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Consumer and Food Economics Research Division
Agricultural Research Service

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

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Family Economics Review is a quarterly report on research of the Consumer and Food Economics Research Division and on information from other sources relating to economic aspects of family living. It is developed by Dr. Emma G. Holmes, research family economist, with the cooperation of other staff members of the Division. It is prepared primarily for home economics agents and home economics specialists of the Cooperative Extension Service.

FOOD EXPENDITURES IN THE SOUTH

Households in the South spend less for food than those in other regions, according to a nationwide food consumption survey conducted by the U.S. Department of Agriculture.^{1/} The value of food used at home during a week in the spring of 1965 averaged \$25.98 in the South--\$3 less than in the North Central and Western Regions and \$6 less than in the Northeast (table 1). Of the South's \$25.98 total, \$23.39 was spent for purchased food and \$2.59 was the value of food produced at home or received as gift or pay.

Table 1.--Average value of food per household per week, at home and away from home, United States and 4 regions, spring 1965

Item	United States	South	North-east	North Central	West
	Dol.	Dol.	Dol.	Dol.	Dol.
All food -----	35.01	31.33	39.32	35.04	35.79
Food used at home, total ----	28.90	25.98	32.06	29.30	29.25
Purchased -----	26.95	23.39	31.01	27.06	27.69
Home produced -----	1.27	1.76	.43	1.66	.85
Received as gift or pay ---	.69	.82	.62	.59	.71
Food away from home -----	6.11	5.35	7.26	5.74	6.53
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Average household size -----	3.29	3.28	3.28	3.38	3.13

Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

Southern households spent less for purchased food than those in other regions. However, they used more home-produced food (in terms of value) than families in the Northeast and West and about the same amount as those in the North Central Region. Expenditures for meals and snacks away from home in the South were slightly lower than in the North Central Region and considerably lower than in the other two regions. The South differed from the other regions in food used per person about the same as in food used per household.

In the South, urban households used food valued at 14 percent more per person per week than rural nonfarm and 26 percent more than farm households (table 2). (A "person" in this study equals 21 meals from home food supplies.) The urban households spent 20 percent more for purchased food than the rural nonfarm and 67 percent more than the farm households. Urban households also spent about twice as much for meals and snacks away from home as farm households did. However, the farm households used about 6 times as much food that was home produced or received as gift or pay as urban households and twice as much as rural nonfarm households. The value of home-produced food averaged \$2.21 per person in farm, compared with \$0.69 in rural nonfarm, and \$0.15 in urban households.

^{1/} U.S. Department of Agriculture. Food Consumption of Households in the United States, Spring 1965, HFCS - 1965-66 Rpt. 1, 1968, for sale for \$1.25; and Food Consumption of Households in the South, Spring 1965, HFCS - 1965-66 Rpt. 4, 1968, for sale for \$1.50. Order from Supt. Doc., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., Washington, D.C. 20402.

Table 2.--Average value of food per person per week, at home and away from home, United States and South by urbanization, spring 1965

Item	United States	South			
		All	Urban	Rural nonfarm	Farm
	<u>Dol.</u>	<u>Dol.</u>	<u>Dol.</u>	<u>Dol.</u>	<u>Dol.</u>
All food -----	10.64	9.55	10.19	8.90	8.07
Food used at home, total ---	8.79	7.92	8.28	7.54	7.11
Purchased -----	8.19	7.13	7.89	6.57	4.72
Home produced -----	.39	.54	.15	.69	2.21
Received as gift or pay --	.21	.25	.25	.27	.17
Food away from home -----	1.85	1.63	1.90	1.37	.96
	<u>No.</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>No.</u>
Average household size -----	3.29	3.28	3.10	3.42	4.07

Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

Table 3.--Average expenditure per person per week for purchased food for use at home, United States and South by urbanization, spring 1965

Item	United States	South			
		All	Urban	Rural nonfarm	Farm
	<u>Dol.</u>	<u>Dol.</u>	<u>Dol.</u>	<u>Dol.</u>	<u>Dol.</u>
All food -----	8.19	7.13	7.89	6.57	4.72
Milk, milk products -----	1.04	.90	.97	.87	.58
Flour, cereal, bakery products	1.00	.91	.94	.90	.82
Meat, poultry, fish, eggs ---	2.89	2.50	2.85	2.20	1.42
Fruits, vegetables -----	1.46	1.22	1.40	1.09	.75
Beverages <u>1/</u> -----	.85	.71	.78	.65	.48
Fats, oils -----	.29	.27	.28	.28	.22
Sugar, sweets -----	.25	.26	.25	.27	.26
Other <u>2/</u> -----	.43	.36	.42	.32	.21

1/ Coffee, tea, soft drinks, punches, ades, and alcoholic beverages.

2/ Soups, sauces, baby food, nuts, peanut butter, condiments, and miscellaneous.

Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

Table 4.--Average value of purchased food per person per week, at home and away from home, by income, United States and South by urbanization, spring 1965

Income	United States	South			
		All	Urban	Rural nonfarm	Farm
<u>FOOD AT HOME</u>	<u>Dol.</u>	<u>Dol.</u>	<u>Dol.</u>	<u>Dol.</u>	<u>Dol.</u>
All -----	8.19	7.13	7.89	6.57	4.72
Under \$3,000 -----	5.87	5.00	6.09	4.36	3.57
\$3,000 to \$4,999 -----	7.05	6.43	6.85	6.35	4.79
\$5,000 to \$6,999 -----	8.30	7.64	8.11	7.30	5.89
\$7,000 to \$9,999 -----	9.29	9.12	9.47	8.54	6.62
\$10,000 and over -----	10.57	10.32	10.22	11.28	7.14
<u>FOOD AWAY FROM HOME</u>					
All -----	1.86	1.63	1.90	1.37	.96
Under \$3,000 -----	.70	.62	.78	.50	.48
\$3,000 to \$4,999 -----	1.17	1.10	1.17	1.02	.96
\$5,000 to \$6,999 -----	1.67	1.83	2.01	1.63	1.38
\$7,000 to \$9,999 -----	2.31	2.77	2.88	2.70	1.45
\$10,000 and over -----	3.89	3.55	3.61	3.67	2.34

Urban households in the South spent twice as much as farm households for meat, poultry, fish, and eggs; almost twice as much for fruit and vegetables; and one and one-half times as much for milk and milk products and for beverages. Urban spending was about the same as farm for flour, cereal, and bakery products; fats and oils; and sugar and sweets. In general, rural nonfarm expenditures for the food groups were lower than urban but higher than farm expenditures (table 3).

Southern families divided the dollar they spent for food as follows: 35 cents for meat, poultry, fish, and eggs; 17 cents for fruits and vegetables; 13 cents for milk and milk products; 13 cents for flour, cereal, and bakery products; and the rest for beverages, fats and oils, sugar and sweets, and other foods. This was about the same as the division of the food dollar in the United States as a whole. Urban families in the South spent 6 cents more of their food dollar for meat, poultry, fish, and eggs, but 5 cents less for flour, cereal, and bakery products than farm families.

In the South as in other regions, the value of food used at home increased with income. Purchased food averaged \$5 per person a week in households with low incomes (under \$3,000) and \$10.32 in those with high incomes (\$10,000 or more) (table 4). Urban households spent more than farm households at each income level. Spending for food away from home also increased with income, and was higher in urban than farm or rural nonfarm households. About 5 times as much was spent for food away from home in high- as in low-income urban and farm households, and about 7 times as much in high- as low-income rural nonfarm households.

--Priscilla Steele

CHANGES IN BODY SIZES OF YOUNG WOMEN SINCE 1940

Have the body proportions of women changed since the U.S. Department of Agriculture's nationwide study of body measurements in 1939-40, on which today's clothing sizes for women are based? To answer this question, the Consumer and Food Economics Research Division in 1966-67 conducted a study in which weight and body dimensions were determined on 355 women 20 to 29 years old. (The data were collected by Boston University under contract with the Agricultural Research Service.) These data were compared with data for women aged 20 to 29 in the 1939-40 study.

The average height--or vertical--measurements of the women in the 1966-67 sample were significantly greater than those of the same age group in the 1939-40 nationwide sample, except for hip and sitting heights (table 1). Average girth--or distance around--measurements were significantly smaller in 1966-67, except for the calf, which was greater, and the bust, which was about the same. Average weights did not differ significantly.

Table 1.--Average body dimensions of 20- to 29-year old women in 1966-67 and 1939-40

Item	1966-67 Boston area	1939-40 ^{1/}	
		United States	New Jersey and Pennsylvania
Women in sample-----number----	355	1,915	637
Average age-----years----	24.18	23.89	23.89
Average weight-----pounds----	126.19	124.27	125.28
	<u>Inches</u>	<u>Inches</u>	<u>Inches</u>
Height:			
Total -----	64.80	63.38-	62.50-
Cervical -----	55.02	54.45-	53.74-
Bust -----	46.58	45.65-	44.80-
Waist -----	41.01	40.10-	39.42-
Abdominal extension -----	37.01	36.46-	35.78-
Hip -----	31.98	31.87	31.22-
Sitting -----	24.49	24.40	24.16-
Girth:			
Bust -----	33.99	33.97	34.09
Waist -----	25.83	26.62+	27.26+
Abdominal extension -----	32.75	33.62+	34.11+
Hip -----	36.94	37.48+	37.61+
Thigh (maximum) -----	20.83	21.55+	21.56+
Calf (maximum) -----	13.37	13.13	13.06-
Forearm -----	8.93	9.27+	9.34+

^{1/} + means significantly greater and - means significantly less than corresponding dimension for 1966-67 sample.

Table 2.--Average body proportions of 20- to 29-year old women in 1966-67 and 1939-40

Dimensions compared <u>1/</u>	1966-67 Boston area	1939-40 <u>2/</u>	
		United States	New Jersey and Pennsylvania
	x 100	x 100	x 100
Weight/total height -----	34.79	35.01	35.77
Bust girth/total height -----	52.45	53.57+	54.61+
Waist girth/total height -----	39.87	42.05+	43.68+
Hip girth/total height -----	57.05	59.21+	60.24+
Cervical height/total height -----	84.82	85.86+	85.98+
Bust height/total height -----	71.83	71.91	71.65
Abdominal extension height/total height	57.04	57.53+	57.23
Hip height/total height -----	49.27	50.12+	49.93+
Weight/bust girth -----	66.29	65.22-	65.27-
Weight/waist girth -----	87.21	83.21-	81.79-
Weight/abdominal extension girth -----	68.80	65.94-	65.27-
Weight/hip girth -----	60.85	58.92-	59.07-
Weight/forearm girth -----	253.89	237.37-	238.15-
Weight/maximum thigh girth -----	108.14	102.81-	103.23-
Weight/maximum calf girth -----	169.19	169.21	170.63
Waist girth/bust girth -----	76.51	78.92+	79.85+
Waist girth/abdominal extension girth -	79.53	79.83	79.94+
Waist girth/hip girth -----	70.33	71.42+	72.36+
Bust girth/abdominal extension girth --	104.54	101.37-	100.33-
Bust girth/hip girth -----	92.47	91.05-	90.67-

1/ In making the comparisons, weight was in kilograms, height and girth in centimeters.

2/ + means significantly greater and - means significantly less than corresponding proportion for 1966-67 sample.

Compared with young women in 1939-40, those in the 1966-67 study were taller in proportion to bust, waist, and hip girths and to hip, cervical, and abdominal extension heights (table 2). They weighed more in proportion to bust, waist, hip, abdominal extension, forearm, and thigh girths. The young women in 1966-67 also had waists that were significantly smaller in proportion to bust and hip girths, and hips that were smaller in proportion to bust girth than their counterparts in 1939-40.

The 1966-67 data for women in the Boston area were also compared with the 1939-40 data for women in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, the part of the earlier sample most closely related to the later one geographically and probably ethnically. Differences in average body measurements and proportions between these two samples were even greater than those between the 1966-67 Boston and 1939-40 nationwide samples.

The findings of this pilot study indicate that the body proportions of young women have changed significantly. Today's young women are, on the average, taller and more slender than the young women of 1940. The changes in body proportions of these 20- to 29-year old women are large enough to suggest that similar changes probably have occurred in women of other age groups.

--Florence H. Forziati

CONSIDERATIONS IN BUYING WOMEN'S CLOTHING

Women primarily consider color, style, and fit when buying their warm-weather clothing, according to a recent USDA survey.^{1/} Additional features they look for in the garments they were questioned about are: Comfort and ease of care for summer dresses; weight, multiseasonal use, and versatility for between-seasons dresses; shape retention and warm-weather comfort for warm-weather knit dresses; wrinkle resistance, shape retention, and coolness for warm-weather suits and skirts; ease of care and laundering for blouses; and machine washability and need for little or no ironing for slips and half-slips. This information was obtained from a nationwide sample of 2,909 women 18 to 65 years old.

Although most of the garments studied were subject to fashion trends, the women expected them to last 3 years, on the average. Cotton was reportedly the leading fiber in ownership and preference for each of the garments studied except slips, for which nylon was the leader.

A majority of the women reported problems in shopping for their clothing--mainly in obtaining the proper fit at waist and hips and the proper length. About 75 percent of them said that they usually checked the fiber content of a garment before purchase, and 15 percent that they never did. Of those who usually checked fiber content, 86 percent said that they read the garment's label or tag, 32 percent that they felt the fabric, and 30 percent that they asked the sales clerk.

^{1/} U.S. Department of Agriculture, Statistical Reporting Service. Women's Attitude Toward Cotton and Other Fibers Used in Wearing Apparel. U.S. Dept. Agr., Market. Res. Rpt. 820. 1968. For sale for 60 cents from Supt. Doc., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., Washington, D.C. 20402.

USE OF MANMADE TEXTILE FIBERS INCREASING

About 45 percent of the textile fiber used in the United States in 1967 was man-made (29 percent noncellulosics such as nylon, polyester, acrylic, and olefin and 16 percent rayon and acetate), compared with 10 percent in 1940 (table 1). Use of the natural fibers has declined sharply--cotton from 81 percent of the total in 1940 to 50 percent in 1967, and wool from 9 to 5 percent. The increasing importance of manmade fibers in U.S. manufactures is shown in figure 1.

According to the Economic Research Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture, the improvement in the competitive position of manmade fibers in relation to cotton may be due mainly to the increased production and improved quality and suitability of these fibers, and to reduced prices of manmade in relation to cotton fibers.^{1/} Figure 2 shows how prices of Dacron and nylon--two fibers used in competition with cotton--declined between January 1958 and September 1968. The price of Dacron was 60 percent less and nylon 25 percent less at the end than at the beginning of the period. The price

^{1/} Howell, L.D. The American Textile Industry. U.S. Dept. Agr., Agr. Econ. Rpt. 58. November 1964.

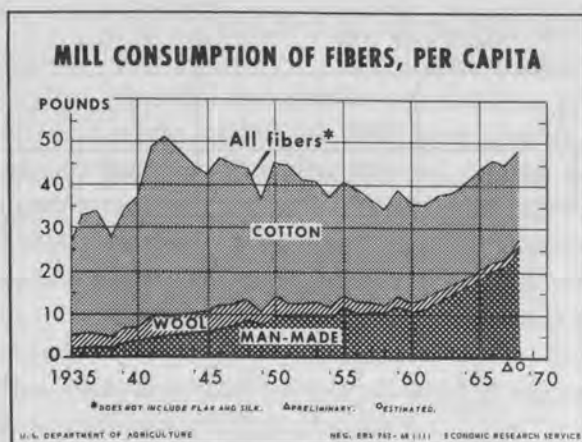


Figure 1

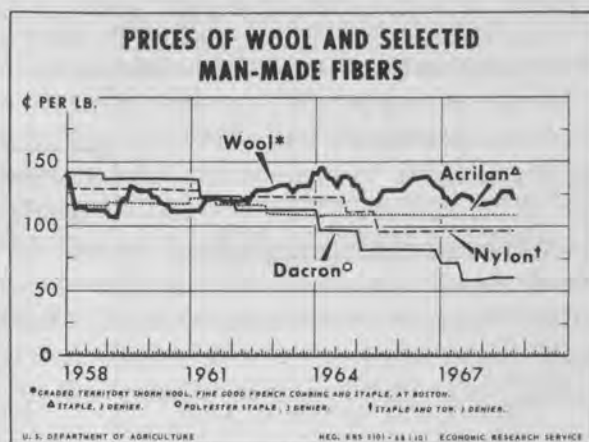


Figure 2

of a high quality cotton comparable to these fibers fluctuated during the decade, and was 16 percent less in September 1968 than in January 1958. Average wholesale prices per yard of some broadwoven goods in July 1968 were as follows: ^{2/}

Cotton: Lawn, combed, 85-86 x 80, wash-and-wear, finished ----	\$0.34
Broadcloth, combed, 136 x 60, grey (undyed) -----	.31
Manmade: Spun rayon, linen effect -----	.22
Nylon taffeta, grey -----	.30
Blends (chiefly manmade): Polyester and cotton broadcloth, grey	.37
Polyester and cotton batiste, grey ---	.31

Pound for pound, manmade fiber provides more utility than natural fiber because, on the average, it makes more yardage and is more durable. The USDA has developed factors for converting the various fibers to "cotton equivalent pounds" (pounds of cotton that would have to be used to replace them). ^{3/} This makes it possible to estimate the effect of the greater utility of the manmade fibers on textile use. The total quantity of textile fiber used per person now, when much of it is manmade, is 58 cotton equivalent pounds, compared with 36 pounds in 1940, when the bulk of the fiber was cotton. This increase of 61 percent in cotton equivalent pounds contrasts with the more modest increase of 31 percent in actual pounds used. By 1963, manmade fibers had surpassed cotton in terms of cotton equivalent pounds used, and increased their lead since that time.

The Nation used 25 percent more fiber than it produced in 1967, largely by using some carryover stocks. About half of the excess use over production was cotton. Use exceeded production in 1966, also--by 14 percent. Most years between 1940 and 1966, however, the United States produced more textile fiber than it used.

^{2/} U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Wholesale Prices and Price Indexes. July 1968.

^{3/} The equivalent net weight pounds of raw cotton for each pound of other fibers are: Regular and intermediate tenacity rayon and acetate filament yarn = 1.51; rayon and acetate staple fiber = 1.10; high tenacity rayon = 1.53 (before 1953), 1.80 (1958 to date); noncellulosics for other than tires = 1.74; noncellulosic staple fiber = 1.37; wool = 0.55.

Table 1.--Quantity (actual and cotton equivalent pounds) and distribution of cotton, wool, and manmade fibers used in 1940 and 1967, United States ^{1/}

Fiber	Total		Average per person		Distribution	
	1940	1967 ^{2/}	1940	1967	1940	1967
	Mil.lb.	Mil.lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Pct.	Pct.
<u>QUANTITY ACTUALLY USED</u>						
Total -----	4,727	9,334	36	47	100	100
Cotton -----	3,823	4,671	29	24	81	50
Wool -----	417	424	3	2	9	5
Manmade, total -----	487	4,239	4	21	10	45
Rayon and acetate ----	483	1,520	4	8	10	16
Noncellulosic -----	4	2,719	(<u>3/</u>)	14	(<u>3/</u>)	29
<u>QUANTITY IN COTTON EQUIVALENT POUNDS ^{4/}</u>						
Total -----	4,751	11,547	36	58	100	100
Cotton -----	3,823	4,671	29	24	80	40
Wool -----	229	233	2	1	5	2
Manmade, total -----	700	6,643	5	33	15	58
Rayon and acetate ----	692	2,026	5	10	15	18
Noncellulosic -----	7	4,617	(<u>3/</u>)	23	(<u>3/</u>)	40

^{1/} Mill use plus raw equivalent of imported textile manufactures minus raw fiber equivalent of exported textile manufactures. Clean basis for wool.

^{2/} Preliminary.

^{3/} Less than 0.5 percent.

^{4/} Cotton that would have been used to "replace" the fiber.

Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

Table 2.--U.S. and world production of major textile fibers, ^{1/} 1940 and 1967

Fiber	U.S. production		World production	
	1940	1967	1940	1967
	Mil.lb.	Mil.lb.	Mil.lb.	Mil.lb.
Total -----	6,716	7,486	20,494	39,483
Cotton -----	6,032	3,657	15,368	22,397
Wool -----	210	107	2,500	3,437
Silk -----	--	--	130	71
Manmade, total -----	474	3,722	2,496	13,578
Rayon and acetate ----	471	1,388	2,485	7,269
Noncellulosic -----	3	2,334	11	6,309

^{1/} Raw fiber equivalent. Clean basis for wool.

Sources: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Cotton Situation, CS-235, 1968; Statistics on Cotton and Related Data 1930-67, Statis. Bul. 417 and sup., 1968; Agricultural Statistics 1967; and Wool Situation, TWS-81, 1967; Wool Statistics 1920-64, Statis. Bul. 363, 1965, and sup., 1968. Textile Economics Bureau, Inc. Textile Organon, Vol. 33, No.1, 1962, and Vol. 39, No.6, 1968.

U.S. production of the major textile fibers was only 11 percent higher in 1967 than in 1940 (table 2). Increased production of manmade fibers more than compensated for the 40 percent reduction in natural fibers (largely cotton). World production of the major textile fibers in 1967 was almost double that of 1940, and 58 percent of the increase was in manmade fibers. Rayon and acetate were 18 percent of total world production in 1967, up from 12 percent in 1940. Noncellulosics were 16 percent of the total in 1967 but only a fraction of 1 percent in 1940. About 19 percent of the rayon and acetate fibers and 37 percent of the noncellulosics were produced in the United States in 1967.

The world capacity for producing manmade fibers is expected to expand rapidly--especially noncellulosics which by early 1968 had passed the rayon and acetate fibers. The fast rise for noncellulosics is expected to move them to more than two-thirds of U.S. manmade fibers by 1970.

--Virginia Britton

TEXTILE FIBERS IN CLOTHING AND HOME FURNISHINGS

U.S. manufacturers used over 7 billion pounds of the major textile fibers--cotton, wool, and manmade--in goods for the Nation's consumers in 1966. Of this total, 26 percent was used in men's and boys' wear; 24 percent in women's, misses', children's, and infants' wear; 36 percent in home furnishings; and 14 percent in other consumer products. About 51 percent of the raw fiber was cotton, 7 percent wool, and 42 percent manmade. The relative importance of these fibers in the textile products made for consumers varied from item to item.

Men's and boys' wear.--Cotton was the major fiber used in men's and boys' wear. It amounted to 67 percent of the total, manmade fibers 24 percent, and wool 9 percent (see table). Cotton was by far the most popular fiber for underwear, utility clothing (such as dungarees, work pants and jackets), shirts, and hosiery. For outdoor jackets, athletic uniforms, and separate slacks, cotton and manmade fibers were about equally important. Outerwear, such as suits and overcoats, separate coats and sweaters, used more wool than cotton or manmade fibers.

Women's, misses', children's, and infants' wear.--For women's and children's wear, the major fiber was manmade. It amounted to 51 percent of the total, cotton 38 percent, and wool 11 percent. About three-fourths of the fiber used in underwear, foundation garments, and hosiery, and almost as high a proportion of that for sweaters was manmade. Manmade fibers were also important in the manufacture of dresses and slacks. In suits and skirts, more manmade and wool than cotton fibers were used. Cotton was tops for playsuits, sunsuits, shorts, nightwear, blouses and shirts, and wool for coats and jackets.

Home furnishings.--About 50 percent of the fiber used in home furnishings was cotton, 46 percent manmade, and 5 percent wool. Almost all of the fiber in sheets and other bedding (such as pillowcases, outside covers for mattresses and furniture pads) and towels and towelings, and much (71 percent) of that in bedspreads and quilts was cotton. Manmade fiber was ahead of the other fibers for carpets and rugs; draperies, upholstery, and slipcovers; and blankets and blanketings.

Quantity and distribution of cotton, wool, and manmade fibers used in consumer products by U.S. mills, 1966

Item	Total fiber used <u>1/</u>	Distribution by kind of fiber					
		All	Cotton	Wool	Manmade		
					All	Rayon and acetate	Noncellu- losic <u>2/</u>
	Mil.lb.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.
All consumer products -----	7,117	100	51	7	42	18	23
Men's and boys' wear -----	1,840	100	67	9	24	6	18
Suits, overcoats <u>3/</u> -----	120	100	9	59	32	8	24
Shirts -----	477	100	77	2	21	5	16
Utility clothing <u>4/</u> -----	392	100	90	-	10	1	8
Separate tailored coats, sweaters -----	82	100	8	63	29	4	26
Separate slacks -----	248	100	43	8	49	14	35
Underwear -----	225	100	91	1	8	3	5
Outdoor jackets, ath- letic uniforms -----	104	100	45	15	40	10	30
Hosiery -----	100	100	61	2	37	2	35
Other <u>5/</u> -----	93	100	80	2	17	9	8
Women's, misses', chil- dren's and infants' wear -----	1,717	100	38	11	51	20	30
Dresses -----	420	100	35	6	59	41	18
Underwear, foundation garments -----	173	100	21	-	79	37	42
Coats, jackets -----	137	100	20	56	24	9	15
Blouses, shirts -----	135	100	60	1	39	12	27
Playsuits, sunsuits, shorts -----	121	100	74	2	24	6	19
Sweaters -----	113	100	4	28	68	-	67
Nightwear -----	108	100	69	2	28	11	17
Slacks -----	102	100	37	9	54	18	36
Suits, skirts -----	128	100	22	33	44	14	30
Hosiery, anklets, socks -	75	100	26	2	73	1	71
Other <u>6/</u> -----	204	100	54	-	46	13	33
Home furnishings -----	2,561	100	50	5	46	20	26
Carpets, rugs -----	816	100	11	13	76	14	62
Sheets, other bedding ---	552	100	94	-	6	5	1
Draperies, upholstery, slipcovers -----	493	100	35	-	65	47	18
Towels, towelings -----	300	100	98	-	2	2	-
Bedspreeds, quilts -----	154	100	71	-	29	27	2
Blankets, blanketings ---	128	100	22	13	65	50	16
Other <u>7/</u> -----	118	100	54	-	46	15	31
Other consumer products ---	999	100	47	3	49	34	16
Apparel linings -----	282	100	43	1	56	40	16
Retail piece goods -----	177	100	54	8	38	25	12
Narrow fabrics <u>8/</u> -----	152	100	58	-	42	20	22
Medical, surgical, sanitary -----	105	100	60	-	40	40	-
Shoes, slippers, luggage, handbags -----	115	100	77	-	23	17	6
Other <u>9/</u> -----	169	100	10	9	81	51	30

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding. 1/ Raw fiber equivalent. Weight of wool after cleaning. 2/ Includes textile glass. 3/ Includes tailored civilian uniforms, top-coats, rainwear. 4/ Dungarees, work pants, jackets. 5/ Swimwear, robes, neckties, nightwear. 6/ Rainwear, swimwear, loungewear, services apparel, work clothing, gloves, apparel lace. 7/ Curtains, napery, yarns, miscellaneous fabrics. 8/ Braids, ribbon, belting, tapes, shoe laces, etc. 9/ Handwork yarns, toys, miscellaneous.

Source: Textile Economics Bureau, Inc. Textile Organon. January 1968.

Other consumer products.--Manmade fibers and cotton were about equally important in the miscellaneous group, other consumer products--49 and 47 percent, respectively--while wool was only 3 percent. Manmade fiber was somewhat more popular for apparel linings and cotton for narrow fabrics (such as webs, braids, belting, and ribbons); medical, surgical, and sanitary supplies; and retail piece goods. Cotton was the chief textile fiber used in shoes, slippers, luggage, and handbags.

About using these data.--The weight of the raw fibers used in making consumer goods is not an exact measure of the final weight or number of items produced. Some loss occurs in processing the fibers--1 or 2 percent in manmade staple and wool, and 9 to 12 percent in cotton. The quantity of fabric a given weight of processed fibers produces varies widely, also. For example, the number of square yards of broadwoven fabric per pound of fiber averages 1.9 for wool, 3.5 for cotton, 3.4 for goods chiefly of rayon or acetate (ranging from 2.0 for rayon blanketing to 5.8 for acetate taffeta), and 5.0 for noncellulosics (from 1.8 for acrylic blanketing to 18.0 for nylon marquisette).

In addition to the textile fiber used by U.S. mills for making consumer goods, a small amount (perhaps 3 percent of that total) was imported in manufactured items for consumer use. U.S. manufacturers in 1966 used 0.3 billion pounds of fibers for products for export and 1.6 billion pounds for industrial products for domestic users.

--Virginia Britton

HOME ECONOMISTS CONTRIBUTE TO RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Home economists and nutritionists in the Extension Service, Farmers Home Administration, public health, teaching, school lunch, public welfare, and other programs are doing much in their jobs to contribute to rural development. Many of them are also teaming with other leaders in their State or county to bring to rural communities such needed services as jobs and job training, better schools, improved housing, health and medical services, services for the needy, and cultural opportunities. As members of Rural Areas Development Committees (RAD)--made up of lay citizens--or Technical Action Panels (TAP's)--made up of employees of USDA and other Government agencies--they are helping to plan and implement projects to upgrade rural living.

In many States, the State Nutrition Committee and TAP are coordinating their efforts on the Food Stamp and School Lunch Programs and other areas of nutrition education. This comes about easily when members of the nutrition committee are also members of TAP, often serving on a TAP subcommittee on nutrition. In New Jersey, for example, the two organizations by working together obtained State legislation providing funds for the School Lunch Program. Currently they are interested in a statewide conference on the school lunch for school administrators. They have also worked together to get more liberal policies in distributing food stamps, particularly for older persons and migrants, and to inform county personnel on the Food Stamp Program. Another mutual concern is rural housing. The State Welfare Home Economics Consultant--a member of both TAP and the State Nutrition Committee--helped to develop State welfare policies that make more of the needy persons eligible for Federal assistance on housing.

In a southwestern State, the State Nutrition Committee has been made a standing committee of the State TAP and county nutrition committees are being similarly affiliated with county TAP's. These committees are developing nutrition activities. In a northeastern State, the nutrition subcommittee of TAP is working to improve the food distribution program and informing county selectmen and commissioners about food distribution.

In New Mexico, the State TAP Committee on Nutrition Education, made up of home economists and nutritionists in the Public Health Service, School Food Service, and Dairy Council, is working with PTA's to improve the eating habits of school children and their families through the school lunch. They are also promoting projects to improve eating habits of out-of-school children and youth, and have developed guidelines for TAP to use in setting up local nutrition education committees.

County home economists in the Farmers Home Administration (FHA) in 21 States and Puerto Rico are members of county TAP's, serving on nutrition education subcommittees. In their jobs, they help FHA borrower families--those with the lowest incomes--to make and carry out home management plans and to solve home and money management problems. They stress production and preservation of food for home use, and encourage families, where feasible, to form cooperatives for growing vegetables and marketing. FHA home economists also help families get needed assistance from such programs as social security, donated foods, food stamp, and school lunch. They encourage the homemakers to take part in neighborhood and community activities.

Many Extension home economists serve on TAP's and RAD committees. They contribute to community resource development through their regular programs with women and youth. They also work with other agencies to sponsor community planning seminars and community improvement programs. They help women and young people to develop leadership ability, learn about public issues, and organize meetings to discuss issues.

Extension home economists are helping to develop community services such as nursery schools, day care for children, centers for senior citizens, and educational programs for the disadvantaged. In Arkansas, for example, they helped to give 178 low-income youth a week's experience at camp. Extension home economists are also giving training in foods and nutrition to Head Start directors and teachers, social workers, and nurses. They are advising VISTA workers and providing them with teaching materials. They are planning and teaching consumer education to basic adult education classes, and homemaking to the blind. They are training volunteers for community projects and homemakers and home health aides for welfare programs. They also train and supervise aides to help with Extension programs for disadvantaged families, to give them information on how to make better use of donated foods and food stamps.

In Arizona, Extension home economists in one county--at the request of the RAD Committee--gave four 6-hour courses on tourist promotion. They also worked with RAD and the County Board of Supervisors to obtain a grant from the Department of Housing and Urban Development to help build a community center. In three counties, the home economists worked with RAD in teaching homemaking to migrants and other low-income people. In four other counties, they helped to organize RAD projects.

In Pennsylvania, Extension home economists gave training in food service and management to restaurant managers, cooks, and supervisors of homes for the elderly. In Illinois, they helped plan and conduct food trade classes for the Job Corps. Working

with the Community Action Agency, Extension home economists in Massachusetts set up 16 classes to teach low-income people to be waitresses, housekeepers, and office clerks. Training and help in producing and marketing handcrafts are being given in Vermont, Illinois, New York, Maryland, and New Hampshire. Help in planning housing for migrant workers was given in California.

It is hoped that rural development projects will improve opportunities for high-quality living in rural communities and encourage families to remain in or return to these communities instead of crowding into the cities.

--Irene Wolgamot

MORE ON EDUCATION AND LIFETIME INCOME

Since the article "Education and Lifetime Earnings" was prepared for the September 1968 issue of Family Economics Review, the Bureau of the Census has released a publication giving additional information on lifetime income.^{1/} The estimates of lifetime earnings previously published were based on average money incomes received by men in the experienced labor force in 1959. The new publication gives estimates on lifetime income--including money earnings, property income, and transfers--for men 18 to 64 years old in the labor force in 1956, 1958, 1961, 1963, 1964, and 1966, with education varying from less than 8 grades to 5 or more years of college. Occupational differences are not shown.

Estimated lifetime income of a 22-year-old man with average income for his age and education in 1966 constant dollars are as follows:

- \$422, 000 if he has only an 8th grade education;
- \$587, 000 if he has completed 4 years of high school;
- \$906, 000 if he has completed 4 years of college; and
- \$1, 021, 000 if he has completed 5 or more years of college.

These estimates assume a probability of death before age 65 in line with current death rates; retirement at 65 if still living; average income changes over the worklife due to age and experience; and income increases of 3 percent a year due to growth in productivity of the economy.

The data in the report can be used to estimate the present value of the lifetime income of men of different ages and educational levels as well as their future income. Such a figure is useful when a cash settlement to a family for loss of the income of the husband and father is being considered in a legal suit.

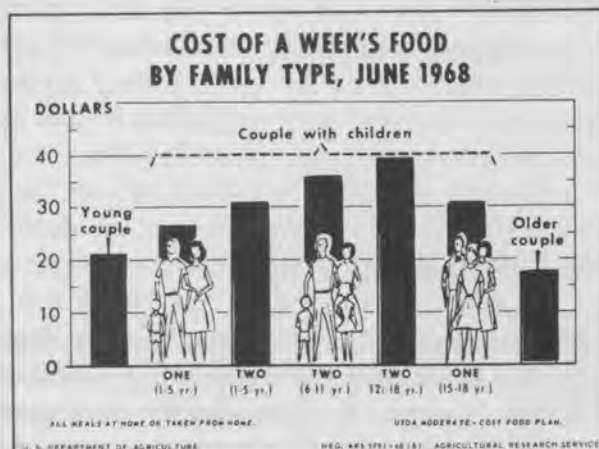
^{1/} U.S. Bureau of the Census. Annual Mean Income, Lifetime Income, and Educational Attainment of Men in the United States, for Selected Years, 1959 to 1966. Current Population Rpt. Ser. P-60, No. 56. 1968. For sale for 40 cents from Supt. Doc., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., Washington, D.C. 20402.

COST OF A WEEK'S FOOD FOR SEVEN TYPES OF FAMILIES

The makeup of the family affects the size of the family grocery bill. As children grow older they need more food energy (calories), more protein, minerals, and vitamins. Teenagers often need even more food than adults. The family's food costs mount as they buy additional food to meet these needs. As men and women grow older, they require less of some kinds of food.

The food costs in the figure are estimates for families who use the U.S. Department of Agriculture's moderate-cost food plan, buy all of their food, and eat all food at home or as lunches carried from home. These costs include no allowance for the higher expense of meals and snacks eaten out.

The moderate-cost food plan gives the amounts of each of 11 groups of food to buy in a week to provide well-balanced meals for boys and girls and men and women of different ages. The cost estimates assume selections within the food



groups similar to those reported by urban families with incomes near the median in the nationwide Household Food Consumption Survey, Spring 1965. Prices paid by these families are updated to current levels by using the Retail Food Prices by Cities of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures in the table on page 23 can be used to compute for a family of any size and type the estimated cost of the moderate-cost plan, a less costly, and a more costly plan.

LEVELS OF LIVING OF FARM OPERATOR FAMILIES

The farm operator level-of-living index for the average U.S. county was 22 percent higher in 1964 than in 1959 (122 vs. 100).^{1/} Indexes for individual counties in 1964 ranged from 46 to 378, compared with 12 to 243 in 1959. Data from the Census of Agriculture are used to determine these indexes, which are based on the average value of products sold per farm; the average value of land and buildings per farm; and the percentages of farms with telephones, home freezers, and automobiles.

The Economic Research Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture (ERS) made a special analysis of the level-of-living data to compare certain characteristics

^{1/} Zimmer, J. M., and Manny, E. S. Farm Operator Level-of-Living Indexes for Counties of the United States. U.S. Dept. Agr. Statis. Bul. 406. 1967. For sale for 40 cents from Supt. Doc., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., Washington, D.C. 20402.

Distribution of persons in farm operator households in all counties and each quintile of counties, by age, race of persons in households, and economic class of farm, conterminous United States, 1964

Age, race, class of farm	All counties	First quintile (highest)	Second quintile	Third quintile	Fourth quintile	Fifth quintile (lowest)
	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.
All -----	100	100	100	100	100	100
<u>AGE</u>						
Under 5 years ---	7	8	8	8	6	6
5 to 14 years ---	22	23	24	23	21	21
15 to 24 years --	14	13	13	13	14	15
25 to 34 years --	8	8	8	7	7	7
35 to 44 years --	13	14	13	13	13	12
45 to 54 years --	15	15	15	15	16	15
55 to 64 years --	12	11	11	12	13	13
65 years and over	9	8	8	9	10	11
<u>RACE</u>						
White -----	92	98	99	97	88	78
Nonwhite -----	8	2	1	3	12	22
<u>CLASS OF FARM</u>						
Commercial -----	71	85	80	69	60	58
Part-time -----	22	12	16	25	30	30
Part-retirement -	7	3	4	7	10	12
	Thou.	Thou.	Thou.	Thou.	Thou.	Thou.
Number of persons	11,229	2,206	2,389	2,309	2,068	2,247

of the farm operator population in counties at various index levels.^{2/} After ranking U.S. counties according to the size of their level-of-living index, ERS divided them into five groups (quintiles) with about the same population but representing different levels of living. Comparison of the persons in farm operation families in these groups of counties showed that--

- The counties with low level-of-living indexes had relatively more elderly persons (65 years and over), fewer persons 35 to 44 years old, and fewer young children than the counties with high indexes (see table).
- The proportion of persons 25 years old and over who had completed 12 years of school declined from 38 percent in the counties with the highest indexes to 15 percent in those with the lowest. The proportion with less than an 8th grade education increased from 8 to 37 percent in the respective groups of counties.
- About 40 percent of the farm operator population in counties in the two lowest level-of-living groups were on part-time or part-retirement farms, compared with 15 to 32 percent of those in the other counties.

^{2/} Zimmer, J. M., and Manny, E. S. Population Characteristics of Farm Operator Households. U.S. Dept. Agr., Agr. Econ. Rpt. 141. 1968. For sale for 20 cents from Supt. Doc., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., Washington, D.C. 20402.

The counties with low level-of-living indexes had relatively more nonwhite persons in operator families than those with higher indexes. About one-fifth in the lowest quintile were nonwhite, compared with 2 percent in the top quintile.

UNEMPLOYMENT IN URBAN POVERTY NEIGHBORHOODS

In the largest U.S. metropolitan areas, 16 percent of all persons 16 years old and over--or a total of 11.6 million--lived in poverty neighborhoods in 1967. Unemployment was a serious problem for these people. Their unemployment rate averaged 6.8 percent--twice as high as that for residents of other urban areas. Moreover, jobless men and women in the poverty areas remained without work longer--an average of about 10 weeks compared with 8 weeks for other urban unemployed.

Unemployment rates were higher for all major age groups of men and women in the poverty areas than in other urban neighborhoods (see table). Jobless rates of poverty area workers in these groups were as follows:

- Teenagers 16 to 19 years old had the highest jobless rate--23.5 percent for both boys and girls.
- The unemployment rate for young men 20 to 24 years old was 7.5 percent. For young women in this age group, it was even higher--10.1 percent.
- Men in the prime working years, age 25 to 54 years, had an average unemployment rate of 4.3 percent and women of these ages 6.0 percent. The corresponding rates in other urban neighborhoods were 1.5 and 3.7 percent. Unemployment is most critical for people in this age group because they are the main source of income for families at the stages when needs are greatest.
- Older women, 55 years old and over, had the lowest unemployment rate of all poverty area residents--2.8 percent. The rate for men 55 and over was the same as that for men 25 to 54 years old.

Unemployment rates in United States and metropolitan poverty and nonpoverty neighborhoods, by sex and age, February 1967

Age	Men			Women		
	United States	Metropolitan areas ^{1/}		United States	Metropolitan areas ^{1/}	
		Poverty neighborhoods	Nonpoverty neighborhoods		Poverty neighborhoods	Nonpoverty neighborhoods
	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.
All -----	3.1	6.2	2.7	5.2	7.7	4.6
16 to 19 years	12.3	23.5	12.8	13.5	23.5	11.8
20 to 24 years	4.7	7.5	4.5	7.0	10.1	5.4
25 to 54 years	1.9	4.3	1.5	4.1	6.0	3.7
55 years and over -----	2.5	4.3	2.5	2.5	2.8	2.6

^{1/} Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas of 250,000 or more population.

About 76 percent of the men and 42 percent of the women in the poverty areas were in the labor force (working or looking for work), compared with 83 percent of the men and 41 percent of the women in nonpoverty areas. Some reasons given by men for not working or looking for work were: Disability; retired; did not want a job; or discouraged over job prospects.

Even when workers in poverty areas were employed they tended to work fewer hours than other urban workers. Also, more of them worked in relatively low-paying occupations. About three-fifths of those who were employed in 1967 worked in semi-skilled, unskilled, and service occupations compared with less than one-third of those in nonpoverty neighborhoods.

The poverty neighborhoods were identified by a method developed by the Bureau of the Census. Census tracts in standard metropolitan areas with populations of 250,000 or more were ranked on the basis of data on income, education, skills, housing, and proportion of broken families. The tracts in the lowest quartile were designated as poverty neighborhoods. The data on unemployment in these neighborhoods may underestimate unemployment among the poor residents since these neighborhoods included some middle- and upper-income families whose unemployment rate was probably lower than that of the poor.

Source: Ryscavage, Paul M., and Willacy, Hazel M. "Employment of the Nation's Urban Poor." U.S. Bur. of Labor Statis. Monthly Labor Review. August 1968.

NEW INDEX OF PRICES FOR ONE-FAMILY HOUSES

In May 1968, the U.S. Department of Commerce started an index of prices paid for new one-family houses built for sale and sold during a year. This annual index is designed to measure changes in the total price of houses (including site) with the same composition of characteristics. It reflects changes in costs of labor, materials, land, selling, and also in productivity and profit margins in residential building. It does not reflect changes in the size, construction features, and installed equipment of houses purchased as people upgrade their level of living. Indexes for 1963 to 1967 (1963=100) are:

<u>Year</u>	<u>Index</u>
1963 -----	100.0
1964 -----	101.1
1965 -----	103.5
1966 -----	106.5
1967 -----	110.3

The increase in the index over the 5 years was about 10 percent. In contrast, the increase in the average actual sales price of all new one-family houses sold was 24 percent. The greater increase in actual sales prices than in the index was due largely to a shift to the purchase of larger houses with more installed equipment.

Source: News release of the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

About 1 out of every 20 employed persons holds more than one job, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics.^{1/} These "moonlighters" numbered about 3.6 million in May 1966--slightly fewer than in the 3 preceding years (see table).

The majority of the moonlighters were men. The multiple jobholding rate was much higher for married than single men and for men 25 to 44 years than for teenagers or for older workers (65 and over). Multiple jobholding was also much higher for men with children under 18 years in their families than those with no children. For example, 10.3 percent of the men with 5 or more children had two or more jobs, compared with 5.4 percent of those with no children.

Financial pressure was the main reason given for moonlighting. For some, the second income was necessary to meet the basic needs of the family. For others it was not so much a necessity as a way of attaining a higher level of living or maintaining a level threatened by unexpected large expenses, loss of the wife's income, or a decline in earnings on the primary job. Among married men 25 to 54 years old, the multiple jobholding rate was highest (12.5 percent) for those earning less than \$60 a week and lowest (5.3 percent) for those with \$200 or more a week.

Some workers were moonlighting because they wanted to try working for themselves or in a different line of work while still keeping their basic source of income. Others took a second job to keep busy or because their skills were in great demand in their community and they found it easy to make extra money.

Employed men and women 16 years old and over with 2 or more jobs, 1963-66

Year	Number			Percent		
	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women
	Thou.	Thou.	Thou.			
1963 -----	3,921	3,351	570	5.7	7.4	2.4
1964 -----	3,726	3,215	511	5.2	6.9	2.1
1965 -----	3,756	3,181	575	5.2	6.7	2.3
1966 -----	3,636	3,060	576	4.9	6.4	2.2

Most moonlighters worked full time on their main job and part time on the second job. They averaged 52 hours a week, of which 13 hours were on the second job. In non-farm industries, persons with a long workweek (41 to 48 hours) on their main job were about as likely to be moonlighters as those with a shorter workweek (35 to 40 hours).

Of the dual jobholders, 56 percent held two wage or salary jobs; 32 percent were wage or salary workers on the main job and self-employed on the second; and 12 percent were self-employed on the main job and wage or salary workers on the second. Men with the highest moonlighting rates were teachers (not including college teachers) and protective service employees, such as policemen, firemen, and guards. About 20 and 17 percent, respectively, of these two groups had second jobs. Men who were managers, officials, or proprietors (except farm) had the lowest moonlighting rate--4 percent.

^{1/} Hamel, Harvey R. "Moonlighting--An Economic Phenomenon." U.S. Dept. Labor, Bur. of Labor Statis. Monthly Labor Review. October 1967.

THE WHOLESOME POULTRY PRODUCTS ACT OF 1968

The Wholesome Poultry Products Act of 1968 was signed on August 18. This act, together with the Wholesome Meat Act of 1967, will assure U.S. consumers that the poultry and red meats they buy and eat are safe, wholesome, unadulterated, and truthfully labeled.

The Poultry Products Inspection Act of 1957 provided for Federal inspection of poultry and poultry products sold in interstate or foreign commerce. Under the 1968 act, all poultry and poultry products--including those sold within the State of origin--will be inspected under a uniform standard for wholesomeness, by either USDA or the State.

The new law gives States 2 years (with a 1-year extension if progress is being made) to develop poultry inspection programs that are "at least equal" to the Federal program, and provides financial and technical aid for doing this. The USDA may provide Federal inspection immediately in any poultry plant that poses a hazard to health, if the State fails to take appropriate action.

Other provisions of the new law: (1) Give USDA authority over industries that could divert unfit poultry into the human food supply, such as transporters, cold storage warehouses, and animal food manufacturers; (2) authorize USDA regulation of poultry storage and handling facilities, to prevent adulteration and misbranding; and (3) give USDA authority to detain and seize unfit poultry.

U.S. FAMILY INCOME UP, POVERTY DOWN IN 1967

The estimated median income of U.S. families was about \$8,000 before taxes in 1967. This was 6.5 percent higher than in 1966. Income distributions in 1967 and 1966 were as follows:

<u>Income</u>	<u>Percent of families</u>	
	<u>1967</u>	<u>1966</u>
Under \$3,000 -----	12	14
\$3,000 to \$4,999 -----	13	14
\$5,000 to \$6,999 -----	16	18
\$7,000 to \$9,999 -----	24	24
\$10,000 to \$14,999 -----	23	21
\$15,000 and over -----	12	9

Since consumer prices also rose between 1966 and 1967, the gain in real buying power averaged about 4 percent. After allowing for changes in consumer prices, family income has risen 3.5 to 4 percent in each of the last 4 years.

An estimated 5.3 million families--10.6 percent of the U.S. total--were below the poverty line in 1967. This was 600,000 fewer poor families than in 1966. The poverty line for urban families in 1966 and 1967, as calculated by the Social Security Administration, ranged from \$1,560 for a woman aged 65 or over living alone to \$5,440 for a family of 7 or more persons. The proportion of families below the poverty line has de-

creased an average of about 1 percentage point a year since 1960. The number of poor persons in 1967 was estimated at 25.9 million--down from 28.8 million in 1966. About two-fifths of these poor persons were children under 18 years of age.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Family Income Advances, Poverty Reduced in 1967. Bur. Census Ser. P-60, No. 55. 1968.

SOME NEW USDA PUBLICATIONS

The following are for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402: (Please give your ZIP code.)

FOOD CONSUMPTION OF HOUSEHOLDS IN THE NORTHEAST, SPRING 1965.

HFCS-2. \$1.50.

FOOD CONSUMPTION OF HOUSEHOLDS IN THE NORTH CENTRAL, SPRING 1965. HFCS-3. \$1.50.

FOOD CONSUMPTION OF HOUSEHOLDS IN THE SOUTH, SPRING 1965.

HFCS-4. \$1.50.

FOOD CONSUMPTION OF HOUSEHOLDS IN THE WEST, SPRING 1965.

HFCS-5. \$1.50.

SCIENCE FOR BETTER LIVING. The Yearbook of Agriculture 1968. \$3.00.

HANDBOOK OF AGRICULTURAL CHARTS, 1968. AH No. 359. 65 cents.

AVAILABILITY AND USE OF HEALTH SERVICES --RURAL-URBAN COMPARISON. AER No. 139. 20 cents.

STATUS OF RURAL HOUSING IN THE UNITED STATES. AER No. 144. 30 cents.

Single copies of the following are available free from the Office of Information, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C. 20250:

BAKING FOR PEOPLE WITH ALLERGIES. HG No. 147.

CEREALS AND PASTA IN FAMILY MEALS: A GUIDE FOR CONSUMERS. HG No. 150.

HOW TO BUY EGGS. HG No. 144.

HOW TO BUY BEEF. HG No. 145.

HOW TO BUY BEEF ROASTS. HG No. 146.

HOW TO BUY BUTTER. HG No. 148.

REMOVING STAINS FROM FABRICS. HG No. 62.

The following report is available free from the Office of Management Services, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C. 20250:

WHAT MAKES FOOD PRICES? ERS-308.

COST OF FOOD AT HOME

Cost of food at home estimated for food plans at three
cost levels, June 1968, U.S. average 1/

Sex-age groups <u>2/</u>	Cost for 1 week			Cost for 1 month		
	Low-cost plan	Moderate- cost plan	Liberal plan	Low-cost plan	Moderate- cost plan	Liberal plan
	<u>Dollars</u>	<u>Dollars</u>	<u>Dollars</u>	<u>Dollars</u>	<u>Dollars</u>	<u>Dollars</u>
<u>FAMILIES</u>						
Family of 2:						
20 to 35 years <u>3/</u> ----	16.80	21.30	26.20	72.90	92.70	113.30
55 to 75 years <u>3/</u> ----	13.90	17.90	21.40	59.80	77.30	92.60
Family of 4:						
Preschool children <u>4/</u>	24.50	31.10	37.80	106.10	134.90	163.50
School children <u>5/</u> ---	28.50	36.30	44.40	123.20	157.20	192.10
<u>INDIVIDUALS <u>6/</u></u>						
Children, under 1 year	3.30	4.20	4.60	14.30	18.00	20.10
1 to 3 years -----	4.20	5.30	6.30	18.20	22.80	27.30
3 to 6 years -----	5.00	6.40	7.70	21.60	27.80	33.20
6 to 9 years -----	6.10	7.80	9.70	26.30	33.70	41.80
Girls, 9 to 12 years --	6.90	8.90	10.40	29.90	38.50	44.90
12 to 15 years -----	7.60	9.80	11.90	33.00	42.60	51.30
15 to 20 years -----	7.80	9.80	11.60	33.60	42.30	50.10
Boys, 9 to 12 years ---	7.10	9.10	10.90	30.60	39.20	47.20
12 to 15 years -----	8.30	10.80	12.90	35.80	46.90	55.80
15 to 20 years -----	9.50	12.10	14.50	41.20	52.20	62.80
Women, 20 to 35 years -	7.10	9.00	10.80	30.80	39.10	46.90
35 to 55 years -----	6.80	8.70	10.40	29.50	37.70	45.10
55 to 75 years -----	5.80	7.50	8.90	25.10	32.30	38.40
75 years and over ---	5.30	6.60	8.10	22.80	28.80	35.10
Pregnant -----	8.50	10.50	12.40	36.60	45.60	53.80
Nursing -----	9.80	12.20	14.20	42.50	52.70	61.50
Men, 20 to 35 years ---	8.20	10.40	13.00	35.50	45.20	56.20
35 to 55 years -----	7.60	9.70	11.80	33.00	42.00	51.20
55 to 75 years -----	6.80	8.80	10.60	29.30	38.00	45.70
75 years and over ---	6.30	8.40	10.20	27.40	36.50	44.00

1/ Estimates computed from quantities in food plans published in Family Economics Review, October 1964. Costs of the plans were first estimated by using average price per pound of each food group paid by urban survey families at 3 income levels in 1965. These prices were adjusted to current levels by use of Retail Food Prices by Cities, released by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

2/ Persons of the first age listed up to but not including the second age.

3/ 10 percent added for family size adjustment. For derivation of factors for adjustment, see Family Food Plans and Food Costs, USDA, HERR No. 20.

4/ Man and woman, 20 to 35 years; children 1 to 3 and 3 to 6 years.

5/ Man and woman, 20 to 35 years; child 6 to 9; and boy 9 to 12 years.

6/ Costs given for persons in families of 4. For other size families, adjust thus: 1-person, add 20 percent; 2-person, add 10 percent; 3-person, add 5 percent; 5-person, subtract 5 percent; 6-or-more-person, subtract 10 percent.

CONSUMER PRICES

Consumer Price Index for Urban Wage Earners and Clerical Workers
(including single workers)
(1957-59 = 100)

Group	Sept. 1967	July 1968	Aug. 1968	Sept. 1968
All items -----	117.1	121.5	121.9	122.2
Food -----	115.9	120.0	120.5	120.4
Food at home -----	112.9	116.7	117.1	116.8
Food away from home -----	130.8	136.5	137.2	138.0
Housing -----	115.0	119.5	120.1	120.4
Shelter -----	118.7	124.2	125.0	125.3
Rent -----	112.8	115.1	115.4	115.7
Homeownership -----	121.1	127.8	128.8	129.1
Fuel and utilities -----	109.4	110.6	110.7	110.5
Fuel oil and coal -----	112.3	115.7	115.7	115.8
Gas and electricity -----	108.9	109.5	109.7	109.3
Household furnishings and operation -----	108.8	113.1	113.3	113.9
Apparel and upkeep -----	115.1	119.7	120.3	122.2
Men's and boys' -----	115.5	120.1	121.2	123.2
Women's and girls' -----	111.1	115.7	115.8	118.5
Footwear -----	126.4	132.0	133.0	134.0
Transportation -----	116.8	119.8	120.0	119.5
Private -----	114.8	117.6	117.7	117.2
Public -----	133.0	138.5	138.6	138.7
Health and recreation -----	124.9	130.2	130.5	131.1
Medical care -----	138.5	145.1	145.5	146.4
Personal care -----	116.4	120.4	120.9	121.5
Reading and recreation -----	120.5	125.9	126.3	126.7
Other goods and services -----	119.7	123.9	124.2	124.4

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Index of Prices Paid by Farmers for Family Living Items
(1957-59 = 100)

Item	Oct. 1967	June 1968	July 1968	Aug. 1968	Sept. 1968	Oct. 1968
All items -----	114	117	118	118	118	119
Food and tobacco -----	-	120	-	-	120	-
Clothing -----	-	129	-	-	132	-
Household operation -----	-	115	-	-	117	-
Household furnishings ---	-	102	-	-	103	-
Building materials, house	-	113	-	-	115	-

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Statistical Reporting Service.