensation per hour	169.9	171.8	173.8	175.7	177.2	178.4	179.5	181.0	180.8	182.0	183.4
Real compensation per hour	97.0	97.0	97.6	97.7	98.2	99.1	99.2	99.3	98.0	97.4	97.2
Total unit costs	163.6	164.3	163.7	166.0	166.3	167.2	168.5	168.7	169.7	170.9	171.2
Unit labor costs	158.9	159.5	159.1	161.4	161.5	162.6	163.2	163.8	164.8	165.6	165.8
Unit nonlabor costs	177.5	178.7	177.5	179.4	180.7	180.6	184.2	183.2	184.1	186.6	187.2
Unit profits	132.0	132.2	142.5	128.7	129.7	129.5	130.6	127.7	132.2	132.9	140.5
Unit nonlabor payments	161.6	162.5	165.2	161.6	162.8	162.7	165.4	163.7	165.9	167.8	170.8
Implicit price deflator	159.8	160.5	161.2	161.5	161.9	162.7	164.0	163.8	165.2	166.3	167.5
Manufacturing:											
Output per hour of all persons	121.3	124.1	125.3	126.1	127.6	128.4	129.3	129.8	130.8	132.9	134.1
Compensation per hour	173.3	176.1	178.0	180.2	181.0	182.1	183.1	184.3	183.9	184.8	185.4
Real compensation per hour	99.0	99.5	99.9	100.2	100.3	101.2	101.2	101.2	99.6	98.9	98.3
Unit labor costs	142.9	142.0	142.1	142.9	141.9	141.8	141.7	142.0	140.5	139.0	138.2

43. Annual indexes of multifactor productivity and related measures, selected years

(1977 = 100)

Item	1960	1970	1973	1976	1978	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986
Private business												
Productivity:												
Output per hour of all persons	67.3	88.4	95.9	98.4	100.8	99.2	100.6	100.3	103.1	105.7	107.6	109.7
Output per unit of capital services	102.1	101.9	105.3	97.2	102.0	94.2	92.4	86.7	88.4	92.8	92.8	92.8
Multifactor productivity	78.1	92.9	99.1	98.0	101.2	97.4	97.7	95.3	97.7	101.0	102.2	103.4
Output	55.3	80.2	93.0	94.5	105.8	106.6	108.9	105.4	109.9	119.2	124.0	128.1
Inputs:												
Hours of all persons	82.2	90.8	96.9	96.1	105.0	107.5	108.2	105.2	106.7	112.8	115.2	116.8
Capital services	54.2	78.7	88.3	97.2	103.8	113.1	117.8	121.7	124.4	128.5	133.6	138.0
Combined units of labor and capital input	70.8	86.3	93.8	96.5	104.5	109.4	111.5	110.7	112.6	118.1	121.3	123.8
Capital per hour of all persons	65.9	86.7	91.1	101.2	98.8	105.3	108.8	115.7	116.6	113.9	116.0	118.2
Private nonfarm business												
Productivity:												
Output per hour of all persons	70.7	89.2	96.4	98.5	100.8	98.7	99.6	99.1	102.5	104.7	105.9	107.6
Output per unit of capital services	103.6	102.8	106.0	97.3	101.9	93.4	91.1	85.1	87.3	91.3	90.8	90.5
Multifactor productivity	80.9	93.7	99.6	98.1	101.2	96.9	96.7	94.1	97.0	99.9	100.5	101.4
Output	54.4	79.9	92.9	94.4	106.0	106.6	108.4	104.8	110.1	119.3	123.7	127.6
Inputs:												
Hours of all persons	77.0	89.6	96.3	95.8	105.1	108.0	108.8	105.7	107.4	114.0	116.8	118.5
Capital services	52.5	77.8	87.6	97.0	104.0	114.1	119.0	123.2	126.1	130.6	136.3	141.0
Combined units of labor and capital input	67.3	85.3	93.3	96.2	104.7	110.0	112.2	111.4	113.5	119.4	123.1	125.8
Capital per hour of all persons	68.2	86.8	91.0	101.3	98.9	105.6	109.4	116.5	117.4	114.6	116.7	119.0
Manufacturing												
Productivity:												
Output per hour of all persons	62.2	80.8	93.4	97.1	101.5	101.4	103.6	105.9	112.0	118.1	124.2	128.8
Output per unit of capital services	102.5	98.6	111.4	96.2	102.1	91.2	89.2	81.8	86.9	95.7	97.8	99.3
Multifactor productivity	71.9	85.2	97.9	96.8	101.7	98.7	99.8	99.2	105.1	112.2	117.0	120.6
Output	52.5	78.6	96.3	93.1	106.0	103.2	104.8	98.4	104.7	117.5	122.5	125.9
Inputs:												
Hours of all persons	84.4	97.3	103.1	95.9	104.4	101.7	101.1	92.9	93.5	99.5	98.7	97.8
Capital services	51.2	79.7	86.4	96.7	103.7	113.1	117.5	120.3	120.6	122.8	125.3	126.8
Combined units of labor and capital inputs	73.0	92.2	98.4	96.1	104.2	104.5	105.0	99.2	99.7	104.7	104.8	104.4
Capital per hour of all persons	60.7	82.0	83.8	100.9	99.4	111.2	116.2	129.4	129.0	123.5	127.0	129.7

44. Annual indexes of productivity, hourly compensation, unit costs, and prices, selected years

(1977=100)

Item	1960	1970	1973	1975	1977	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986
Business:													
Output per hour of all persons	67.6	88.4	95.9	95.7	100.0	99.6	99.3	100.7	100.3	103.0	105.6	107.5	109.5
Compensation per hour	33.6	57.8	70.9	85.2	100.0	119.1	131.5	143.7	154.9	161.5	168.0	175.9	182.8
Real compensation per hour	68.9	90.2	96.7	95.9	100.0	99.4	96.7	95.7	97.3	98.2	98.0	99.1	101.0
Unit labor costs	49.7	65.4	73.9	89.0	100.0	119.5	132.5	142.7	154.5	156.7	159.1	163.6	166.9
Unit nonlabor payments	46.4	59.4	72.5	88.2	100.0	112.5	118.7	134.6	136.6	146.4	156.5	160.3	163.8
Implicit price deflator	48.5	63.2	73.4	88.7	100.0	117.0	127.6	139.8	148.1	153.0	158.2	162.4	165.8
Nonfarm business:													
Output per hour of all persons	71.0	89.3	96.4	96.0	100.0	99.3	98.8	99.8	99.2	102.5	104.6	105.8	107.5
Compensation per hour	35.3	58.2	71.2	85.6	100.0	118.9	131.3	143.6	154.8	161.5	167.8	175.2	182.0
Real compensation per hour	72.3	90.8	97.1	96.4	100.0	99.2	96.6	95.7	97.2	98.2	97.9	98.7	100.6
Unit labor costs	49.7	65.2	73.9	89.2	100.0	119.7	132.9	144.0	156.0	157.6	160.4	165.6	169.3
Unit nonlabor payments	46.3	60.0	69.3	86.7	100.0	110.5	118.5	133.5	136.5	148.3	156.4	161.3	165.2
Implicit price deflator	48.5	63.4	72.3	88.3	100.0	116.5	127.8	140.3	149.2	154.3	159.0	164.1	167.8
Nonfinancial corporations:													
Output per hour of all employees	73.4	91.1	97.5	96.7	100.0	99.8	99.1	99.6	100.4	103.5	106.0	108.2	109.9
Compensation per hour	36.9	59.2	71.6	85.9	100.0	118.7	131.1	143.3	154.3	159.9	165.8	172.8	178.9
Real compensation per hour	75.5	92.4	97.6	96.7	100.0	99.1	96.4	95.5	96.9	97.3	96.7	97.4	98.9
Total unit costs	49.4	64.8	72.7	90.3	100.0	118.2	133.4	147.7	159.5	159.5	160.8	164.4	167.7
Unit labor costs	50.2	65.0	73.4	88.8	100.0	119.0	132.3	143.8	153.8	154.5	156.5	159.7	162.8
Unit nonlabor costs	47.0	64.2	70.7	94.9	100.0	115.8	136.7	159.1	176.4	174.3	173.6	178.3	182.2
Unit profits	59.8	52.3	65.6	77.0	100.0	94.5	85.2	98.1	78.5	110.9	136.5	133.9	129.3
Unit nonlabor payments	51.5	60.1	68.9	88.6	100.0	108.4	118.6	137.8	142.1	152.1	160.6	162.7	163.7
Implicit price deflator	50.7	63.3	71.9	88.7	100.0	115.4	127.6	141.7	149.8	153.7	157.9	160.7	163.1
Manufacturing:													
Output per hour of all persons	62.2	80.8	93.4	92.9	100.0	101.4	101.4	103.6	105.9	112.0	118.1	124.2	128.8
Compensation per hour	36.5	57.4	68.8	85.1	100.0	118.6	132.4	145.2	157.5	162.4	168.0	176.9	182.7
Real compensation per hour	74.8	89.5	93.8	95.9	100.0	99.1	97.4	96.7	98.9	98.8	98.0	99.6	100.9
Unit labor costs	58.7	71.0	73.7	91.7	100.0	117.0	130.6	140.1	148.7	145.0	142.2	142.4	141.8
Unit nonlabor payments	60.0	64.1	70.7	87.5	100.0	98.9	97.8	111.8	114.0	128.5	138.6	134.7	137.9
Implicit price deflator	59.1	69.0	72.8	90.5	100.0	111.7	121.0	131.8	138.6	140.2	141.2	140.2	140.7

45. Unemployment rates, approximating U.S. concepts, in nine countries, quarterly data seasonally adjusted

Country	Annual average		1986				1987		
	1985	1986	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III
Total labor force basis									
United States	7.1	6.9	6.9	7.1	6.9	6.8	6.5	6.2	5.9
Canada	10.4	9.5	9.7	9.5	9.6	9.4	9.6	9.0	8.8
Australia	8.2	8.0	7.9	7.7	8.2	8.3	8.3	8.1	8.0
Japan	2.6	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.1	2.8
France	10.2	10.4	10.2	10.4	10.6	10.6	11.0	11.0	10.9
Germany	7.4	7.1	7.3	7.2	7.0	6.9	7.0	7.1	7.1
Italy ^{1, 2}	5.9	6.2	6.1	6.2	5.9	6.5	6.6	6.6	6.6
Sweden	2.8	2.6	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.0	1.9	1.8
United Kingdom	11.2	11.1	11.1	11.2	11.1	10.9	10.6	10.2	9.7
Civilian labor force basis									
United States	7.2	7.0	7.0	7.2	7.0	6.8	6.6	6.3	6.0
Canada	10.5	9.6	9.7	9.6	9.7	9.4	9.6	9.1	8.8
Australia	8.3	8.1	8.0	7.8	8.3	8.4	8.3	8.2	8.0
Japan	2.6	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.1	2.8
France	10.4	10.7	10.5	10.7	10.8	10.8	11.2	11.3	11.2
Germany	7.5	7.2	7.4	7.3	7.2	7.0	7.1	7.2	7.3
Italy ^{1, 2}	6.0	6.3	6.2	6.3	6.0	6.6	6.7	6.7	6.8
Sweden	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.0	1.9	1.9
United Kingdom	11.2	11.1	11.2	11.2	11.2	10.9	10.7	10.3	9.8

¹ Quarterly rates are for the first month of the quarter.

² Major changes in the Italian labor force survey, introduced in 1977, resulted in a large increase in persons enumerated as unemployed. However, many persons reported that they had not actively sought work in the past 30 days, and they have been provisionally excluded for comparability with U.S. concepts. Inclusion of such persons would about

double the Italian unemployment rate shown.

NOTE: Quarterly figures for France, Germany, and the United Kingdom are calculated by applying annual adjustment factors to current published data and therefore should be viewed as less precise indicators of unemployment under U.S. concepts than the annual figures.

46. Annual data: Employment status of the civilian working-age population, approximating U.S. concepts, 10 countries

(Numbers in thousands)

Employment status and country	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986
Labor force										
United States	99,009	102,251	104,962	106,940	108,670	110,204	111,550	113,544	115,461	117,834
Canada	10,500	10,895	11,231	11,573	11,904	11,958	12,183	12,399	12,639	12,870
Australia	6,358	6,443	6,519	6,693	6,810	6,910	6,997	7,133	7,272	7,562
Japan	53,820	54,610	55,210	55,740	56,320	56,980	58,110	58,480	58,820	59,410
France	22,300	22,460	22,670	22,800	22,930	23,160	23,130	23,290	23,340	23,480
Germany	25,870	26,000	26,250	26,520	26,650	26,700	26,650	26,760	26,980	27,180
Italy	20,510	20,570	20,850	21,120	21,320	21,410	21,590	21,670	21,800	21,990
Netherlands	4,950	5,010	5,100	5,310	5,520	5,570	5,600	5,620	5,710	5,760
Sweden	4,168	4,203	4,262	4,312	4,327	4,350	4,369	4,385	4,418	4,437
United Kingdom	26,050	26,260	26,350	26,520	26,590	26,740	26,790	27,180	27,370	27,460
Participation rate¹										
United States	62.3	63.2	63.7	63.8	63.9	64.0	64.0	64.4	64.8	65.3
Canada	61.6	62.7	63.4	64.1	64.8	64.1	64.4	64.8	65.2	65.7
Australia	62.7	61.9	61.6	62.1	61.9	61.7	61.4	61.5	61.8	63.0
Japan	62.5	62.8	62.7	62.6	62.6	62.7	63.1	62.7	62.3	62.1
France	57.6	57.5	57.5	57.2	57.1	57.1	56.6	56.6	56.2	56.2
Germany	53.4	53.3	53.3	53.2	52.9	52.6	52.3	52.4	52.6	53.0
Italy	48.2	47.8	48.0	48.2	48.3	47.7	47.5	47.3	47.2	47.5
Netherlands	49.0	48.8	49.0	50.2	51.4	51.2	50.9	50.5	50.7	50.8
Sweden	65.9	66.1	66.6	66.9	66.8	66.8	66.7	66.6	66.9	67.2
United Kingdom	62.7	62.8	62.6	62.5	62.2	62.3	62.1	62.6	62.7	62.5
Employed										
United States	92,017	96,048	98,824	99,303	100,397	99,526	100,834	105,005	107,150	109,597
Canada	9,651	9,987	10,395	10,708	11,006	10,644	10,734	11,000	11,311	11,634
Australia	6,000	6,038	6,111	6,284	6,416	6,415	6,300	6,490	6,670	6,952
Japan	52,720	53,370	54,040	54,600	55,060	55,620	56,550	56,870	57,260	57,740
France	21,180	21,250	21,300	21,330	21,200	21,240	21,170	20,980	20,900	20,970
Germany	24,970	25,130	25,470	25,750	25,560	25,140	24,750	24,790	24,950	25,210
Italy	19,670	19,720	19,930	20,200	20,280	20,250	20,320	20,390	20,490	20,610
Netherlands	4,700	4,750	4,830	4,980	5,010	4,980	4,890	4,930	5,110	5,200
Sweden	4,093	4,109	4,174	4,226	4,219	4,213	4,218	4,249	4,293	4,319
United Kingdom	24,400	24,610	24,940	24,670	23,800	23,710	23,600	24,000	24,300	24,400
Employment-population ratio²										
United States	57.9	59.3	59.9	59.2	59.0	57.8	57.9	59.5	60.1	60.7
Canada	56.6	57.5	58.7	59.3	59.9	57.0	56.7	57.4	58.4	59.4
Australia	59.2	58.0	57.8	58.3	58.4	57.3	55.3	56.0	56.6	57.9
Japan	61.2	61.3	61.4	61.3	61.2	61.2	61.4	61.0	60.6	60.4
France	54.7	54.4	54.0	53.5	52.8	52.3	51.8	51.0	50.4	50.2
Germany	51.6	51.5	51.7	51.7	50.8	49.6	48.6	48.5	48.7	49.1
Italy	46.3	45.9	45.9	46.1	45.9	45.2	44.7	44.5	44.4	44.6
Netherlands	46.5	46.3	46.4	47.0	46.6	45.8	44.5	44.3	45.4	45.9
Sweden	64.8	64.6	65.3	65.6	65.1	64.7	64.4	64.5	65.0	65.4
United Kingdom	58.7	58.8	59.2	58.1	55.7	55.3	54.7	55.3	55.7	55.6
Unemployed										
United States	6,991	6,202	6,137	7,637	8,273	10,678	10,717	8,539	8,312	8,237
Canada	849	908	836	865	898	1,314	1,448	1,399	1,328	1,236
Australia	358	405	408	409	394	495	697	642	602	610
Japan	1,100	1,240	1,170	1,140	1,260	1,360	1,560	1,610	1,560	1,670
France	1,120	1,210	1,370	1,470	1,730	1,920	1,960	2,310	2,440	2,510
Germany	900	870	780	770	1,090	1,560	1,900	1,970	2,030	1,970
Italy	840	850	920	920	1,040	1,160	1,270	1,280	1,310	1,380
Netherlands	250	260	270	330	510	590	710	690	600	560
Sweden	75	94	88	86	108	137	151	136	125	118
United Kingdom	1,660	1,650	1,420	1,850	2,790	3,030	3,190	3,180	3,070	3,060
Unemployment rate										
United States	7.1	6.1	5.8	7.1	7.6	9.7	9.6	7.5	7.2	7.0
Canada	8.1	8.3	7.4	7.5	7.5	11.0	11.9	11.3	10.5	9.6
Australia	5.6	6.3	6.3	6.1	5.8	7.2	10.0	9.0	8.3	8.1
Japan	2.0	2.3	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.7	2.8	2.6	2.8
France	5.0	5.4	6.0	6.4	7.5	8.3	8.5	9.9	10.4	10.7
Germany	3.5	3.3	3.0	2.9	4.1	5.8	7.1	7.4	7.5	7.2
Italy	4.1	4.1	4.4	4.4	4.9	5.4	5.9	5.9	6.0	6.3
Netherlands	5.1	5.2	5.3	6.2	9.2	10.6	12.7	12.3	10.5	9.7
Sweden	1.8	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.5	3.1	3.5	3.1	2.8	2.7
United Kingdom	6.4	6.3	5.4	7.0	10.5	11.3	11.9	11.7	11.2	11.1

¹ Labor force as a percent of the civilian working-age population.

² Employment as a percent of the civilian working-age population.

47. Annual indexes of manufacturing productivity and related measures, 12 countries

(1977=100)

Item and country	1960	1970	1973	1974	1975	1976	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986
Output per hour															
United States	62.2	80.8	93.4	90.6	92.9	97.1	101.5	101.4	101.4	103.6	105.9	112.0	118.1	124.2	128.8
Canada	50.7	75.6	90.3	91.7	88.6	94.8	101.1	102.0	98.2	102.9	98.3	105.4	116.8	119.7	119.4
Japan	23.2	64.8	83.1	86.5	87.7	94.3	108.0	114.8	122.7	127.2	135.0	142.3	152.5	163.7	168.2
Belgium	33.0	60.4	78.8	83.2	86.5	95.3	106.1	111.9	119.2	127.6	135.2	148.2	154.4	159.0	163.1
Denmark	37.2	65.6	83.3	86.0	94.6	98.2	101.5	106.5	112.3	114.2	114.6	120.2	118.6	118.3	119.9
France	36.4	69.6	82.3	85.3	88.5	95.1	104.6	109.7	110.6	114.0	122.0	125.2	129.0	133.0	135.6
Germany	40.3	71.2	84.0	87.4	90.1	96.5	103.1	108.2	108.6	111.0	112.6	119.2	123.6	128.7	130.6
Italy	35.4	72.7	90.9	95.3	91.1	98.9	103.0	110.5	116.9	124.8	129.6	135.7	144.4	146.6	148.3
Netherlands	32.4	64.3	81.5	88.1	86.2	95.8	106.4	112.3	113.9	116.9	119.4	127.5	140.5	145.1	144.7
Norway	54.6	81.7	94.6	97.7	96.8	99.7	101.8	107.1	106.7	107.0	109.8	117.2	123.9	125.2	124.4
Sweden	42.3	80.7	94.8	98.8	100.2	101.7	102.8	110.9	112.7	113.2	116.5	125.5	131.0	136.1	136.4
United Kingdom	55.9	80.4	95.5	97.1	94.9	99.1	101.5	102.5	101.8	107.0	113.5	123.2	129.8	134.7	139.5
Output															
United States	52.5	78.6	96.3	91.7	84.9	93.1	106.0	108.1	103.2	104.8	98.4	104.7	117.5	122.5	125.9
Canada	41.3	73.5	93.5	96.3	89.9	96.5	104.6	108.5	103.6	107.4	93.6	99.6	114.9	121.2	123.9
Japan	19.2	69.9	91.9	91.7	86.2	94.8	106.7	113.9	124.1	129.8	137.3	148.2	165.4	179.3	182.1
Belgium	41.9	78.6	96.4	100.2	92.7	99.7	101.4	104.1	106.8	105.7	110.1	114.8	117.5	119.9	122.0
Denmark	49.2	82.0	95.9	97.4	95.0	99.6	99.7	105.4	110.1	106.6	108.3	115.6	119.7	123.4	126.7
France	35.4	73.3	88.6	91.8	90.0	96.1	102.3	105.3	104.6	102.9	104.0	103.8	104.0	103.3	103.0
Germany	50.0	86.6	96.1	95.4	91.0	98.0	101.8	106.6	106.6	104.9	102.4	103.6	106.4	110.1	112.8
Italy	36.4	78.0	90.5	96.3	86.9	97.9	101.8	108.6	115.4	115.1	113.4	111.5	116.2	118.0	121.9
Netherlands	44.8	84.4	95.8	100.0	92.7	99.0	102.8	106.1	106.6	106.7	105.0	107.0	113.3	116.0	117.3
Norway	55.1	86.9	99.5	104.0	101.0	101.4	98.2	100.3	98.8	97.7	97.4	97.2	102.6	105.2	107.0
Sweden	52.6	92.5	100.3	105.7	106.1	106.1	97.3	103.6	104.0	100.6	100.1	105.2	111.5	115.3	115.2
United Kingdom	71.2	95.0	104.8	103.5	96.3	98.2	100.6	100.5	91.7	86.2	86.4	88.9	92.5	95.2	96.2
Total hours															
United States	84.4	97.3	103.1	101.2	91.4	95.9	104.4	106.5	101.7	101.1	92.9	93.5	99.5	98.7	97.8
Canada	81.4	97.2	103.6	105.0	101.5	101.8	103.4	106.3	105.5	104.3	95.2	94.5	98.3	101.2	103.8
Japan	82.7	107.9	110.7	106.1	98.2	100.6	98.8	99.3	101.2	102.0	101.7	104.2	108.5	109.6	108.3
Belgium	127.1	130.2	122.3	120.4	107.1	104.6	95.5	93.0	89.6	82.8	81.4	77.5	76.1	75.4	74.8
Denmark	132.4	125.1	115.2	113.2	100.4	101.4	98.3	99.0	98.0	93.4	94.5	96.2	100.9	104.3	105.7
France	97.2	105.3	107.7	107.6	101.7	101.2	97.8	95.9	94.6	90.3	85.2	82.9	80.6	77.7	75.9
Germany	123.8	121.7	114.4	109.2	101.0	101.6	98.7	98.5	98.1	94.6	91.0	86.9	86.1	85.6	86.4
Italy	102.8	107.4	99.6	101.0	95.4	99.0	98.8	98.2	98.7	92.2	87.5	82.2	80.5	80.5	82.2
Netherlands	138.4	131.2	117.6	113.5	107.6	103.3	96.6	94.4	93.6	91.2	88.0	83.9	80.6	79.9	81.1
Norway	101.0	106.4	105.1	106.5	104.3	101.7	96.5	93.6	92.6	91.3	88.6	82.9	82.8	84.0	86.0
Sweden	124.4	114.6	105.7	107.0	105.9	104.3	94.6	93.4	92.3	88.9	85.9	83.9	85.1	84.7	84.5
United Kingdom	127.3	118.1	109.8	106.6	101.5	99.0	99.1	98.0	90.1	80.6	76.2	72.2	71.2	70.7	69.0
Compensation per hour															
United States	36.5	57.4	68.8	76.2	85.1	92.1	108.2	118.6	132.4	145.2	157.5	162.4	168.0	176.9	182.7
Canada	27.5	47.9	60.0	69.1	78.9	90.3	107.6	118.6	131.3	151.1	167.0	177.2	185.5	194.7	202.3
Japan	8.9	33.9	55.1	72.3	84.2	90.7	106.6	113.4	120.7	129.8	136.6	140.7	144.9	152.0	157.3
Belgium	13.8	34.9	53.5	65.2	79.0	89.5	107.8	117.5	130.4	144.5	150.7	159.7	173.0	184.9	191.8
Denmark	12.6	36.3	56.1	67.9	81.0	90.4	110.2	123.1	135.9	149.7	162.9	174.2	184.4	196.1	207.7
France	15.1	36.5	52.1	61.9	76.5	88.7	113.0	128.4	148.5	172.0	203.9	225.2	247.3	267.3	279.2
Germany	18.8	48.0	67.5	76.9	84.5	91.3	107.8	116.1	125.6	134.5	141.0	148.3	155.5	164.9	172.5
Italy	8.4	26.1	43.7	54.5	70.2	84.2	114.5	134.7	160.2	198.4	238.3	282.8	314.5	347.3	362.1
Netherlands	12.5	39.0	60.5	71.9	82.2	91.9	108.4	117.0	123.6	129.1	137.5	144.0	150.0	157.7	161.5
Norway	15.8	37.9	54.5	63.6	77.2	88.8	110.0	116.0	128.0	142.8	156.0	173.5	188.3	204.8	224.6
Sweden	14.7	38.5	54.2	63.8	77.3	91.5	111.4	120.1	133.6	148.1	158.9	173.3	189.7	212.4	228.1
United Kingdom	15.1	31.3	47.5	57.0	76.0	88.3	115.9	137.4	167.4	193.9	209.3	224.4	238.8	254.6	273.5
Unit labor costs: National currency basis															
United States	58.7	71.0	73.7	84.1	91.7	94.9	106.6	117.0	130.6	140.1	148.7	145.0	142.2	142.4	141.8
Canada	54.2	63.4	66.5	75.3	89.1	95.3	106.5	116.2	133.7	146.7	170.0	168.1	158.8	162.6	169.4
Japan	38.4	52.3	66.4	83.6	96.0	96.2	98.7	98.8	98.4	102.0	101.2	98.9	95.0	92.9	93.5
Belgium	41.7	57.8	67.9	78.3	91.2	93.9	101.6	105.0	109.4	113.2	111.4	107.8	112.1	116.3	117.6
Denmark	33.8	55.4	67.4	79.0	85.6	92.1	108.6	115.7	121.0	131.1	142.2	144.9	155.4	165.7	173.2
France	41.5	52.5	63.4	72.6	86.5	93.3	108.0	117.0	134.3	151.0	167.2	179.9	191.6	200.9	205.9
Germany	46.6	67.4	80.3	88.0	93.8	94.6	104.5	107.3	115.7	121.2	125.2	124.4	125.8	128.1	132.1
Italy	23.7	36.0	48.1	57.2	77.1	85.1	111.2	121.9	137.0	158.9	184.0	204.8	217.8	236.9	244.1
Netherlands	38.5	60.7	74.3	81.6	95.4	96.0	101.8	104.1	108.5	110.4	115.2	113.0	106.8	108.7	111.6
Norway	29.0	46.4	57.6	65.2	79.7	89.1	108.1	108.2	120.0	133.4	142.1	148.0	152.0	163.5	180.5
Sweden	34.8	47.7	57.2	64.6	77.1	90.0	108.4	108.3	118.6	130.9	136.3	138.1	144.8	156.1	167.3
United Kingdom	27.1	38.9	49.8	58.7	80.2	89.1	114.2	134.1	164.5	181.2	184.4	182.2	183.9	189.0	196.1
Unit labor costs: U.S. dollar basis															
United States	58.7	71.0	73.7	84.1	91.7	94.9	106.6	117.0	130.6	140.1	148.7	145.0	142.2	142.4	141.8
Canada	59.4	64.5	70.6	81.8	93.1	102.7	99.3	105.4	121.5	130.0	146.3	144.9	130.3	126.5	129.5
Japan	28.5	39.1	65.6	76.8	86.7	86.9	126.8	121.3	116.8	123.8	108.8	111.5	107.2	104.3	148.7
Belgium	30.0	41.7	62.7	72.1	89.1	87.2	115.8	128.3	134.3	109.6	87.2	75.5	69.5	70.2	94.3
Denmark	29.5	44.4	67.2	77.9	89.6	91.5	118.4	132.0	129.0	110.3	102.3	95.1	90.1	93.9	128.4
France	41.6	46.7	70.2	74.3	99.3	96.1	117.9	135.2	156.4	136.4	124.9	116.1	107.8	110.0	146.2
Germany	25.9	42.9	70.4	79.1	88.7	87.3	121.0	135.9	147.9	124.9	119.7	113.1	102.6	101.1	141.3
Italy	33.7	50.6	73.1	77.6	104.3	90.5	115.6	129.5	141.4	123.2	119.9	121.1	109.5	109.6	144.5
Netherlands	25.1	41.2	65.6	74.6	92.8	89.1	115.7	127.4	134.1	108.9					

48. Occupational injury and illness incidence rates by industry, United States

Industry and type of case ¹	Incidence rates per 100 full-time workers ²								
	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
PRIVATE SECTOR³									
Total cases	9.3	9.4	9.5	8.7	8.3	7.7	7.6	8.0	7.9
Lost workday cases	3.8	4.1	4.3	4.0	3.8	3.5	3.4	3.7	3.6
Lost workdays	61.6	63.5	67.7	65.2	61.7	58.7	58.5	63.4	64.9
Agriculture, forestry, and fishing³									
Total cases	11.5	11.6	11.7	11.9	12.3	11.8	11.9	12.0	11.4
Lost workday cases	5.1	5.4	5.7	5.8	5.9	5.9	6.1	6.1	5.7
Lost workdays	81.1	80.7	83.7	82.7	82.8	86.0	90.8	90.7	91.3
Mining									
Total cases	10.9	11.5	11.4	11.2	11.6	10.5	8.4	9.7	8.4
Lost workday cases	6.0	6.4	6.8	6.5	6.2	5.4	4.5	5.3	4.8
Lost workdays	128.8	143.2	150.5	163.6	146.4	137.3	125.1	160.2	145.3
Construction									
Total cases	15.5	16.0	16.2	15.7	15.1	14.6	14.8	15.5	15.2
Lost workday cases	5.9	6.4	6.8	6.5	6.3	6.0	6.3	6.9	6.8
Lost workdays	111.5	109.4	120.4	117.0	113.1	115.7	118.2	128.1	128.9
General building contractors:									
Total cases	15.0	15.9	16.3	15.5	15.1	14.1	14.4	15.4	15.2
Lost workday cases	5.7	6.3	6.8	6.5	6.1	5.9	6.2	6.9	6.8
Lost workdays	100.2	105.3	111.2	113.0	107.1	112.0	113.0	121.3	120.4
Heavy construction contractors:									
Total cases	16.0	16.6	16.6	16.3	14.9	15.1	15.4	14.9	14.5
Lost workday cases	5.7	6.2	6.7	6.3	6.0	5.8	6.2	6.4	6.3
Lost workdays	116.7	110.9	123.1	117.6	106.0	113.1	122.4	131.7	127.3
Special trade contractors:									
Total cases	15.6	15.8	16.0	15.5	15.2	14.7	14.8	15.8	15.4
Lost workday cases	6.1	6.6	6.9	6.7	6.6	6.2	6.4	7.1	7.0
Lost workdays	115.5	111.0	124.3	118.9	119.3	118.6	119.0	130.1	133.3
Manufacturing									
Total cases	13.1	13.2	13.3	12.2	11.5	10.2	10.0	10.6	10.4
Lost workday cases	5.1	5.6	5.9	5.4	5.1	4.4	4.3	4.7	4.6
Lost workdays	82.3	84.9	90.2	86.7	82.0	75.0	73.5	77.9	80.2
Durable goods									
Lumber and wood products:									
Total cases	22.3	22.6	20.7	18.6	17.6	16.9	18.3	19.6	18.5
Lost workday cases	10.4	11.1	10.8	9.5	9.0	8.3	9.2	9.9	9.3
Lost workdays	178.0	178.8	175.9	171.8	158.4	153.3	163.5	172.0	171.4
Furniture and fixtures:									
Total cases	17.2	17.5	17.6	16.0	15.1	13.9	14.1	15.3	15.0
Lost workday cases	6.0	6.9	7.1	6.6	6.2	5.5	5.7	6.4	6.3
Lost workdays	92.0	95.9	99.6	97.6	91.9	85.6	83.0	101.5	100.4
Stone, clay, and glass products:									
Total cases	16.9	16.8	16.8	15.0	14.1	13.0	13.1	13.6	13.9
Lost workday cases	6.9	7.8	8.0	7.1	6.9	6.1	6.0	6.6	6.7
Lost workdays	120.4	126.3	133.7	128.1	122.2	112.2	112.0	120.8	127.8
Primary metal industries:									
Total cases	16.2	17.0	17.3	15.2	14.4	12.4	12.4	13.3	12.6
Lost workday cases	6.8	7.5	8.1	7.1	6.7	5.4	5.4	6.1	5.7
Lost workdays	119.4	123.6	134.7	128.3	121.3	101.6	103.4	115.3	113.8
Fabricated metal products:									
Total cases	19.1	19.3	19.9	18.5	17.5	15.3	15.1	16.1	16.3
Lost workday cases	7.2	8.0	8.7	8.0	7.5	6.4	6.1	6.7	6.9
Lost workdays	109.0	112.4	124.2	118.4	109.9	102.5	96.5	104.9	110.1
Machinery, except electrical:									
Total cases	14.0	14.4	14.7	13.7	12.9	10.7	9.8	10.7	10.8
Lost workday cases	4.7	5.4	5.9	5.5	5.1	4.2	3.6	4.1	4.2
Lost workdays	69.9	75.1	83.6	81.3	74.9	66.0	58.1	65.8	69.3
Electric and electronic equipment:									
Total cases	8.6	8.7	8.6	8.0	7.4	6.5	6.3	6.8	6.4
Lost workday cases	3.0	3.3	3.4	3.3	3.1	2.7	2.6	2.8	2.7
Lost workdays	46.7	50.3	51.9	51.8	48.4	42.2	41.4	45.0	45.7
Transportation equipment:									
Total cases	11.8	11.5	11.6	10.6	9.8	9.2	8.4	9.3	9.0
Lost workday cases	5.0	5.1	5.5	4.9	4.6	4.0	3.6	4.2	3.9
Lost workdays	79.3	78.0	85.9	82.4	78.1	72.2	64.5	68.8	71.6
Instruments and related products:									
Total cases	7.0	6.9	7.2	6.8	6.5	5.6	5.2	5.4	5.2
Lost workday cases	2.4	2.6	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.3	2.1	2.2	2.2
Lost workdays	37.4	37.0	40.0	41.8	39.2	37.0	35.6	37.5	37.9
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries:									
Total cases	11.5	11.8	11.7	10.9	10.7	9.9	9.9	10.5	9.7
Lost workday cases	4.0	4.5	4.7	4.4	4.4	4.1	4.0	4.3	4.2
Lost workdays	58.7	66.4	67.7	67.9	68.3	69.9	66.3	70.2	73.2

See footnotes at end of table.

48. Continued— Occupational injury and illness incidence rates by industry, United States

Industry and type of case ¹	Incidence rates per 100 full-time workers ²								
	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
Nondurable goods									
Food and kindred products:									
Total cases	19.5	19.4	19.9	18.7	17.8	16.7	16.5	16.7	16.7
Lost workday cases	8.5	8.9	9.5	9.0	8.6	8.0	7.9	8.1	8.1
Lost workdays	130.1	132.2	141.8	136.8	130.7	129.3	131.2	131.6	138.0
Tobacco manufacturing:									
Total cases	9.1	8.7	9.3	8.1	8.2	7.2	6.5	7.7	7.3
Lost workday cases	3.8	4.0	4.2	3.8	3.9	3.2	3.0	3.2	3.0
Lost workdays	66.7	58.6	64.8	45.8	56.8	44.6	42.8	51.7	51.7
Textile mill products:									
Total cases	10.2	10.2	9.7	9.1	8.8	7.6	7.4	8.0	7.5
Lost workday cases	2.9	3.4	3.4	3.3	3.2	2.8	2.8	3.0	3.0
Lost workdays	57.4	61.5	61.3	62.8	59.2	53.8	51.4	54.0	57.4
Apparel and other textile products:									
Total cases	6.7	6.5	6.5	6.4	6.3	6.0	6.4	6.7	6.7
Lost workday cases	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.4	2.5	2.6
Lost workdays	31.7	32.4	34.1	34.9	35.0	36.4	40.6	40.9	44.1
Paper and allied products:									
Total cases	13.6	13.5	13.5	12.7	11.6	10.6	10.0	10.4	10.2
Lost workday cases	5.0	5.7	6.0	5.8	5.4	4.9	4.5	4.7	4.7
Lost workdays	101.6	103.3	108.4	112.3	103.6	99.1	90.3	93.8	94.6
Printing and publishing:									
Total cases	6.8	7.0	7.1	6.9	6.7	6.6	6.6	6.5	6.3
Lost workday cases	2.7	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.0	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9
Lost workdays	41.7	43.8	45.1	46.5	47.4	45.7	44.6	46.0	49.2
Chemicals and allied products:									
Total cases	8.0	7.8	7.7	6.8	6.6	5.7	5.5	5.3	5.1
Lost workday cases	3.1	3.3	3.5	3.1	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.3
Lost workdays	51.4	50.9	54.9	50.3	48.1	39.4	42.3	40.8	38.8
Petroleum and coal products:									
Total cases	8.1	7.9	7.7	7.2	6.7	5.3	5.5	5.1	5.1
Lost workday cases	3.3	3.4	3.6	3.5	2.9	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.4
Lost workdays	59.2	58.3	62.0	59.1	51.2	46.4	46.8	53.5	49.9
Rubber and miscellaneous plastics products:									
Total cases	16.8	17.1	17.1	15.5	14.6	12.7	13.0	13.6	13.4
Lost workday cases	7.6	8.1	8.2	7.4	7.2	6.0	6.2	6.4	6.3
Lost workdays	118.1	125.5	127.1	118.6	117.4	100.9	101.4	104.3	107.4
Leather and leather products:									
Total cases	11.5	11.7	11.5	11.7	11.5	9.9	10.0	10.5	10.3
Lost workday cases	4.4	4.7	4.9	5.0	5.1	4.5	4.4	4.7	4.6
Lost workdays	68.9	72.5	76.2	82.7	82.6	86.5	87.3	94.4	88.3
Transportation and public utilities									
Total cases	9.7	10.1	10.0	9.4	9.0	8.5	8.2	8.8	8.6
Lost workday cases	5.3	5.7	5.9	5.5	5.3	4.9	4.7	5.2	5.0
Lost workdays	95.9	102.3	107.0	104.5	100.6	96.7	94.9	105.1	107.1
Wholesale and retail trade									
Total cases	7.7	7.9	8.0	7.4	7.3	7.2	7.2	7.4	7.4
Lost workday cases	2.9	3.2	3.4	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.3	3.2
Lost workdays	44.0	44.9	49.0	48.7	45.3	45.5	47.8	50.5	50.7
Wholesale trade:									
Total cases	8.5	8.9	8.8	8.2	7.7	7.1	7.0	7.2	7.2
Lost workday cases	3.6	3.9	4.1	3.9	3.6	3.4	3.2	3.5	3.5
Lost workdays	52.5	57.5	59.1	58.2	54.7	52.1	50.6	55.5	59.8
Retail trade:									
Total cases	7.4	7.5	7.7	7.1	7.1	7.2	7.3	7.5	7.5
Lost workday cases	2.7	2.8	3.1	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.1
Lost workdays	40.5	39.7	44.7	44.5	41.1	42.6	46.7	48.4	47.0
Finance, insurance, and real estate									
Total cases	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.0
Lost workday cases8	.8	.9	.8	.8	.9	.9	.9	.9
Lost workdays	10.4	12.5	13.3	12.2	11.6	13.2	12.8	13.6	15.4
Services									
Total cases	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.2	5.0	4.9	5.1	5.2	5.4
Lost workday cases	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.6
Lost workdays	35.4	36.2	38.1	35.8	35.9	35.8	37.0	41.1	45.4

¹ Total cases include fatalities.

² The incidence rates represent the number of injuries and illnesses or lost workdays per 100 full-time workers and were calculated as:

$(N/EH) \times 200,000$, where:

N = number of injuries and illnesses or lost workdays.

EH = total hours worked by all employees during calendar year.

200,000 = base for 100 full-time equivalent workers (working 40 hours per week, 50 weeks per year.)

³ Excludes farms with fewer than 11 employees since 1976.

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