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Women's Bureau 1950

HANDBOOK OF FACTS ON

Women Workers

BULLETIN NO. 237

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

AN ACT TO ESTABLISH IN THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR A BUREAU TO BE KNOWN AS

THE WOMEN'S BUREAU

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there shall be established in the Department of Labor a bureau to be known as the Women's Bureau.

Sec. 2. That the said bureau shall be in charge of a director, a woman, to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, who shall receive an annual compensation of \$5,000.\(^1\) It shall be the duty of said bureau to formulate standards and policies which shall promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment. The said bureau shall have authority to investigate and report to the said department upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of women in industry. The director of said bureau may from time to time publish the results of these investigations in such a manner and to such extent as the Secretary of Labor may prescribe.

Sec. 3. That there shall be in said bureau an assistant director, to be appointed by the Secretary of Labor, who shall receive an annual compensation of \$3,500 ¹ and shall perform such duties as shall be prescribed by the director

and approved by the Secretary of Labor.

SEC. 4. That there is hereby authorized to be employed by said bureau a chief clerk and such special agents, assistants, clerks, and other employees at such rates of compensation and in such numbers as Congress may from time to time provide by appropriations.

Sec. 5. That the Secretary of Labor is hereby directed to furnish sufficient quarters, office furniture, and equipment

for the work of this bureau.

SEC. 6. That this act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

Approved, June 5, 1920.

Public No. 259, 66th Congress (H. R. 13229).

 $^{^{1}\,\}mathrm{Amount}$ increased by Reclassification Act of March 4, 1923, as amended and supplemented.

1950

HANDBOOK OF FACTS ON

Women Workers

BULLETIN NO. 237

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
Maurice J. Tobin, Secretary

WOMEN'S BUREAU, Frieda S. Miller, Director

United States Government Printing Office, Washington: 1950

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

United States Department of Labor,
Women's Bureau,
Washington, May 29, 1950.

Sir: I have the honor of transmitting a handbook of facts relating to women workers. It brings up to date the Handbook issued 2 years ago, which has been in great demand as a source book, and which has permitted the Women's Bureau to reply, promptly and without the need for individual handling, to many recurring requests for information of a general nature. Present demand and plans call for issuing the handbook biennially. All divisions of the Bureau contributed to this year's revision; new material is primarily the work of Mary E. Pidgeon of the Economic Studies Branch. Respectfully submitted.

FRIEDA S. MILLER, Director.

Hon. Maurice J. Tobin, Secretary of Labor.

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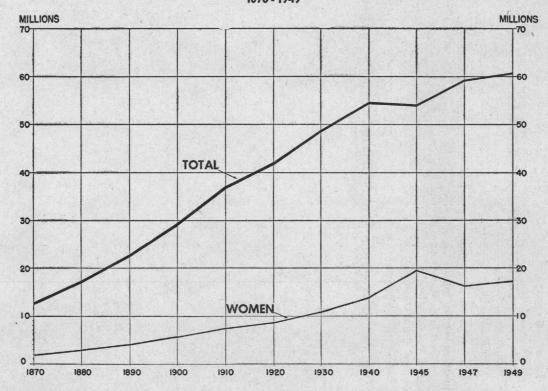
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WOMEN WORKERS AND ALL WORKERS 1870 - 1949



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN 1

INCREASES IN NUMBER OF WOMEN WORKERS, 1870 TO 1949

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. Every decade thereafter, however, the census showed a rise in their numbers. In 1949 the labor force contained over 17 million women—a figure a third or more above the entire number of all workers, men and women, in 1870.

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, and in 1949 they were more than 28 percent of all the workers. (See chart, p. 20.)

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 1949 more than 30 percent were members of the labor force.

¹ Notes on figures used: Figures are based chiefly on census data, in a few cases including unpublished census material. Figures adjusted by the Census to make those of different periods comparable are used where necessary and available. Figures refer to women 14 years of age and over, except in the section of table 1 that reports on women 10 years of age and over. For the most part, census data are for the spring of the year. (The exceptions occur (1) in table 1: decennial censuses for 1870–1900 and 1920 were taken in January or June, and data for October 1949 are included; and (2) in table 4, which uses data for October, the month the Census of Manufactures was taken.) Figures on factory employment are from a Bureau of Labor Statistics report (for September 1949) and from the Census of Manufactures. For a more detailed discussion of occupations, see Women's Bureau Bull. 218, Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades.

Year	Number	Percent of all	Percent of all
		workers	women
Aged 10 years and over:			
1870	1, 917, 446	14.8	13.3
1880	2, 647, 157	15. 2	14.7
1890	4,005,532	17. 2	17.4
1900	5, 319, 397	18.3	18.8
1910	7, 444, 787	19.9	21.
1920	8, 636, 512	20.4	21.
1930	10, 752, 116	22.0	22. (
Aged 14 years and over:			
1900	5, 114, 461	18.1	20.
1910	7, 788, 826	20.9	25.
1920	8, 429, 707	20.4	23.3
1930	10, 679, 048	22.0	24. 3
1930 1	10, 396, 000	21.9	23.6
1940 1	13, 015, 000	24. 4	25.
1940 2	13, 840, 000	25. 4	27.
1945	19, 570, 000	36.1	36.
1947	16, 320, 000	27.6	29.8
1949:	17 107 000	00.0	00.4
April October	17, 167, 000 18, 588, 000	28. 2 29. 7	30.

¹ Labor force figures for 1930 estimated and for 1940 adjusted by the Census Bureau to make them com-

parable.

2 Civilian labor force figures for 1940 adjusted by the Census Bureau to make them comparable with those for later years.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census reports. Figures 1870 through 1940 are shown in Women's Bureau Bull. 218, Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades.

CHIEF OCCUPATION GROUPS EMPLOYING WOMEN

CHANGES IN NUMBERS EMPLOYED, 1940 TO 1949

In most occupation groups the number of women increased from 1940 to 1949. The greatest increases were those of more than 2 million among clerical and kindred workers and of over 1 million among operatives and kindred workers. The number of sales workers and of service workers (except domestic) increased each by more than ½ million, farm workers by about ½ million. Two relatively small occupation groups also showed increases—proprietors, managers, and officials (except farm), and craftsmen and foremen.

The number of women decreased from 1940 to 1949 in three occupation groups. The greatest decline, approaching ½ million, occurred among the domestic service workers. The professional and semiprofessional group also showed some decline, and the small group of laborers declined.

Table 2.—Changes in number of women in each occupation group, 1940 to 1949

Occupation group	Number	of women	Change, 1940 to 1949		
	1940 1	1949	Number	Percent	
All groups	11, 920, 000	16, 356, 000	+4, 436, 000	+37	
Clerical, kindred workers Operatives, kindred workers Domestic service workers Professional, semiprofessional workers Service workers (except domestic) Sales workers Farmers, farm workers Proprietors, managers, officials (except farm) Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers Laborers (except farm)	2, 530, 000 2, 190, 000 2, 100, 000 1, 570, 000 1, 350, 000 830, 000 690, 000 450, 000 110, 000	4, 542, 000, 3, 199, 000, 1, 666, 000, 1, 477, 000, 1, 911, 000, 1, 386, 000, 1, 057, 000, 867, 000, 165, 000, 85, 000	+2,012,000 +1,009,000 -434,000 -93,000 +561,000 +556,000 +367,000 +417,000 +55,000 -15,000	$ \begin{array}{r} +80 \\ +46 \\ -21 \\ -6 \\ +42 \\ +67 \\ +53 \\ +93 \\ +50 \\ -15 \\ \end{array} $	

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

DISTRIBUTION IN OCCUPATION GROUPS

In 1949 nearly half the women workers were in the clerical and operative groups, nearly a fourth were in service groups, and almost a tenth were in the professional and semiprofessional group. Smaller fractions were in each of the other groups.

The proportion who were in the clerical and in the operative groups combined increased from 39 percent of all women workers in 1940 to 48 percent in 1949. The proportion in the combined service groups declined from 29 percent of the total in 1940 to 22 percent in 1949. A

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census reports.

OCCUPATIONS OF WOMEN WORKERS, OCTOBER 1949

Kankankan kankankan kankankan kan CLERICAL AND KINDRED WORKERS **OPERATIVES AND** KINDRED WORKERS PPP PP SERVICE WORKERS **EXCEPT DOMESTIC** PROFESSIONAL AND 4444 44 SEMIPROFESSIONAL WORKERS *** **DOMESTIC SERVICE** WORKERS **FARMERS AND FARM WORKERS** MANAGERS, PROPRIETORS, **OFFICIALS** EACH SYMBOL REPRESENTS 350,000 WOMEN.

SOURCE: BUREAU OF THE CENSUS

OTHER OCCUPATIONS

smaller proportion than in 1940 was in the professional group in 1949, and a slightly larger proportion than in 1940 was in the group of saleswomen, as well as in that of proprietors and managers. Farm workers were in the same proportion both years, as was the craftsmen group.

PROPORTION OF WORKERS IN EACH OCCUPATION GROUP WHO ARE WOMEN

Women constituted over 90 percent of the domestic service workers in 1949, over 60 percent of the clerical workers, about 40 percent each of the professional, of the sales, and of the service (other than domestic) workers, and nearly 30 percent of the operatives. In other groups smaller proportions of the workers were women.

During World War II the proportion of workers who were women increased in all occupation groups save that of domestic service workers, and in some groups increased quite markedly. After the war, the proportion of workers who were women declined in every occupation group, but in most groups still remained larger than in the prewar period. The excepted groups were the domestic service, the professional, and the small group of craftsmen, foremen, and laborers; each of these had a smaller proportion of women among its workers after than before the war.

Table 3.—Status of women in each occupation group before, during, and after World War II

	Women employed							
- Coordinated Store	Percent of all persons in the occupation group				Percent distribution			
	1940	1945	1947	1949	1940	1945	1947	1949
All groups	26	36	28	28	100	100	100	100
Clerical, kindred workers Operatives, kindred workers Domestic service workers Professional, semiprofessional workers	53 26 94 45	70 38 94 46	59 28 92 40	61 28 92 37	21 18 18 18	25 24 9	26 22 11	28 20 10
Service workers (except domestic) Sales workers Farmers, farm workers	40 28 8	48 54 22	44 40 12	44 38 14	11 7 6	8 10 8 10	10 11 8 6	9 12 8 6
Proprietors, managers, officials (except farm). Craftsmen, foremen, kindred; laborers (except farm).	12	17 5	14 2	14 2	4 2	4 2	5 1	5 2

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census reports.

IMPORTANT INDIVIDUAL OCCUPATIONS

Of course the 451 individual occupations reported in the Census of 1940 could be considered in an almost endless variety of ways. Various types of groupings or rearrangements of these occupations continually are made for one use or another, or special kinds of occupations are selected for some particular use. The present discussion is limited to pointing out those individual occupations that employ the largest numbers of women, and those in which women constitute the larger proportion of the workers (in 1940, the latest date for which a detailed occupation list is available).

Occupations employing 100,000 or more women, 1940

	remains the male of the test of the second		employed
Rank	Occupation	Number	Percent of all persons in the occu- pation
1	Servants, private family	1, 420, 469	91
2	Stenographers, typists, secretaries	988, 081	
3	Teachers (not elsewhere classified)	772, 044	
4	Clerical, kindred workers (not elsewhere classi-		
	fied)	630, 471	36
5	Saleswomen (not elsewhere classified)	515, 539	41
6	Bookkeepers, accountants, cashiers	446, 205	52
7	Operatives, apparel, accessories	425, 534	78
8	Housekeepers, private family	362, 431	99
9	Waitresses (except private family)	356, 036	68
10	Trained nurses, student nurses	348, 277	99
11	Farm laborers (unpaid family workers)	223, 279	19
12	Barbers, beauticians, manicurists	206, 592	50
13	"Clerks" in stores	201, 281	43
14	Telephone operators	189, 002	95
15	Laundresses, private family	186, 183	98
16	Servants (except private family) 1	174, 724	55
17	Laundry operatives, laundresses (except private		
	family)	167, 967	78
18	Operatives, cotton manufactures	167, 155	47
19	Farmers (owners and tenants)	151, 087	3
20	Dressmakers, seamstresses (not in factory)	133, 627	- 98
21	Cooks (except private family)	116, 310	42
22	Operatives, knit goods	115, 106	67
23	Boarding house, lodginghouse keepers	100, 355	91

¹ The Census classification term necessarily is used here. The Women's Bureau has been working with the Census to develop a classification term to supplant "servants." Accordingly, in the 1950 Census, "household workers" will be used.

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

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

in the labor force who were not employed at the time the census was taken).

Among the five occupations that employ the largest numbers of women, that of "servants, private family," with almost 1½ million women, ranks first. Nearly 1 million women were stenographers, typists, or secretaries, and almost two-thirds million were in other clerical work. Over three-fourths million were teachers, and one-half million were saleswomen.

In eight of the occupations that employed 100,000 or more women, women constituted over nine-tenths of all the workers; in three they constituted about three-fourths of the workers; and in five others, about a half.

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.

Occupations in which women are a large proportion of the workers, 1940

I. OCCUPATIONS EMPLOYING 100,000 OR MORE WOMEN 1

Women are more than nine-tenths of these workers:	Percent of all persons in the occupation
Housekeepers, private family	
Dressmakers, seamstresses (not in factory)	98
Laundresses, private family	98
Trained nurses, student nurses	98
Trained nurses, student nurses Telephone operators	9f
Stenographers, typists, secretaries	94
Servants, private family	
Boardinghouse, lodginghouse keepers	
- survival and the state of the	31
Women are about three-fourths of these workers:	
Laundry operatives, laundresses (except private family) Operatives, apparel, accessories	78 78
Teachers (not elsewhere classified)	76
Women are about two-thirds of these workers;	
Waitresses (except private family)	68
Waitresses (except private family) Operatives, knit goods	67
Women are about half of these workers:	
Servants (except private family)	55
Bookkeepers, accountants, cashiers	52
Barbers, beauticians, manicurists	
Operatives, cotton manufactures	
¹ Excludes two occupations in which women are a small proportion	

farmers (3 percent) and farm laborers (19 percent).

7

889859°-50-3

Women are about two-fifths of these workers: "Clerks" in stores	
Cooks (except private family)	4
Saleswomen (not elsewhere classified)	
Clerical, kindred workers (not elsewhere classified)	3
II. SELECTED 2 OCCUPATIONS EMPLOYING LESS THAN 100,000	Women
Practical nurses, midwives (87,200)	9
Attendants, physicians' and dentists' offices (27,900)	8
Milliners (not in factory) (10,500)	9
Librarians (32,500)	9
Office machine operators (51,500)	8
Demonstrators (7,400)	8
Dancers, dancing teachers, chorus girls (9,000)	8
Housekeepers, stewards, hostesses (except private family) (62,400	
Attendants, assistants, library (7,000)	7
Religious workers (25,900)	7
Social, welfare workers (44,800)	(
Fruit and vegetable graders, packers (except cannery) (12,800)	
Attendants, professional and personal service (not elsewhere cla	ssified)
Charwomen, cleaners (36,900)	

² Excludes all occupations in which women were less than half the workers. Excludes also occupations under "operatives and kindred workers in manufacturing," in some of which over 50,000 women were employed, and/or in some of which women were over half the workers. Included is the occupation "musicians and music teachers," because it is one professional occupation that employs a sizable number of women who are also a large percentage of all the workers.

Musicians, music teachers (59,500)_____

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

CHIEF INDUSTRY GROUPS EMPLOYING WOMEN

Of the 10 chief woman-employing industry groups, the one that employed the largest number of women was domestic and personal service, with nearly 3 million women (in 1940, the latest date for which data on chief industry groups are available). Each of two other groups—manufacturing and trade (wholesale and retail together)—employed over 2 million, 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 one-half million women—agriculture; and finance, insurance,

and real estate. Two other groups each employed over one-third 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 and 3 and also summaries pp. 6-8.)

Women in each industry group, 1940

Women employed

Industry group		Percent of all persons in the industry group	Percent distri- bution
All groups	11, 138, 178	25	100
Domestic, personal services Manufacturing Trade (wholesale, retail) Professional, related services Agriculture Finance, insurance, real estate Transportation, communication, other pub-	2, 875, 762 2, 322, 252 2, 029, 540 1, 845, 128 485, 373 454, 300	22 27 56 6	26 21 18 17 4 4
lic utilities Government Other services: Amusement, recreation, related services	345, 086 339, 418 79, 279	19	3 3
Business, répair All other 1 Industry not reported	76, 877 46, 897 238, 266	9 2	(2) 2

¹ Includes construction, mining, forestry, and fishing.
² Less than one-half of 1 percent.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Census of 1940. Population, Vol. III. The Labor Force. Part 1, United States Summary, table 74.

IMPORTANT INDIVIDUAL INDUSTRIES

In only 3 of 23 individual industries, each of which employed over 100,000 women in 1940, did the proportion women constituted of the work force approach two-thirds. In domestic service nearly ninetenths 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 three-fifths of the workers were women.

Individual industries employing 100,000 or more women, 1940

	Women	employed
Industry	Number	Percent of all persons in the industry
Domestic service	2, 059, 936	89
Educational services	1, 020, 891	65
Medical, other health services	593, 244	58
Apparel, accessories manufacturing	488, 807	67
Eating, drinking places	478, 640	43
General merchandise stores	422, 213	59
Miscellaneous personal services	313, 056	46
Hotels, lodging places	285, 900	52
Hotels, lodging placesFood stores (except dairy products)	266, 217	20
Laundering, cleaning, dyeing services	216, 870	49
Apparel, accessories stores (except shoes)	208, 582	50
State, local government (not elsewhere classified)	199, 625	24
Telephone (wire and radio)	189, 919	60
Insurance	186, 137	36
Cotton manufactures	183, 571	38
Wholesale trade	181, 847	15
Banking, other finance	145, 996	31
Charitable, religious, membership organizations	135, 241	35
Printing, publishing, allied industries	129, 094	21
Knit goods manufacturing	127, 263	59
Real estate	122, 167	26
Footwear manufacturing (except rubber)	107, 436	43
Electrical machinery, equipment manufacturing	101, 201	27

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census, Census of 1940. Population, Vol. III, The Labor Force. Part 1, United States Summary, table 74.

EMPLOYMENT IN FACTORIES

Figures later than those of the 1940 Census are available for one major industry group, manufacturing, and for various individual industries that compose this group. Factories employed over a fifth of all women workers in 1940, more than are in any other industry except domestic and personal service.

Nearly 4 million women in the United States were employed in factories in 1949, according to current reports of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. About half of the 4 million were at work on apparel, textile-mill products, or foods; together with women workers in the electrical machinery industry, in printing and publishing, and in leather plants, they account for nearly two-thirds of all women in factories. The number of women in each of the various industry groups, and the proportion women constitute of all employees in each group, are shown in the following list. Figures include all women employed in the factories, office as well as production workers.

Women wage and salaried workers in chief manufacturing industries, September 1949

	Women i	n factories
Industry	Number	Percent of all persons in the industry
All groups	3, 810, 200	27
Nondurable goods Apparel, other finished textile products Textile-mill products Food, kindred products Printing, publishing, allied industries Leather, leather products Chemicals, allied products Paper, allied products Tobacco manufactures Rubber products Products of petroleum, coal	2, 614, 900 891, 800 523, 100 466, 200 192, 100 182, 700 121, 400 108, 000 61, 400 56, 700	38 75 43 27 27 46 19 24 61 27
	11, 500	5
Durable goods	1, 195, 300 251, 400 162, 800	16 34 13
machinery, transportation equipment) Transportation equipment Instruments, related products Stone, clay, glass products Primary metal industries Lumber, wood products (except furniture) Furniture, fixtures Ordnance, accessories	154, 800 128, 100 78, 500 77, 100 57, 100 51, 900 4, 100	18 10 34 16 5 7 16
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics repo	177, 600	41

Of all factory employees in 1949, women were well over a fourth. In each of the following 10 manufacturing industries they made up from nearly one-fourth to three-fourths of the employees:

in the second of	Percent		Percent
	women		women
	vere of		were of
	all	的现在分词的	all
	vorkers		workers
Apparel		Instruments	34
Tobacco	61	Food	27
Leather	46	Rubber	27
Textile mill products	43	Printing and publishing	27
Electrical machinery	. 34	Paper	24

Earlier data from the Census of Manufactures of 1947 (released in August 1949) indicates that four-fifths of all women in factories are production workers. The remainder are probably in factory offices for the most part, and in administrative, supervisory, technical, and sales occupations in small numbers. The proportion of employees who are production workers differs markedly from industry to industry. For example, over nine-tenths of the women employees in 1947 in tobacco, apparel, textile, and leather factories were production workers. On the other hand, only about half or fewer of the women employees in printing and publishing, primary metals, and machinery (except electrical) plants were engaged on production processes. Data on women production and nonproduction workers in factories in 1947 are shown in table 4.

Table 4.—Women in manufacturing industries, 1947

Number 3, 094, 800 760, 500		Number 740, 400	Percent of all women in the industry
760, 500			19
71, 300 95, 500 66, 200 63, 500 65, 400 72, 500 51, 700 26, 900	45 288 40 222 9 46 16 15 24 7 36 63 25 3	50, 300 31, 200 77, 000 55, 500 94, 200 15, 100 47, 100 48, 800 48, 200 15, 300 2, 000 14, 500 32, 100 44, 000	19 18 56 44 42 20 41 11 42 22 22 22 56
	131, 500 71, 300 95, 500 96, 200 66, 200 63, 500 65, 400 72, 500 51, 700 10, 26, 900 40, 200	131,500 16 71,300 15 0 95,500 24 0 66,200 7 0 63,500 36 0 65,400 16 0 72,500 63 0 51,700 25 0 26,900 3 0 40,200 14 0 25,800 5	131,500 16 47,100 171,300 15 48,800 195,500 24 19,600 166,200 7 48,200 163,500 36 17,900 163,500 63 2,000 172,500 63 2,000 174,500 63 2,000 175,500

¹ Includes administrative, supervisory, sales, technical, office, and all other personnel.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Census of Manufactures: 1947. Preliminary report: Employment by Type, by Sex, and by Month. Series MC 100-7. Aug. 12, 1949.

AGES OF WOMEN WORKERS

The striking development in the age distribution of women workers is the marked increase in the number of those 35 years of age and older. It is well known that the number of women workers in this age group grew greatly in wartime, but less well known that it continued to grow in the postwar years. This continuing increase results partly from the fact that the number of women of 35 and over in the population as a whole has increased, but also from the fact that larger proportions of the women of these ages have entered the labor force than formerly.

The 1949 labor force included nearly 2½ million more women 35 to 54 years old than did the 1940 labor force, nearly one-third million more girls under 20, and about one-third million fewer women 20 to 34 years old. Women aged 35 to 54 were almost three-fourths of all the women workers added to the labor force from 1940 to 1949.

In terms of the proportion of their number in the labor force, the greatest increase from 1940 to 1949 occurred in the group of women 45 to 64 years of age. When the war demand for workers arose, these women 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 they were in a position to enter the labor force to a larger extent than were the 20- to 34-year olds.

Table 5.—Changes in number of women workers in each age group, 1940 to 1949

Age group		of women kers	Change, 1940 to 1949		
	1940	1949	Number	Percent	
All groups	13, 840, 000	17, 167, 000	+3, 327, 000	+24	
	1, 460, 000	1, 767, 000	+307, 000	+21	
	2, 820, 000	2, 484, 000	-336, 000	-12	
	1 3, 840, 000	3, 880, 000	+40, 000	+1	
35-44	1 2, 660, 000	3, 898, 000	+1, 238, 000	+1 $+47$ $+65$ $+75$ $+64$	
45-54	1, 830, 000	3, 027, 000	+1, 197, 000		
55-64	920, 000	1, 605, 000	+685, 000		
65 and over	310, 000	509, 000	+199, 000		

 $^{^1}$ Census adjusted figures did not break down the 25–44 age group into 25–34 and 35–44 age groups; figures here are a distribution based on the breakdown reported in earlier Census unadjusted figures.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census reports.

Women 20 to 34 years old were nearly half the female labor force in 1940 but were less than two-fifths of it in 1949. On the other hand, the proportion who were 35 to 54 years old increased from less than a

third in 1940 to over two-fifths in 1949. Both in 1940 and 1949 about a tenth of the women workers were under 20, and in 1949 a somewhat larger proportion than this were 55 or older.

Women of all ages except those 20 to 34 were participating in the labor force to a greater extent in 1949 than in 1950; particularly great increases in labor force participation are found among those 35 to 54, and among girls under 20. In most age groups, the proportions of the women who were at work in 1949 were smaller than they had been at the war peak but larger than before the war. In the 20- to 34-age groups, however, the proportion at work in 1949 was smaller than in the prewar period; and in the small group 65 and over, the proportion at work was as great as during the war. 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.

Table 6.—Age groupings of women workers before, during, and after World War II

Age group	Percent of all women in each age group who were workers			Percent distribution of women				
arting to the shirt out a	1940	1945	1947	1949	1940	1945	1947	1949
All groups	27	37	30	31	100	100	100	100
14-19 20-24 25-34	20 48 35	40 56 41	28 44 31	28 42 33	11 20 28 19	14 17 23 20 15	11 17 22 22 22	10 14 23 23
35–44 45–54 55–64 65 and over	29 24 18 7	41 37 27 9	36 33 23 8	37 35 24 9	19 13 7 2	20 15 8 3	22 16 9 3	28 18 9

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census reports.

MARITAL STATUS OF WOMEN WORKERS

WOMEN OF EACH MARITAL STATUS GROUP WHO ARE WORKERS

In 1949 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 nearly a fourth of the married women.

MARITAL STATUS OF ALL WOMEN AND OF WOMEN WORKERS

Single women constituted 20 percent of the woman population in 1949 but were 33 percent of the women in the labor force. Married women were 66 percent of the adult female population and 51 percent of the women in the labor force. Widows and divorced women were 14 percent of the woman population, 16 percent of the female labor force.

Table 7.—Changes in number and distribution of women in each marital status group, in population and in labor force, 1940 to 1949

Marital status	Number	of women	Percent change,	Percent distribution		
MICHINGI SVANIA	1940	1949	1940 to 1949	1940	1949	
Population					Page 1	
All groups	50, 140, 000	56, 001, 000	+12	100	100	
Single Married Widowed and divorced	13, 733, 000 29, 973, 000 6, 434, 000	11, 174, 000 37, 013, 000 7, 815, 000	$-19 \\ +23 \\ +21$	27 60 13	20 66 14	
LABOR FORCE						
All groups	13, 840, 000	17, 167, 000	+24	100	100	
Single Married Widowed and divor ed	6, 710, 000 5, 040, 000 2, 090, 000	5, 682, 000 8, 739, 000 2, 746, 000	$ \begin{array}{r} -15 \\ +73 \\ +31 \end{array} $	49 36 15	38 51 16	

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census reports.

MARITAL STATUS IN WARTIME AND POSTWAR PERIODS

About half the nearly 14 million single women and a sixth of the nearly 30 million married women were already in employment in 1940, before the war.

During the war great pressure was exerted to bring additional numbers of women into the labor force. At the same time, the number of married women in the population was increasing markedly, the number of single declining. Furthermore, many of the older married women were beyond the years when family care absorbs most of a woman's time and energy, husbands of the more recently married were in the armed forces, and the desire to be of service in the country's

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emergency was general. Consequently, very many more married than single women were available to meet the wartime needs for labor-force increases.

The proportion of the country's single women who were workers increased from 49 percent in 1940 to 55 percent during the war (1944) and the proportion of the married women who were workers, from 17 to 23 percent. In view of the far greater number of married women in the population, theirs was a much more significant numerical increase. (See table 8.)

Table 8.—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				Percen	t distribi worl	ntion of v	vomen
	1940	1944	1947	1949	1940	1944	1947	1949
All groups	28	32	30	31	100	100	100	100
Single	49 17 33	55 23 32	52 22 36	51 24 35	49 36 15	43 44 13	38 46 16	33 51 16

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census reports.

In the postwar period, as compared with the war period, a smaller proportion both of the single and of the married women, and a larger proportion of the widowed and divorced, were in the labor force. (The last-mentioned group, of course, would include those widowed during the war.) However, the labor force participation of each marital status group was greater after than before the war.

The 1949 increase over 1940 in the number of married women in the population was 23 percent, but in the labor force was much greater—73 percent. The number of single women declined 19 percent in the population but only 15 percent in the labor force.

WORKING COUPLES

The number of married couples in the population has increased greatly since the prewar period, and many more couples than formerly have both spouses in the labor force. The number of couples in the population with husband the head of the family increased from 26% million in 1940 to over 33 million in 1949. Of these couples, the proportion with both spouses in the labor force increased from 10 percent (almost 3 million couples) in 1940 to 20 percent (over 6½ million couples) in 1949. Actually, more than 7 million couples had both spouses in the labor force in 1949; but for about 2% million of these couples the husband was not the family head (as, for example, among young couples living with parents).

MOTHERS IN THE LABOR FORCE

The exact number of working women responsible for young children is difficult to ascertain. Available data report on married women with children of their own and take no account of women responsible for the care of children other than their own. The number of such women probably is considerable, especially since the war, and includes both married and single women.

Census data for 1949, presented in the summary below, show that of 44½ million women in the population who ever have been married, somewhat over half had no children of their own who were under 18 years of age. The remainder, nearly 21½ million women, had own children under 18, and 12½ million of these had children under 6 years of age.

Of the 44½ million women ever married, nearly 11½ million were in the labor force. Of these, over 7 million had no own children under 18, and 4⅓ million had children under 18.

. The $4\frac{1}{3}$ million mothers (with children under 18) who were in the labor force were:

Less than 1 in 10 of all women ever married in the population. Somewhat more than 1 in 3 of all working women ever married. About 1 in 4 of all women workers.

Labor force participation of women ever married, by whether or not having own children under 18, 1949

Status as to children	Number of	women in—	Percent in labor
	Population	Labor force	force
All women	56, 001, 000	17, 167, 000	31
Women ever married	44, 828, 000	11, 485, 000	26
With no children under 18	23, 520, 000	7, 152, 000	30
Total with own children under 18	21, 308, 000	4, 333, 000	20
With children 6–17 only	8, 816, 000	2, 710, 000	31
With children under 6	12, 492, 000	1, 623, 000	13
under 6	5, 498, 000	760, 000	. 14
With children under 6 only	6, 994, 000	862, 000	12

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, Labor Force. Series P-50, No. 22, Apr. 19, 1950. Tables 3 and 4.

Mothers of children who have not yet reached school age (that is, of children under 6 years of age) are considerably less free to accept employment than mothers whose children have attained school age (6 to 17 years). Similarly, mothers of children of elementary school age (6 to 11 years) do not as readily accept jobs as mothers of older children (12 to 17 years). These statements, as well as the discussion which follows, relate to mothers living in the same households with their husbands.

In 1949 only about 10 percent of all women living with their husbands who had children of preschool age but none of school age were in the labor force. In contrast, about 27 percent of those with children of school age but none of preschool age were working mothers.

Mothers whose children were all of elementary school age (6 to 11 years) were members of the labor force in about 25 percent of the cases. This percentage rose to 31 among those whose children were all beyond elementary school age (12 to 17 years). Mothers of older children, in fact, were just as likely to be workers as married women with no children under 18. This fact, however, does not necessarily mean that the presence of children of beyond elementary school age has no effect on the labor force participation of the mother. Women without children under 18 may be concentrated to a larger extent than those with children 12 to 17 years of age in the older age groups where labor force participation tends to decline for other reasons.

Mothers of preschool-age children were more likely to be in the labor force if older children were also present. Further, it is likely that labor force participation of mothers with preschool-age children is significantly greater only if the other children in the household are all children who are beyond elementary school age.

The absence of the husband from the family tends to increase markedly the necessity for the mother to seek employment, as the summary following shows. Among all mothers with own children under 18, of those with husbands present 18 percent were in the labor force, but of those with husbands absent 51 percent had gone to work. Where all children were under school age, only 10 percent of the mothers were in the labor force if the husband was at home, but half those whose husbands were absent had to work.

Labor force participation of women ever married, by presence or absence of husband, 1949

	Percent of women in labor force						
Status as to children	Total		Widowed or with husband absent				
All women ever married	26	23	37				
With no own children under 18With own children under 18	30 20	29 18	34 51				
With children 6-17 only With children both 6-17 and under 6 With children under 6 only	31 14 12	27 12 10	57 39 47				

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, Labor Force. Series P-50, No. 22, Apr. 19, 1950. Table 4.

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 1949, a woman was the head of about 3¾ million of this country's families (two or more related persons living together).

Before the war, the number of families with a woman head was increasing. Constituting 9.4 percent of all families in the country in 1930, such families were 11.0 percent of all families by 1940. It is not surprising that in spite of the accelerated marriage rate, the number of families with women heads increased sharply during the war, for men in the armed services were not counted as members of families unless living at home off post. In the postwar period, hand in hand with the return home of men from the war and the continuing increases in numbers of married women in the population, there was a decline in the extent to which women headed the family. In 1949 women were about a tenth of all family heads—a smaller proportion than in 1940. In 1949, also, not far from a third of the women family heads had families of four or more persons.

Evidence on prewar years showed that the percent of women family heads was appreciably higher among the underprivileged than in the Nation as a whole.

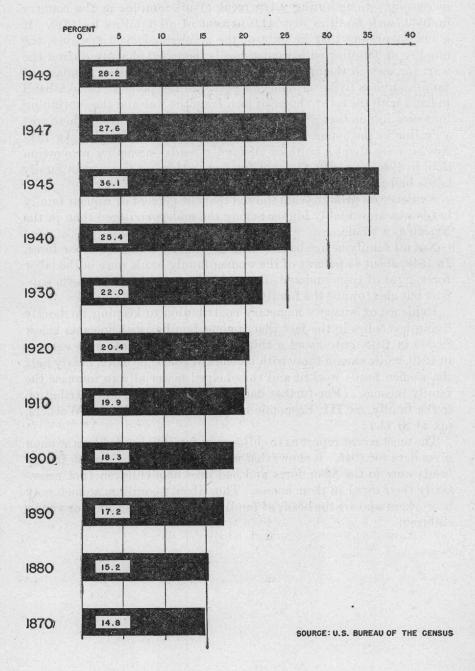
Not all family heads, be they men or women, are in the labor force. In 1949, about 45 percent of the women family heads were in the labor force, most of them undoubtedly working not only for their own support but also toward the family's maintenance.

Evidence of women's monetary contribution to keeping up family living levels lies in the fact that, among families with incomes below \$2,000 in 1948, only about a third of the women heads were earners in 1949, while among those with incomes of \$3,000 or more, nearly half the women heads worked and thus helped materially to increase the family income. (For further data on women's financial contribution to the family, see III, Economic Responsibilities of Women Workers, pp. 41 to 44.)

The most recent report as to children in families headed by a woman gives data for 1946. It shows that nearly a tenth of the women family heads were in the labor force and had preschool children (not necessarily their own) in their homes. Thus about ½ million women may be workers who are the heads of families and are responsible for young children.

PROPORTION OF ALL WORKERS WHO ARE WOMEN





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- b. Current Population Reports, Labor Force. Series P-50. Also current monthly reports on labor force (Series P-57), and on population characteristics (Series P-20).
- c. Census of Manufactures, 1947. Preliminary Report: Employment by Type, by Sex, and by Month. Series MC 100-7, Aug. 12, 1949.

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- a. Special Bull. No. 20. Changes in Women's Employment During the War. 1944.
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 - c. Women in Factories, October 1939-May 1947. (Mimeograph.)
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² See also X, American Women—A Selected Bibliography of Basic Sources, pp. 78 to 88.

WAGES, SALARIES, AND INCOME

INTRODUCTION

FACTORS INFLUENCING WAGES AND SALARIES

Skill requirements and economic conditions.—Workers are employed in many different industries and occupations in which the types of skills required vary widely. These factors in themselves cause wages or salaries to vary widely and explain why no average figure will give a very representative idea of the current earnings or the wage or salary rates of all workers.

Of course general economic conditions have the most powerful effect on the wage and salary levels of workers. Additional factors that affect the levels of 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 that show women's wages separately from men's are, however, few. Those that are available 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 rate of pay for a given period, say a week, of 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 the employee works, her pay may vary even from week to week. This is true for the factory and the service worker, in particular, but also for any other employee whose pay varies with time worked.

Moreover, the employee 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 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 achieve a high rate of production (as on factory processes) or a 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

The wage or salary shown in reports usually is either the basic rate of pay or earnings on the job, but the actual amount in the worker's pay envelope or check often is considerably less than this, because before it is received deductions are made for various purposes, such as taxes, social security, union dues, pension, or health insurance. Most of these deductions are eventually advantageous to the worker, though they reduce the amount available for living expenses, including the building up of savings. The amount that the worker receives after these deductions have been made is called "take-home" pay.

HOW WAGES AND SALARIES ARE REPORTED

Reports on wages and salaries ordinarily show the average ¹ 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 (in higher, lower, or middle ranges). However, such information ordinarily cannot be collected and reported at frequent intervals because of the size and cost of the undertaking; hence the information 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 employed in some of the more important industries and occupations. The figures are taken from the most recent sources of such data known to be available.

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¹ Reference is to the arithmetic average, which is well understood by most people; and to the 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 the median. In the present report, the average most frequently shown is the median.

CENSUS REPORTS ON WOMEN'S INCOME AND EARNINGS

SOURCES OF WOMEN'S INCOME

In the last years of the war and early in the postwar period the Bureau of the Census reported on the income of civilians, whether from wages and salaries, from self-employment in a business or profession, or from other sources such as pensions, dividends, etc. The latest census survey of this type was made for 1948. The report on the survey, issued February 14, 1950, shows that about 41 percent of the women in the civilian population, compared to approximately 90 percent of the men, had income. (Reference here and throughout the discussion on income is to money income.) Nearly 70 percent of the women who had income had none except from their own wages or salaries, 5 percent had none except from self-employment, and nearly 20 percent, none except income from other than earnings. About 7 percent had income from more than one source.

For all women with income, the median was only a little over \$1,000; that of men was about 21/3 times as high. Median income was greatest for women who had wages or salaries and some other income besides, but this group included only 5 percent of all women with income. For further details, see table 1.

Table 1.—Sources of income, 1948

	Women			come	
Source of income	women	Men	Women	Men	
Total	22, 725, 000	47, 370, 000	\$1,009	\$2, 396	
	Percent	distribution			
With wage or salary but no other income	69 5 5 1 1 19 (2)	62 10 14 3 3 7 1	1, 216 1, 679 871 1, 310 (1) 609	2, 541 2, 718 2, 334 2, 491 2, 010 813 2, 538	

 $^{^1}$ Median not shown where there were fewer than 100 cases in the sample reporting on income. 2 Less than half of 1 percent.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, Consumer Income. Series P-60, No. 6, Feb. 14, 1950. Table 16.

WOMEN'S INCOME, 1948

The following summary shows ranges of income of all women who had income in 1948, as well as ranges of income derived by women from wages or salaries, from self-employment, and from sources other than earnings. Seven percent of all women who had income derived it from more than one source. Medians of income from wages and salaries, self-employment, and income other than earnings were respectively \$1,189, \$756, and \$556.

The year's income from the specified source amounted to less than \$500 for one-fourth of the women with wage and salary income, for over two-fifths of the women with self-employment income, and for over two-fifths of those with income other than earnings. As much as \$2,000 was received from the specified source by one-fourth of the women reporting wage and salary income and by a similar proportion of those with income from self-employment, but by only 6 percent of those with income other than earnings. Self-employment earnings of \$3,000 and over were reported for a tenth of the women with such income.

Women's income, 1948

		Women who	derived inco	ome from—
Year's income	All women with income	Wage or salary	Self-em- ployment	Sources other than earnings
Number	1 22, 725, 000	16, 969, 000	1, 497, 000	5, 675, 000
		Percent dist	ribution	
Under \$500	29	27	42	46
\$500, under \$1,000	21	17	15	33
\$1,000, under \$2,000	28	31	20	15
\$2,000, under \$3,000	17	20	12	3
\$3,000 or over	5	5	.11	3
Median income	\$1,009	\$1, 189	\$756	\$556

¹ Horizontal details exceed total because about 7 percent of all women with income had income from more than one source.

EMPLOYED WOMEN'S INCOME, BY CHIEF OCCUPATION GROUPS, 1948

The median income of employed women was highest for professional workers, who constituted only about 8 percent of all employed women with income. Next high medians were those of the clerical workers and proprietors, managers, and officials. From 16 to 22 percent of the women in these three groups had incomes below \$1,000 in the year; as much as \$3,000 (or more) was received by only 8 percent in the clerical and roughly a fifth in the other two occupation groups. Medians were lowest for domestic service workers and for the relatively small group of women farmers and farm managers.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, Consumer Income. Series P-60, No. 6, Feb. 14, 1950. Tables 15 and 20.

Table 2 shows further details as to the income of women in the various occupation groups.

Table 2.—Employed women's income in 1948, by occupation group in 1949

	Number of	Me-	Percent with income—					
Occupation group	employed women with in- come	dian in- come	Total	Un- der \$500	under	\$1,000, under \$2,000	under	and
Total	13, 940, 000	\$1,522	100	17	16	35	25	7
Clerical and and kindred workers Operatives Service, except domestic Domestic service Professional Saleswomen Proprietors, managers, officials Farmers, farm managers All others	4, 173, 000 2, 990, 000 1, 665, 000 1, 404, 000 1, 146, 000 745, 000 196, 000 2 524, 000	1, 944 1, 590 1, 052 425 2, 191 1, 208 1, 941 743	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	6 9 19 59 8 24 11 35	10 15 28 27 10 16 11 31	37 49 40 13 25 44 29 19	39 25 11 1 36 14 26 12	(1) 21 22 23 4

WOMEN'S INCOME, BY AGE GROUP AND BY RACE, 1948

About two-thirds of the women with income were from 20 to 54 years of age. Median income of the women in each age group between these ages was over \$1,300 a year and was highest for women in the group aged 25 to 34. Each successive older age group experienced a decline, that was sharpest for the groups aged 55 to 64 and 65 and over. It is not surprising, however, that girls under 20 had the lowest median income of all.

The median income of nonwhite women was less than half the median income of all women in each age group except the group of very young and the groups of older women. Median earnings of all women in the youngest and in the older age groups were already so low that a great difference in the median for all women and for nonwhite women was hardly possible. The income decline for nonwhite women began at a later age span than for all women—not until the 45-54 age group was reached.

Men's median income was well above women's in every age group except that of young boys and girls (under 20). In the age groups 25 to 54 men's median was twice as high as women's. Nor did the income of men (both all men and nonwhite men) decline at so early an age span as women's—not until the age group 45-54 was reached. In most age groups, the median income of nonwhite men, though far below all men's, was not so far below as nonwhite women's income was below all women's. Table 3 below gives further details.

¹ Less than one-half of 1 percent.
2 Includes groups too small to report median and percent: Semiprofessional, farm laborers, other laborers,

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, Consumer Income. Series P-60, No. 6, Feb. 14, 1950. Table 14.

Table 3.—Medium income of women and men, total and nonwhite, by age, 1948

	Number of -				
Age group	women with income	Wo	Ien		
	income	Total	Nonwhite	Total	Nonwhite
Total	22, 725, 000	\$1,009	\$492	\$2, 396	\$1,368
14 to 19	2, 086, 000 3, 011, 000 4, 644, 000 4, 304, 000 3, 376, 000 2, 452, 000 2, 853, 000	479 1, 319 1, 349 1, 333 1, 310 857 589	307 615 606 640 546 474 338	449 1, 849 2, 724 3, 046 2, 828 2, 412 998	400 1, 254 1, 653 1, 874 1, 586 1, 277

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, Consumer Income. Series P-60, No. 6, Feb. 14, 1950. Table 14.

CHANGES IN WOMEN'S INCOME OVER FOUR YEARS

Women's median income in 1948 was somewhat less than in 1947, though it was over a tenth above that of the war year, 1944. Men's income, however, was greater in 1948 than in 1947, and had also increased more than women's over the war year, 1944. Some advance in income for women in 1948 is indicated by the fact that, while nearly 80 percent of all women with income received less than \$2,000, a slightly larger proportion than formerly received \$2,000 or more. Further details are shown in table 4.

Table 4.—Income of women and men in various years

Year's income	1944		19	45	19	17	1948	
- Cat & Hooms	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Percent earning all amounts	100 31 24 32 10 3 \$909	100 13 12 23 26 26 \$2,048	100 31 24 33 10 2 \$901	100 12 16 26 24 22 \$1,811	100 30 19 32 14 5 \$1,017	100 10 11 22 26 31 \$2, 230	100 29 21 28 17 5 \$1,009	100 10 10 10 21 30 \$2,396

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, Consumer Income. Series P-60, No. 6, Feb. 14, 1950. Table 17.

REPORTS ON EARNINGS OF WOMEN FACTORY PRODUCTION WORKERS

CURRENT REPORTING

The labor departments of two States issue current reports on the earnings of women production workers in factories. These reports are based on a sample for each industry included. Table 5 shows weekly earnings from these sources for the years 1938 through 1949.

The Illinois Department of Labor reports by sex the averages of both weekly and hourly earnings in all the principal manufacturing industries in the State. Illinois also reports by sex the average hours worked in a week. Table 6 shows these averages for a late month in 1949 for industries employing large numbers of women.

The New York State Department of Labor reports average weekly earnings of women and men in the major groups of manufacturing industries and of women in laundries, as well as the proportions women constitute of all workers in each industry. The summary on page 30 shows these figures for a late month in 1949 for industries in which women constituted 20 percent or more of the labor force.

The National Industrial Conference Board, an organization of large manufacturers, reported earnings of women and men in some 25 manufacturing industries but discontinued the break-down by sex after July 1948. Table 5 includes reports from this agency.

EARNINGS OF WOMEN IN MANUFACTURING, 1938-49

The average weekly earnings of women manufacturing workers have much more than doubled over the past 12 years, according to the few available regularly reporting sources. However, in considering this apparently large advance, it must be remembered that, as many studies repeatedly show, women's earnings in relation to their expenses have tended to remain low.

If the significance to women of the increase in earnings were to be adequately evaluated, it would be necessary to know the extent to which costs of goods and services have increased over this period—a difficult thing to determine 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, notably in 1943; and another peak occurred in 1947. It should, of course, be remembered that these were periods of great increases in living costs.

Table 5.—Average weekly earnings of women and men production workers in manufacturing industries reported by the National Industrial Conference Board, Illinois, and New York State, 1938-49

[Averages for the year]

		Av	erage weekl	y earnings	reported b	y—	
Year		N. I. C. B		ois	New York		
	Women	Men					STATE OF
	women	All men	Unskilled	Women	Men	Women	Men
1938	\$15. 69 17. 02 17. 43 20. 29 23. 96 28. 82 31. 19 32. 20 34. 13 38. 97 3 41. 86	\$26. 07 28. 97 30. 64 36. 16 43. 43 51. 05 54. 60 53. 59 50. 65 57. 73 8 60. 99	\$20. 67 22. 81 23. 88 28. 17 33. 48 38. 89 41. 06 41. 14 40. 81 46. 77 3 49. 88 (4)	\$15. 61 16. 66 17. 06 19. 18 22. 58 28. 31 32. 79 33. 20 34. 48 39. 18 42. 41 43. 39	\$27. 48 29. 45 30. 33 34. 58 41. 25 49. 34 54. 39 53. 51 52. 45 58. 98 63. 42 63. 49	\$16. 57 1 17. 52 (2) (2) (2) (2) (3) (3) (3) (3) (4) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) (9) (9) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (2) (3) (4) (4) (5) (6) (7) (7) (8) (8) (9) (9) (1) (9) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1	\$29. 71 1 30. 49 (2) (2) 44. 72 52. 86 56. 16 55. 79 55. 51 60. 34 64. 45 65. 01

Figures are for 5 months only.
Wages were not reported by sex in 1940 and 1941.
Average for 7 months. Reporting by sex was discontinued after July 1948.
Reporting by sex discontinued.

In 1948 men's average weekly earnings were about half again as high as women's averages, but even this large difference was markedly less than that of 10 years earlier, as the following shows:

Year	Percent men's were above we	average wee	kly earnings ports from—
	NICB	Illinois	New York
1938	- 66	76	79
1948	1 46	50	53
¹ Average for 7 months only.			

Earnings of women production workers in Illinois, 1949.—Earnings of women factory production workers reported in Illinois in November 1949 averaged \$1.16 an hour and \$43.84 a week. Averages for a week's work were above \$40 in 9 and below \$35 in 3 of the 14 manufacturing industries reported.

Men's average hourly earnings in all manufacturing industries combined were considerably more than one-third above women's. In all but one of the industries reporting hourly earnings, men averaged at least 30 cents an hour more than women; in two, more than 80 cents. Since, in addition, men worked at least 2 hours longer in the week than women in most industries, men's average weekly earnings were far above women's. Men worked more than 5 hours a week longer than women in the confectionery, paper box, textile, and men's furnishings industries, and in the first three of these men's hourly averages were 35 cents an hour or more above women's.

Table 6.—Average weekly earnings, average hourly earnings, and average weekly hours worked, of women and men production workers in all and in selected manufacturing industries or industry groups in Illinois, November 1949

Industry or industry group		weekly gs of—	A verage earning		Average weekly hours worked by—	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
All manufacturing I	\$43, 84	\$63. 25	\$1.16	\$1.59	37.9	39.8
Bookbinding, publishing	49.14	91. 20	1.36	2. 25	36.2	40. €
Electrical machinery, apparatus	49.09	66. 16	1.24	1.63	39.6	40.
laughtering, meat packing	47. 24	64.55	1.22	1.52	38.8	42.
Confectionery	44.64	67.11	1.13	1.48	40.3	45.
Themicals, explosives, soap	42.50	61.75	1.08	1.53	39.3	40.
Paper boxes, bags, tubes	41.63	65. 63	1.05	1.46	39.5	44.
Textiles	40.64	62.19	1.09	1.45	37.5	43.
Rubber products	40. 27	55. 28	1.05	1.37	38.3	40.
orugs, compounds, cosmetics	39.94	55.71	1.03	1.37	38.8	40.
Vomen's and children's underwear	39. 25	(2)	1.08	(2)	36.7	(2)
eather, allied products	37. 20	54.96	1.05	1.44	35. 4	38.
Men's furnishings, work clothes	31.30	49.06	.89	1.18	35. 2	41.
Vomen's and children's clothing	30.38	60.30	.90	1.73		34.
Men's clothing	29.35	49.89	1.12	1.70	28.0	30.

¹ Includes other reported industries that employ relatively few women.
² Not reported for men.

Source: Illinois Department of Labor. The Illinois Labor Bulletin, January-February, 1950.

Earnings of women production workers in New York State, 1949.— Earnings of the women factory production workers reported by New York State for a week in November 1949 averaged \$41.21. Averages were above \$40 a week for women in 6 of 13 industries (those in which women constituted at least a fifth of the labor force) and below \$35 a week in 3 (leather, tobacco, and laundries).

Average weekly earnings of women and men production workers in selected industries or industry groups in New York State, November 1949

Industry or industry group	Average earning	weekly gs of—	Women as percent of all
		Men	
All manufacturing ²	\$41. 21	\$65. 01	35
watches, clocks	48. 44	65. 95	27
Electrical machinery, equipment, supplies	43. 83	62. 69	31
Chemicals, allied products	43. 01	66. 14	25
Stone, clay, glass products	42. 81	63. 42	21
Apparel, other finished fabric products	42.08	75. 10	60
Printing, publishing, allied products	40, 01	81. 61	30
Rubber products	39. 83	61. 95	29
Paper, allied products	39, 62	61. 36	28
Textile-mill products	39. 59	58. 77	43
Food, kindred products	38. 48	62. 77	28
Tobacco manufactures	34, 56	45, 85	55
Leather, leather products	33. 52	51. 80	45
Laundries 3	32. 43	(4)	(4)

¹ Employment data by sex relate to all wage and salary workers, but earnings cover only production

4 Not reported.

Source: New York State Department of Labor. Labor Market Review, December 1949.

² Includes industries other than those shown here in which women were less than 20 percent of

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

Average earnings for men in all manufacturing industries combined were about 58 percent above women's. In one industry (printing and publishing) men's average earnings were more than double women's; and in this and six other industries listed, men's average for the week was more than \$20 above women's.

REPORTS ON EARNINGS OF WOMEN "WHITE-COLLAR" WORKERS

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 agencies report clerical earnings annually and special reports show office workers' earnings, but not all give separate data for women.

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 and to be further limited by the facts that salary scales may apply alike to women and men and may not show how many persons receive the amounts cited.

EARNINGS OF CLERICAL WORKERS

The reports of the Bureau of Labor Statistics on office workers' occupations in various large cities in the country are a major source of data on salaries of women clerical workers; and the New York State Department of Labor in October of each year tabulates, by sex, the average weekly earnings of the factory office forces in the industries covered in its monthly wage surveys. Reports on salary rates of office workers also are made by the National Industrial Conference Board; these are not by sex, but women constitute probably two-thirds of the workers in the selected occupations reported here.

Earnings of women in office occupations in large cities, 1949.—Median weekly salaries of women office workers reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics have been tabulated by the Women's Bureau for 17 large cities. The general stenographer, clerk-typist, and accounting clerk groups usually contain especially large numbers of women.

Occupations in which the week's pay averaged highest were those of hand bookkeeper, technical stenographer, and class A bookkeeping-machine operator; in most cities these occupations employed relatively

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				Median	weekly sala	ries in—			
Occupation	Atlanta	Boston	Chicago	Cincinnati	Cleveland	Dallas	Hartford	Los Angeles	Minne- apolis- St. Paul
Billers, machine (billing machine)	\$37. 50	\$35.00	\$44.00	\$37.00	\$41.00	\$40.00 40.50	\$40.50	\$44.00 45.00	\$37. 0 34. 0
Billers, machine (bookkeeping machine)	35.00	34.00	42. 50 53. 00	37. 00 55. 00	42. 50 56. 00	46.00	50,00	60.00	46.0
Bookkeepers, handBookkeeping machine operators, class A	49. 00 43. 50	46. 00 48. 00	50.00	49. 50	49. 50	48, 50	44.00	52.00	46.0
Bookkeeping machine operators, class A	36. 50	37.00	44.00	35.00	41, 50	38, 00	35. 50	43.50	37.0
Dalculating machine operators (comptometer type)	40, 50	36, 00	46,00	37. 50	42.50	42.50	40.50	49.50	38.0
Dalculating machine operators (other than comptometer type)	40, 50	36.00	43.00	34.50	46.00			46.00	37.0
Clerks, accounting	39.00	37.00	44. 50	40.00	44.00		44 00	47. 50	39. 5 39. 0
Clerks, file, class A	37.00	39, 50	42. 50	38.00	43. 50		44. 00 32. 00	41. 50 35. 00	31. (
Clerks, file, class B	32.00	29.00	36. 00 47. 00	29, 50 45, 00	33. 50 49. 50		48.00	46.00	42.
Ulerks, general	40.00 42.00	45. 50 39. 00	42, 50	34.00	49. 50		39.00	49.50	39. 8
Clerks, order		40, 00	49.00	42.00	49.00		43.50	50.00	41. (
Derks, payroll		32. 50	40.00	33, 50	40.50	36.00	36.00	42.00	34.
Office girls.		30, 50	34. 50	28. 50	34.00		32.00	38.00	29. (
Stenographers, general	42. 50	38.00	47.00	40.00	46.00	44.00	42.00	48.00	40.
tenographers, technical	42.50	45. 50	54.00		52. 50	48.00	54. 50	54.00 47.00	37.
Switchboard operators	37.00	38.00	43.50	38. 00 37. 50	42. 50 42. 00	39. 50 37. 50	38. 50 39. 50	46.00	37.0
witchboard operator-receptionists	37.00	37. 00 35, 50	44. 00 45. 00	37. 00	44.00	37. 00	38.00	42.50	37.0
Transcribing machine operators, general	40. 50 40. 00	41, 00	45.00	41.00	42. 50	35. 50	44, 00	39.00	38. (
Typists, class ATypists, class B	34.00	31.00	40, 50	32.00	39.00	33, 50	34.00	38,00	32.0

			I	Aedian week	ly salaries in-			Percent highest	
Occupation	New Orleans	New York	Philadel- phia	Portland, Oreg.	Richmond	St. Louis	Seattle	Washing- ton, D. C.	median is above lowest
Billers, machine (billing machine) Billers, machine (bookkeeping machine) Bookkeepers, hand Bookkeeping machine operators, class A Bookkeeping machine operators, class A Bookkeeping machine operators (comptometer type) Calculating machine operators (comptometer type) Calculating machine operators (other than comptometer type) Clerks, accounting Clerks, accounting Clerks, file, class A Clerks, file, class B Clerks, order Clerks, order Clerks, payroll Clerks, payroll Clerk-typists Diffice girls Stenographers, general Stenographers, technical Switchboard operators switchboard operator-receptionists Pranscribing machine operators, general Typists, class A Typists, class B	44. 50 37. 00 35. 50 36. 50 31. 50 29. 00 36. 00 30. 50 36. 50 36. 50 37. 50	\$42.00 48.00 60.00 50.00 42.00 445.00 43.50 43.50 43.50 44.500 45.00 39.00 32.00 45.00 45.00 45.00 35.50	\$40.00 38:50 49:50 43:00 34:50 41:00 38:50 37:00 37:00 38:00 38:00 39:00 38:00 39:00 38:00 39:00 38:00 39:00 38:00 38:00 38:00	\$42.00 45.00 57.50 48.50 48.50 48.50 40.50 40.50 40.50 48.50 48.50 40.50 40.50 40.50 41.50 42.00 40.50 41.50 42.00 40.40 40.40 40.50 4	\$39.00 35.00 50.00 40.50 34.50 40.00 42.50 37.00 38.00 43.50 44.50 34.50 34.50 37.70 38.70 38.70 38.70 38.70 38.70 38.70 38.70 38.70 38.70 38.70 38.70 38.70 38.70	\$38. 00 42. 00 46. 00 46. 00 38. 00 42. 00 40. 00 39. 00 39. 00 31. 00 31. 00 32. 00 41. 00 35. 00 30. 00 40. 50 39. 00 38. 00 38. 00 39. 00 39. 00 39. 00 39. 00 39. 00 39. 00 39. 00 39. 00 39. 00 39. 00 39. 00 39. 00 39. 00 39. 00	\$41, 50 41, 50 46, 50 46, 50 43, 50 41, 50 43, 50 44, 50 48, 00 34, 50 48, 50 39, 00 34, 50 46, 00 42, 50 41, 50 41, 50 42, 50 41, 50 43, 50 44, 50 48, 50 39, 00 53, 00	\$40.00 47.00 57.50 40.50 40.00 45.00 46.00 46.00 46.00 46.00 36.50 45.00 38.50 45.00 38.00 40.00	

Source: U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Bull. No. 960, Salaries of Office Workers in Large Cities, 1949, Pts. I-IV, 1949, 1950.

few women. In some cities general clerks (a relatively large group) also had average pay nearly as high. Lowest median salaries (except those paid office girls in some cities) were those paid class B file clerks and class B typists, two groups that were among the larger groups of women office workers. Clerk-typists also received relatively low pay.

Occupations which showed the widest variation from city to city in median week's earnings were those of class A file clerk, office girl, and order clerk, whose duties might differ greatly from place to place. Least variations among cities occurred in the week's medians for class B file clerks and general stenographers.

Among the cities here tabulated, the highest median wage for an occupation was sometimes reported for more than one city and the lowest for more than one city; Los Angeles paid the highest in the greatest number of instances (12), and New Orleans paid the lowest in the greatest number (18).

Earnings of women in New York factory offices, 1940-49.—The weekly earnings of women in the offices of New York State factories averaged \$45.42 in October 1949, according to the report on such earnings made annually by the New York State Department of Labor. The women clerical workers were averaging nearly \$3 a week more than women production workers in these factories; however, in the same month the men averaged 78 cents less per week as clerical than as production workers. Women were averaging \$19.77 less than men in the New York factory offices, and \$23.54 less than men as production workers, in October 1949.

Average weekly earnings of women and men in factory offices in New York, 1940–49,
October of each year

Year	Average weekly earnings of—		
	Women	Men	
1940	\$22. 88	\$45. 25	
1941	25. 16	49. 99	
1942 1	30. 00	56. 17	
1943	32. 27	57. 83	
1944 2	33. 83	56, 32	
1945 3	33, 23	51. 38	
1947 3	40. 76	59. 10	
1948	44, 31	64. 61	
1949	45. 42	65, 19	

¹ In 1942 the list of sample firms and the classification scheme were revised. Supervisory employees were included in 1942, though excluded in other years, both earlier and later than 1942.

² Revised figures.

³ Unpublished data. No survey was made in 1946.

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.

In the decade 1940–49, the average earnings of women in New York factory offices had nearly doubled, but it must be remembered that the starting point for this comparison (women's 1940 earnings) was very low. Some gain appears for women as compared with men in New York factory offices; while in October 1940 men's averages had been twice as high as women's, they were only half again as high as women's in October 1949.

Earnings of clerical workers, 1944-49.—The National Industrial Conference Board semiannual reports on median salary rates of clerical workers do not show women's earnings separately from men's but are included here because women are a large proportion of the workers in the selected clerical occupations. The reports are based on questionnaires returned by a number of firms that vary somewhat from year to year.

Table 8.—Median weekly salary rates in selected clerical occupations in 21 cities, October of each year, 1944—49 1

[Figures for mer	and	women	combinedl
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	Median weekly salary rates in—									
Occupation	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949				
Number of firms reporting	344	381	437	500	547	592				
Number of employees Billing machine operator	(2)	(2)	(2)	45, 164	46, 914	45, 714				
Bookkeeping machine operator	\$29	\$30	\$36	\$39	\$43	\$45				
Calculating machine or comptometer	28	30	34	38	40	42				
operator	30	32	37	41	44	46				
File clerk	24	26	31	33	35	36				
Key punch operator	28	30	35	37	41	42				
Office boy or girl	21	22	27	30	32	33				
Receptionist	29	32	37	40	43	45				
Stenographer	31	33	38	42	45	46				
Telephone switchboard operator	30	33	37	42	46	48				
unior copy typist	24	25	30	33	35	36				
Senior copy typist	29	30	36	39	41	43				

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

² Not reported.

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

In October 1949 the median weekly salary rates for office workers in 3 of these 11 occupations were below the average weekly earnings of women factory production workers in New York in November of the same year.

Source: National Industrial Conference Board Management Record. Based on questionnaires. Because reports are returned by a varying number of companies in different years, 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-experience rates and accruals due to length of service, and may be affected by nonfinancial benefits given employees.

Because of the differences in the number of firms reporting, accurate comparisons from year to year cannot be made. Though the figures indicate that clerical employees had increases from the war to the postwar period, they do not show the exact extent of such increases. nor relate them to the increases in living costs.

FARNINGS IN SELECTED PROFESSIONS

Professions of special importance in the employment of women. both because of the numbers engaged in them and because of the large proportions women constitute of their labor force, are teaching. nursing, social work, and library work. Various special studies report data of some type indicating earnings in each of these professions in a postwar year. Salaries are not usually shown by sex but, in professions in which women constitute very large proportions of the workers. are indicative of women's earnings. The number of women in each of these professions (and one semiprofession), according to the 1940 Census, and the year for which earnings data are available, are as follows:

	Wor	men	
	Number ¹	Percent of all workers in the profession	Year for which earnings reported
School teachers 2	802, 264	75	1948-49
Nurses	362, 897	98	1946
Librarians	34, 546	90 }	1949
Library attendants and assistants 3	16, 668	83 ∫	
Social and welfare workers	48, 369	64	1948

Salaries of school teachers.—Data on salaries of school teachers. taken from a research report of the National Education Association and applicable to the 1948-49 school year, are shown in table 9. They are not reported by sex, but they show salaries for cities of different sizes and give separate information for elementary, junior high, and senior high schools.

In cities whose population was 500,000 and over, median salaries in elementary schools and in junior high schools did not differ widely from each other but were about \$600 a year less than median salaries in senior high schools. In cities of most other sizes, differences between median salaries in high schools and those in junior high schools were not much greater than between those in junior high and those in elementary schools.

Figures from 1940 Census.
 Excludes teachers in colleges and teachers specializing in music and art.
 Library attendants' and assistants' work is clerical rather than professional in nature. They are included in the report on librarians, pp. 38-39, and therefore also here.

Differences in median salaries usually were greater as between smaller and larger cities than as between types of schools in the larger cities. The median salary of teachers in high schools, for example, was some \$900 a year greater in cities of 500,000 and over than in cities of 100,000–500,000, and some \$900 a year greater in the latter cities than in cities of under 5,000.

Table 9.—Yearly salaries of teachers, by type of school and size of city, 1948–49

[Figures for men and women combined 1]

		Yearly sal	aries in cities	with popula	ation of—							
Yearly salaries	500,000 and over	100,000, under 500,000	30,000, under 100,000	10,000, under 30,000	5,000, under 10,000	2,500, under 5,000						
10 April 20 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	Eı	EMENTARY	Schools									
Number reported	44, 254	39, 286	36, 970	30, 093	19, 214	13, 92						
			Percent dis	stribution								
Under \$2,000_ \$2,000, under \$2,500 \$2,500, under \$3,000 \$3,000, under \$4,000_ \$4,000, under \$5,000 \$5,000 or over Median salary	0. 2 3. 8 9. 5 34. 1 48. 3 4. 1 \$4, 019	1. 6 10. 9 22. 0 52. 9 12. 4 . 2 \$3, 265	5. 0 17. 8 30. 6 38. 1 8. 2 .3 \$2, 955	6. 5 24. 5 32. 7 32. 4 3. 8 . 1 \$2,778	10. 8 31. 7 30. 5 24. 3 2. 3 . 4 \$2, 609	14. 37. 29. 18.						
	Ju	NIOR HIGH	Schools									
Number reported	9, 317	9, 998	11, 801	7, 253	2, 350	1, 33						
	Percent distribution											
Under \$2,000 \$2,000, under \$2,500 \$2,500, under \$3,000 \$3,000, under \$4,000 \$4,000, under \$5,000 \$5,000 or over Median salary	0. 4 1. 8 8. 7 28. 8 37. 8 22. 5 \$4, 092	0. 5 7. 0 14. 3 53. 2 24. 3 . 7 \$3, 537	1. 7 10. 2 22. 0 49. 1 15. 2 1. 8 \$3, 280	2. 6 16. 6 29. 9 43. 5 7. 1 . 3 \$3,014	4. 1 22. 7 30. 9 38. 4 3. 8 . 1 \$2, 874	7. (29. 2 34. 2 28. (1. 6						
	SEI	NIOR HIGH S	Schools									
Number reported	27, 273	19, 338	19, 212	19, 136	13, 966	11, 051						
			Percent dist	tribution								
Under \$2,000 \$2,000, under \$2,500 \$2,500, under \$3,000 \$3,000, under \$4,000 \$4,000, under \$5,000 \$5,000 or over. Median salary	0. 1 . 6 2. 2 15. 5 53. 5 28. 1 \$4, 689	0. 5 5. 2 9. 0 50. 0 32. 6 2. 7 \$3, 793	1. 7 7. 4 17. 1 48. 8 20. 5 4. 5 \$3, 444	2. 1 10. 2 22. 1 48. 4 15. 2 2. 0 \$3, 269	3. 8 15. 7 29. 4 41. 7 8. 4 1. 0 \$3, 017	3. 4 20. 0 34. 2 36. 0 6. 0 . 4 \$2, 877						

 $^{^{\}rm 1}$ Women constitute over nine-tenths of the elementary, and over two-thirds of the junior high and senior high school teachers.

Source: National Education Association. Research Bulletin, April 1949.

Earnings of nurses.—October 1946 data on nurses' earnings are shown in a special study of some 10,000 nurses made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Since 98 percent of nurses are women, the data, though not reported by sex, are applicable to women. Table 10 summarizes the data on earnings of nurses, almost two-thirds of whom were institutional or private-duty nurses. Ninety percent lived outside hospitals and had median earnings of \$176 a month. A third of the nurses living outside hospitals and two-fifths of those living in hospitals earned less than \$155 a month; and a fifth of all nurses earned \$215 or over. Highest median earnings were those of nurse educators, industrial nurses, and public health nurses, groups whose work is likely to include administrative responsibilities to a considerable degree.

Table 10.-Monthly earnings of nurses, October 1946 1

			Percent earning—									
Living arrangements and field	Number reported	Average earnings 2	Total	Under \$155	\$155, under \$185	\$185, under \$215	\$215 or over					
LIVING OUTSIDE HOSPITAL												
All fields 3	9, 182	\$176	100	34	26	20	20					
Institutional Private duty Public health Industrial Office Nurse educator	3, 443 2, 155 1, 243 876 814 257	172 153 184 196 167 207	100 100 100 100 100 100	34 52 20 13 39 8	29 17 32 28 29 20	20 14 23 30 19 27	17 17 25 29 13 45					
Living in Hospital All fields 3	1, 114	168	100	42	20	16	22					
Institutional Nurse educator	899 122	160 194	100 100	47 14	20 29	13 29	20 28					

¹ Includes cash paid in lieu of maintenance but excludes cash equivalent of maintenance provided by employers.

² Median.

³ Total exceeds details as not all details shown separately.

Salaries of library workers.—A source of data on the earnings of library workers-both professional librarians and nonprofessional library workers—is a special 1949 study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The data are not reported by sex but are indicative of the earnings of women library workers since, according to the 1940 census, nine-tenths of all professional librarians and over four-fifths of all nonprofessional library assistants and attendants are women. survey gives the median salary of professional librarians in 1949 as \$3,050 and reports that nearly a tenth of them earned under \$2,000 and a somewhat smaller proportion \$5,000 or over. Nonprofessional library workers had a median salary of \$1,975; over half earned under \$2,000, and less than half of 1 percent earned \$5,000 or over.

Source: U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Bull. No. 931, the Economic Status of Registered Professional Nurses, 1946-47, 1948.

Annual salaries of library employees, 1949

Percent of employees earning speci-

	II.	led amounts	
Salaries ¹	All employees	Pro- fessional	Nonpro- fessional
All amounts	100	100	100
Under \$1,600	10	4.	20
\$1,600, under \$2,000	16	5	32
\$2,000, under \$2,400	15	9	24
\$2,400, under \$3,000	25	28	19
\$3,000, under \$3,600	16	24	4
\$3,600, under \$4,200	9	. 14	1
\$4,200, under \$5,000	5	9 5	1
\$5,000 and over	4	7	(2)
Median salary	\$2, 575	\$3, 050	\$1,975

Salaries do not include cash equivalent of any maintenance provided by employer.
 Less than one-half of 1 percent.

Salaries of social workers.—Salaries of social workers are shown in the report on a special survey made in Michigan by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in November 1948. Data on salaries are reported by sex: the median for all workers was \$3,100, but for men alone, \$3,700, and for women alone \$2,880-a difference of over \$800, "traceable partly to differences in pay for the same type of position, and partly to employment of men in the more responsible positions in greater proportions than women." The following summary presents details.

Median annual salaries of women and men in social work positions, by level of responsibility, in Michigan, November 1948

Level of responsibility	Mediai	n annual sala	aries
Level of responsibility	All workers	Women	Men
All agencies	\$3, 100	\$2, 880	\$3, 700
Workers providing:			
Direct services to individuals	2, 700	2, 640	3, 320
Services to groups	2, 900	2, 700	3, 400
Services to groups	3, 800	3, 850	3, 800
Supervisors	3, 540	3, 420	3, 910
Executives	4, 100	3, 680	4, 500
Government agencies:	1, 100	0, 000	1, 000
Workers providing:			
Direct services to individuals	2, 730	2, 640	3, 360
Services to groups	3, 200		
Workers with other nonsupervisory du-	0, 200	(2)	(2)
	9 900	(2)	9 500
	3, 800	(2)	3, 500
Supervisors	3, 420	3, 420	3, 960
Executives	4, 020	4, 000	4, 020
Private agencies:			
Workers providing:			
Direct services to individuals	2, 700	2, 640	3, 180
Services to groups	2, 800	2, 700	3, 420
Workers with other nonsupervisory du-			
ties	3, 740	(2)	3, 800
Supervisors	3, 820	3, 820	3, 770
Executives	4, 200	3, 620	4,600

¹ Salaries do not include cash equivalent of any maintenance provided by employer. ² Insufficient number of replies to justify presenting a median.

Source: U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Salaries and Working Conditions of Library Employees, 49. Preliminary data. (Multilith.)

Source: David, Lily Mary. Salaries of Social Workers in Michigan, 1948. In U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Monthly Labor Review, April 1949, pp. 398, 399.

Three important professions with small proportions of women.— Three occupations that have a tradition of high prestige among the professions are those of the physician, the lawyer, and the engineer. Both the numbers and the proportions of women in these occupations have been relatively small. The 1940 Census reported 7,708 women physicians and surgeons, who were less than 5 percent of the persons in this occupation; 4,447 women lawyers, judges, and justices, who were less than 3 percent of this profession; and fewer than 1,000 women engineers of all types, far below 1 percent of such workers. A 1947 report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics on physicians' average income showed that it netted, after business expenses, \$9,900 a year, though there were very wide individual variations.2 The median net income of nonsalaried lawyers in 1948 was shown by a Department of Commerce report to have been \$5,719 a year: data for 1947 show that more than a fourth received less than \$3,000.3 Beginning salaries of various types of engineers were reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics to be about \$240 a month in 1946, and salaries of engineers with 10 years' experience, from \$350 to over \$400 a month.2 As in other professions, individual earnings varied.

³ Weinfeld, William. Income of Lawyers, 1929-48. In U. S. Department of Commerce Survey of Current Business, August 1949.

²U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Occupational Outlook Handbook. 1948. Earnings of Physicians, p. 45, of Engineers, p. 63 ff.

ECONOMIC RESPONSIBILITIES OF WOMEN WORKERS

WOMEN WORKERS AND FAMILY FINANCES

THE EXTENT to which women support dependents, their financial responsibilities, and the portions of their earnings that go to support others or to general family expenses are subjects of continual interest. There is no doubt that women's earnings are a substantial asset in maintaining and advancing the standard of living of American families. The contribution women make to this end has not been fully determined. There are several sources that afford some partial information as to its extent, and summaries of these will be given below. It must be remembered that most of the available material on this subject is from specialized studies or census samples showing particular types of information. However, all the available studies point to similar situations, and, taken together, these fragments give an impressive showing of the extent to which working women today are contributing to the upkeep and to maintaining the living standards of their families.

WOMEN'S CONTRIBUTIONS TO FAMILY INCOME OR SUPPORT

PART OF FAMILY INCOME WOMEN FURNISH

The Census Bureau reported on the income received in 1947 by over 37¼ million families (defined as two or more related persons living together). In nearly 5 million (13 percent) of these, women furnished half or more of the entire family income. (Of course income includes other receipts in addition to wages, but the data show that only about a tenth of all women who are not earners have income.)

WOMEN AS SOLE, PRINCIPAL, AND CONTRIBUTING FAMILY EARNERS

In April 1946 the Census Bureau reported that 1½ million women were the sole civilian earners in families in this country. In addition, 2½ million women were principal civilian earners in their families, although these families had also one or more other earners. (The

principal civilian earner in a family is the one who receives the highest civilian money earning in that family.)

The Women's Bureau obtained extensive information on women's economic responsibilities by interviewing over 13,000 women workers in all types of industry (except household work) in 10 war-congested areas in 1944 and 1945. Almost 90 percent of these women had no income other than wages or service allotments. Of all the women interviewed, three-fourths (about 10,000) planned to remain in the labor force, about four-fifths (about 7,500) lived in family groups of two or more persons. Well over a tenth of these were the only earners in their families; over 90 percent contributed regularly to the family expenses; and some of them also made regular contributions to the support of persons outside the immediate family.

Family support responsibilities of some 7,500 women interviewed who lived in family groups

The book and all the track	Distributio	n by extent	t of family	support of—
Extent of family support	All women reported	Single	Married	Widowed or divorced
All women reported	100	100	100	100
Sole support of the family group Contributed regularly to family expenses as—	15	12	12	35
1 of 2 wage earners 1 of 3 or more wage earners	47 31	43 38	58 21	39 23
Made no regular contribution	7	7	9	3

Among both single and married women, over a tenth of those living with their families were the sole support of their families. However, in the group composed largely of widows (smaller than either the group of the married or of the single), more than a third of the women were the only support of their families. The preceding summary shows, by marital status, the extent of responsibility for family support carried by the women who lived with their families and planned to continue in the labor force.

PART OF WOMEN'S EARNINGS THAT GOES TO FAMILY SUPPORT

In the Women's Bureau interviews with 13,000 women, already referred to, over nine-tenths of those living with their families and planning to continue in the labor force contributed regularly to the family expenses. Practically all who lived apart from their families were dependent on their own resources for self support.

The women living in family groups who regularly contributed to expenses and who planned to continue work gave, as a group, nearly two-thirds of their entire earnings for family expenses. Over a third of these women gave all their earnings to their families. More than 10 percent of the single and 60 percent of the married women gave all their earnings to their families. The extent of earnings going to family expenses is shown for all marital status groups in the summary following.

Part of earnings given to family support by some 7,500 women interviewed who lived in family groups

[alf or more (but not all)	Percent who contributed specified share of their earnings								
	Total reporting	Single	Married	Widowed or divorced					
Total reporting	100	100	100	100					
All of earningsHalf or more (but not all)	35 22	14 22	61 19	$\begin{array}{c} 46 \\ 22 \end{array}$					
Less than half	43	64	20	32					

DEPENDENTS OF WOMEN RECEIVING UNEMPLOYMENT BENEFITS

In the first part of 1949 only four States and the District of Columbia allowed additional amounts for dependents under unemployment insurance benefits. Nevada and the District of Columbia were the only areas that included additional amounts for dependents other than minor children.

In Nevada about 7 percent of the unemployed women who received benefits, and in the District of Columbia about 15 percent, were entitled to these added allowances for dependents in the first quarter of 1949. In Nevada about 6 percent and in the District of Columbia over 20 percent of the women receiving allowances for dependents had husbands, parents, or others who required their support.

Amendments to unemployment insurance laws in 1949 have brought up to 11 the number of States or Territories that allow added benefits for dependents of the unemployed. Two of these (Arizona and Alaska) allow additional amounts for dependents other than children.

WORKING WOMEN'S BUDGETS

Estimates for working women's budget requirements usually have been based on field surveys that priced the necessities of living at a given time. Estimates sometimes are later revised to bring them up to date, not by a complete repricing, but by making use of current cost-of-living indexes.

Most of the budgets listed below were prepared by State labor departments for use in the administration of minimum-wage laws. All

but one set a minimum-adequate standard of living for a self-supporting woman without dependents; one, that of Massachusetts, considers the needs of an employed man as well. Besides board and
lodging, the budgets priced include clothing and its upkeep, personal
care, medical care, transportation, recreation (including vacation),
reading matter, educational and other miscellaneous expenses; with one
exception, they also make allowances for taxes, insurance, and savings.
The purpose of a savings allowance is to provide for the unusual contingencies that are not included in the commodity and service list covering
customary expenditures. Variations in the budgets reflect, not only
differences in way of living (as in furnished room, boarding house, or
family group), but also differences in quantity and quality of other
commodities and services allowed.

The budgets listed below were the latest available at the time this handbook went to press. Revisions are made from time to time to keep the money amounts up to date. The commodity and service specifications and other pertinent facts about these budgets are contained in Women's Bureau Bulletin 226, "Working Women's Budgets in Twelve States." Caution should be used in comparing the money amounts of the various budgets because the goods and services allowed differ somewhat from State to State and the dates of pricing also differ.

State	Total budget amount	Date
Arizona	1, 813 19 1, 867 19	48 (Apr.) 49 (Jan.) 49 (Mar.)
Kentucky	1 1, 992 19 2 1, 336 19 2, 163 19	49 (May) 49 (Feb.) 46 (Oct.) 46 (Dec.)
Pennsylvania	2, 121 19- 2, 032 19- 2, 231 19-	50 (Jan.) 49 (Nov.) 47 (Sept.) 49 (May) 49 (Sept.)

An alternate budget of the same date, based on living and eating in a boarding house, amounts to \$1,839.
 A commodity and service budget only. No provision is made for taxes or savings.

¹The cost of food and housing in most of the budgets is based on average prices for a furnished room and three restaurant meals a day. However, the District of Columbia, Utah, and Heller Committee budgets provide for living and eating in a boarding house, and New York determined food and housing costs in terms of living as a member of a family group. These four budgets, except Utah's, provide for lunches to be eaten in restaurants, and the Heller budget makes an additional allowance for Sunday dinner, which is usually not furnished by operators of boarding houses in San Francisco.

INDUSTRIAL INJURIES TO WOMEN 1

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 considerable progress both in devising and installing methods for preventing accidents and in securing some money payment for 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 the 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 men and women workers separately.

For many years a chief source of information on employment injuries has been the records of claims for workmen's compensation that are kept by State authorities. Of the figures published on these claims, some include only closed claims, others show all those compensable, and still others all the claims filed. Some 25 States have afforded data by sex at one time or another, certain of them in regular periodic reports.² The Women's Bureau has from time to time analyzed these data 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 injuried women, or the work time lost by them because of their injuries.

¹This 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.

				Emplo	yment			El dent		Inju	uries				
	Num- ber of	Num	ber of w	omen	Nu	mber of 1	nen	Numbe	r of injur	ies to—	Injury fr	equencyr	ates for—	Percent	Percent injuries
Industry	estab- lish- ments report- ing	Total	Pro- duc- tion work- ers	Non- pro- duction work- ers	Total	Pro- duc- tion work- ers	Non- pro- duction work- ers	Total	Wom- en	Men	Total	Wom- en	Men	women are of all workers	to wom- en are of all injuries
Apparel: Clothing and accessories	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.
Trimmings and fabricated textile prod- 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,
Demicals: Drugs, toiletries, and insecticides Paints, varnishes, and colors Synthetic textile fibers Other	72 48 10 291	13, 353 2, 278 6, 300 11, 658	9, 600 950 5, 112 6, 191	3, 753 1, 328 1, 188 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. 5. 40. 7.
Electrical equipment: 1 Electrical equipment for industrial use	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.
Radios and phonographs, communica- tion and signaling equipment	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. 32. 11. 31.
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	6, 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. 5	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. 22. 19. 22.
Furniture and lumber products: Furniture, wood. Wooden containers Other on and steel: 1	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. 11. 12,
Fabricated structural steel and orna- mental metal work. Fabricated metal products. Forgings and foundries.	212 412 564	3, 196 31, 105 13, 663	1, 838 23, 835 8, 042	1, 358 7, 270 5, 621	25, 614 77, 385 120, 716	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. 15. 4.
Heating equipment and plumbers' sup- plies Iron and steel	67 140	4, 489 26, 285	2, 874 18, 635	1, 615 7, 650	18, 448 190, 588	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. 8.
Metal coating, engraving, and vitreous enamel products	70	2, 436	2, 102	334	3, 628	3, 290	338	84	18	66	23. 2	12.7	29. 9	40. 2	21.
ucts Stamped and pressed metal products Wire and wire products Other	136 198 126 94	4, 261 15, 443 8, 472 6, 836	2, 497 13, 005 6, 759 5, 475	1, 764 2, 438 1, 713 1, 361	23, 377 25, 890 22, 180 22, 271	20, 119 22, 652 19, 400 20, 277	3, 258 3, 238 2, 780 1, 994	541 564 396 389	30 203 76 47	511 361 320 342	30. 8 21. 9 20. 7 21. 4	11. 5 21. 5 14. 7 11. 0	34.1 22.1 22.9 24.6	15. 4 37. 4 27. 6 23. 5	5. 36. 19. 12.

Leather: Boots and shoes	240	26, 164	23, 852	2, 312	23, 051	21, 037	2.014	070	10-	10-	0 -		- 1		
Other	39	2, 634	2, 334	300	6, 047	5, 644	2, 014	270	135	135	9.7	9.1	10.3	53. 2	50.
Lumber: Sawmills, planing mills, plywood	00	2,004	4, 004	300	0, 047	0, 044	403	139	22	117	26. 1	14.5	30.8	30.3	15.
mills and vanger mills	425	3, 977	3, 016	961	20 040	00 040	0 700								
Machinery, except electrical: Agricultural machines, tractors Construction and mining machinery	120	0,011	5, 010	901	30, 949	28, 243	2, 706	708	60	648	34. 4	26. 0	35. 5	11.4	8.
Agricultural machines tractors	45	7, 969	1 011	0 105	90 007	01 000		A 10 10			5	the rest			
Construction and mining machinery	98	7, 678	4, 844	3, 125	38, 887	31, 269	7, 618	509	52	457	17.3	10.5	18.7	17.0	10.
Commercial and household machinery	47		3, 717	3, 961	41, 362	35, 105	6, 257	602	26	576	19.7	5.7	22. 2	15.7	4.
Engines and turbines		10, 647	6, 447	4, 200	29, 489	22, 941	6, 548	335	38	297	13.5	6.0	16.1	26.5	11.
Engines and turbines General industrial machinery	42	6, 132	2, 680	3, 452	31, 036	24, 938	6, 098	265	17	248	12.5	4.9	13.9	16.5	6.
Chariel industrial machinery	853	44, 442	24, 471	19, 971	183, 478	154, 919	28, 559	2, 245	197	2, 048	16.1	7.5	18.0	19.5	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.
Other.	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.
Nonferrous metals:		9 30				1 1 1 1 1 1 1					22.0		1	20.0	10.
Watches, clocks, jewelry, and silverware.	15	3, 222	2,712	510	3, 510	3, 022	488	34	15	19	8.7	8.1	9.3	47.9	44.
Other	313	10, 559	7,812	2,747	34, 697	30, 514	4. 183	539	66	473	20. 2	10.5	23. 2	23.3	12.
Ordnance:		U. Service			1 0 7 00 1	00,011	1, 100	000	00	210	20. 2	10.0	20. 2	20.0	12.
Ammunition	76	10, 463	7, 953	2, 510	26, 451	22, 632	3, 819	347	47	300	16. 2	7.6	19.6	28.3	10
Guns	17	2, 175	1, 335	840	12, 559	10, 935	1, 624	141	6	135	17.5				13.
Tanks and tank components (military)	14	993	398	595	6, 366	4, 794	1, 572	60	0	58		5.0	19.7	14.8	4.
Other	29	1,857	795	1, 062	9, 545	7, 459		85	2	58	12.6	(2)	14.0	13.5	3.
Paper:	20	1,001	130	1,002	9, 040	7, 409	2, 086	85	2	83	13.4	2.0	15. 6	16.3	2.
Paper and pulp Paper boxes and other products	316	19, 558	14, 998	4, 560	81, 735	79 107	0 000	1 100							
Paper boxes and other products	336	15, 444	13, 100	2, 344	10, 450	73, 107	8, 628	1, 425	104	1, 321	22.9	9.0	26. 2	19.3	7.
rinting: Printing, book and job	25	1, 821		2, 344	18, 450	16, 121	2, 329	392	88	304	19.4	9.8	27.2	45.6	22.
Rubber:	40	1.041	1, 387	434	2, 938	2, 445	493	27	6	21	9.6	5.6	12.1	38.3	22.
Tires and tubes	00	0 051	0 150												
Rubber boots and shoes, and other rub-	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.
hor products	-										120	J. Sec. 15.			
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.
tone, clay, and glass:							137				E. Seelle			00.1	
GlassPottery and related products	25	5, 933	4, 976	957	12, 505	11, 106	1,399	167	26	141	15.6	7.6	19.4	32. 2	15.
Pottery and related products	26	2, 680	2, 526	154	3, 675	3, 326	349	73	16	57	20.8	11.0	27.7	42. 2	21.
Other	65	5, 512	4, 240	1, 272	12,775	11, 017	1,758	226	19	207	20.3	5.7	26.5	30. 1	8.
'extiles'							2, 100		10	201	20.0	0.1	20.0	30.1	0.
Textiles and cotton yarns Dyeing and finishing Knit goods.	325	88, 543	83, 368	5, 175	99, 390	92, 144	7, 246	1, 418	475	943	12.9	9.2	16. 2	47.1	33.
Dyeing and finishing	43	4, 534	3, 537	997	14, 148	12, 899	1, 249	153	18	135	14.0	6.9	16. 2		
Knit goods	65	15, 732	14, 034	1,698	5, 701	4, 667	1, 034	91	48	43	7.5	5.4		24.3	11.
Other	25	3, 021	2, 677	344	4, 292	3, 749	543	62	25	37			13. 2	73. 4	52.
ransportation equipment:		0,021	2, 0, ,	011	1, 202	3, 148	040	04	20	31	14.2	14.0	14. 4	41.3	40.
Aircraft	18	31, 920	20, 294	11, 626	61, 141	38, 087	23, 054	315	00	000					
Aircraft parts	133	26, 973	19, 110	7, 863	78, 167	59, 722			89	226	5. 5	4.5	6.1	34.3	28.
Motor vehicles	75	11, 487	4, 482	7, 005	52, 962	37, 728	18, 445	643	125	518	10. 2	7.8	11.1	25.7	19.
Motor vehicles parts	55	10, 560					15, 234	509	24	485	13. 2	3.6	15.3	17.8	4.
Railroad equipment	35		6, 794	3, 766	37, 779	31, 839	5, 940	522	90	432	17.5	13.8	18.6	21.8	17.5
Railroad equipment Iiscellaneous manufacturing:	99	4, 709	2, 803	1,906	32, 667	27, 914	4, 753	324	33	291	14.2	11.7	14.5	12.6	10. 2
Scientific instruments and supplies,		TOWN AND THE	Section 1		E E		100				Part of		1		
onticel and related products		11 001	0.00			100	STATE STATE	ALEXANDER OF THE	S C		The Sale				
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.
Miscellaneous manufacturing, not else-						2 102		22 12 12			60			20.0	41. 3
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

¹ Some firms gave information for one quarter and some for another. For purposes of this study the records of the two quarters were combined. ² Less than 1 million hours of exposure.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor 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 United States Department of Labor's Women's Bureau and of the Industrial Division of the 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 for 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 1 and table 2, below, for some 20,000 establishments employing about 3½ 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 one quarter of the year, for example, the 11,000 women working in the slaughtering and meat packing industry received 165 injuries, or 1 for every 67 women. In stamped and pressed metal production, the quarter's record was 1 injury for every 76 women workers; in fabricated metal production, 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 one quarter of 1945; and in nonmanufacturing, 54 workers who died and 160 who were permanently disabled during 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.

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

	Number]	Employme	nt			Inju	ıries			D	Percent
Industry	of estab- lishments reporting	Total	Number	Number of men	Numb	Number of injuries to—		Injury f	requency r	ate for—	Percent women are of all	injuries to womer are of all
	. opostano	1000	of women		Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	workers	injuries
Retail trade:			7								100	
Apparel	836	36, 452	23, 169	13, 283	233	136	97	3.2	3.0	3.6	63. 6	58.4
Automotive dealers	1,077	20, 128	2, 113	18, 015	798	14	784	• 17.4	3.3	18.8	10. 5	1.8
Building and household supplies and equipment. Department and general merchandise stores	550	7, 203	1,697	5, 506	172	9	163	11.0	2.6	13. 4	23.6	5. 2
Dring stores	940	67, 252 11, 120	49, 893	17, 359	938	533	405	7.0	5.4	11.4	74.2	56.8
		12, 340	6, 461 2, 017	4, 659 10, 323	373	247	126	15. 5	17.8	12.3	58.1	66. 8
Grocery, meat, and vegetable stores—Chain	52	13, 966	4, 765	9, 201	796 684	22 212	774 472	26. 9	4.9	30.8	16. 4	2.8
Grocery, meat, and vegetable stores—Chain. Grocery, meat, and vegetable stores—Independ-	02	10, 500	1, 100	9, 201	004	212	4/2	24.5	22. 5	25. 6	34. 1	31. 0
entFuel and ice dealers	445	6, 340	2, 207	4, 133	232	57	175	18.3	13.7	20, 5	34.8	24. 8
Fuel and ice dealers	391	9, 306	1,029	8, 277	762	0	762	38.6	0	43. 1	11.1	0
Furniture stores	510	11, 318	3, 556	7,762	231	20	211	9.1	2.6	12.0	31. 4	8.7
Lumber and building materials, not metal	424	7, 330	828	6, 502	399	3	396	25.7	1.8	28. 6	11.3	.7
Mail-order houses Variety, limited-price stores	5	3, 605	2, 891	714	31	14	17	4.5	2.5	12.5	80. 2	45. 1
Other	63 909	5, 100	4, 248	852	161	101	60	18.1	13.7	38. 9	83. 3	62. 7
W noiesale trade:	909	19, 565	8, 484	11, 081	346	72	274	9.1	4.6	12.4	43. 4	20.8
Automotivo	191	5, 578	1, 461	4, 117	156	16	140	10.0				
Chemical, drugs and related products	143	5, 575	2, 187	3, 388	81	28	140	12. 2 7. 2	4.9 6.4	14.7	26. 2	10.3
Dry goods and apparel	362	8, 111	2, 994	5, 117	57	11	46	3.6	1.9	7.7 4.6	39. 3 37. 0	34. 6
Farm products and supplies	363	12, 932	3, 592	9, 340	573	50	523	25. 2	11.4	28.5	27.8	19. 3 8. 7
Groceries and food specialties	623	16, 902	3, 517	13, 385	752	39	713	20. 5	5.6	24.0	20.8	5. 2
Chemical, drugs and related products Dry goods and apparel Farm products and supplies. Groceries and food specialties Industrial and household building material, equipment, and supplies. Paper and paper products Other.									0.0	21.0	20.0	0.2
Paper and paper products	644	21, 144	6, 150	14, 994	545	46	499	12.1	3.6	15.5	29.1	8.4
Other	174	5, 058	1, 648	3, 410	114	7	107	10.8	2.1	14.8	32.6	6.1
Other nonmanufacturing industries.	519	12, 866	3, 620	9, 246	600	51	549	21.7	6.8	27.1	28.1	8.5
	244	20, 912	14. 089	6, 823	200	100	100			2000		
Cleaning and dyeing	178	6, 166	4, 013	2, 153	365 94	172	193	8.2	5.7	13.4	67.4	47.1
Hotels, year-round	648	56, 817	29, 495	27, 322	1, 602	674	928	7.1	5.3	10.4	65. 1	47.9
Cleaning and dyeing Hotels, year-round Banks and brokerage	319	7. 988	2, 874	5, 114	29	11	18	1.8	10.5	15.3	51.9	42.1
Electric light and power	39	18, 956	3, 333	15, 623	473	18	455	11.6	2. 5	13.6	35. 9 17. 6	37. 9 3. 8
Electric light and power Manufactured gas production and distribution Natural gas distribution	42	4, 025	855	3, 170	212	5	207	23. 7	2.8	28. 9	21.3	2.4
Natural gas distribution	31	10, 827	1, 986	8, 841	286	8	278	12.3	1.9	14.6	18.3	2.8

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, one 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 of injury 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.

The stamped and pressed metal products industries show a high rate of injury for both men and women, indicating special need for a program for improved safety methods. Other industries also call for special attention—slaughtering and meat packing, furniture and lumber products, and lumber mills—where rates of injury are less comparable but still very high for both men and women; and those industries in which, though rates for women are low, they are seriously high for men.

In all such 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, speeded up by World War II, 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 vaca-

tion 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.

8. Night work, except in continuous process industries and essential services, kept to a minimum: a guarantee of an uninterrupted rest period of 11 consecutive hours, including an absolute "barred period" of 7 hours between 12 midnight and 7 a.m.

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; assistance by the appropriate government

agency in collection of wages due.

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 heating, 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. Provision for mechanical aids in lifting weights and elimination of undue physical strain wherever 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.

SUMMARY OF STATE LABOR LAWS FOR WOMEN 1

Basic standards as of January 1, 1950

The basic purpose of labor legislation for women is protection of the health and well-being of the woman worker. Various factors, such as the concentration of women in the low-paid, unskilled occupations and their lack of effective trade-union organization, in the early days led to the exploitation of women workers. In many industries and areas their employment was characterized by inadequate wages, excessively long hours, and unhealthful conditions of work. Woman's dual role as homemaker and wage earner made the elimination of such conditions a matter of social importance and laid the basis for the comprehensive system of women's labor law that exists today.

Each of the 48 States, the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico now has on its statute books laws establishing standards for the employment of women. Principal subjects of regulation are: (1) Hours of work, including maximum daily and weekly hours, day of rest, meal and rest periods, and night work; (2) plant facilities, such as seating; (3) limitations on certain hazardous or unhealthful types of employment; (4) regulation of industrial home work; (5) limitations on employment before and after childbirth; (6) wages, including minimum wages and equal pay. In most such laws the coverage is expressly limited to women or to women and minors. Not every State has enacted legislation on each of these subjects, and the standards established vary widely from State to State.

The first women's laws to be adopted were those establishing maximum hours of employment. Ohio enacted a 10-hour law for women as early as 1852. The first enforceable law was that of Massachusetts, as amended in 1879. The standard of a 10-hour maximum workday was gradually replaced by the 9-hour and then by the 8-hour day. Today all except 5 States, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico have laws in effect setting a legal limit to the hours of employment of women in one or

¹The Territories are included in this summary. No information is available for the Virgin Islands at the present time.

more industries. In about half the States, the limit so established is 8 hours a day and/or 48 hours a week.

Other major fields of labor legislation for women are minimum wage and equal pay. The first minimum-wage law in the United States was enacted by Massachusetts in 1912. Today 26 States, the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico have minimum-wage laws. Seven such laws now cover men as well as women and minors. Equal-pay laws originated at the end of the First World War with the passage of bills in Michigan and Montana. The Second World War gave new impetus to such legislation with the result that 10 additional States and Alaska enacted equal-pay laws from 1943 to the present date.

After a series of conflicting court decisions involving major types of labor legislation for women—maximum hour and minimum wage the courts finally upheld the constitutionality of such laws, finding that the health and well-being of women workers is a matter of public concern and that legislation can properly take such factors into account. The constitutionality of maximum-hour legislation, a subject of contest for nearly two decades, was finally established in 1908 by a United States Supreme Court decision upholding the Oregon 10-hour law (Muller case). With respect to minimum-wage legislation, the Court held the District of Columbia law unconstitutional in 1923 (Adkins case) and later expressly reversed itself, upholding the constitutionality of the Washington State law (Parrish case) in 1937. The constitutionality of the Michigan equal-pay law was upheld by the State Supreme Court in the first such case ever to reach the highest court in any State. It has never come before the United States Supreme Court.

During three-quarters of a century of development, the field of labor legislation for women has seen a tremendous increase in the number of laws and a notable improvement in standards they established. The record made during the 1949 legislative sessions furnishes a current example: Two States—Maine and Tennessee—improved their maximum-hour law standards; Wyoming enacted a rest-period provision; Maine enacted a home-work law; and 3 States—California, Connecticut, Maine—and Alaska enacted equal-pay laws. Two States—Massachusetts and New Hampshire—amended their minimum-wage laws to establish statutory rates, retaining, however, existing wage-board provisions and New Hampshire's amendment extended the State's minimum-wage coverage to adult males.

MAXIMUM DAILY AND WEEKLY HOURS

Forty-three States, the District of Columbia, and one Territory have laws limiting women's daily and/or weekly hours of employment in one or more industries.

Five States—Alabama, Florida, Indiana, Iowa, and West Virginia—do not have such laws. The laws of Hawaii and Puerto Rico set no maximum but require payment of premium rates for time worked beyond specified daily and/or weekly hours.

One-half of the States (24) and the District of Columbia, listed below, have set 8 hours a day and/or 48 hours a week or less as the maximum time a woman may be employed in one or more industries.² In all but one of these jurisdictions (Kansas is the exception), manufacturing establishments are covered. In Connecticut the maximum workweek is 48 hours for several industries, but daily hours may not exceed 8 in mercantile establishments or 9 in other types of employment, including manufacturing. Ohio's law sets 8–48 hours as the maximum for industries other than manufacturing and 9–45 hours as the maximum for manufacturing. 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	8-48	New Mexico	8-48
Arkansas	3 8	New York	8-48
California	8-48	North Carolina	9-48
Colorado	3 8	North Dakota	81/2-48
Connecticut		Ohio	
District of Columbia	8-48	Oregon	8-44
Illinois	8-48	Pennsylvania	10-48
Kansas	8-48	Rhode Island	9-48
Louisiana	8-48	Utah	8-48
Massachusetts	9-48	Virginia	9-48
Montana		Washington	
Nevada	8-48	Wyoming	8-48
New Hampshire	10-48		

Nine States, listed below, have set a maximum 9-hour day for women, and all but one of these (Idaho) have a weekly maximum of 50 or 54

³ Day-of-rest law provides, in effect, for a 48-hour week.

² If a State has set different legal maximum-hour standards for different industries, the law establishing the highest standard, i. e., the lowest maximum hours, is shown.

hours. Maine's law sets 50 hours for manufacturing and 54 for a number of other establishments and industries.

Idaho	9	Oklahoma	9-54
Maine	9-50	Texas	9-54
Michigan		Vermont	9-50
Missouri		Wisconsin	9-50
Nebraska	9-54		

Nine States, listed below, have set a maximum day of 10 hours and a week of from 50 to 60 hours. All cover manufacturing, though in Georgia and South Carolina the law is limited to one type of manufacturing only—cotton and woolen goods.

Delaware	10-55	New Jersey	10-54
Georgia (men and women)			
Kentucky	10-60	women) 4	10-55
Mississippi (men and women)	10-60	Tennessee	10-50

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

Alaska has set 60 hours as the maximum week for household or domestic employees.

DAY OF REST 5

Nearly half the States (22) and the District of Columbia, listed below, 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. In 7 States both men and women employees are covered.

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

⁴ A 1949 amendment to the previous 8- and 40-hour law for workers in textile mills provides that work in excess of 8 and 40 hours shall be permissible when provisions of the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act are complied with.

⁵ In 1945, Rhode Island reenacted an earlier law covering employment on certain holidays and added Sundays to the list of days when employment not absolutely necessary is prohibited. Kentucky law requires payment of time and a half for work on the 7th consecutive day, and Puerto Rico requires that double time be paid for such work. In none of these, however, does the law establish a 6-day week.

A number of States still have the so-called "blue laws" on their statute books. These laws usually penalize a worker who labors on Sunday at works other than those of necessity or charity. The Sunday or blue laws, since they are not labor laws, are not included here.

MEAL PERIODS

Over half the States (27), the District of Columbia, and one Territory, listed below, have provided that meal periods varying from ½ hour 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.

Arkansas California Colorado Delaware

District of Columbia

Illinois Indiana (men and women)

Kansas Kentucky Louisiana Maine Maryland Massachusetts

Nebraska (men and women)

Nevada

New Jersey (men and women)

New Mexico

New York (men and women)

North Carolina North Dakota Ohio

Oregon
Pennsylvania
Rhode Island
Utah
Washington
West Virginia
Wisconsin
Puerto Rico

REST PERIODS

Rest periods are provided for in 8 States. Two—Nevada and Wyoming—provide rest periods for a variety of industries by statute, and 6 States—Arizona, California, Colorado, Oregon, Utah, and Washington—provide rest periods for one or more industries by minimum-wage order. The great majority set a 10-minute period within the half-day's work; some set 15 minutes, and one, 5 minutes.

NIGHT WORK

Twenty-three States, the District of Columbia, and one Territory place some limitation on the hours of night-work employment of women or of persons between 18 and 21 years of age.

Thirteen States and one Territory, listed below, *prohibit* night work for adult women in certain industries or occupations. In North Dakota and Washington, elevator operators only are covered.

California New Jersey
Connecticut New York
Delaware North Dakota
Indiana South Carolina
Kansas Washington
Massachusetts Wisconsin

Nebraska (except on permit) Puerto Rico (except on permit)

In four additional States—Arizona, Kentucky, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island—and the District of Columbia, a night-work prohibition applies only to persons under 21 years of age in messenger service. In another State—Virginia—similar limitations apply only to girl messengers. In Ohio, girls under 21 may not be employed for night work in the numerous industries or occupations listed in the statute.

In four additional States—Maryland, New Hampshire, New Mexico, and Utah—as well as in several of the States already listed, 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 requiring the employer to meet specific working-conditions standards. Puerto Rico's law makes a specific exception for the canning, packing, and fruit and vegetable refrigeration industries and textile plants.

SEATING

Forty-six States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have seating laws—all but one of them applying exclusively to women. Florida's law applies to both males and females. Illinois and Mississippi have no seating laws.

OCCUPATIONAL LIMITATIONS

Twenty-nine States have occupational limitation laws for women and minors—23 of them having one or more such limitations on the employment of adult women. In these States the occupations in which such employment is usually prohibited are in mines and in liquor establishments.

In 17 of the States women's employment in mines is prohibited, and in 8 they may not be employed to mix, sell, or dispense alcoholic liquors in establishments where such beverages are sold for on-premises consumption. The laws of 10 States prohibit a woman's employment in certain occupations (e. g., operating polishing wheels or belts, cleaning moving machinery, bellhop) or places (e. g., basements of specified establishments) considered hazardous or injurious to health or safety.

The following summary shows the few establishments, occupations, or operations in which the employment of adult women is prohibited by State law.

Mines	Barrooms
Alabama	California
Arizona	Connecticut
Arkansas	Illinois
Colorado	Kentucky
Illinois	Louisiana
Indiana	Michigan
Maryland	Ohio
Missouri	Pennsylvania
New York	
Ohio .	
Oklahoma	
Pennsylvania	
Utah	
Virginia	
Washington	
Wisconsin	
Wyoming	

Other places, occupations, or operations

Arizona—Constant standing (all industries). Louisiana—Cleaning moving machinery.

Michigan—Foundries. Hazardous occupations. Operating polishing wheels, belts, etc., in room wholly or partly underground; handling certain harmful substances.

Minnesota—Core rooms. Cleaning moving machinery.

Missouri—Cleaning, or working between, moving machinery.

New York—Basement of a restaurant or mercantile establishment. Operating polishing wheels, etc.

Ohio—16 occupations (in addition to work in mines, barrooms, smelters), for example, bellhop, express driver, freight or baggage elevator operator, work in shoe-shining parlors, pool rooms, etc.

Pennsylvania—Dangerous or injurious occupations.

Washington—Bellhop.

Wisconsin-Disorderly house.

WEIGHT LIFTING

Nine States and one Territory have some regulation regarding the lifting or carrying of heavy weights by women. They are:

California Ohio
Massachusetts Oregon
Michigan Utah
Minnesota (core rooms only) Washington
New York (core rooms only) Alaska

INDUSTRIAL HOME WORK

Twenty-one States and one Territory, listed below, have industrial home-work laws or regulations. In all but three—Colorado, Oregon, and Utah—the law applies to all persons; in these three jurisdictions the law applies to women and minors only.

California Michigan Tennessee Colorado Missouri Texas Connecticut New Jersey Utah Illinois New York West Virginia Indiana Ohio Wisconsin Maine Oregon . Puerto Rico Pennsylvania Maryland Massachusetts Rhode Island

EMPLOYMENT BEFORE AND AFTER CHILDBIRTH

Six States and one Territory, Puerto Rico, have laws prohibiting the employment of women immediately before and after childbirth. Except in Puerto Rico, the provisions of these laws are limited to prohibiting employment. Puerto Rico, in addition, requires the employer to pay to the working mother during the 8-week period one-half of her regular salary or wage. None of these laws provides for job security during the required absence. The jurisdictions and the periods during which women may not be required to work are:

Connecticut	4 weeks before and 4 weeks after.
Massachusetts	
Missouri	
New York	
Vermont	
Washington	
Puerto Rico	

EQUAL PAY

Twelve States and one Territory, listed below, have enacted statutes which prohibit discrimination in rate of pay because of sex. Two of these—Illinois and Michigan—apply to manufacturing only. Three States—California, Connecticut, Maine—and Alaska enacted equal-pay laws in 1949.

California Michigan Pennsylvania
Connecticut Montana Rhode Island
Illinois New Hampshire Washington
Maine New York Alaska
Massachusetts

MINIMUM WAGE

Twenty-six States, the District of Columbia, and three Territories have minimum-wage laws. Most of these apply to women and both male and female minors; variations from this pattern of coverage are indicated in the listing below. These laws are broad in their coverage of industries; most of them are all-inclusive except for a few listed exemptions, usually domestic service and agriculture. The Maine law, however, applies only to fish packing.

Arizona New Jersey
Arkansas (women and girls) New York (all persons)
California North Dakota
Colorado Ohio

Connecticut (all persons) Oklahoma (women)
District of Columbia Oregon

Illinois Pennsylvania
Kansas Rhode Island (all persons)

Kentucky
Kentucky
South Dakota (women and girls)
Utah

Maine Washington
Massachusetts (all persons) Wisconsin
Minnesota Alaska (women)
Nevada (women and girls) Hawaii (all persons)
New Hampshire (all persons) Puerto Rico (all persons)

Both Massachusetts and New Hampshire amended their minimumwage laws in 1949 to establish statutory rates in addition to retaining existing wage-board provisions.

VII

LEGISLATION AFFECTING HOUSEHOLD EMPLOYEES

As of January 1, 1950

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 the following 8 States and 1 Territory:

CaliforniaOklahomaWashingtonColoradoOregonWisconsinKansasUtahAlaska

2. Alaska and Wisconsin are the only jurisdictions with minimum-wage rates now in effect for domestic workers. The Alaska minimum-wage law sets a minimum wage of \$18 a week, applicable to a workweek of 6 days, 48 hours, and a minimum part-time wage of 45 cents an hour. Wisconsin's 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 an hour.

In cities and villages with a population 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 employment. 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.) The 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 workers. 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 3 or more employees unless a written stipulation to the contrary is made; law is voluntary for those employing less than 3.

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
Towa	Tevas	

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 WAGE PAYMENT LAWS

STATE HAVING LAW THAT SPECIFICALLY COVERS DOMESTIC WORKERS

California (if boarded and lodged by employer).

STATES AND TERRITORY HAVING LAWS OF BROAD GENERAL COVERAGE APPLICABLE TO DOMESTIC WORKERS

Georgia Minnesota³ Rhode Island Idaho 3 Montana West Virginia Illinois 3 Nevada Wyoming 3 Indiana New Jersey Alaska Louisiana 3 New York Massachusetts Pennsylvania

COVERAGE OF DOMESTIC WORKERS BY SOCIAL SECURITY LEGISLATION NOW IN EFFECT

UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE

- 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 insurance 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.

³ Provision of the law relates only to payment of wage in case of employee's discharge.

VIII

THE POLITICAL AND CIVIL STATUS OF WOMEN

Including principal sex distinctions as of July 1, 1949

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 (as of Jan. 1, 1948) are entitled by law to serve on juries in 38 States and the District of Columbia; by this fact they are eligible also for Federal duty in these jurisdictions. [Virginia's 1950 Assembly admitted women to trial jury duty if they wish to qualify for service.]

Twenty States ¹ require compulsory duty of qualified women; 18 States ² and the District of Columbia permit optional service from women.

Ten 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.

³ Ala., Ga., Miss., N. Mex., Okla., S. C., Tenn., Tex., Va., W. Va.

¹ Calif., Colo., Conn., Del., Ill., Ind., Iowa, Maine, Md., Mich., Mont., Nebr., N. J., N. C., Ohio, Oreg., Pa., S. Dak., Vt., Wyo.

² Ariz., Ark., Fla., Idaho, Kans., Ky., La., Mass., Minn., Mo., Nev., N. H., N. Y., N. Dak., R. I., Utah, Wash., Wis.

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

CaliforniaNevadaOhioMaineNew JerseyPennsylvaniaMassachusettsNew YorkVirginiaMichiganNorth CarolinaWisconsin

Five States permit separate domicile for eligibility to public office:

Maine Nevada New York

Michigan New Jersey

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

> Maine Nevada Michigan New Jersey

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

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 ⁶ 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. Twenty-one States ⁷ may grant a divorce to the wife on grounds that are exclusive to her, generally the husband's desertion or nonsupport.

⁴ Colo., Conn., Maine, Mo., N. J., N. C., Pa., Tenn.

⁵ Conn., Fla., Ga., Idaho, Ky., La., Nebr., N. C., Ohio, Pa., R. I., S. C., Tenn., Va., W. Va., Wyo.

⁶ Ala., Ariz., Ga., Iowa, Kans., Ky., Miss., Mo., N. H., N. Mex., N. C., Okla., Tenn., Va., Wis., Wyo.

⁷ Ala., Ariz., Colo., Del., Ind., Ky., Maine, Mass., Mich., Mo., Mont., Nebr., Nev., N. H., N. Mex., R. I., Tenn., Vt., Wash., Wis., Wyo.

PARENT AND CHILD

Thirty-four States 8 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 11 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 guardian according to the law of the State only if he legally acknowledges 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

⁸ 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.

⁹ Ala., Ark., Colo., Ga., Iowa, Mass., Mich., Minn., N. Y., N. C., Okla., Vt., Va., Wyo.

Ala., Colo., La., Mont., Oreg., Tex.
 Ariz., Idaho, Mont., N. Dak., Okla., Oreg., S. Dak., Utah, Vt.

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.

¹⁴ Idaho, Kans., La., Mont., Nev., N. Mex., N. Dak., Okla., S. Dak.

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.

Three 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.

The eight ¹⁹ community-property States [as of July 1, 1950] 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.

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.

¹⁵ Ariz., Ark., Calif., Colo., Conn., Idaho, Ill., Iowa, La., Mass., Minn., Mo., Mont., N. Dak., Oreg., Pa., S. Dak., Utah, Wash., W. Va., Wyo.

¹⁶ Calif., Idaho, Mont., Nev., N. Mex., N. Dak., Ohio, Okla., S. Dak., Wis.

¹⁷ Idaho, Mo., Tex., Va.

¹⁸ La., Nebr., Tex.

¹⁰ Ariz., Calif., Idaho, La., Nev., N. Mex., Tex., Wash.

²⁰ Ala., Ga., Idaho, Ky., N. H.

²¹ Idaho, Nev., Okla., Oreg., S. Dak.

²² Del., Nev., N. H., N. C., S. C., Utah.

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.

Six 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 one State ²⁵ denies 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 "estate by the entirety as at common law," 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.—Eight States ²⁸ have the community system of ownership between husband and wife applied to property acquired by their joint efforts during the marriage. In these States the husband has principal control of most of the communal property while the spouses live together. Two of the community-property States ²⁹ 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

²³ Del., Ky., Md., Mass., Miss., Mont., N. Y., N. Dak., Ohio, Okla., Oreg., S. Dak., Tenn., Vt., Va.

Ala., Fla., Ind., N. C., Pa., Tex.
 Tex.

²⁶ Mass., Mich., N. C.

²⁷ Calif., Fla., Nev., Pa., Tex.

²⁸ Ariz., Calif., Idaho, La., Nev., N. Mex., Tex., Wash.

²⁹ Idaho, Nev.

wife; but each of these States has repealed the law since passage of the 1948 Federal Revenue Act which permits division of family income for tax returns.]

In the 40 States ³⁰ 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 some valid private adjustment, or a valid will, the common 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 Nevada and New Mexico deny a wife testamentary rights over her half of the community estate.

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.

³⁰ Ala., Ark., Colo., Conn., Del., Fla., Ga., Ill., Ind., Iowa, Kans., Ky., Maine, Md., Mass., Mich., Minn., Miss., Mo., Mont., Nebr., N. H., N. J., N. Y., N. C., N. Dak., Ohio, Okla., Ore., Pa., R. I., S. C., S. Dak., Tenn., Utah, Vt., Va., W. Va., Wis., Wyo.

WOMEN'S EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING

STUDENT ENROLLMENTS IN AND GRADUATES OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS 1

	Enrollments			Graduates		
Type of school and school year	Number		Percent females	Number		Percent
	Total	Females	are of total	Total	Females	are of total
Kindergarten and elementary schools:			Strike St		Barby Cast	
1945–46 1947–48	20, 051, 408 20, 828, 958	9, 755, 270 10, 118, 991	48. 7 48. 6	(2) (2)	(2)	(2) (2)
Secondary schools: 1945–46	6, 237, 133	3, 320, 028	53, 2	1, 080, 033	613, 107	56.8
1947–48 Institutions of higher educa-	6, 305, 168	3, 240, 889	51. 4	1, 189, 909	627, 046	52.
tion: 1945–46 1947–48 1948–49	1, 676, 851 2, 616, 262	749, 189 779, 923	44. 7 29. 8	136, 174 271, 019 365, 428	77, 510 95, 563 101, 874	56. 9 35. 3 27. 9

¹ Includes only regular session students in full-time day schools. Latest year for which complete figures are available is 1947-48; only available comparable figures for 1948-49 are for graduates in institutions of higher education.
² Not reported because of differences in elementary school organization.

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

WOMEN ENROLLED IN VOCATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMS

Federally aided all-day trade and industrial programs in which women were enrolled for the year ending June 30, 1949 ¹

Total Enrollment of		ome , 74	
Garment and textile trades	14	, 22	5
Dressmaking	8	, 44	5
Power sewing-machine operation	2	, 62	
Millinery		66	
Textiles		50	
Men's tailoring		10	
Upholstering		6	
Laundering, cleaning, dyeing, and pressing		6	
Garment and textile trades, other	1	, 75	5
Domestic and personal service trades	9	, 66	9
Cosmetology	7	20	1
		, 32	
NursingHousehold service and management	1	, 54	
Interior decoration		37 17	38
Hotel service and management		2	
Barbering			9
Domestic and personal service trades, other		22	2
Food trades	2	, 40	0
Food service	1	, 23	2
Cooking	1	53	
Baking		6	
Meat cutting		1	
Food trades, other		54	
Printing and publishing trades	1.	, 23	3
Commercial art		90	5
Photography		20	
Printing		10	
Bookbinding		1.	
Printing and publishing trades, other		1000	5
1 Provisional figures			

¹ Provisional figures.

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

	Enrollment of	women
Electrical trades		170
Telegraphy and telephony		133
Radio		34
Electric wiring		2
Electrical trades, other		1
Mechanical service and hand trades		124
Dental mechanics		112
Jewelry and watchmaking		8
Auto mechanics (including Diesel mechanics)		- 4
Building and construction trades		57
Bricklaying, stone masonry, and tile setting		39
Carpentry and woodworking		17
Painting and decorating		1
Metal trades		48
Machine shop	Manager Conf	48
Aircraft manufacturing and maintenance	120121111111111	3
Aircraft instruments		2
Aircraft engine and propeller mechanics		1
Miscellaneous trades		816
Drafting		102
General industrial		76
Gardening and landscaping		8
Miscellaneous trades, other		630

WOMEN SERVED BY REHABILITATION PROGRAMS

The number of women rehabilitated under Federal and State rehabilitation agencies in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1949, was 18,200 or 31.4 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

The following brief bibliography lists, under subject headings, the more outstanding basic source materials on American women, as well as recently issued publications. 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:

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- The Legal Status of Women in the United States of America, January 1, 1948. Bull. 157. Revised. Separate bulletin for each State and Territory; general summary for the United States.
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(See also Women's Bureau complete list of publications; includes studies of conditions in particular industries and special problems such as lost time and labor turn-over, irregular employment, piecework, etc.)

ORGANIZATION INTO UNIONS

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

See also certain items already listed:

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WOMEN'S NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

List as of January 1950

Following is a list of women's national organizations 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 the Junior Leagues of America, Inc., The Waldorf-Astoria Hotel, New York 22, N. Y. Founded in 1901. The purpose of the Junior League is to foster interest among its members in the social, economic, educational, cultural, and civic conditions of the community, and to maintain desirable standards of efficiency in their volunteer service. Membership: 172 Leagues in U. S. A., Canada, Mexico, and Hawaii with approximately 53,350 members.

General Federation of Women's Clubs, 1734 N Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1890. Its objective 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, philanthropy, public welfare, moral values, civics, and fine arts. Membership includes 750,000 per capita paying members, in addition to State, national, and international organizations affiliated with the General Federation.

National Association of Colored Women, Inc., 1114 O Street NW., Washington 5, D. C. Established in 1896. Its purpose is the betterment of the home and civic life and moral standards of the race. It also sponsors the National Association of Colored Girls, Inc., and a national scholarship fund. Membership: 50,000.

- National Consumers League for Fair Labor Standards, 348 Engineers' Building, Cleveland 14, Ohio. (Not restricted to women.) Established in 1899. Its purpose is "to awaken consumers' interest in their responsibility for conditions under which goods are made and distributed, and through investigation, education, and legislation, to promote fair labor standards."
- 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. Membership: 6,000,000 through federated groups.
- National Council of Jewish Women, Inc., 1819 Broadway, New York 23, N. Y. Established in 1893. Its purpose is to afford its members "an opportunity to assume a constructive role in the American community through its programs of social legislation, contemporary Jewish affairs, international understanding for peace, service to foreign born, and community welfare." Membership: 88,000.
- 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. Membership: 900,000.
- National Council of Women of the United States, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue, Suite 905, New York 22, N. Y. Founded in 1888. Its purpose is to achieve, through the unity of women, world peace, security, and equal opportunity for all. Affiliated with the International Council of Women. Membership: 5,000,000 (approximately) through combined membership of affiliated groups.
- National Jewish Welfare Board, 145 East Thirty-second Street, New York 16, N. Y. Founded in 1917. It is the National Association of Young Women's Hebrew Associations, as well as Young Men's Hebrew Associations and Jewish Community Centers. Membership: 500,000.
- 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 the public to a standard of total abstinence from alcoholic beverages and abolition of liquor traffic; for youth training in habits of total abstinence and sobriety; and for the promotion of 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. 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 the building of a world Christian community." Membership: 50 State Councils and 1,582 active local groups.

Young Women's Christian Association of the United States of America, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York 22, N. Y. Founded in 1858. Its purpose is "to build a fellowship of women and girls devoted to the task of realizing in our common life those ideals of personal and social living to which we are committed by our faith as Christians. . . ." It works to advance the mental, physical, and spiritual growth of young women. Affiliated with the World's YWCA. Membership: 3,000,000.

Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, Administrative Headquarters, United States Section, 2006 Walnut Street, Philadelphia 3, Pa.; Legislative office, 1734 F Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1915 in The Hague. Its purpose is to unite those in all countries who oppose 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.

PROFESSIONAL AND BUSINESS ORGANIZATIONS

National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc., 1819 Broadway, New York 23, N. Y. Established in 1919. Its purpose is to afford women opportunities for participation in the solution of social and economic problems of importance to women, and to promote their preparation for advancement in business and professional life. Affiliated with the International Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs. Membership: 155,000.

National Association of Negro Business and Professional Women's Clubs, 1011 U Street NW., Washington 1, D. C. Founded in 1935. Its purpose is to promote and protect the interest of Negro business and professional women and create good fellowship among them; to direct their interests toward united action for improved social and civic conditions; to encourage the training and development of women; to aid business in general by patronage; and to inspire and train young women for leadership. Membership: 1,200.

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

ACCOUNTANCY

American Society of Women Accountants, 342 Madison Avenue, New York 17, N. Y. Founded in 1938. Its purpose is to offer technical and educational programs to improve the efficiency of its members, to provide opportunity for exchange of ideas, and to encourage its members to become certified public accountants. Membership: More than 1,000.

American Woman's Society of Certified Public Accountants, 342 Madison Avenue, New York 17, N. Y. Founded in 1933. Its purpose is to advance the professional interest of women certified public accountants and to promote a greater interest among women in the higher attainments of the accounting profession. Membership: 215.

ART

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

BANKING

Association of Bank Women, 60 East Forty-second Street, New York 17, N. Y. Founded in 1921. Its purpose is to bring together women executives engaged in the profession of banking for exchange of ideas and experiences for their mutual benefits; to promote the interests of its members; and to further the interests of all women in the banking profession. Membership: 993.

ENGINEERING

Society of Women Engineers, % Drexel Institute of Technology, Philadelphia 4, Pa. Established in 1949. Its purpose is to establish a code of ethics for women engineers; to educate the public to the need for women engineers; to foster congenial relationships between women engineers and industry; to help undergraduates to find their place in industry; to encourage and assist all women who show an aptitude and desire to study engineering; to sponsor laws beneficial to women engineers. Membership: 200.

FASHION

The Fashion Group, Inc., 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y. Founded in 1931. It is an association of women engaged in fashion work, formed to advance the principles of applied art in industry and to foster good taste in fashion; to encourage the cooperation of those engaged in conceiving, designing, and executing fashions; and to inspire a keener interest in fashion industries. Membership: 2,087.

GEOGRAPHY

The Society of Woman Geographers, 1706 G Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Founded in 1925. Its purpose is to create avenues of contact between traveled women engaged in geographical work and its allied arts and sciences; to further geographical work in all its branches; to spread geographical knowledge; and to encourage geographical research. Membership: 300.

HEALTH SERVICES

American Association of Industrial Nurses, 654 Madison Avenue, Room 909, New York 21, N. Y. Founded in 1942. Its purpose is to establish sound standards of education, practice, and policies in industrial nursing; to create rapport and promote mutual understanding with industrial management, medicine, safety, and allied groups; to effect the inclusion of industrial nursing participation in industrial and community health programs. Membership: 3,000.

American Association of Medical Record Librarians, 22 East Division Street, Chicago 10, Ill. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.) Founded in 1928. Its purpose is to elevate the standard of clinical records in hospitals, dispensaries, and other strictly medical institutions. Membership: 2,300.

American Association of Medical Social Workers, 1834 K Street NW., Washington 5, D. C. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.) Founded in 1918. Its purpose is to improve the quality and effectiveness of social work in relation to health and medical care. Membership: 2,300.

American Association of Nurse Anesthetists, 22 East Division Street, Chicago 10, Ill. Founded in 1931. Its purpose is to develop educational standards and techniques in the administration of anesthetics; to facilitate cooperation between nurse anesthetists and the medical profession; to promote an educational program on the importance of the proper administration of anesthetics. Membership: 4,950.

American Dental Assistants Association, Inc., 410 First National Bank Building, La Porte, Ind. Established in 1924. Its purpose is to encourage women employed as dental assistants to form societies through which they can obtain the educational advantages of lectures, clinical demonstrations, discussions, and instruction in the details of their duties; to inspire its members to render more efficient service; to promote fellowship, cooperation, and a desire for mutual improvement among its members. Membership: 6,500.

American Dental Hygienists Association, 1612 Eye Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1923. Its purpose is to elevate and sustain the professional character and education of dental hygienists; to promote among them mutual improvement, social intercourse, and good will; to inform and direct public opinion in relation to dental hygiene and the promotion of pertinent legislation; and to represent and safeguard the common interests of members of the profession. Membership: 2,800.

American Medical Women's Association, Inc., P. O. Box 64, Planetarium Station, New York 24, N. Y. Founded in 1915. Its purpose is to encourage social and cooperative relations inside and outside the profession; to further relief work; and to assist women medical students and women physicians in their undergraduate and postgraduate work, respectively. Affiliated with the Medical Women's International Association.

American Nurses Association, 1790 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y. Organized in 1896 as the Nurses' Associated Alumnae of the United States and Canada. Its purpose is to promote the professional and educational advancement of nurses; to elevate the standard of nursing education; and to establish and maintain a high code of ethics among nurses. Affiliated with the International Council of Nurses. Membership: 171,341.

American Occupational Therapy Association, 33 West Forty-second Street, New York 18, N. Y. Founded in 1917. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.) Its objectives are to promote the use of occupational therapy; to advance standards of education and training in this field; to promote research; and to engage in other activities advantageous to the profession and its members. Membership: 3,000.

American Physical Therapy Association, 1790 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.) Founded in 1921. Its purpose is to promote the understanding and utilization of physical therapy in the prevention and treatment of human ailments; to establish and maintain adequate professional and scientific standards for physical therapists; to aid in establishing educational standards and in scientific research in physical therapy; and to maintain a register of qualified physical therapists. Membership: 3,964.

American Society of Medical Technologists, 6544 Fannin Street, Houston 5, Tex. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.) Founded in 1933. Its purpose is to promote higher standards in clinical laboratory methods and research, and to raise the status of those specializing in medical laboratory technique. Membership: 4,500.

American Society of X-Ray Technicians, % Genevieve J. Eilert, Executive Secretary, 16 Fourteenth Street, Fond du Lac, Wis. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.) Founded in 1920. Its purpose is to promote radiography; to assist in establishing approved standards of training and recognized qualifications for those engaged in technical work in radiological departments; to arrange meetings for the reading of papers and discussion of problems pertaining to the work of X-ray technicians; and to encourage and facilitate a similar program among technicians affiliated with this Society. Membership: 2,976.

Association of American Women Dentists, % Dr. Muriel K. G. Robinson, President, 4906 Walnut Street, Philadelphia 9, Pa. Established in 1921.

National Federation of Licensed Practical Nurses, Inc., 250 West Fifty-seventh Street, New York 19, N. Y. Organized in 1949. Its major objectives are to associate all licensed practical nurses and to protect their welfare; to further the highest ethical principles; to interpret the standards of licensed practical nursing as well as the opinions of these nurses with respect to their work; and to promote the most effective use of their services.

HOME ECONOMICS

The American Dietetic Association, 620 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago 11, Ill. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.) Founded in 1917. Its purpose is to improve the nutritional status of human beings; to raise the standards in dietetic service; to protect the status of the profession; and to foster cooperation between the members and workers in allied fields. Membership: 8,200.

American Home Economics Association, 700 Victor Building, Washington 1, D. C. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.) Established in 1908. Its purpose is to promote standards of home living beneficial to the individual and to society. Membership: 19,382 individual members; 19,666 affiliated through college clubs; 1,000 affiliated through homemakers' groups.

INSURANCE

National Association of Insurance Women, % Miss Catherine F. Cook, Corresponding Secretary, P. O. Box 261, Coconut Grove 33, Fla. Founded in 1940. Its purpose is to encourage and foster practical and coordinated educational programs designed to broaden the knowledge of its members concerning the business of insurance; to cultivate and promote good fellowship and loyalty among them; to make them more responsive to the business requirements and necessities of their associates. Membership: 10,000.

Women Underwriters, The National Association of Life Underwriters, % Helen A. Pendergast, National Chairman, 421 Southern Building, Washington 5, D. C. Founded in 1934. Its purposes are to develop and extend the contributions of women underwriters to life insurance; to encourage wider participation on the part of women in association affairs; to stimulate professional interest and growth; to develop cooperative effort and understanding among women of the same profession. Membership: 2,500.

LAW

National Association of Women Lawyers, % J. Helen Slough, President, 600-6 B. F. Keith Building, Cleveland 15, Ohio. Founded in 1900. Its purpose is to promote the welfare and interests of women lawyers; to maintain the honor and integrity of the profession; to aid in the enactment of legislation for the common good and in the administration of justice; and to undertake actively whatever is necessary to promote and advance the purposes of the Association. Membership: 1,000.

LIBRARY SCIENCE

American Library Association, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago 11, Ill. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.) Established in 1876. Its objective is to increase the distribution and usefulness of books through improving and extending library service. Membership: 19,800.

Special Libraries Association, 31 East Tenth Street, New York 3, N. Y. (Not restricted to women, but membership is largely women.) Organized in 1909. Its purpose is to promote the collection, organization, and dissemination of information in specialized fields and to improve the usefulness of special libraries and information services. Membership: 5,000.

MUSIC

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

RADIO

Association of Women Broadcasters, National Association of Broadcasters, 1771 N Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Founded in 1942. Its purpose is to promote the interests of women broadcasters and executives; to encourage closer cooperation and to clear information relating to the work of women broadcasters throughout the United States in all fields of activity; and to further the principles and objectives of the National Association of Broadcasters. Membership: 1,500.

REAL ESTATE

National Association of Real Estate Boards, Women's Council, 22 West Monroe Street, Chicago 3, Ill. Established in 1939. Its purpose is to promote women's active participation in local Board activities and to present programs to all women realtors within local and State groups which offer an opportunity for leadership, education, and fellowship. Membership: 700.

TEACHING

See Educational Organizations.

WRITING

- American Newspaper Women's Clubs, Inc., 1604 20th Street NW., Washington 9, D. C. Founded in 1932. Its purpose is to maintain a meeting place for members; to promote professional pursuits and good fellowship among the members; and to encourage friendly understanding between the members and their professional contacts. Membership: 225.
- National League of American Pen Women, Inc., 814 National Press Building, Washington 4, D. C. Founded in 1897. Its purpose is to conduct and promote among its members creative and educational activities in art, letters, and music. Membership: 5,000.
- Women's National Press Club, 1367 National Press Building, Washington 4, D. C. Founded in 1919. Its purpose is to promote good fellowship among women engaged professionally in gathering and disseminating news; to promote the welfare of its members; and to foster the ethical standards of the profession. Membership: 325.

GENERAL SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS OF BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL WOMEN

- Altrusa International, Inc., 332 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago 11, Ill. Established in 1917. Pioneer of women's service clubs. It channels its service work through four committees: International Relations, Public Affairs, Vocational Information, and Altrusa Information; it also helps women establish themselves successfully in suitable occupations. Membership: 9,600.
- American Federation of Soroptimist Clubs, 1530 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia 2, Pa. Founded in 1921. Its purpose is to promote the spirit of service; to foster high ethical standards in business and the professions; to develop interest in community, national, and international affairs; and to promote the economic advancement of women. Membership: 11,000. Affiliated with the Soroptimist International Association.
- Pilot Club International, 1001 Persons Building, Macon, Ga. Organized in 1921. Membership (1946): 6,000.

Quota Club International, Inc., 1719 I Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1919.

Zonta International, 59 East Van Buren Street, Chicago 5, Ill. Established in 1919. Its main objectives are the encouragement of high ethical standards in business and the professions; the improvement of the legal, political, economic, and professional status of women; and the advancement of international understanding, good will, and peace through a world fellowship of executive women. Membership: 7,500 in 225 clubs in 11 countries.

EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

American Association of University Women, 1634 I Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Founded in 1882. Its purpose is to raise standards in education generally; to enlarge opportunities for college women; and to help members extend their education and use their abilities and training in building better communities and meeting national and international problems. Affiliated with the International Federation of University Women. Membership: 110,000.

National Association of Deans of Women, 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1916. Its purpose is to increase the effectiveness of deans, counselors, and other personnel workers, by strengthening their professional status, by formulating standards for their professional training, by studying changing trends in education, and by research and study pertinent to their work. It is a department of the National Education Association. Membership: 1,450.

National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 600 South Michigan Boulevard, Chicago 5, Ill. (Not restricted to women.) Founded in 1897. Its purpose is 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 home and school into closer relationship so that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child. Membership: 5,774,358.

National Association of College Women, % Mrs. Esther P. Shaw, Corresponding Secretary, 2645 Fifteenth Street NW., Washington 9, D. C. Founded in 1924. Its purpose is to secure equal opportunity for women in Negro institutions; to arouse among college women a consciousness of their responsibility in helping to solve local and national problems; and to create an awareness of international issues that demand study by and the cooperation of all thoughtful Americans. Membership: 30 branches.

National Council of Administrative Women in Education, % Mrs. Carolyn Patterson, President, Linden School, Pittsburgh 8, Pa. Founded in 1920. Its purpose is to promote the advancement of qualified women to administrative positions in the field of education; to foster growth in educational leadership; to afford opportunity for each member to become articulate in carrying out the broad purposes of education. It is a department of the National Education Association. Membership: 1,200.

National Education Association of the United States, 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.) Established in 1857 as the National Teachers Association. Its purpose is to elevate the character and advance the interests of the teaching profession and to promote the cause of education. Membership: 427,527 and 824,395 affiliated through State, territorial, and local associations.

POLITICAL AND LEGISLATIVE ORGANIZATIONS

- Democratic National Committee, Women's Division, 1200 Eighteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Founded in 1916. Its purpose is to aid and stimulate participation of women in support of the ideas and policies of the Democratic Party.
- League of Women Voters of the United States, 1026 Seventeenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Founded in 1920. Its purpose is to promote political responsibility through informed and active participation of citizens in government. Membership: 89,000.
- 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 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 of 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. Its purpose is to cooperate with the various State committees in all phases of party organization work among women.

Woman's National Democratic Club, 1526 New Hampshire Avenue NW., Washington 6, D. C. Founded in 1923. Its purpose is to furnish Democratic women with a clearing house for Democratic ideals and practical programs; to afford its members an opportunity to hear and meet the Nation's lawmakers, leaders, and men and women of international reputation. Membership: 750.

PATRIOTIC ORGANIZATIONS

- American Legion Auxiliary, 777 North Meridian Street, Indianapolis, Ind. Established in 1921. Its membership is composed of women from families of men who belong to the American Legion. The Legion is made up of male veterans of World Wars I and II.
- American Women's Voluntary Services, Inc., 500 Park Avenue, New York 22, N. Y. Founded in 1940. This is "a voluntary organization which recruits and trains women without regard to race, creed or color, for voluntary service to the veteran, the community and our country." Membership: 20,000.
- Daughters of the American Revolution, Seventeenth and D Streets NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1890.
- Daughters of Union Veterans of Civil War, 1861-65, 1326 Eighteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Organized in 1885. (Membership restricted to women whose ancestors sided with the North during the Civil War.)
- Ladies Auxiliary to the Veterans of Foreign Wars of the United States, 406 West Thirty-fourth Street, Kansas City 2, Mo. Founded 1914. Its purpose is to foster patriotism; to maintain and extend institutions of American freedom; and to defend the United States from enemies. Membership: 375,000.
- Service Star Legion, Inc., % Mrs. Maurice M. Price, Jr., Executive Secretary, 2907 Rosalie Avenue, Baltimore 14, Md., Founded in 1917. Its objectives are to serve God, country, and humanity; to promote peace and brotherhood among men and nations; to guard the welfare of soldiers, sailors, and marines who served in the World War and give aid and comfort to their families; and to foster a spirit of sisterhood and democracy among women. Membership: 10,000.
- United Daughters of the Confederacy, 5330 Pershing Avenue, St. Louis, Mo. Established in 1894. (Membership restricted to women whose ancestors sided with the South during the Civil War.)

Women's Overseas Service League, 1026 Fifteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1921. Its purpose is to maintain the ties of comradeship created during service overseas in World Wars I and II.

FARM AND RURAL ORGANIZATIONS

Associated Country Women of the World, % Mrs. Raymond Sayre, President, Ackworth, Iowa. Founded in Stockholm in 1933. Its objective is to promote and maintain friendly and helpful relations between country women's and homemakers' organizations of all nations and aid in their development; to further their common interests; to stimulate interest in the international aspects of rural life; and to work together for the betterment of rural homes and communities. Membership: 5,000,000 in 21 countries.

Associated Women of the American Farm Bureau Federation, 109
North Wabash Avenue, Chicago 2, Ill. Founded in 1934. Its
purpose is to assist in programs of the American Farm Bureau
Federation that are of interest to farm women; to strengthen and
support Home Demonstration work; to represent farm women in
councils of urban women; and to cooperate with other agencies
promoting better rural life. Membership: 1,409,798.

Country Women's Council, U. S. A., % Mrs. Spencer Ewing, Chairman, 1706 East Washington Street, Bloomington, Ill. Founded in 1939. This Council is the U. S. Branch of the Associated Country Women of the World (ACWW). Its purpose is to effect closer association between the United States members of the ACWW in order to carry out more efficiently the aim and objectives of the parent organization.

National Home Demonstration Council, % Mrs. Malcolm Byrnes, President, Ethel, La. Founded in 1936. Its purpose is to strengthen and develop adult education in home economics through the Extension Service of the U. S. Department of Agriculture; to provide opportunity for homemakers to pool their judgment for the improvement of home and community life; and to offer a means by which homemakers may promote extension projects important in the protection and development of the American home. Membership: 3,000,000.

Woman's National Farm and Garden Association, Inc., % Mrs. Hubert Lazell Carter, 170 Otis Street, Newtonville 60, Mass. Founded in 1914. Its purpose is to stimulate an interest in and a fondness for country life; to help women through scholarships and expert advice to obtain the best available training in agriculture, horticulture, and related professions, and to develop opportunities for women so trained; to study the problems involved and encourage the establishment of direct marketing standards. Membership: 5,000.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS 2

American Federation of Women's Auxiliaries of Labor, AFL Building, 901 Massachusetts Avenue NW., Washington 1, D. C. Established in May 1938. Its membership is composed of women from families of men who are in a trade union affiliated with the AFL. Its objective is to encourage the formation of local auxiliaries of labor for purposes of coordinating collective bargaining and collective buying and of promoting legislation in the interests of the working population. Membership: Approximately 2,000,000.

Congress of Women's Auxiliaries, 2123 W. Market Street, Warren, Ohio. Established in 1941. Its purpose is to further the program of the CIO; to unite all wives, mothers, sisters, and daughters of CIO members for their mutual aid, protection, and improvement; to foster the organization of unorganized women and to educate them and their families to the benefits of trade unionism; to work for the abolition of child labor; and to promote social and cultural activities. Membership: 10,000 and is affiliated with the Congress of Industrial Organizations.

National Women's Trade Union League, 317 Machinists' Building, Washington 1, D. C. Established in 1903. Its purpose is to organize women wage workers into trade unions and to develop leadership among union women. Life and Labor Bulletin is its official monthly publication. (Disbanded in the Spring of 1950.)

²These labor groups are strictly women's organizations. In addition to these, many women belong to individual trade unions having men and women members. It has been estimated that approximately 3,000,000 women are members of trade unions.

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.)

1950 HANDBOOK OF FACTS ON WOMEN WORKERS. Bull. 237. (Instant publication.)

THE AMERICAN WOMAN—Her Changing Role as Worker, Homemaker, Citizen. (Women's Bureau Conference, 1948.) Bull. 224. 210 pp. 1948.

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¢.
- 2. Occupational Therapists. 15 pp. 1945. 10¢.
- 3. 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¢.
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- 9. Women Dentists. 21 pp. 1945. 10¢.
 - 10. Dental Hygienists. 17 pp. 1945. 10¢.
 - 11. Physicians' and Dentists' Assistants. 15 pp. 1945. 10¢.
 - 12. Trends and Their Effect Upon the Demand for Women Workers. 55 pp. 1946. 156.

The Outlook for Women in Science, Bull. 223:

- 1. Science. [General introduction to the series.] 81 pp. 1949. 20¢.
- 2. Chemistry. 65 pp. 1948. 20¢.
- 3. Biological Sciences. 87 pp. 1948, 25¢.
- 4. Mathematics and Statistics. 21 pp. 1948. 10¢.
- 5. Architecture and Engineering. 88 pp. 1948. 25¢.
- 6. Physics and Astronomy. 32 pp. 1948. 15¢.
- 7. Geology, Geography, and Meteorology. 52 pp. 1948. 15¢.
- 8. Occupations Related to Science. 33 pp. 1948. 15¢.

The Outlook for Women in Police Work. Bull, 231. 31 pp. 1949. 15¢.

Home Economics Occupations Series, Bull. 234. The Outlook for Women in:

- 1. Dietetics. 80 pp. 1950. 25¢. (Others in preparation.)
- Social Work Series, Bull. 235. The Outlook for Women in:
 - 1. Social Case Work in a Medical Setting. 59 pp. 1950. 25¢.
 - Social Case Work in a Psychiatric Setting. 60 pp. 1950. 25¢. (Others in preparation.)

Your Job Future After College. Leaflet. 1947. (Rev. 1948.)

Your Job Future After High School. Leaflet. 1949.

Occupations for Girls and Women—Selected References. Bull. 229. 105 pp. 1949. 30¢.

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 AND OCCUPATIONS

Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades. Bull. 218. 260 pp. 1947. 45¢. Popular version, Women's Jobs: Advance and Growth. Bull. 232. 88 pp. 1949. 30¢.

Employment of Women in the Early Postwar Period, with Background of Prewar and War Data. Bull. 211. 14 pp. 1946. 10ϕ .

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

Women Workers in Ten War Production Areas and Their Postwar Employment Plans. Bull. 209. 56 pp. 1946. 15¢.

Women in Higher-Level Positions. Bull. 236. 86 pp. 1950. 25¢.

Baltimore Women War Workers in the Postwar Period. 61 pp. 1948. Mimeo.

INDUSTRY

Women Workers in Power Laundries. Bull. 215. 71 pp. 1947. 20¢.

The Woman Telephone Worker [1947]. Bull. 207. 28 pp. 1946. 10¢.

Typical Women's Jobs in the Telephone Industry [1944]. Bull. 207–A. 52 pp. 1947. 15ϕ .

Women in the Federal Service. Part I. Trends in Employment, 1923–1947. Bull. 230–I. 81 pp. 1949. 25¢. Part II. Occupational Information. Bull. 230–II. 87 pp. 1950. 25¢.

Night Work for Women in Hotels and Restaurants. Bull, 233. 59 pp. 1949. 20¢.

HOUSEHOLD EMPLOYMENT

Old-Age Insurance for Household Workers. Bull. 220. 20 pp. 1947. 10ϕ . Community Household Employment Programs. Bull. 221. 70 pp. 1948. 20ϕ .

WOMEN IN LATIN AMERICA

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

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. 10ϕ .

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.)

LABOR LAWS

Summary of State Labor Laws for Women. 8 pp. 1950. Mimeo. State Legislation of Special Interest to Women. Mimeos for 1948 and 1949.

Minimum Wage

State Minimum-Wage Laws and Orders, 1942; An Analysis. Bull. 191. 52 pp. 1942. 20¢. Supplement, July 1, 1942–July 1, 1950. Bull. 227. Revised. (In press.)

State Minimum-Wage Laws. Leaflet 1. 1948.

Model Bill for State minimum-wage law for women. Mimeo.

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

State Minimum-Wage Orders Becoming Effective Since End of World War II. 1950. Multilith.

Equal Pay

Equal Pay for Women. Leaflet 2. 1947. (Rev. 1949.) Chart analyzing State equal-pay laws and Model Bill. Mimeo.

Texts of State laws (separates). Mimeo.

Model Bill for State equal-pay law. Mimeo.

Selected References on Equal Pay for Women. 10 pp. 1949. Mimeo.

Movement for Equal Pay Legislation in the United States. 5 pp. 1949. Multilith.

Hours of Work and Other Labor Laws

State Labor Laws for Women, with Wartime Modifications, Dec. 15, 1944. Bull. 202:

- 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¢.

Working Women and Unemployment Insurance. Leaflet. 1949.

Maps of United States showing State hour laws, daily and weekly. (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, January 1, 1948: United States Summary. Bull. 157. (Revised.) (In preparation.)

Reports for States, Territories and possessions (separates). Bulls. 157–1 through 157–54. (Revised.) 5ϕ and 10ϕ each.

The Political and Civil Status of Women in the United States of America. Summary, including Principal Sex Distinctions as of January 1, 1948. Leaflet. 1948.

Women's Eligibility for Jury Duty. Leaflet. July 1, 1950.

Reply of United States Government to Questionnaire of United Nations Economic and Social Council on the Legal Status and Treatment of Women. Part I. Public Law. In 6 Sections: A and B, Franchise and Public Office; C, Public Services and Functions; D, Educational and Professional Opportunities; E, Fiscal Laws; F, Civil Liberties; and G, Nationality. Mimeo.

RECOMMENDED STANDARDS for women's working conditions, safety, and health. Standards for Employment of Women. Leaflet. 1950. (In press.)

When You Hire Women. Sp. Bull. 14. 16 pp. 1944. 10¢.

The Industrial Nurse and the Woman Worker, Bull. 228. (Partial revision of Sp. Bull. 19. 1944.) 48 pp. 1949. 15¢.

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

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

Lifting and Carrying Weights by Women in Industry. Sp. Bull. 2. (Rev. 1946.) 12 pp. 5ϕ .

Safety Clothing for Women in Industry. Sp. Bull. 3. 11 pp. 1941. 10¢. Supplements: Safety Caps; Safety Shoes. 4 pp. each. 1944. 5¢ each. Poster—Work Clothes for Safety and Efficiency.

WOMEN UNDER UNION CONTRACTS

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

COST OF LIVING BUDGETS

Working Women's Budgets in Twelve States. Bull. 226. 36 pp. 1948. 15¢.

THE WOMEN'S BUREAU—Its Purpose and Functions. Leaflet. 1950.

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