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Capital Outlay Decisions of District Governments

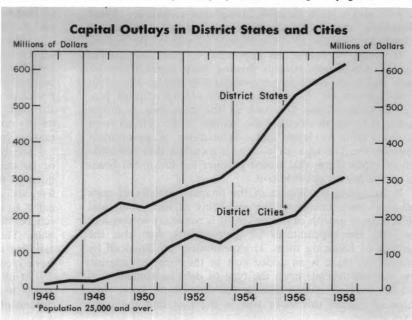
"You gotta ac-cen-tu-ate the positive and e-lim-i-nate the negative" might well be the theme song of state and local governments these days. Positive actions are needed to insure that government expenditures—paid for out of current revenue or through borrowing—make the maximum contribution to the social well-being of the citizen and the economic growth of the community. The negative effects of mistakes in decision-making and outmoded operational techniques must also be eliminated if the maximum contribution of public expenditures is to be made at minimum cost.

Getting the most for the money is not a new idea to many government units. Pressures to stretch every penny farther have been building up for some time. Since the end of World War II, state and local governments have had to provide a greater variety of public services of higher quality to a rapidly expanding and shifting population. They have responded by sharply expanding their capital spending—expenditures for land, durable equipment, and large scale construction projects of various types. Still, unsatisfied demands for services persist.

What demands should be met? How much can be spent in any period, and how should the spending be financed? These and other troublesome questions must be answered periodically by government officials. In that rational but mysterious world inhabited by economists, what factors would be considered in determining the composition and level of expenditures? How do governmental units, as a matter of fact, approach these problems? In an effort to throw some light on these questions, we shall consider capital spending in theory and in practice. Before doing so, however, it might be well to review the growth and magnitude of capital spending and long-term borrowing by southern governments.

The Importance of Capital Spending

Capital spending is important partly because of the large sums of money involved. In fiscal 1947, such spending by state and large city governments



that lie wholly or partly in the Sixth District—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Tennessee—amounted to \$150 million. Twelve years later, in fiscal 1958, District state and city governments spent six times that amount, or \$928 million. When expenditures of smaller cities and towns, counties, school boards, and other political units are added to this amount, capital outlays in the South undoubtedly exceeded a billion dollars a year.

Perhaps the major stimulus behind the expansion in capital spending has been the explosion in population. Stated simply, governments have had to build new facilities and provide more services for more people. In Florida, for example, population increased 72 percent from 1950 to 1959. The number of people did not, however, expand uniformly throughout the state. In Brevard County—which includes Cape Canaveral—population more than tripled in a decade. Florida's population growth has been phenomenal, but developments there have been duplicated in lesser degree in many areas of the South.

The need for capital expenditures is clearly demonstrated in many ways. Need must be coupled with ability to pay, however, before spending can become effective. In recent years, new and higher taxes have yielded more revenue than ever before, but part of the gain has been offset by rising operating expenditures, as increased payrolls and materials costs boosted outlays on current account. In any event, capital outlays rose much more rapidly than revenues, thus necessitating heavy borrowing.

New long-term bond offerings of all governments in District states totaled more than \$3 billion during the five-year period 1955-59, with borrowing ranging in amount from \$278 million by governments in Mississippi to \$900 million in Florida. The purpose of borrowing reflected, of course, the types of capital projects undertaken. Consequently, the major purposes for raising funds in all District states were to build schools and roads and bridges and to expand water facilities and other public utilities.

Capital Spending in Theory

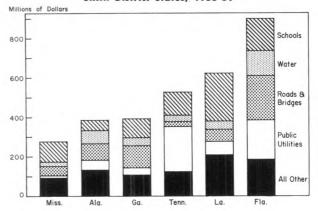
Capital spending of a billion dollars a year by governments in District states undoubtedly has a profound impact on the social and economic prospects of the region and its people. Individuals, for example, derive certain social benefits from educational expenditures. These benefits accrue to the individual in the form of enhanced perception, which in turn enables him to enjoy or adjust to a broad range of experiences. By providing a work force of literate and technically skilled individuals, moreover, education may make a substantial indirect contribution to the economic growth of the region.

It would, of course, be impossible to point out all the social and economic benefits flowing from expenditures on roads and other types of governmental spending. The main point, however, is that different types of expenditures produce different effects. One task of the economist in public finance is to try to calculate the benefits to be derived from various alternative levels and combinations of government expenditures. The idea, of course, is to select that combination of expenditures that would produce the maximum benefits at the lowest possible cost.

In analyzing the impact of the financial activity of state and local governments on the well-being of individuals and the economic growth of the region, it is necessary to consider not only the expenditures of governments, but also the methods of financing them. If expenditures are financed by borrowings, there is an added cost in the form of interest. The amount depends upon the type of debt instrument used and the level of interest rates at the time of the borrowing. Balanced against this extra cost is the fact that the com-

New Long-Term Borrowing by State and Local Governments

Sixth District States, 1955-59



munity can enjoy a greater quantity and variety of government services without paying for them with current taxes.

The process of raising funds through taxes and borrowing, moreover, represents a transfer of income from the private to the public sector of the economy. This transfer may result in some net increase in the total expenditures of the area. Almost certainly, it will bring about a change in the pattern of production and prices. The character of the taxes levied raises questions about the equity and incidence of taxation, and the nature of certain expenditures raises questions about what the scope of governmental activities should be. Clearly, the financial activities of governments have many economic and social ramifications.

Theorists, of course, cannot total up the satisfactions accruing to society from any combination of public expenditures, then net out the dissatisfaction which may be associated with tax payments, and equate it with cost. Nor, can they determine what pattern private spending would have taken in the absence of taxes and borrowing. Considering these matters in abstraction, however, does provide some guides as to how these decisions might be made under ideal conditions.

Capital Spending in Practice

Governments on the firing line must make capital and financing decisions under far from ideal conditions. To get some idea of how these decisions are made in practice we have talked with financial officers of some 40 government units in District states. All the state governments were contacted and many of the larger cities, counties, and school boards.

Although government officials may not calculate the satisfactions to be derived from various expenditures, we found that in most cases there is a systematic method for recognizing the need for capital outlays and for establishing priorities. Gone are the days when the mayor, on his way to city hall, spied a vacant lot and decided to build an auditorium on it. This more or less capricious form of decision-making has been replaced by an official body that "plans."

The formality of the planning body varies with the type of political unit and the complexity of the problems. Frequently, needs are reviewed and capital outlay programs of five, six, or more years are developed and reviewed periodically. In the case of a school board, the superintendent of schools, with the help of technical assistants, may develop the plan. The county and city commission may perform the task for their respective units. Some states and larger cities have special planning commissions.

At all levels of government, the purpose of the planning group is to decide which needs should be satisfied. In the process of determining this, some governments consider some of the same factors that would be specified by the theorists. In Davidson County, Tennessee, for example, among the factors considered by the planning commission in determining priorities for capital expenditure projects are: (1) the relationship of a project to the welfare and progress of the entire county; (2) the relative urgency of each project; (3) the relationship of a project to other projects to be undertaken by the county; (4) the financial ability of the county to undertake the project.

The ability to finance the project, either with cash or borrowed funds, is related to current and prospective revenue collections and earnings on investments. Governments would likely pay for the capital improvement out of current funds if they could, since there would be no interest charges to pay. Most of the government units interviewed, however, indicated they had no choice because annual capital outlays loom larger than current revenues. It was also indicated that "saving up" for a period of years to pay cash at some future date is not practical in many cases, since projects such as schools and water facilities are not readily postponable.

None of the government units interviewed had a formal pay-as-you-go program designed to finance a specific proportion of capital outlays. Almost all of the governments, however, managed to eke out some funds from current operating monies to replace or to purchase new equipment. Mobile uses funds equal to one percent of city sales tax collections to finance capital outlays on a pay-as-you-go basis.

In the absence of sharp tax increases, it appears unlikely that governments could move very far in the direction of pay-as-you-go without severely limiting their capital outlays. Greater pressure on governments to pay cash would be brought to bear, if debt margins—the difference between outstanding debt and the maximum amount of debt that law or statute permits the unit to incur-were narrowed. Although most of the government units contacted had limits on debt guaranteed by the full faith and credit of the unit, debt for certain purposes was sometimes exempt. In the majority of cases, moreover, debt incurred through the issuance of revenue bonds was not subject to limitation.

District governments will presumably continue to rely on borrowing as a means of financing the major share of capital spending. Some will have to rely primarily on revenue bonds, however, because of relatively low debt limits on full faith and credit debt and traditional difficulties in getting voter approval of general obligation bonds in referenda. Because revenue bonds tend to carry higher interest rates than general obligation bonds, this inability to choose between types of debt will act to increase interest costs.

Theoretically, at least, interest rates may also be minimized by scheduling the sale of bond offerings at a time when rates are low and holding offerings off the market when rates are high. The attitude of the units interviewed, however, was that "We come to market when we're ready." During 1959, a year of high interest rates, only a very small proportion of offerings was either delayed or curtailed because of credit market conditions. Part of the issues that were affected, moreover, reflected—not unwillingness—but the inability of some governments to sell new bond issues because the market rate exceeded the maximum interest rate that they were able to pay under existing laws or statutes.

Some of the costs resulting from last year's higher interest rates on new offerings were partly offset by increased earnings on investments. Most of the governments invest temporarily idle funds arising from current operations or accumulated bond funds in short-term liquid assets. Local governments, in particular, maximize earnings by investing much of their surplus in Treasury bills.

State and local governments will continue to have to pick

and choose among capital outlay projects. The ability of most governments to meet the demand for services has, however, already been stretched to the limit. Although some new revenue sources are still untapped, the number is dwindling. The time may be approaching, therefore, when the public must decide whether it wants services badly enough to pay for them with higher taxes. ALFRED P. JOHNSON

Operating Ratios

Net profits of member banks were lower in 1959 than in 1958 despite record earnings of \$453 million, a gain of almost 16 percent. Expenses increased and most banks incurred losses from sales of Government securities. As a result, net profits fell from \$73 million to \$68 million.

Changes in earnings, profits, and expenses are revealed in the operating ratios of member banks for 1959. These ratios were computed by using averages of data taken from reports of condition for December 31, 1958, June 10, 1959, and October 6, 1959 along with earnings and dividends reports for the year 1959. Continued on page 6

Average Operating Ratios of all Member Banks in the Sixth Federal Reserve District

SUMMARY RATIOS:	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959
Percentage of total capital accounts:	-					
Net current earnings before	15.5	1/0	1/0	35.7	140	37.5
income taxes	15.5 15.1	16.2 13.2	16.9 12.8	15.7 12.6	14.2 14.1	16.5 11.9
Net profits	9.9	8.5	8.4	8.4	9.6	8.2
Cash dividends declared	3.1	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.9	3.0
Percentage of total assets:						
Total earnings	3.26	3.43	3.66	3.88	4.01	4.24
Net current earnings before						
income taxes	1.10	1.18	1.23	1.16	1.09	1.25
Net profits	71	.63	.62	.63	.74	.62
SOURCE AND DISPOSITION OF EARNIN	G5:					
Percentage of total earnings: Interest on U.S. Govt. securities	22.4	21.8	22.2	22.5	20.9	21.5
Int. and div. on other sec	5.9	5.9	6.0	6.2	7.2	6.9
Earnings on loans	58.8	59.7	59.6	59.4	59.4	59.5
Service charges on dep. accts	6.7	66	6.5	6.6	7.3	7.1
Trust department earnings1	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.5
Other current earnings		6.0	5.7	5.3	5.2	5.0
Total earnings	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Salaries and wages	32.3	31.6	31.2	30.2	30.3	28.7
Interest on time deposits2	10.4	10.8	11.3	16.4	18.5	18.2
Other current expenses	. 33.9	34.2	35.0	39.7	42.5	41.7
Total expenses	. 66.2	65.8	66.2	69.9	72.8	70.4
Net current earnings before income taxes	33.8	34.2	33.8	30.1	27.2	29.6
Net losses (or recoveries and	. ,,,,,	J4.2	٠.٠	JU.1	E7.L	27.0
	+ 1.0	3.5	4.9	3.2	+ 2.5	6.5
Net increase (or net decrease +)	,				•	
in valuation reserves	. 1.4	2.3	2.9	2.4	2.6	1.5
Taxes on net income	. 11.4	9.9	8.7	7.9	8. 6	6.7
Net profits	. 22.0	18.5	17.3	16.6	18.5	14.9
	D LOANS	:				
Return on securities:	2.0/	2 22	2.4/	2/4	2/5	2.00
Interest on U.S. Govt, securities	. 2.06 . 2.60	2.12 2.52	2.46 2.52	2.64 2.66	2.65 2.82	2.95
Net losses (or recoveries and	. 2.00	2.52	2.52	2.00	2.02	2.0
profits +) on total sec.:	. + .27	.17	.27	11	+ .44	.50
Return on loans:			,		1	.50
Earnings on loans	. 6.19	6.35	6.35	6.67	6.71	6.90
Net losses (or net recoveries +)						
on loans:	17	.10	.15	.15	.13	.18
DISTRIBUTION OF ASSETS:						
Percentage of total assets:	22.4	22.0	21.4	27.4	20.2	20.0
U.S. Government securities	. 33.4	33.0	31.4	31.4	30.3	29.8
Other securities	8.1	8 6 32.8	9.0 34.8	9.4	10.4	10.4
Loans	. 31.5 . 25.8	32.8 24.3	23.4	34.8 22.8	35.7 21.9	36.9 21.1
Cash assets	. 25.6	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.6
All other assets	2	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2
Total assets	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
OTHER RATIOS:	. 100.0	-00.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total capital accounts to:						
Total assets	. 7.7	7.7	7.8	7.9	8.2	8.0
Total assets less Government						
securities and cash assets	. 196	18.9	18.0	18.1	17,7	17.0
Total deposits	. 84	8.5	8.6	8.8	9.1	8.9
Time deposits4 to total deposits	. 24.8	25.8	26.0	28.2	31.7	32.1
Interest on time deposits to time						_
deposits	1.36					2.5
Number of banks	. 362	369	378	387	397	399
1 Banks with none were excluded in compl	iting this	average.	Ratio in	cluded i	n "Other	curren
earnings."						
2Banks with none were excluded in compl	iting this	average.	Ratio in	cluded i	n ''Other	curren

²Banks with none were excluded in computing this average. Ratio included in 'Other current expenses.'

Includes recoveries or losses applied to either earnings or valuation reserves.

Banks with none were excluded in computing this average.

Springtime in Alabama

Springtime in Alabama means the azaleas are blooming again. This year the season has other significance: It marks the two-year point in the economic recovery from the April 1958 recession trough. So, perhaps this is a good time to look at Alabama's economy as well as its multicolored azaleas. Since latest economic data available are for February, the comparisons and percent changes that follow are based on April 1958 and February 1960 figures, unless otherwise indicated.

Alabama's economic recovery from the recession trough two springs ago has been moderate. Nonfarm employment has risen 2 percent, but is still 2 percent below its pre-recession peak of July 1957. Both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing employment have blossomed, but not as spectacularly as the state's azaleas. Nonmanufacturing employment is roughly 2.3 percent above the April 1958 trough. Manufacturing employment is up 1.9 percent, but has not recovered as rapidly as it has in the nation and is still 6.6 percent below the August 1957 peak.



Not only are more Alabamians employed, but they are earning more. In 1959, personal income rose about 5 percent from 1958; the gain includes increased earnings in factories and farms. Although the number of Alabama manufacturing workers has not increased phenomenally, factory employees are working more hours per week and receiving higher hourly earnings. Thus, manufacturing payrolls are 15 percent above the April 1958 recession trough.

Alabama's total cash receipts from farm marketings also mounted in 1959 as King Cotton bountifully blessed the "Heart of Dixie" state's cotton farmers with a bumper crop. Since this white gold accounts for over a third of the state's cash farm receipts, the recent crop was more than good enough to offset a slightly poorer year for the state's livestock farmers, lifting Alabama's cash farm receipts 5 percent above the total for the preceding year.

Reflecting increased income, spending headed skyward in Alabama during the last two years. Bank debits, indicating check spending by individuals, businesses, and governments, as well as financial transactions, have increased 23 percent from the recession trough two springs back. Retail sales gained 24 percent from April 1958 to January 1960.

Financial activity stepped up moderately in Alabama; bank deposits are 9 percent higher than April 1958. Increased business investment and consumer durables spending are among the Alabama economic developments reflected by a 25-percent bank loan gain over the last two years.

Developments in a given industry or city are often of more interest than the broad measures just discussed, so let us examine trends in Alabama's more important industries and in the larger cities. Since employment data portray most vividly developments in specific industries, they should give us a fairly clear picture of what is happening in the state's economy.

Manufacturing

During the recent recession, manufacturing employment declined less in Alabama than in the nation and rose less in Alabama during the current recovery. Structural differences between Alabama's economy and that of the nation explain much of this divergence. The nation's five most important manufacturing industries in terms of employment (transportation equipment, nonelectrical machinery, food and kindred products, electrical machinery, and primary metals) suffered a greater employment decline during the recession than Alabama's five most important manufacturing industries (primary metals, textiles, lumber and furniture, apparel, and transportation equipment). Furthermore, employment in the nation's "big five" increased by a greater percentage in the current recovery. This pattern has prevailed in all three business cycles since World War II, suggesting that Alabama's industrial structure is less subject to the impact of the business cycle than the national industrial complex.

The same structural differences also help explain employment deviations within a particular industry. Differences in employment trends, however, may arise from other factors such as a faster rate of plant consolidation in one area than another. Although Alabama-national differences occur within an industry, developments in Alabama are closely related to those in the nation because Alabama's major manufacturing industries all have national ties.

Alabama's five most important manufacturing industries employ about 65 percent of the state's manufacturing workers. Changes in their employment trends thus tell us much about changes in Alabama's total manufacturing employment.

Primary Metals A massive steel mill is the first image that comes to many minds thinking about Alabama manufacturing. These giant factories employ nine-tenths of Alabama's primary metals industry workers, and primary metals account for 19 percent of the state's manufacturing employment, compared with 7 percent nationally.

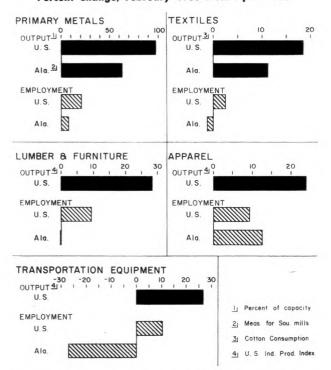
Iron and steel is by far the most important primary metals industry, and steel output (measured as a percent of plant capacity) outgained employment in both Alabama and the nation. Furthermore, national gains were greater in both output and employment than Alabama gains.

Alabama's steel recovery lagged behind the nation's for at least two main reasons. First, product mix. Alabama mills have a proportionately greater capacity devoted to producing wire, rails, and pipe than national mills. Recent demand for these steel products has not been as strong as that for plate and sheet steel used in automobiles. Dixie's mills, however, do not have proportionately as much capacity to produce plates and sheets as national mills. Second, foreign steel competition may have had a stronger effect on mills in the South than nationally, as suggested by (a) greater southern-thannational accessibility to ports and (b) relative cheapness of foreign wire, and wire accounts for more of total output in southern mills than in U. S. mills.

Textiles Textile mills run a close second to primary metals factories in manufacturing employment. Eighteen percent of Alabama's manufacturing employees work for textile mill companies as opposed to 5 percent of the nation's. Textile employment in Alabama decreased from the recession trough although output (measured by cotton consumption) increased; both employment and output increased nationally. Textile plant consolidations have been more prevalent in Alabama

Manufacturing Employment and Output*

Alabama and United States Percent Change, February 1960 from April 1958



*Output seasonally adjusted except primary metals; employment unadjusted.

than in the nation during the last two years. As a result, some uneconomic marginal mills in the state were closed with a consequent slight reduction in textile employment and intensified production effort at those mills still operating. This is one reason why textile output per employee increased more in Alabama than in the nation. A substantially greater increase in the workweek in Alabama's textile mills (7.1 percent) than nationally (4.7 percent) reflects the increased output per man.

Lumber and Furniture Alabama's aromatic pine forests are a thrilling tourist attraction. They also form the basis for much of the state's third most important industrial group in terms of employment: The lumber and furniture group accounts for 11 percent of Alabama's manufacturing employment, compared with 6 percent of the nation's.

Lumber and furniture employment has changed little in Alabama since the April 1958 recession trough; it has risen 9 percent nationally. Output in the nation increased 28 percent. A look behind the latter gain reveals a possible reason why Alabama's lumber and furniture employment recovery lagged behind the nation's. The 28-percent lumber and furniture output gain came more from furniture's 34-percent leap than lumber's mild 7-percent rise in output through January. Thus, Alabama, with three-fifths of its lumber and furniture workers in sawmills and planing mills, benefited less from the industry's output gain than the nation, for only one-fourth of the national industry's workers are in the lumber-mill end of the business.

Apparel The apparel industry gives bright color to Alabama's manufacturing employment fabric. Apparel employment not only increased more than employment in any other major Alabama manufacturing industry, but it increased more than national apparel employment. This industry accounts for 9 percent of Alabama's manufacturing employment and 7 percent of the nation's.

As in steel and in lumber and furniture, differences in product mix between Alabama and national apparel output explain much of the difference between Alabama and national employment gains; of Alabama's apparel workers, 62 percent produce men's wear, in contrast to 36 percent nationally. Thus, an increase in men's wear output three times the increase in women's wear furnishes a major reason Alabama apparel employment outgained the nation's.

Transportation Equipment This industry covers aircraft, automobiles, railroad equipment, and shipbuilding and repair. It accounts for 7 percent of Alabama's manufacturing employment and 10 percent of the nation's.

Why has employment in Alabama's transportation equipment industry declined since April 1958, while it increased nationally? Product mix again furnishes a partial explanation. Motor vehicles registered the largest transportation equipment employment gain since the recession trough; though an important employer nationally, motor vehicles is insignificant in Alabama. That state's important transportation equipment employers are aircraft, shipbuilding and repair, and railroad equipment, and these industries have not been as strong as motor vehicles. Curtailed defense contracts for Alabama aircraft are partly responsible for the reduction in Alabama transportation equipment employment.

Shipbuilding and repair employment also declined nearly 30 percent from April 1958. This decline occurred even though ship arrivals at Alabama's Port of Mobile rose to a record 2,044 in 1959; thus, the employment decline was not caused by reduced port activity. Instead, the shipbuilding and repair employment decline probably reflects three factors: First, some shipowners may be postponing foreseeable repairs until the vessel reaches a foreign port, where the repairs may be made at a lower cost. Second, curtailed building of offshore oil-drilling rigs as a result of sharply sliced well-drilling off the Gulf Coast. Third, the lack of any special shipbuilding projects, such as the conversion of general cargo vessels to tankers and back again as a result of the Suez Crisis, which boosted Mobile's shipbuilding employment over the 7,000 mark in late 1957, whereas it is now around 2,200.

Nonmanufacturing

Nonmanufacturing employment is now 2.3 percent above its recession trough two springs back. Alabama's three largest nonmanufacturing industries account for much of this increase, as each registered greater percentage gains than total nonmanufacturing. These industries are government (accounting for 31 percent of Alabama's nonmanufacturing employment), wholesale and retail trade (accounting for 29 percent), and service (14 percent).

Activity in Major Cities

The different behavior of the broad measures of economic activity in Alabama's five most populous cities in general can be explained by their different economic structures. Bank debits increased as much in 1959 over 1958 as the state average in Mobile, more than the state in Anniston and Montgomery, and less in Birmingham and Gadsden. Bank deposits in Montgomery and Birmingham have been running above the state average year-to-year change, but below in Gadsden, Mobile, and Anniston. Retail sales increased twice as much from 1958 to 1959 as the state average in Montgomery County, and slightly more than average in Etowah County (Gadsden), while Calhoun (Anniston), Jefferson (Birmingham) and Mobile County increases trailed the state average.

OPERATING RATIOS

Continued from page 3

Total earnings amounted to 4.24 percent of assets, compared with 4.01 percent in 1958 and 3.26 percent five years earlier. The gain was accounted for largely by higher rates of return on all types of earning assets and a shift from loweryielding investments to higher-yielding loans.

The rate of return on Government securities rose to 2.95 percent, the greatest yield since this computation was begun in 1945. Yields on other types of securities increased to 2.87 percent, a twelve-year record. The average rate of return on loans rose from 6.71 percent in 1958 to 6.90 percent in 1959.

Loan demand was strong in 1959. To meet it, District bankers liquidated some of their securities and drew down on their cash holdings. The ratio of Government securities to total assets fell below 30 percent for the first time since the early 1930's, while cash assets declined to the smallest portion of total assets that they have constituted in over 30 years. The proportion of loans to assets, 36.9 percent, was more than twice as much as in 1946, the first postwar year.

With current interest rates higher than those prevailing when the banks acquired their Government securities, the market prices for the securities sold by many banks were lower than when the securities were purchased. As a result, many securities were sold at sizable capital losses. The average net loss amounted to .50 percent of security holdings of all types, compared with profits and recoveries of .44 percent in 1958. As a result, a \$60-million increase in net current earnings was converted into a \$5-million decline in net profits.

Operating expenses of the 399 member banks that were in operation the entire year increased 10.5 percent during 1959 to \$298 million. For the first time since 1955, however, the rate of increase in expenses fell short of the rate of gain in earnings. Slightly over 70 cents of each dollar earned was allocated to expenses in 1959, compared with almost 73 cents in 1958. The largest expense item continued to be salaries and wages, which constituted 41 percent of expenses and claimed 28.7 percent of total earnings.

ROBERT M. YOUNG

Department Store Sales and Inventories*

			Percent Char	ge			
	Sales			Inve	Inventories		
	Feb. 1960 from		2 Months	Feb. 29, 1960 fro			
Place	Jan. 1960	Feb. 1959	1960 from 1959	Jan. 31, 1960	Feb. 28, 1959		
ALABAMA	+1 +2	+1 1	—2 —4	+9 +8	+14 +4		
Mobile	+5 2	+5 +1	—2 —3				
FLORIDA	+2 +18	+8 +3	+6	+4	+15		
Jacksonville	-10	+19	+17	+9	+i8		
Miami Area	+6 +5	+8 +7	+5 +4	• •			
Orlando	—0 2	3 +12	—7 +10	 +9	+29		
GEORGIA	—3 —4	+5 +9	+3 +5	∔9 +8	∔19 +22		
Augusta	+6 +1	3 4	+2 -3	+10	+ 2		
Macon	-5	_4 _3	<u>_3</u>	+10	+6		
Savannah	_2	+3 -2	5				
LOUISIANA	<u></u> 6	+3 -3	<u></u> 6	+15 +8	+10 +5		
New Orleans	—3 —6	+6 5	1 6	+17 + 10	+11 +6		
Jackson	—10 —5	- 6 -4	8 4	+4	+6		
TENNESSEE	8	5	<u>—</u> 5	+9	+8		
Johnson City** Bristol (Tenn. & Va.)**	_2 _4	—15 —22	11 17	+9 +16	5 14		
Chattanooga	—10 —12	6	6 +0	+iż	+27		
DISTRICT	2	+3	<u>+</u> 1	+8	+14		

*Reporting stores account for over 90 percent of total District department store sales.

**In order to permit publication of figures for this city, a special sample has been constructed that is not confined exclusively to department stores. Figures for non-department stores, however, are not used in computing the District percent changes.

Bank Announcement

On March 22, the newly organized Capital City Bank, Nashville, Tennessee, opened for business as a nonmember bank and began to remit at par for checks drawn on it when received from the Federal Reserve Bank. Officers are William H. Browder, Chairman of the Board; Nile E. Yearwood, President; Ben D. Cunningham, Vice President; and John P. Lawrence, Cashier. Capital totals \$1,000,000 and surplus and undivided profits \$450,000.

Debits to Individual Demand Deposit Accounts

(In Thousands of Dollars)

Percent Change

				Percent Change			
						to-date Months	
				Feb. 196		1960	
	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Jan.	Feb	from	
	1960	1960	1959	1960	1959_	1959	
ALABAMA Anniston	39,746	42,671	34,395	7	+16	+10	
Birmingham	789,185	808,609	767,373	2	_L 2	+3	
Dothan	31,038	35,224	30,180	-12	+3 +12	+3 +3	
Gadsden Huntsville*	35,728 57 156	37,635 63,931	31,961	5 11	+12 —6	—1 —2	
Mobile	57,156 271,185	285,667	60,699 237,793	5	+14	+7	
Montgomery	160,970	161,437	150,496	0	+7 +14	+2	
Selma* Tuscaloosa*	22,338 50,623	24,552 56,082	19,603 46,488	9 10	+14 +9	∔7 +8	
Total Reporting Cities	1,457,969	1,515,808	1,378,988	4	+6	<u> </u>	
Other Cities +	729,321	799,762	659,163	9	+11	+8	
FLORIDA Daytona Beach* .	58,800	63,139	56,354	— 7	+4	+4	
Fort Lauderdale*	224,985	253,830	208,337	<u></u>	+8	+8	
Gainesville*	39,486	43,939	35,569	10	+11	+8	
Jacksonville Key West*	863,841 17,065	808,367 17,259	742,670	+7 1	+16	+8	
Lakeland*	84,830	88,646	15,614 73,340	4	+9 +16	+3 +10	
Miami	942,730	967,971	850,153	—3	+11	4	
Greater Miami* .	1,407,120	1,467,896	1,291,359 234,538	-4	+9	+7	
Orlando Pensacola	270,675 88,139	280,717 89,946	۵۶.۶۲,۵۵۵ 76.917	<u>4</u> 2	+15 +15	+12 +6	
St. Petersburg	232,810 429,757	89,946 266,032	76,917 221,348	12	+ 5	+6	
Tampa West Palm Beach*	429,757	446,670	290,228	-4	+10	+6	
Total Reporting Cities	148,367 3,865,875	147,537 3,973,978	140,310 3,486,584	+1 -3	$^{+6}_{+11}$	+1 +7	
Other Cities +	1,872,159	1,987,540	1,532,062	6	+22	+21	
GEORGIA	50.000	53.050	40.07/				
Albany	50,302 38,263	51,959 37,441	42,076 32,040	3 +2	+20 +19	+14 +9	
Atlanta	1,982,771	2,049,992	1,735,765	-3	+14	+11í	
Augusta	105,406	113,909	92,095	/	+14	+13	
Brunswick Columbus	22,643 99,791	28,458 107,782	24,197 91,297	20 7	6 +9	+3 +8	
Elberton	8,831	9,335	7,641	—, —5	+16	+8	
Gainesville*	40,993	47,555	40,841	14	+0	—2	
Griffin* LaGrange*	18,269 19,180	18,942 21,596	16,402 28,531	4 11	+11 33	+7 19	
Macon	120 406	21,596 125,089	28,531 114,045 27,394 16,359 37,251	4	+6		
Marietta*	29,440 19,253 44,319	33,663 21,729	27,394	-13	+7	+5 +4	
Newnan Rome*	19,253 44,319	46,998	16,359 37,251	—11 —6	+18 + 19	$^{+14}_{+15}$	
Savannah	104,009	197,761 34,988	101,431	—7	+1	+2	
Valdosta	31,563	34,988	28,512	-10	+11	+9	
Total Reporting Cities Other Cities	2,815,439 914,910	2,947,197 1,009,998	2,515,877 834,175	4 9	$^{+12}_{+10}$	∔9 +10	
LOUISIANA	•			,		1 -0	
Alexandria*	66,089	79,837	65,132	17	+1	+2	
Baton Rouge Lafayette*	258,487 60,445	280,876 68,164	267,002 60,431	—8 —11	—3 +0	0 2	
Lake Charles	79,077	90,563	82,842	13	5	7	
New Orleans	1,315,620 1,779,718	1,326,661	82,842 1,239,297 1,714,704	—1 —4	+6	+2 +1	
Total Reporting Cities Other Cities†	1,779,718 565,178	1,846,101 624,395	1,714,704 584,860	4 9	∔4 —3	+1 5	
MISSISSIPPI	232/210	U_ 1,0 10	•	-,			
Biloxi-Gulfport* .	48,669	47,787	44,562 31,701	+2 7	+9 +14	+7 +10	
Hattiesburg Jackson	36,208 291,876	38,815 287 288	31,701 249,650	7 + <u>2</u>	$^{+14}_{+17}$	+10	
Laurel*	28,023	287,288 27,610	249,650 24,122	+1 +1	+16	+8	
Meridian	41,425	42,647	37,970	3	+9	+5	
Natchez*	22,660 18,313	23,664 18,654	21,183 18,093	—4 —2	+7	+3 -3	
Total Reporting Cities	487,174	486,465	427,281	+0	$^{+1}_{+14}$	+7	
Other Cities+	256,192	272,302	223,821	-6	+14	+10	
TENNESSEE Bristol*	42,128	46 672	30 504	10	17		
Chattanooga	314,957	46,672 386,444	39,506 284,089	—10 —19	+7 +11	+7 +9	
Johnson City*	39,149	44,612	36,387	—12	+8	+6	
Kingsport* Knoxville	314,957 39,149 78,122 229,478 666,323	44,612 85,497 238,147	36,387 67,307 202,825 769,976	9 4 6 9 5 5 4 7	+16	+11	
Nashville	666,323	706,825	202,825 769.976	4 6	$^{+13}_{-13}$	+5 -8	
Total Reporting Cities	1,2/0,13/	1,508,197	1,400,090	<u>~_</u> 9	2	0	
Other Cities+	543,238	569.205	493,262	5	+10	+5 +7	
Reporting Cities .	16,657,330 11,776,332	17,540,948 12,277,746	15,250,867 10,923,524	—5 —4	+9 +8	+/ +5	
Other Cities +	4,880,998	5,263,202	10,923,524 4,327,343 9,284,915	<u>7</u>	+13	+5 +11	
Total, 32 Cities UNITED STATES	10,032,543	10,388,868	9,284,915	—3	+8	+5	
344 Cities	221,939,000	230,100,000	195,770.000	-4	+13	+8	
* Not included in total							
† Estimated.				_	- **		

Sixth District Indexes

Seasonally Adjusted (1947-49 = 100)

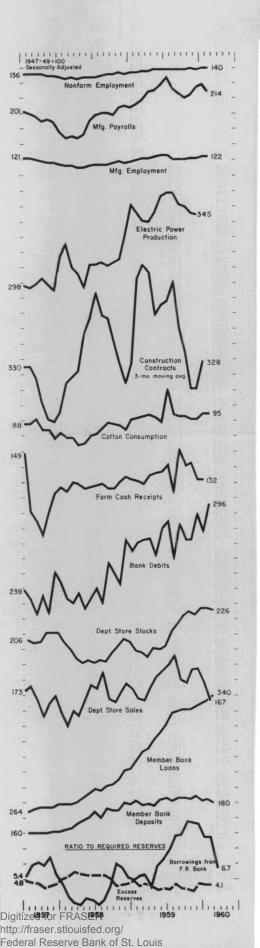
			1959	_			1960
SIXTH DISTRICT JAN. Nonfarm Employment 137	FEB. MAR. 137 138	APR. MAY 138 139	JUNE JULY 139 139	AUG. SEPT. 139 139	OCT. NOV.	DEC. 139	JAN. FEB. 140 140
Manufacturing Employment	120 121	121 122	123 123	120 120	120 121	121	122 122
	174 174	176 179	182 186	185 185	186 186	187	188r 187
Chemicals	132 133	135 135	135 135	136 131	130 131	133	133 133
	178 179	180 181	182 181	175 177	173 174	177	183 184
	114 115	115 113	114 112	112 113	115 116	114	117 117
Lbr., Wood Prod., Fur. & Fix	80 78	79 80	79 80	79 81	82 81	81	80 80
	161 161	161 163	163 165	163 165	164 161	160	166r 165
Primary Metals	92 95	98 100	103 102	73 74	74 94	100	9 9r 97
	87 88	87 88	88 89	88 88	87 86	86	87 86
Transportation Equipment 212 Manufacturing Payrolls 204 Cotton Consumption** 91	212 208	214 212	202 207	206 203	209 183	187	197 194
	206 209	214 215	219 224	216 213	210 212	217	219r 214
	92 93	94 92	89 110	94 93	93 91	91	95 95
Electric Power Production** 351 Petrol. Prod. in Coastal	346 341	340 346	357 359	359 351	350 346	345	356 n.a.
Louisiana & Mississippi** 192 Construction Contracts*	193 189	198 206	200 195	203 207	215 214	231	225 228
	445 463	453 397	411 416	440 380	350 302	302	328 n.a.
	382 394	398 429	433 425	444 440	441 373	367	351 n.a.
All Other	496 520	499 370	393 410	436 331	276 245	249	309 n.a.
	131 129	135 136	137 142	123 151	141 143	132	132 n.a.
Crops	115 109	116 119	114 123	96 134	124 123	106	104 n.a.
	164 183	188 183	186 186	179 194	181 176	154	166 n.a.
	168 167	175 182	186 190	196 180	178 187	188	178 167p
Atlanta	161 155	169 161	174 177	188 170	169 178	176	173 169
	181r 171	190 187	192 179	190 168	185 209	202	187r 169p
Birmingham 136 Chattanooga 163 Jackson	127 127	135 135	127 136	145 131	124 129	135	131 120
	151r 148	148 164	161 168	164 155	160 168	160	158 136
	116 104	111 121	114 124	131 111	113 130	123	118 104p
Jacksonville 146	141 136	130 135	139 138	221 166	151 182	172	176 161
Knoxville 161	154 147	151 1 53	148 164	165 165	159 168	172	170 146
Macon	155 143	170 166	168 167	177 158	158 162	164	164 142
	248 251	263 269	277 301	312 277	274 269	282	257 256
	139 130	142 144	151 155	156 151	149 154	153	141 141
Tampa-St. Petersburg 207 Dept. Store Stocks* 199	204r 221	230 251	245 244	263 241	241 260	251	232r 219p
	198 195	201 200	202 212	217 222	225 223	227	227r 226p
Furniture Store Sales* / **	153r 141	157 153	148 158	161 149	158 163	151	166r 143p
	178 179	178 182	183 181	183 183	182 184	181	182 180
	303 305	311 316	321 329	330 331	331 333	335	337 340
Bank Debits*	271 273	274 262	280 285	260 283	273 273	290	278 296
	153 149	145 158	152 162	154 150	147 150	154	154 156
In Leading Cities	162 160	164 174	174 179	174 164	153 160	166	166 168
	121 118	112 126	117 124	115 118	109 109	121	119 120
Nonfarm Employment 121 Manufacturing Employment 105	120 121	120 121	121 122	117 117	117 121	121	121 120
	106 107	107 107	106 109	100 99	97 105	106	105r 105
Manufacturing Payrolls 182 Furniture Store Sales 149 Member Bank Deposits 155	185 189	193 190	195 198	173 167	168 184	190	194 188
	153r 125	145 135	134 139	143 139	138 134	128	148 133
	154 154	156 157	160 160	160 160	159 159	158	159 158
Member Bank Loans	254 250	254 259	266 275	269 270	272 273	272	279 2 83
	125r 130r	126r 122r	125r 129r	125r 141r	114r 136r	142r	124 n.a.
Bank Debits 233 FLORIDA Nonfarm Employment 188	233 23 3	238 231	253 254	226 248	241 229	252	240 250
	189 191	193 195	197 199	199 200	200 200	198	198 199
Manufacturing Employment 188 Manufacturing Payrolls 318	190 193	195 195	198 202	202 202	202 201	199	201 202
	326 319	343 351	351 364	371 370	371 366	370	362r 356
Furniture Store Sales 180 Member Bank Deposits 242 Member Bank Loans 485	184 163	183 176	175 178	212 177	180 203	195	189r 174
	238 235	233 241	243 238	246 247	245 245	241	242 237
	492 500	511 526	534 544	548 550	547 547	549	546 549
Farm Cash Receipts*** 234r	236r 179r	243r 231r	241r 240r	203r 210r	194r 177r	206r	229 n.a.
Bank Debits 372	382 391	389 400	437 441	408 450	436 428	439	404 437
GEORGIA Nonfarm Employment 131 Manufacturing Employment 115	131 131	132 132	132 134	133 134	134 134	134	135 134
	116 117	118 119	119 120	119 120	120 117	118	119 119
Manufacturing Payrolls 195 Furniture Store Sales 149	197 204	206 211	215 219	216 207	210 203	204	211 205
	144r 134	151 148	139 159	163 144	159 157	150	149r 127p
Member Bank Deposits	157 157	157 160	159 157	162 160	160 163	158	161 160
	237 235	244 246	250 256	260 260	261 266	266	269 271
	141r 147r	140r 137r	127r 172r	133r 142r	136r 164r	121	137 n.a.
Bank Debits 236 LOUISIANA	238 243	248 235	253 2 61	238 258	249 244	264	255 2 65
Nonfarm Employment 129 Manufacturing Employment 96 Manufacturing Payrolls 173	129 128	128 128	128 127	126 127	126 127	127	128 128
	95 96	96 96	96 96	95 95	96 95	95	95 96
	173 175	178 179	175 176	176 178	170 171	171	176r 179
Furniture Store Sales*	174 20 3	177 191	177 193	178 193	171 195	184	188r 192
	160 165	160 165	165 160	160 160	157 160	158	162 159
Farm Cash Receipts	287 293	293 295	295 302	299 304	307 309	311	313 316
	106 109	111 141	109 105	97 127	136 104	111	98 n.a.
	216 227	229 217	240 233	223 248	226 212	235	204 220
MISSISSIPPI Nonfarm Employment 132	131 131	130 132	131 131	131 133	133 134	133	136r 135
Manufacturing Employment 131 Manufacturing Payrolls 247 Furniture Store Sales* 114	131 131	132 134	133 134	134 135	135 136	136	136r 135
	246 2 51	250 247	247 252	253 253	241 244	245	253r 249
	106 97	114 120	132 115	129 95	83 117	133	106r 99
Member Bank Deposits* 197 Member Bank Loans*	190 198	195 191	195 197	194 195	202 204	208	200 201
	367 378	383 391	398 403	400 411	392 392	403	414 424
Farm Cash Receipts 100 Bank Debits* 216 TENNESSEE	103 110	110 106	111 112	106 140	127 136	130	111 n.a.
	210 2 25	225 208	238 233	224 236	230 233	249	222 240
Nonfarm Employment 120 Manufacturing Employment 117	121 122	123 122	123 122	122 122	122 122	121	122r 122
	118 119	119 119	120 121	119 120	119 120	119	120 120
Manufacturing Payrolls	204 205	208 206	206 211	214 211	206 206	209	213r 211
	113r 109	114 116	116 105	122 109	108 102	109	104r 95p
	160 159	162 166	164 165	165 166	167 167	164	166 161
Member Bank Loans* 262 Farm Cash Receipts*** 106r	267 268	272 276	283 287	287 288	293 291	296	296 301
	106r 104r	106r 97r	103r 81r	108 135r	117r 122r	109r	95 n.a.
Bank Debits* 230	242 229	229 225	235 239	221 229	225 234	230	232 245

^{*}For Sixth District area only. Other totals for entire six states. n.a. Not Available. p Preliminary. r Revised.

^{**}Daily average basis. ***Revisions reflect new seasonal factors.

Sources: Nonfarm and mfg. emp. and payrolls, state depts. of labor; cotton consumption, U. S. Bureau Census; construction contracts, F. W. Dodge Corp.; petrol. prod., U. S. Bureau of Mines; elec, power prod., Fed. Power Comm. Other indexes based on data collected by this Bank. All indexes calculated by this Bank.

SIXTH DISTRICT BUSINESS HIGHLIGHTS



DIVERSE MOVEMENTS have occurred in different economic sectors recently, but, in general, activity continues high as indicated by seasonally adjusted data. Employment in February was unchanged from January's high, with increases in some states offsetting declines in others; manufacturing payrolls, however, declined. Farm marketings remained low, but prices received by farmers increased. Retail sales, which had been running slightly below last summer's record, edged downward in February, but borrowing for consumer spending continued its gradual rise. Total bank loans also rose, while investments continued to decline.

Nonfarm employment in February continued at the seasonally adjusted peak reached in November and again in January. Both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing employment remained unchanged. Within the overall stability, however, were offsetting increases and decreases among District states. Manufacturing payrolls declined after seasonal adjustment, reflecting lower average weekly earnings. The rate of insured unemployment remained unchanged, as is usual for February.

The seasonally adjusted three-month average of construction contract awards, based partly on February data, increased for the first time since last August. Cotton consumption was virtually unchanged in February, indicating a continued high volume of cotton textile output. In Coastal Louisiana and Mississippi, crude oil output was at a near-record volume. Steel mill operations, after reaching the pre-strike rate in January, slackened somewhat in February and March.

Farm sales in February remained low although more broilers and citrus were marketed. Citrus groves in Florida, undamaged by cold weather, are yielding more oranges this year than last and by early March most of the early and mid-season varieties had been marketed. Farmers received slightly higher prices on an average for the products they sold, as gains in the prices of hogs, broilers, beef cattle, citrus, and vegetables more than offset small declines in milk, egg, and cotton prices. Employment on farms rose seasonally but remained considerably under a year ago.

Department store sales declined further in March, according to a seasonally adjusted preliminary estimate, as unusually severe weather hit much of the District. February's decrease came as sales dropped sharply in every major metropolitan area except Miami and New Orleans. Department store stocks, seasonally adjusted, remained high in February, and the stock-to-sales ratio rose further. Furniture store sales and appliance store sales, seasonally adjusted, fell in February. Consumer instalment credit outstanding at commercial banks, however, continued to rise slightly.

Dollar value of **export trade** through District ports, seasonally adjusted, rose again in January. Increased shipments out of New Orleans and Florida ports more than offset export declines through Mobile and Georgia ports.

Member banks in all District states registered loan increases during February. Mississippi showed a particularly sharp gain for the third consecutive month. However, banks in leading District cities, accounting for most of February's loan gain, showed a less-than-seasonal rise in March. Member bank deposits, seasonally adjusted, declined somewhat during February following a rise in January. Deposits fell most sharply at Tennessee banks, but rose slightly in Mississippi. Liquidation of investments continued at a substantial rate during February. During March borrowings from the Federal Reserve Bank of Atlanta fell sharply to the lowest level since June 1959.