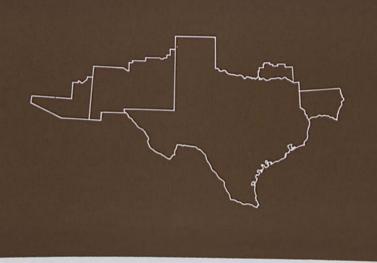
business review



october 1970

FEDERAL RESERVE BANK OF DALLAS

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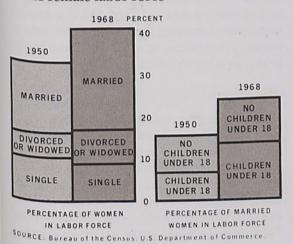
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Womanpower—an important resource

The notion that a woman's place is in the home is no longer valid, at least for many American families. Although most women are still full-time homemakers, technological changes and shifts in social attitudes are increasingly allowing women to find employment outside the home. Where less than a third of the female population was in the labor force in 1947, more than two-fifths of the women were working or seeking work in 1969.

No longer merely a supplementary source of labor to be called into service intermittently, women now make up a large part of the nation's labor resource. With science and technology eliminating many of the domestic tasks previously performed by women, they have become freer not only to move into the labor market but also to seek out educational opportunities that ease entry into the market. Meanwhile, a steady breaking down of resistance to women working — especially married women and women in fields previously reserved for

Married women, particularly mothers, account for most of the increase in the female labor force



men — has allowed them to make ever-greater contributions to the nation's economic life outside the home.

Marital status

As the female labor force has expanded, its composition has also changed. More older women are returning to work after their families are grown, and with the mounting emphasis on education, more young women are entering technical and professional employment. But perhaps most significant has been the increased labor force participation of married women. Where 41 percent of the women working in 1947 were married (with husbands present), by 1969 the proportion had risen to 59 percent — a shift broad enough to account for most of the increase in the female labor force overall.

Much of this change has doubtlessly been due to the many postwar improvements in consumer goods and the growing availability of consumer services, many of which make it easier for women to combine careers as homemakers and wage earners. Home appliances and easy-care fabrics have dramatically shortened the hours needed to care for a family, as has the introduction, for example, of frozen foods - many of them whole meals that can be fixed in a very short time. Working women can even pick up prepared meals at franchised chains on the way home from work. Mothers of small children have the use of established babysitting services, day-care centers, and even disposable diapers, all of which make it easier for them to stay in the labor force.

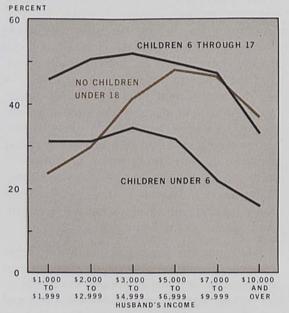
While postwar growth of the female labor force can be attributed mainly to the increased participation of married women, the profile of the typical working woman has been changed most by the rapid increase in working mothers. Where female employment increased over 60 percent between 1950 and 1968, the employment of mothers with children under 18 increased 2.6 times.

Participation of married women in the labor force appears to have a direct correlation with the earnings of their husbands. The Bureau of Labor Statistics conducted a study in 1967 to find relationships between the labor force participation of wives and incomes of their husbands. It was found that women were most apt to work when their husbands earned between \$5,000 and \$7,000 a year — figures representing the lower range of the middle incomes.

Although participation of married women was not, as many might have expected, highest among families with the lowest incomes, participation by women with small children (those under six) rose sharply at low-income levels,

Mothers of small children have lowest participation rate, except where husband's income lowest

Labor force participation rates of wives, by presence and age of children, March 1967)



SOURCE: Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor.

indicating economic necessity as a primary consideration of mothers seeking employment. The bureau found that women with preschool children participated least in the labor force, regardless of family income, but their participation rate was higher among women with husbands earning less than \$7,000 a year. Participation by mothers with school-age children (six to 18 years old) was also highest at low-income levels.

Age distribution

Older women are finding it easier to return to work after their families are grown. With less time needed to keep house, women past 45 often take paying jobs, either in pursuit of more active lives or to supplement family incomes. The number of working women age 45 to 54 more than tripled between 1940 and 1968, and the number between ages 55 and 64 increased more than fourfold.

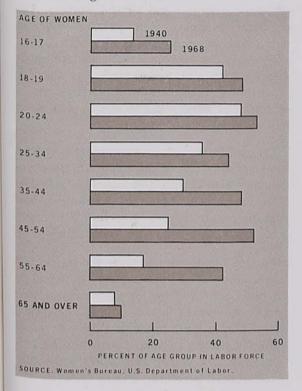
The increasing life expectancy of women makes it possible for them to work for many years after their families are grown. For some women, employment is necessary to maintain an adequate standard of living during their later years.

Discrimination in hiring on the basis of age is now prohibited by Federal law. This prohibition, which specifically bars discrimination against workers 40 to 65 years old, is especially important to working women since the rate of female participation in the labor force begins to rise significantly after age 35.

Geographic distribution

The geographic distribution of women as a percentage of the labor force is highly uneven, with the heaviest concentrations in urban areas, particularly the northeastern and north-central states. There was a slight shift to the South and West, however, between the censuses of 1950 and 1960. Much of this shift, which favored Texas and California especially, was associated

Mature women enter the labor force in increasing numbers



With general patterns of migration and industrial growth in the South and West.

Women typically accounted for far larger percentages of the total work forces in urban areas than rural areas in 1960, making up 44 percent of the labor force in the District of Columbia and 34 percent in New York but only 27 percent in North Dakota and 24 percent in Alaska. As demand for clerical and service workers increased throughout the 1960's, the tendency for women workers to concentrate in urban areas doubtlessly continued.

There were marked changes in the importance of women in the labor force in Texas. The state had over a million women workers in 1960, or nearly half again more than in 1950 and more than twice as many as in 1940. With this rise in the number of women workers, they

accounted for 33 percent of the state's labor force in 1960, compared with 27 percent in 1950 and 23 percent in 1940.

Occupational distribution

As urban areas have been important to women as centers of employment, so have the industries located mainly in urban areas. Over 19 percent of the female labor force in 1968 was employed in services, and 19 percent was in manufacturing. Government employed 18 percent, and retail trade 16 percent.

Although manufacturing provides a major source of employment for women, the importance of women to manufacturing increased only slightly between 1960 and 1968, leaving women still accounting for little more than a fourth of the total number of manufacturing employees. By contrast, more than half the workers in service industries and in finance, insurance, and real estate were women. And more than two-fifths of the employees in retail trade and government were women.

Between 1964 and 1968, the most rapid expansion in women's employment was in state

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN WORKERS IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES, 1968

(Annual averages)

		Percent of			
Industry group	Number (Thousands)		Female labor force		
Manufacturing	5,476	28%	19%		
Durable goods	2,325	20	8		
Nondurable goods	3,151	39	11		
Mining	37	6	(1)		
Contract construction	155	5	1		
Transportation and public utilities	866	20	3		
Wholesale trade	827	23	3		
Retail trade	4,677	45	16		
Finance, insurance, and real estate	1,704	51	6		
Services	5,608	53	19		
Government	5,158	42	18		
Total	24,507	36	85		

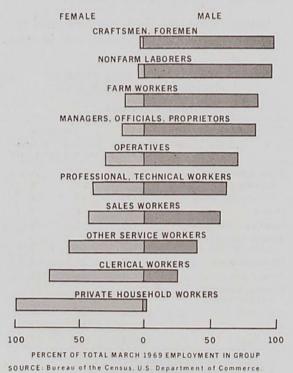
Less than one-half of 1 percent. SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics.

and local government. Of the various levels of government, local government was the biggest employer of women. This was because of the importance of women to teaching. Three out of four employees of local government were in education. State governments employed more than a million women in 1968, and two out of five of them were also in education.

There were increases in all areas of retail and wholesale trade, finance, insurance, and real estate. Other industrial groups, such as mining, transportation, and public utilities, continued to employ very few women. Only in air transportation was there any significant growth in female employment between 1960 and 1968.

Associated with changes in the industrial makeup of female employment have come changes in the types of positions women fill.

Women workers tend to concentrate in clerical and service jobs



Automation has reduced the need for assembly-line workers, for example, but increased the demand for technical and clerical workers. The computer has created many jobs for women in data processing and programming that did not exist only a few years ago. With the increase in affluence, demand for services has also increased — at both public and private levels — creating still more jobs for women and at an increasing rate.

Overall, however, employment of women still tends to be concentrated in only a few occupations. Clerical work still heads the list, providing one out of three jobs for women. And with the growth of paper work in business and industry, the proportion has been rising.

Service occupations account for the second largest group of employed women. Bolstered by the rapid growth of service industries, the percentage of women in this occupational group has also expanded. More than 16 percent of employed women were in services (except private household work) in March 1969, compared with 12 percent in 1950.

While manufacturing has provided a growing number of jobs for women as operatives (more than 4.3 million in 1969), with the increase in automation, the relative importance of manufacturing as a source of employment for women as operatives has been declining since 1950. Where manufacturing provided employment as operatives for 19 percent of all women workers in 1950, the proportion had dropped to about 15 percent in 1969.

In contrast to 1950, when one out of ten employed women was engaged in professional or technical work, the ratio in 1969 was one out of seven. Teaching continued the most popular profession, with 42 percent of all professional women teaching in either elementary or secondary schools. Much of the popularity of teaching could be due to the hours and vacations and, especially, the availability of employ-



ment in all localities. All these considerations are important to working women with families to raise.

Education and training

Education continues to be a major factor in the composition of the female labor force. There appears, in fact, to be a direct relationship between the education of women and their participation in the labor force. Not only do more jobs require educated workers but there are more educated women and they are typically more active in seeking employment than other women. In March 1968, for example, 71 percent of the women that had completed at least five years of college were in the labor force, compared with 31 percent of the women with eighth-grade educations.

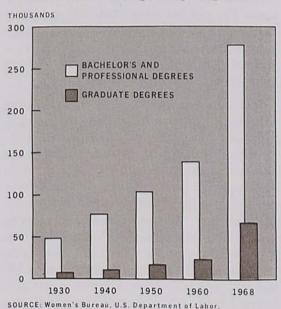
The number of bachelor's degrees awarded to women has more than doubled since 1950, while the number of master's degrees has tripled and the number of doctor's degrees has quadrupled. But while these changes signify an expanding population of educated women and,

with the faster increase in advanced degrees, an expanding reservoir of women with specialized training, as a percentage of total degrees awarded the gains are not so impressive.

Except for the early postwar years, when student bodies were stretched by returning servicemen, the percentage of college degrees going to women has held fairly steady since 1930 and the percentage of advanced degrees has declined. Where women earned 40 percent of the bachelor's degrees awarded in 1930, they earned 42 percent in 1968. But this slight percentage gain was offset by shrinkage in the share of graduate degrees. Where women earned 40 percent of the master's degrees in 1930, they earned 36 percent in 1968. Their share of doctorates slipped from 15 percent to 13 percent.

Since teaching is the largest single professional occupation for women, it is not surprising that the largest proportion of degrees earned by women is in education (40 percent in 1966-67). Next in importance as areas of

More women receiving college degrees



concentration are humanities (23 percent) and social sciences (15 percent).

As with men, the amount of education a woman completes has a direct bearing on the type of job she can obtain. In 1968, nearly half the working women that had attended college were employed in technical and professional occupations. By contrast, of those with no education beyond the elementary school level, more than three-fourths worked as operatives or service workers.

Even among the women that had attended college, there were wide variations in occupations according to the number of years completed. Of the women that had completed at least five years of college, 91 percent worked in professional and technical capacities, compared with 30 percent that had completed less than four years of college.

Unemployment rates

Despite the gains made by women, the average annual rate of unemployment has been higher for them than for men almost every year since 1940. The only exception was 1958, a recession year when the two rates were the same. The gap has often been wide, especially during periods of economic expansion, when more women enter the labor force. In 1967, a year of high employment, the rates differed more than 2 percentage points.

This difference results partly from the close relationship between education and employment that affects both male and female workers. Since women with limited educations are more likely than men or other women to be employed part time and since part-time workers typically have high unemployment rates, unemployment is predictably high among women with little education. Women with college educations, on the other hand, being ordinarily employed full time, have far greater job stability, especially those in technical and professional fields. Their unemployment rates are

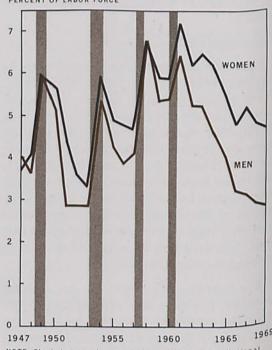
typically as low as those of their male counterparts.

In March 1968, for example, unemployment rates (for workers 18 years old and over) were running 3.4 percent for all workers and 4.2 percent for all women. The rate for women with at least some college, however, was only 2.3 percent, while the rate for women with only some secondary education was 6.6 percent—nearly three times the rate for college women. For women that had completed high school, the rate was 3.8 percent, which was close to the national average. But for those with college educations, the rate was only 1.6 percent.

One reason for the difference in unemployment rates for men and women is apparently the tendency for women to enter the job market

Unemployment almost always higher for women than for men, but especially in boom years

PERCENT OF LABOR FORCE



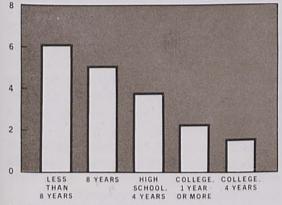
NOTE.-Shaded areas show recessions as dated by the National Bureau of Economic Research.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor.

Unemployment of women declines with rise in educational levels

(Unemployment rates of women workers, by educational group March 1968)

PERCENT



SOURCE: Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor

when employment is high and to leave it when conditions are reversed. This is borne out in a Bureau of Labor Statistics study showing that most of the unemployment among women results from either their having quit their jobs or their having just reentered the labor force. By contrast, during periods of contraction, most of the unemployment among men results from their having lost their jobs.

Income and earnings

Wage and salary compensation for full-time, year-round workers averages higher for men than for women, and Department of Labor figures show the gap widening. Where the median annual pay of women workers was a little over \$2,700 in 1955, it was well over \$4,200 for men — a difference of 56 percent. But in 1968, when the median pay to women had climbed to almost \$4,500, the median for men had moved up to more than \$7,600 — a spread of 72 percent.

Occupational differences account for most of the difference in earnings. Women are more likely than men to be white-collar workers, for example, and being usually hired for less-

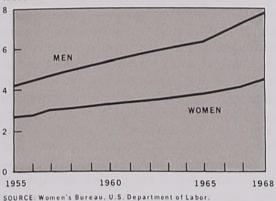
skilled work, they tend to be less well paid than men in the same field.

But even in the same occupational groups, women usually hold lower-ranking positions than men. Among clerical workers — a group in which women far outnumber men — they are most apt to be typists or office workers of comparable skill and responsibility while the higher-paying, decision-making positions are more often held by men. Among college and university teachers, women are much less likely than men to be professors or even associate professors.

Since pay is essentially a function of the worker's qualifications and contribution to an organization, workers in lower-ranking positions can be expected to receive lower pay. But women tend not only to hold lower-ranking positions but also to receive lower pay in comparable positions. In 1968, women scientists, for example, earned from \$1,700 to \$4,500 less than men, the extent of the difference varying with the science. Wages paid to women office workers in 1968 were typically \$15 to \$30 a week less than wages paid men in the same job classifications. Among college professors, the median salary paid women in 1966 was over \$1,000 less than that for men.

Gap between median earnings of men and women widening

THOUSANDS OF DOLLARS





Other explanations have also been given for the differences in compensation for men and women. One of the most important has been that many women start work without advanced training, with the result that their progress is blocked off. This has no doubt been a problem. Compared with other women, those with technical and professional qualifications receive salaries that more closely approximate those of their male counterparts.

Another reason often given for the difference is the broken work pattern of many women, resulting from interruptions in their careers during child-rearing years. When they return to work, many have lost seniority and experience. Many women, trying to divide their attention between home and careers, seek only part-time work. Others still devote their main attention to their families, even though they have taken full-time employment outside the home. In the case of women in technical and professional fields, new developments may have placed them too far behind their colleagues to ever catch up.

Also tending to limit the earnings of women are the many laws regulating their employment. Since premium rates are ordinarily paid for overtime work and risky jobs, elimination of these jobs from the female labor market tends to lower average wages to women. Eighteen states regulate (or prohibit) employment of women in certain industries and during certain hours. Forty-one states and the District of Columbia have regulations regarding the hours women can work. And 26 states prohibit employment of women under conditions that are considered hazardous or injurious to health. These laws, intended to protect women from hard labor, long hours, and possibly dangerous work, also limit their ability to obtain highpaying employment in many areas.

All these factors — occupational differences, general levels of education and training, intermittent work patterns, and the tendency to protect women — combine to help keep the pay of women below that of men. It seems difficult, however, to justify all the difference in income on the basis of these factors. Apparently, some employers just prefer men to equally qualified women and, despite some softening in social attitudes, are still willing to pay more for them.

Growth in the gap between earnings of men and women reflects the much greater upward mobility of men. Women are earning more, but their earnings are not increasing as fast as those of men. Where 1.6 percent of the men in the labor force earned at least \$10,000 in 1947, the proportion had increased more than tenfold 20 years later. But where 0.3 percent of the working women earned at least \$10,000 in 1947, the proportion had increased only six times by 1967.

Future trends

All estimates seem to indicate continuing strong demand for workers, especially for those with high levels of education and high degrees of skill. And as the economy grows and continued greater efforts are made for the full utilization of human resources, the number of women in the labor force will undoubtedly increase.

The Department of Labor has projected a labor force of nearly 100 million by 1980, with women making up 36 percent of the total, compared with 32 percent in 1960. The number of women workers at least 45 years old is expected to increase even faster.

Education is almost certain to become even more important in the determination of the size and composition of the labor force, and experience has shown that with increased education, the labor force participation of women increases, regardless of income level or marital status. As job opportunities increase in fields requiring higher education and more women seek higher educations, women can be expected to enter the labor force in growing numbers.

With women filling about 70 percent of the elementary and secondary teaching positions and more women in teacher training than any other college program, the outlook for employment of teachers is crucial to projections of the female labor force. Where a teacher shortage seemed to threaten a decade ago, there is now the possibility of an oversupply.

The Department of Labor estimates that by 1980 the number of applicants for secondary school positions could outnumber vacancies by 75 percent. The expected trend is even more pronounced in elementary education, where there may be two teachers for every vacancy. If the rising number of college-educated women cannot be used in teaching, talents of many of them will have to be channeled into other fields.

Women have tended to seek employment in only a few occupations, leaving many fields to men, probably because of the widespread view that some lines of work were appropriate only for men. Occupations such as teaching (which relates to the young) and those connected with health and social services (which also relate to the care of others) were once considered more appropriate for women than some of the men's fields, such as law, engineering, and medicine. Even those in occupations considered appropriate for women were expected to retire to housekeeping when they married, for not only was housekeeping a full-time job but there was a stigma against men whose wives had to work for a living.

Much of this has changed. Today, many women work to provide their families with extra luxuries by supplementing their husbands' incomes. Also, with the modern conveniences available to them, many wives and mothers,



especially those with training and talent, find outside work more personally rewarding than housework.

But while many of the attitudes restricting female employment have broken down, many women interested in pursuing "masculine" occupations still have to overcome the resistance of employers who, seeing women only as temporary workers, have a decided preference for male employees. The result is the seemingly general hesitation of women to undertake college preparation for occupations dominated by men, even though some of the fastest employment growth is in these occupations.

There were 41 million women (16 years old and over) not in the labor force last year —

which means that women accounted for threefourths of the people that neither worked nor sought work. This represents a considerable pool of untapped talent, especially since many of these women were skilled and educated.

The occupational structure of the labor force is certain to continue changing. As technology advances, white-collar jobs and service occupations become more important and blue-collar jobs and farm work decline as a proportion of total employment. Since these trends relate to growing demand for workers in jobs typically held by women, they seem to underscore continued growth in the importance of women in the labor force.

CARLA M. WARBERG

new par bank The Almeda-Genoa Bank, Houston, Texas, an insured nonmember bank located in the territory served by the Houston Branch of the Federal Reserve Bank of Dallas, was added to the Par List on its opening date, September 17, 1970. The officers are: J. O. Kirk, President; Nolan Bedford, Executive Vice President; and Albert Daigle, Cashier.

District highlights

The change in total nonagricultural wage and salary employment in the five southwestern states from July to August was in line with seasonal expectations. Total employment declined 0.1 percent to 6,365,000. All the decline was in manufacturing. Nonmanufacturing employment was unchanged as small, offsetting changes were registered by its components.

Compared with a year earlier, total employment was up only 1.5 percent in August. This small change resulted from a 3.8-percent decline in manufacturing payrolls and a 2.8-percent increase in nonmanufacturing payrolls. Within nonmanufacturing, employment fell in both mining and construction but rose in all other sectors.

The oil regulatory agencies in Louisiana and Texas have pushed October oil allowables in their states to new highs of 68 percent and 87 percent of maximum permitted production, respectively. Both actions were taken in response to the high level of demand for domestic crude, as a shortage of tankers to transport foreign oil continued to keep prices of petroleum imports high. Producers in Texas and Louisiana are usually called on to make most of the adjustments required to meet the nation's petroleum needs. These states contain about 60 percent of the nation's crude reserves.

Although new record allowables have been set, increased production is expected to be restricted by conservation problems associated with the waste of natural gas produced with oil and the disposal of oil field brines. Moreover, even where oil fields are capable of producing a higher volume of output at these higher allowables without damage to the fields, producers might have to invest in increased flow capacity (additional wells and processing and trans-

portation facilities) to reach that volume. Producers will not make this investment unless they are reasonably sure the additional capacity will be used in the future.

A change in Libyan oil policy or repair of the oil pipeline through Syria could alleviate the current international oil pinch. One important producer has apparently reached a settlement with the Libyan government on a dispute over prices. This may mark the beginning of a turnabout in the strained relations between Libya and foreign oil producers in that country. In the meantime, however, fresh turmoil in the Middle East poses a danger of further production shutdowns. The Middle East and North Africa have an estimated three-fourths of the free world's oil reserves.

The seasonally adjusted Texas industrial production index rose substantially in August as a result of a sharp boost in petroleum activity. The index increased to 179.3 percent of the 1957-59 base from a revised 175.3 for July. Production of crude petroleum, which accounts for nearly 30 percent of the index, was up almost 10 percent. Manufacturing output rose slightly, reflecting a moderate increase in nondurables. This increase more than offset a small decline in durables. Output of utilities remained unchanged.

Compared with a year earlier, the index was up 2.3 percent. As with the month-to-month change, the higher level of oil production was the dominant factor in the increase over last year. Crude oil production was up more than 10 percent, and utilities were up 2.4 percent. Manufacturing was off slightly, but all the decline was in durables — mainly electrical machinery and transportation equipment. Output of nondurables was nearly 6 percent higher

than a year before, with the increase centered in petroleum refining and chemical products.

Cotton production in states of the Eleventh District has been estimated at 4,968,000 bales. This estimate, based on conditions September 1, represents a gain of 13 percent over the 1969 crop. It is 5 percent less than the crop produced in 1968, however.

In Texas, cotton production was expected to total 3,468,000 bales. Although 21 percent greater than in 1969, this crop would be slightly less than in 1968. Yield of upland cotton is expected to average 330 pounds per acre, compared with 292 pounds last year.

The harvest of grain sorghum in these five states is expected to total 393 million bushels — 7 percent more than last year. Production of rice is expected to total 44 million pounds — 3 percent more than in 1969.

Ranges and pastures are in fair to good condition over most of the District. In Texas, there were more than 1.4 million head of cattle and calves on feed September 1 — 7 percent more than a year before. August placements in Texas totaled 256,000 head — 7 percent fewer than in August last year. In Arizona, there were 6 percent fewer head on feed than a year before. The total number of head on feed in the six largest cattle feeding states was up 4 percent over a year earlier.

The prices Texas farmers and ranchers received for their products was up 3 percent in mid-August over prices received both a month and a year before. The all-crops price index was 11 percent higher than in July and 10 percent higher than in August last year. The price index for livestock and livestock products was 3 percent less than in July and 2 percent less than in August 1969.

Cash receipts from farm marketings in the five District states were 2 percent higher in the first seven months of this year than in the same

period last year. Livestock receipts were 8 percent higher, but receipts from crop marketings were 9 percent lower.

Registrations of new passenger automobiles in Dallas, Fort Worth, Houston, and San Antonio were 19 percent lower in August than in July. Decreases ranged from 12 percent in Dallas to 26 percent in Houston. Registrations in all four cities were 5 percent lower than in August 1969, and cumulative registrations through August trailed registrations for the same period last year by 6 percent.

Department store sales in the Eleventh District were 4 percent lower in the four weeks ended September 19 than in the corresponding period last year. Cumulative sales through that date were 2 percent higher than a year earlier.

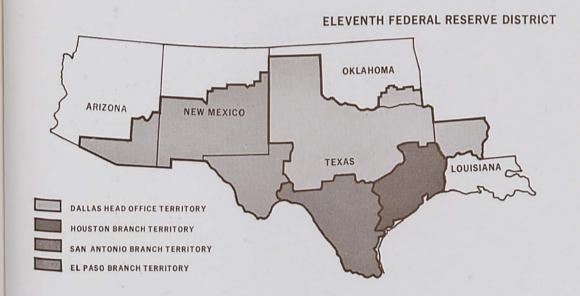
Banking activities in the Eleventh District in August and the first two statement weeks of September were highlighted by a marked increase in deposit inflows and a significant rise in total bank credit. These gains were in sharp contrast to declines during the corresponding period last year.

Primarily reflecting increases in business loans and loans for purchasing or carrying securities, the rise in loans adjusted amounted to \$39 million. Loans to financial institutions other than banks dropped \$25 million, while consumer instalment loans and real estate loans registered modest gains.

With the increased availability of funds, weekly reporting banks in the District also enlarged their investment portfolios by \$106 million. Although the banks purchased moderate amounts of Treasury bills, most of the increase in bank investments represented acquisitions of long-term, attractively priced municipal issues.

Total bank deposits expanded \$469 million, which contrasted sharply with a decline of \$27 million for the year-earlier period. More than

three-fourths of the increase reflected the greater inflow of time and savings deposits, which resulted mainly from further sales of large negotiable certificates of deposit to individuals and businesses. With this expansion in deposits, the banks further reduced their borrowings from nondeposit sources, particularly the commercial paper market.





STATISTICAL SUPPLEMENT

to the

BUSINESS REVIEW

October 1970



FEDERAL RESERVE BANK
OF DALLAS

CONDITION STATISTICS OF WEEKLY REPORTING COMMERCIAL BANKS

Eleventh Federal Reserve District

(In thousands of dollars)

428,155 6,130,042 2,941,022 98,297 34,281 2,296 413,748 169,931 373,379 623,733 5,943	559,988 6,084,654 2,948,483 98,004 500 36,101 2,306 408,593 192,223 367,462 608,393	439,160 6,070,315 3,002,569 108,033 555 43,659 157 367,040 134,057 380,289 637,044
6,130,042 2,941,022 98,297 507 34,281 2,296 413,748 169,931 373,379 623,733	6,084,654 2,948,483 98,004 500 36,101 2,306 408,593 192,223 367,462 608,393	6,070,315 3,002,569 108,033 555 43,659 157 367,040 134,057 380,289
6,130,042 2,941,022 98,297 507 34,281 2,296 413,748 169,931 373,379 623,733	6,084,654 2,948,483 98,004 500 36,101 2,306 408,593 192,223 367,462 608,393	6,070,315 3,002,569 108,033 555 43,659 157 367,040 134,057 380,289
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507 34,281 2,296 413,748 169,931 373,379 623,733	500 36,101 2,306 408,593 192,223 367,462 608,393	555 43,659 157 367,040 134,057 380,289
34,281 2,296 413,748 169,931 373,379 623,733	36,101 2,306 408,593 192,223 367,462 608,393	43,659 157 367,040 134,057 380,289
2,296 413,748 169,931 373,379 623,733	2,306 408,593 192,223 367,462 608,393	157 367,040 134,057 380,289
169,931 373,379 623,733	408,593 192,223 367,462 608,393	367,040 134,057 380,289
169,931 373,379 623,733	192,223 367,462 608,393	134,057 380,289
373,379 623,733	367,462 608,393	380,289
373,379 623,733	367,462 608,393	380,289
		637,044
5,943		
		11,061
		8,880 709,814
737,740	730,737	707,014
0	0	0
2,703,703	2,658,942	667,157 2,450,706
923,165	901,258	921,727
82,684	73,224	25,608
0	0	0
187,170	185,977	126,054
563,142	547,700	625,644
90,169	94,357	144,421
47 257	25 004	32,976
		1,357,454
		68,101
1 101 020		70,448
964.483	919.234	744,238
91,737		88,729
562,312	491,418	498,854
8,498	8,540	7,105
486,335	471,053	430,814
2,477,194	12,351,111	11,862,388
1	9,845 739,740 0 717,320 2,703,703 923,165 82,684 0 187,170 563,142 90,169 47,257 1,546,896 110,079 76,306 1,101,929 964,483 91,737 562,312 8,498 486,335	5,943 5,004 9,845 8,269 739,740 730,957 0 717,320 678,359 2,703,703 2,658,942 923,165 901,258 82,684 73,224 0 0 0 187,170 185,977 563,142 547,700 90,169 94,357 47,257 35,884 1,546,896 1,538,692 110,079 110,152 76,306 72,956 1,101,929 1,061,005 964,483 91,234 91,737 96,277 562,312 491,418 8,498 8,540 486,335 471,053

LIABILITIES

Total deposits	9,796,675	9,610,169	9,354,180
Total demand deposits	5,793,333	5,814,531	5,944,635
	3,907,473	3,956,351	4,114,780
	293,008	318,777	281,566
U.S. Government	235,247 1,250,145	1,223,280	1,179,310
Governments, official institutions, central banks, and international institutions Commercial banks	4,235	2,984	3,212
	22,492	19,982	27,000
	80,733	98,686	75,521
Total time and savings deposits	4,003,342	3,795,638	3,409,545
Savings deposits Other time deposits States and political subdivisions	922,383	920,400	957,277
	2,153,709	2,027,305	1,822,216
	795,115	757,899	594,937
U.S. Government (including postal savings) Banks in the United States Foreign:	45,934	43,633	8,540
	66,716	28,916	19,685
Governments, official institutions, central banks, and international institutions Commercial banks	18,385	16,385	5,500
	1,100	1,100	1,390
Federal funds purchased and securities sold under agreements to repurchase	998,607	1,009,003	905,503
	98,844	155,095	183,392
Other liabilities	421,131	419,718	327,124
	130,560	130,105	118,003
	16,360	14,863	11,606
Total capital accounts	1,015,017	1,012,158	962,580
TOTAL LIABILITIES, RESERVES, AND CAPITAL ACCOUNTS	12,477,194	12,351,111	11,862,388

RESERVE POSITIONS OF MEMBER BANKS

Eleventh Federal Reserve District

(Averages of daily figures. In thousands of dollars)

Item	4 weeks ended Sept. 2, 1970	5 weeks ended Aug. 5, 1970	4 weeks ended Sept. 3, 1969
RESERVE CITY BANKS			
Total reserves held	757,363	754,910	728,693
With Federal Reserve Bank	700,022	701,396	677,185
Currency and coin	57,341	53,514	51,508
Required reserves	778,310	758,488	731,203
Excess reserves	-20,947	-3,578	-2,510
Borrowings	13,157	88,192	22,180
Free reserves	-34,104	-91,770	-24,690
COUNTRY BANKS			
Total reserves held	794,567	774,984	773,512
With Federal Reserve Bank	605,534	591,290	593,228
Currency and coin	189,033	183,694	180,284
Required reserves	773,478	757,488	744,742
Excess reserves	21,089	17,496	28,770
Borrowings	8,395	10,307	32,130
Free reserves	12,694	7,189	-3,360
ALL MEMBER BANKS			
Total reserves held	1,551,930	1,529,894	1,502,205
With Federal Reserve Bank	1,305,556	1,292,686	1,270,413
Currency and coin	246,374	237,208	231,792
Required reserves	1,551,788	1,515,976	1,475,945
Excess reserves	142	13,918	26,260
Borrowings	21,552	98,499	54,310
Free reserves	-21,410	-84,581	-28,050

CONDITION OF THE FEDERAL RESERVE BANK OF DALLAS

(In thousands of dollars)

Item	Sept. 23,	Aug. 26,	Sept. 24
	1970	1970	1969
Total gold certificate reserves	594,856 2,900 0 2,656,389 2,659,289 1,490,364 1,841,802	711,470 14,520 0 2,468,007 2,482,527 1,447,684 1,831,252	470,42 23,57 2,295,62 2,319,15 1,283,29 1,665,72

CONDITION STATISTICS OF ALL MEMBER BANKS

Eleventh Federal Reserve District

(In millions of dollars)

Item	Aug. 26, 1970	July 29, 1970	Aug. 27 1969
ASSETS			11,431
Loans and discounts, gross	11,976	11,903	2.154
U.S. Government obligations Other securities	2,048 3,466	2,017 3,356	0 135
Reserves with Federal Reserve Bank	1,448	1,220	1.170
Cash in vault	279	270	200
Balances with banks in the United States	1,284	1,183	1,178
Balances with banks in foreign countriese	10	11	1,198
Cash items in process of collection	1,234	1,215	775
Other assetse	902	621	
TOTAL ASSETS®	22,647	21,796	21,318
IABILITIES AND CAPITAL ACCOUNTS			1,468
Demand deposits of banks	1,591	1,612	8,843
Other demand deposits	8,989	8,703	7,323
Time deposits	7,889	7,610	
Total deposits	18,469	17,925	17,634
Borrowings	1,224	1,218	1,090
Other liabilitiese	1,144	860	1,702
Total capital accountse	1,810	1,793	-17
TOTAL LIABILITIES AND CAPITAL			21,318
ACCOUNTS®	22,647	21,796	21,313

e — Estimated.

BANK DEBITS, END-OF-MONTH DEPOSITS, AND DEPOSIT TURNOVER

(Dollar amounts in thousands, seasonally adjusted)

	DEBITS T	O DEMAND D	EPOSIT ACCO	UNTSI					
	Percent change				DEMAND DEPOSITS ¹				
	August 1970	August	1970 from	- 8 months,			Annual rate of turnover		
Standard metropolitan statistical area	(Annual-rate basis)	July 1970	August 1969	1970 from 1969	August 31, 1970	August 1970	July 1970	August 1969	
ARIZONA: Tucson	\$ 6,688,176	-2	25	18	£ 000 000	700000	700.50	1707	
LOUISIANA: Monroe	0.050,017				\$ 229,057	28.9	29.0	24.8	
	2,952,816	5	18	11	92,470	32.0	33.0	28.0	
NEW MEXICO: Roswell ²	8,572,908		8	21	249,885	35.4	36.9	32.8	
TEVIO	881,148	0	1	8	38,870	22.7	23.5		
Abilene	2,183,820	2	10	4	101,091			24.1	
	5,722,044	-3	5	11	163,222	21,4	21.1	20.2	
Austin	8,843,388	5	5	—i	333,183	35.3	36.4	34.1	
bedumont-Port Arthur-Orange	5,951,724	-4	3			26.9	26.5	30.5	
brownsville-Marlingen-San Benito	1,237,536	-39	o o	1.4	240,727	24.6	25.9	23.8	
Corpus Christi	4,600,068	-5	5	5	69,307	17.7	27.8	16.8	
Corsicana*	489,972	5	36	ŏ	228,986	21.2	23.5	21.1	
Dallas	117,505,632	-10	12	12	32,143	15.3	15.0	12.2	
LI FOSO	7,437,900	1	15	0	2,245,315	56.5	63.4	47.3	
TOTT WOTTH	22,644,768	À	10	11	240,026	31.8	31.9	28.5	
Odivesion-lexas City	2,711,724	-2	5	11	646,621	35.2	33.8	33.3	
Houston	102,563,316	-4	11	12	113,539	24.0	24.1	24.8	
Laredo	994,524	- 7	22	13	2,509,979	41.2	42.8	37.2	
LUDDOCK	5,362,524	ž	15	13	38,252	25.1	24.3	21.1	
McAllen-Pharr-Edinburg	1,424,136	-18	11	7	183,029	30.2	30.1	30.0	
Midland	1,874,592	-10	2	1	92,573	14.9	17.4	14.1	
Odessa	1,637,436	-7	í		133,556	14.2	15.6	13.5	
San Angelo	1,217,208	1	10	0	92,945	17.8	16.4	21.3	
San Antonio		-5	16	12	66,519	18.4	17.3	17.0	
Sherman-Denison	18,130,884	_9	10	10	655,132	27.7	29.5	26.2	
Texarkana (Texas-Arkansas)	1,053,612	_y	_2	_7	64,390	16.4	18.1	16.9	
Tyler	1,426,536	2	-2	-/	72,882	19.8	20.2	20.6	
Tyler	2,267,172	-4	ô	10	96,583	24.2	24.0	23.2	
Waco Wichita Falls	3,045,036 2,345,136	_î	5	13 —1	120,671	25.5	26.4	24.2	
	2,343,130		3	-1	115,369	20.5	21.0	19.1	
otal—28 centers	\$341,765,736	-5	11	11	\$9,266,322	37.8	40.1	34.5	

¹ Deposits of individuals, partnerships, and corporations and of states and political subdivisions. ² County basis.

To

BUILDING PERMITS

				VALU	IAI	ION (Doll	ar amo	unts in th	ousands)							
								Percent	change							
	NU	MBER	BER August 1970 from		8 months											
Area	August 8 mos. 1970 1970			August 1970								8 mos. 1970	July 1970	August 1970	1970 fro 1969	
ARIZONA										Ī						
OUISIANA Monroe-Wast	619	4,827	\$	8,538	\$	37,953	137	99	—19							
Shreveport	81 482	542 3,628		669 2,568		10,588 22,573	-74 -26	53 17	_17 _10							
Amarillo	37 143	317		130 1,516		6,604 24,382	-95 71	-54 -62	-16 -4							
Austin Beaumont Brownsville	146 83	3,199 1,197 581		14,382 594 1,624		86,985 7,027 4,656	-13 -7 252	123 -36 130	—17 —12 —32							
Dallas	78 1,432 37	2,488 15,225 310		1,017 16,295 159		18,267 233,909 2,932	-55 -48 -47	-1 -45 194	7 —5 25							
Galverth	367 337 83	3,581 3,151 578		4,695 5,128 636		58,085 57,115 4,505	-28 14 33	1 23 68	-9 2 67							
Lubbert	2,518 55	24,151 390		35,043		295,570 5,487	452	664	137 95							
Port A.	142 40 74	436 601		7,128 334 270		40,516 3,236 6,486	-36 -54	319 —53 —58	-22 -1							
San Angelo	67 54 1,308	632 459 10,459		155 260 10,446		6,722 8,540 69,294	-22 -89 29	-30 -70 90	—11 92 26							
warkana	72 24 192	547 233 1,623		479 110 2,698		10,582 5,387	-83 -11 40	-57 -67 87	-36 18 94							
Wichita Falls	61	554	-	1,317		9,480	-38	113	-9							
-20 cities	8,974	84,761	\$1	17,283	\$1	,064,800	-13	10	0							

GROSS DEMAND AND TIME DEPOSITS OF MEMBER BANKS

Eleventh Federal Reserve District

(Averages of daily figures. In millions of dollars)

Date	GROSS	DEMAND D	EPOSITS	TIME DEPOSITS			
	Total	Reserve city banks	Country banks	Total	Reserve city banks	Country	
1968: August	9,732	4,523	5,209	7,208	3,049	4,159	
1969: August	10,250	4,746	5,504	7,353	2,741	4,612	
1970: March April May June July August	10,284 10,497 10,233 10,265 10,412 10,530	4,727 4,819 4,671 4,748 4,782 4,816	5,557 5,678 5,562 5,517 5,630 5,714	7,231 7,328 7,394 7,391 7,511 7,783	2,581 2,634 2,659 2,651 2,722 2,926	4,650 4,694 4,735 4,740 4,789	

VALUE OF CONSTRUCTION CONTRACTS

(In millions of dollars)

Area and type	August	July	June	January—August		
	1970	1970	1970	1970	1969r	
FIVE SOUTHWESTERN						
Residential building Nonresidential building Nonbuilding construction	753 331 285 137	626 305 210 111	755 249 205 301	5,479 2,042 1,793 1,644	4,759 1,940 1,561 1,258	
Residential building Nonresidential building Nonbuilding construction	6,230 2,349 2,331 1,549	6,178 2,347 2,469 1,361	6,553 2,224 1,919 2,410	46,755 16,202 17,270 13,283	46,692 17,676 17,547 11,469	

Arizona, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas. r — Revised. NOTE. — Details may not add to totals because of rounding. SOURCE: F. W. Dodge, McGraw-Hill, Inc.

NONAGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT

Five Southwestern States1

	N	Percent change Aug. 1970 from			
Type of employment	August 1970p	July 1970	August 1969r	July 1970	Aug. 1969
Total nonagricultural wage and salary workers	6,365,000	6,368,800	6,270,200	— 0.1	1.5
Manufacturing	1,151,300	1,155,100	1,197,200	3	-3.8
Nonmanufacturing Mining Construction Transportation and	5,213,700 232,600 416,800	5,213,700 233,300 416,000	5,073,000 237,400 420,000	3 2	2.8 —2.0 —.8
public utilities. Trade. Finance. Service. Government.	475,700 1,485,900 327,500 1,042,200 1,233,000	475,000 1,481,800 327,600 1,040,700 1,239,300	458,300 1,432,400 313,900 1,005,000 1,206,000	.1 .3 .0 .1 —.5	3.8 3.7 4.3 3.7 2.2

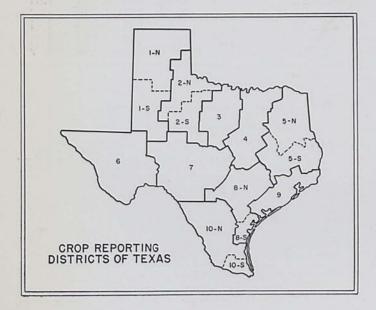
Arizona, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas. p — Preliminary. r — Revised.

DAILY AVERAGE PRODUCTION OF CRUDE OIL

(In thousands of barrels)

Area	August 1970	July 1970	August 1969r	Percent change from	
				July 1970	August 1969
FOUR SOUTHWESTERN					
STATES	6.918.6	6,591.5	6,256.7	5.0	10.6
Louisiana	2,509.3	2,370.5	2,151.7	5.9	16.6
New Mexico	369.1	377.0	351.8	-2.1	4.9
Oklahoma	608.1	617.3	610.3	-1.5	4
Texas	3,432.1	3,226.7	3,142.9	6.4	9.2
Gulf Coast	696.1	658.6	633.2	5.7	9.9
West Texas	1,631.5	1,530.7	1,492.5	6.6	9.3
East Texas (proper)	214.8	201.2	160.1	6.8	34.2
Panhandle	79.9	75.2	82.0	6.3	-2.6
Rest of state	809.8	761.0	775.1	6.4	4.5
UNITED STATES	9,676.3	9,361.5	9,055.3	3.4	6.9

SOURCES: American Petroleum Institute. U.S. Bureau of Mines. Federal Reserve Bank of Dallas.



INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION

(Seasonally adjusted indexes, 1957-59 = 100)

Area and type of index	August 1970p	July 1970	June 1970	August 1969
TEXAS				
Total industrial production	179.3	175.3	174.8r	175.7r
Manufacturing	198.0	196.8	196.5r	199.2r
Durable	203.6	204.3	208.2	222.8r
Nondurable	194.3	191.8	188.6r	183.4r
Mining	137.7	128.9	128.5r	127.3
Utilities	260.0	260.1	256.8r	253.9r
UNITED STATES				
Total industrial production	169.0	169.2	168.8	174.3
Manufacturing	168.1	168.4	167.7r	175.4
Durable	167.1	167.7	167.3r	178.8r
Nondurable	169.3	169.3	168.3r	171.3
Mining	137.0	134.5	135.1r	131.2
Utilities	234.5	238.2	237.3r	222.6

p - Preliminary.

CROP PRODUCTION

(In thousands of bushels)

Crop	TEXAS			FIVE SOUTHWESTERN STATES		
	1970, estimated Sept. 1	1969	1968	1970, estimated Sept. 1	1969	1968
Cotton ²	3,468	2,862	3,525	4,968	4,415	5,24
Corn	25,844	25,124	26,052	36,776	34,266	36,87
Winter wheat	54,408	68,856	84,150	167,715	197,619	218,9/
Oats	28,140	25,460	19,822	36,332	33,058	25,42
Barley	4,394	3,290	3,348	35,340	29,096	26,85
Rye	736	684	528	1,762	1,664	1,20
Rice ³	22,834	21,646	27,164	43,594	42,420	53,30
Sorghum grain	337,932	309,800	340,780	393,485	368,740	402,729
Flaxseed	1,127	1,300	742	1,127	1,300	74
Hay4	3,983	3,451	4,587	9,384	9,136	10,418
Peanuts ⁵	420,000	389,070	426,300	644,360	610,549	671,4/9
rish potatoes6	4,306	4,437	4,382	7,893	8,084	7 04"
Sweet potatoes6	975	780	960	5,650	5,200	5,120
Pecans	38,000	23,000	69,000	73,000	73,900	97,000

¹ Arizona, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas.

COTTON PRODUCTION

Texas Crop Reporting Districts

(In thousands of bales — 500 pounds gross weight)

Area	1970, indicated Sept. 1	1969	1968	1970 as perce 1969
1-N - Northern High Plains	400	248	211	161
1-S - Southern High Plains	1,500	1,134	1,384	132
2-N - Red Bed Plains	180	179	312	101
2-S - Red Bed Plains	315	213	372	148
3 - Western Cross Timbers	15	15	20	100
4 - Black and Grand Prairies	375	258	409	145
5-N — East Texas Timbered Plains	25	1.5	19	167
5-S — East Texas Timbered Plains	35	34	41	103
6 - Trans-Pecos	143	144	189	99
7 — Edwards Plateau	50	49	72	102
8-N — Southern Texas Prairies	60	50	57	120 57
8-S — Southern Texas Prairies	60	106	93	102
9 - Coastal Prairies	95	93	79	147
0-N — South Texas Plains	25	17	25	62
0-S — Lower Rio Grande Valley	190	307	242	02
State	3,468	2,862	3,525	121

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Agriculture.

SOURCE: State employment agencies.

p — Preliminary,
r — Revised,
SOURCES: Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System,
Federal Reserve Bank of Dallas.

² In thousands of bales.
3 In thousands of bags containing 100 pounds each.
4 In thousands of fons.
5 In thousands of pounds.
6 In thousands of pounds.
6 In thousands of ball thousands of bundredweight.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Agriculture.