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UNIONIZATION OF THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY : A CASE STUDY OF J.P.STEVENS

Background

In recent years, the labor union movement has suffered a precipitous decline in its membership, While 35.5% of all workers in nonagricultural jobs were members of labor unions in 1945, only 25% are members today. That is a drop of 40%. If you include agricultural workers, only 21.5% of the work force is unionized. In 1975 and 1976, workers voted against union representation in 52% of the elections conducted by the NLRB. This is the first time since 1935 that organized labor lost more elections than it won.

Furthermore, during the decade of 1966-76 the number of elections to withdraw recognition of a labor union increased from 234 in 1967 to 612 in 1976. The total union membership has remained relatively static while the labor force has expanded rapidly. In fact, the main source of increase in union membership is government employees at local, state, and federal levels.

Because of the burgeoning economic growth in the South and the Southwest, unions are directing their organizing efforts towards these areas. Ironically, these are the states in which organized labor has fared worst in recruiting and in gaining bargaining rights. Chief among Southern industries singled out for unionization have been the textile plants, as much a part of Southern symbols as Baptist churches, grits, and red-eye gravy. J. P. Stevens Company with 40,000 of its employees in Virginia, South Carolina, North Carolina, and Georgia, is one of the companies designated by the AFL-CIO for this push to unionize the textile industry. This study looks at the background of this effort.

Participants

A. <u>J. P. Stevens & Company, Inc.</u>

Founded in 1813, J. P. Stevens is the second largest textile manufacturer in the United States. It has over 45,000 employees in 85 manufacturing plants in the U.S., mostly in the Southeast (primarily Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia). Stevens' products include synthetic fiber fabrics, cotton fabrics, woolen fabrics, and fabrics woven or knitted from combinations of natural and synthetic fibers. At the end of fiscal year 1975, apparel fabrics accounted for 48% of total sales; home furnishings, 34%; and industrials, 18%.

Truly an international company, Stevens has subsidiaries and associates in Canada, Mexico, France, Belgium, New Zealand, and Australia. Its U.S. subsidiaries are: Black Hawk Corporation which operates a warehouse in South Carolina; Stevens Beechcraft which services aircraft at the Greenville-Spartanburg, South Carolina, airport; Southeastern Aviation, Inc.; Southeastern Beechcraft, an aircraft distributor; Stevens Grafics, Inc. which prints and publishes telephone directories in the southeastern U.S.; J. P. Stevens International Sales, Inc.; Control Top, Inc.; and Stevens Elastromeric and Plastic Products, Inc.

A number of unfinished products are marketed by J. P. Stevens. Among them are Blend-Tempo, Stevenset, Stevetex, Consort, and Wonder-Glass. Stevens' finished products include J. P. Stevens draperies; 20 Below and Lady Consort synthetics and blends; Utica and Utica/Mohawk blankets; Merryweather carpets; Forstmann and Andover woolens; Fruit of the Loom; and Tastemaker home furnishings.

J. P. Stevens also manufactures glass fabric insect screening; fabrics for air pollution control; synthetic fabrics for soil erosion and flood control; nonwoven backings for handbags, shoes, synthetic leather upholstery and luggage; pharmaceutical stoppers for the health care industry; and glass fabric for marine insulation and fishing rods.

B. <u>The Amalgamated Clothing and Textile Workers Union</u>

In June of 1976 the Amalgamated Clothing Workers (ACW) and the Textile Workers Union of America (TWUA) merged to form the ACTWU. The 350,000 member ACW and the 170,000 member TWUA began as craft unions under the American Federation of Labor (AFL). Later on they seceded to become part of the Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO) with the ACW's Sidney Hillman heading the CIO's Textile Workers Organizing Committee in 1937.

Most of its membership is in the urban areas in the Northeast and Midwest, and its present leadership is untypically white collar. The president, Murray M. Finley, obtained a doctorate from Northwestern University and worked his way up through the ACW hierarchy in the Midwest. Jacob Sheinkman is the secretary-treasurer. Armed with a law degree from Cornell University, he rose through the ACW's legal department.

Unions, the work ethic, and labor-management relations in the South

One thing to remember about this subject is that this is not just a question of unionizing Southern textile workers. The union movement has traditionally been strong in the North and the Midwest for a number of reasons: (1) these areas are significantly involved in heavy industry, i.e., coal, steel, railroads, shipbuilding, manufacturing--those ares traditionally sympathetic to union organizing; (2) ethnic, religious, racial, and cultural diversity among workers separated them from the traditional WASP financial and industrial interests; (3) the educational centers of New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Cleveland, and Chicago tolerated anarchist, socialist, liberal, and radical groups which provided leadership for many unions.

The South is a different "atmosphere." As compared to the babel of languages, religions, and traditions in the North, Dixie was homogenous. Catholic and Jewish minorities in the South are sprinkled lightly only in the major cities. Vast populations of Eastern and Southern European ethnics are a rarity. With the exception of the blacks, the Southern workforce is Protestant and white. Settled by immigrants from England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland during the seventeenth, eighteenth, and the first half of the nineteenth centuries, this vast region is a stranger to cultural diversity. Of course, this is not to say that there are not any ethnic population centers in the South. In the Floridian city of Tampa, the Ybor City community has been Cuban-American since the turn of the century. Miami's "Little Havana" section can only be considered post-Castro Cuban. Louisiana has the Cajuns in the bayou country south of Alexandria and west of the Mississippi River. They are descendants of the 4,000 Acadians expelled by the British from Nova Scotia in 1755. The Creoles in Louisiana are descendants of the original French and Spanish settlers in that state. In Texas, both a Southern and Western state, the Mexican-American population is represented throughout most of the state except the Panhandle area and East Texas. The area east of Houston on the Texas-Louisiana border is the Triangle area composed of the cities of Beaumont, Port Arthur, and Orange. This is Texas Cajun country--French and Catholic as opposed to the rest of East Texas which is Scot-Irish or English, and Baptist.

Because of the social, ethnic and historical factors previously mentioned, it is not surprising that the percentage of unionized workers in the South is low relative to the rest of the country. The national average of organized non-farm workers is 25%. Below are the percentages of non-agricultural employees unionized in Dixie:

Texas	- 13.0	Virginia	- 13.8
North Carolina	- 6.9	South Carolina	- 8.0
Florida	- 12.5	Alabama	- 19.1
Tennessee	- 18.7	Arkansas	- 16.8
Mississippi	- 12.0	Georgia	- 14.5
		Louisiana	- 16.3

Source: Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics ("Labor's New Southern Strategy," Business Week, February 7, 1977, page 28)

Furthermore, of the twenty states that have right-to-work laws, eleven of them are the states of the old Confederacy. The remaining nine are Iowa, Arizona, Kansas, Nebraska, Utah, South Dakota, Nevada, North Dakota, and Wyoming.

The Fantus Study: An Economic Barometer of the States

One of the major criticisms of these right-to-work laws supposedly is that they have no relationship to the economic vitality of these states. In a 221-page report entitled "A Study of the Business Climate of the States" published in August 1975 by the Fantus Company, a subsidiary of Dun and Bradstreet, Inc., it was disclosed that the following states had the most favorable business climate:

1. Texas
2. Alabama
3. Virginia
4. South Dakota
5. South Carolina
6. North Carolina
7. Florida
8. Arkansas
9. Indiana
10. Utah

Of the above states, all have right-to-work laws except Indiana.

The ten states with the most unfavorable business climate are as follows:

1. Washington
2. Oregon
3. Minnesota
4. Pennsylvania
5. Connecticut
6. Delaware
7. Michigan
8. Massachusetts
9. California
10. New York

None of the above ten states has a right-to-work law.

The purpose of this study was to assemble information about the business environment in those states in which clients of the Fantus Company might invest money in new and expanding business enterprises. The Fantus Company, Inc., is the oldest and largest plant location consulting firm in the world; and their reports on the business climates of states are based on state taxes, programs, and laws affecting businesses, and the legislative and regulatory environment of the state.

An indication of the economic vitality in a particular state is the increase in manufacturing jobs over a given period. From figures provided by the U.S. Department of Labor, note the comparison between right-to-work and non-right-to-work states.

Table I
Net Increases in Manufacturing Jobs, 1964-74

Right-to-Work States

1.	Texas	288,000	11.	Iowa	65,900
2.	North Carolina	232,900	12.	Arizona	52,600
3.	Tennessee	157,800	13.	Kansas	46,600
4.	Florida	136,600	14.	Nebraska	24,800
5.	Georgia	105,000	15.	Utah	17,600
6.	South Carolina	97,300	16.	South Dakota	7,500
7.	Alabama	94,000	17.	North Dakota	5,800
8.	Virginia	92,400	18.	Nevada	5,500
9.	Mississippi	79,900	19.	Wyoming	700
10.	Arkansas	77,000		TOTAL	1,587,900

Non-Right-to-Work States

1.	California	298,100	17.	Idaho	15,600
2.	Ohio	158,500	18.	New Mexico	11,600
3.	Indiana	104,500	19.	Delaware	10,800
4.	Kentucky	99,500	20.	Connecticut	9,800
5.	Minnesota	96,100	21.	Rhode Island	9,800
6.	Illinois	94,600	22.	New Hampshire	8,500
7.	Michigan	80,300	23.	Vermont	7,900
8.	Wisconsin	76,700	24.	West Virginia	4,400
9.	Oklahoma	59,300	25.	Alaska	3,900
10.	Colorado	53,400	26.	Montana	3,000
11.	Missouri	47,100	27.	Maine	1,100
12.	Oregon	45,700	28.	Hawaii	-2,400
13.	Pennsylvania	37,300	29.	Maryland-D.C.	-6,000
14.	Louisiana *	33,600	30.	Massachusetts	-32,400
15.	Washington	33,100	31.	New York	-213,600
16.	New Jersey	15,800		TOTAL	1,165,600

*Right-to-Work Law effective July 9, 1976
Source: U.S. Department of Labor

A few conclusions should be noted from this table. While there was a net increase of 1,587,900 persons employed in manufacturing jobs during the 1964-76 decade in the right-to-work states, there was at the same time a smaller gain in the other states even though they comprise 70% of the total U.S. population. This is compared with the right-to-work states that pulled a 57.7% net increase in manufacturing jobs during that decade.

Of the ten top states in the creation of these new jobs, six were right-to-work while four states suffering new losses were non-right-to-work: New York, -213,600 jobs; Massachusetts, -32,400; Maryland-D.C., -6,000; and Hawaii, -2,400.

Another charge leveled against right-to-work states --particularly the Southern ones -- is that in those states where such laws are in force, economic growth is impeded. Once again data from the U.S. Department of Labor and Commerce seem to prove otherwise.

Table II

	1964	1974	Actual Gain	% Gain
MANUFACTURING EMPLOYMENT				
RTW states average	195,200	278,800	83,600	43
Non-RTW states average	424,100	460,500	36,400	9
CONTRACT CONSTRUCTION EMPLOYMENT				
RTW states average	47,900	78,200	30,300	63
Non-RTW states average	66,100	78,310	12,210	18
NON-AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT				
RTW states average	757,700	1,170,800	413,100	55
Non-RTW states average	1,368,710	1,446,980	390,770	29
WEEKLY EARNINGS OF MANUFACTURING WORKERS				
RTW states average	$ 94.44	$156.58	$62.14	40
Non-RTW states average	105.50	181.24	75.14	42
PER CAPITA PERSONAL INCOME				
RTW states average	$2,136	$4,819	$2,683	126
Non-RTW states average	2,606	5,469	2,863	110
NEW HOUSING UNITS AUTHORIZED				
RTW states average	19,399	22,126	2,727	14
Non-RTW states average	29,601	20,603	-8,998	-30
CAPITAL EXPENDITURES FOR MANUFACTURING PLANTS, '67-'73				
RTW states average	$288,530,000	$406,600,000	$118,100,000	41
Non-RTW states average	499,470,000	601,060,000	100,590,000	20

Table II cont'd.

1975 WORK STOPPAGES	Number	Man-days Lost
RTW states average	52.0	357,600
Non-RTW states average	138.8	787,400

Sources: U.S. Department of Labor, and U.S. Department of Commerce

Notice that in almost all categories the right-to-work states outstrip their non-right-to-work counterparts in economic growth. For instance, consider the category of work stoppages. Every worker knows that when a strike is called, he loses money. The old axiom "No work, no pay" still holds true. In 1975 the man-days lost as a result of a work stoppage were more than 100% greater in the non-right-to-work states than in those that had a right-to-work law. Furthermore, in the decade 1964-74 there was a gain of 43% in manufacturing employment in the right-to-work states as opposed to a small gain of 9% in the 31 states of that time which had no right-to-work laws. From these figures it is fairly obvious that rather than impairing economic growth, right-to-work laws possibly produce an economic climate that facilitates prosperity to employees, employers, and the entire community. For instance, just in Table II the data shows the average gain in non-agricultural jobs was greater in the right-to-work states (413,100) than in the remaining states (390,779).

Salaries in the Southern States

While all these facts show that business is enjoying a renaissance in the Sunbelt states, doubts are still expressed that the individual worker is not sharing in this prosperity. Frequently critics (not all of them union) charge that the wages received by Southern workers are low and inferior compared to their Northern brethern.

In the May 1977 issue of First Chicago World Report (pages 3-4), there is an article by Alan Reynolds, Vice President-Economist of the First National Bank of Chicago, entitled "Is Alabama Richer than New York?" The following Table I is taken from this article:

Table 1
Disposable Per Capita Income by State, 1975
(Adjusted for Cost-of-Living and Taxes)

	Unadjusted Per Capita Income	Adjusted Disposable Income Per Capita[1]	State and Local Taxes Per Capita[2]	Net Adjusted Disposable Income Per Capita[3]
Snowbelt States:				
Connecticut	$6,973	$4,951	$ 697	$4,254
Massachusetts	6,114	3,980	814	3,166
Rhode Island	5,841	4,180	645	3,535
Maine	4,786	3,755	511	3,244
New Hampshire	5,315	3,818	525	3,293
Vermont	4,960	3,831	699	3,132
New York	6,564	4,518	1,025	3,493
New Jersey	6,722	4,787	725	4,062
Pennsylvania	5,943	4,506	636	3,870
Ohio	5,810	4,507	534	3,973
Illinois	6,789	5,134	730	4,404
Indiana	5,653	4,414	580	3,834
Michigan	6,173	4,627	682	3,945
Wisconsin	5,669	4,389	719	3,670
Sunbelt States:				
Florida	5,638	4,643	521	4,122
Georgia	5,086	4,303	508	3,795
North Carolina	4,952	4,223	485	3,738
South Carolina	4,618	3,976	446	3,530
Virginia	5,785	4,668	563	4,105
West Virginia	4,918	4,281	533	3,748
Delaware	6,748	5,483	727	4,756
Maryland	6,474	4,872	728	4,144
Kentucky	4,871	4,189	497	3,692
Tennessee	4,895	4,155	451	3,704
Alabama	4,643	3,981	415	3,566
Mississippi	4,052	3,555	446	3,109
Arkansas	4,620	4,150	405	3,745
Louisiana	4,904	4,229	566	3,663
Oklahoma	5,250	4,497	482	4,015
Texas	5,631	4,828	515	4,313

Sources:

1 Adjusted for differences in cost-of-living (U.S. average for 1975 = 100) and per capita federal taxes. The cost-of-living index used was the annual budget for an intermediate standard of living for a four-person family. From C. J. Jusenius & L. C. Ledebur, "The Northern Tier and the Sunbelt," *Challenge*, March/April 1977.

2 Tax Foundation, Inc.

3 Column 2 minus column 3.

This table shows that the statistics on per capita income can give a misleading impression of the actual differences in economic conditions in the various states. The second column shows that the 1975 per capita income is adjusted for cost-of-living differences and federal taxes. Those states in which the cost-of-living is above or below the national average have had their per capita income figures inflated or deflated accordingly. Whenever comparisons between Southern and Northern wages are made, New York is used as a benchmark and therefore will be so used in this analysis. Since most of the J.P. Stevens plants are located in Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Virginia, these states will serve as the other side of this comparison. Unadjusted per capita income was $1,946 higher in New York than in South Carolina; $1,612 higher in New York than in North Carolina; and $1,478 higher in New York than in Georgia. However, even though per capita income was $779 higher in New York than in Virginia, when you add in the cost-of-living in New York, then the Old Dominion edges out the Empire State by $150. Furthermore, the third column of Reynolds' Table I shows the per capita state and local taxes which are subtracted from adjusted disposable income to get the "net adjusted disposable income per capita" in the last column. This is the net of state, local and federal taxes.

In this next chart, also quoted from Reynolds' article, New York slips to the sixth poorest state in this list of thirty states, even behind Alabama and South Carolina. Virginia rises to the seventh most affluent state, even ahead of New Jersey, Ohio, Michigan Pennsylvania, and Indiana. The net adjusted disposable income averaged $3,859 for the Sunbelt states as a group as opposed to $3,705 for the Snowbelt. Six of the ten most affluent states are located in Dixie yet six of the ten poorest states are in the North. Following is Reynolds' Table II.

Table 2
State Income and Taxation, 1975

	Net Adjusted Disposable Income Per Capita[1]	Taxes as a Percent of Unadjusted Per Capita Income[2]	
		Total	Federal
Delaware	$4,756	36.6%	25.8%
Illinois	4,404	35.9	25.1
Texas	4,313	31.6	22.4
Connecticut	4,254	35.8	25.8
Maryland	4,144	36.2	24.9
Florida	4,122	33.7	24.4
Virginia	4,105	33.2	23.4
New Jersey	4,062	35.1	24.3
Oklahoma	4,015	31.7	22.5
Ohio	3,973	34.0	24.8
Michigan	3,945	36.0	24.9
Pennsylvania	3,870	34.7	24.0
Indiana	3,834	35.2	25.0
Georgia	3,795	33.9	23.9
West Virginia	3,748	33.0	22.2
Arkansas	3,745	28.4	19.6
North Carolina	3,738	32.9	23.1
Tennessee	3,704	32.6	23.4
Kentucky	3,692	32.8	22.6
Wisconsin	3,670	36.2	23.5
Louisiana	3,663	33.2	21.7
Alabama	3,566	31.0	22.1
Rhode Island	3,535	36.0	24.9
South Carolina	3,530	32.2	22.5
New York	3,493	42.4	26.8
New Hampshire	3,293	36.2	26.3
Maine	3,244	33.1	22.5
Massachusetts	3,166	38.4	25.1
Vermont	3,132	37.6	23.5
Mississippi	3,109	33.4	22.4

Sources:

1. From column 4, Table 1.
2. Federal per capita taxes from Jusenius & Ledebur, *op. cit.* State and local per capita taxes and unadjusted per capita income from columns 3 and 1, Table 1.

Reynolds' Table II shows that federal, state and local taxes in 1975 amounted to 42.4% of per capita income (unadjusted for taxes or cost-of-living) in New York, 38.4% in Massachusetts, 36.0% in Michigan, and 35.9% in Illinois. By comparison, taxes took only 32.2% of income in South Carolina, 32.9% in North Carolina, 33.9% in Georgia, and 33.2% in Virginia. It is an axiom that states that have high taxes generally make it difficult to attract and retain producing individuals and enterprises. Furthermore, the problem of high state and local taxes is compounded by the federal tax system because federal income taxes are levied on nominal income not real income. Taxpayers in states with a high cost-of-living are in higher federal tax brackets than taxpayers whose lower nominal incomes will buy just as much in other states. Federal taxes amount to 26.8% of unadjusted per capita income in New York, 25.1% in Massachusetts, 24.9% in Michigan, and 25.1% in Illinois. Federal taxes amounted to only 22.5% in South Carolina, 23.1% in North Carolina, 23.9% in Georgia, and 23.4% in Virginia -- states with higher net adjusted disposable incomes per capita than either New York or Massachusetts.

In summary, the often-repeated charge that Southern states -- particularly those four where most J. P. Stevens employees live and work -- are behind the industrial North in job opportunities, real wages, and a better standard of living is false. The most objective, recent data shows that these states are anything but economic backwaters.

J.P. Stevens vs. the ACTWU

In 1963 the Union began a massive campaign to organize the South with J.P. Stevens as its chief target. After forty organizing campaigns and fifteen requests for secret-ballot elections, the union won an election in August 1974 at the seven plants of the Roanoke Rapids group in North Carolina. It won by the narrow margin of 1,685 to 1,448 thereby representing 7% of the 45,000 employees of Stevens. For the last two-and-a-half years, both the company and the union have been meeting to secure a contract for these employees, but there has not been much success. The union charges that the company has failed to bargain fairly, yet Stevens responds with a similar charge against the union:

> We are and have been for a long period of time desirous of accelerating the contract negotiations at Roanoke Rapids to bring that matter to a conclusion. We have repeatedly urged the union to meet with us more frequently without success. In fact, during the past twelve months there have been only ten full days and three half days of negotiation meetings devoted to provisions to be included in a collective bargaining agreement -- an average of less than one day per month. In early

> March at a meeting in New York and subsequently in a letter dated March 16, 1977, we expressed to Monsignor Higgins our position that more frequent contract negotiation sessions at Roanoke Rapids are necessary. The last contract negotiation meeting occurred on March 9. A meeting scheduled for April 1 was cancelled by the union and no date has yet bee set for the next contract negotiation meeting notwithstanding the fact that Stevens has been and still is willing to meet at any time.
> (Excerpts from a letter sent to Archbishop Donellan of Atlanta, Stevens Responds to Statements by Bishops, June 3, 1977. J.P. Stevens & Company, Inc.)

It should be pointed out that disenchantment with the union has surfaced at Roanoke Rapids, and workers have organized a J.P. Stevens Employees Educational Committee to get rid of the union.

NLRB Decisions

Since 1965, there have been fifteen Board decisions against the company, yet three of those were overturned by the court. The NLRB has found twenty-five decisions against the union, and ironically some unions have had more NLRB decisions against them in a year than Stevens has had in its entire history. In 1974, the Board found that the ACTWU committed an unfair labor practice by refusing to meet with the bargaining agent representing its own employees. In a similar case, the Southern Staff Union, bargaining agent for union employees, accused its union-employer of using unfair tactics against its own employees. It stated:

> No employee is more helpless or more vigorously opposed by an international union than its own employees. The very union which cries out for assistance from the American Catholic Bishops against an employer such as Farah Manufacturing Company has turned to tactics against its own employees which are analogous in every respect to those it accuses Farah of employing.

Violence

One of the most unfortunate aspects of labor-management history in America is the violence that often accompanies union organizing. It is not unexpected that union violence has been part of organizing efforts in the Southern textile industry. One such example involved the Textile Workers AFL-CIO Union in Henderson, North Carolina during a strike against another company. A newspaper reported, "Violence in the form of beatings, stonings, shootings, and bombings became the order of the day in Henderson."

According to eyewitness reports, cars and trucks were damaged by repeated barrages of rocks and stones, and acid was poured on the machinery. Bombs destroyed the property of both employer and employee alike, and there were convictions for conspiracy in one of the dynamiting attempts. This resulted in prison terms for the TWU's Southern Director and several members of his staff.

A more serious series of union directed violent acts occurred during at strike at the Kayser-Roth plant in Dayton, Tennessee. As a result of a Federal Court decision, the Textile Workers' Union was required to pay $1.25 million to that company for deliberate destruction of company property and business.

Wages

J.P. Stevens employees are paid wages as high or higher than in the textile industry. Their wages are much higher than the national minimum wage of $2.30 an hour. For instance, their production employees earn $4.25 an hour with company-funded fringe benefits that add another 25% to wages. As has been pointed out in this study, wages in the Southeast are effectively higher because the cost of living is lower there.

The fringe benefits paid by the company include a comprehensive package covering medical and life insurance, pension plan, holidays, tuition assistance and time off for family funerals, jury duty, etc.

This not only compares favorably with the rest of the textile industry, but it is very competitive with other industries in the Southeast.

Minorities

Minority workers constitute 23% of J.P. Stevens' work force, an increase of over 200% in the last ten years as compared to a 1976 Bureau of Labor Statistics figure of 17% in the textile industry and 11% in manufacturing in general. Forty-two percent of the company's work force is female, an increase of 23% in the last ten years, as compared to 29% in general manufacturing and 47% in the textile industry. There are over 1,100 black and minority members in skilled, supervisory and office positions.

Occupational Safety & Health

J.P. Stevens has a Corporate Medical Director who supervises 32 occupational health clinics serving plant groups and staffed by more than forty trained medical personnel. Of the forty-one industries reporting to the National Safety Council, textiles ranked as the fourth safest in number of lost-time accidents. Stevens places very favorably in this category, and in fact the National Safety Council has regularly issued awards to the company for its safety records.

Community Relations & Education

Southern culture has always fostered a close interest by companies in church, civic, and local activities; and J.P. Stevens is recognized throughout the region and the industry for its community and philanthropic involvement. Within the last five years it has contributed $3.5 million to community programs with $1.3 million going to educational institutions. In the same period of time it has paid a quarter of a billion dollars in federal, state and local taxes including $42 million to the four states of South Carolina, North Carolina, Georgia and Virginia. Forty thousand of Stevens' forty-five thousand employees are located in these states.

The Council for Financial Aid to Education shows that overall corporate contributions to education averaged .18% of pre-tax income. The highest ratio for any industry covered in the survey was .51% of pre-tax income contributed by the combined Textile and Apparel Industry which was triple the average of all business. The .55% of pre-tax income contributed by J.P. Stevens is even better than that of its industry group. Since 1955, J. P. Stevens has donated a quarter of a million dollars to the United Negro College Fund.

Environment & Energy Conservation

Recognized as a leader in the field, the company has an Environmental Services Laboratory staffed with the professionals who use the most modern scientific equipment to analyze and monitor wastewater for the company's eighty-five plants. As a result of a company-sponsored $100,000 grant to Clemson University to study advanced wastewater technology, there was invented a patented hyperfiltration system.

They have spent more than $20 million for environmental controls in the last twelve years and have plans to spend $4 million in 1977 for water and air pollution control projects.

The Federal Energy Administration has praised Stevens for their energy conservation programs. The company has achieved a 13% energy savings as compared with the 1973 base year. Its efforts in energy saving put Stevens as a leader on the Energy Policy Committee of the American Textile Manufacturers Institute, Inc.

Summary

The AFL-CIO, along with numerous civil rights, liberal, social and church groups is engaged in a nation-wide boycott of J.P. Stevens. A question to be asked is whose jobs will be lost as a result of this boycott? Will they be those of union officials, or those of the textile workers? Another textile manufacturer, the Farah Manufacturing Company, has never recovered from a nation-wide boycott.

> The Farah Manufacturing Company, the Texas apparel-maker that was locked in a bitter union fight for several years and suffered a widespread boycott of its products, announced yesterday that it expected to report another, and 'significant' loss in the second quarter of this year. ("Farah Is Expecting a 'Significant' Loss." The New York Times, 20 May, 1977)

The court of public opinion will have to decide whether a union with the record of the ACTWU is the best judge of the workers of J.P. Stevens. With only 7% of this company unionized, and an Employees Education Committee trying to oust the union, perhaps the workers of J.P. Stevens and Company have said to the union "Thanks -- but no thanks."

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