Women's Bureau

HANDBOOK OF FACTS ON

Women Workers

BULLETIN NO. 225

HANDBOOK OF FACTS ON WOMEN WORKERS



Bulletin of the Women's Bureau

No. 225

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR L. B. Schwellenbach, Secretary

WOMEN'S BUREAU Frieda S. Miller, Director

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR,
WOMEN'S BUREAU,
Washington, June 3, 1948.

Sir: I have the honor of transmitting a handbook of facts relating to and of concern to women workers on which the Women's Bureau is frequently asked to give information. It has been prepared in order to be able to respond promptly, and without the need for individual handling, to these requests. If it proves as useful a sourcebook and as effective in expediting the handling of inquiries as is hoped, regular issues will be provided and it may also be possible to extend the subject matter included. Sections I, II, IV, and X were prepared by Mary Elizabeth Pidgeon, Section III by Isadore Spring, Sections V through VII by Alice Angus and Mary L. Sullivan, and Section VIII by Sara L. Buchanan.

Respectfully submitted.

FRIEDA S. MILLER,

Director.

Hon. L. B. Schwellenbach, Secretary of Labor.

Foreword

Inquiries for a great variety of current facts relating to and of concern to women workers reach the Women's Bureau daily. To meet these needs promptly and without the necessity of treating each request individually, this handbook of summary data has been prepared. It is the first in a series the Women's Bureau hopes to issue periodically. As the first, it is experimental and tentative. In accordance with the response to this first issue, future issues will be revised and expanded.

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Employment of Women'

INCREASES IN NUMBER OF WOMEN WORKERS, 1870 TO 1947

(See Table 1)

The first full census of women workers in this country was taken in 1870. At that time less than 2 million women were in gainful employment. In every decade the census showed their numbers continuing to rise, and in 1947 the labor force contained about 161/3 million women. (This was more than a fourth above the entire number of all workers, men and women, in 1870.)

Table 1.-Women workers, 1870-1947

	Women workers		
Year	Number	Percent of all workers	Percent of all women of working age
Aged 10 years and over: 1870	1, 917, 446 2, 647, 157 4, 005, 532 5, 319, 397 5, 114, 461 7, 788, 826 8, 429, 707 10, 679, 048 10, 396, 000 13, 364, 000 19, 570, 000 16, 323, 000	14. 8 15. 2 17. 2 18. 3 18. 1 20. 9 20. 4 22. 0 21. 9 24. 4 36. 1 27. 6	13. 14. 17. 18. 18. 12. 22. 22. 22. 22. 22. 22. 22. 27. 26. 27. 27. 27. 27. 27. 27. 27. 27. 27. 27

¹ Labor force for 1930 estimated and for 1940 adjusted, to make them comparable.
2 Civilian labor force for 1940 adjusted to make figures comparable with those for later years.

SOURCE: Based on census data. Figures 1870 through 1940 shown in Women's Bureau Bull. 218, Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades.

¹Notes on figures used: Figures used here are based chiefly on census data, in a few cases including unpublished material. Figures adjusted for comparability of different periods are used where necessary and available. Figures used refer to women 14 years of age and over (in Table 1 in early census years, 10 years of age and over). For the most part data used are for spring of the year (except in Table 1, where decennial census dates are used, and in Table 8, which uses October, date of Census of Manufactures). Figures on factory employment are largely from Bureau of Labor Statistics reports. For a more detailed discussion of occupations, see Women's Bureau Bull. 218, Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades, Part II.

The proportion women constituted of all workers increased from decade to decade. In 1870 women were less than 15 percent of this country's workers, in 1947 women were more than 27 percent of all the workers.

Increasing proportions of all the women of working age have entered the labor force. In 1870 less than 14 percent of them were gainful workers; in 1947 almost 30 percent of the women of working age were members of the labor force.

CHIEF OCCUPATION GROUPS OF WOMEN WORKERS

(See Tables 2 and 3)

Numerical increases and declines, 1940, 1943.—In most occupation groups the number of women increased from 1940 to 1947. The greatest increases were of more than 1½ million among clerical and kindred workers, and of nearly 1¼ million among operatives and kindred workers. The number of sales workers and of service workers (except domestic) increased by something less than ½ million. A relatively small occupation group in which the number of women employees increased by a very large proportion (73 percent) is that of proprietors, managers, and officials (except farm). Numerically small increases also occurred among farm workers and in the craftsmen and foremen group.

The number of women decreased from 1940 to 1947 in three occupation groups. The greatest decline approached ½ million, and was among the domestic service workers. The professional and semi-professional group also showed a small decline, having 30,000 fewer women in 1947 than in 1940, and the small group of laborers declined.

Occupation group	Number of v		Change, 1940, 1947		
	1940 1	1947	Number	Percent	
All employed women	11, 920, 000	15, 800, 000	+3, 880, 000	+32.0	
Clerical and kindred workers Operatives and kindred workers Domestic service workers Professional and semiprofessional workers Service workers (except domestic) Sales workers Farmers and farm workers Proprietors, managers, officials (except farm) Craftsmen, foremen, und kindred workers Laborers (except farm)	2, 530, 000 2, 190, 000 2, 100, 000 1, 570, 000 1, 380, 000 830, 000 690, 000 110, 000	4, 130, 000 3, 420, 000 1, 690, 000 1, 770, 000 1, 770, 000 1, 320, 000 780, 000 160, 000 80, 000	+1,600,000 +1,230,000 -410,000 -30,000 +420,000 +420,000 +220,000 +330,000 +50,000 -20,000	+63. 2 +56. 2 -19. 5 -1. 9 +31. 1 +59. 0 +31. 9 +73. 3 +45. 5	

¹ Employed women whose occupations were not reported were apportioned according to the distribution of those whose occupations were reported. These were only a small proportion of all the women.

Distribution of women in occupation groups.—In 1947 nearly half the women workers were in the clerical and operative groups, over a fifth were in service groups, and a tenth were professional or semiprofessional workers. All other groups were smaller.

Source: Based on census data. See U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Monthly Labor Review, August 1947, p. 140.

The proportions of all women workers who were in clerical and operative groups increased from 39 percent in 1940 to 48 percent in 1947. The proportions in the combined service groups declined from 29 percent of the total in 1940 to 22 percent in 1947. In 1947 as compared to 1940, smaller proportions were in professional and craftsman groups, somewhat larger proportions in the groups of saleswomen and of proprietors and managers; farm workers were in the same proportion in both years.

Proportion of workers in each occupation group who were women.— Women constituted over 90 percent of the domestic service workers in 1947, nearly 60 percent of the clerical workers, about 40 percent of the professional, sales, and service (other than domestic) workers, and nearly 30 percent of the operatives. In other groups, smaller propor-

tions of the workers were women.

During World War II the proportions of workers who were women increased in most occupation groups, in some of them quite markedly. After the war, the proportions of women declined in all occupation groups but in most groups still were larger than in the prewar period. The exceptions were the domestic service and the professional groups, and the small group of craftsmen, foremen, and laborers. All these had smaller proportions of women among their workers after the war than before, though in the professional and craftsmen groups the wartime proportion had been larger than the prewar.

Table 3.—Occupational status of women workers before, during, and after World War II

Occupation group	Percent of all workers in each occupation group who were women			Percent distribution by occu- pation of employed women		
	1940	1945	1947	1940	1945	1947
All employed women Clerical and kindred workers Operatives and kindred workers Domestic service workers Professional and semiprofessional workers Service workers (except domestic) Sales workers Farmers and farm workers Proprietors, managers, officials (except farm) Craftsmen, foremen laborers, (except farm)	26 53 26 94 45 40 28 8	36 70 38 94 46 48 48 22 17	28 59 28 92 40 44 40 12	100 21 18 18 18 13 11 7 6	100 25 24 9 8 10 8 10	100 26 22 11 10 11 18 6

Source: Based on census data.

IMPORTANT INDIVIDUAL OCCUPATIONS

(See Tables 4 and 5)

Of course the 451 individual occupations reported in the census of 1940 could be considered in an almost endless variety of ways. Types of groupings or rearrangements of these occupations continually are being made for one use or another, or special kinds of occupations are selected for some particular purpose. The present discussion is

limited to pointing out those that employ the largest numbers of women, and those in which women constitute the largest proportions of all workers in the occupation in 1940, the latest date for which a detailed occupation list is available.

Table 4.—Occupations employing 100,000 or more women 14 years of age and over, 1940

		Women	employed
Rank	Occupation	Number	Percent of all persons in the occupation
1 2 3 4 4 5 6 7 7 8 9 9 11 11 12 13 14 16 17 18 19 20 20 21 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22	Servants, private family 1 Stanographers, typists, and secretaries Teachers (not elsewhere classified) Clericat and kindred workers (not elsewhere classified) Salesmen and saleswomen (not elsewhere classified) Bookkeepers, accountants, and eashiers. Operatives, apparel and accessories Housekeepers, private family Waiters and waitresses, except private family. Trained nurses and student nurses Farm laborers (unpaid family workers). Barbers, beauticians, and manicurists. "Clerks" in stores Telephone operators Launderers and laundresses, private family. Servants, except private family 1 Laundry operatives and laundresses, except private family. Operatives, cotton manufactures. Farmers (owners and tenants) Dressmakers and seamstresses (not in factory) Cooks, except private family Operatives, knit goods Boarding house and lodginghouse keepers	446, 205 425, 534 362, 481 365, 036 348, 277 223, 279 206, 592 201, 281 189, 002 186, 183 174, 724 167, 155 151, 087 115, 106	93.5.7 75.7 35.7 40.8 52.1 77.5.5 99.6 97.9 19.2 49.7 42.5 55.3 77.7 3.0 98.3 42.0 66.9

¹ Census classification terms necessarily are used here. The Women's Bureau has been working with the Census to develop classification terms to supplant "servants."

Source: Census of 1940, Population, Vol. III, The Labor Force, Part 1, United States Summary, table 58.

In each of 23 occupations reported in 1940, more than 100,000 women were employed. Taken together, these 23 occupations included three-fourths of all the employed women (exclusive of women workers in the labor force who were not employed at the time the census was taken).

Among the five largest of these occupations that of "servants, private family" stands at the top, employing almost 1½ million women. Nearly 1 million women were stenographers, typists, or secretaries, and almost ¾ million were in other clerical work. Over ¾ million were teachers and ½ million were saleswomen.

Among these occupations that employed 100,000 or more women, women constituted over nine-tenths of all the workers in eight occupations, about three-fourths in three more, and about half in five others, as Table 5 shows.

There also were a number of occupations in which considerably fewer than 100,000 women worked but in which women were practically half or over half of the employees. In two of these women were nine-tenths or more of the workers, in six others they were three-fourths but less than nine-tenths of the workers.

TABLE 5.—Selected occupations with women as large proportions of the workers

I. SELECTED OCCUPATIONS WITH 100,000 OR MORE WOMEN, 1940 Women are more than nine-tenths of these workers: 99 98 Launderers and launderesses, private family 98 Nurses, trained and student 98 Operatives in laundries, and laundresses, except private family_____ 78 Operatives in apparel and accessories factories_____ 78 Teachers (not elsewhere classified) 76 Women are about two-thirds of these workers: Waiters and waitresses, except private family 68
Operatives in knit goods factories 67
Women are about half of these workers: Servants, except private family 55
Bookkeepers, accountants, cashiers 52 Beauticians, manicurists, barbers Operatives in cotton mills______47 Women are about two-fifths of these workers: "Clerks" in stores______43 Cooks, except private family 42
Salesmen and saleswomen (not elsewhere classified) 41
Clerical and kindred workers (not elsewhere classified) 36 II. SELECTED OCCUPATIONS WITH LESS THAN 100,000 WOMEN. 1940 Practical nurse (87,200) _____ 96

 Practical nurse (87,200)
 96

 Librarian (32,500)
 90

 Office machine operator (51,500)
 86

 Demonstrator (7,400)
 83

 Dancer, dancing teacher, chorus girl (9,000)
 81

 Housekeeper, steward, hostess (except private family) (62,400)
 79

 Library assistant, attendant (7,000)
 78

 Religious worker (25,900)
 75

 Social and welfare worker (44,800)
 64

 Musician, music teacher (59,500)
 46

 SOURCE: Census of 1940. Population, Vol. III, The Labor Force, Part 1, United States Summary, Table 58.

CHIEF INDUSTRY GROUPS OF WOMEN

(See Table 6)

Among the 10 chief industry groups, the one that employed the largest number of women was domestic and personal service, with nearly 3 million women (1940, the latest date for which data on chief industry groups are available). Each of two other groups employed over 2 million—manufacturing and trade (wholesale and retail together), and the professional group employed not far from 2 million. Each of these four groups employed about four to six times as many women as any other. The domestic and personal services, manufacturing and trade taken together accounted for almost two-thirds of all employed women.

Next in size were two industry groups each of which employed about ½ million women—agriculture, and finance, insurance, and real estate. Two other groups employed over ¼ million—transportation, communication, and other public utilities, and government. All other

groups taken together employed only a very small proportion of the women workers.

Of course the workers in each of the various industry groups are engaged in a wide range of occupations, as for example those of salespersons, laborers of various types, clerical office forces, manufacturing operatives, and so forth. (For occupational data see Tables 2, 3, 4,

TABLE 6 .- Women in each industry group, 1940

Industry group	Number of women	Percent of all workers who were women	distribution
All groups	11, 138, 178	25	100
Domestic and personal services. Manufacturing. Trade (wholesale and retail). Professional and related services. Agriculture. Finance, insurance, real estate. Transportation, communication, other public utilities. Government. Other services: Amusement, recreation. Business, repair. All other '- Industry not reported.	2, 029, 540 1, 845, 128 485, 373 454, 300 345, 086 339, 418 79, 279 76, 877	72 22 27 - 56 6 31 11 19 20 9 2	26 21 18 17 4 4 3 3 1 1 (2)

¹ Includes construction, mining, forestry and fishing.
2 Less than 1/2 of 1 percent.

Source: Census of 1940, Population, Vol. III, The Labor Force, Part 1, United States Summary, Table 74.

IMPORTANT INDIVIDUAL INDUSTRIES

(See Table 7)

Among 23 individual industries each of which employed over 100,000 women in 1940, in only 3 did the proportion of women approach two-

Table 7.—Individual industries employing 100,000 or more women, 1940

	Women employed		
Industry	Number	Percent of all workers in the industry	
Domestic service Educational services. Médical and other health services Apparel and accessories manufacturing Eafing and drinking places. General merchandise stores. Miscellaneous personal services. Miscellaneous personal services. Hotels and lodging places. Food stores, except dairy products. Laundering, cleaning, and dyeing services Stores, apparel and accessories, except shoes State and local government (n. e. c.) 1 Telephone (wire and radio) Insurance Cotton manufactures. Wholesale trade Banking and other finance Charitable, religious, and other membership organizations Printing, publishing and allied industries Knit goods. Real estate. Footwear industries, except rubber Electrical machinery and equipment	313, 056 285, 900 266, 217 216, 870 208, 882 199, 625 189, 919 186, 137 183, 571 181, 841 129, 094 127, 203	. 866 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 6	

¹ Not elsewhere classified.

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SOURCE: Census of 1949, Population, Vol. III, The Labor Force, Part 1, United States Summary, Table 74.

thirds of the work force: in domestic service nearly 90 percent of the workers were women, and in educational services and in the manufacture of apparel and clothing accessories about two-thirds of the workers were women. In 8 other individual industries from about half to 60 percent of the workers were women.

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN IN FACTORY PRODUCTION 1

(See Table 8)

Figures later than those of the 1940 census have been compiled periodically for one major industry group, manufacturing, and for various industries that compose this group. These have been adjusted to the latest regular decennial Census of Manufactures, 1939, so that comparable prewar and postwar figures are available for manufacturing industries (which employ over a fifth of all women workers and form a group exceeded in size only by domestic and personal service). (See Table 6.)

Before the war factory production work employed over 2½ million women. During the war this number increased, and after the war it declined. However, in 1946 the number of women in such work exceeded that in 1939 by almost 1 million, or more than 40 percent, and the total was more than 3½ million. Both in 1939 and in 1946 women were slightly over a fourth of all factory production workers.

In each of the 18 manufacturing groups listed except tobacco (Table 8), the number of women in the work force was appreciably greater in 1946 than in 1939. Apparel led the way with 193,000 additional women in 1946. Of the 10 manufacturing groups with the greatest increases in numbers of women from 1939 to 1946 (each had added some 40,000 or more women workers), 6 may be classed as durable goods. The 10 were as follows:

Increased number of women	
Electrical machinery 126, 100 Machinery (except electrical) 81, 300 Iron and steel 72, 200	Stone, clay, glass

The increased number of women in manufacturing production work in 1946 as compared to 1939 was divided very nearly half and half between the durable and the nondurable industries, each of which added roughly ½ million women. The nondurable goods group includes many industries that traditionally have been large employers of women. Before the war nondurable goods employed 85 percent of all women factory production workers. The striking development that occurred during the war was the entry of women into durable goods industries to a much greater extent than formerly. Women in durable goods, who were only 15 percent of all women factory workers in 1939, were more than 25 percent of such workers in 1946.

The five particular manufacturing-industry groups that employ the largest numbers of women are those making apparel and textile mill products, processing food, and producing electrical machinery and leather goods. This was true in 1946 as it was before the war, and

Excludes factory office forces.

these industries employed over 400,000 more women production workers in 1946 than in 1939. Next in size of 1946 woman labor force were iron and steel, chemicals, machinery (except electrical), printing and publishing, and paper.

Women were from one-fifth to over three-fourths of the factory

workers in the following 10 manufacturing groups in 1946:

Percent women were of all workers	Percent women were of all workers
Tobacco 63 Textile mill products 47	Food

Table 8.—Employment of women production workers in chief manufacturing industries, prewar and postwar

	Octobe	er 1939	October 1946		Increase October 1939 to October 1946	
Industry	Number of women (in thou- sands)	Percent women were of all workers	Number of women (in thou- sands)	Percent women were of all workers	Number (in thou- sands)	Per- cent
All manufacturing Nondurable goods Apparel. Textile mill products Food Leather Paper Tobacco Printing and publishing Chemicals Rubber.	626. 0 527. 7 263. 8 139. 6 69. 4 64. 9 59. 8 46. 0	26 40 74 43 28 40 24 67 18 15	3, 262 1 2, 433 819. 0 567. 4 291. 3 161. 5 95. 1 55. 6 100. 0 110. 5 58. 4	27 41 77 47 27 46 25 63 24 21	994 505 193.0 39.7 27.5 21.9 25.7 9.3 40.7 64.5 23.4	44 26 31 8 10 16 37 14 69 140
Durable goods Electrical machinery Iron and steel Furniture Stone, clay, glass Nonferrous metals and products Automobiles Machinery (except electrical) Lumber Transportation equipment (except auto)	100.3 68.8 36.9 35.3 34.9 29.5 28.4 4.1	9 34 6 10 11 14 7 5	829 226. 4 141. 0 63. 3 79. 3 74. 6 68. 9 109. 7 36. 0 29. 7	13 39 9 15 19 18 9 10 6	489 126. 1 72. 2 39. 7 44. 0 39. 7 39. 4 81. 3 31. 9 27. 9	144 126 105 114 125 114 134 286 778 1,550

 $^{^1}$ Total exceeds details, as details not shown for smaller individual industries. 3 In this industry, a decline.

AGES OF WOMEN WORKERS

(See Tables 9 and 10)

The 1947 labor force, compared to that of 1940, included 134 million more women 35 to 54 years old than in 1940, over 1/3 million more girls under 20, and about 1/3 million fewer women 20 to 34 years old. Women aged 35 to 54 were almost three-fourths of all the additional women workers in 1947.

Both in 1940 and in 1947 over one-tenth of the women workers were under 20, and by 1947 a slightly larger proportion than this were 55 or older. Women 20 to 34 years old were nearly half the female labor

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Women in Factories, October 1939-May 1947.

force in 1940 but were only 39 percent of it in 1947. On the other hand, the proportion who were 35 to 54 years old increased from 32 percent in 1940 to 38 percent in 1947.

Table 9.—Changes in numbers of women workers in each age group, 1940, 1947

A	Number of wo	men workers	Change, 19	40, 1947
Age group	1940	1947	Number	Percent
All ages.	13, 840, 000	16, 320, 000	+2, 480, 000	+17.
14-19 20-24 25-34 35-34 45-54	1, 460, 000 2, 820, 000 1 3, 840, 000 1 2, 660, 000 1, 830, 000	1, 820, 000 2, 690, 000 3, 640, 000 3, 580, 000 2, 690, 000	+360,000 -130,000 -200,000 +920,000 +860,000	+24.1 -4.0 -5.1 +34.0 +47.0 +58.
65-64. 65 and over	920, 000 310, 000	1, 460, 000 440, 000	+540,000 +130,000	+50 +41

Estimated for adjusted figures on basis of distribution of unadjusted census figures for 1940.

During the war the proportion of all women who were workers increased quite considerably in every age group up to 64 years, and there even was a small increase in the proportion of women who went to work among those aged 64 years or more. The greatest increases in proportions of women workers were among those under 20 and those 45 to 54; women 45 to 54 were less likely than those 20 to 34 years old to be workers already or to have household and family cares requiring their full attention and consequently were in a position to enter the labor force to a larger extent than were the 20- to 34-year olds.

By 1947 the proportions of the women in every age group who were at work had declined from the war peak, but they still remained well above the proportions at work before the war, except in the age groups 20 to 34. Many of the women of 20 to 34 had delayed marriage or had remained at work until husbands returned from the services, and in the postwar period they desired to give their full time to household and family affairs rather than to paid employment. Women of all ages except those 20 to 34 were participating in the labor force to a greater extent in 1947 than in 1940; the greatest increase in labor force participation was among those 35 to 54, and among girls under 20.

Table 10.—Age groupings of women workers before, during, and after World War II

Age group	Porcent of all women in each age group who were workers					
	1940	1945	1947	1940	1945	1947
All ages	27 20 48 35 29 24 18	37 40 56 41 41 37 27	30 28 44 31 36 33 23 8	100 11 20 23 19 13 7	100 14 17 23 20 15 8	100 11 17 22 23 16

SOURCE: Based on census data. Current Population Reports P-50, No. 2, and unpublished census data.

SOURCE: Based on census data. See Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 2, and Supplement to Monthly Report on the Labor Force, No. 59-S, June 3, 1947.

MARITAL STATUS OF WOMEN WORKERS

(See Tables 11 and 12)

Extent to which women in various marital groups are in labor force.—In 1947 over half the single women in this country were in the labor force, as were more than a third of the widowed and divorced women, and over a fifth of the married women.

Distribution of women by marital status in population and in labor force.—Single women constituted 22 percent of the woman population in 1947 but were 38 percent of the women in the labor force. Married women were 65 percent of the adult female population and 46 percent of the women in the labor force. Widows and divorced women were 13 percent of the woman population, 16 percent of the female labor force.

Table 11.—Distribution of women in population and in labor force, by marital status, 1940 and 1947

Marital status	Number of women		Percent change	Percent of	
	1940	1947	1940-47	1940	1947
POPULATION Total	50, 140, 000	54, 278, 000	+8	100	100
	13, 733, 000	11, 864, 000	-14	27	22
	29, 973, 000	35, 112, 000	+17	60	65
	6, 434, 000	7, 302, 000	+13	13	13
LABOR FORCE Total Single Married Widowed and divorced	13, 840, 000	16, 323, 000	+18	100	100
	6, 710, 000	6, 181, 000	-8	49	38
	5, 040, 000	7, 545, 000	+50	36	46
	2, 090, 000	2, 597, 000	+24	15	16

Source: Based on census data.

Wartime and postwar employment of women, by marital status (see Tables 11 and 12).—During the war there was great pressure for additional numbers of women to enter the labor force. To respond to this need, very many more married than single women were available. This and other factors contributed to the entry of many more married than single women into the wartime labor force. Married women are much more numerous than single women in the population. 1940 the number of married women was more than double that of single women. See Table 11.) Then, during the war the number of married women in the population increased markedly, while the number of single women declined. Furthermore, single women already had been employed in large proportions before the war. (Nearly half of them were workers in 1940. See Table 11.) Many married women were beyond the ages when family care absorbed most of their time and energy, others were the more recently married wives of husbands in the service, and there was in general a desire to be of service in the country's emergency.

During the war the proportion of the single women who were in the labor force increased from 49 percent in 1940 to 55 percent, and the proportion of the married women who were workers increased to an even greater extent—from a prewar 17 percent to a wartime 23 percent. (See Table 12.)

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Table 12,--Marital status of women workers before, during, and after World
War II

Marital status	Percent of all women of each marital status who were workers Percent distribut workers, by ma			rital status who were recent distribution of women		of women I status
	1940	1944	1947	1940	1944	1947
All groups. Single. Married. Widowed and divorced.	28 49 17 33	32 55 23 32	30 52 22 36	100 49 36 15	100 43 44 13	100 38 46 16

SOURCE: Based on census data.

After the war smaller proportions of both single and married women and larger proportions of the widowed and divorced women were in the labor force than during the war. The last mentioned group, of course, would include those widowed during the war.

Among each of the marital groups of women, participation in the labor force was greater after than before the war. The increase in the number of married women was 17 percent in the population, but it was much greater in the labor force—50 percent. The number of single women declined 14 percent in the population but only 8 percent in the labor force.

WORKING WIVES AND FAMILY FINANCES

The growing importance of married women workers continues a long-time trend in our industrial economy, in which money income has increasingly determined the family's standard of living. In addition there are available for the production of goods and services more married women and fewer single women in the population than in the prewar period. In fact, there are nearly three times as many married as single women in the adult population. (See Table 11.)

The proportion of wives who work is materially higher when their husbands are in low-income groups, as is strikingly illustrated by the following 1940 census data on work status of wives in large cities, according to husband's wage or salary income.

Labor force status of married women with husband present, by wage or salary income of husband, 1940

[Limited to married women whose husbands had no other source of income, in cities of 100,000 or more population]

Percent of married soomen

wage or satary income of husband	(husband present) in labor force
All income groups	
None and not reported	
\$1-\$199	27.6
\$200-\$399	24. 2
\$400-\$599	22.7
\$600-\$999	21.7
\$1.000-\$1.499	18. 8
\$1,500-\$1,999	14.0
\$2.000-\$2.999	
\$3,000 and over	

SOURCE: Census of 1940, Population, The Labor Force (Sample Statistics), Employment and Family Characteristics of Women, Table 23.

Working mothers.—The Bureau of the Census reported in 1946 on the work status of wives with and without children. The report included wives in "normal" families (those with husband and wife present) and women heads of families. It did not include working mothers living in a family group whose head was someone other than such a mother or her husband (as for example a married daughter living with her parents or her husband's parents).

The report shows that when their children are small, women tend to stay out of the labor force. Much smaller proportions of those with small children than of those with no young children go to work. Higher proportions of women heads of families worked than of wives in normal families, but among women heads also there was a tendency for those with small children to stay out of the labor force. The following summary shows the proportions of women with and without young children who were in the labor force in 1946.

	Proportion of wives at work in families with—				
Family status	No children under 18	Children aged 6-7 only	Children under 6 years old		
Wives in "normal" families (husband and wife present)	24 44	23 50	9 35		

These working wives (living with husbands) and women family heads who had children under 6 years old constituted only 8 percent of the total woman labor force in 1946. They numbered 14 million.

WOMEN AS HEADS OF FAMILIES

In sharp contrast to the popularly envisioned picture of the "average" family, consisting of father, mother, and children, stands the fact that in 1946 over 6½ million families had a woman head.

The number of families with a woman head has been increasing. They constituted 12.7 percent of all families in the country in 1930, and 15.3 percent in 1940. It is not surprising that during the war they increased sharply. In the postwar period there was a decline in the extent to which women headed the family, but in 1946 women were 17.4 percent of all family heads, which was above the 1940 proportion just shown. Evidence on prewar years shows that among the underprivileged and among those living in industrial localities, the percent of women family heads is appreciably higher than the national average. In 1946, of the total number of women family heads, over 4 million (more than 60 percent) headed families of two or more persons.

Among women family heads, in 1940 as well as in 1946, about 70 percent were widowed and divorced women (the great majority of these were widows). Both in 1940 and in 1946, practically half the women family heads were 55 years old or more; in 1946, there was a considerable increase over 1940 in the proportion of them who were under 35 years of age, chiefly at the expense of the decreased group who were 35 to 54 years old.

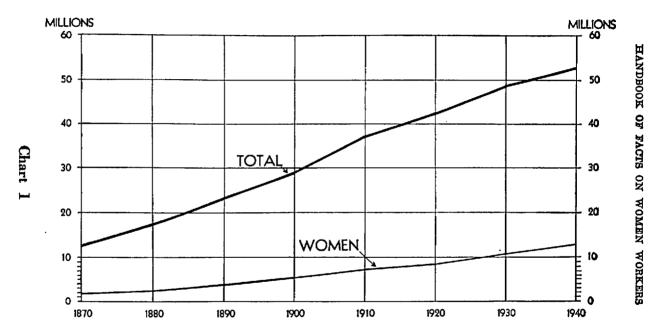
Not all family heads, be they men or women, are in the labor force. In 1946, among the more than 31 million families in which the head was in the labor force, almost 2.9 million had a woman head, many of whom undoubtedly were working not only for their own support but also toward the family's maintenance. In other words, 18 percent (not far from one-fifth) of the Nation's working women were heads of families, but labor force data do not indicate what proportions of these headed families of two or more persons.

SELECTED REFERENCES TO BASIC DATA ON EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

- 1. U. S. Bureau of the Census:
 - a. 16th Census, 1940. Population. Vol. III, Labor Force. Part 1, United States Summary, Tables 58 and 74.
 - b. Current Population Reports. Labor Force Bulletin, Series P-50, No. 2. (Revised statistics 1940 to 1945.)
- 2. Women's Bureau Bulletins:
 - a. Special Bull. No. 20. Changes in Women's Employment During the War. 1944.
 - b. Bull. No. 211. Employment of Women in the Early Postwar Period. 1946.
 - c. Bull. No. 218. Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades. 1948.
- 3. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS:

 - a. Monthly Labor Review, August 1947. Recent Occupational Trends.
 b. Monthly Labor Review, December 1947. Labor Force Changes and Employment Outlook—Women Workers and Recent Economic Change.
 - c. Women in Factories, October 1939-May 1947. (Mimeograph.)

Number of Women Workers and of All Workers, 1870-1940



Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. 16th Census: 1940. Population. Vol. III, Part I, Table 7; and Comparative Occupation Statistics for the United States, 1870 to 1940. By Alba M. Edwards. pp. 12, 91.

PROPORTION OF ALL WORKERS WHO ARE WOMEN 1870 - 1948

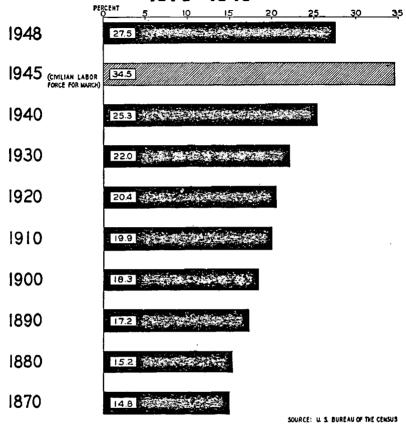
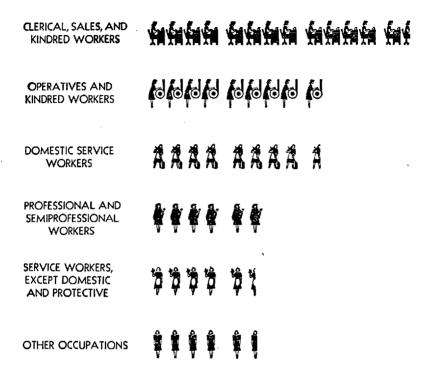


Chart 2

Occupations of Women Workers, 1940

Women who were employed (except on public emergency work) or who were experienced workers seeking work



Each symbol represents 250,000 women workers

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. 16th Census. 1940 Population. Vol. III, Part I, Table 61.

Chart 3

The Wages or Salaries of Women

INTRODUCTION

Influences Affecting Women's Wages and Salaries

Skill Requirements and Economic Conditions.—Women are employed in many different industries and occupations in which the types of skills required vary widely. This in itself causes women's wages or salaries to vary widely and explains why no average figure that could be cited will give a very representative idea of the current earnings or the wage or salary rates of all employed women.

Of course general economic conditions have the most powerful effect on the wage and salary levels of all workers, including women. Additional factors that affect the levels of women's wages and salaries include differences in season of the year or locality in which the work

is done.

The figures that most accurately show earnings or standards of wages and salaries are those that apply to particular occupations or industries and that take full account of various other features in given wage situations. Reports available on women's wages are few. Those that are made often show an average wage, which hides the many variations that exist and their causes, and which fails to throw light on numerous other points necessary to a full understanding of the true wage situation.

Pay Rate, Time Worked, and Earnings.—Many wage and salary reports show the rates of pay for a given period, say a week, based on a specified number of hours of work. But if the full hours that are scheduled by the plant as the basis for the weekly rate have not been worked, the earnings the employee actually receives are less than the full weekly rate. Because of differences in the time she works, her pay may vary even from week to week. This is true for the factory or the service worker, in particular, but also for any other employee whose pay varies with time worked.

Moreover, she may be a regular part-time worker, employed only for certain days in the week or for certain hours in the day. In this case also she receives only the hourly rate multiplied by the number of hours she has worked, which of course is less than the

rate for the full weekly schedule.

Pay by Piecework and Bonus.—Many factory and some white-collar workers are paid, not by the time worked but by piece rates, that is, according to the number of items processed or tasks completed. In such cases the same employee's earnings may differ from day to day and even from hour to hour, since they are affected to a large extent by differences in the way in which the employer or the worker organizes the work, as well as by variations in speed of the worker.

In some instances a special bonus is paid to individuals as an incentive to accomplish a high rate of production (as on a factory process), or large volume of sales (as in a store or other sales job). The wage figure reported then differs according to whether it includes or omits

the amounts of such bonuses.

Take-Home Pay

Wages or salaries shown in reports usually are either the basic rates of pay, or they are the earnings on the job, but the amount the worker actually receives in her pay envelope or check often is considerably less than this, because of deductions for various purposes that are made before the payment goes to her, such as those for taxes, social security, or union dues, or funds going toward building up a pension or for health insurance. Most of these deductions are to the eventual advantage of the worker, though they reduce the amount she actually has for current needs (including any added savings she may be able to make). What the worker receives after these deductions are made has been referred to as her "take-home" pay. This is what she has for living expenses and savings.

Averages and Distributions in Wage and Salary Reports

Reports on wages and salaries ordinarily show the average rates or earnings (whether hourly, weekly, or monthly) for a group of workers in a given industry or occupation. A more complete knowledge of the wage situation of such a group is given when the single figure showing the average wage or salary is supplemented by a distribution showing what proportions of the workers receive various amounts (higher, lower, or in middle ranges). However, such information ordinarily cannot be given in current reports made at frequent intervals because of the size of such a job and the expense involved; hence it usually is available only when a special survey is made to collect data that can be tabulated more completely.

The discussion here will be followed by several tables showing the earnings of women in some of the more important industries and occupations that employ them. The figures are taken from the most recent sources of such data known to be available at the time of

preparation.

CENSUS REPORTS ON WOMEN'S EARNINGS

(See Tables 1 through 6)

In the last years of the war and early in the postwar period the Bureau of the Census reported on earnings of civilians from wages and

¹This refers to the arithmetic average, which is well understood by most people. Other reports show another type of average known as the median, which seems to tell more for individuals in the group; one-half the workers receive more and one-half less than this amount.

salaries and from professional or other self-employment. The latest census earnings survey of this type makes a report for 1946 and gives separate data for women and men, in urban and rural nonfarm areas, and in a combination of these two types of areas. Figures for the combined areas are shown here.²

From these data, the tables that follow show the 1946 earnings of women and of men, both all civilian earners and those who worked full time (in urban and rural-nonfarm areas combined). They also show earnings of these women and men by chief occupation group, age, and color. Earnings of women and men wage and salary workers (excluding the professional and other self-employed earners) are also shown by industry group.

One further table compiled from census reports gives data for a three-year period—1944, 1945, and 1946—showing earnings of all women and men civilian earners (in urban and rural-nonfarm areas

combined).

Year's Earnings of Women in 1946

(See Table 1)

The median of the earnings of all women in 1946 was \$1,045; the median for women full-time workers, \$1,661. Four in 10 of the women full-time workers had received less than \$1,500 for their year's work; 7 in 10, less than \$2,000; and a few, about 1 in 10, as much as \$2,500.

Men full-time workers had a median more than 55 percent higher than women's, and more than $\frac{1}{3}$ of the men, as compared to only $\frac{1}{3}$ of the women, received \$3,000 or over.

Table 1.—Year's earnings of women and men, all workers and full-time workers, 1946

[Civilian earners 14 years of age and over in urban and rural-nonfarm areas in the United States]

	Wo	men	Men		
Earnings	All workers	Full-time workers	All workers	Full-time workers	
Median	\$1,045	\$1,661	\$2,134	\$2, 588	
Percent earning: All amounts	100	100	100	100	
Under \$1,000\$1,000, under \$1,500\$1,500, under \$2,000\$2,000, under \$2,000\$2,500\$2,500, under \$3,000\$3,000 and over\$3,000	48 19 17 9 4	15 25 30 18 7 5	19 12 14 17 12 26	4 8 14 21 17 86	

SOURCE: U S. Bureau of the Census.

Earnings of Women in Chief Occupation Groups in 1946 (See Table 2)

Median year's earnings of women were highest for the proprietor, manager, official group—\$1,671. Medians were as high as \$1,500 a

² The census gave data on wage and salary income for 1939, but since the basis of postwar differs from that of prewar reporting in a number of respects, long-time comparisons cannot be made. The collection of 1946 data could not begin until 1947, and the tabulations, covering some 87 million persons in urban and rural-nonfarm areas were prepared and issued in the spring of 1948.

Table 2.—Median year's earnings of women and men, by chief occupation groups, 1946

[Civilian earners 14 years of age and over in urban and rural-nonfarm areas in the United States]

	Median year's	earnings of—
Occupation group	Women	Men
Proprietors, managers, officials Craftsmen, foremen and kindred. Semiprofessional. Professional Clerical and kindred. Operatives and kindred. Laborers (except mine). Salespersons. Service workers (except domestics) Domestic service workers.	1, 548 1, 501	\$3, 087 2, 433 2, 256 3, 345 2, 246 2, 067 1, 413 2, 142 1, 655 465

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

year in only three other of the ten groups—craftsmen and foremen, semiprofessional, and professional workers. Medians were below \$800 in the sales and service groups, which often include many part-time workers; for domestic service workers, they were as low as \$373.

Median earnings of men were considerably above women's in every occupation group. Among professional workers men's median earnings were more than double women's; men sales and services workers (except domestic) had medians almost three times as great as women's; and men in the proprietor and operative groups had medians 85 percent above women's. Least differences between women's and men's earnings were in the domestic service and laborer groups, in which men's medians were, respectively, 25 and 38 percent above women's.

Earnings of Women Wage and Salary Workers in Chief Industry Groups in 1946

(See Table 3)

Median earnings of women wage and salary workers ran below \$1,500 in 1946 in 9 of the 10 industry groups and below \$1,400 in 8 of

Table 3.—Median year's earnings of women and men wage and salary workers, by chief industry groups, 1946

[Civilian wage and salary workers 14 years of age and over in urban and rural-nonfarm areas in the United States]

Industry group	Median year's earnings of—		
	Women	Men	
Government. Transportation, communication, other public utilities. Manufacturing. Durable. Nondurable. Finance, insurance, real estate. Business and repair services. Professional and related services. Wholesale trade. Retail trade. Amusement, recreation. Personal and domestic services.	\$1, 795 1, 471 1, 341 1, 439 1, 286 1, 301 1, 299 1, 254 1, 009 785 608 472	\$2, 453 2, 396 2, 225 2, 230 2, 216 2, 518 1, 939 1, 965 2, 272 1, 796 1, 561 1, 295	

Source: U. S. Bnreau of the Census.

the 10. (Figures include earnings of women employed in all occupations in an industry.) In the three lowest-paying industry groups the medians were less than \$800. These three were retail trade, amusement and recreation, and domestic and personal services, all of them industry groups that include many part-time workers.

It is of interest to note that women's median was less than \$1,300 in the manufacture of nondurable goods, industries which long have employed many women, though it was over \$1,400 in the manufacture

of durable goods, a group in which men predominate.

Median earnings of men were well above women's in every group. They were between two and three times as high as women's in trade (both retail and wholesale), amusement and recreation, and domestic and personal services. Though women's earnings were nearest to the levels of men's in government and in business and repair services, men's medians even in these groups were, respectively, 37 and 49 percent above women's.

Earnings of Women of Different Ages in 1946

(See Table 4)

Workers 35 but under 45 years of age had reached the highest earnings in the total women's group and in the groups of both men and women full-time workers. Among all men a somewhat older group, those 45 but under 55, had the highest earnings.

Among full-time workers, declines in earnings began in the groups after age 45, but the decline was greater proportionately for women than for men. Among all workers, women 65 and over and girls under 20 had the lowest earnings, as did boys under 20.

Table 4.—Median year's earnings of women and men, all workers and full-time workers, by age, 1946

[Civilian earners 14 years of age and over in urban and rural-nonfarm areas in the United States]

	All wo	rkers	Full-time workers		
Age group	Women	Men	Women	Men	
Under 20 years. 20, under 25 years. 25, under 35 years. 35, under 46 years. 45, under 65 years. 55, under 65 years.	\$461 1, 135 1, 102 1, 288 1, 209 966 427	\$406 1, 247 2, 098 2, 535 2, 575 2, 285 1, 625	(1) (1) (1) (2) (1) (2) (1) (3) (1) (4) (1) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4	(1) (1) \$2, 49; 2, 83; 2, 82; 2, 55; 2, 12;	

¹ Numbers in sample too small for median.

SOURCE: U. S. Bureau of the Census.

Earnings of White and Nonwhite Women in 1946

(See Table 5)

Women workers who were of the white race had median earnings more than twice as high as those of nonwhite women, though among full-time workers the difference was slightly less than this. Just over a fourth of the white women and half the nonwhite women re-

TABLE 5.—Year's earnings of white and nonwhite women and men, 1946 [Civilian earners 14 years of age and over in urban and rural nonfarm areas in the United States]

	Wo	men	Men		
Earnings	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite	
Median for all earners	\$1,142	\$497	\$2, 223	\$1,367	
Percent earning: All amounts	100	100	100	100	
Under \$500	27 18	50 27	9	16 18	
\$1,000, under \$1,500 \$1,500, under \$2,000 \$2,000, under \$2,500	19 19 10	12 7 2	11 14 17	22 20 14	
\$2,500, under \$3,000 \$3,000 and over	3	1	13 27	4	
Median for full-time earners	\$1,710	\$928	\$2,678	\$1,715	

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census.

ceived less than \$500 in the year; only 17 percent of the white and 4 percent of the nonwhite received as much as \$2,000.

Earnings of white men were 95 percent above those of white women, and the earnings of nonwhite men were even further above those of nonwhite women—175 percent.

Year's Earnings of Women in 1944, 1945, and 1946

(See Table 6)

Median earnings of women were much the same in each of the 3 years 1944, 1945, and 1946. The distribution of women workers at the various earnings levels also were quite similar in the 3 years.

Men's median earnings declined slightly in each year, and the result was that they were not quite so far above women's earnings in 1946 as they had been in 1944.

TABLE 6.—Year's earnings of women and men, 1944, 1945, 1946
[Civilian earners 14 years of age and over in urban and rural nonfarm households in the United States]

Earnings	194	14	194	15	1946		
Earnings	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	
Median earnings	\$1,047	\$2,339	\$1,053	\$2, 296	\$1,047	\$2, 145	
Percent earning: All amounts	100	100	100	100	100	100	
Under \$500 \$500, under \$1,000 \$1,000, under \$1,500 \$1,500, under \$2,000	22	9 8 9 13	26 22 21 18	11 8 9 13	29 19 19 17	10 10 11	
\$2,000, under \$2,500 \$2,500, under \$3,000 \$3,000 and over	8 3 2	17 14 30	8 3 2	17 14 28	9 4 3	17 12 26	

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census.

REPORTS ON WOMEN'S EARNINGS AS FACTORY PRODUCTION WORKERS

(See Tables 7 through 11)

1. Monthly Reports

There are three sources of information kept up to date by monthly reports on the earnings of women as production workers in factories. In each instance earnings are reported on the basis of a sample for each industry included. Table 7 shows weekly earnings reported by these

sources; averages for each of the past 10 years are given.

1. The National Industrial Conference Board, an organization of large manufacturers, reports average weekly and hourly earnings of women and men and average weekly hours worked in some 25 manufacturing industries. (Averages also are shown separately for unskilled men and for skilled and semiskilled men.) Table 8 shows these averages in December 1947 for industries employing large numbers of women. The combined figure for these 25 industries does not represent earnings in all manufacturing, since certain groups are omitted that are important employers of women, notably cotton textiles in the South, the clothing industry, and most food industries. The reports of this organization come from some 12,000 associates scattered through the whole country but with greatest concentration in the New England, North Atlantic, and Great Lakes States.

2. The Illinois Department of Labor reports averages of both weekly and hourly earnings, by sex, for all the principal manufacturing industries in the State and for a few of the nonmanufacturing groups. Illinois also reports average hours worked in a week, by sex. Table 9 shows these averages for the latest available month of 1947, November,

for industries employing large numbers of women.

3. The New York State Department of Labor reports average weekly earnings of women and men in the chief manufacturing industries and of women in laundries, and the proportions women constitute of all workers in the industry. Table 10 shows these figures for December 1947 for industries in which women constituted 20 percent or more of the labor force.

Earnings of Women in Manufacturing, 1938-47 (see Table 7).— The average weekly earnings of women manufacturing workers have much more than doubled over the past decade, according to the few available regular reporting sources. However in considering this apparently large advance it must be remembered that, as many studies repeatedly show, women's earnings have tended all along to be at a low level compared to their costs. Moreover, if the significance to women of this increase were to be adequately interpreted, it would be necessary to know the extent to which costs of goods and services have increased over this period—a very difficult thing to estimate accurately.

Every year has shown some advance in average earnings of women. As would be expected, the greatest dollar increases were made during the war years; a peak dollar increase occurred in 1943 and another in 1947. It should, of course, be remembered that these were periods of great increases in living costs.

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Table 7.—Average weekly earnings of men and women in manufacturing industries as reported by the National Industrial Conference Board, Illinois, and New York State, 1938-47

[Averages for the year]

		N. I. C. B		Illir	nois	New York 1	
Year	Women	М	en	Women	Меп	Women	Men
	Women	All men	Unskilled			WOLLEN	27611
938 939 940	\$15.69 17.02 17.43	\$26.07 28.97 30.64	\$20.67 22.81 23.88	\$15.61 16.66 17.06	\$27, 48 29, 45 30, 33	\$16.57 17.52	\$29.7 130.4
941 942 943 944	20, 29 23, 96 28, 82 31, 19	36. 16 43. 43 51. 05 54. 60	28.17 33.48 38.89 41.06	19. 18 22. 58 28. 31 32. 79	34. 58 41. 25 49. 34 54. 39	23. 53 30. 33 33. 46	44. 7 52. 8 56. 1
945946947947	32. 20 34. 13 38. 97	53, 59 50, 65 57, 73	41, 14 40, 81 46, 77	33. 20 34. 48 39. 18	53, 51 52, 45 58, 98	34. 14 36. 56 39. 60	55, 55, 60,

¹ Figures for 1939 are for 5 months only. Wages were not reported by sex in 1940 and 1941.

Sources: Figures issued monthly for the chief manufacturing industries by the National Industrial Conference Board in its Management Record, by the Illinois Department of Labor in its Labor Bulletin, and by the New York State Department of Labor in its Industrial Bulletin. Averages for year computed in Women's Bureau for years in which the reporting agency did not publish an average.

In 1947 men's average weekly earnings were half again as high as women's averages, but even this large difference was markedly less than that of a decade ago, as the following shows:

Year	Percent mer	n's average wee	kly earnings
	were above	women's in re	ports from—
	N. I. C. B.	Illinois	New York
1938	66	76	79
	48	51	52

Earnings of Women Factory Production Workers, December 1947 (see Table 8).—Average week's earnings of women factory production workers ranged from \$48 to \$36 in 10 of the industries reported by the National Industrial Conference Board and selected for their importance in employment of women. Average hourly earnings in these industries ranged from \$1.11 to 92 cents.

Men's hourly earnings in every instance averaged more than 10 cents above women's. In 7 of the 10 industries men's averages were 30 cents or more above women's. The reported hourly averages of even unskilled men were somewhat above those of all the women, except in one industry. Men averaged about 3 or 4 hours longer work in the week than women, except in the shoe, rubber, and hosiery and knit goods industries.

Earnings of Women Production Workers in Illinois, November 1947 (see Table 9).—The average earnings of women factory production workers reported in Illinois in November 1947 was \$1.08 hourly and \$41.31 weekly. Medians for a week's work were above \$40 in 5 of the 13 manufacturing industries reported here and were below \$35 in 3 of these industries. They were below \$30 for women in the 2

Table 8.—Average weekly earnings, average hourly carnings, and average weekly hours worked, women and men production workers in selected industries, December 1947, as reported by National Industrial Conference Board

	Averag	Average weekly earnings of—				e hourl	Average			
Industry Womer	-	Men				Men			weekly hours worked by—	
	Women	All men	Un- skilled	Skilled and semi- skilled	Women	All men	Un- skilled	Skilled and semi- skilled	Women	Men
Meat packing Woolen and worsted	\$48.07		\$56.12	\$68. 27	\$1.11	\$1.32	\$1.17	\$1.39	43. 5	48. 9
goods Electrical manufacturing. Rubber products (except	46. 89 45. 97	56, 83 64, 04	53. 02 50. 89	59. 01 65, 92	1.15 1.17	1. 29 1. 51	1.19 1.23	1.36 1.55	40. 6 39. 3	43. 9 42. 4
tires and tubes) Printing, book and job Cotton—North	43, 41 41, 22 40, 66	61.00 75.70 51.94	48. 57 52. 27 46. 99	61.30 84.41 53.90	1.06 1.06 1.03	1. 46 1. 77 1. 21	1.08 1.23 1.12	1. 46 1. 96 1. 24	41, 0 38, 8 39, 4	41.9 42.9 43.0
Silk and rayon Paper products Hosiery and knit goods Boot and shoe	39, 89 37, 84 37, 16 35, 97	57. 21 57. 87 64. 07 49. 05	45. 94 47. 00 27. 41	(1) 62, 15 65, 69 49, 87	1.02 .95 .93 .93	1.32 1.32 1.55 1.22	(1) 1.08 1.05 .67	(1) 1.40 1.60 1.24	39. 2 39. 7 39. 8 38. 7	43.5 43.8 41.3 40.2

¹ Not available.

SOURCE: National Industrial Conference Board, Management Record, February 1948. Includes cash payments only.

service groups reported—laundering, cleaning, and dyeing, and hotels. Men's average hourly earnings given in all manufacturing industries combined were more than one-third above women's. In practically all these industries men averaged at least 30 cents an hour more than women; in 3 of the 13 men's averages were 55 cents or more above women's. By the week, men's average earnings were far above women's, since in every industry men worked 2½ hours or more longer

Table 9.—Average weekly earnings, average hourly earnings, and average weekly hours worked, women and men production workers in selected industries or industry groups in Illinois, November 1947

Industry or industry group	Average earning		Average earning		Average weekly hours worked by—		
1	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	
All manufacturing t	\$41.31	\$61.95	\$1.08	\$1.45	38. 5	42,	
Electrical machinery, apparatus	45, 81	65, 70	1, 16	1.51	39.4	43.	
Slaughtering, meat packing	43.78	66. 29	1.11	1.40	39. 5	47.	
Bookbinding, publishing	43.76	82.13	1.13	1,87	38.6	43.	
Confectionery	41,54	65, 13	1.03	1.36	40.4	48.	
Men's clothing	41.45	65, 46	1.09	1,61	37.7	40.	
Rubber products	38.69	57. 96	. 99	1, 32	39.1	43.	
Cextiles		60, 35	1.02	1.33	38. 2	45.	
Chemicals, explosives, soaps	37.87	58. 21	. 97	1.39	39.0	42.	
Paper boxes, bags, tubes	37, 61	61.10	. 97	1.34	38.7	45.	
eather and allied products	35, 98	56.66 72.41	. 98	1.38	36.6	41.	
Women's and children's clothing	34. 66 33. 05	47, 72	. 93	1.78 1.25	36. 2 35. 6	40.	
Orugs, compounds, cosmetics.	29.34	44.51	. 88	1.15	33.5	38. 37.	
Men's furnishings, work clothes	28.34	44.01	. 20	1.10	93.5	31.	
Nonmanufacturing	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	
Retail apparel		54.17	(1) (2) (2)	(2) (2) (2)	(1) (2) (3) (3)	5555	
aundering, cleaning, dyeing		46. 93	(2)	(²)	(2)	(2)	
Totels	27.21	37.63	(2)	(²)	(2)	(2)	

Includes other reported industries that employ relatively few women.
Not reported by sex.

Source: Illinois Labor Bulletin, January 1948.

in the week than women; men worked at least 7 hours a week longer than women in the meat packing, confectionery, textile, and paper industries, and in each of these men averaged from 29 to 37 cents an hour more than women.

Earnings of Women Factory Production Workers in New York State, December 1947 (see Table 10).—The median of a week's earnings of the women factory production workers reported in New York State in December 1947 was \$41.36. Medians were above \$40 a week for the women in 5 of the 13 industries included here (those in which women constituted a fifth or more of the labor force); in 2 of these industries the medians were below \$32 a week (tobacco and laundries).

Table 10.—Average weekly earnings of women and men production workers in selected industries or industry groups in New York State, December 1947

Industry or industry group		Average weekly earnings of—					
	Women	Men	workers				
All manufacturing t	\$41.36	\$63.88	31				
Automobiles, auto equipment. Apparel and other finished fabric products. Electrical machinery Rubber products. Stone, clay, glass. Printing, publishing, and allied industries. Chemicals and allied products. Food and kindred products. Paper and allied products. Leather and leather products. Textile-mill products. Tobacco manufactures.	45. 51 41. 98 41. 51 40. 09 37. 52 37. 24 37. 10 36. 55	59. 45 81. 52 60. 95 62. 92 60. 76 77. 46 60. 74 58. 91 57. 95 57. 99 56: 79 37. 59	24 60 28 26 23 20 21 30 27 42 45				
Laundries *	30.01	(3)	(1)				

¹ Includes industries reported, other than those shown here, in which women were less than 20 percent of the labor force.

Not reported.

Source: New York State Department of Labor, Statistical Review, December 1947, pp. 6-8.

Median earnings for men in all manufacturing industries combined were 54 percent above women's. In 1 industry (printing and publishing) men's median earnings were more than double women's. In 9 of the 13 industries listed men's median (for the week) was \$20 or more above women's.

2. Reports in Special Studies

A fruitful source of wage material for a given period is in the special studies of particular industries made by the U. S. Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics. These studies are based on reports from representative firms in all parts of the country.³ Table 11 gives the average hourly earnings of women and men, as reported by this agency in 1947 and in mid 1946, in industries selected for their importance as employers of women.

² Only nonmanufacturing industry in which women's wages were reported separately.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics also reports monthly on average hourly and average weekly wages and average weekly hours, but these data are not given separately for women.

Women's hourly earnings averaged above 70 cents in all these industries, except two in the cotton garment group, and averaged above

\$1.00 in two of the more skilled clothing industries.

Men's hourly averages were 10 cents or more above women's in all industries, and in 6 of the 12 industries were 20 cents or more above women's. The more marked differences between the two sexes in average earnings undoubtedly were influenced to a major extent by the differences in the occupations performed.

Table 11.—Average hourly earnings of women and men plant workers in selected industries, for specified pay-roll periods in 1946 and 1947

Industry	Average earnings		Pay-roll period
,	Women	Men	z dy ton ponod
Women's, misses' suit and coat ¹ . Women's, misses' blouse and waist. Knitted outerwear. Candy and chocolate Wholesale drug and allied products. Cotton garment industries ³ . Washable service apparel. Men's, boys' shirt (except work shirt); nightwear. Overall and industrial garment. Work shirt. Work pants. Knitted underwear. Perfume and cosmetic.	1. 18 .86 .75 .78 .77 .92 .81 .77	\$2. 33 1. 43 1. 28 . 98 . 95 . 95 1. 25 . 99 . 93 . 86 . 85 . 96	July 1946. January 1947. July 1946. January 1947. January 1947. SeptOct. 1947. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. July 1946. Do.

¹ Straight-time carnings, including earnings under piecework and incentives, excluding premium pay for

overtime or night work.

² Men predominate in some of the more highly skilled operations in this industry, which partly accounts for difference in levels of women's and men's earnings.

3 Preliminary figures for these industries.

SOURCE: Wage Analysis Branch, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor.

REPORTS ON EARNINGS OF WOMEN WHITE-COLLAR WORKERS

(See Tables 12 through 15)

For the widely varying groups that often are referred to under the term "white collar workers" (including, for example, those in professional, technical, clerical, and sales occupations), no monthly reports on women's earnings exist. A few sources for clerical earnings report annually, but not all give separate data for women. There also are special studies showing office workers' earnings. Occasionally the earnings of women in some particular "white collar" occupation are reported in a special study made by some professional group for its own membership, or by a research organization, a college alumnae association, a women's organization, or the like. Some of these may show earnings only in a few localities; those for teachers or librarians (for example) are likely to show current salary scales for various cities, which may apply alike to women and men but may not show how many persons receive the amounts cited.

Earnings of Clerical Workers

Three sources give information on the earnings of clerical workers; two of them show earnings of workers in the offices of factories.

1. New York State tabulates in October of each year the average weekly earnings of the factory office forces in the industries covered

in monthly wage surveys. (See Table 12.)

2. The U.S. Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics reports on particular manufacturing industries for certain periods show the earnings of women (as well as men) in characteristic clerical occupations in the offices or plants of the industries covered. Selections from these reports for the industries surveyed in 1946 are shown in Table 13. The same Bureau has reported average salaries of women in selected office occupations in cities. Table 14 shows the averages reported in six large cities in the winter of 1947–1948.

3. The National Industrial Conference Board in April and October of each year makes a report on the weekly earnings of workers in clerical occupations in factory offices. This report does not show women's earnings separately, but since it is probable that at least two-thirds of these workers are women, a table from this source is included here. Table 15 shows averages in October of the peak war and the post-

war years.

Earnings of Women Clerical Workers in New York State Factories, 1940–47 (see Table 12).—The New York State Department of Labor reports on the earnings of factory office workers as of October each year. In October 1947, it was estimated that there were some 122,000 such women office workers and that these were almost a fifth of all the women employed in New York State factories. These estimates of factory employment indicate that women constitute over 33 percent of the production workers and 63 percent of the nonsupervisory office workers, such as clerks, stenographers, bookkeepers, and time-keepers.

In October 1947, women's average weekly earnings were reported at \$40.76. Men's earnings were 45 percent above women's, but before the war they had been very nearly twice as high as women's.

Table 12.—Average weekly earnings of	f women and men in factory offices in New
York, 1940-47, O	october of each year

Year	Average earning		Year	Average carning	
	Women	Men		Women	Men
1940	\$22.88 - 25.16 - 30.00 - 32.27	\$45, 25 49, 99 56, 17 57, 83	1944 ²	\$33. 83 33. 23 40. 76	56. 32 51. 38 59. 10

In 1942 the list of sample firms and classifications scheme were revised. Supervisory employees were included in 1942, though excluded in other years, both earlier and later than 1942.
 Revised figures.

Source: New York State Department of Labor Industrial Bulletin, November of each year, and recent unpublished data furnished by the Department. Firms ordinarily were requested to omit executives and salesmen and to include clerks, stenographers, bookkeepers, and other clerical employees in both production and nonproduction departments, and also technical employees—such as draftsmen, chemists, and other laboratory assistants—doing routine work.

Earnings of Women Clerical Workers in Factories, 1946 (see Table 13).—Among five characteristic occupations of women in factory offices in a number of industries in 1946, as reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, hand bookkeepers had highest average hourly

² Unpublished data. No survey was made in 1946.

Table 13.—Average hourly earnings of women and men in characteristic office occupations in selected industries, for specified pay-roll periods in 1946

Industry	Hand book- keeper		Accounting clerk		Order clerk		General clerk		Pay-roll	clerk	Pay-roll period
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	
Median average hourly rate 1	\$0.92	\$1.18	\$0.78	\$1.06	\$0.74	\$1.09	\$0.70	\$0.89	- \$0.76	\$0.97	
opper alloying, rolling, drawing aint, varnish, lacquer extile dycing, finishing rug, medicine // oolen, worsted otton textile ayon, silk obacco	1. 09 1. 07 1. 00 1. 00 . 94 . 92 . 83	1. 25 1. 32 1. 34 1. 32 1. 21 1. 20 1. 35	. 99 . 93 . 90 . 90 . 80 . 79 . 83 . 82	1. 33 1. 15 1. 06 1. 15 1. 05 1. 06 . 94 1. 26	. 97 . 87 . 81 . 82 . 79 . 89	1.38 1.08 1.03 .94 1.08	. 83 . 76 . 76 . 76 . 74 . 74 . 70 . 74	1. 24 . 87 . 80 . 95 . 87 . 81 . 96	. 92 . 92 . 83 . 92 . 83 . 77 . 77 . 79	1. 23 1. 09 . 96 . 94 . 83 1. 17	Spring, summer, 1946. July 1946. Do. Do. April 1946. April, May 1946. June, July 1946. January 1946.

¹ Computed by the Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, U. S. Department of Labor; includes other industries for which detail is not shown here.

SOURCE: Statistical Materials Bearing on the Salary Requirement in Regulations, part 541, Table 11, pp. 22, 23. Prepared by U. S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions. Bused on data from U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Industry Wage Studies 1945-46, series 2, Wage Structure.

earnings. Lowest averages were those of general clerks, who are likely to exercise less specialized skill than some of the other clerical occupations.

Mills processing copper alloys usually paid their women office workers more per hour than other industries. Tobacco, cotton textile, and rayon and silk mills usually paid least.

In each of the five occupations men averaged 19 cents or more per hour above women's average. Greatest differences in pay to the two sexes was among order clerks; men received 35 cents an hour more than women.

Earnings of Women in Office Occupations in Six Large Cities, Winter 1947—48 (see Table 14).—Earnings of women office workers have been tabulated by the Women's Bureau for six of the large cities for which they are reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. In five of the six cities, the largest group of workers were the general stenographers. The clerk-typists and accounting clerks were next in numerical importance in most of the cities.

Occupations in which the week's pay averaged highest were those of hand bookkeeper, Class A bookkeeping-machine operator, and, in most of these cities, technical stenographer; in most cities these occupations employed relatively few women. In some places general clerks, or general stenographers, and, less frequently, pay-roll clerks also had average pay toward the higher figure. Lowest average earnings (except for office girls in some cities) were those paid Class B file clerks and Class B typists. Clerk-typists also received relatively low pay.

and Class B typists. Clerk-typists also received relatively low pay.

Occupations which showed the widest percent differences in average week's earnings between the highest- and lowest-paying cities were those of general clerk, technical stenographer, clerk-typist, and Class B bookkeeping-machine operator. Least variations among cities in

Table 14.—Average weekly salaries of women in selected office occupations in six large cities, Winter 1947-48

Occupation	Atlanta	Boston	Buffalo	Dallas	Mil- waukee	Seattle
Billers, machine (billing machine)	\$36.78 37.68	\$34.09	\$33.74	\$36.49	\$34.30	\$41.20
Billers, machine (bookkeeping machine)	44.41	35. 31 45. 46	34.46 43.98	40. 17 48. 30	37. 13 48. 41	41, 42 52, 06
Bookkeepers, hand	43, 54	42.88	41.87	45, 49	43, 88	44.20
Bookkeeping-machine operators, Class B	36, 65	34.84	33. 52	35. 97	39, 58	41.13
Calculating-machine operators (comptometer)	38. 26	35, 92	36, 67	38. 51	35, 22	41.43
Calculating-machine operators (other than						
comptometer)	35.73	33.71	35.80	36, 42	36. 19	39.95
Clerks, accounting	37.83	36. 24	37.74	38.88	39. 21	42.80
Clerks, file, Class A	36.34	37.87	38.12	40.13	40. 10	42.52
Clerks, file, Class B	30.03	28.81	23.81	29. 27	29, 39	33. 55
Clerks, general	42.29 35.77	40.52	34.94	43.62	37. 02	43.95 42.10
Clerks, order Clerks, pay-roll	39, 96	35.90 37.73	35.32	34.89	34. 63 38. 30	44.96
Clerk-typists	33, 14	31.79	40.69 34.50	39. 41 33. 91	33, 07	39. 37
Office girls	30.16	28, 41	28.50	27. 51	28.40	33. 19
Stenographers, general	39, 42	37. 31	38.01	40.72	37. 99	45, 62
Stenographers, technical	40.95	41. 24	45.68	44.14	42.02	50.92
Switchboard operators Switchboard operator-receptionists	34.94	36.09	36.72	37, 36	36, 41	40.77
Switchboard operator-receptionists	35.66	35. 56	35, 42	35. 52	35, 89	40, 97
Transcribing-machine operators, general	36.36	34.65	36.47	36, 14	34. 79	42.32
Transcribing-machine operators, technical	39. 71	35.00			41, 91	
Typists, Class A	36.66	37.44	37. 26	38.10	38, 46	41.11
Typists, Class B	32.04	29.99	30.24	30.95	32, 40	35.64

NOTE.—The length of the most common workweek is approximately 40 hours.

SOURCE: Compiled by the Women's Bureau from Bureau of Labor Statistics Releases and Bulletins.

the week's averages were found for Class A bookkeeping-machine operators, Class A typists, and those switchboard operators who also acted as receptionists.

Among the six cities here tabulated, Seattle paid the highest week's average in 21 of the 22 occupations that were reported in all these cities, and either Boston or Buffalo paid the lowest average in 15 of the 22 occupations.

Earnings of Clerical Workers in Factories—Men and Women Combined, 1943—47 (see Table 15).—The semiannual reports on clerical salaries made by the National Industrial Conference Board, though they are included here because women are a large proportion of clerical workers, do not show women's earnings separately from men's. The reports are based on questionnaires returned by a varying number of firms each year, from about 250 firms reporting on some 28,500 clerical workers to 500 firms reporting on some 45,000.

Table 15.—Median weekly salary rates in selected clerical occupations in factories in 21 cities, October of each year, 1943-47 1

[Figures for men and woman combined]

[1 Ightwo for mon thin					
Occupation	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947
Billing machine operator Bookkeeping machine operator Calculating machine or comptometer operator. File clerk. Key punch operator Office boy or girl Receptionist Stenographer. Telephone switchboard operator Junior copy typist.	\$27 26 28 23 27 20 23 29 29 29 20	\$29 28 30 24 28 21 29 31 30 24 29	\$30 30 32 26 30 22 32 33 33 33 25 30	\$36 34 37 31 35 27 37 38 37 30	\$35 41 33 37 30 40 42 42 33

¹Though these data are not reported by sex, they are included here because women are a very large proportion of the workers in these occupations.

SOURCE: National Industrial Conference Board Management Record. Based on questionnaires returned by a varying number of companies in each year, from about 250 companies reporting on some 28,500 employees in 1943 to 500 companies reporting on some 45,000 employees in 1947. Because reports for different years include different firms, comparisons of one period with another cannot be made. Only regularly employed, full-time workers are included. Salary rates do not include overtime, but do include incentive, cost-of-living, and production bonuses earned during regular hours. They also reflect earned-exprience rates and accruals due to length of service and may be affected by nonfinancial benefits given employees.

Among 11 characteristic office occupations as reported by the National Industrial Conference Board, the median weekly salary rates for men and women combined were highest for stenographers and switchboard operators and lowest for office boys and girls and for file clerks and junior copy typists.

In October 1947 the weekly median for office workers in each of these 11 occupations, even including the highest paid (stenographers and switchboard operators), were \$7 to \$19 below the average for unskilled men production workers in the same month, as reported also by the National Industrial Conference Board. In 8 of the 11 office occupations, medians ranged from 57 cents to \$10.57 a week below the average for women production workers in October 1947.

Because of the differences in the number of reporting firms, accurate comparisons from year to year cannot be made. Though the figures indicate that clerical employees had increases from the war to the it to the increase in living costs.

postwar period, they do not show the exact extent of increase, nor relate

\mathbf{III}

Economic Responsibilities of Women Workers'

As shown by a study of women war workers and their postwar employment plans

A Women's Bureau study, based on home interviews in 1944 and in the early spring of 1945 with over 13,000 women employed in all types of industry (except household employment) in 10 war congested areas, showed that 75 percent of these women planned to continue working in peacetime.

The reason given by each woman for continuing to work:

Of every 100 women—

84 to support themselves and in many cases others.

8 for some special economic reason, as to buy a home, pay off debts, educate children.

8 only because they liked working or liked being independent.

The economic family responsibilities of the women who planned to keep on working:

Of every 100 women who planned to continue-

81 lived with their families.

19 lived apart.

Of every 100 women who lived with their families-

15 were the sole support of the family group.

47 were 1 of 2 wage earners contributing regularly to household expenses.

31 were 1 of 3 or more wage earners contributing regularly to household expenses.

7 made no regular contribution to the household.

¹ Se also I--Employment of Women, "Working Wives and Family Finances," p. 11.

Of every 100 women who lived with their families—

33 regularly contributed all their take-home earnings to the household.

20 regularly contributed one-half or more, but not all.

40 regularly contributed less than one-half.

7 made no regular contribution toward family support.

Of every 100 women who lived with their families and planned to continue in the postwar labor market, 93 contributed regularly to family expenses. Nearly two-thirds (62 percent) of the total money in the pay envelopes of all these women who contributed was allocated each pay day to household expenses.

Of every 100 women who lived apart from their families, practically

all were dependent on their own resources for self support.

MARRIED WOMEN 2

The study showed that married women formed 44 percent of the employed women during the war period and that over one-half (57 percent) of these women planned to continue working in peacetime.

The reason given by each married woman for continuing to work:

Of every 100 women-

57 to support themselves and in many cases others.

21 for some special economic reason, as to buy a home, pay off debts, educate children.

22 only because they like working or like being independent.

The economic family responsibilities of the married women who planned to keep on working:

Of every 100 women who planned to continue—

91 lived with their families.

9 lived apart.

Of every 100 women who lived with their families-

12 were the sole support of the family group.

58 were 1 of 2 wage earners contributing regularly to household expenses.

21 were 1 of 3 or more wage earners contributing regularly to household expenses.

9 only made no regular contribution to the household.

Of every 100 women who lived with their families-

56 regularly contributed all their take-home earnings to the household.

17 regularly contributed one-half or more, but not all.

18 regularly contributed less than one-half.

9 made no regular contributions toward family support.

Of every 100 married women who lived with their families and planned to continue in the postwar labor market, 91 contributed regularly to family expenses. Seventy-nine percent of the total money in

² Women who were separated, because the husband was in service or for other reasons, were counted as married. Widowed and divorced women are not included in this group.

the pay envelopes of all these married women who contributed was

ollocated each pay day to household expenses.

Of every 100 married women who lived apart from their families, practically all were dependent on their own resources for self support.

SINGLE WOMEN

The study showed that *single women* formed 44 percent of the employed women during the war period and that 87 percent of these women planned to continue working in peacetime.

The reason given by each single woman for continuing to work:

Of every 100 women—

96 to support themselves and in many cases others.2 for some special reason, as money for education.

2 only because they liked working or liked being independent.

The economic responsibilities of the single women who planned to keep on working:

Of every 100 women who planned to continue-

77 lived with their families.

23 lived apart.

Of every 100 women who lived with their families—

12 were the sole support of the family group.

- 43 were 1 of 2 wage earners contributing regularly to household expenses.
- 38 were 1 of 3 or more wage earners contributing regularly to household expenses.

7 made no regular contributions to the household.

Of every 100 women who lived with their families—

- 13 regularly contributed all their take-home earnings to the household.
- 20 regularly contributed one-half or more, but not all.

60 regularly contributed less than one-half.

7 made no regular contributions toward family support.

Of every 100 single women who lived with their families and planned to continue in the postwar labor market, 93 contributed regularly to family expenses. Nearly one-half (46 percent) of the total money in the pay envelopes of all these women who contributed was allocated each pay day to household expenses.

Of every 100 single women who lived apart from their families, prac-

tically all were dependent on their own resources for self support.

WIDOWED AND DIVORCED WOMEN 3

The study showed that widowed and divorced women formed 12 percent of the women employed during wartime and that 94 percent of these women planned to continue working in peacetime.

²Women who were separated, because the husband was in service or for other reasons, were counted as married.

The reason given by each widowed or divorced woman for continuing to work:

Of every 100 women—

98 to support themselves and in many cases others.

1 for some special economic reasons, as to pay off debts, educate children.

1 only because she liked working, liked being independent.

The economic family responsibilities of the widowed or divorced women who planned to keep on working:

Of every 100 women who planned to continue-

70 lived with their families.

30 lived apart.

Of every 100 women who lived with their families-

35 were the sole support of the family group.

39 were 1 of 2 wage earners contributing regularly to household expenses.

23 were 1 of 3 or more wage earners contributing regularly to household expenses.

3 made no regular contributions to the household.

Of every 100 who lived with their families—

- 45 regularly contributed all their take-home earnings to the household.
- 21 regularly contributed one-half or more, but not all.

31 regularly contributed less than one-half.

3 made no regular contributions toward family support.

-Of every 100 widowed or divorced women who lived with their families and planned to continue in the postwar labor market, 97 contributed regularly to family expenses. Seventy-one percent of the total money in the pay envelopes of all these widowed or divorced women who contributed was allocated each pay day to household expenses.

Of every 100 widowed or divorced women who lived apart from their families, practically all were dependent on their own resources for self

support.

Industrial Injuries to Women

Many of the injuries that have occurred to workers in the course of their occupations are preventable. State compensation authorities, employers' and workers' safety organizations, and numerous independent agencies have made much progress both in devising and installing methods of preventing accidents, and in securing some money

payment to persons injured.

The development of adequate safety programs in industry and the control of accidents to workers require a firm basis of factual information. Extensive reports on the occurrence of industrial injuries have provided much of this information on which to build such programs. Injury frequency rates in various industries have been determined on the basis of a large body of data concerning the numbers of injuries and the extent to which workers are exposed to hazards. Systematic reporting of injuries has permitted the study of trends and fluctuations in industrial injury experience. Relatively little statistical information has been available, however, on injuries to women workers.

For many years a chief source of information on employment injuries has been in the records of claims for workmen's compensation that are kept by State authorities. Of the figures published on these, some include only closed claims, some show all those compensable, some all the claims filed. Some 25 States have afforded data by sex at some time, some of them in regular periodic reports.2 The Women's Bureau has from time to time analyzed these in the light of preventive needs for women, and has made a few special investigations on this subject.3

About half the States that have issued reports on injuries by sex have shown the age or the extent of disability of the injured women, some reported the industries in which they were working, or the causes of the injuries, and a few gave information on other points, such as the weekly wages of the injured women, or the work time lost by them because of their injuries.

The U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, regularly collects and publishes injury information from a representative group of manufacturing firms, although such data are not secured for men and women separately. At the request of the Women's Bureau

¹ This section is based in large part on Women's Bureau Bulletin 212, Industrial Injuries to Women, prepared by Jennie Mohr.

² See Women's Bureau Bulletins 81, 102, 129, 160.

³ See Women's Bureau Bulletins 60, 151, 212.

and the Industrial Division of the U. S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau (now Child Labor Branch of the Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions), the Bureau of Labor Statistics asked the group of manufacturing firms which periodically give information on injuries to report this information by sex and age (minors and adults) for one quarter of the year 1945. Soon afterward information on injuries by sex and age was also asked by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from a group of nonmanufacturing firms for the year 1945 as a whole.

The injury experience of women in industry in 1945 has been reported as it is shown in Table I and Table II below for some 20,000 establishments employing about 3¼ million workers. Of these workers over a million, or about 30 percent, were women. These figures represent a larger coverage of injuries by sex of the worker than has

hitherto been available.

The actual number of injuries sustained by women and the occurrence of serious injuries point to certain industries as having particular need for safety programs. During 1 quarter of the year, for example, the 11,000 women working in slaughtering and meat packing received 165 injuries, or 1 for every 67 women. In stamped and pressed metal products the quarter's record was 1 injury for every 76 women; in fabricated metal products, 1 in 155; and in textiles and cotton yarns, 1 in 186. The annual record in nonmanufacturing industries shows 1 injury for every 22 women in chain groceries; 1 for every 26 in drug stores; 1 in 42 in variety and limited-price stores; 1 in 44 in hotels; 1 in 82 in laundries; and 1 in 94 in department and general merchandise stores. These figures represent a serious accumulation of injuries, a loss of working time and production, and particularly an amount of human distress, that call for remedy.

About 4 percent of the injuries in manufacturing resulted in death or permanent disability. In nonmanufacturing, the proportion was smaller, being less than 1 percent for women and about 2 percent for men. These small percentages, however, represent 91 lives lost and over 1,000 people permanently disabled in manufacturing industries during 1 quarter of 1945; and in nonmanufacturing, 54 workers who died and 160 who were permanently disabled through the year. Based on records covering only a sample of the establishments throughout the country, these figures give but a partial picture of the national loss in

lives and productivity.

In general, the frequency of injuries in various industries is considerably lower for women than for men. It is also lower for women working in nonmanufacturing than for those in manufacturing plants; and in manufacturing, lower among nonproduction than among production workers. In the absence of occupational classifications of the workers who were injured, we can only infer from general knowledge of the work of men and women the comparative risks that men and women face. It is probable that in the industries in which rates are found to be comparable for men and women—such as the manufacture of stamped and pressed metal products, jewelry and silverware, and boots and shoes in manufacturing, chain food stores and brokerage and banking firms in nonmanufacturing—the actual jobs and working conditions, with attendant exposure to hazards, are also similar.

Table 1.—Distribution of employment and injuries by sex in 9,154 manufacturing establishments, classified by industry, for one quarter of 1945

															
				Emplo	yment		i			Injt	ries				1
industry	Number of estab- lish-	Nun	iber of w	otnen	Nu	mber of a	meu :	Num	ber of in to—	Juries	Injury	frequence for—	y rates	Percent women	Percent injuries to wom-
repor	ments report- ing	Total	Pro- duc- tion work- ers	Non- pro- due- tion workers	Total	Pro- due- tion work- ers	Non- pro- duction work- ers	Total	Wom- en	Men	Total	Wom- en	Men	are of all workers	en are of all injuries
Apparel: Clothing and accessories Trimmings and fabricated textile prod-	707	68, 940	63, 944	4, 996	17, 833	14, 758	3, 075	223	148	75	4.7	4.0	7. 7	79. 4	66. 4
ucts, not elsewhere classified	75	9, 613	8, 533	1,080	7,861	6, 735	1, 126	150	56	94	14. 4	10.0	19.7	55.0	37. 3
Chemicals: Drugs, toiletries, and insecticides. Paints, varnishes, and colors. Synthetic textile fibers. Other. Electrical equipment: 1	72 48 10 291	13, 353 2, 278 6, 300 11, 658	9, 600 950 5, 112 6, 191	3, 753 1, 328 1, 189 5, 467	10, 493 7, 483 10, 798 48, 044	7, 304 5, 790 8, 986 38, 981	3, 189 1, 693 1, 812 9, 063	228 119 131 558	80 7 53 44	148 112 78 514	16. 1 20. 2 13. 6 15. 2	10. 2 5. 3 15. 1 6. 3	23. 4 24. 5 12. 8 17. 3	56. 0 23. 3 36. 8 19. 5	35. 1 5. 9 40. 5 7. 9
Electrical equipment for industrial use Radios and phonographs, communica-	229	59, 299	42, 974	16, 325	96, 664	74, 394	22, 270	695	192	503	7.8	5.7	9. 1	38.0	27.6
tion and signaling equipment. Butterles Insulated wire and cable Other	153 18 19 50	35, 718 3, 213 2, 923 8, 270	28, 246 2, 848 2, 361 6, 688	7, 472 365 562 1, 582	33, 113 3, 443 7, 068 9, 218	22, 594 2, 943 6, 033 6, 948	10, 519 500 1, 035 2, 270	227 74 93 87	81 24 11 27	146 50 82 60	6.0 17.9 15.5 8.7	4.1 11.9 6.3 5.7	8.1 23.7 18.3 11.5	51. 9 48. 3 29. 3 47. 3	35. 7 32. 4 11. 8 31. 0
Food: Baking and confectionery. Canning and preserving Slaughtering and meat packing Other.	32 36 377 89	6, 342 3, 976 10, 931 10, 475	5, 603 - 3, 401 8, 894 8, 435	739 575 2, 037 2, 040	7, 762 3, 952 29, 188 14, 684	8, 717 3, 125 24, 598 12, 692	1, 045 827 4, 590 1, 992	148 130 842 240	40 29 165 53	108 101 677 187	17, 1 26, 7 35, 5 15, 8	10. 4 11. 9 25. 9 8. 3	22. 5 41. 5 39. 0 20. 5	45. 0 50. 2 27. 2 41. 6	27. 0 22. 3 19. 6 22. 1
Furniture and lumber products: Furniture, wood. Wooden containers. Other Iron and steel:	64 245 138	2, 763 3, 089 2, 371	2, 074 2, 631 1, 827	689 458 544	7, 912 13, 913 9, 900	6, 980 12, 932 8, 985	932 981 915	174 315 153	35 36 19	139 279 134	28. 4 31. 1 20. 9	22. 8 19. 9 13. 7	30. 3 33. 5 22. 6	25. 9 18. 2 19. 3	20. 1 11. 4 12. 4
Fabricated structural steel and orna- mental metal work Fabricated metal products Forgings and foundries Heating equipment and plumbers' sup-	212 412 564	3, 196 31, 105 13, 663	1, 838 23, 835 8, 042			22, 246 68, 267 109, 486	3. 368 9, 118 11, 230	462 1, 269 2, 856	12 201 119	450 1, 068 2, 737	25. 8 18. 4 34. 6	6. 4 10. 5 14. 6	28. 1 21. 4 36. 8	11. 1 28. 7 10. 2	2, 6 15, 8 4, 2
plics Iron and steel Metal coating, engraving, and vitreous	67 140	4, 489 26, 285	2, 874 18, 635			16, 343 172, 501	2, 105 18, 087	256 1, 395	30 111	226 1, 284	17.7 10.3	10. 9 6. 9	19.3 10.8	19. 6 12. 1	11. 7 8. 0
enamel products Plate fabrication and boiler-shop prod-	70	2, 436	2, 102	334	3, 628	3, 290	338	84	18	66	23. 2	12.7	29. 9	40. 2	21.4
ucts	136 198	4, 261 15, 443	2, 497 13, 005	1, 764 2, 438	23, 377 25, 890	20, 119 22, 652	3, 258 3, 238	541 564	30 203	511 361	30.8 21.9	11. 5 21. 5	34. 1 22. 1	15. 4 37. 4	5. 5 36. 0

Wire and wire products	126	8, 472	6, 759	1,713	22, 180	19,400	2,780	396	76	320	20. 7	14.7	22. 9	27.61	19, 2
Other Leather:	94	6, 836	5, 475	1, 361	22, 180 22, 271	20, 277	1, 994	389	47	342	21.4	11.0	24.6	23. 5	12. 1
Boots and shoes	240	26, 164	23, 852	2, 312	23, 051	21,037	2, 014	270	135	135	9.7	9.1	10.3	53. 2	50. 0
Other Lumber: Sawmills, planing mills, plywood	39	2, 634	2, 334	300	6, 047	5, 614	403	139	22	117	26. 1	14.5	30. 8	30.3	15.8
mills, and vencer mills Machinery, except electrical; 1	425	3, 977	3, 016	961	30, 949	28, 243	2, 706	708	60	648	34. 4	26.0	35. 5.	11.4	8. 5
Agricultural machines, tractors	45 98	7, 969 7, 678	4, 844 3, 717	3, 125 3, 961	38, 887 41, 362	31, 269 35, 105	7, 618 6, 257	509 602	52 26	457 576	17. 3 19. 7	10. 5 5. 7	18. 7 22. 2	17.0 15.7	10. 2
Commercial and household machinery	47	10,647	6,447	4, 200	29, 480	22, 941	6, 548	335	38	297	13.5	6.0	16.1	26.5	4.3 11.3
Engines and turbines General industrial machinery	42 853	6, 132 44, 442	2, 680 24, 471	3, 452 19, 971	31, 036 183, 478	24, 938 154, 919	6, 093 28, 559	265 2, 245	17 197	248 2,048	12. 5 16. 1	4.9 7.5	13. 9 18. 0	16.5 19.5	6. 4 8. 8
Special industrial machinery	91	4,500	2, 521	1,979	20, 184	16, 851	3, 333	287	16	271	18.8	6.0	21. 5	18.2	5. 6
Other Nonferrous metals:	184	10, 829	7,307	3, 522	29, 557	22, 448	7, 109	340	46	294	14.5	7.4	17. 0	26.8	13. 5
Watches, clocks, jewelry, and silverware. Other	15 313	3, 222 10, 559	2, 712 7, 812	510 2, 747	3, 510 34, 697	3, 022 30, 514	488 4, 183	34 539	15 66	19 473	8.7 20.2	8. I 10. 5	9. 3 23. 2	47. 9 23. 3	44. 1 12. 2
Ordnance:				i ´			. 1					i			
AmmunitionGuns	· 76	10, 463 2, 175	7, 953 1, 335	2, 510 840	26, 451 12, 559	22, 632 10, 935	3, 819 1, 624	347 141	47 6	300 135	16.2 17.5	7. 6 5. 0	19. 6 19. 7	28.3 14.8	13. 5 4. 3
Tanks and tank components (military) Other	14 29	993 1,857	398 795	595 1,062	6, 366 9, 545	4.794 7.459	1, 572 2, 086	60 85	2 2	58 83	12.6 13.4	(1)	14.0	13. 5	3. 3
Paper:		1		l	' '		,	• •	_				15. 6	16.3	2. 4
Paper and pulp	316 336	19, 558 15, 444	14, 998	4, 560 2, 344	81, 735 18, 450	73, 107 16, 121	8, 628 2, 329	1, 425 392	104 88	1, 321 304	22. 9 19. 4	9.0 9.8	26. 2 27. 2	19.3 45.6	7.3 22.4
Printing: Printing, book and job	25	1, 821	1, 387	434	2, 938	2,445	493	27	Ğ	21	9.6	5.6	12. 1	38. 3	22, 2
Tires and tubes	23	9, 071	6, 472	2, 599	25, 734	21, 794	3.940	255	22	233	11.8	3.9	14. 5	26.1	8. 6
Rubber boots and shoes, and other rub- ber products	79	19, 313	16,024	3, 289	29, 362	25, 070	4, 292	372	82	290	12. 5	7.0	16.0	39. 7	22.0
Stone, clay, and glass:	'-	5. 933	4, 976	957	1	'	, i	, ,							
Pottery and related products	25 26	2,680	2, 526	154	12. 505 3, 675	11, 106 3, 326	1,399 349	167 73	26 16	I41 57	15, 6 20, 8	7. 6 11. 0	19. 4 27. 7	32. 2 42. 2	15. 6 21. 9
Other	65	5, 512	4, 240	1, 272	12, 775	11,017	I, 758	226	19	207	20.3	5.7	26. 5	30.1	8. 4
Textiles and cotton yarns	325 43	88, 543 4, 534	83, 368 3, 537	5, 175 997	99, 390 14, 148	92, 144 12, 899	7, 246 1, 249	1, 418 153	475	943 135	12.9	9. 2 6. 9	16. 2	47.1	33. 5
Dyeing and finishing Knit goods	65	15, 732	14,034	1,698	5, 701	4,667	1,034	91	18 48	43	14. 0 7. 5	5.4	16. 2 13. 2	24. 3 73. 4	11. 8 52. 7
Other Transportation equipment:	25	3,021	2, 677	344	4, 292	3, 749	543	62	25	37	14.2	14.0	14. 4	41.3	40. 3
Afreraft	18 133	31, 920 26, 973	20, 294 19, 110	11, 626 7, 863	61, 141 78, 167	38, 087 59, 722	23, 054 18, 445	315 643	89 125	226 518	5. 5 10. 2	4.5 7.8	6.1	34.3	28. 3
Aircraft parts	75	11, 487	4, 482	7,005	52, 962	37, 728	15, 234	509	24	485	13. 2	3.6	11. 1 15. 3	25. 7 17. 8	19, 4 4, 7
Motor vehicles parts	55 35	10, 560 4, 709	6, 794 2, 803	3,766 1,906	37, 779 32, 667	31, 839 27, 914	5, 910 4, 753	522 324	90 33	432 291	17.5 14.2	13.8 11.7	18.6 14.5	21. 8 12. 6	17. 2 10. 2
Miscellaneous manufacturing:		1,,00	2,000	1,200	02,007	21,011	2, 100	021		231		1	14.0	12.0	10. 2
Scientific instruments and supplies, optical and related products	84	11, 964	8, 354	3, 610	17, 382	13, 262	4, 120	109	23	86	6. 3	3.3	8. 5	40.8	21. 1
Miscellaneous manufacturing, not else- where classified	201	16, 039	13, 254	2, 785	19, 438	16, 377	3, 061	275	65	210	13.0	6, 9	17. 9	45. 2	23. 6
watere classified	""	10,000	10, 204	4, 100	1 *0, 300	10,077	0,001	2.0	"	210	10.0	"".	14.8	10.2	20.0

Some firms gave information for one quarter and some for another. For purposes of this study the records of the two quarters were combined. Less than 1 million hours of exposure.

Table 2.—Distribution of employment and injuries by sew in 10,665 nonmanufacturing establishments, classified by industry, 1945

	Number	I	Emplo ym er	nt			Inju	ries			Percent	Percent
Industry	of estab- lishments reporting	Total	Number of women		Numb	Number of injuries to—			requency r	women are of all workers	injuries to women are of all	
	reporting	Total		of men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Workers	injuries
Retail trade: Apparel Automotive dealers Building and household supplies and equipment. Department and general merchandise stores. Drug stores. Dairy products. Grocery, meat, and vegetable stores—Chain. Grocery, meat, and vegetable stores—Independ-	836 1,077 550 414 352 117 52	36, 452 20, 128 7, 203 67, 252 11, 120 12, 340 13, 966	23, 169 2, 113 1, 697 49, 893 6, 461 2, 017 4, 765	13, 283 18, 015 5, 506 17, 359 4, 659 10, 323 9, 201	233 798 172 938 373 796 684	136 14 9 533 247 22 212	97 784 163 405 126 774 472	3. 2 17. 4 11. 0 7. 0 15. 5 26. 9 24. 5	3.0 3.3 2.6 5.4 17.8 4.9 22.5	3. 6 18. 8 13. 4 11. 4 12. 3 30. 8 25. 6	63. 6 10. 5 23. 6 74. 2 58. 1 16. 4 34. 1	58. 4 1. 8 5. 2 56. 8 66. 3 2. 8 31. 0
ent success of the state of the	510 I	6, 340 9, 306 11, 318 7, 330 3, 605 5, 100 19, 565	2, 207 1, 029 3, 556 828 2, 891 4, 248 8, 484	4, 133 8, 277 7, 762 6, 502 714 852 11, 081	232 762 231 399 31 161 346	57 0 20 3 14 101 72	175 762 211 396 17 60 274	18.3 38.6 9.1 25.7 4.5 18.1 9.1	13.7 0 2.6 1.8 2.5 13.7 4.6	20 5 43, 1 12, 0 28, 6 12, 5 38, 9 12, 4	34.8 11.1 31.4 11.3 80.2 83.3 43.4	24. 5 0 8. 7 . 7 45. 1 62. 7 20. 8
Automotive Chemical, drugs and related products Dry goods and apparel Farm products and supplies Groceries and food specialties Industrial and household building material,	191 143 362 363 623	5, 578 5, 575 8, 111 12, 932 16, 902	1, 461 2, 187 2, 994 3, 592 3, 517	4, 117 3, 388 5, 117 9, 340 13, 385	156 81 57 573 752	16 28 11 50 39	140 53 46 523 713	12. 2 7. 2 3. 6 25. 2 20. 5	4.9 6.4 1.9 11.4 5.6	14.7 7.7 4.6 28.5 24.0	26. 2 39. 3 37. 0 27. 8 20. 8	10. 3 34. 6 19. 3 8. 7 5. 2
equipment, and supplies. Paper and paper products. Other. Other	644 174 519	21, 144 5, 058 12, 866	6, 150 1, 648 3, 620	14, 994 3, 410 9, 246	545 114 600	. 46 7 51	499 107 549	12. 1 10. 8 21. 7	3, 6 2, 1 6, 8	15, 5 14, 8 27, 1	29. 1 32. 6 28. 1	8. 4 6. 1 8. 5
Laundries, power Cleaning and dyeing Hotels, year-round Banks and brokerage Electric light and power. Manufactured gas production and distribution. Natural gas distribution	244 178 648 319 39 42 31	20, 912 6, 166 56, 817 7, 988 18, 056 4, 025 10, 827	14, 089 4, 013 29, 495 2, 874 3, 333 855 1, 986	6, 823 2, 153 27, 322 5, 114 15, 623 3, 170 8, 841	365 94 1, 602 29 473 212 286	172 45 674 11 18 5 8	193 49 928 18 455 207 278	8, 2 7, 1 12, 9 1, 8 11, 6 23, 7 12, 3	5.7 5.3 10.5 2.0 2.5 2.8 1.9	13.4 10.4 15.3 1.7 13.6 28.9 14.6	67. 4 65. 1 51. 9 35. 9 17. 6 21. 3 18. 3	47. 1 47. 9 42. 1 37. 9 3. 8 2. 4 2. 8

The stamped and pressed metal products industries show a high rate for both men and women, indicating special need for a program to improve the record. Other industries also call for special attention—slaughtering and meat packing, furniture and lumber products, and lumber mills, where rates are less comparable but still very high for both men and women; and those industries in which, though women's rates are low, men's rates are seriously high.

In all these industries particular efforts are needed to develop a program that will reduce the material and personal losses incurred

through industrial injury.

Standards for Employment of Women

NEED FOR STANDARDS FOR WOMEN WORKERS

The great changes in women's work that were speeded up by the war have been developing for a little more than a century as the result of transferring industry from the home to the factory. In gradually increasing numbers, women have become wage workers outside their homes, either manufacturing goods or performing services for the public—working in factories, offices, stores, hotels, restaurants, and laundries. They are a large and important part of the labor force in the country. Many thousands of women also are employed by the Federal, State, and local governments, and other thousands work in private households.

Working conditions vary widely as to adequacy, even where legal regulations exist. Collective bargaining in many instances has established high standards for working conditions, wages, and hours. In other instances, employers themselves have set up good working conditions. But when standards depend wholly on voluntary action, they often do not apply to all workers and vary in their adequacy. For this reason, minimum standards should be established by law. The Nation's best interests demand good labor standards for women, many of whom are mothers and homemakers as well as wage earners.

DEVELOPMENT OF STANDARDS

What are adequate standards for women workers? How are these

developed?

Labor standards are not stationary but are influenced by continuously changing conditions. Minimum wage standards are adjusted as prices rise and as new items come into the accepted minimum standard of living. Historically, hours of work have been reduced as factory processes have been mechanized and also as fatigue has come to be recognized as a major factor in the worker's health and efficiency. The development of industrial hygiene has provided a basis for regulating the use of industrial materials or processes that endanger the

health of workers. Thus standards change as a result of advancing scientific knowledge and as a result of growing recognition by both workers and employers of the need for good working conditions.

Good labor standards should be maintained for all workers without discrimination. Certain standards, such as those relating to plant equipment and plant environment, affect men and women equally and obviously are not subject to discriminatory application. With respect to such matters as hours of work, rest periods and lunch periods, and seating, labor legislation in many States is responsible for the existence, in many industries, of better standards for women than for men. However, discrimination against women sometimes exists in regard to promotion, seniority, training, and particularly in regard to wages. Women frequently are hired for beginning jobs on an equal basis with men but do not get equal consideration for promotion. They are often not given the same training opportunities and, even if trained, are not given a chance at the better jobs. Equality in maintaining the right to a job through seniority, and in payment for work done, is too often lacking.

Labor standards are developed through many channels—employers, unions, governmental and private agencies. The following pages present standards which refer mainly to industrial and office workers. (Somewhat different standards are essential to safeguard women workers in various other fields, such as household employment, agriculture, technical and scientific work, but these standards require special consideration.) Outlined here are the broad basic recommendations for any program concerned with the health and efficiency of women employees. These recommendations do not attempt to deal with details, but they indicate the direction in which the development

of good standards should move.

STANDARDS ON WORKING TIME

Schedules of 10 and 12 hours a day have given way to fewer daily hours. The 5-day week of 40 hours or even less is now a schedule widely used. Standards for working hours should include:

1. Not more than 8 hours of work a day, and not more than 48 a week; work time over 40 hours to be paid for at time and one-half the

worker's regular rate.

2. At least 1 day of rest in 7.

3. Meal periods of at least 30 minutes. No work period of more

than 5 hours without a break for meal or rest.

4. A rest period of at least 10 minutes in the middle of each half-day work period, to be given in addition to the lunch period and without lengthening the workday.

5. Some vacation with pay after 6 months on the job; a longer

vacation after longer service.

6. Sick leave and maternity leave without loss of job or seniority rights. Maternity leave should cover a minimum of 6 weeks before and 2 months after confinement; with extension of either period on advice of the worker's physician.

7. Time off with pay on chief legal holidays.

During the war the need for full production (especially of war materials) expanded the use of night work in manufacturing and

elsewhere contrary to past practices generally regarded as basic for health and social reasons. Now that the war demand is no longer overriding, there should be a return to the sounder policy of the prewar years and night work kept to a minimum except in continuousprocess industries and in essential services.

STANDARDS ON WAGES

Workers' standards of living are determined by their earnings. The least they should be assured is a minimum rate of pay adequate to meet the cost of living. But there must also be the assurance that this wage will continue throughout the year. The standard of living depends primarily on an adequate wage rate, plus the guarantee of an adequate annual wage. Such earnings are essential, not only because they maintain a secure and healthy level of living for individual workers, but also because they sustain the Nation's economic stability. To aid in accomplishing these objectives, Federal and State Governments to some extent are providing by law for a floor to wages as well as a ceiling to hours. Wage standards should include the following:

1. The principle of "equal pay": Wage rates based on the job, and not on the sex of the worker or other factors not related to ability to

perform the job.

2. Minimum wage rates established through legislation; tips not

considered as wages.

3. All protective clothing and other safety equipment, and all uniforms required, furnished and cared for by the employer as part of the cost of production; no worker required to contribute, directly or indirectly, to the cost of supplying or maintaining such clothing or equipment; if the worker does contribute, she is to be reimbursed for any such necessary expenditure by the employer.

4. Wages paid regularly and in full, on a weekly or semimonthly

basis, and on a fixed day.

STANDARDS ON OTHER CONDITIONS

Standards adequate to protect the health and safety of workers are essential in all workplaces. These standards should include:

For Health

1. Working environment: Adequate ventilation, lighting, and heat-

ing, to preserve health and reduce strain and fatigue.

- . 2. Plant facilities: Washroom, toilets, rest rooms and dressing rooms, drinking facilities, and lunchrooms where nourishing food is available at reasonable prices. These facilities should meet the needs of the workers and conform to high standards of health and sanitation.
- 3. Medical services in the plant commensurate with needs of the workers.
- 4. A program of industrial hygiene to discover and protect against occupational hazards arising from the use of dangerous substances or processes.

5. Lifting heavy weights and other undue physical strain to be elimi-

nated from job requirements to the fullest extent possible.

6. Suitable seats, in adequate numbers, and freedom for workers to use them while working—at all times if the nature of the job permits, and in any event during periods when not actively engaged in performance of duties that require a standing position.

For Safety

1. Equipment and machinery in good working condition, with adequate guards against injury.

2. Safety equipment and clothing, such as goggles, safety shoes,

protective gloves, as needed, maintained in good condition.

3. Safe and uncrowded work space; stairways, floors, halls, rooms,

and passageways kept in good condition and adequately lighted.

4. A continuing safety program and training in safety on the job for all workers.

INDUSTRIAL HOME WORK

Efforts should be made to abolish the industrial home-work system, with its long and irregular hours, low earnings, and child labor. In nonindustrial States, legislation should prohibit home work. In industrial States where it is now extensive there should be strict regulation of hours of work and wages until prohibitory laws can be passed. Employers who use the labor of home workers can produce in direct competition with factory employers who have higher standards of hours, wages, and working conditions. Home work tends to undermine such standards.

$\overline{\mathbf{VI}}$

State Labor Laws for Women

Basic standards as of June 1, 1948

DAILY AND WEEKLY HOURS

Forty-three States and the District of Columbia have laws limiting the daily and weekly hours of employment in one or more industries. Five States—Alabama, Florida, Indiana, Iowa and West Virginia—

do not have such laws.

One-half of the States (24) and the District of Columbia have set 8 hours a day and/or 48 hours a week or less as the maximum time a woman may be employed in 1 or more industries. In 23 of the 24 States (Kansas is the exception) manufacturing establishments are covered by such standards. South Carolina's statute, however, covers only 1 branch of manufacturing—textile mills. In Connecticut the maximum workweek is 48 hours for several industries but daily hours may not exceed 8 in mercantile establishments nor 9 in manufacturing plants. The 8-48 hours law in Kansas applies to public-housekeeping occupations and telephone exchanges; in manufacturing establishments, the maximum is 9 hours a day, 49½ hours a week.

Arizona		New York	8-48
California	8-48	North Carolina	9–48
Colorado		North Dakota	$8\frac{1}{2}-48$
Connecticut	8-48	Ohio	8-48
	9-48		9-45
District of Columbia	8-48	Oregon	8-44
Illinois	8-48	Pennsylvania	10-48
Kansas	8-48	Rhode Island	9-48
Louisiana		South Carolina (men and	
Massachusetts	9 - 48	women)	8 . 4 0
Montana	8	Utah	8 -4 8
Nevada	8-48	Virginia	9-48
New Hampshire	10-48	Washington	8
New Mexico	8-48	Wyoming	8-48

Ten States have set a maximum 9-hour day for women, and the weekly maximum in all but one of these (Idaho) is 50 or 54 hours. Arkansas has no weekly hours specified in its statute but it has a 6-day-week provision, which in effect makes a 54-hour maximum week.

¹For States with different legal maximum-hour standards for different industries, the law establishing the lowest maximum hours was selected for this summary.

Arkansas 9-	-6 days	NebraskaOklahoma	9-54
Idaho9		Oklahoma	9-54
Maine 9-	-54	Texas	9-54
Michigan 9-	-54	Vermont	9 - 50
Missouri 9-	-54	Wisconsin	9-50

Eight States have set a maximum day of 10 hours and a week of from 54 to 60 hours. In 2 of these—Georgia and South Carolina—the law applies to one type of manufacturing plants only—cotton and woolen mills.

Delaware	10-55	New Jersey	10-54
Georgia (men and women)	10- 60	South Carolina (men and wom-	
Kentucky	10-60	en)	10-55
Maryland	10-60	South Dakota	10-54
Mississippi (men and women)	10-60	,	

In one State—Tennessee— the maximum is 10½ hours a day, 57 hours a week. This applies to manufacturing and other industries.

Minnesota has fixed no daily limit in its statute, having only a 54-hour weekly limitation for manufacturing establishments and several other industries.

DAY OF REST 2

About half the States (23) and the District of Columbia prohibit employment of women for more than 6 days a week in some or all industries. In 2 of these States—Colorado and Utah—the law does not apply to manufacturing establishments.

New Hampshire (men and women) Arizona Arkansas New Jersey New York (men and women) California (men and women) North Carolina Colorado North Dakota Connecticut (men and women) Ohio Delaware District of Columbia Oregon Illinois (men and women) Pennsylvania South Carolina Kansas Utah Louisiana Massachusetts (men and women) Washington Wisconsin (men and women) Nevada

MEAL PERIODS

Well over half the States (27) and the District of Columbia have provided that meal periods varying from 1/3 to 1 hour must be allowed to women in some or all industries. This provision applies to manufacturing establishments in all but 4 of these States—Colorado, Illinois, North Carolina, and Washington. The States are as follows:

Louisiana Arkansas Maine California Maryland Colorado Massachusetts Delaware Nebraska (men and women) District of Columbia Nevada Illinois New Jersey (men and women) Indiana (men and women) New Mexico Kansas New York (men and women) Kentucky

² Rhode Island in its 1945 reenactment of an earlier law covering employment on certain holidays includes Sunday in the list of days when employment not absolutely necessary is prohibited. The law, however, does not establish a 6-day week.

North Carolina North Dakota Ohio Oregon Pennsylvania Rhode Island Utah Washington West Virginia Wisconsin

REST PERIODS

Rest periods of 10 minutes after a work period of 4 consecutive hours or during each half day are provided for in the laws of California, Colorado, Nevada, Oregon, and Utah.

NIGHT WORK

Twenty-two States and the District of Columbia place some limitation on the hours of employment of women or persons between 18 and 21 at night.

The following 13 States prohibit night work for adult women in

certain industries or occupations:

California Connecticut Delaware Indiana Kansas Massachusetts Nebraska New Jersey New York North Dakota

South Carolina Washington Wisconsin

In 3 additional States—Arizona, Kentucky, Rhode Island—a nightwork prohibition applies only to persons under 21 years of age in messenger service. In 1 other—Virginia—and the District of Columbia similar limitations apply only to girl messengers.

In 5 additional States—Maryland, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Pennsylvania, and Utah—the laws do not prohibit the employment of adult women at night but regulate such employment either by limiting the number of hours that may be worked at night or by setting specific working-conditions standards which must be complied with.

SEATING

Forty-six States and the District of Columbia have seating laws. All but 1 of them apply exclusively to women. Florida's law applies to both males and females.

Illinois and Mississippi have no seating laws.

OCCUPATIONAL LIMITATION

Twenty-nine States have occupational limitation laws for women and minors; 17 of the States prohibit employment in mines, 13 in manufacture or sale of intoxicating liquors. (Asterisk indicates that law applies only to persons under 21 years of age.)

Alabama: Labor in or about a coal mine.

Arizona: Work in or about a mine, quarry, or coal breaker.

Arkansas: Entrance into any mine to work therein.

California: Mixing alcoholic beverages containing distilled spirits on premises used for the sale of alcoholic beverages unless the licensee or wife of any such licensee.

*Employment of person under 21 on portion of premises used for sale and service of alcoholic beverages for consumption on premises.

Colorado: Employment in or about a coal mine or coke oven except in a clerical capacity.

*Selling or dispensing spirituous liquor by persons under 21.

*Connecticut: Employment in any tavern, unless employee is the wife or daughter of proprietor.

Delaware: *Employment of person under 21 in room where intoxicating liquors are sold or dispensed, unless the establishment sells for medical or scientific

purposes

Florida: *Employment of person under 21 in poolroom, billiard room, or place where intoxicating liquors are manufactured or sold. Exemptions: Professional entertainers; drug or grocery stores licensed to sell beer and wine for consumption off premises; hotel workers if work is apart from place where alcoholic beverages are sold.

Illinois: Manual labor, in or about a mine.

Municipal authorities are empowered to prohibit by ordinance employment of women (other than a licensee or wife of licensee) as dispensers in retail liquor establishments.

Indiana: Employment within a coal mine.

*Employment of person under 21 in any public pool or billiard room.

Kentucky: Employment by retail liquor licensee for duties other than as waitress, cashier, or usher.

Louisiana: Employment as dispenser or seller of spirituous liquors, wines, or malt in any concert hall or saloon where such liquors are sold.

Maryland: Employment, other than office work, in connection with any mine.

*Employment of person under 21 in or in connection with any place where intoxicating liquors are sold.

Massachusetts: *Employment of person under 21 in, about, or in connection with a saloon or barroom where alcoholic liquors are sold.

Minnesota: *Employment of girl under 21 as messenger for telegraph or messenger company.

Missouri: Employment within any mine.

Montana: *Employment of person under 21 to serve liquor, beer, or wine.

New Jersey: Employment in the manufacture of nitro and amido compounds. Exemptions: Office, works hospital, or welfare room or building.

New Mexico: *Employment of girl under 21 as messenger for telegraph, telephone, or messenger company.

New York: Employment in or in connection with a mine or quarry.

*Employment of females under 21 as conductors or guards on any type of railroad.

*Employment of females under 21 as messenger for telegraph or messenger company.

Ohio: Employment as bellhop, crossing watchman, express driver, taxi driver, jitney driver, meter reader (gas or electric), metal molder, or section hand, or in the following occupations or places:

Baggage handling.

Barrooms and saloons or public drinking places which cater to male customers only and in which substitutes for intoxicating liquors are sold.

Blast furnaces; mines; quarries; or smelters; (except in offices).

Bowling alleys, as pin setters.

Delivery service on wagons or automobiles.

Freight handling.

Operating freight or baggage elevators.

Poolrooms.

Shoe-shining parlors.

*Employment of girls under 21 in the personal delivery of messages.

Oklahoma: Employment underground in the operation of a mine or in any quarry.

Exemption: Office work, if on top of the ground.

Pennsylvania: Employment in or about a mine. (Except in office or clerical work.)

Mixing or serving alcoholic liquors behind the bar of any hotel, tavern, saloon, eating house, or other place where liquors are legally sold, unless the wife of proprietor or agent. Waitresses regularly taking orders for food may serve food and liquor at tables.

Employment in any occupation dangerous to life or limb or injurious

to health or morals as determined by the Industrial Board.

³ The prohibition of taxicab driving was declared unconstitutional by a county court of Ohio in 1928, but the prohibition has remained continuously on the statute books and was repeated in the 1947 amendment to the law.

South Carolina: *Employment of person under 21 in a retail, wholesale, or manufacturing liquor business.

Utah: Employment in a mine or smelter.

Virginia: Employment in or around a mine or quarry.

*Employment of person under 21 to sell, serve, or dispense alcoholic beverages for on-premises consumption.

Washington: Employment in or about a mine. (Except in clerical or messenger duty about the surface workings.)

Employment as a bellhop.

Wisconsin: Employment in or about a mine or quarry.

Employment in place established by court order as a disorderly house or employment to work for any person convicted as keeper of a disorderly

*Employment of girl under 21 as bellhop in hotel. *Employment of girl under 21 as caddy on golf course.

Wyoming: Employment in or about a coal or iron mine or other dangerous underground place. (Except in office or clerical work.)

WEIGHT LIFTING

Nine States have some regulation regarding the lifting or carrying of heavy weights by women. These States are:

California Massachusetts Michigan

Minnesota New York Ohio

Oregon Utah Washington

EOUAL PAY

Nine States have enacted statutes which prohibit discrimination in rate of pay because of sex. Two of these laws-Illinois and Michigan-apply to manufacture only.

Massachusetts Michigan

Montana New Hampshire New York

Pennsylvania Rhode Island Washington

. ...

MINIMUM WAGE

Twenty-six States and the District of Columbia have minimum-wage laws on their statute books. These laws are broad in their coverage of industries, most of them being all-inclusive with a few listed exemptions, usually domestic service and agriculture. The Maine law is the only one of limited scope; it applies to one industry only-fish packing. Most of these laws apply to women and minors, the exceptions being noted in the following list of States:

Arizona

Arkansas (women and girls)

California Colorado

Connecticut (all persons) District of Columbia

Illinois Kansas

Kentucky Louisiana (women and girls)

Maine

Massachusetts (all persons)

Minnesota

Nevada (women and girls)

New Hampshire New Jersey

New York (all persons)

North Dakota

Ohio

Oklahoma (women) Oregon

Pennsylvania

Rhode Island (all persons) South Dakota (women and girls)

Utah

Washington Wisconsin

INDUSTRIAL HOME WORK

Twenty States and the District of Columbia have industrial homework laws or regulations. In all but 3—Colorado, Oregon, and Utah—and the District of Columbia the law applies to persons; in these 4 jurisdictions the law applies to women and minors only. The States are:

California Massachusetts Pennsylvania Colorado Michigan Rhode Island Connecticut Missouri Tennessee New Jersey New York District of Columbia Texas Illinois Utah West Virginia Indiana Ohio Wisconsin Oregon Maryland

EMPLOYMENT BEFORE AND AFTER CHILDBIRTH

Six States have laws prohibiting the employment of women immediately before and after childbirth. These States and the periods during which women may not be required to work are:

Connecticut: 4 weeks before and 4 weeks after Massachusetts: 4 weeks before and 4 weeks after Missouri: 3 weeks before and 3 weeks after New York: 4 weeks after

Vermont: 2 weeks before and 4 weeks after Washington: 4 months before and 6 weeks after

\mathbf{VII}

Legislation Affecting Household Employees

(As of May 15, 1948)

COVERAGE OF DOMESTIC WORKERS BY STATE LABOR LAWS FOR WOMEN

Maximum-Hour Laws:

State maximum-hour laws of general coverage in effect in 43 States do not cover domestic workers. However, the State of Washington and Alaska have maximum-hour laws applicable to domestic workers only:

1. Washington has a special maximum-hour law for domestic workers:

Covers both male and female employees.

Prohibits their employment over 60 hours a week, including all time the employee is on call and not free to follow own pursuits.

Provides that in cases of emergency such employees may be employed longer than 60 hours.

Violation of the law is a misdemeanor.

2. The Alaska law establishes a 60-hour maximum workweek for female household or domestic workers.

Minimum-Wage Laws:

1. State minimum-wage laws that do not expressly exclude domestic workers are in effect in 8 States and 1 territory, as follows:

CaliforniaOklahomaWashingtonColoradoOregonWisconsinKansasUtahAlaska

2. Wisconsin is the only State that has minimum-wage rates now in effect for domestic workers. Its minimum wage order, effective February 10, 1947, provides for adult women and minors employed in domestic service in private homes the following:

The minimum wage for 45 hours or more a week:

In cities and villages with a population of 3,500 or more:

If board only is furnished, \$12 a week.

If board and lodging are furnished, \$8 a week.

In cities and villages with a population between 1,000 and 3,500:

If board only is furnished, \$10.75 a week.

If board and lodging are furnished, \$7.25 a week.

Elsewhere in the State:

If board only is furnished, \$10.25 a week.

If board and lodging are furnished, \$7 a week.

The minimum wage for less than 45 hours a week:

In cities and villages with a population of 3,500 or more: 45 cents a hour. In cities and villages with a population of between 1,000 and 3,500: 40 cents an hour.

Elsewhere in the State: 38 cents an hour.

Allowance for board and lodging:

Where board and lodging are furnished by the employer as part payment of wages, an allowance may be made therefor as follows:

In cities and villages with a population of 3,500 or more:

Of not more than \$8.25 a week for board.

Of not more than \$4 a week for lodging.

In cities and villages with a population between 1,000 and 3,500:

Of not more than \$7.25 a week for board. Of not more than \$3.50 a week for lodging.

Elsewhere in the State:

Of not more than \$6.75 a week for board.

Of not more than \$3.25 a week for lodging.

COVERAGE OF DOMESTIC WORKERS BY STATE WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION LAWS

States in Which Coverage Is Compulsory

California: Compulsory for domestic workers employed over 52 hours a week by one employer; voluntary for others.

New York: After a 10-year campaign, the Condon bill was approved March 30, 1946, and became effective January 1, 1947. The bill amends the law by including among the hazardous occupations and employments, for which workmen's compensation is mandatory, certain domestic workers. The household employees who come under the amendment are all those who work for the same employer 48 or more hours per week and are employed in cities or villages of at least 40,000 population. (Domestic workers on farms are excepted.) law extends to full-time regularly employed domestic workers the same protection, medical care, and compensation in the event of an accidental injury while at work which the law gives to other industrial The penal provisions of the Workmen's Compensation law were made inapplicable to household employers. However, should the household employer who is required by law to carry workmen's compensation insurance fail to provide such insurance, the employer becomes personally responsible and liable to pay any award that may be rendered in favor of the employee. This award can be entered in the Supreme Court as a regular judgment. Furthermore, the employer can be subjected to a civil suit for negligence, in which action the defenses of "contributory negligence" or "risks of the job" cannot be urged by the employer, thus rendering the domestic worker's chance for recovery of damages extremely favorable:

Ohio: Compulsory for employers of 3 or more employees; voluntary for less than 3.

States in Which Coverage Is Elective 1

Connecticut: Employers are presumed to come under the act if they regularly employ 5 or more employees unless a written stipulation to the contrary is made; law is voluntary for those employing less than 5.

New Jersey: If the employer or employee does not accept the act he must give written notice to that effect to the opposite party, with the result that common-law defenses are abrogated.

States in Which Coverage Is Voluntary ²

Arizona	Maine	North Dakota
Arkansas	Maryland	Oklahoma
Colorado	Massachusetts	Oregon
Florida	Michigan	Pennsylvania
Georgia	Minnesota	Rhode Island
Idaho	Missouri	South Carolina
Illinois	Nebraska	South Dakota
Indiana	Nevada	Utah
Kansas	New Hampshire	Virginia
Kentucky	New Mexico	Washington
Louisiana	North Carolina	Wisconsin

States Which Exclude Domestic Workers

Alabama	Mississippi	Vermont
Delaware	Montana	West Virginia
District of Columbia	Tennessee	Wyoming
Town	Toros	

COVERAGE OF DOMESTIC WORKERS BY WAGE PAYMENT LAWS

State Having Laws That Specifically Cover Domestic Workers California (if boarded and lodged by employer).

States and Territory Having Laws of Broad General Coverage Applicable to Domestic Workers

Georgia	Minnesota*	Rhode Island
Idaho*	Montana	West Virginia
Illinois*	Nevada	Wyoming*
Indiana	New Jersev	Alaska
Louisiana*	New York	
Massachusetts	Pennsylvania	

^{*}Provision of the law relates only to payment of wage in case of employee's discharge.

¹ Elective coverage means that the employer has the option of either accepting or rejecting the act, but if he rejects it and the worker brings a suit for damages the employer cannot claim the traditional common law defenses, i. e., that the worker assumed the risk of the employment, that the injury was due to negligence of a fellow servant, or that the worker himself was guilty of contributory negligence.
² Voluntary coverage means that the employer may come under the act voluntarily but failure to do so does not result in a loss of the common-law defenses.

COVERAGE OF DOMESTIC WORKERS BY SOCIAL SECURITY LEGISLATION NOW IN EFFECT

Unemployment Compensation

1. The Social Security Act exempts employers of domestic workers from payment of the tax but it does not prohibit States from covering such workers under State legislation.

2. Domestic service in a private home is specifically excluded in all

State unemployment compensation laws except New York.

New York includes such service if the employer employs 4 or more domestic workers in his home for 15 days in a calendar year.

Old-Age Insurance

The Federal old-age and survivors' insurance law does not cover domestic workers.

VIII

The Political and Civil Status of Women

Including principal sex distinctions as of January 1, 1948

POLITICAL STATUS

Nationality

Citizenship in the United States is acquired in the same way by men and women; that is, by birth within the domain, by birth abroad of a parent who is a citizen, or by being naturalized. Mothers, as well as fathers, confer citizenship on their minor children. A married woman's citizenship does not automatically follow that of her husband. An alien wife may become a citizen whether or not her alien husband desires or qualifies for that privilege. If a woman citizen marries an alien, she retains her citizenship until she renounces it by declaring allegiance to another government.

Voting and Public Office

Federal.—Any woman who has the qualifications required for voting in the State of her residence has full right of suffrage in the election of National Government officials and on proposals for change in the Federal Constitution, that is, in the basic law.

Likewise, any woman who meets the established qualifications for official positions in the National Government is eligible either for election or appointment to posts in the executive and legislative branches or for appointment to the judiciary, including the Supreme Court of the United States.

State.—Any woman who meets the general qualifications established for voting in the State in which she has legal residence has full right of suffrage in the election of State and local officials and in determination of public issues within the State, such as amendment of the State constitution, legislative proposals where the referendum procedure is operative, and on local matters such as special tax assessments for public improvements, school administration, and the like.

Also, any woman who has the qualifications required for elected officials of State and local governments is eligible for election to these

positions.

Civil Service Positions.—Appointive positions in both Federal and State civil services are open generally to qualified women; that is, there are few legal barriers to the appointment of women. Appointing agencies for the Federal Government may designate whether male or female employees are preferred, when requesting a list of eligibles from the Civil Service Commission for selection of new personnel. Some States by statute specify the sex of appointees for certain minor positions, such as superintendents, wardens, matrons, or attendants in institutions operated by the State.

Courts—Jury Service.—Women are entitled by law to serve on juries in 35 States and the District of Columbia; by this fact they are

eligible also for Federal duty in these jurisdictions.

Nineteen States 1 require compulsory duty of qualified women; 16 States 2 and the District of Columbia permit optional service from

women.

Thirteen States 3 have not yet removed the ancient English commonlaw "defect of sex" which bars women from all jury duty in these jurisdictions. (It should be noted in this connection that in England women now are eligible generally for jury duty, by virtue of the law reforms of the present century, particularly the Sex Disqualification Removal Act of 1919.)

Domicile

Private Domicile of a married woman depends on that of her husband, normally. The general rule is that when the interests of husband and wife become hostile so that dissolution of the marriage becomes necessary, an aggrieved wife may establish a separate domicile. Separate existence, interests, and rights are recognized in cases of this sort.

Public Domicile.—Most of the States limit husband and wife to the same marital domicile during marriage for voting, serving on juries,

and holding public office.

However, at least 12 States under specified conditions allow a married woman to establish a separate domicile for voting:

California Maine Massachusetts Michigan

New Jersey New York North Carolina Ohio Pennsylvania Virginia Wisconsin

Five States permit separate domicile for eligibility to public office:

Maine Michigan Nevada New Jersey New York

At least four States permit separate domicile for jury service qualification:

Maine Michigan Nevada New Jersey

Three States (Nevada, New Jersey, Virginia) recognize separate domicile for the personal property tax obligation of a married woman.

Calif., Colo., Conn., Del., Ill., Ind., Iowa, Maine, Md., Mich., Mont., Nebr., N. J., N. C., Ohlo, Oreg., Pa., S. Dak., Vt.
 Ariz., Ark., Idaho, Kans., Ky., La., Minn., Mo., Nev., N. H., N. Y., N. Dak., R. I., Utah, Wash., Wis.
 Ala, Fla., Ga., Mass., Miss., N. Mex., Okla., S. C., Tenn., Tex., Va., W. Va., Wyo.

CIVIL STATUS—FAMILY RELATIONS

Marriage

The marriage laws of the various States generally do not distinguish between the sexes, except in establishing minimum ages. Most States set a lower age for females. The same minimum age applies to both sexes in 8 States 4 when parental consent is required, and in 16 States 5 when parental consent is not required. Other legal distinctions found are of minor importance, both as to number and character; for example, 2 States (Louisiana, Texas) require pre-marital health tests of male applicants only. One State (Louisiana) bars remarriage of a woman for a 10-month period after dissolution of her marriage.

Divorce

Sixteen States may grant a divorce to the husband on grounds that are exclusive to him. The principal ground in this group is the wife's undisclosed pregnancy by another at the time of marriage. Twentyone States may grant a divorce to the wife on grounds that are exclusive to her, generally the husband's desertion or nonsupport.

Parent and Child

Thirty-four States a give both parents the same rights of natural guardianship. Fourteen States 9 and the District of Columbia prefer the father as natural guardian during the marriage, giving him the first right to custody of his minor child's person, services, and earnings. If the marriage is broken by divorce or legal separation, neither parent has any legal advantage over the other as to custody of the minor children. The best interests of the child guide the court's disposition of its custody.

Six States 10 and the District of Columbia by statute prefer the father when a guardian of property is to be appointed for his child.

Nine States in authorize the father to appoint a guardian, by deed or last will, to have charge of the person of his minor child after the father's death, subject, however, in each of these States, to the mother's right to succeed the father as natural guardian of their minor children if she is the survivor. No State permits a father to will his child to a stranger without the mother's valid consent.

Seven 12 of the thirteen 13 States that authorize the surviving parent to appoint a testamentary guardian for a minor child's property provide that during the marriage the father may make the appointment with the mother's written consent.

Unmarried Parents.—The mother is considered the natural guardian entitled to the custody of the child. The father becomes a natural

Colo., Conn., Maine, Mo., N. J., N. C., Pa., Tenn.
 Conn., Fla., Ga., Idaho, Ky., La., Nebr., N. C., Ohlo, Pa., R. I., S. C., Tenn., Va., W. Va.,

^{**}Conn., Fla., Ga., Idano, Ay., La., Nebr., N. C., Ohlo, Lu., L. C., Chio, Lu., Lu., C., Chio, Ala., Ariz., Ga., Iowa, Kans., Ky., Miss., Mo., N. H., N. Mex., N. C., Okla., Tenn., Va., Wis., Wyo.

**Ala., Ariz., Colo., Del., Ind., Ky., Maine, Mass., Mich., Mo., Mont., Nebr., Nev., N. H., N. Mex., R. I., Tenn., Vt., Wash., Wis., Wyo.

**Ariz., Calif., Conn., Del., Fla., Idaho, Ill., Ind., Kans., Ky., La., Maine, Md., Miss., Mo., Mont., Nebr., Nev., N. H., N. J. N. Mex., N. Dak., Ohio, Oreg., Pa., R. I., S. C., S. Dak., Tenn., Tex., Utah., Wash., W. Va., Wis.

**Ala., Ark., Colo., Ga., Iowa, Mass., Mich., Minn., N. Y., N. C., Okla., Vt., Va., Wyo.

**Ala., Colo., La., Mont., Oreg., Tex.

**11 Ariz., Idaho, Mont., N. Dak., Okla., Oreg., S. Dak., Utah.

**12 Ariz., Idaho, Mont., N. Dak., Okla., S. Dak., Utah.

**13 Ariz., Calif., Del., Idaho, La., Mont., Nev., N. Y., N. Dak., Okla., Pa., S. Dak., Utah.

guardian according to the law of the State only if he legally acknowl-

edges his relationship to the child.

Inheritance by Parents From Children.—No distinction exists between the rights of the father and mother to inherit from legitimate children. Most States allow the unmarried mother to inherit from her child. Nine 14 States permit the unmarried father to share the inheritance when he has legally acknowledged or adopted the child.

Family Support

Generally, the States under community-property law (see Footnote 28) make the common estate of husband and wife liable for family support, without relieving the husband as head of the family from his liability for its proper care. The remaining States and the District of Columbia, under common-law rule in this respect, hold the husband and his property primarily liable for family support. In 21 of these States 15 the wife and her property are declared liable also for family necessaries, but without changing the husband's primary obligation.

Ten States 16 require the wife to support her husband out of her separate property when he has no property and because of infirmity

is unable to support himself.

Unmarried Parents.—In general, the mother is primarily liable for support of the child. Most States have legal procedure for establishing paternity if satisfactory proof is submitted. Until the paternity is established or voluntarily assumed, the father has no legal obligation to support the child, or to contribute to the expenses of the mother at childbirth. Four States 17 have no statutory provision of this type.

CIVIL STATUS—CONTRACT AND PROPERTY LAW

Power To Make Contracts

All States apparently recognize a married woman's legal capacity to contract her personal services in employment outside her home duties, and to collect her earnings from such work without the formal consent of her husband.

Four States 18 have limitations on the power of a married woman of legal age to make enforceable contracts with third persons that do not concern her separate property or the common property of herself and husband.

Eight 19 of the community property States do not ordinarily empower a wife to contract alone concerning the common marital property, though the husband has extensive powers of sole contract, particularly over the personal property owned in common.

Five States 20 forbid a wife to obligate herself as surety for her

husband.

Idaho, Kans., La., Mont., Nev., N. Mex., N. Dak., Okla., S. Dak.
 Ariz., Ark., Calif., Colo.. Conn., Idaho, Ill., Iowa, La., Mass., Minn., Mo., Mont., N. Dak.,
 Oreg., Pa., S. Dak., Utah, Wash., W. Va., Wyo.
 Calif., Idaho, Mont., Nev., N. Mex., N. Dak., Ohio, Okla., S. Dak., Wis.
 Idaho, Mo., Tex., Va.
 La., Nebr., N. C., Tex.
 Ariz., Calif., Idaho, La., Nev., N. Mex., Tex., Wash.
 Ala., Ga., Idaho, Ky., N. H.

Five States ²¹ limit to some extent because of sex the appointment of a woman to positions of trust, such as executor or administrator. Six States ²² may impose special restrictions on a woman who marries while serving in these offices of trust.

Ownership, Control, and Use of Property

Separate Property.—In property management and control, inheritance, and freedom of enjoyment of earnings, unmarried women and unmarried men stand equal under the law. Married women in most States have the same degree of control over their separate property that married men have over their separate property. Personal earnings of married women are made their separate property by specific statute in most of the States not under the community property regime. In the 15 States 23 without such specific law, general statutes are interpreted to have the same effect.

Five States ²⁴ still require the husband's signature, as a matter of form, to give validity to the wife's deed conveying her own land; only Texas still requires a special form of acknowledgment for the married woman's deed or mortgage of her lands; only three States ²⁵ deny a wife full individual status in the courts, requiring her husband to be made a party to certain actions which involve the wife.

Three States 26 and the District of Columbia retain the form of property ownership called at common law "estate by the entirety," applicable only to husband and wife. Under it, the wife has only a contingent interest in the property unless she survives her husband, no matter what amount she has contributed to the estate. The husband controls the property and receives the income during the marriage.

Five States 27 still have the so-called Free-Trader statutes, under which court sanction, and in some cases the husband's consent, is required for a wife's legal venture into an independent business, if she is to keep the profits for her own account.

Community or Communal Property.—Twelve States ²⁸ have the community system of ownership between husband and wife applied to property acquired by their joint efforts during the marriage. Eight ²⁹ of these give the husband principal control of most of the communal property while the spouses live together. Six of the community property States ³⁰ give the wife control over her earnings, even as part of the communal estate.

Four States (Michigan, Nebraska, Oklahoma, Oregon) have adopted the community system within recent years, principally for the purpose of dividing the burden of taxation between husband and wife. These States permit the wife to control her personal earnings and any other community property to which she holds the record title. Other community property is under the husband's control.

n Idaho, Nev., Okla., Oreg., S. Dak.

Del., Nev., N. H., N. C., S. C., Utah.
Del., Ky., Md., Mass., Miss., Mont., N. Y., N. Dak., Ohio, Okla., Oreg., S. Dak., Tenn.,
Vt., Va.
Ala., Fla., Ind., N. C., Tex.
Mass., Mich., N. C.
Calif., Fla., Nev., Pa., Tex.
Calif., Fla., Nev., Pa., Tex.
Ariz., Calif., Idaho, La., Mich., Nebr., Nev., N. Mex., Okla., Oreg., Tex., Wash.
Ariz., Calif., Idaho, La., Nev., N. Mex., Tex., Wash.
Idaho, Mich., Nebr., Nev., Okla., Oreg.

In the 36 States ³¹ and the District of Columbia where the commonlaw background exists as distinguished from the civil-law tradition, the property accumulated during the marriage by the cooperative efforts of both husband and wife belongs to the husband and is under his control, except as the effect of this rule is overcome by private settlement. This is accomplished through voluntary agreement or other arrangement, such as joint ownership of lands, joint bank accounts, prenuptial agreements, and the like. But in the absence of a valid private adjustment of this sort, or a valid will, the law governs. However, in most of these States by express provision of law, and in others by interpretation, policy, and practice, the wife's earnings in outside employment are her separate property. The husband's earnings are primarily liable for support of his family, as those of the wife are not (nor any of her separate property) unless she voluntarily makes them so by her personal contract.

Wills.—Married women dispose of their separate property by will as freely as married men dispose of their separate property. As to the communal property, ordinarily 2 32 of the 12 community-system

States deny a wife full testamentary rights.

Inheritance Between Spouses.—A widow or surviving husband inherits similar portions from the deceased spouse in most of the States. In a few States, the advantage is sometimes with the wife, sometimes with the husband, according to circumstances incident to the case, such as the surviving number of children, election under the will of the deceased spouse, and the like.

Two States (Nevada and New Mexico) favor the husband over the wife in the division of community property after the death of

one spouse.

Allowance During Estate Settlement.—Practically all the States require maintenance for the widow from the husband's estate during the period of its settlement. At least one-third of them provide support from solvent estates under administration for either spouse who survives.

⁸¹ Ala., Ark., Colo., Conn., Del., Fla., Ga., Ill., Ind., Iowa, Kans., Ky., Maine, Md., Mass., Minn., Miss., Mo., Mont., N. H., N. J., N. Y., N. C., N. Dak., Ohio, Pa., R. I., S. C., S. Dak., Tenn., Utah, Vt., Va., W. Va., Wis., Wyo.
²³ Nev., N. Mex.

IX

Women's Education and Vocational Training

STUDENT ENROLLMENTS IN AND GRADUATES OF **EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS**

	Enrollments			Graduates		
Type of school and school year	Number		Percent females	Number		Percent females
	Total	Females	are of total	Total	Females	are of total
Elementary schools: 1943-44. 1947-48 (estimated numbers)	19, 891, 631 22, 620, 000	9, 709, 264 (2)	48. 9 (2)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Secondary schools: 1943-44. 1947-48 (estimated numbers) 1945-46 (estimated numbers)	6,030,617 6,330,000	3, 263, 282 (²)	54. 1 (2)	1,019,233	595, 262 613, 107	* 58. 4 56. 8
Institutions of higher education: 1943-44. 1947-48 (estimated numbers) 1945-46 (estimated numbers)	1, 155, 272 2, 338, 226	568, 603 678, 977	49. 2 29. 0	125,875	69, 999 (²)	³ 55. 6

¹ Not reported because of differences in elementary school organization.
2 Data not available.
3 The last prewar percentages for the year 1940-41 were 53.1 percent for secondary schools and 42.5 percent for institutions of higher education.
4 The estimate of this total for 1946-47 is 1,100,000.
5 Full-time, regular session students only included in these statistics.

SOURCE: U. S. Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education. Latest year for which complete figures are available is 1943-44.

WOMEN ENROLLED IN VOCATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMS

Federally aided all-day trade and industrial programs in which women were enrolled for the school year ending June 30, 1947 ¹

Total	women 30, 297
Garment and textile trades	15, 539
Dressmaking Power sewing-machine operation Millinery Men's tailoring Laundering, cleaning, dyeing, and pressing Textiles. Upholstering Garment and textile trades, other. Domestic and personal service trades	10, 443 2, 456 1, 028 269 151 44 11 1, 137
Cosmetology	380 359 149 9 130
Commercial art Photography Printing Bookbinding Printing, other Food trades	386 146 41 23
Food service	689 436 103 35 965 154
Telegraphy and telephony	131 21 2 113
Machine shop	23 21 21 48 102
Dental mechanics Jewelry and watchmaking Auto mechanics Patternmaking Mechanical service and hand trades, other Building and construction trades	50 17 4 1 30 17
Carpentry and woodworkingPainting and decoratingSee footnotes at end of table, p. 64.	16 1

WOMEN ENROLLED IN VOCATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMS-Continued

Federally aided all-day trade and industrial programs in which women were enrolled for the school year ending June 30, 1947 \(^1-\)Continued

Enrollment of a	vom en
Aircraft manufacturing and maintenance trades	12
Aircraft mechanics Aircraft engine and propellor mechanics Aircraft sheet metal Miscellaneous trades	2
Public service	214 199 5 432

¹ Provisional figures.

SOURCE: (U. S.) Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education.

WOMEN SERVED BY REHABILITATION PROGRAMS

The number of women rehabilitated under Federal and State rehabilitation agencies in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1947, was 11,867 or 27 percent of the total number of men and women rehabilitated under these agencies.

Source: (U. S.) Federal Security Agency, Statistical Division of the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation.

American Women

A selected bibliography of basic sources of current and historic interest

This brief bibliography lists, under the headings included, the more outstanding basic sources, as well as data that have appeared most recently in print. This list does not include works devoted to educational theory; to community organization; to instruction on home management, nutrition, etc.; to occupational or career guidance; to study of a particular industry or occupation; or to the situation of women in countries other than the United States. A number of the books listed (including both early and some later Women's Bureau bulletins) are available only in libraries.

GENERAL

American Academy of Political and Social Science—Annals. Philadelphia:

May 1947. Women's Opportunities and Responsibilities. Ed. by Louise M.

Young. See article by Taeuber, Irene B., and Eldridge, Hope T. Some Demographic Aspects of the Changing Role of Women.

May 1929. Women in the Modern World. Ed. by Viva B. Boothe.

American Association of University Women:

Beard, Mary R. A. Changing Political Economy as It Affects Women. Washington. 1934. A study outline, with questions for investigation and dis-

cussion, and an extensive bibliography.

Summaries of Studies on the Economic Status of Women. Women's Bureau Bull. 134. 1935. Lists studies up to 1935 that deal with college women, business and professional women, women in industry, women in all occupations.

American Women. The standard biographical dictionary of notable women. 3, 1939-40. Ed. by Durward Howes. Los Angeles. American Publications,

Inc. 1939.

Benson, Mary Sumner. Women in 18th Century America; a study of opinion and social usage. New York. Columbia University Press. 1935.

Gilman, Charlotte Perkins. Women and Economics. Boston. Small, Maynard. 1900. This work still raises challenging questions as to women's status.

Groves, Ernest R. The American Woman. The Feminine Side of a Masculine Challenging Charlet Charlenging Charlet Charlet

Civilization. New York. Emerson Books, Inc. Revised ed. 1944. An important and basic work that considers many aspects of the changing status of woman, from colonial times to our modern society, and gives an informed and sympathetic discussion.

Mead, Margaret, and Stern, Bernhard J. Woman, Position in Society. In Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences. Vol. 15. New York. Macmillan. 1935.

New York Public Library-Women in the Making of America. 1941. A bibliography that lists books dealing with women in political life, in the community, in letters, in education, in business and professions, including biographies of pioneer women and other books about their work.

Women's Bureau Bulletin:

Women's Bureau Conference 1948—The American Woman, Her Changing Role—Worker, Homemaker, Citizen. Bull. 224. See especially:

Kyrk, Hazel. Family Responsibilities of Earning Women.

Tead, Ordway, Social Patterns for Women, The Present and The

Prospects. Thompson, C. Mildred. Women's Status, Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow.

WOMEN AS CITIZENS

Annals of the American Academy (cited under General):

May 1947:

Allen, Florence E. Participation of Women in Government, Beard, Mary R. Woman's Role in Society.

Fisher, Marguerite J. Women in Political Parties. Stone, Kathryn H. Women as Citizens.

May 1929: Howes, Ethel Puffer. The Meaning of Progress in the Woman

November 1914: Women in Public Life.

May 1910: Significance of the Woman Suffrage Movement. Supplement.

Beard, Mary R.:

America Through Women's Eyes. New York. Macmillan. 1934. A collection of documents and quotations from women themselves in various periods of American history.

Woman as Force in History. A Study in Traditions and Realities. New York. Macmillan. 1946.

Woman's Work in Municipalities. New York. Appleton. 1915. Blackwell, Alice Stone. Lucy Stone, Ploneer of Women's Rights. New York. Little, Brown and Co. 1930.

Breckinridge, Sophonisba P. Women in the Twentieth Century: A Study of Their Political, Social, and Economic Activities. New York and London. McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1933. Part III. Women and Government.

Catt, Carrie Chapman, with collaboration of Shuler, Nettle R. Woman Suffrage

and Politics. New York. Scribner's. 1923.

History of Woman Suffrage (Vols. I to VI): Vol. I (1848-61) was published in 1881. This and Vols. II and III were written by Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony, with collaboration of Matilda Joslyn Gage, later joined by Mrs. Stanton's daughter Harriot. Vol. IV was prepared by Mrs. Ida Husted Harper working with Susan B. Anthony. Vols. V and VI were written by Mrs. Harper. First 4 vols. published by Fowler and Wells. New York.

Irwin, Inez H. Angels and Amazons. A Hundred Years of American Women. New York. Doubleday, Doran. 1933.

Lutz, Alma. Created Equal. A biography of Elizabeth Cady Stanton, 1815-1902. New York. John Day Co. 1940. This deals with the early history of the woman suffrage movement, and is a fascinating human story of the pioneer women leaders of the mid- and late-nineteenth century.

Paxton, Annabel. Women in Congress. Richmond. The Dietz Press, Inc. 1945. Peck, Mary Gray. Carrie Chapman Catt. New York. H. H. Wilson Co. 1944. This is written in several sections, which deal with early life and development of leadership, work for women's international organizations (earlier and later periods), the Federal Amendment campaign, and later work for peace and disarmament.

Shaw, Dr. Anna Howard, with collaboration of Jordan, Elizabeth. The Story of a Pioneer. New York. Harper and Bros. 1915. Written in the vigorous and scintillating style of Dr. Shaw's speech, this is a fitting companion volume to Elizabeth Cady Stanton's biography.

Thurston, Lucy M. Mistress Brent; A Story of Lord Baltimore's Colony in 1638.

1901. The earliest colonial advocate of woman's right to vote. (This book will be found in few libraries.)

Whitney, Janet. Abigail Adams. Boston. Little, Brown and Co. 1947.

Women's Bureau Bulletin:

 Buchanan, Sara Louise. The Legal Status of Women in the United States of America, 1938. Bull. 157. 1941. Also cumulative supplement through 1945; separate bulletin for each State and chart for each State.

WOMEN AS WORKERS

Employment and Occupations

Abbott, Edith. Women in Industry; a Study of American Economic History. New York and London. Appleton. 1910. An important source study, embodying many interesting stories of women's work and wages in America in the Colonial period and the early years of the Republic to the mid-19th century. Traces the beginning of the factory system and deals at length with women's work in the textile, boot and shoe, cigar making, clothing, and printing industries.

Abbott, Edith. Harriet Martineau and the Employment of Women, 1836. In Journal of Political Economy, Vol. XIV, 1906. Pages 614 and ff. Discusses the occupations of women in this period, which was before the earliest U. S. Census of Occupations.

Annals of the American Academy (cited under General):

May 1947:

Kyrk, Hazel. Who Works and Why.

Miller, Frieda S. Women in the Labor Force.

Zapoleon, Marguerite Wykoff. Education and Employment Opportunities for Women.

Breckinridge, Sophonisha P. Women in the Twentieth Century. A Study of Their Political, Social, and Economic Activities. New York and London. McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1933. Part II. Women and Gainful Employment.

Clark, Alice. The Working Life of Women in the Seventeenth Century. New York. Harcourt Brace. 1920.

Dexter, Elisabeth W. Colonial Women of Affairs. New York. Houghton Mifflin.

International Labor Office. The War and Women's Employment. Part II. United States. See esp. Ch. I, II, IV. Montreal. 1946.

Larcom, Lucy (1824-1893). A New England Girlhood; outline from memory. New York. Houghton Mifflin. Reprint, 1924. A vivid picture of the young woman cotton mill worker in New England.

Meyer, Annie Nathan (Editor). Woman's Work in America. New York. Henry Holt. 1891.

Monthly Labor Review:

Pidgeon, Mary Elizabeth. Women Workers and Recent Economic Change. December 1947.

Robinson, Mary V. Woman Workers in Two Wars. October 1943. Spruill, Julia Cherry. Women's Life and Work in the Southern Colonies.

Chapel Hill. University of North Carolina Press. 1938.

Tryon, Rolla. Household Manufactures in the United States, 1640-1860. A Study in Industrial History. Chicago. University of Chicago Press. 1917.

Women in Industry. In Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences. Van Kleeck, Mary. Vol. 15. New York. Macmillan. 1935. Women's Bureau Bulletins:

Benham, Elisabeth D. The Woman Wage Earner. Bull. 172. 1939. Part II, Women's Place in Industry.

Dempsey, Mary V. The Occupational Progress of Women, 1910-30. Bull.

104. 1933.

Hooks, Janet M. Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades (1870–1940). Bull. 218. (In press.)

Kingsbury, Susan M. The Economic Status of University Women in the Property of Committee on Economic and Legal Status, American Association of University Women, in cooperation with the Women's Bureau.

Pidgeon, Mary Elizabeth:

Employment of Women in the Early Postwar Period. Bull. 211. 1946. Changes in Women's Employment During the War. Sp. Bull. 20. 1944. Women in the Economy of the United States. Bull. 155. 1937. Part I. Ch. 1. The Trend in the Occupations of Women.

Digitized for FRASER

Zapoleon, Marguerite Wykoff:

The Outlook for Women in Occupations in the Medical and Other Health Services. Bull. 203, Nos. 1-12.

The Outlook for Women in Science, Bull. 223, Nos. 1-8.

Wages

Annals of the American Academy (cited under General). May 1947. Brady,

Dorothy S. Equal Pay for Women Workers.
International Labor Office. The War and Women's Employment. Part II.
United States. Wages in Wartime. In Ch. II, Women in Industry. Montreal. 1946.

Monthly Labor Review:

Angus, Alice, and Sullivan, Loretta. Progress of State Minimum Wage Legislation, 1946. June 1947.

- Progress of State Minimum Wage Legislation, 1943-45. May 1946.

U. S. Senate. 79th Congress. Hearings on S. 1178. (Bill providing equal pay).

Before a Subcommittee of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor.

October 29, 30, and 31, 1945. Testimony of Frieda S. Miller and exhibits A to F, prepared in the Women's Bureau; and of various representatives of labor unions and women's organizations.

Webb, Beatrice (Mrs. Sidney). Minority Report. Of the British War Cabinet Committee on Women in Industry [World War I]. London. His Majesty's Stationery Office. Cmd. 135. 1919. Includes the classic pioneer discussion of the various problems surrounding the entire subject of equal pay for women.

Women's Bureau Bulletins:

Equai Pay for Women. Leaflet No. 2, 1947. (Rev. 1948.)

Pidgeon, Mary Elizabeth:

Earnings of Women in Selected Manufacturing Industries, 1946. Bull. 1948.

Equal Pay for Women in War Industries. Bull, 196. 1942.

Women in the Economy of the United States. Buil, 155. 1937. Part I. Ch. 3. Compensation of Women.

Smith. Florence P. State Minimum Wage Laws and Orders, 1942. Bull. 191, with mimeographed supplements through 1947.

Bulletins on Family Responsibility:

Peterson, Agnes L. What the Woman Wage Earner Contributes to Family Support. Bull. 75. 1929. A Summary of 22 studies. Pidgeon, Mary Elizabeth and Mettert, Margaret Thompson. Employed

Women and Family Support. Bull. 168, 1939,

Smaltz, Rebecca. Women Workers in Their Family Environment. Bull. 183. 1941.

Weissbrodt, Sylvia R. Women Workers in Ten War Production Areas. Bull. 209. 1946.

Women in the Economy of the United States (cited). Part I. Ch. 4. Responsibility of Employed Women for the Support of Others. Bull. 155. 1937.

Health and Physical Welfare

Baetjer, Dr. Anna M. Women in Industry, Their Health and Efficiency. Philadelphia and London. W. B. Saunders Co. 1946.
Brandels, Elizabeth. Labor Legislation. Vol. IV of History of Labor in the United States 1896–1932. New York. Macmillan. 1935.

Hamilton, Dr. Alice:

Exploring the Dangerous Trades. Boston. Little, Brown and Co. 1943. Autobiography of the great Harvard pioneer in the field of industrial medicine and hygiene.

Women Workers and Industrial Poisons. Washington. 1926. Industrial Poisons in the United States. New York. Macmillan. 1925. International Labor Office. The War and Women's Employment. Part II. United States. Conditions of Work, and Health and Welfare Problems. In Ch. II, Women in Industry. Montreal. 1946.

Webb, Beatrice (Mrs. Sidney). (Work cited under Wages.)

Woman and Child Wage Earners in the United States. Report of the comprehensive pioneer national investigation of this subject ordered by Act of Congress in 1907, to be conducted by the Secretary of Commerce and Labor. Published in 19 volumes.

Women's Bureau Bulletins (see full list of publications including studies of conditions in particular industries and special problems such as lost time and labor

turn-over, irregular employment, piecework, etc.):
Anderson, Margaret K. Women's Wartime Hours of Work; The Effect on
Their Factory Performance and Home Life. Bull. 208. 1947. A study

of 13 war-production plants.

Effective Industrial Use of Women. Sp. Bull. 1. 1940. A brief summary of current knowledge as to the work women do best, effective hour and wage standards, industrial poisons and other hazards. See also other bulletins in the wartime series, especially Nos. 2 to 7.

Industrial Injuries to Women:

(1) Series, presenting and interpreting State data. (1920-34). Bulls. 81, 102, 129, 160.

(2) Special Studies. Bulls. 60 (1927); 151 (1938); 212 (1945).

Mohr, Jennie. The Industrial Nurse and the Woman Worker. Sp. Bull. 19. 1944.

Occupational Diseases of Women. Series, presenting and interpreting State data (1920 to 1938). Bulls. 114; 147; 181.

Proceedings of the Women's Industrial Conference. Bull. 33, 1923. dresses by Florence Kelley, Mrs. Raymond Robins, Maud Swartz, Mary McDowell, and others.

Standards for Employment of Women, Leaflet No. 1. 1946. (Rev. 1948.) Latest revision of the Bureau's earliest advices on standards, first published in 1918.

State Labor Laws for Women. Bull. 191 (cited under Wages), and Bull. 202. and mimeographed supplements bringing data through 1947. Various earlier bulletins deal with historic developments.

Organization Into Unions

Abbott, Edith. Women in Industry (cited under Employment and Occupations). Gives interesting incidents of early activities of women in unions.

Annals of the American Academy (cited under General):

May 1947: Dickason, Gladys. Women in Labor Unions.

September 1904: Yudelson, Sophie. Woman's Place in Industry and Labor Organizations.

Boone, Gladys. The Women's Trade Union League in Great Britain and the United States of America. New York. Columbia University Press. 1942. Glück, Elsie. Women in Industry: Problems of Organization. In Encyclopaedia of Social Science. Vol. 15. New York. Macmillan. 1935.

Henry, Alice:

The Trade Union Woman. New York and London, Appleton. 1915. Women and the Labor Movement. Workers' Bookshelf. Vol. IV. New York. Macmillan. 1927. Wolfson, Theresa. The Woman Worker and the Trade Unions. New York. Inter-

national Publishers. 1926.

Women's Bureau Bulletin:

Benham, Elisabeth D. The Woman Wage Earner. Bull. 172, 1939. Part IV-Women's Participation in Labor Organizations.

WOMEN AS HOMEMAKERS

Annals of the American Academy (cited under General): May 1947:

Daggett, Harriet S. Reflections on the Law of the Family. Gruenberg, Sidonie Matsner. Changing Conceptions of the Family.

Reid, Margaret G. The Economic Contribution of Homemakers. March 1932: Boothe, Viva. Gainfully Employed Women in the Family. Bonde, Ruth L. Management in Daily Living. 1944. New York. Macmillan. Brown, Harriet Connor. Grandmother Brown's Hundred Years (1827-1927). New York. Little, Brown and Co. 1929.

Gross, Irma Hannah, and Crandall, E. W. Home Management in Theory and Practice. New York. Crofts & Co. 1947.

Consult especially the Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture, for information on various phases of home economics such as nutrition, meal planning and food budgets, textiles and clothing, housing and household equipment.

Consult the Women's Bureau on subjects relating to household employment and conditions of work for household employees.

See also certain items already listed:

Groves (work cited under General).

Pidgeon, Women in the Economy of the United States (cited under Wages).

Section on Women as Homemakers.

Women's Bureau Bulletins on responsibility of women for the support of others (cited under Wages).

Women's Bureau Bulletin:

Pidgeon, Mary Elizabeth. The Employed Woman Homemaker. Bull 148. 1936.

XI

Women's National Organizations

(List as of January 1947)

The following list is of national organizations that have active State or local branches and regular meetings of the membership. They are grouped according to fields of interest. Membership is noted if recent figures are available. Individual national and international unions, collegiate and collegiate alumnae associations, and women's organizations affiliated with fraternal orders have been omitted.

ORGANIZATIONS HAVING SOCIAL, CIVIC, OR RELIGIOUS PURPOSES

- Association of Junior Leagues of America, Waldorf-Astoria Hotel, 305 Park Avenue, New York 22, N. Y. It is concerned with the support of philanthropic and civic activities.
- Congress of American Women, 55 West Forty-second Street, Room 209, New York 18, N. Y. It is affiliated with the Women's International Democratic Federation. Its purpose is to work for equal rights for women, for protective and beneficial legislation, for improved child care, and for peace and democracy.
- General Federation of Women's Clubs, 1784 N Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1890 in New York. Its object is to unite women's clubs and like organizations throughout the world for the purpose of mutual benefit and for the promotion of their common interest in education, philanthrophy, public welfare, moral values, civics, and fine arts. Membership consists of some 17,500 clubs located in all the States, the District of Columbia, Alaska, and 31 foreign countries.
- National Association of Colored Women, Inc., 1114 O Street NW., Washington 5, D. C. Established in 1896 in Washington, D. C. Founded for purpose of raising to the highest plane the home life, moral standards, and civil life of the race.
- National Consumers League for Fair Labor Standards (not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women), 348 Engineers Building, Cleveland 14, Ohlo. Established in New York in 1899. The League's purpose is "to awaken consumers' interest in their responsibility for conditions under which goods are made and distributed." Membership in 1946: 10,000.
- National Council of Catholic Women, 1312 Massachusetts Avenue NW., Washington 5, D. C. Established in 1920. Its purpose is to federate existing organizations of Catholic women in order that they may speak and act as a unit when the welfare of the church or of the country demands such expression.

- National Council of Jewish Women, 1819 Broadway, New York 23, N. Y. Established in 1893 in Chicago, Ill. Its purpose is to organize Jewish women interested in a program of social betterment through activities in the fields of religion, social service, education, and social legislation, both local and national.
- National Council of Negro Women, 1318 Vermont Avenue NW., Washington 5, D. C. Organized in 1935. The Council seeks the cooperation and membership of all races and works for the integration of Negroes into the economic, social, cultural, civic and political life of every community. It is made up of 20 national organizations of Negro women and has 50 local councils in 23 States.
- National Jewish Welfare Board, 145 East Thirty-second Street, New York 16, N. Y. The Board is the National organization for Young Women's Hebrew Associations throughout the United States and Canada.
- National Women's Christian Temperance Union, 1730 Chicago Avenue, Evanston, Ill. Established in 1874. Its purpose is to unite the Christian women of the United States for the education of public sentiment to the standard of total abstinence from the use of all alcoholic liquors and the abolition of the liquor traffic; to train the young in habits of sobriety and total abstinence; and to promote good citizenship, peace, and the general welfare.
- United Council of Church Women (Protestant), 156 Fifth Avenue, New York 10, N. Y. Organized in December 1941 in Atlantic City, N. J. Its purpose is "to unite church women in their allegiance to their Lord and Saviour, Jesus Christ, through a program looking to their integration in the total life and work of the church and to the building of a world community." Membership in 1946: 39 State councils and about 1,100 local groups.
- Young Women's Christian Association, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York 22, N. Y. Established in 1906 in New York. It works to advance the physical, social, intellectual, moral, and spiritual interest of young women. It is affiliated with the World's YWCA. Its national membership in the United States is about 3 million.

PROFESSIONAL AND BUSINESS ORGANIZATIONS

The purpose of the following professional organizations is to provide a medium for contact between women carrying on these professions; to encourage girls to choose these careers; to promote professional advancement; to maintain high standards in practice.

National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc., 1819
Broadway, New York 23, N. Y. Established in 1919 in St. Louis, Mo. Its purpose is to raise standards for women in business and the professions; to promote the interests of business and professional women; to extend opportunities for business and professional women; to bring about a spirit of cooperation among business and professional women of the United States. It is affiliated with the International Federation of Business and Professional Women.

Accountancy

American Woman's Society of Certified Public Accountants, 67 Broad Street, New York 4, N. Y.

Art

National Association of Women Artists, 42 West Fifty-seventh Street, New York 19, N. Y.

Banking

Association of Bank Women, 56 East Forty-second Street, New York 17, N. Y. Established in 1921 in New York.

¹ Most of the separate Protestant denominations have established a women's section in their national organization.

Home Economics

American Home Economics Association, 620 Mills Building, Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1908 in Washington, D. C. Its purpose is to promote standards of home living beneficial to the individual and to society.

Law

National Association of Women Lawyers, c/o Charlotte E. Gauer, President, 1100 North Dearborn Street, Chicago 10, Ill.

Medical Services

- American Dental Hygienists' Association, c/o Mrs. Sophie G. Booth, R. D. H., President, 2420 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington 9, D. C. Established in 1923 in Cleveland, Ohio.
- American Medical Women's Association, Inc., 50 West Fiftieth Street, New York 20, N. Y. Established in 1915 in Chicago, Ill. It is affiliated with the Medical Women's International Association.
- American Nurses Association, 1790 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y. Organized in 1896 near New York City and first known as the Nurses' Associated Alumnae of the United States and Canada. Membership in 1946: 176,393.
- American Occupational Therapy Association (not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women), 33 West Forty-second Street, New York 18, N. Y. Membership: 2.700.
- American Physiotherapy Association (not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women), 1790 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y.
- Association of American Women Dentists, c/o Dr. Muriel K. G. Robinson, President, 4906 Walnut Street, Philadelphia 9, Pa. Established in 1921 in Los Angeles, Calif.
- National Association for Practical Nurse Education, 654 Madison Avenue, New York 21, N. Y.
- National Organization for Public Health Nursing, Inc., 1790 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y.

Music

National Federation of Music Clubs (not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women), c/o Mrs. Guy Patterson Gannett, President, Press-Herald Building, Portland, Maine.

Radio

Association of Women Broadcasters, National Association of Broadcasters, 535 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y.

Real Estate

Women's Council, National Association of Real Estate Boards, 22 West Monroe Street, Chicago 3, Ill.

Teaching

See Educational Organizations.

Writing

- American Newspaper Women's Club, 1604 Twentieth Street NW., Washington 6,
 D. C. Established in 1932 in Washington, D. C. Membership in 1946: 200.
- National League of American Pen Women, Suite 409, Willard Hotel, Washington 4, D. C. Established in 1897.
- Women's National Press Club, National Press Building, Washington 4, D. C. Established in 1919 in Washington, D. C.

General Service Organizations of Business and Professional Women

- Altrusa International, 540 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago 11, Ill. Established in 1917 in Nashville, Tenn. The first service club for professional and executive women.
- American Federation of Soroptimist Clubs, 1530 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia, Pa. Established in 1921 in Oakland, Calif. It is affiliated with the International Federation of Soroptimist Clubs.
- Pilot Club International, 1001 Persons Building, Macon, Ga. Organized in 1921 in Macon, Ga. Membership in 1946: 6,000.
- Quota Club International, Inc., 1719 I Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1919 in Buffalo, N. Y.
- Zonta International, 59 East Van Buren Street, Chicago 5, Ill. Established in 1919 in Buffalo, N. Y.

EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

- American Association of University Women, 1635 I Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1882 in Boston. Its purpose is to enhance the role of education in American life, particularly to help college women to make vital use of their education. It promotes international understanding through study and action and through affiliation with the International Federation of University Women. Membership in October 1946: 86,537.
- National Association of Deans of Women, 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1916 in New York. Its purpose is to strengthen the professional spirit of deans of women, to formulate criteria for their professional training, and to encourage the critical study of changing trends in education, especially as they relate to women.
- National Congress of Parents and Teachers (not restricted to women, but membership is largely women), 600 South Michigan Boulevard, Chicago 5, Ill. Founded in 1897. Its objects are to promote the welfare of children and youth in home, school, church, and community, to raise the standards of home life, to secure adequate laws for the care and protection of children and youth, to bring into closer relation the home and the school, that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child. Membership in 1946: 3,910,106.
- National Education Association (not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women), 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C.

POLITICAL AND LEGISLATIVE ORGANIZATIONS

- Democratic National Committee, Women's Division, Mayflower Hotel, Washington 6, D. C.
- League of Women Voters of the United States, 726 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C. Established in 1920 in Chicago, Ill. The purpose of the League is to promote political responsibility through informed and active participation of citizens in government. It is affiliated with the International Alliance of Women (Equal Rights, Equal Responsibilities).
- National Federation of Women's Republican Clubs, 1337 Connecticut Avenue NW., Washington 6, D. C.
- National Woman's Party, 144 B Street NE., Washington 3, D. C. Established in 1913 in Washington, D. C., for suffrage; reorganized in 1921 for equal rights. Its particular purpose is to secure the adoption of the Equal Rights Amendment to the National Constitution and the Equal Rights Treaty. It is affiliated with the World Woman's Party.
- Republican National Committee, Women's Division, 1337 Connecticut Avenue NW., Washington 6, D. C.
- Women's National Democratic Club, 1526 New Hampshire Avenue NW., Washington 6, D. C.

PATRIOTIC ORGANIZATIONS

- American Legion Auxiliary, 777 North Meridian Street, Indianapolis, Ind. Established in 1921 in Kansas City, Mo. (Composed of women from families of men who belong to the American Legion. The Legion is made up of men veterans of World Wars I and II.)
- American Women's Voluntary Services, 345 Madison Avenue, New York 17, N. Y. The organization provides services to veterans, to the community, to youth and teen-age groups, and to the blind. It assists local and foreign relief agencies and cooperates with medical research groups.
- Daughters of the American Revolution, 17th and D Streets NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1890 in Washington, D. C.
- Daughters of Union Veterans of the Civil War 1861-65, 1326 Eighteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Organized in Massilon, Ohio, in 1885. (Membership restricted to women whose ancestors sided with the North in the Civil War.)
- Ladies' Auxiliary to the Veterans of Foreign Wars, Porter Building, Kansas City, Mo.
- United Daughters of the Confederacy, 5330 Pershing Avenue, St. Louis, Mo. Established in 1894 in Nashville, Tenn. (Membership restricted to women whose ancestors sided with the South in the Civil War.)
- Women's Overseas Service League, 1026 Fifteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1921 in Philadelphia, Pa. Its purpose is to maintain the ties of comradeship born of service overseas in World War I and World War II.

ORGANIZATIONS WORKING FOR WORLD PEACE

- Women's Action Committee for Lasting Peace, 1 East Fifty-seventh Street, New York 22, N. Y. Incorporated April 1943 in New York. Its purpose is to unite American women to work for full participation by the United States in the United Nations. Membership in 1946: 20,000 individual members; 14 national women's organizations; 200 local women's groups.
- Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, Administrative headquarters of the United States Section, 2006 Walnut Street, Philadelphia 3, Pa., Washington headquarters, 1734 F Street NW. Established in 1915 in The Hague. Its purpose is to unite those in all countries who are opposed to every kind of war, exploitation, and oppression, and who want to work for the peaceful solution of conflicts by establishment of justice for all, without distinction as to sex, race, class, or creed.

FARM AND RURAL ORGANIZATIONS

- Associated Country Women of the World. In care of Mrs. Raymond Sayre, President, Ackworth, Iowa. Its objectives are to: Promote and maintain friendly and helpful relations between country women's and homemakers' organizations of all nations and help in their development in the economic, social, and cultural sphere; further their common interests; encourage the formation of similar new organizations, especially in countries where the need has not been met; stimulate interest in the international aspects of rural life and development; work together for the betterment of rural homes and communities through study and action in the spheres of homemaking, housing, health, education, and particularly all aspects of food and agriculture; further international relations in every way consistent with these aims.
- Associated Women of the American Farm Bureau Federation, 58 East Washington Street, Chicago 2, Ill.
- Women's National Farm and Garden Association, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N. Y. Established in 1913 in Philadelphia, Pa. Its purpose is to stimulate an interest in and a love of country life; to cooperate with government agencies for the improvement of rural conditions; to help women, through scholarship and expert advice, to the best training in agriculture and horticulture; and to study the subject of direct marketing.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS

- American Federation of Women's Auxiliaries of Labor, A. F. L. Building, 901 Massachusetts Avenue NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in Cincinnati, Ohio, in May 1938. Composed of women from families of men who are in a trade union affiliated with the A. F. L.
- Congress of Women's Auxiliaries (affiliated with Congress of Industrial Organizations), 1308 Public Square Building, Cleveland 13, Ohio. Established in Detroit in November 1941. Composed of women from families of men who are in a trade union affiliated with the CIO. Membership in 1946: 100,000.
- National Women's Trade Union League, 307 Machinists Building, Washington, D. C. Established in 1903 in Boston, Mass. Its purpose is to organize women wage workers into trade unions and to develop leadership among union women,

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS OF THE WOMEN'S BUREAU

FACTS ON WOMEN WORKERS—issued monthly. 4 pages. (Latest statistics on employment of women; earnings; labor laws affecting women; news items of interest to women workers; women in the international scene.)

HANDBOOK ON WOMEN WORKERS

Bull. 225. (Instant publication.)

EMPLOYMENT OUTLOOK AND TRAINING FOR WOMEN

The Outlook for women in Occupations in the Medical and Other Health Services. Bull. 203:

- 1. Physical Therapists. 14 pp. 1945. 10¢.
- Occupational Therapists. 15 pp. 1945.
 Professional Nurses. 66 pp. 1946. 15¢.
- 4. Medical Laboratory Technicians. 10 pp. 1945. 10¢.
- 5. Practical Nurses and Hospital Attendants. 20 pp. 1945. 10¢.
- 6. Medical Record Librarians. 9 pp. 1945. 10¢.
- 7. Women Physicians. 28 pp. 1945. 10¢. 8. X-Ray Technicians. 14 pp. 1945. 10¢.
- 9. Women Dentists. 21 pp. 1945. 10¢. 10. Dental Hygienists. 17 pp. 1945. 10¢.
- Physicians' and Dentists' Assistants. 15 pp. 1945. 10¢.
 Trends and Their Effect upon the Demand for Women Workers. 55 pp.

The Outlook for Women in Science. Bull. 223:

- 1. Science. [General introduction to the series.] (In press.)
- Chemistry. 65 pp. 1948. 20c.
 Biological Sciences. 87 pp. 1948. 25c.
- 4. Mathematics and Statistics. 21 pp. 1948.
- 5. Architecture and Engineering. (In press.)
- Physics and Astronomy. 32 pp. 1948. 15¢.

7. Geology, Geography, and Meteorology. (In press.)
8. Occupations Related to Science. 33 pp. 1948. 15¢.
Your Job Future After College. Leaflet. 1947. (Rev. 1948.)
Training for Jobs—for Women and Girls. [Under public funds available for vocational training purposes.] Leaflet 1. 1947.

EARNINGS

Earnings of Women in Selected Manufacturing Industries, 1946. Bull. 219. 14 pp. 1948. 10¢.

EMPLOYMENT

Employment of Women in the Early Postwar Period, with Background of Prewar and War Data. Bull. 211. 14 pp. 1946. 10¢. Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades. Bull. 218. (In press.)

Women Workers After VJ-Day in One Community-Bridgeport, Conn. Bull. 216. 37 pp. 1947. 15¢.

INDUSTRY

Women Workers in Power Laundries. Bull. 215. 71 pp. 1947. 20¢. The Woman Telephone Worker [1944]. Bull. 207. 28 pp. 1946. 10¢. Typical Women's Jobs in the Telephone Industry [1944]. Bull. 207-A. 52 pp.

1947. 15¢. Women in Radio. Bull. 222. 30 pp. 1948. 15¢.

COST OF LIVING BUDGETS

Working Women's Budgets in Twelve States. Bull. 226. (In press.)

LABOR LAWS

Summary of State Labor Laws for Women. 7 pp. 1947. Mimeo.

Minimum Wage

State Minimum-Wage Laws and Orders, 1942: An Analysis. Bull. 191. 52 pp. 1942. 20¢. Supplements through 1947. Mimeo.

State Minimum-Wage Laws. Leaflet 1. 1948.

Map showing States having minimum-wage laws. (Desk size; wall size.)

Equal Pay

Equal Pay for Women. Leaflet 2. 1947. (Rev. 1948.) Chart analyzing State equal-pay laws and Model Bill. Mimeo. Also complete text of State laws (separates). Mimeo. Selected References on Equal Pay for Women. 9 pp. 1947. Mimeo.

Hours of Work and Other Labor Laws

State Labor Laws for Women, with Wartime Modifications, Dec. 15, 1944. Bull. 202. (Supplements through 1947. Mimeo.)

I. Analysis of Hour Laws. 110 pp. 1945. 15¢.

II. Analysis of Plant Facilities Laws. 43 pp. 1945. 10¢.

III. Analysis of Regulatory Laws, Prohibitory Laws, Maternity Laws.

12 pp. 1945. 5¢.

IV. Analysis of Industrial Home-Work Laws. 26 pp. 1945. 10¢.
V. Explanation and Appraisal. 66 pp. 1946. 15¢.

Map of United States showing State hour laws. (Desk size; wall size.)

LEGAL STATUS OF WOMEN

International Documents on the Status of Women. Bull. 217. 116 pp. 1947. 25¢.

Legal Status of Women in the United States of America.

United States Summary, January 1938. Bull. 157. 89 pp. 1941. 15¢. Cumulative Supplement 1938–45. Bull. 157–A. 31 pp. 1946. 10¢.

Pamphlet for each State and District of Columbia (separates). 5¢ ea. Women's Eligibility for Jury Duty. Leaflet. 1947.

WOMEN IN LATIN AMERICA

Women Workers in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay. Bull. 195. 15 pp. 1942. 5c.

Women Workers in Brazil. Bull. 206. 42 pp. 1946. 10¢.

Women Workers in Paraguay. Bull, 210. 16 pp. 1946. 10¢. Women Workers in Peru. Bull, 213. 41 pp. 1947. 10¢.

Social and Labor Problems of Peru and Uruguay. 1944. Mimeo. Women in Latin America: Legal Rights and Restrictions. (Address before the National Association of Women Lawyers.)

RECOMMENDED STANDARDS for women's working conditions, safety and health:

Standards of Employment for Women. Leaflet 1. 1946. 5¢ ea. or \$2 per 100. When You Hire Women. Sp. Bull. 14. 16 pp. 1944. 10¢. The Industrial Nurse and the Woman Worker. Sp. Bull. 19. 47 pp. 1944.

10¢.

Women's Effective War Work Requires Good Posture. Sp. Bull. 10. 6 pp. 1943. 5¢.

Washing and Toilet Facilities for Women in Industry. Sp. Bull. 4. 11 pp. 1942. 5¢.

Lifting and Carrying Weights by Women in Industry. Sp. Bull. 2. Rev. 1942. 12 pp. 5¢.

Safety Clothing for Women in Industry. Sp. Bull. 3. 11 pp. 1941. 10¢. Supplements; Safety Caps; Safety Shoes. 4 pp. ea. 1944. 5¢ ea. Night Work: Bibliography. 39 pp. 1946. Multilith.

WOMEN UNDER UNION CONTRACTS

Maternity-Benefits under Union-Contract Health Insurance Plans. Bull. 214. 19 pp. 1947. 10¢.

HOUSEHOLD EMPLOYMENT

Old-Age Insurance for Household Employees. Bull. 220. 20 pp. 1947. 10¢. Community Household Employment Programs. Bull. 221. 70 pp. 1948. 20c.

REPORTS OF WOMEN IN WARTIME

16 reports on women's employment in wartime industries; part-time employment; equal pay; community services; recreation and housing for women war workers; and the following:

Changes in Women's Employment During the War. Sp. Bull. 20, 29 pp. 1944. 10¢.

Women's Wartime Hours of Work-The Effect on Their Factory Performance and Home Life. Bull. 208. 187 pp. 1947. 35¢.

Women Workers in Ten War Production Areas and Their Postwar Employ-

ment Plans. Bull. 209. 56 pp. 1946. 15g.

Negro Women War Workers. Bull. 205. 23 pp. 1945. 10g.

Employment Opportunities in Characteristic Industrial Occupations of Women. Bull. 201. 50 pp. 1944. 10g.

Employment and Housing Problems of Migratory Workers in New York and New Jersey Canning Industries, 1943. Bull. 198. 85 pp. 1944. 10c. Industrial Injuries to Women [1945]. Bull. 212. 25 pp. 1947. 10c.

REPORTS ON WOMEN WORKERS IN PREWAR YEARS: Women at work (a

century of industrial change); women's economic status as compared to men's: women workers in their family environment (Cleveland, and Utah); women's employment in certain industries (clothing, canneries, laundries, offices, government service); State-wide survey of women's employment in various States; economic status of university women.

THE WOMEN'S BUREAU—Its Purpose and Functions. Leaflet. 1946. Women's Bureau Conference, 1948. Bull, 224. 210 pp. 1948.

Write the Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington 25, D. C., for complete list of publications available for distribution.

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