

1952

HANDBOOK OF FACTS ON

**Women
Workers**

BULLETIN NO. 242

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
Maurice J. Tobin, *Secretary*

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR,
Women's Bureau,
Washington, June 6, 1952.

SIR: I have the honor of transmitting a handbook of facts relating to women workers. It brings up to date the Handbook issued in 1950, which has been in great demand as a source book, and which has permitted the Women's Bureau to reply promptly to the frequently recurring requests for information of many types. 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, Economic Consultant.

Respectfully submitted.

FRIEDA S. MILLER, *Director.*

HON. MAURICE J. TOBIN,
Secretary of Labor.

III

Note on Figures Used

Figures on labor force, employment, and income are based chiefly on census data, in a few cases including unpublished census material. Figures adjusted by the United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, to make those of different periods comparable are used where necessary and available. In accordance with the practice of the Bureau of the Census, detailed figures from sampling are not adjusted to totals, nor are rounded percents in a distribution adjusted to exactly 100. Data on women include women 14 years of age and over unless stated otherwise.

For the most part, census data shown over a series of years are taken for a spring month (March or April); this is the usual period of the decennial census, though decennials of 1870-1900 and 1920 were taken in January or June. A spring month is the time of appearance of quarterly and certain annual figures, and avoids some of the extreme summer or midwinter seasonal influences that affect various industries. In a few cases an autumn month is used, generally October, which is the month of the Census of Manufactures.

In current census materials the noninstitutional civilian population is used as a base unless stated otherwise. For more detailed discussion of occupational trends, see Women's Bureau Bulletin 218, Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades.

CONTENTS

PART I. EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

	Page
Increases in Number of Women Workers, 1870 to 1952.....	1
Chief Occupation Groups Employing Women.....	3
Chief Industry Groups Employing Women.....	8
Ages of Women Workers.....	12
Marital Status of Women Workers.....	16
Women as Heads of Families.....	24
Nonwhite Women Workers.....	24
Women Members of Unions.....	27
Women Part-Time Workers.....	28
Women Injured in Industry.....	28
Tables:	
1. Women workers, 1870-1952.....	1
2. Employed women in each occupation group, 1940 and 1952.....	3
3. Women in each industry group, 1940 and 1951.....	8
4. Women wage and salaried workers in chief manufacturing industries, 1949 and 1951.....	9
5. Women as production workers in manufacturing industries, 1947.....	10
6. Women workers, by age group.....	13
7. Ages of employed women in each occupation group, 1951.....	15
8. Marital status of women in population and in labor force.....	17
9. Marital status and age of women workers, 1950.....	20
10. Occupation grouping of women 18 to 64 with and without children, 1950.....	22
11. Occupations of employed nonwhite women, 1940 and 1950.....	25
12. Women in local labor organizations, two States.....	27
Summaries:	
Women as percent of all workers in each occupation group before, during, and after World War II.....	4
Occupations in which women were half or more of the workers, 1940.....	5
Women teaching in higher educational institutions.....	7
Women teachers by type of school, 1947-48.....	7
Women in selected professional and technical occupations.....	7
Women in service industries, 1951.....	11
Women in the executive branch of the Federal service.....	12
Median age of women in the labor force.....	13
Labor force participation of women of various ages before, during, and after World War II.....	15
Labor force participation of women in various marital groups before, during, and after World War II.....	18
Occupations of employed women in various marital groups, 1950.....	19
Labor force participation of women ever married, by whether or not having own children under 18, 1951.....	21
Labor force participation of women ever married, with or without children, by presence or absence of husband, 1951.....	21
Family status of women claimants for nonfatal injuries in industry, Washington State, 1949.....	29
Charts:	
I. All workers and women workers, 1870-1952.....	x
II. Occupations of women workers, April 1952.....	2
III. Women in the labor force, by marital status, 1951.....	16
IV. Percent of all workers who were women, 1870-1952.....	23

PART II. WOMEN'S INCOME, WAGES, AND SALARIES

	Page
The Income of Women.....	30
Factors Influencing Women's Earnings.....	35
Earnings of Women Factory Production Workers.....	36
Earnings of Women in Service Occupations and Industries.....	42
Earnings of Women "White-Collar" Workers.....	48
Women Benefiting from Old-Age and Survivors Insurance.....	58
Tables:	
13. Income of women and men in various years.....	31
14. Income of women and men, by age group, 1950.....	32
15. Income of women and men, by family relationship, 1950.....	33
16. Income of employed women in 1950, by occupation group in 1951.....	34
17. Weekly earnings of women and men plant workers in manufacturing industries, 1938-1951.....	37
18. Hourly earnings of women and men plant workers in selected nondurable manufacturing industries.....	39
19. Examples of variations in women's earnings in different occupations within an industry.....	40
20. Hourly earnings of women sewing-machine operators in two clothing industries, single-hand (tailor) system, selected cities, 1950-1951.....	41
21. Hourly earnings of women in chief service industries, New York State, 1951.....	42
22. Hourly earnings of women in selected occupations in power laundries in 31 cities, 1951.....	43
23. Hourly earnings of women receiving or not receiving tips in restaurants, New York State, 1951.....	44
24. Hourly earnings of women in year-round hotels, New York State, 1951.....	45
25. Hourly earnings of women in selected building service occupations, New York State, 1951.....	46
26. Average weekly earnings of women in selected office occupations, by metropolitan area, 1951 and 1952.....	49
27. Average weekly earnings of women in selected occupations in department and women's ready-to-wear stores in 17 cities, 1950.....	50
28. Annual salaries of teachers, by type of school and size of city, 1950-51.....	53
29. Earnings of nurses, reported from two sources.....	53
30. Annual salaries of social workers, 1950.....	55
Summaries:	
Income of women and men, total and nonwhite, 1950.....	31
Income of women and men by residence, 1950.....	32
Weekly earnings of women and men production workers in selected industries, New York State, March 1952.....	38
Hourly earnings of employees of Class A telephone carriers, selected occupations, 1950.....	51
Annual salaries of women library employees, 1949.....	54
Annual salaries of women medical technologists, 1950.....	55
Annual earnings in scientific fields, 1948.....	56
Selected women beneficiaries of old-age and survivors insurance, Dec. 31, 1951.....	59

PART III. ECONOMIC RESPONSIBILITIES OF
WOMEN WORKERS

	Page
Women's Contributions to Family Income or Support.....	60
Women with Dependents.....	64
Working Women's Budgets.....	66
Summaries:	
Family support responsibilities of 10,500 women who lived in family groups, by marital status, 1944-45.....	61
Sole family earners, among 6,000 union women who lived in family groups, by marital status, 1950.....	61
Wife's 1951 participation in labor force and 1950 income of husband and wife.....	62
Income of husband-wife families, 1950, and wife's labor force status, 1951.....	63
Women who contribute to support of dependents.....	64

PART IV. STANDARDS FOR EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

Need for Standards for Women Workers.....	68
Development of Standards.....	68
Wage Standards.....	70
Employment Standards.....	70
Other Standards.....	71
Industrial Home Work.....	71

PART V. SUMMARY OF STATE LABOR LAWS
FOR WOMEN

Maximum Daily and Weekly Hours.....	74
Day of Rest.....	75
Meal Periods.....	76
Rest Periods.....	76
Night Work.....	76
Seating.....	77
Occupational Limitations.....	77
Weight Lifting.....	78
Industrial Home Work.....	79
Employment Before and After Childbirth.....	79
Equal Pay.....	80
Minimum Wage.....	80

PART VI. LEGISLATION AFFECTING HOUSEHOLD
EMPLOYEES

Coverage of Domestic Workers by State Labor Laws for Women.....	81
Coverage of Domestic Workers by State Workmen's Compensation Laws..	82
Coverage of Domestic Workers by Wage Payment Laws.....	84
Coverage of Domestic Workers by Social Security Legislation Now in Effect.....	84

PART VII. THE POLITICAL AND CIVIL STATUS OF
WOMEN

Political Status.....	85
Civil Status—Family Relations.....	87
Civil Status—Contract and Property Law.....	89

PART VIII. WOMEN'S EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL
TRAINING

	Page
Education Completed by Women.....	92
Enrollment in Schools and Colleges.....	94
Women Taking Federally Aided Vocational Training.....	98
Women Served by Vocational Rehabilitation Programs.....	101
Tables:	
31. Years of school completed by women and men in the population 25 years of age and over, by color, 1950 and 1940.....	92
32. Increase from 1940 to 1950 in numbers of women and men 25 years of age and over in population and with college education, by color.....	93
33. Students enrolled in and graduates of educational institutions, various years.....	96
34. Ratio of college graduates to college enrollees, by sex.....	97
35. College and professional degrees earned by women and men.....	97
36. Women and girls in federally aided vocational training, 1950-51..	100
37. Women and girls in federally aided vocational programs, various years.....	101
Summaries:	
Education of employed women and men 18 to 64 years old in major occupation groups, 1948.....	94
School enrollment of population aged 5 to 24.....	95
Distribution of students by type of school (estimates for 1950-51)..	95
Women enrolled in trades and industries classes.....	99

PART IX. AMERICAN WOMEN—A SELECTED
BIBLIOGRAPHY

Women as Citizens.....	102
Women as Workers.....	104
Women as Homemakers.....	108
General.....	109

PART X. WOMEN'S NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Organizations Having Social, Civic, or Religious Purposes.....	110
Professional and Business Organizations.....	112
Educational Organizations.....	118
Political and Legislative Organizations.....	119
Patriotic Organizations.....	119
Farm and Rural Organizations.....	120
Labor Organizations.....	121

HIGHLIGHTS

WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE (APRIL 1952)

Number—About 19 million.

This is one-third of all women 14 and over.

Thirty percent of the labor force are women.

Occupation—About half are clerical workers or operatives.

Over one-fifth are service workers.

One-tenth are professional or technical workers.

Age—Half are 37 years of age or older.

Forty-five percent are under 35 years.

Thirteen percent are 55 or older.

Marital status (April 1951)—Of all single women, half are in the labor force.

Of all married women, 27 percent are in the labor force.

Over half the women in the labor force are married.

About 25 percent of all women workers have children under 18.

WOMEN'S EARNINGS

Women's earnings vary widely with occupation, experience of worker, locality, period of time, method of pay, and other influences.

WOMEN'S EDUCATION (1950-51)

Half of all women 25 years of age and over have had 9 or more years of schooling, over one-tenth have had some college education.

One-third of all college students and one-fourth of those receiving degrees in 1950 were women.

LABOR LAWS FOR WOMEN (1952)*

43 States limit working hours for women, in 24 States the maximum is an 8-hour day, 48-hour week or less.

19 States limit the employment of women at night.

26 States have minimum-wage laws applying to women.

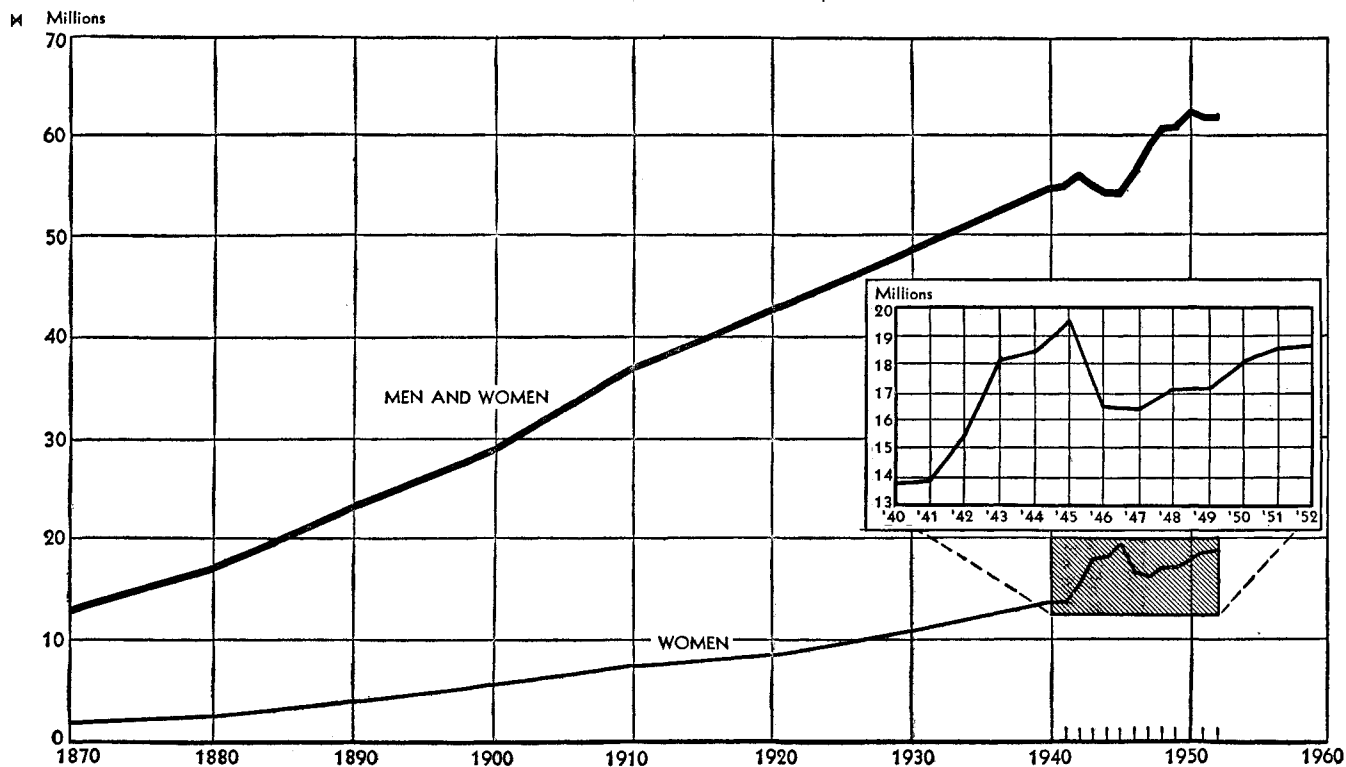
13 States have equal-pay laws.

6 States prohibit employment of women immediately before and after childbirth.

24 States limit employment of adult women in specified dangerous or injurious occupations.

*For similar laws in Territories or the District of Columbia, see pp. 72-80.

Chart I.
All workers and women workers, 1870-1952



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

PART I

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN ¹

INCREASES IN NUMBER OF WOMEN WORKERS, 1870 TO 1952

In 1952 the civilian labor force included some 19 million women. This was almost half again as great as the entire number of all workers, men and women, in 1870, the year of the first census that fully reported on women's employment. At that time fewer than 2 million women were in gainful employment. Every decade thereafter, however, the census showed a rise in their numbers.

In each generation, women have entered the labor force in increasing proportions. In 1870 less than 14 percent of them were gainful workers; in 1952, 33 percent were members of the labor force. More than 40 percent of the women in the population in early 1951 had worked at some time during the preceding year.

Of all workers in the United States (men and women), women have constituted increasing proportions from decade to decade. In 1870 women were less than 15 percent of this country's workers, and in 1952 they were more than 30 percent of all the workers. (See table 1, and chart IV, p. 23.)

TABLE 1.—WOMEN WORKERS, 1870-1952

Year	Women workers			Year	Women workers		
	Number	Percent of all workers	Percent of all women		Number	Percent of all workers	Percent of all women
Aged 10 years and over:				Aged 14 years and over:—			
1870.....	1, 017, 446	14. 8	13. 3	1920.....	8, 426, 707	20. 4	23. 3
1880.....	2, 647, 157	15. 2	14. 7	1930.....	10, 679, 048	22. 0	24. 3
1890.....	4, 005, 532	17. 2	17. 4	1930 ¹	10, 396, 000	21. 9	23. 6
1900.....	5, 319, 397	18. 3	18. 8	1940.....	13, 015, 000	24. 4	25. 7
1910.....	7, 444, 787	19. 9	21. 5	1940 ²	13, 840, 000	25. 4	27. 4
1920.....	8, 636, 512	20. 4	21. 4	1945.....	19, 570, 000	36. 1	36. 8
1930.....	10, 752, 116	22. 0	22. 0	1947.....	16, 320, 000	27. 6	29. 8
				1949.....	17, 167, 000	28. 2	30. 9
				1950.....	18, 063, 000	29. 0	32. 2
				1951.....	18, 607, 000	30. 1	32. 7
				1952.....	18, 798, 000	30. 4	32. 7

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

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

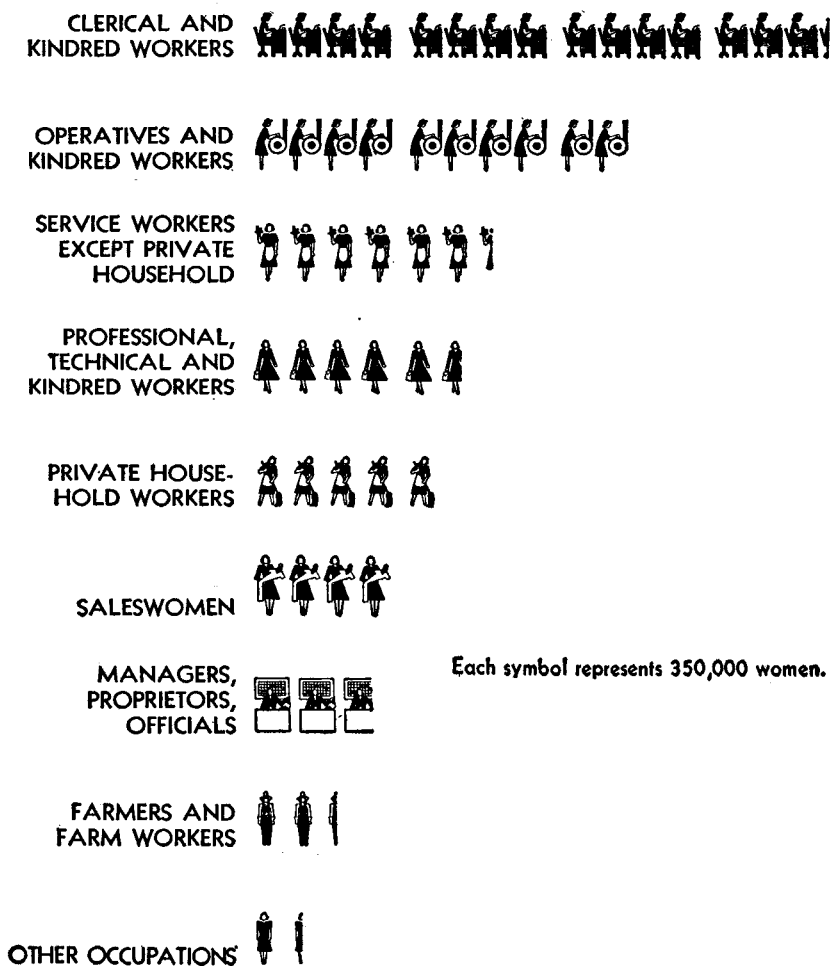
Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Figures 1870 through 1940 are shown in Women's Bureau Bull. 218, Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades, p. 34. Later figures from Census Bureau current sampling reports.

¹ For notes on figures used, see p. IV.

As the number of women workers has increased, there also have been other notable changes in the character and distribution of the woman labor force, caused primarily by changes in the population and in the economy. These will be discussed more fully in the pages following. Outstanding among them are the increase in the age of women workers and the increase in proportion who are married. Occupational changes feature a marked increase in the proportion of women employed in clerical and factory work and a decline in the proportion in services and hand trades.

Chart II.

Occupations of women workers, April 1952



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

CHIEF OCCUPATION GROUPS EMPLOYING WOMEN

Many more women are in clerical work than in any other major group of occupations. Next in size is the group of operatives, the majority of them in factory production. These two occupation groups employ nearly half of all employed women in the labor force. Their numbers may be seen in table 2 and chart II. Next come those in services (other than private household service) and in professional or technical work, two groups that employ similar numbers of women. However, a combination group of those in household employment and in other services would considerably outnumber the operatives. The remaining women—about a fifth of the total—are chiefly salespersons or farm workers or are in the group of proprietors, managers and officials. Very few are craftswomen, and still fewer women are laborers.

Increases have occurred since 1940, some of them very great, in the number of women in every occupation group except household employment, which has declined. The greatest expansions have been in clerical work, which has increased by 2¼ million women, and in the operative group, which has grown by about 1½ million. Notable also are the additions of about ½ to ¾ million women to each of four groups—professional and technical workers, service workers (except private household), sales workers, and the smaller managerial group.

TABLE 2.—EMPLOYED WOMEN IN EACH OCCUPATION GROUP, 1940 AND 1952

Occupation group	Number of women		Percent distribution			
	1940 ¹	1952	1940	1945	1947	1952
All groups.....	11,920,000	18,234,000	100	100	100	100
Clerical, kindred workers.....	2,530,000	5,284,000	21	25	26	29
Operatives, kindred workers.....	2,190,000	3,496,000	18	24	22	19
Private household workers.....	2,100,000	1,748,000	18	9	11	10
Professional, technical, kindred workers.....	1,570,000	2,026,000	13	8	10	11
Service workers (except private household).....	1,350,000	2,134,000	11	10	11	12
Sales workers.....	830,000	1,416,000	7	7	8	8
Farmers, farm workers.....	690,000	780,000	6	10	6	4
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm).....	450,000	978,000	4	4	5	5
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers.....	110,000	244,000	1	2	1	1
Laborers (except farm).....	100,000	128,000	1	1	1	1

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.

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Current sampling reports.

PROPORTION OF WORKERS IN EACH OCCUPATION GROUP WHO ARE WOMEN

Women constituted over 95 percent of the private household workers in 1952, 65 percent of the clerical workers, about 35 to 45 percent each of the professional, the sales, and the service (other than private

household) workers, and 30 percent of the operatives. In other occupation groups, women were smaller proportions of the employees.

During World War II the proportion of workers who were women increased in all occupation groups except that of private household 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. Exceptions were the professional workers, the small group of craftsmen, foremen, and laborers, and the private household workers; each of these had a smaller proportion of women after than before the war.

Following the immediate postwar declines, the proportions of women again increased in most occupation groups. The professional group is the only one in which the proportion of women in the total has continued well below that of 1940. Some explanation of this may be found in the current stress on scientific professions, in which women usually constitute a rather small minority; pressure for jobs for returned veterans, many of whom have been receiving college training; and a slowed-up entrance of women to their largest profession—teaching—which requires a longer training period than, for example, many clerical occupations greatly in demand, and than other nonprofessional jobs that offer wage rates frequently higher than in traditional women's occupations. Although the number of women in the teaching profession has increased, the increase has been far less in proportion than in woman employment as a whole.

WOMEN AS PERCENT OF ALL WORKERS IN EACH OCCUPATION GROUP BEFORE,
DURING, AND AFTER WORLD WAR II

<i>Occupation group</i>	1940	1945	1947	1952
All groups.....	26	36	28	30
Clerical, kindred workers.....	53	70	59	65
Operatives, kindred workers.....	26	38	28	29
Private household workers.....	94	94	92	98
Professional, technical, kindred workers.....	45	46	40	39
Service workers (except private household).....	40	48	44	46
Sales workers.....	28	54	40	38
Farmers, farm workers.....	8	22	12	13
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm).....	12	17	14	16
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers, laborers (except farm).....	3	5	2	3

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Current sampling reports.

IMPORTANT INDIVIDUAL OCCUPATIONS OF WOMEN

In the foregoing discussion, it has been noted that women were concentrated to a major extent in certain occupation groups. Women also have been concentrated largely in certain individual occupations. For example, the great majority of those in the professions have been either teachers or nurses, and among factory operatives the textile, clothing, and food industries have employed by far the largest num-

bers of women. Nevertheless, women are continually entering new lines of work, and some women are found in almost every occupation.

It is a striking fact that several of the same occupations have continued for many decades to be included among the 10 that employ the largest numbers of women. Data on numbers employed in individual occupations are not available for 1950 at the time this Handbook goes to press. Of the 10 which headed the list in 1940 (and which together employed half of all women workers), 8 also had been among the first 10 in three or more decennial periods—of these 2 were professional, 3 clerical, and 2 service occupations, the eighth being sales work.

A look at these 10 occupations indicates the effect on women's work of the changing economy since 1870. Two of them, teachers and "servants" were in this upper group in every decade, 1870 through 1940. These two with the stenographer, general clerical, and sales-women groups employed the largest numbers of women in 1940. From 1870 through 1890, the first 10 included textile-mill operatives. Through 1910, sewing trades were included—dressmakers, seamstresses, tailoresses, milliners, variously combined in different years—and in 1940 operatives in apparel appeared. Through 1930 various farm workers were included, two or three such groups at each decennial from 1890 through 1920. Beginning in 1890 a "clerk and copyist" group first came to the fore, followed in 1910 by a "stenographer and typist" group, which with two additional clerical groups were among the top 10 occupations 1920-1940. Saleswomen, first appearing in the upper group in 1900, continued there through 1940. (For further data see Women's Bureau Bull. 218, pp. 52-61.)

In certain individual occupations, most, or a very large proportion, of all the workers are women. The list that follows shows the occupations in which half or more of the workers were women in 1940. Though the proportions of women in some of these may have changed considerably by 1950, it is probable that women still constitute large proportions of the workers in these occupations.

OCCUPATIONS IN WHICH WOMEN WERE HALF OR MORE OF THE WORKERS, 1940

<i>Occupations with 100,000 or more women</i>	<i>Occupations with less than 100,000 women</i>
WORKERS NINE-TENTHS OR MORE WOMEN	
Boardinghouse, lodginghouse keepers	Attendants, physicians' and dentists' offices
Dressmakers, seamstresses (not in factory)	Librarians
Housekeepers, private family	Milliners (not in factory)
Laundresses, private family	Practical nurses, midwives
Servants, private family	
Stenographers, typists, secretaries	
Telephone operators	
Trained nurses, student nurses	

OCCUPATIONS IN WHICH WOMEN WERE HALF OR MORE OF THE WORKERS,
1940—Continued

<i>Occupations with 100,000 or more women</i>	<i>Occupations with less than 90,000 women</i>
WORKERS OVER FOUR-FIFTHS WOMEN	
	Dancers, dancing teachers, chorus girls Demonstrators Office machine operators
WORKERS ABOUT THREE-FOURTHS WOMEN	
Laundry operatives, laundresses (except private family)	Attendants, assistants, library
Operatives, apparel, accessories	Housekeepers, stewards, hostesses (except private family)
Teachers (not elsewhere classified)	Religious workers (except clergymen)
WORKERS ABOUT TWO-THIRDS WOMEN	
Operatives, knit goods	Social and welfare workers
Waitresses (except private family)	
WORKERS ABOUT HALF WOMEN	
Barbers, beauticians, manicurists	Attendants, professional and personal service (not elsewhere classified)
Bookkeepers, accountants, cashiers	Charwomen, cleaners
Operatives, cotton manufactures	Fruit, vegetable graders, packers (except in cannery)
Servants (except private family)	Musicians, music teachers

Women as teachers.—Fairly recent information is available as to the numbers of women at work in one of the two occupations that have been among those employing the most women at every decennial since the Census Bureau began reporting women's occupations in 1870—teaching. Estimates from the most recently available figures indicate that there are well over 850,000 women teachers, an increase of more than a tenth from the 772,000 in 1940, and that women constitute about three-fourths of the teachers. The proportional increase in number of women teachers has been far less than among employed women as a whole.

Institutions of higher education had about 60,500 women teachers, who were about a fourth of all such teachers, according to a report of the Office of Education for 1949-50. Their numbers and proportions in 1945-46 were much above 1939-40, due to conditions that arose during the war; in 1949-50, the number of women teaching at the college level still was increasing, and was almost half again as great as in 1939-40, but the proportion women constituted of all college teachers was less in 1949-50 than before the war. Many individual teachers do part-time work. The time spent in teaching by all the women in higher educational institutions was the equivalent of about 52,600 full-time teachers. The summary following shows further details.

WOMEN TEACHING IN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

<i>Year</i>	<i>Number of women</i>	<i>Percent of total</i>
1939-40.....	40, 601	28
1945-46.....	49, 190	30
1949-50.....	60, 533	25

Source: U. S. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. Statistical Circular No. 326, August 1951, and No. 263, November 1949.

About two-thirds of the women teachers were in kindergartens and elementary schools, where women constituted more than nine-tenths of all teachers in 1947-48, according to the latest data available from the Office of Education as this Handbook goes to press. In secondary schools, women were considerably less than two-thirds of all teachers. The summary following gives further details.

WOMEN TEACHERS BY TYPE OF SCHOOL, 1947-48

<i>Type of school</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent of total</i>	<i>Percent distribu- tion</i>
Total.....	844, 658	73	100
Kindergarten, elementary.....	578, 961	93	69
Secondary.....	211, 964	60	25
Higher.....	43, 506	25	5
Other.....	1 10, 227	66	2

¹ Estimates and earlier figures for teachers in schools for exceptional children, for Alaskans and Indians, and in private commercial and business schools.

Source: U. S. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. Statistical Summary of Education, 1947-48.

Other professional or technical occupations.—The group of professional women next in size to teachers is that of nurses. The following estimates have been made in recent years of the number of women who are in nursing and several other important professional or technical occupations.

WOMEN IN SELECTED PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL OCCUPATIONS ¹

	<i>Women (estimated)</i>		
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent of all workers in the occupation</i>	<i>Year of estimate</i>
Nurses.....	322, 500	98	1950
Social workers.....	56, 800	75	1950
Librarians.....	26, 400	88	1949
Library attendants.....	18, 200	91	1949
Medical technologists.....	16, 500	94	1951
Dietitians.....	15, 000	99	1949
Hospital dietitians.....	8, 000	99	1949

¹ Based on data from American Nurses' Association; Women's Bureau Bull. 235-8; study by American Library Association and Bureau of Labor Statistics; American Society of Clinical Pathologists; and Women's Bureau Bull. 234-1.

CHIEF INDUSTRY GROUPS EMPLOYING WOMEN

Almost two-thirds of the women employed in 1951 were in three industry groups—manufacturing, retail trade, and personal services. Each of these employed 3 million or more, manufacturing over 4½ million. The number of women employed in the various industries and their proportion among all workers in the group may be seen from table 3. Any industry group may employ women in a wide variety of occupations, as for example, salespersons of several types, clerical office forces, manufacturing operatives, and so forth. (For occupational data see table 2 and also chart II on p. 2.)

TABLE 3.—WOMEN IN EACH INDUSTRY GROUP, 1940 AND 1951

Industry group	Number in 1951	Percent of all workers		Percent distribution	
		1940	1951	1940	1951
All groups.....	17,888,000	26	30	100	100
Manufacturing.....	4,543,000	23	27	21	25
Retail trade.....	3,526,000	31	39	17	20
Personal services.....	2,994,000	73	69	26	17
Professional and related services.....	2,787,000	57	58	17	16
Agriculture, forestry, and fishing.....	859,000	6	13	4	5
Finance, insurance, and real estate.....	843,000	32	44	4	5
Public administration.....	751,000	20	28	3	4
Transportation, communication and other public utilities.....	744,000	12	16	3	4
Wholesale trade.....	425,000	16	18	2	2
Business and repair services.....	171,000	9	13	1	1
Entertainment and recreation services.....	136,000	21	24	1	1
Construction.....	82,000	2	2	(¹)	(¹)
Mining.....	26,000	1	3	(¹)	(¹)

¹ Less than 1 percent.

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Current sampling reports.

WOMEN EMPLOYED IN FACTORIES

Factories employ a fourth of all women workers, more than are in any other industry group. More than 4 million women in the United States were employed in manufacturing in 1951. According to current reports of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, about 45 percent of the 4 million were at work on apparel, textiles, or foods. Together with those in several other industries that long have employed many women—the electrical machinery industry, printing and publishing, and leather plants—these accounted for over 60 percent of all women in factories. Most of these industries are in the nondurable group, which always employs by far the greatest number of women—in 1951 nearly two-thirds of all those in manufacturing. In 2 years, from 1949 to 1951, the number of women in the manufacture of nondurable goods increased by almost 50,000.

In recent years, the durable goods industries have shown a striking increase for women, and in 1951 they employed over 350,000 more women than in 1949. Important employers of women that are in

this group of industries are electrical and other machinery, metals, and ordnance.

Several of the durable goods industries that formerly were not thought of as large employers of women have grown so that in 1951 they employed 14 percent of women in factories, as compared to 12 percent in 1949. These industries are machinery (except electrical), transportation equipment, and fabricated metals. The number of women in each of the various industry groups, and the proportions women constituted of all employees in each group, in 1949 and 1951, are shown in the following table. Figures include all women employed in the factories, office as well as production workers.

TABLE 4.—WOMEN WAGE AND SALARIED WORKERS IN CHIEF MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES, 1949 AND 1951

Industry	Women (in September)			
	Number		Percent of all workers	
	1949	1951	1949	1951
All groups.....	3, 806, 300	4, 208, 400	27	26
Nondurable goods.....	2, 620, 700	2, 669, 600	38	37
Apparel, other finished textile products.....	893, 300	872, 500	75	76
Textile-mill products.....	523, 500	529, 100	43	43
Food, kindred products.....	469, 100	479, 000	28	28
Printing, publishing, allied industries.....	193, 700	212, 100	27	28
Leather, leather products.....	182, 500	176, 000	46	48
Chemicals, allied products.....	122, 100	140, 400	19	18
Paper, allied products.....	107, 500	114, 200	24	23
Rubber products.....	56, 200	74, 500	27	27
Tobacco manufactures.....	61, 300	58, 100	61	61
Products of petroleum, coal.....	11, 500	13, 700	5	5
Durable goods.....	1, 185, 600	1, 538, 800	16	17
Electrical machinery.....	250, 000	352, 000	34	37
Machinery (except electrical).....	161, 000	226, 400	13	14
Transportation equipment.....	120, 000	185, 900	10	12
Fabricated metal products (except ordnance, machinery, transportation equipment).....	157, 300	185, 300	18	19
Instruments, related products.....	78, 200	106, 900	34	35
Stone, clay, glass products.....	77, 300	96, 000	16	17
Primary metal industries.....	57, 000	77, 900	5	6
Furniture, fixtures.....	51, 500	57, 900	16	17
Lumber, wood products (except furniture).....	52, 500	54, 000	7	7
Ordnance, accessories.....	4, 000	13, 800	18	25
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries.....	176, 800	182, 700	40	39

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Reports on Employment and Payrolls (data by sex, quarterly).

Of all factory employees in 1951, women were just over a fourth. In each of the following 11 manufacturing industries they made up one-fourth to three-fourths of the employees:

	<i>Women as percent of all workers</i>		<i>Women as percent of all workers</i>
Apparel.....	76	Food.....	28
Tobacco.....	61	Printing, publishing.....	28
Leather.....	48	Rubber.....	27
Textiles.....	43	Ordnance.....	25
Electrical machinery.....	37	Paper.....	23
Instruments.....	35		

Earlier data indicate that four-fifths of all women in factories are production workers. The remainder are for the most part in factory offices, and in smaller numbers in administrative, supervisory, technical, and sales occupations. 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 woman production and nonproduction workers in factories are shown in table 5 from the Census of Manufactures in 1947. (The next Census of Manufactures is planned for 1953.)

TABLE 5.—WOMEN AS PRODUCTION WORKERS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES, CENSUS OF MANUFACTURES, 1947

Industry	Total number of women	Women production workers		Other women workers in factories ¹	
		Number	Percent of all production workers in the industry	Number	Percent of all women in the industry
All groups.....	3, 835, 218	3, 094, 805	26	740, 319	1
Apparel, related products.....	810, 800	760, 457	75	50, 339	6
Textile mill products.....	549, 903	518, 663	45	31, 239	6
Food, kindred products.....	402, 526	325, 483	28	77, 024	19
Electrical machinery.....	311, 039	255, 542	40	55, 497	18
Printing, publishing industries.....	200, 672	88, 885	22	111, 785	56
Machinery (except electrical).....	200, 627	106, 355	10	94, 269	47
Leather, leather products.....	182, 909	167, 816	46	15, 093	8
Fabricated metal products.....	178, 597	131, 520	16	47, 075	26
Chemicals, allied products.....	120, 126	71, 336	15	48, 790	41
Paper, allied products.....	115, 116	95, 473	24	19, 638	17
Transportation equipment.....	114, 376	66, 230	7	48, 146	42
Instruments, related products.....	81, 366	63, 473	36	17, 866	22
Stone, clay, glass products.....	80, 711	65, 384	16	15, 317	19
Tobacco manufactures.....	74, 495	72, 485	63	2, 007	3
Rubber products.....	66, 158	51, 655	24	14, 497	22
Primary metal industries.....	58, 965	26, 941	3	32, 024	54
Furniture and fixtures.....	54, 245	40, 200	14	14, 041	26
Lumber and products (except furniture).....	36, 162	25, 808	5	10, 349	29
All other.....	196, 425	161, 099	28	35, 323	18

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

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Census of Manufactures: 1947. Vol. 1. General Summary.

WOMEN EMPLOYED IN SERVICE INDUSTRIES

About 40 percent of all employed women are in service industries. This classification includes personal service industries, which account for more than two-fifths of the entire group; professional services, which account for another two-fifths; and financial, business and repair, and entertainment services.

Almost two-thirds of the women in personal services are household employees. Of those in professional services, not far from half are

teachers, and over a fourth are nurses. Women constitute large proportions of the workers in all the service industries, as the following summary shows.

WOMEN IN SERVICE INDUSTRIES, 1951

<i>Industry</i>	<i>Women</i>		
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent of all persons</i>	<i>Percent distribution</i>
All service industries.....	6, 931, 000	54	100
Personal services.....	2, 994, 000	69	43
Private household.....	1, 960, 000	87	28
Other.....	1, 034, 000	50	15
Professional services.....	2, 787, 000	58	40
Educational.....	1, 277, 000	67	18
Hospital.....	791, 000	68	11
Other.....	719, 000	43	10
Finance, insurance, real estate services....	843, 000	44	12
Business, repair services.....	171, 000	13	3
Entertainment, recreation services.....	136, 000	24	2

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

WOMEN EMPLOYED IN THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

In 1951 somewhat more than half a million women were at work in the executive branch of the Federal Government. These women were a fourth of all such workers. About a fifth of them were located in Washington, D. C.

As compared to a postwar low point in late 1947 and early 1948, the employment of women in the Federal Government has advanced. However, their numbers in late 1951 were one-fourth less than just after the war, and they were a much smaller proportion of all Federal workers than at the close of 1945 or 1946. A larger proportion than in wartime were located in the District of Columbia.

The most recent information on the general status of women Federal employees is from a study of those coming under the Civil Service Retirement Act (about three-fourths of the total), made by Civil Service Commission soon after World War II (1947). This shows the median age of the women employees included to be 36.9 years (almost 2 years older than for all women in the labor force in the same year). Only a tenth of the women, compared to a fourth of the men, had been in the Federal service as long as 15 years (thus entering in the early 1930's or before). Two in five of the women had less than 5 years' service, and thus were wartime entrants. Though salary scales in the same classification are the same regardless of sex, at the peak for each sex (the age-group 45 to 49 years), women's salary was three-fourths of the men's. This would be accounted for

partly by women's shorter service records; women also may have advanced in grade somewhat less rapidly than men. The following summary shows the number of women in Federal employment in the Continental United States in December of each postwar year. Further details, and data for earlier years will be found in Women's Bureau Bull. 230-I.

WOMEN IN THE EXECUTIVE BRANCH OF THE FEDERAL SERVICE

Year	Women	
	Number	Percent of all employees
1945.....	¹ 778,856	35
1946.....	¹ 497,559	28
1947.....	415,035	24
1948.....	437,854	23
1949.....	408,627	23
1950.....	471,073	23
1951.....	578,034	25
1952.....	586,500	25

¹ Full-time employees only. There were about 8,000 women part-time workers in 1945 and 8,500 in 1946, excluding post office.

Source: U. S. Civil Service Commission. Figures used are for December of each year.

AGES OF WOMEN WORKERS

The striking development in the age distribution of women workers is the marked increase in the number who are in the older age brackets. This trend, which was evident to some extent in earlier decades, has been particularly notable since 1940. The labor force in the spring months included about 3 million more women 45 years of age and older in 1952 than in 1940. About 60 percent of the increase in the woman labor force was in the older-age groups—45 and over. On the other hand, the labor force in 1952 as compared to that in 1940 included only a very few more women aged 20 to 34, when the responsibility of rearing a family is likely to be heaviest—in fact, the number aged 20 to 24 had declined. (See table 6.)

It is well known that women 45 years of age and older entered the labor force in increasing numbers in wartime. In recent postwar years (1948 and after) their numbers continued to grow. Of the entire 1940-52 increase in the number of women 45 and over in the labor force, a third came in the last 4 years.

The median age of women in the 1952 labor force was 37 years as compared to about 32 years in 1940 (the median is the midpoint, half being older, half younger). In the last decade the median age of women in the labor force has advanced almost as much as in the preceding four decades, as the following figures show:

MEDIAN AGE OF WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE

<i>Date</i>	<i>Median age</i>	<i>Date</i>	<i>Median age</i>
1952.....	37. 2	1940.....	31. 9
1950.....	36. 8	1930.....	30. 3
1947.....	35. 0	1920.....	29. 5
1945.....	33. 5	1900.....	26. 2

As a result of this trend, in 1952 about a third of all women workers were 45 or older, a proportion not much greater being 20 to 34. In 1940, on the other hand, nearly half were 20 to 34, and but little more than a fifth were 45 or older.

TABLE 6.—WOMEN WORKERS, BY AGE GROUP

Age group (in years)	Number of women		Percent distribution			
	1940	1952	1940	1945	1947	1952
All ages.....	13, 840, 000	18, 798, 000	100	100	100	100
14-19.....	1, 460, 000	1, 768, 000	11	14	11	9
20-24.....	2, 820, 000	2, 442, 000	20	17	17	13
25-34.....	3, 820, 000	4, 226, 000	28	23	22	22
35-44.....	2, 680, 000	4, 360, 000	19	21	22	23
45-54.....	1, 830, 000	3, 558, 000	13	15	16	19
55-64.....	920, 000	1, 920, 000	7	8	9	10
65 and over.....	310, 000	524, 000	2	3	3	3

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Current sampling reports.

The continuing increase in the number of women 45 and over who are in the labor force results partly from the growing number of women of these ages in the population. It is a part of the general upward shift in the age level of the population. However, this is not the whole explanation, for in recent years these women have entered or remained in the labor force in much larger numbers than formerly. The result is, as the following figures indicate, that the increase in the proportion of women 45-64 has been considerably greater in the labor force than in the population.

	<i>Percent women 45-64 were of all women 14 and over in—</i>		
	<i>1940</i>	<i>1951</i>	<i>1952</i>
Population (14 years and over).....	25	28	28
Labor force (14 years and over).....	20	29	29

Women 45-64 are now found in the labor force in as high a proportion as in the population 14 years of age and over.

Even though the number of women 20 to 34 in the labor force has increased but slightly, women of these ages still constitute larger proportions in the labor force than in the population 14 and over, as the following figures for 1952 show:

<i>Age group (in years)</i>	<i>Percent distribution of women in—</i>	
	<i>Popula- tion</i>	<i>Labor force</i>
All ages, 14 and over.....	100.0	100.0
14-19.....	11.0	9.4
20-24.....	9.8	13.0
25-34.....	21.2	22.5
35-44.....	19.0	23.2
45-54.....	15.7	18.9
55-64.....	12.3	10.2
65 and over.....	11.1	2.8

PROPORTION OF WOMEN IN EACH AGE GROUP WHO ARE WORKERS

The women in the population in every age group, except those 20 to 34, were participating in the labor force to a greater extent in 1952 than in 1940. A particularly substantial increase in labor force participation is found in the group 35 to 44, and a still larger increase among those 45 to 54. (See the summary on page 15.) When the demand for war workers arose, women of these ages 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 more of them were in a position to enter the labor force than was the case with 20- to 34-year olds. After World War II, many of the older women remained in the labor force, and others reaching these ages also continued to work, or newly took jobs. Among women in all groups of 35 and over, proportions in the labor force in 1952 were similar to those at the war peak.

Among women 20 to 34, on the other hand, the proportions in the labor force in 1952 were smaller than in 1940. Some explanation of this may be found in the changes in family status tending to affect labor force status of women of these ages. Many of the women of 20 to 34 had delayed marriage during the war, or if married had remained at work until husbands returned from the services. In the postwar period, the increases in marriages and births, and the setting up of households by young wives and their returned service husbands were perhaps the greatest forces tending to lessen or slow up participation in the labor force by women 20 to 34.

In 1952, the smallest age group in the labor force (except for those 65 and older) was that of girls under 20. However, in comparison with their numbers in the population they were in the labor force in a notably greater proportion than in 1940, though in a smaller proportion than at the war peak.

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN OF VARIOUS AGES BEFORE, DURING,
AND AFTER WORLD WAR II

Age group (in years)	Percent of all women in each age group who were workers			
	1940	1945	1947	1952
All groups.....	28	37	30	33
14-19.....	20	40	28	28
20-24.....	48	55	44	43
25-34.....	36	40	31	35
35-44.....	29	41	35	40
45-54.....	24	37	32	39
55-64.....	18	27	23	27
65 and over.....	7	10	8	8

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Current sampling reports.

AGES AND OCCUPATIONS OF WOMEN

The age distribution of women workers differed considerably by occupation, according to figures available for 1951. The discussion here will be limited for the most part to the six chief occupation groups. Reference to table 7 will show further details for these and certain smaller groups.

Girls under 20 constitute almost a tenth of those employed. They were a notably larger proportion than this of the household employees and sales workers. Women 20 to 34 were somewhat more than a third of those employed; they were a much larger proportion than this of the clerical workers, and notably smaller proportions in the sales, household employee, and manager groups. Women 35 to 44 were between a fifth and a fourth of the employed, and were in similar proportions in each occupation group. Women 45 to 64 were well over a fourth of all employed; they were a much larger proportion than this of the management group and the household workers, and a notably smaller proportion of the clerical workers.

TABLE 7.—AGES OF EMPLOYED WOMEN IN EACH OCCUPATION GROUP, 1951

Type of work	Percent in each age group							
	All age groups	14 to 19	20 to 24	25 to 34	35 to 44	45 to 54	55 to 64	65 and over
All occupations ¹	100	9	14	22	23	18	11	3
Clerical.....	100	11	24	26	19	14	5	1
Operative.....	100	6	12	25	27	18	10	2
Household.....	100	16	6	14	19	21	17	7
Professional.....	100	3	16	24	24	19	11	3
Service (except household).....	100	10	10	20	21	19	15	4
Sales.....	100	16	10	17	24	20	10	3
Management (except farm).....	100	(²)	4	17	28	27	16	8
Farm labor.....	100	8	8	21	25	22	13	4

¹ The following small groups not shown in detail: Laborers, less than 1 percent; craftswomen, not over 1.5 percent except that it constitutes 2.7 percent of those 65 and over; farm managers, not over 2 percent except that it constitutes 3.4 percent of those 65 and over.

² Less than 1 percent.

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Unpublished data from current sampling reports.

Half of the women in clerical work were 20 to 34, half those in professional and operative occupations 25 to 44, and half those in the management group 35 to 54. In each of these except clerical a tenth or more were 55 to 64; of the clerical workers a tenth were under 20. Women in the sales and service groups were somewhat more widely distributed. Well over half the sales, household, and other service workers were 25 to 54, and in each of these groups a tenth or more were under 20 and a tenth or more were 55 to 64.

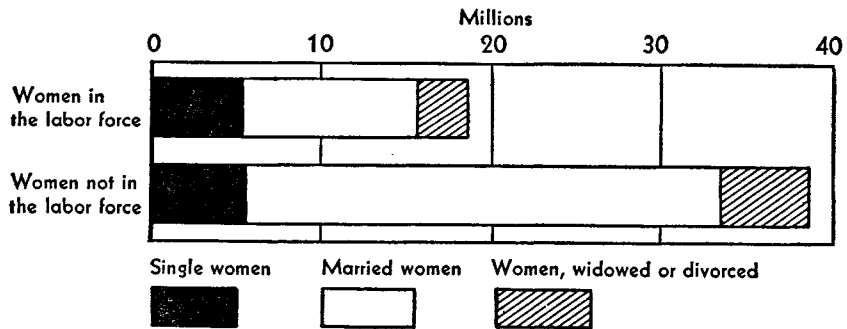
MARITAL STATUS OF WOMEN WORKERS

WOMEN OF EACH MARITAL STATUS GROUP WHO ARE WORKERS

In 1951 half the single women 14 and over were in the labor force, as were more than a third of the widowed and divorced women, and a fourth of the married women.

Chart III.

Women in the labor force, by marital status, 1951



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

MARITAL STATUS OF ALL WOMEN AND OF WOMEN WORKERS

Single women constituted 19 percent of the adult woman population in 1951 but were 29 percent of the women in the labor force. Married women with husbands present were 63 percent of the female population and 49 percent of the women in the labor force. Of married women with husbands absent, a relatively small group, more than half were in the labor force. Widows and divorced women were 14 percent of the woman population and 16 percent of the woman labor force. Details are shown in table 8 and in chart III.

TABLE 8.—MARITAL STATUS OF WOMEN IN POPULATION AND IN LABOR FORCE

Marital status	Number of women		Percent distribution			
	1940	1951	1940	1944	1947	1951
POPULATION						
All groups.....	50, 549, 176	57, 354, 000	100	100	100	100
Single.....	13, 935, 866	10, 946, 000	28	24	22	19
Married (total).....	30, 090, 488	38, 124, 000	59	62	64	66
Husband present.....	28, 516, 937	35, 998, 000	56	54	61	63
Husband absent.....	1, 573, 551	2, 126, 000	3	8	3	4
Widowed or divorced.....	6, 522, 822	8, 284, 000	13	13	14	14
LABOR FORCE						
All groups.....	13, 840, 000	18, 602, 000	100	100	100	100
Single.....	6, 710, 000	5, 430, 000	48	41	38	29
Married (total).....	5, 040, 000	10, 182, 000	36	46	46	55
Husband present.....	4, 200, 000	9, 086, 000	30	34	41	49
Husband absent.....	840, 000	1, 096, 000	6	12	5	6
Widowed or divorced.....	2, 090, 000	2, 990, 000	15	13	16	16

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Current sampling reports.

MARITAL STATUS IN WARTIME AND POSTWAR PERIODS

Before World War II, in 1940, about half the nearly 14 million single women and a sixth of the 30 million married women were already in employment.

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 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 48 percent in 1940 to 59 percent during the war (1944) and the proportion of all married women who were workers, from 17 to 26 percent. In view of the far greater number of married women in the population, their numerical increase was greater than that of single women. Also, the proportional increase of married women was much greater in the labor force than in the population. On the other hand, though the single woman population declined notably, their increase in the labor force was considerable. Even at the peak of war needs, the proportion of all married women who were employed was not half so great as the proportion of all single women who were workers, as the summary following shows.

Since the war, the proportion of single women in the labor force has declined, and is currently similar to that before the war. On the other hand, the proportion of married women in the labor force has continued to increase since the war.

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN VARIOUS MARITAL GROUPS BEFORE, DURING, AND AFTER WORLD WAR II

<i>Marital status</i>	<i>Percent of all women of each marital status who were workers</i>			
	<i>1940</i>	<i>1944</i>	<i>1947</i>	<i>1951</i>
All groups.....	27	35	30	32
Single.....	48	59	51	50
Married (total).....	17	26	21	27
Husband present.....	15	22	20	25
Husband absent.....	53	52	50	52
Widowed and divorced.....	32	36	35	36

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Current sampling reports.

In 1951 the population included over 8 million more married women, and nearly 3 million fewer single women than in 1940. (Table 8, p. 17.) The labor force included 1½ million fewer single women and some 5 million more married women (of these ¼ million had husbands absent). Thus, numerically, both the loss of single women and the gain of married women were less great in the labor force than in the population.

Proportionally, however, the increase in married women in the labor force, where they had more than doubled, far outran their increase of 27 percent in the population, while the proportional decline in single women was similar in both population and labor force—about 20 percent.

WORKING COUPLES

The number of married couples in the population has increased greatly since the prewar period, and in many more cases than formerly both husband and wife are in the labor force. The number of couples in the population with husband the head of the family increased from 26½ million in 1940 to almost 34 million in 1950. Of these couples, the proportion with both spouses in the labor force increased from 11 percent (almost 3 million couples) in 1940 to 22 percent (over 7½ million couples) in 1950. Actually, there were more than 8 million couples with husband and wife in the labor force in 1950; but for about ½ million of these couples the husband was not the family head (as, for example, among young couples living with parents).

MARITAL STATUS AND OCCUPATION OF WOMEN WORKERS

Regardless of marital status, women workers tend to concentrate in certain occupation groups. More than three-fourths of those in

each marital group were clerical, sales, operative, or service workers in 1950. Almost half the single and a third of the married women workers (with husband present) were in clerical or sales occupations. Similar proportions of both married and single (about a fifth) were service workers. A considerably larger proportion of the married than of the single women were operatives. Sixteen percent of the single but only 10 percent of the married were in professional or technical occupations.

Numerically, the single women exceed the married in the professional group; the married outnumber the single markedly as operatives and service workers and to a lesser extent in all other groups.

The following summary shows occupational distribution of the women of each marital status.

OCCUPATIONS OF EMPLOYED WOMEN IN VARIOUS MARITAL GROUPS, 1950

Occupation	Percent distribution of—			
	All women	Single	Married (husband present)	Other
Total	100	100	100	100
Clerical, sales, kindred workers	35	47	32	24
Operatives, kindred workers	19	13	23	21
Service workers	23	19	20	37
Professional, technical workers	11	16	9	7
Farmers, farm workers	4	2	6	3
Proprietors, managers, officials (except farm)	6	3	7	7
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred; laborers (except farm)	1	1	2	2

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Series P-50, No. 29, May 2, 1951.

MARITAL STATUS AND AGE OF WOMEN WORKERS

Of the single women in the labor force in 1951, over half were under 25 years of age. At the same time, almost 60 percent of the married women and 70 percent of all other women in the labor force (widowed, divorced, separated) were 35 and under 65. The median ages of the women in the population and labor force were as follows:

Marital status	Median age in—	
	Popula- tion	Labor force
All women	39. 1	36. 9
Single	20. 1	24. 3
Married (husband present)	39. 4	38. 2
Other	56. 9	47. 7

Participation of single women in the labor force was greatest at ages 25 to 44, when over 80 percent were workers. Married women were workers to the greatest extent at ages 20 to 24 and 35 to 44 when about 30 percent were in the labor force. Women of other marital status participated most fully in the labor force at ages 25 to 44, when 70 percent were workers. Among the older women (45 to 64), about 65 percent of the single, 27 percent of the married (husband present), and 50 percent of others were in the labor force. Table 9 shows further details.

TABLE 9.—MARITAL STATUS AND AGE OF WOMEN WORKERS, 1950

A. Number of women in labor force, and percent they form of woman population								
Age (in years)	All women		Single women		Married women (husband present)		Other women	
	Number	Percent of popu- lation	Number	Percent of popu- lation	Number	Percent of popu- lation	Number	Percent of popu- lation
All women.....	17,795,000	31	5,621,000	51	8,550,000	24	3,624,000	38
14 to 19.....	1,662,000	26	1,417,000	26	209,000	24	36,000	(1)
20 to 24.....	2,584,000	44	1,389,000	75	1,053,000	29	143,000	46
25 to 34.....	4,011,000	33	1,117,000	85	2,356,000	24	538,000	62
35 to 44.....	3,968,000	37	750,000	84	2,446,000	29	772,000	65
45 to 64.....	5,013,000	32	833,000	71	2,353,000	22	1,826,000	50
65 and over.....	558,000	9	116,000	24	133,000	6	309,000	9

B. Percent distribution of women in population and in labor force								
Age (in years)	All women		Single women		Married women (husband present)		Other women	
	In popu- lation	In labor force	In popu- lation	In labor force	In popu- lation	In labor force	In popu- lation	In labor force
All women.....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
14 to 19.....	11	9	48	25	2	2	1	1
20 to 24.....	10	15	17	25	10	12	3	4
25 to 34.....	21	23	12	20	28	28	9	15
35 to 44.....	19	22	8	13	24	20	12	21
45 to 64.....	28	28	11	15	30	28	38	50
65 and over.....	11	3	4	2	6	1	37	9

¹ Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Series P-50, No. 29, May 2, 1951.

MOTHERS IN THE LABOR FORCE

The exact number of working women responsible for the care of 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 may be considerable, especially since the war, and includes single women and women widowed or divorced, as well as married women.

Of all women in the labor force in 1951 just over 5¼ million (over one in four) were married and had children under 18 years of age. The

majority of these had children of school age. About 2 million had children under 6; these constituted about 1 in 10 of all employed women. Of the women who ever had been married, 60 percent of those in the labor force and 50 percent of those not in the labor force had no children under 18. The summary that follows gives further detail.

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN EVER MARRIED, BY WHETHER OR NOT HAVING OWN CHILDREN UNDER 18, 1951

<i>Status as to children</i>	<i>Number of women in—</i>		<i>Percent in labor force</i>
	<i>Population</i>	<i>Labor force</i>	
All women.....	57,354,000	18,602,000	32
Women ever married.....	46,408,000	13,172,000	28
With no own children under 18.....	24,265,000	7,910,000	33
Total with own children under 18...	22,143,000	5,262,000	24
With children 6-17 only.....	9,259,000	3,222,000	35
With children under 6 only....	7,104,000	1,096,000	15
With children both 6-17 and under 6.....	5,780,000	944,000	16
Total with own children under 6....	12,844,000	2,040,000	16

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Series P-50, No. 39, May 28, 1952.

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). In 1951, 16 percent of all women who had children of preschool age but none of school age were in the labor force. In contrast, 35 percent of those with children of school age but none of preschool age were working mothers.

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, 21 percent were in the labor force, but of those with husbands absent 51 percent had gone to work.

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN EVER MARRIED, WITH OR WITHOUT CHILDREN, BY PRESENCE OR ABSENCE OF HUSBAND, 1951

<i>Status as to children</i>	<i>Percent of women in labor force</i>		
	<i>Total</i>	<i>With husband present</i>	<i>Widowed or with husband absent</i>
All women ever married.....	28	25	39
With no own children under 18.....	33	31	36
With own children under 18.....	24	21	51
With children 6-17 only.....	35	30	62
With children under 6 only.....	15	14	37
With children both 6-17 and under 6....	16	15	38

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Series P-50, No. 39, May 28, 1952.

Where all children were under school age, only 14 percent of the mothers were in the labor force if the husband was at home, but 37 percent of those with husbands absent had to work.

The presence of children in the family undoubtedly has some influence on types of occupations in which women are engaged. For example, very much larger proportions of women with children than of those without are in operative and farm occupations, according to census data for 1950. Of the women with children under 6 years of age, a fifth are operatives; another fifth are in farm work, and many of these are likely to be unpaid family workers. A slightly larger proportion of the women with children than of those without are salespersons, work that often can be done on a part-time basis. Considerably smaller proportions of women with children than of those without are clerical workers. Table 10 gives further details.

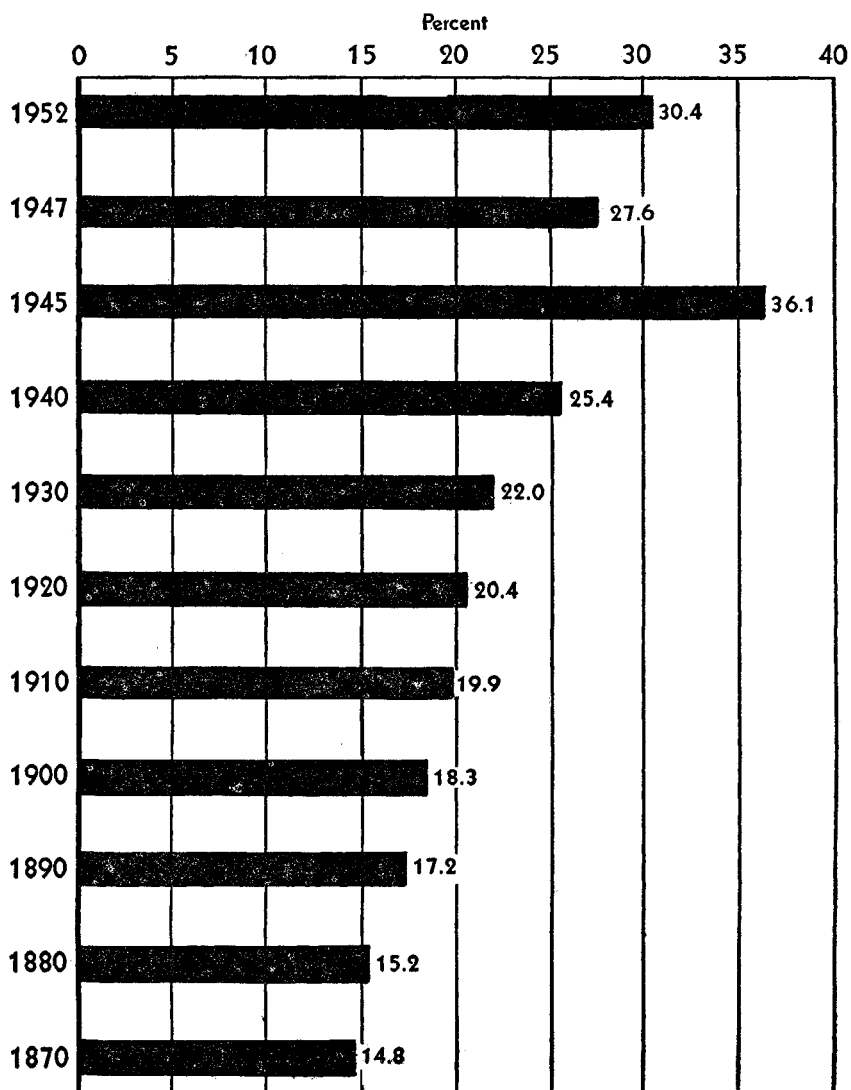
TABLE 10.—OCCUPATION GROUPING OF WOMEN 18 TO 64 WITH AND WITHOUT CHILDREN, 1950

Occupation group	Total ¹	Married women				
		Total	With no children	With children under 18		
				Total	None under 6	Some under 6
		<i>Percent distribution</i>				
All occupations.....	100	100	100	100	100	100
Clerical, kindred workers.....	25	22	26	17	16	18
Operatives, kindred workers.....	20	22	21	24	25	22
Service (except private household).....	12	11	11	12	12	12
Professional, technical workers.....	10	8	9	8	8	8
Farmers, farm workers.....	10	14	10	17	15	20
Sales workers.....	9	9	9	10	11	8
Private household workers.....	8	7	7	6	6	6
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm).....	4	5	5	4	5	4
Other (craftsmen, laborers).....	2	2	2	2	2	2

¹ All women 18 to 64 in labor force, including single, widowed, separated, divorced.

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Series P-50, No. 35, October 26, 1951.

Chart IV.
Percent of all workers who were women, 1870-1952



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

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 1950, a woman was the head in about 4 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, accompanying the return home of men from the war and the continuing increases in numbers of married couples in the population, there was a decline in the extent to which women headed the family. In 1950 women were about a tenth of all family heads—a smaller proportion than in 1940, but nevertheless considerable. Data for 1949 show that 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. The standard of living in families headed by women is lower than the average for all families. In 1950, families headed by a woman had a median income of \$1,922, whereas for every other type of family the median was over \$3,100.

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. (For data on women's financial contribution to the family, see part III, Economic Responsibilities of Women Workers, pp. 60 to 67.)

In 1950 about a third of the families headed by a woman contained children under 18. Earlier data (1946) show 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 $\frac{1}{2}$ million women workers may be heads of families and responsible for young children.

NONWHITE WOMEN WORKERS

Nonwhite women were 10 percent of the woman population and 13 percent of the woman labor force in 1950. (Most nonwhites in the population were Negro—97 percent.)

Of all the nonwhite women in the 1950 population, 37 percent were in the labor force. These women were about 35 percent of all nonwhite workers in the labor force. The number of nonwhite women in the labor force increased by over a tenth from 1940 to 1950.

Among all women workers, the proportion who were 35 years of age and over increased markedly from 1940 to 1950, though less for nonwhite women than others, as the following summary shows:

	Percent who were 35 years or older	
	1940	1950
All women workers.....	41	53
Nonwhite women workers.....	46	54

DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYED NONWHITE WOMEN BY OCCUPATION GROUP

Marked occupational changes occurred from 1940 to 1950 for employed nonwhite women, as may be seen from table 11. The proportion of all nonwhite women who were in professional, clerical, or sales occupations rose from 6 percent in 1940 to 11 percent in 1950. Another notable increase was among operatives and similar workers; of all the nonwhite women 7 percent were in such occupations in 1940 and 14 percent in 1950.

Private household employment, which accounted for nearly three-fifths of the nonwhite women workers in 1940, declined to little more than two-fifths in 1950, and there was also a substantial reduction in the number of women so employed. By contrast, other service workers increased from one-tenth of the total to nearly one-fifth, and more than doubled in number.

About 45 percent of the nonwhite women at work on farms in 1950 were unpaid family workers, but this was a considerably smaller proportion than in 1940 when 53 percent of the nonwhite women working on farms were unpaid family workers.

TABLE 11.—OCCUPATIONS OF EMPLOYED NONWHITE WOMEN, 1940 AND 1950

Occupation group	Number of nonwhite women workers, 1950	Percent distribution of nonwhite women		Percent women were of all nonwhite workers		Percent change in number of nonwhite women employed, 1940-1950
		1940	1950	1940	1950	
All occupations.....	1,867,000	100	100	34	35	+19
Private household workers.....	785,000	59	42	93	97	-15
Service workers (except private household).....	332,000	10	18	30	43	+103
Operatives, kindred workers.....	273,000	7	14	21	27	+162
Farm workers—total.....	202,000	16	11	17	19	-20
Unpaid family workers.....	90,000					
Other laborers, foremen.....	75,000					
Farmers, managers.....	37,000					
Professional, technical, kindred workers.....	115,000	4	6	54	60	+71
Clerical, kindred workers.....	74,000	1	4	29	39	+392
Sales workers.....	24,000	1	1	24	31	+152
Laborers (except farm).....	21,000	1	1	2	3	+59
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers.....	19,000	(¹)	1	2	7	+632
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm).....	10,000	1	1	19	13	-18
Occupation not reported.....	13,000	1	1			+18

¹ Less than 1 percent.

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Preliminary reports of Decennial Census.

**PROPORTION OF NONWHITE WORKERS IN EACH OCCUPATION
WHO ARE WOMEN**

Most private household workers are women, hence it is to be expected that this also would be the case with nonwhite household workers—97 percent of whom are women. Of the nonwhite professional or technical workers 60 percent are women; teachers and nurses probably make up the great majority of these. About 40 percent of all nonwhites in services (other than private household) and in clerical occupations are women. About 30 percent of all nonwhite salesworkers and operatives are women, and about 20 percent of the nonwhite farm workers.

From 1940 to 1950, women gained in proportion among all nonwhite workers in almost all of the occupation groups. This gain for women workers was most marked in the service occupations (other than household) and in the clerical group. Women's gain among the nonwhite workers also was notable for salespersons, operatives, and professional or technical workers. For further details see table 11.

In most occupation groups, the proportion of women among nonwhite workers is very similar to the proportion of women among all workers. However, two groups are exceptional. Women constitute much larger proportions of the nonwhite professional workers than of all professional workers. This probably is due in large measure to the important group of Negro women teachers. Women are a much smaller proportion of nonwhite clerical workers than of all clerical workers. (For further comparative details on women as proportion of all workers in the various occupations, see p. 25.)

MARITAL STATUS OF NONWHITE WOMEN WORKERS

A much smaller proportion of nonwhite single women than of all single women in the population are in the labor force. In other marital-status groups, the opposite is the case—a much larger proportion among nonwhite women than among all women in the population are in the labor force. The following summary shows details.

<i>Marital status</i>	<i>Percent in the labor force</i>	
	<i>All women</i>	<i>Nonwhite women</i>
Total	32	41
Single	50	41
Married (husband present)	25	36
Other marital status	39	51

WOMEN MEMBERS OF UNIONS

Complete information on the number of women workers who are union members is not available. Many unions keep no separate record of woman membership. Some organizations count only paid-up members, others report a wider count. Officers of unions can make rough estimates, often on a local rather than a Nation-wide basis. It is estimated that about 3¼ million women are union members.

The State labor departments in California and Massachusetts give pertinent information on membership of women in unions, from a questionnaire sent out to the locals of all unions in the State. Reports of these in recent years are shown in table 12. As the Massachusetts report points out "membership by sex followed the expected pattern;" that is, the unions in industries known to be large employers of women,

TABLE 12.—WOMEN IN LOCAL LABOR ORGANIZATIONS, TWO STATES

Industry	Massachusetts			California		
	Women in unions reporting, 1951		Women as percent of all members, 1950	Women in 2,280 local unions reporting, 1949		Women as percent of all members, 1950
	Number	Percent of all members		Number	Percent of all members	
All industries.....	1 167,675	28	26	1 184,325	17	19
Manufacturing.....						
Food products.....	(?)	(?)	(?)	78,030	23	23
Textile.....	31,779	41	38	39,737	41	42
Clothing, garment.....	25,558	74	59	12,413	75	76
Metals, machinery.....	28,913	24	21	5,900	9	8
Boot, shoe.....	12,186	47	41	(?)	(?)	(?)
Transportation equipment.....	(?)	(?)	(?)	5,800	10	9
Rubber.....	5,804	34	32	3 3,097	3 11	3 9
Paper.....	3,074	25	23	(?)	(?)	(?)
Printing.....	2,473	17	19	2,203	13	13
Lumber.....	(?)	(?)	(?)	2,152	6	8
Miscellaneous.....	(?)	(?)	(?)	1 6,728	30	26
Nonmanufacturing.....				1 106,295	14	17
Miscellaneous services.....	(?)	(?)	(?)	25,533	35	43
Trade, wholesale, retail.....	4 8,656	39	41	23,087	21	19
Hotels, restaurants.....	2,739	28	26	5 31,509	41	41
Motion picture production, distribution, services, theaters.....	(?)	(?)	(?)	7,031	19	19
Public utilities.....				6,871	18	35
Telephone.....	9,862	62	59			
Gas, electric.....	1,323	13	13			
Government.....	6 15,234	44	39	5,728	15	15
Railroad.....	1,122	5	5	(?)	(?)	(?)
Teaming, trucking.....	869	3	5	7 5,346	4	7

¹ Total exceeds details as a few with small groups not shown in detail.

² Not reported.

³ Grouped with petroleum, chemicals.

⁴ Clerks only.

⁵ Eating, drinking places, hotels, lodging.

⁶ Specified as State and municipal. The State classes union members with industry affiliation; for example, machine workers in Navy Yards would be in Government.

⁷ Transportation, warehousing.

Source: Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries; and California Department of Industrial Relations.

such as the textile, clothing, telephone, and shoe industries, consistently had larger numbers and proportions of women members than did such industries as teaming and trucking, railroading, gas and electric, in which women are much smaller percentages of the employees.

WOMEN PART-TIME WORKERS

Work on a part-time basis brings into use the skills of a considerable number of women who would be unable to take full-time jobs because of family and household responsibilities or for other reasons. In 1951 the labor force included $3\frac{1}{2}$ million women who could not accept or did not desire full-time employment. The Census Bureau defines part-time employment as work for less than 35 hours a week.

The largest numbers of part-time workers usually are found in stores, household employment, restaurants, or agriculture. However, there are some part-time employees in most cities in social agencies, hospitals, educational and library services, insurance, and numerous other types of work. Information on kinds of part-time jobs women are doing, skills required, hours worked, earnings, and advantages and disadvantages in such employment can be obtained from a special study recently made by the Women's Bureau (Bull. 238). This reports on more than 9,000 women part-time workers and over 1,000 employers of such workers, in 10 cities.

WOMEN INJURED IN INDUSTRY

Most States have some provision for compensation of workmen killed or seriously injured on the job. No recent over-all data exist as to the extent of injuries to women (see Women's Bureau 1950 Handbook for latest comprehensive data, 1945). Industrial accident commissions in some States report injuries separately for women, giving varied types of information as to the women affected. For example, the most recent biennial report of Washington State Department of Labor and Industries shows that compensation was claimed for 1,307 nonfatal injuries to women in 1949. The average time lost per injury was about 51 days, the total being over 66,000 days. The average compensation paid per injury was over \$192. In a third of

the cases the women injured had children. This report shows the family status of the women claimants for injuries as follows:

FAMILY STATUS OF WOMEN CLAIMANTS FOR NONFATAL INJURIES IN INDUSTRY,
WASHINGTON STATE, 1949

<i>Family status</i>	<i>Number of claims for injuries</i>	<i>Percent distribution</i>	
		<i>All claims</i>	<i>Claims of married women</i>
Total.....	1, 307	100	-----
Single.....	374	29	-----
Married.....	933	71	100
With no children.....	497	38	53
With children.....	436	33	47
1 child.....	217	17	23
2 children.....	133	10	14
3 children.....	56	4	6
4 or more.....	30	2	3

Source: Washington State 12th Report of Department of Labor and Industries, 1948-49.

Another State report, that of California, shows the ages of women who suffered nonfatal injuries at work. Half these injuries in 1950 affected women 25 to 44, the age group of greatest number of working women. However, over 700 injuries occurred to girls under 20, and over 4,700 to women 45 to 64. In the same year the State of California reported that 8 women lost their lives by industrial injury, 4 of them 45 years old or over. Details on age of those affected by nonfatal injuries were as follows:

<i>Age group (in years)</i>	<i>Number of injuries</i>	<i>Percent distribution</i>
All ages.....	16, 390	100
Under 20.....	728	4
20, under 25.....	1, 585	10
25, under 35.....	3, 734	23
35, under 45.....	3, 984	24
45, under 55.....	3, 045	19
55, under 65.....	1, 688	10
65 and over.....	341	2
Age not reported.....	1, 285	8

PART II

WOMEN'S INCOME, WAGES AND SALARIES

Over-all information on women's income from all sources is reported annually by the United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, from its current sampling of the population. There are no reports made regularly that give over-all data on the wages or salaries of women in all types of occupations. Any single or average figure on women's earnings would be unrealistic because of the marked differences in occupation, experience, geographic location, and so forth. The most important of these reasons will be more fully discussed later. Such information as exists on women's earnings thus is largely from many special and limited studies of particular industries, occupations, or areas. The pages that follow will summarize the most recent census findings of women's income and available data on women's wages and salaries in various occupations that employ many women.

THE INCOME OF WOMEN

Of all the women in the population 14 years of age and older, 43 percent have some income, as compared to about 90 percent of all men. The discussion that follows refers only to persons with income. Income is defined as money income from all sources. About two-thirds of the women who have any income derive it entirely from wages or salaries earned by their own labor.

The median income of women was \$953 at the latest report (for the year 1950). This was only 37 percent of men's median income, which was \$2,570, as the following summary shows. Over half of all women and a fifth of all men had incomes of less than \$1,000. At the other end of the scale, only 3 percent of the women, but 29 percent of the men, had incomes of \$3,500 or more. Incomes of nonwhite women and men were considerably below the totals for the respective sexes. The percentages with income were about the same for white and nonwhite men, but differed considerably for white and nonwhite women—43 and 56 percent, respectively. The women with incomes of as much as \$2,000 were only about a tenth of all women in the population and a fourth of all with income, while men receiving \$2,000 or more were nearly 60 percent of the male population and 63 percent of the men with incomes.

INCOME OF WOMEN AND MEN, TOTAL AND NONWHITE, 1950

Annual money income	Total		Nonwhite	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Number with income.....	24, 651, 000	47, 585, 000	-----	-----
Percent of population 14 and over.....	43	90	56	90
<i>Percent distribution of persons with income</i>				
Under \$500.....	32	11	53	21
\$500, under \$1,000.....	20	9	23	16
\$1,000, under \$1,500.....	11	8	10	14
\$1,500, under \$2,000.....	12	8	8	13
\$2,000, under \$2,500.....	12	11	4	15
\$2,500, under \$3,000.....	7	10	2	9
\$3,000, under \$3,500.....	3	13	1	7
\$3,500 and over.....	3	29	(¹)	5
Median income of persons with income.....	\$953	\$2, 570	\$474	\$1, 471

¹ Less than 1 percent.

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Series P-60, No. 9, Mar. 25, 1952.

Moreover, the discrepancy in the incomes of women and men has increased in recent years, as will be shown by reference to the figures in table 13. The median income of men increased by over 25 percent from 1944 to 1950, while that of women increased by less than 5 percent. As a result women's median income, which was 44 percent of men's in 1944, was only 37 percent of men's in 1950.*

TABLE 13.—INCOME OF WOMEN AND MEN IN VARIOUS YEARS

Annual money income	1944		1947		1949		1950	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
<i>Percent distribution of persons with income</i>								
Under \$500.....	31	14	30	10	32	12	32	11
\$500, under \$1,000.....	24	12	19	11	20	11	20	9
\$1,000, under \$2,000.....	32	23	32	22	26	19	24	16
\$2,000, under \$3,000.....	10	26	14	26	16	23	18	22
\$3,000 and over.....	3	26	5	31	6	35	6	41
Median income of persons with income.....	\$909	\$2, 046	\$1, 017	\$2, 230	\$960	\$2, 346	\$953	\$2, 570

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

WOMEN'S INCOME BY AGE

The income of women and men of various ages is shown in table 14. Fewer than half the women had any income except in two age groups

ERROR'S NOTE.—While this Handbook was in press, the Bureau of the Census released its first figure on 1951 income. Women's median was \$1,045, or 35 percent of men's median of \$2,952. In 1951, 49 percent of the women and 18 percent of the men received under \$1,000, a slight decrease from 1950 in the proportion for each sex. In 1951, 37 percent of the men but only 5 percent of the women received as much as \$3,500, a considerable increase from 1950 in the proportion for men but only a small increase for women.

(20-24 years and 65 and over), although nine-tenths of the men had income at every age group from 20 years on.

Young women 20 to 24 had the highest median income, and for all those who were older the median declined progressively. For men, on the other hand, the decline in income did not begin until age 45.

TABLE 14.—INCOME OF WOMEN AND MEN, BY AGE GROUP, 1950

Age group	With annual money income			Percent distribution of—	
	Number	Percent of all in population	Median income	Population	Persons with income
WOMEN					
Total.....	24,651,000	43	\$953	100	100
14, under 20 years.....	2,043,000	33	392	11	8
20, under 25 years.....	3,158,000	55	1,400	10	13
25, under 35 years.....	5,083,000	42	1,355	21	21
35, under 45 years.....	4,433,000	41	1,305	19	18
45, under 55 years.....	3,841,000	43	1,242	16	16
55, under 65 years.....	2,765,000	40	918	12	11
65 years and over.....	3,328,000	54	531	11	14
MEN					
Total.....	47,585,000	90	\$2,570	100	100
14, under 20 years.....	2,476,000	42	394	11	5
20, under 25 years.....	4,520,000	93	1,933	9	9
25, under 35 years.....	10,851,000	99	2,961	21	23
35, under 45 years.....	9,935,000	99	3,254	19	21
45, under 55 years.....	8,410,000	98	3,091	16	18
55, under 65 years.....	6,482,000	96	2,494	13	14
65 years and over.....	4,911,000	90	986	10	10

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Series P-60, No. 9, Mar. 25, 1952.

INCOME OF WOMEN LIVING IN URBAN AND RURAL AREAS

Both women and men living in urban areas had much higher incomes than those in rural districts. Those living on farms had the lowest money incomes of all, as the following summary shows:

INCOME OF WOMEN AND MEN, BY RESIDENCE, 1950

Residence	Median annual money income	Percent with income of—	
		Under \$1,500	\$3,000 and over
Urban:			
Women with income.....	\$1,178	58	8
Men with income.....	2,894	23	48
Rural nonfarm:			
Women with income.....	706	72	3
Men with income.....	2,454	29	38
Rural farm:			
Women with income.....	417	85	2
Men with income.....	1,328	54	19

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Series P-60, No. 9, Mar. 25, 1952.

FAMILY RELATIONSHIP OF WOMEN WITH INCOME

Table 15 shows the incomes of women and men in 1950 according to their relationship to their families. There were marked variations in the extent to which women holding different positions in the family had income. Three-fourths of the women who were family heads, a third of the wives, and half the other relatives (chiefly daughters) had income. The extent to which wives entered the labor force, distributed according to the income of their husbands or of their families, is shown in part III of this Handbook, page 62.

Of the individual women not living in families, almost nine-tenths had some income. (This group constituted almost a fifth of all the women with income.)

The medians for women with incomes were similar regardless of their family status, and about half the women had incomes below \$1,000, whether they were heads of families, wives, other relatives in the family, or individuals not living with relatives. However, the differences were somewhat greater at the upper end of the scale. Incomes as high as \$3,000 were received by about a tenth of the women family heads and unrelated individuals, but by much smaller proportions of the wives and other relatives. Among men, in comparison with women, much larger proportions had income—well over nine-tenths in every group except the “other” relatives (including sons),

TABLE 15.—INCOME OF WOMEN AND MEN, BY FAMILY RELATIONSHIP, 1950

Family relationship	Persons with income						
	Number	Percent of all in population	Median income	Percent with income of—			
				Under \$1,000	\$1,000, under \$2,000	\$2,000, under \$3,000	\$3,000 and over
WOMEN							
Total.....	24,651,000	43	\$953	52	24	18	7
In family.....	20,200,000	39	944	52	24	18	6
Head.....	3,134,000	78	1,028	49	25	16	10
Wife of head.....	10,782,000	31	926	53	24	18	5
Other relative of head.....	6,284,000	48	926	52	24	19	5
Unrelated individuals.....	4,452,000	86	981	51	20	17	12
MEN							
Total.....	47,585,000	90	\$2,570	21	16	22	41
In family.....	43,702,000	90	2,643	20	16	22	43
Head.....	35,239,000	98	2,965	13	15	23	49
Married, wife present.....	34,099,000	99	2,994	13	15	23	50
Other marital status.....	1,140,000	93	2,109	28	20	23	30
Relative of head.....	8,463,000	66	1,172	46	20	19	15
Unrelated individuals.....	3,882,000	96	1,657	35	22	19	24

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Series P-60, No. 9, Mar. 25, 1952.

of whom nearly two-thirds had income. The median incomes of different groups varied much more among men than among women.

In every family-relation group, women's income was far less than men's. Women family heads had little more than a third as much income as men family heads. Women living as individuals outside a family group had incomes considerably less than two-thirds as great as those of men in a similar situation. Women's median most nearly approached men's in the lowest income group for men, the "other" relatives living in the family (including sons and daughters).

INCOME OF WOMEN IN CHIEF OCCUPATION GROUPS

Table 16 shows the great differences in the incomes of employed women according to the occupations in which they are engaged. The median income was as high as \$1,700 a year only for clerical and professional women; for women in all service occupations it was considerably below \$1,000, and among saleswomen it was slightly over \$1,000. Only in the professional and managerial groups did any considerable proportion of women (a fourth and a fifth) receive as much as \$3,000 (including, of course, income from all other sources as well as salary). These two occupation groups employ only about 4 percent of all women in the population, 16 percent of the employed women with income. In the small management group, more women received under \$1,000 than received \$2,500 or over, which gave them a lower median than that of the professional group. This may reflect low earnings of women carrying on small independent businesses and relatively high earnings of those in salaried official or managerial jobs.

TABLE 16.—INCOME OF EMPLOYED WOMEN IN 1950, BY OCCUPATION GROUP IN 1951

Occupation group	Women with income								
	Number of employed women	Median income	Percent with income of—						
			Under \$500	\$500, under \$1,000	\$1,000, under \$1,500	\$1,500, under \$2,000	\$2,000, under \$2,500	\$2,500, under \$3,000	\$3,000 and over
Total.....	15,275,000	\$1,559	20	16	13	16	17	10	9
Clerical and kindred workers.....	4,427,000	2,074	8	9	10	20	25	15	13
Operatives and kindred workers.....	3,368,000	1,661	11	15	17	23	20	11	3
Service, except household.....	1,837,000	913	27	25	18	12	10	3	2
Household employees.....	1,623,000	427	59	26	8	5		(1)	(1)
Professional.....	1,627,000	2,175	12	10	8	14	17	15	24
Saleswomen.....	1,000,000	1,109	29	17	18	18	11	5	2
Proprietors, managers, officials.....	850,000	1,674	18	15	13	10	15	9	19
All other.....	* 541,000								

¹ Less than 1 percent.

² In the managerial group, 8 percent earned \$5,000 or more.

³ Includes groups too small to report median and percent: Farmers, farm laborers, craftsmen, etc.

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Series P-60, No. 9, Mar. 25, 1952.

FACTORS INFLUENCING WOMEN'S EARNINGS

It has been noted that 43 percent of the women in the population have some income, and that about two-thirds of these receive no income except from their wages or salaries.

An average figure is sometimes sought to indicate women's usual earnings. A single figure of this type would conceal very great variations in the earnings of individual women. Wages and salaries, the only source of income for the great majority of women, vary widely with the types of industries and occupations in which the workers are employed. They vary with the skills required in these occupations, with the training, experience, and proficiency of the workers, and with numerous other factors. Moreover, general economic conditions in any period of time have the most powerful effect on the wage and salary levels of all workers. Earnings also are affected by differences in the season of the year or locality in which the work is done. Because of these many influences, no average figure will give a very representative idea of the current earnings or the wage or salary rates of *all* workers.

The best information on earnings or on standards of wages and salaries relates to particular industries or occupations at a given period of time, and often in particular localities. Thus it is likely to come from various special studies. Some of these show separate data on women's wages, and information taken from them will be shown later.

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 time worked, but by *piece rates*, that is, according to the number of items processed or tasks completed. In such cases, the same em-

ployee'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. The actual amount in the worker's pay envelope or check usually 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.

EARNINGS OF WOMEN FACTORY PRODUCTION WORKERS

Manufacturing industries employ a fourth of all women workers. Current and continuing information representative of the earnings of all women who are production workers in factories is difficult to obtain. This can be understood better by recalling how great is the variety in factory industries, occupational skills, methods of payment, working time, and local wage standards and customs. The two chief sources of data that show wages of women factory workers with considerable frequency and with wide geographic and industrial coverage are the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the United States Department of Labor, reporting for many localities in the United States, and the New York State Department of Labor for New York State.

Reports used from the Bureau of Labor Statistics show for the manufacturing industries included the averages and distributions of the hourly earnings of workers employed in particular occupations in individual localities. Average hourly earnings are shown separately for women in occupations performed to any notable extent by women. Earnings for various occupations are given from this source on pages that follow. These are straight-time average hourly earnings, omitting any premium pay received for overtime or night work.

The New York State Department of Labor reports monthly on the average weekly earnings of women production workers in factories. These averages are based on a sample that is carefully constructed to represent each industry included in the State. Table 17 gives the

average for all manufacturing industries from these figures and the summary on page 38 shows earnings in a recent month in the various groups.

As would be expected, the greatest dollar increases in the average earnings of women factory workers were made during the war years, notably in 1943; another great increase occurred in 1947. The significance to women of increases in earnings in any period depends on the extent to which costs of goods and services have increased at the same time. It should be remembered that great increases in living costs occurred in the war and postwar years.

TABLE 17.—WEEKLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN AND MEN PLANT WORKERS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES, 1938-1951

[Averages for the year]

Year	Average weekly earnings reported by—						
	National Industrial Conference Board			Illinois		New York	
	Women	Men		Women	Men	Women	Men
		All men	Unskilled				
1938.....	\$15.69	\$26.07	\$20.67	\$15.61	\$27.48	\$16.57	\$29.71
1939.....	17.02	28.97	22.81	16.66	29.45	¹ 17.52	¹ 30.49
1940.....	17.43	30.64	23.88	17.06	30.33	(?)	(?)
1941.....	20.29	36.16	28.17	19.18	34.58	(?)	(?)
1942.....	23.96	43.43	33.48	22.58	41.25	23.53	44.72
1943.....	28.82	51.05	38.89	28.31	49.34	30.33	52.86
1944.....	31.19	54.60	41.06	32.79	54.39	33.46	56.16
1945.....	32.20	53.59	41.14	33.20	53.51	34.14	55.79
1946.....	34.13	50.65	40.81	34.48	52.45	36.56	55.51
1947.....	38.97	57.73	46.77	39.18	58.98	39.60	60.34
1948.....	³ 41.86	³ 60.99	³ 49.88	42.41	63.42	42.08	64.45
1949.....	(4)	(4)	(4)	43.39	63.49	41.74	65.01
1950.....	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	42.64	68.29
1951.....	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	45.68	74.82

¹ Figures are for 5 months only.

² Wages were not reported by sex in 1940 and 1941.

³ Average for 7 months. Reporting by sex was discontinued after July 1948.

⁴ 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 summary shows. By 1951, the only remaining source of information showed men's averages above women's to a considerably greater extent than in 1948. This may be largely due to increases for men in the heavier industries where women are less extensively employed.

Year	Percent men's average weekly earnings were above women's in reports from—		
	NICB	Illinois	New York
1938.....	66	76	79
1948.....	146	50	53
1951.....			64

¹ Average for 7 months only.

Earnings of women in New York industries, 1952.—Earnings of the women factory production workers reported by New York State for a week in March 1952 averaged \$47.80. Averages in the 12 industries in which women constituted at least a fifth of the labor force are listed below. The proportion of women in the labor force is greatest in the apparel and tobacco, next in the leather and textile industries. Electrical machinery and skilled instrument work continue, as formerly has been true, to pay women an average considerably above other industries. The production of leather goods paid women an average less than in other industries, and textiles also paid low, as often in the past.

Average earnings for women in all manufacturing industries combined were two-fifths less than men's. In one industry (printing and publishing) men's average earnings were more than double women's. In this and six other industries listed, men's earnings for the week averaged more than \$25 above women's.

WEEKLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN AND MEN PRODUCTION WORKERS IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES, NEW YORK STATE, MARCH 1952

Industry or group	Average weekly earnings of—		Women as percent of all workers ¹
	Women	Men	
All manufacturing ²	\$47. 80	\$78. 23	34
Instruments, photographic and optical goods; watches, clocks.....	60. 04	85. 60	30
Electrical machinery, equipment, supplies.....	50. 75	82. 79	31
Rubber products.....	50. 12	75. 95	30
Chemicals, allied products.....	49. 46	73. 95	27
Stone, clay, glass products.....	48. 63	69. 14	21
Apparel, other finished fabric products.....	47. 68	82. 27	64
Tobacco manufactures.....	47. 03	62. 55	58
Food, kindred products.....	46. 23	72. 19	25
Printing, publishing, allied products.....	45. 91	92. 95	33
Paper, allied products.....	44. 89	71. 82	27
Textile-mill products.....	44. 00	65. 36	45
Leather, leather products.....	38. 96	58. 52	48

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

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

Source: New York State Department of Labor, Labor Market Review, May 1952. Figures are for the State as a whole.

EARNINGS IN SELECTED NONDURABLE MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

More than 60 percent of the women in manufacturing are in the nondurable goods (or consumer) industries. The largest factory employment of women is in the various apparel industries. Table 18 shows hourly earnings of plant workers in several of these industries,

as reported recently by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The amounts women can earn differ considerably among the apparel industries, reflecting variations in skills required as well as wage standards in the industry, availability of workers, and other factors. In most of the industries reported here, only small proportions of the women received less than 80 cents an hour, and in most of them at least a fifth earned \$1.50 an hour or more. Further unpublished details show that almost a fifth of the women making dresses and well over a third of those making women's and misses' coats and suits earned \$2 or more an hour. However, a different situation is found in making men's shirts and nightwear—a fourth of the women reported received less than 80 cents an hour and only a small proportion received as much as \$1.50.

Men's earnings in all these industries averaged considerably above women's. In making women's and misses' coats and suits, for example, where about the same numbers of men and of women were at work, women's average earnings were only about two-thirds as much as men's. The processes performed by the women and the men in the industry are likely to differ, of course, and this may go far in explaining differences in earnings. But the data illustrate a rather widespread situation—that women workers in an industry often receive much less pay than men to meet rising living costs. In the making of dresses and of full-fashioned hosiery, men's earnings averaged over 95 cents an hour more than women's. Thus, for a workweek of 35 hours (very usual in apparel industries) men's pay envelopes contained at least \$33 more than women's.

TABLE 18.—HOURLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN AND MEN PLANT WORKERS IN SELECTED NONDURABLE MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

Industry	Number reported			Median hourly earnings of—		Percent of women receiving—	
	Areas	Women	Men	Women	Men	Under \$0.80	\$1.50 and over
Men's dress shirts and nightwear (1950).....	(1)	67,342	8,227	\$0.95	\$1.11	25	5
Women's and misses' dresses (1950).....	11	67,534	17,838	1.37	2.34	7	42
Women's and misses' coats and suits (1951).....	12	29,404	29,512	1.78	2.66	2	66
Men's and boys' coats and suits (1951).....	10	24,710	28,564	1.34	1.94	2	32
Hosiery (1951): ²							
Full-fashioned.....	5	10,065	7,181	1.28	2.24	3	26
Seamless.....	4	7,024	2,893	.95	1.26	12	1
Footwear (1951) ²	14	6,337	9,861	1.20	1.74	5	20
Cotton textile (1952).....		3156,400	3234,600	1.15	1.22	-----	-----
Carded yarn or fabric.....				1.13	1.20	-----	-----
Combed yarn or fabric.....				1.19	1.27	-----	-----
Woolen and worsted textile (1952).....	(4)	40,000	60,000	1.38	1.49	-----	-----

¹ Data from 42 States.

² Data for selected plant occupations only.

³ Estimated number of production workers in the industry.

⁴ Data from 26 States.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Industry wage studies.

EARNINGS IN SELECTED FACTORY OCCUPATIONS

The variations in women's earnings in different occupations have been mentioned. An illustration of the way in which these occupational differences may affect the pay envelopes of women in manufacturing industries can be seen in table 19, which shows for two industries data on earnings in several occupations that are characteristically performed by women. In seven occupations in the making of dress shirts and nightwear, women's average hourly earnings ranged from 96 cents to \$1.08, a variation of 12 cents, which would amount to a difference of \$4.20 in the pay envelope for a week's work of 35 hours or \$4.80 for a workweek of 40 hours. Similarly, in machine industries in Chicago, women's average hourly earnings in three occupations varied by 8 cents, which would make a difference of \$3.20 in the pay envelope for a 40-hour week.

TABLE 19.—EXAMPLES OF VARIATIONS IN WOMEN'S EARNINGS IN DIFFERENT OCCUPATIONS WITHIN AN INDUSTRY

MEN'S AND BOYS' DRESS SHIRTS AND NIGHTWEAR, 1950									
Occupation	Number of women reported	Average hourly earnings	Percent of women receiving—						
			Under \$0.80	\$0.80, under \$0.90	\$0.90, under \$1	\$1, under \$1.10	\$1.10, under \$1.20	\$1.20, under \$1.50	\$1.50 and over
Button sewers (machine).....	1,468	\$1.03	17	17	17	15	13	17	4
Buttonhole makers (machine)...	1,628	1.02	15	16	16	16	14	16	3
Inspectors, final (examiners)....	1,840	.96	24	20	25	11	10	8	3
Pressers, finish (hand).....	7,603	1.08	19	14	14	12	10	22	9
Sewing - machine operators (dress shirts).....	33,379	1.03	22	16	14	14	11	18	5
Sewing - machine operators (nightwear).....	2,837	.99	22	21	14	15	11	15	3
Thread trimmers.....	2,282	.93	28	25	20	12	7	8	1

MACHINERY INDUSTRIES IN CHICAGO, 1951							
Occupation	Number reported	Percent on time work	Average hourly earnings	Percent of women whose hourly average was—			
				Under \$1	\$1, under \$1.50	\$1.50, under \$1.75	\$1.75 and over
Assemblers (class C):							
Women.....	2,052	61	\$1.29	10	69	17	3
Men.....	2,959	66	1.41	-----	76	15	10
Drill-press operators, single and multiple spindle (class C):							
Women.....	335	28	1.27	7	84	5	6
Men.....	1,165	44	1.47	-----	61	28	11
Inspectors (class C):							
Women.....	320	54	1.35	-----	87	9	4
Men.....	496	-----	1.45	-----	68	27	5

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Industry wage studies.

Even in the same occupation in an industry earnings often show wide differences. This may be illustrated by the data in table 20 on earnings of women doing much the same type of sewing-machine operation in making dresses or women's suits in several localities.

Similar variations also could be shown for hand sewers in the same industries, or for other occupations. Such differences in earnings may arise from many causes. There may be considerable differences in the requirements of the job performed by sewing-machine operators according to differences in the materials to be worked on, the more simple or more complicated pattern of the garments being made, the types of machines or of work organization in the plant, and so forth. Some of these causes may operate with especially marked effect where pay is by piecework, as it frequently is in the apparel industries. Furthermore, the general wage standards in a locality are quite likely to have a notable influence on the earnings in a given occupation.

Whatever the reason, these differences have a determining influence on the amount the worker receives. For example, the median earnings of the sewing-machine operators making women's and misses' dresses differed by 26 cents an hour as between St. Louis and Chicago and by 27 cents an hour as between New York and Boston—a difference of over \$9 in the pay envelope for work during 35 hours.

The sewing-machine operators making dresses in 1950 received 52 cents an hour less in New York and 91 cents an hour less in Los Angeles than the sewing-machine operators working on women's coats and suits in 1951. This would be a difference in the pay envelope received by workers in these two industries for a 35-hour week of over \$18 in New York and of nearly \$32 in Los Angeles.

TABLE 20.—HOURLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN SEWING-MACHINE OPERATORS IN TWO CLOTHING INDUSTRIES, SINGLE-HAND (TAILOR) SYSTEM, SELECTED CITIES, 1950-51

Hourly earnings	Women's and misses' dresses, 1950					Women's coats and suits, 1951	
	Boston	Chicago	Los Angeles	New York	St. Louis	Los Angeles	New York
Number of women reported.....	1,015	1,980	1,741	23,828	1,177	352	1,016
	<i>Percent distribution</i>						
Under \$1.....	5.9	10.0	14.5	5.1	20.0	0.3	-----
\$1, under \$1.20.....	13.9	14.0	14.4	8.7	20.0	2.3	2.2
\$1.20, under \$1.40.....	20.1	15.7	20.9	12.7	25.2	6.5	4.9
\$1.40, under \$1.60.....	19.4	16.4	18.1	12.5	15.7	6.2	11.1
\$1.60, under \$1.80.....	15.9	14.8	12.8	12.1	10.3	8.8	16.9
\$1.80, under \$2.....	9.5	11.5	7.0	10.4	4.1	12.2	3.3
\$2, under \$2.20.....	7.2	6.6	5.1	8.2	2.5	7.4	10.5
\$2.20, under \$2.40.....	5.5	5.3	2.5	8.9	1.4	11.4	20.7
\$2.40, under \$2.60.....	1.4	2.5	1.4	6.1	.5	11.4	7.0
\$2.60 or over.....	1.3	3.3	3.4	15.2	.4	33.5	23.3
Median hourly earnings.....	\$1.51	\$1.53	\$1.40	\$1.78	\$1.27	\$2.31	\$2.30

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Industry wage studies.

EARNINGS OF WOMEN IN SERVICE OCCUPATIONS AND INDUSTRIES

Service occupations employ somewhat over a fifth of all women workers. Nearly half of these are in household employment (see p. 47 for earnings), although the number of women so employed has declined markedly since the prewar period. Large proportions of the remainder are in restaurants, hotels, and beauty parlors—all expanding fields of employment. For most of these workers, there have been no regular reports on earnings of women similar to the reports available for factory workers. Some relatively recent information on women's earnings is available, however, from special studies of several of these service industries and also for laundry workers.¹

These services, unlike some manufacturing industries, are carried on in every State and are conducted largely on a local basis. The distribution of hourly earnings shown for New York State in table 21 gives striking evidence that many women employed in these services are paid below the wage standard of 75 cents an hour provided for workers in interstate commerce under the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act. If New York City were excluded, the averages would be even lower.

TABLE 21.—HOURLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN IN CHIEF SERVICE INDUSTRIES, NEW YORK STATE, 1951

Industry	Number of women reported or estimated	Median weekly hours	Median hourly earnings	Percent of women receiving—			
				Under \$0.75	\$0.75, under \$1	\$1, under \$1.20	\$1.20 and over
Restaurant.....	88,290	37	1 \$0.78	44	31	13	12
Hotel (year round).....	28,950	40	1.84	(²)	(²)	15	10
Building service ³	19,920	34	1.07	4	22	47	27
Laundry.....	8,706	40	.88	10	63	17	9
Cleaning and dyeing.....	3,452	43	.89	19	47	21	13
Beauty service.....	1,787	40	1.05	7	33	33	27

¹ For workers not receiving tips, median hourly earnings were higher: 87 cents in hotels and 91 cents in restaurants.

² In year-round hotels, earnings were under 70 cents an hour for 19 percent, and between 70 cents and \$1 for 56 percent.

³ Includes office workers in central offices and telephone operators in apartment houses.

Source: New York State Department of Labor, Division of Research and Statistics.

EARNINGS IN LAUNDRIES

Average weekly earnings of laundry workers are reported monthly by the New York State Department of Labor. The average for women in the first half of 1952 ranged from \$35.20 to \$38.25, and the average workweek from about 37½ to 39½ hours. From special studies of various service industries made in June 1951 by the New York

¹ Although laundry operatives are included in the occupational group of "operatives and kindred workers" by the Census Bureau, the laundry industry is here regarded as one of the service industries.

State Department of Labor, distributions of women's hourly earnings are shown in table 21. In laundries and dyeing and cleaning establishments the largest groups of women received 75 cents but less than \$1.00 an hour. Less than 75 cents an hour, the minimum in the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act, was received by about a tenth of the women in laundries and almost a fifth of those in cleaning and dyeing.

Earnings of women in various occupations in laundries in cities in all parts of the country were reported in 1951 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. From these reports, table 22 shows the hourly averages of women in six chief laundry occupations in 31 cities. These are straight-time earnings, omitting premium pay for overtime and night work. Taking these cities together, the laundry occupations employing the largest numbers of women were flatwork machine finisher, machine shirt presser, and marker. No men were reported in these occupations. In some cities men were employed as bundle-wrappers, identifiers, or receiving clerks, though usually these occupations had larger numbers of women than of men.

In 12 cities reported in the South and Middle West, average earnings in all or most of the six occupations were below 75 cents an hour. On the other hand, women's average earnings were above 90 cents in all or most occupations in 6 cities—those on the west coast and in Chicago and New York.

TABLE 22.—HOURLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONS IN POWER LAUNDRIES IN 31 CITIES, 1951

City	Clerks, retail- receiving	Finishers, flatwork, machine	Identifi- ers	Markers	Pressers, machine (shirts)	Wrappers, bundle
Atlanta.....	\$0.67	\$0.39	\$0.59	\$0.57	\$0.53	\$0.45
Baltimore.....	.67	.65	.67	.64	.71	.62
Birmingham.....	.52	.43	.63	.52	.50	.45
Boston.....	(¹)	.73	.85	.77	.93	.80
Buffalo.....	.77	.83	(¹)	.86	.98	.85
Chicago.....	.93	.85	1.03	.95	1.06	.87
Cincinnati.....	.81	.74	(¹)	.78	.79	.73
Cleveland.....	(¹)	.69	.84	.83	.88	.68
Dallas.....	.81	.47	.61	.65	.57	.54
Denver.....	.70	.66	.72	.78	.72	.66
Detroit.....	.91	.82	.88	.88	1.01	.83
Houston.....	.71	.44	.55	.65	.56	.58
Indianapolis.....	.84	.71	.86	.81	.88	.76
Jacksonville.....	.71	.43	.61	.59	.49	(¹)
Kansas City.....	.81	.66	.72	.74	.73	.67
Los Angeles.....	.99	.87	1.03	1.05	1.01	1.01
Louisville.....	(¹)	.62	.72	.71	.82	.65
Memphis.....	(¹)	.45	(¹)	.52	.52	.47
Milwaukee.....	.89	.84	.89	.87	.89	.83
Minneapolis-St. Paul.....	.86	.76	.78	.80	.81	.77
Newark-Jersey City.....	(¹)	.79	.92	.87	.97	.84
New York.....	.83	.85	.96	.98	1.04	.90
Philadelphia.....	.76	.71	.81	.80	.85	.77
Pittsburgh.....	.77	.76	.78	.83	.83	.76
Portland, Oreg.....	(¹)	1.01	1.04	1.05	1.04	1.03
Providence.....	(¹)	.74	(¹)	.98	1.02	.84
Richmond.....	.68	.47	(¹)	.61	.59	.46
St. Louis.....	.71	.65	.67	.72	.75	.67
San Francisco.....	1.15	.99	1.17	1.19	1.09	1.20
Seattle.....	(¹)	.99	1.11	1.14	1.04	1.04
Washington, D. C.....	.86	.76	(¹)	.85	.85	.77

¹ No women employed, or insufficient data to present average.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Industry wage studies.

Best paid of these occupations usually was machine presser of shirts or marker, but even these workers averaged below 75 cents in about a third of the cities. Lowest paid were finishers operating flatwork machines, who averaged less than 75 cents in over half the cities and 66 cents or less in over a third of the cities.

In most of these occupations, workers were paid time rates, except in a few cities; but machine shirt pressers (occupation second in size for women) were paid chiefly by incentive systems in about two-thirds of the cities. In about a third of the cities, workers in all these occupations were paid chiefly time rates; incentive rates predominated in more occupations in Washington, D. C., Buffalo, and Baltimore than in the other cities.

EARNINGS IN RESTAURANTS

The earnings of women in New York State restaurants are shown in table 23 from a special survey made in 1951 by the New York State Department of Labor. Forty percent earned less than 70 cents an hour, and 12 percent received \$1.20 or more. Average earnings of women in different occupations are shown in table 23 by whether or not receiving tips. Three-fourths of the table waitresses received tips; their average earnings, exclusive of tips, were much lower than the average of those not given tips. Of the counter waitresses, well over a third received tips. Their earnings (exclusive of tips) averaged much the same whether or not tips were received, and ran far below the average of table waitresses who had no tips. The remaining employees, over 45 percent of the total, rarely received tips, and their hourly average was well above that of any of the workers who might expect tips.

TABLE 23.—HOURLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN RECEIVING OR NOT RECEIVING TIPS IN RESTAURANTS, NEW YORK STATE, 1951

Occupation	Number of women reported	Percent distribution	Median weekly hours	Median hourly earnings	Percent of women receiving—			
					Under \$0.70	\$0.70, under \$1	\$1, under \$1.20	\$1.20 and over
All occupations.....	6,942	100	37					
Receiving tips.....		31		\$0.62	65	32	3	(1)
Not receiving tips.....		69		.91	21	44	17	18
Table waitress.....	1,937	100	33					
Receiving tips.....		77		.57	78	20	2	(1)
Not receiving tips.....		23		.91	30	33	17	20
Counter waitress.....	1,730	100	40					
Receiving tips.....		37		.76	37	59	3	1
Not receiving tips.....		63		.74	37	50	9	4
All other.....	3,275	100	40					
Not receiving tips.....		99		.97	14	43	20	23

¹ Less than 1 percent.

Source: New York State Department of Labor, Division of Research and Statistics.

EARNINGS IN HOTELS

Earnings of women in year-round hotels in June 1951 also are shown in a New York State Department of Labor report. About 40 percent of these women were chambermaids, about 10 percent waitresses, and nearly half were in other occupations. Average hourly earnings of waitresses were 57 cents, of chambermaids 78 cents, in each case less than, or but little more than, the minimum of 75 cents established in the Federal Act previously mentioned. Of the chambermaids, nearly nine-tenths received no tips; three-fourths received neither meals nor lodging. Not far from nine-tenths had hourly cash earnings of 70 cents to \$1, whether or not they received tips, and where meals were furnished a fifth received less than 70 cents. Of the waitresses, nearly nine-tenths had tips, and about the same proportion were given meals. About three-fourths had hourly cash earnings of less than 70 cents, and of those receiving tips or furnished with meals about four-fifths earned less than 70 cents. In the other occupations, of which probably the major proportion would be kitchen help, tips rarely were received and less than half the women were furnished meals. The median was \$1 an hour; a fifth received \$1.20 or more and over a tenth received less than 70 cents an hour. Further details are shown in table 24.

TABLE 24.—HOURLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN IN YEAR-ROUND HOTELS, NEW YORK STATE, 1951

Occupation	Women reported ¹		Median weekly hours	Median hourly earnings	Percent of women receiving—			
	Number	Percent distribution			Under \$0.70	\$0.70, under \$1	\$1, under \$1.20	\$1.20 and over
Total reported.....	9,918	100	40	\$0.84	19	56	15	10
Receiving tips.....	15			.67	53	40	4	3
Not receiving tips.....	85			.87	11	60	18	11
No meals or lodging.....								
ing.....	57			.85	7	67	17	9
Meals only.....	39			.84	30	43	16	11
Meals and lodging.....	3			.76	39	41	10	10
Waitresses—total.....	1,019	100	37	.57	73	22	2	3
Receiving tips.....	87			.55	82	10	3	5
Meals only.....	87			.56	82	10	2	6
Chambermaids—total.....	3,950	100	40	.78	13	85	2	(²)
Not receiving tips.....	87			.78	14	84	2	(²)
No meals or lodging.....	74			.79	9	89	2	(²)
Meals only.....	22			.79	20	78	2	(²)
All other occupations—total.....	4,949	100	40	1.00	12	38	30	20
Not receiving tips.....	98			.99	8	43	30	19
No meals or lodging.....	53			1.01	4	45	33	18
Meals only.....	42			.98	13	41	27	19

¹ Totals exceed details, as details not shown for the smaller groups.

² Less than 1 percent.

Source: New York State Department of Labor, Division of Research and Statistics.

EARNINGS OF BUILDING SERVICE EMPLOYEES

The median of hourly earnings for all building service employ shown in table 21 does not typify service occupations alone, since includes over 5,300 office workers in central offices of building management agencies and over 300 telephone operators in apartment houses. Table 25 shows the earnings of women in the two service occupations of charwoman and elevator operator. For each of these the median of hourly earnings was just over \$1. Of the charwomen only small proportions received either less than 75 cents, or as much as \$1.20, an hour. Of the elevator operators a fifth received under 75 cents, two fifths \$1.20 or more an hour. Highest median was in office buildings where three-fourths of the charwomen received \$1 but under \$1.20 an hour and two-fifths of the elevator operators received more than \$1.20. Lowest median was in apartment houses, where roughly a fifth in both these occupations received less than 60 cents an hour, though almost two-fifths received as much as \$1 an hour.

TABLE 25.—HOURLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN IN SELECTED BUILDING SERVICE OCCUPATIONS, NEW YORK STATE, 1951

Type of establishment	Number of women estimated	Median weekly hours	Median hourly earnings	Percent of women receiving—			
				Under \$0.75	\$0.75, under \$1	\$1, under \$1.20	\$1.20 and over
CHARWOMEN							
All building service.....	1 10,700	28	\$1.04	4	26	64	5
Office buildings.....	7,370	29	1.05	3	19	75	3
Building service contractors.....	2,410	25	.98	5	48	39	8
Apartment houses.....	520	35	.87	20	43	15	22
ELEVATOR OPERATORS							
All building service.....	1 790	40	\$1.02	21	27	12	40
Office buildings.....	580	40	1.04	19	28	9	44
Apartment houses.....	110	48	.94	32	30	38

¹ Total exceeds details.

Source: New York State Department of Labor, Division of Research and Statistics.

EARNINGS IN BEAUTY SHOPS

The earnings of women in beauty shops were higher than in most other service industries, as shown from the New York State studies given in table 21. About 60 percent of these women earned \$1 or more an hour, a third earned 75 cents to \$1, another third \$1 to \$1.20, and a fourth \$1.20 or more.

EARNINGS IN HOUSEHOLD EMPLOYMENT

Until recently little information has been available on earnings of household employees. Average earnings of household employees for whom quarterly reports are made to the Bureau of Old Age and Survivors Insurance are now available on a Nation-wide basis for the first two quarters of 1951, when household employees were first eligible for coverage. Cash earnings of the workers reported, including both full-time and part-time workers, averaged \$238 per quarter, or about \$80 per month. Most of these workers are women.

A special study was made in New York in 1948, from newspaper advertisements for such workers, reports from employment offices, and interviews with a small number of the workers seeking jobs. The median weekly rate the advertisements offered full-time resident workers in New York City was \$35 a week plus food and lodging, with a range of from \$11.50 to \$50 a week. When pay over \$35 was offered those interviewed, specialized services were required, such as those of cooks, housekeepers, or nursemaids. Wages were practically the same for nonresident as for resident workers; sleep-in arrangements were considered more to the interest of employer than worker, and work hours were longer than for nonresidents. Wages offered workers in up-State areas were much lower than in New York City, averaging \$20 a week. Work hours of nonresident workers in New York City averaged 10½ a day for a week of 5½ or 6 days; they ranged from 8 to 13½ a day. Of the women who worked by the day or the hour, nearly half those interviewed in New York City reported hourly earnings of 75 to 85 cents, with a range from 55 cents to \$1.15. Up-State, the most frequently reported hourly rate offered general houseworkers was 75 cents, with a range of from 55 cents for a nursemaid to \$1.25 for cooks.

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. Salary scales of teachers are reported annually for men and women combined. 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.

EARNINGS OF CLERICAL WORKERS

More than a fourth of all women workers are in clerical occupations. A major source of data on their salaries is in the reports of the Bureau of Labor Statistics on office workers' occupations in various large cities in the country. 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.—Average weekly earnings of women office workers are shown in table 26 for several of the 25 office occupations as reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for 42 large cities in 1951 and 1952. The general stenographer, secretary, accounting clerk, and class B typist groups, for which the earnings are shown here, usually contain especially large numbers of women.

It is not surprising to find that in clerical as well as in industrial work the occupations requiring the greatest skill paid the best salaries. The reports indicate that the girl who hopes to reach the higher salary ranges in an office occupation should look first toward perfecting herself as a general stenographer, and then use her initiative and intelligence to develop the added versatility needed in the job of secretary. Other occupations with the better pay, not shown in detail here and usually employing smaller numbers of women, are those of hand bookkeeper, class A bookkeeping machine operator, and technical stenographer. Lowest median salaries (except those paid office girls in some cities) were those paid class B file clerks and class B typists, who are among the larger groups of women office workers and would include beginning clerical employees with less experience than those in the class A grades.

TABLE 26.—AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN IN SELECTED OFFICE OCCUPATIONS, BY METROPOLITAN AREA, 1951 AND 1952

Metropolitan area, by population	Accounting clerks	File clerks		Secretaries	Stenographers, general	Typists	
		A	B			A	B
1952							
<i>Over 1,000,000</i>							
New York.....	\$50.50	\$52.50	\$41.00	\$65.00	\$52.00	\$51.00	\$44.00
Chicago.....	53.50	53.00	42.00	65.00	55.50	54.50	46.50
Los Angeles.....	54.50	49.50	42.50	65.00	55.50	51.50	46.00
Detroit.....	65.00	(¹)	48.00	72.50	62.50	58.00	48.00
Boston.....	45.50	43.50	36.50	56.00	46.50	46.50	39.50
San Francisco-Oakland.....	55.00	53.00	43.00	65.00	57.00	53.00	47.00
St. Louis.....	48.50	43.00	38.00	58.00	47.50	48.00	41.00
Buffalo.....	46.50	47.50	40.50	59.50	49.00	49.50	41.00
<i>800,000 to 1,000,000</i>							
Cincinnati.....	48.00	46.00	37.00	60.50	49.00	46.50	40.00
Milwaukee.....	49.50	49.00	40.00	62.00	48.50	50.50	41.50
Houston.....	50.50	46.00	41.50	61.00	51.50	49.00	42.00
<i>500,000 to 800,000</i>							
Atlanta.....	49.00	46.50	38.50	60.00	50.00	46.00	38.50
Birmingham.....	46.00	45.00	36.00	56.50	48.50	42.00	37.00
Albany-Schenectady-Troy.....	48.50	(¹)	45.00	61.50	50.00	51.50	44.00
Columbus.....	47.00	47.00	39.00	57.50	49.00	47.50	42.00
<i>300,000 to 500,000</i>							
Rochester.....	50.00	46.00	39.00	59.50	51.50	47.50	42.50
Norfolk-Portsmouth.....	43.00	52.50	36.50	56.50	48.00	44.50	41.50
Allentown-Bethlehem.....	44.50	(¹)	37.50	54.50	46.00	46.00	38.50
<i>200,000 to 300,000</i>							
Worcester.....	44.50	50.00	36.00	55.50	45.00	48.00	39.00
Trenton.....	48.00	46.00	36.50	57.00	48.50	47.50	40.00
1951							
<i>Over 1,000,000</i>							
Philadelphia.....	\$45.50	\$45.50	\$35.50	\$58.00	\$47.00	\$44.50	\$38.00
Pittsburgh.....	47.00	44.50	39.00	59.50	51.00	48.50	39.50
Cleveland.....	52.00	49.00	40.00	61.50	52.50	51.00	42.50
Baltimore.....	44.50	40.00	33.00	54.00	45.00	42.00	36.50
Minneapolis-St. Paul.....	45.50	42.50	36.50	55.50	45.50	45.00	39.00
<i>800,000 to 1,000,000</i>							
Kansas City, Mo.....	48.00	44.50	36.00	57.00	49.00	46.00	39.00
<i>500,000 to 800,000</i>							
Newark-Jersey City.....	48.50	46.50	30.00	62.00	49.50	47.50	42.00
Providence.....	43.00	44.50	34.00	52.00	43.00	43.50	37.00
Seattle.....	51.50	51.50	43.00	62.50	53.00	48.00	41.50
Portland, Oreg.....	53.00	44.00	39.00	60.50	51.50	48.00	41.00
New Orleans.....	43.00	39.50	35.50	54.00	45.00	41.50	35.00
Dallas.....	46.00	40.50	35.00	56.50	48.50	42.00	36.50
Denver.....	46.00	44.50	36.50	53.50	48.00	43.00	39.50
Indianapolis.....	48.50	47.00	38.50	61.00	52.50	50.00	41.50
<i>300,000 to 500,000</i>							
Memphis.....	43.50	42.00	37.00	53.50	46.00	42.50	36.50
Dayton.....	48.50	50.50	41.50	63.00	55.00	55.00	44.00
Hartford.....	47.50	45.00	37.00	61.00	47.50	51.00	42.50
Richmond, Va.....	47.50	41.50	33.50	53.00	47.00	42.50	38.00
Oklahoma City.....	44.00	38.00	33.00	55.00	45.50	43.50	39.00
<i>200,000 to 300,000</i>							
Salt Lake City.....	44.00	41.00	35.00	53.50	45.50	39.50	37.50
Bridgeport.....	48.50	47.50	40.00	58.00	50.50	47.50	43.50
Scranton.....	39.50	(¹)	35.00	47.50	41.00	48.00	35.50

¹ Insufficient data to permit average.

Source: Compiled by Women's Bureau from Bureau of Labor Statistics occupational wage reports.

Amounts paid to clerical workers differ considerably according to city. This may be attributed partly to differences in requirements of the job, and partly to general wage standards in the area. In most of the 25 office occupations, Detroit and the San Francisco-Oakland area paid higher rates than other cities, and Dayton (Ohio), Chicago, Portland (Oreg.), and New York also were relatively high paying. Lowest pay in these clerical occupations was most frequently in Scranton; other frequently low-paying areas were Baltimore, Boston, New Orleans, Oklahoma City, Salt Lake City, and Denver.

EARNINGS OF WOMEN IN STORES

Earnings of women in various occupations in department and ready-to-wear stores were reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for 17 large cities in 1950. In most of these cities, the highest average of weekly earnings in any occupation was over \$40 but under \$60. Table 27 shows average weekly earnings in each city for occupations in which the largest numbers of women were reported from all cities combined. Averages were over \$40 in most of these occupations in Chicago, Denver, New York, Pittsburgh, San Francisco, Seattle, and Toledo. In about half the cities the lowest average of weekly earnings in any occupation was under \$30. For a 40-hour week, this is below the standard minimum of 75 cents an hour established for industries in interstate commerce under the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act. However, averages so low were not reported for women in selling occupations, except for one or two occupations in perhaps two or three cities. The average was less than \$35 in most occupations reported in Atlanta, Boston, Baltimore, Buffalo, and

TABLE 27.—AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONS IN DEPARTMENT AND WOMEN'S READY-TO-WEAR STORES IN 17 CITIES, 1950

City	Cashier-wrappers	Sewers (alteration, women's)	Stock girls (selling section)	Sales clerks, selling—		
				Dresses (women's, misses')	Accessories (women's)	Suits, coats (women's)
Atlanta.....	\$27.59	\$30.45	\$22.22	\$37.72	(1)	\$42.08
Baltimore.....	27.43	31.58	27.75	35.47	\$31.68	39.63
Boston.....	29.29	34.41	(1)	34.90	33.51	41.59
Buffalo.....	28.31	29.54	(1)	36.86	32.12	40.96
Chicago.....	40.82	41.04	34.07	49.22	43.96	57.79
Dallas.....	29.99	(1)	27.32	44.47	39.81	70.57
Denver.....	(1)	35.99	(1)	44.23	40.16	48.81
Minneapolis-St. Paul.....	32.45	35.15	32.28	40.74	38.68	45.99
New Orleans.....	(1)	26.66	(1)	38.20	34.18	44.69
New York.....	40.94	47.80	37.79	46.73	42.76	51.37
Philadelphia.....	30.59	42.08	27.12	44.41	38.61	54.73
Pittsburgh.....	40.82	46.36	43.77	48.56	43.35	63.15
Providence.....	30.71	35.41	(1)	34.40	34.29	36.85
San Francisco-Oakland.....	42.65	47.02	(1)	51.09	48.44	57.02
Seattle.....	38.16	40.95	(1)	44.94	38.50	53.06
Toledo.....	36.17	41.39	(1)	45.18	43.28	56.70
Washington, D. C.....	(1)	38.47	27.21	40.46	36.16	43.26

¹ Data not available.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Monthly Labor Review*, February 1951.

Providence. These are averages for full-time workers, excluding any premium pay for overtime; earnings of regular commission workers were averaged over the year.

The best-paying occupation was selling women's and misses' coats and suits, in which average weekly earnings often were over \$50. Lowest-paid selling occupation listed here was in the accessories department, in which the average of weekly earnings was under \$35 in about a third of the cities reporting the occupation. Other low-paying departments, not listed here but employing considerable numbers of women, were blouses and neckwear, and notions and trimmings. The nonselling occupation of cashier-wrapper usually had average earnings less than in the lowest-paid selling occupation. Stock girls (selling section) usually had the lowest averages of all—below \$30 in over half the cities reporting the occupation.

EARNINGS OF TELEPHONE EMPLOYEES

From a special study of class A telephone carriers made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics late in 1950, earnings were reported as follows for experienced switchboard operators and employees in other occupations that included large proportions of women.

HOURLY EARNINGS OF EMPLOYEES OF CLASS A TELEPHONE CARRIERS, SELECTED OCCUPATIONS, 1950

<i>Hourly earnings</i>	<i>Experienced switchboard operators</i>	<i>Nonsupervisory</i>		<i>Building service</i> ¹
		<i>Clerical</i>	<i>Business office and sales</i>	
Number of men and women reported.....	² 174, 650	94, 381	24, 460	15, 867
Women as percent of all workers..	100	92	77	51
		<i>Percent distribution</i>		
Under \$1.....	20	15	8	34
\$1, under \$1.20.....	37	25	21	31
\$1.20, under \$1.40.....	25	28	24	22
\$1.40, under \$1.60.....	10	17	17	11
\$1.60, under \$1.80.....	6	8	12	4
\$1.80, under \$2.00.....	2	.4	5	(³)
\$2.00 and over.....	(³)	4	13	(³)
Average hourly earnings (men and women).....	\$1.19	\$1.31	\$1.48	\$1.14

¹ Except foremen, mechanics, supply, and motor vehicle employees.

² Includes only 70 men.

³ Less than 1 percent.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, from figures collected by the Federal Communications Commission.

EARNINGS IN SELECTED PROFESSIONS

About a tenth of all employed women are in professional or technical occupations. Various special studies report data of some type indicating earnings in a recent year in several of these occupations.

Of special importance for women, both because of the numbers employed and because of the large proportions women constitute of all persons in the profession, are those of the teacher, nurse, social worker, and library worker. Among smaller professional or technical occupations also engaged in chiefly by women are those of medical technologist and dietitian. (See p. 7 for estimated numbers.) The salaries shown for these occupations often are not by sex, but indicate women's earnings where a very large proportion of the workers are women.

Salaries of school teachers.—School teachers are about half of all women in the professional and technical occupations. Data on their salaries, taken from a research report of the National Education Association and applicable to the 1950–51 school year, are shown in table 28. 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. They are based on reports from over 2,400 city school systems, estimated to include 85 percent of all employees in city school systems in the country.

In each type of school (elementary, junior, or senior high) teachers' salaries were considerably higher in large than in small cities. Greatest difference was between the two largest groups of cities. Teachers in cities of over 500,000 averaged more than \$750 above those in cities of 100,000 to 500,000. The distributions of earnings, however, show some overlapping, and the report states that in some types of jobs in larger cities many individuals receive lower salaries than some persons in like jobs in smaller cities. Differences in experience and training of the individuals involved and the salary schedules of particular localities are among factors influencing the averages.

Average salaries of senior high-school teachers exceed those in the junior high school by from \$164 in the smallest places to \$446 in the largest cities. Averages for junior high teachers exceeded those in elementary schools by from \$174 to \$338. However, the report gives evidence that this gap is lessening somewhat as more cities adopt the single salary schedules; that is, the same schedule for teachers with comparable training and experience, regardless of whether in elementary or high school.

Earnings of nurses.—Nurses are the group of professional women second in size. Their earnings are shown in table 29 as recently reported by two agencies—the American Nurses' Association and, for industrial nurses, the Bureau of Labor Statistics. These earnings data apply primarily to women, since 98 percent of the nurses are women. The earnings reported by the American Nurses' Association varied for six geographic areas. Above the average was the Pacific region for all types of nurses, the Southwest for all institutional nurses, and the Great Lakes area for public health and industrial nurses.

TABLE 28.—ANNUAL SALARIES OF TEACHERS, BY TYPE OF SCHOOL AND SIZE OF CITY, 1950-51

(Figures for men and women combined ¹)

Annual salaries	Annual salaries in cities with population of—					
	Over 500,000	100,000 to 500,000	30,000 to 100,000	10,000 to 30,000	5,000 to 10,000	2,500 to 5,000
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS AND KINDERGARTENS						
Number reported.....	53, 793	48, 720	42, 940	38, 887	21, 109	14, 875
	<i>Percent distribution</i>					
Under \$2,000.....	(²)	1	2	4	6	11
\$2,000, under \$2,500.....	1	9	11	15	20	26
\$2,500, under \$3,000.....	12	18	23	31	34	34
\$3,000, under \$4,000.....	28	50	48	42	35	27
\$4,000, under \$5,000.....	48	20	14	7	4	2
\$5,000 and over.....	10	2	1	1	1	(²)
Median salary.....	\$4, 172	³ \$3, 395	³ \$3, 231	\$2, 998	\$2, 831	\$2, 683
JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS						
Number reported.....	10, 924	11, 509	12, 982	7, 666	2, 455	1, 329
	<i>Percent distribution</i>					
Under \$2,000.....	(²)	(²)	1	2	4	3
\$2,000, under \$2,500.....	(²)	5	6	11	14	18
\$2,500, under \$3,000.....	8	14	16	25	31	37
\$3,000, under \$4,000.....	24	47	51	49	45	39
\$4,000, under \$5,000.....	37	32	24	12	5	3
\$5,000 and over.....	30	3	3	1	(²)	-----
Median salary.....	\$4, 501	\$3, 719	\$3, 569	\$3, 204	\$3, 005	\$2, 903
SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS						
Number reported.....	29, 246	22, 049	21, 375	23, 391	14, 484	10, 923
	<i>Percent distribution</i>					
Under \$2,000.....	(²)	(²)	1	1	2	2
\$2,000, under \$2,500.....	(²)	4	5	7	11	14
\$2,500, under \$3,000.....	2	9	11	18	24	29
\$3,000, under \$4,000.....	15	37	45	48	47	45
\$4,000, under \$5,000.....	36	43	32	22	14	10
\$5,000 and over.....	47	7	6	4	2	1
Median salary.....	\$4, 947	\$3, 995	\$3, 782	\$3, 490	\$3, 220	\$3, 067

¹ Women constitute over nine-tenths of the elementary, and over two-thirds of the junior high and senior high school teachers.

² Less than 1 percent.

³ Median for teachers in elementary schools only.

Source: National Education Association. Research Bulletin, April 1951.

TABLE 29.—EARNINGS OF NURSES, REPORTED FROM TWO SOURCES

Professional registered nurses, September 1949 (survey by American Nurses' Association)			Registered industrial nurses, 1951 (Bureau of Labor Statistics reports)		
Type of duty	Number reported	Average monthly earnings	City	Number reported	Average weekly earnings
Institutional (living outside hospital):			Atlanta.....	26	\$53.50
All positions.....	2, 440	\$211	Baltimore.....	120	59.50
Head nurses.....	664	218	Boston.....	206	57.50
General staff.....	1, 203	205	Chicago.....	578	62.00
Public health staff:			Dallas.....	40	60.50
All positions.....	791	238	Dayton.....	69	68.00
Staff nurses.....	378	219	New York.....	503	64.50
Industrial.....	371	239	Portland, Oreg.....	27	59.50
Office.....	719	207	San Francisco-Oakland.....	31	62.00
Nurse educators.....	112	256			

Source: The American Journal of Nursing, June 1950, p. 330; and U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, occupational wage studies.

Not shown in the table are the earnings reported to the American Nurses' Association by private-duty nurses, the group next in size to those in institutions. Private-duty nurses most frequently received \$10 for an 8-hour day (\$11 on the Pacific Coast), and had worked on the average about 14 days in the month. Institutional nurses usually had a workweek of 44 hours or longer, while the majority of public health and industrial nurses had a week of 40 hours or less.

Salaries of library workers.—About nine-tenths of the library workers are women. Their earnings were reported, as shown below, by a special 1949 study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. It will be noted that over a tenth of the professional and more than half of the nonprofessional workers earned less than \$2,000. At the upper end of the scale, just over a tenth of the professional and practically none of the nonprofessional workers received as much as \$4,200. The small proportion of men professional librarians had an annual salary average \$1,000 above that of the women. This may indicate that a larger proportion of the men than the women were in the higher administrative posts.

ANNUAL SALARIES OF WOMEN LIBRARY EMPLOYEES, 1949

<i>Annual salary</i>	<i>Percent distribution of—</i>		
	<i>All women employees</i>	<i>Professional</i>	<i>Nonprofessional</i>
Total reported.....	100	100	100
Under \$1,600.....	11	4	21
\$1,600, under \$2,000.....	17	6	33
\$2,000, under \$2,400.....	16	10	23
\$2,400, under \$3,000.....	25	30	19
\$3,000, under \$3,600.....	15	24	3
\$3,600, under \$4,200.....	9	15	1
\$4,200, under \$5,000.....	5	8	(¹)
\$5,000 and over.....	2	3	(¹)
Average ²	\$2, 500	\$2, 975	\$1, 950

¹ Less than 1 percent.

² Corresponding averages for men were \$3,975 for professional and \$2,225 for nonprofessional library employees.

Source: American Library Association and Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Economic Status of Library Personnel, 1949*. Chicago, 1950.

Salaries of social workers.—Salaries are shown in table 30 from a special survey of more than 50,000 social workers, made in 1950 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The difference of over \$600 in the median salaries of women and men may be attributed 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 Federal Government paid the highest salaries for all social work positions. Private agencies paid their social workers on the average about \$1,000 less than the Federal Government. Lowest salaries were found in State, county, and other local government

TABLE 30.—ANNUAL SALARIES OF SOCIAL WORKERS, 1950

Position	Median annual salaries				
	All workers	Women	Men	Range (by region) in women's medians	
				High (Pacific)	Low (South, Midwest, or New England)
All positions.....	\$2,960	\$2,800	\$3,430	\$3,170	\$2,440
Case or group workers.....	2,730	2,660	2,860	3,040	2,280
Supervisors of case or group workers.....	3,610	3,550	3,790	3,730	3,100
Executives.....	3,700	3,180	4,430	3,690	2,760
Other (teaching, research, etc.).....	3,710	3,710	3,700	4,060	3,110

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Monthly Labor Review, April 1951

agencies. About 60 percent of all the social workers in the country are case or group workers, and a large proportion of the case workers are women. The ranges in average salaries of case or group workers (men and women combined) in various types of programs were as follows:

- \$2,400 - \$2,600—Public assistance
 - Work with aged in institutions
- \$27,00 - \$2,800—Noninstitutional child welfare (except court)
 - Institutional child welfare
 - Other services to individuals
 - Group work
- \$2,900 - \$3,200—Family services
 - Court services for children
 - Work with mentally ill in hospitals
 - Medical social work
- \$3,600 - \$3,800—School social work
 - Work with physically handicapped
 - Work in mental hygiene
 - Work with adult offenders

Salaries of medical technologists.—Two-thirds of the women medical technologists received salaries of \$2,400 but less than \$3,300 in 1950, according to a sample survey of about a tenth of those registered, made by the Registry of Medical Technologists.

ANNUAL SALARIES OF WOMEN MEDICAL TECHNOLOGISTS, 1950

Annual salary	Percent distribution
Total reported.....	100
Under \$2,100.....	3
\$2,100, under \$2,400.....	7
\$2,400, under \$2,700.....	23
\$2,700, under \$3,000.....	22
\$3,000, under \$3,300.....	23
\$3,300, under \$3,900.....	17
\$3,900 and over.....	6

Source: American Society of Clinical Pathologists. Registry of Medical Technologists.

Salaries of dietitians.—A special study of dietitians made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in cooperation with the American Dietetic Association estimates 1949 salaries for over 6,000 in the largest group of dietitians, those in hospitals, on the basis of questionnaires sent to association members and reported in the Monthly Labor Review for February 1950. Though data are not shown by sex, most dietitians are women. About 20 percent of the hospital dietitians earned less than \$2,400 a year, 8 percent receiving less than \$2,000. About 40 percent received \$2,400 to \$3,000, another 40 percent \$3,000 or over, with only 4 percent earning as much as \$5,000. Almost three-fourths of these dietitians lived outside the hospitals where they worked.

The median salaries were as follows:

Total reported.....	\$2, 820
Living in hospitals.....	2, 400
Living outside.....	2, 970

Median salaries were somewhat higher for other groups of reporting American Dietetics Association members—\$3,000 for college food-service dietitians and \$3,800 for industrial food-service dietitians.

At about the same period, a Women's Bureau study reported that salaries of home economics graduates when entering the field of public health nutrition would be about \$2,100 to \$2,400.

Salaries in selected scientific fields.—Since scientific fields of work are now so greatly to the fore, the following data may be significant. These are taken from a Bureau of Labor Statistics report that included over 2,500 women, most of them doing scientific research. Ten scientific fields were covered, and in four of these, women constituted about a tenth or more of those reported. Over three-fourths of the women had obtained the doctor's degree. Median salaries are shown for those with the doctor's degree, but not separately for women. The four fields that had the largest proportions of women showed also the lowest median salaries. In three of the four groups under discussion, scientists aged 60 to 64 (for mathematicians 65 to 69) had the highest median salaries, only about 4 to 6 percent of the total being in these age groups. Further details are shown in the following summary.

ANNUAL EARNINGS IN SCIENTIFIC FIELDS, 1948

<i>Fields of scientific work</i>	<i>Women reported</i>			<i>Median earnings of men and women with doctor's degree</i>
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent of total</i>	<i>Percent with doctor's degree</i>	
All fields ¹	2, 520	6	75	\$5, 720
Biology.....	679	12	74	4, 940
Psychology.....	323	20	90	5, 320
Related to medicine.....	226	9	69	5, 420
Mathematics, statistics.....	186	10	82	5, 060

¹ Total includes 6 additional sciences each of which had a small proportion of women.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Bull. 1027. 1951.

Important professions with small proportions of women.—Three professions that have a tradition of high prestige 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 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 \$3,000.² Salaried lawyers, who are located chiefly in large cities, had a somewhat higher median. Independent lawyers in small places had a median considerably below the average. The same agency reported the median net income of nonsalaried physicians (after deduction of business expense, but before taxes) as \$9,561 in 1949; salaried physicians received less and, of course, there were wide individual variations.² About 40 percent were general practitioners, 40 percent fully specialized, the remainder did both types of work. Somewhat surprisingly, general practitioners had highest median earnings if in localities of 2,500 to 10,000; as would be expected, specialists received most if they practiced in much larger cities. Beginning salaries of engineers in 1950 were reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics to be about \$225 a month for persons with a bachelor's degree, \$320 a month for those with a master's degree, and \$445 for those with a doctor's degree.³ However, median starting rates varied widely with type of industry, engineer, and employer.

² Studies by William Weinfeld, U. S. Department of Commerce. Office of Business Economic National Income Division. *In* Survey of Current Business: August 1949, *Income of Lawyers, 1929-48*; July 1951, *Income of Physicians, 1929-49*. Figures for 1951, published in Survey of Current Business, July 1952, after this Handbook went to press, show substantial increases in income for both lawyers and physicians.

³ U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1951. *Earnings of Engineers*, pp. 81-83.

WOMEN BENEFITING FROM OLD AGE AND SURVIVORS INSURANCE

The old-age and survivors insurance system is a family insurance plan under the social security law, which is operated by the Federal Government. It enables gainfully employed people to provide an income for themselves and their families when their usual income from employment is cut off by old age or death. Through contributions based on the amount of their wages or self-employment income, they establish rights to future benefits. This Federal system is supplemented by old-age assistance for those not having other resources. An important measure of progress may be seen in the fact that by early 1951 more aged persons were provided benefits under old-age and survivors insurance than were aided under old-age assistance. In mid-1951, women were more than a third of all those receiving benefits under old-age and survivors insurance.

Some 22.9 million women workers were fully insured under the old-age and survivors insurance system by early 1952. This is about 40 percent of all women in the population 14 years of age and over. Of the insured women, about two-thirds were under 35 years of age. Toward the older end of the age range, about a tenth were 45 to 54, and a somewhat smaller proportion were 55 or older.

The median of earnings of women covered by old-age insurance was \$1,200 in 1950, or \$1,900 if they had worked 4 quarters in the year. The median for 4-quarter women workers was 60 percent of that for 4-quarter men workers. Median earnings began to decline for both women and men workers after they were 50 years of age. Men's earnings declined in greater proportion than women's, but in the oldest group (65 and over) women's median still was far below men's.

WOMEN RECEIVING BENEFITS

Eligible for old-age benefits at the close of 1951 were 628,000 women workers; of these 73 percent (459,000 women) were currently receiving old-age benefits, averaging \$33.03 a month (which would be \$396.36 a year). All these, of course, were 65 years old or over. More than a sixth of them were 75 or older, a small proportion being 80 or more. Women were about 15 percent of the retired workers receiving benefits. The 27 percent not currently receiving were those who were still working or who had not filed for benefits.

Besides those who were receiving old-age insurance built up in their own right, women dependent on insured persons, or surviving them,

are paid benefits. Women are at least two-thirds of the persons receiving such benefits. Women currently being paid benefits at the end of 1951 included the following:

SELECTED WOMEN BENEFICIARIES OF OLD-AGE AND SURVIVORS INSURANCE,
DEC. 31, 1951

<i>Type of benefit</i>	<i>All women</i>		<i>Nonwhite</i>		
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Monthly average</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent of all women</i>	<i>Monthly average</i>
Wife's.....	643, 901	\$22. 75	21, 882	3	\$16. 91
Widow's.....	384, 011	36. 04	11, 781	3	28. 74
Mother's.....	203, 782	33. 25	21, 302	10	26. 04
Parent's (women).....	15, 768	37. 11	1, 443	9	31. 92

Source: Federal Security Agency.

All these widows and parents, and 95 percent of the wives, were 65 years of age or older. Of the mothers, however, four-fifths were 30 to 54 years of age.

NEW GROUPS BROUGHT UNDER THE SYSTEM IN 1950

Amendments to the Social Security Act in 1950 extended old-age and survivors insurance to many new groups of workers including household and farm workers, most persons in urban self-employment, employees of nonprofit institutions that elected to come under the system, and to employees of the Federal Government who were not under a government retirement program. These amendments also made coverage possible for employees of the States and their political subdivisions who were not in positions covered by a retirement system.

In order to be eligible for coverage in any calendar quarter of the year, household workers must meet tests specified in the law as showing that they are regularly employed by an employer. A household worker is covered in a calendar quarter if, during the quarter, she is paid \$50 in cash wages by an employer in whose household she is employed on some part of at least 24 different days or for whom she had worked on 24 different days in the preceding quarter.

It is estimated that slightly more than 2½ million gainfully employed women were newly covered by old-age and survivors insurance beginning Jan. 1, 1951. Over half of the newly covered women were either self-employed or worked in household employment.

Only about 14 percent of the Nation's paid workers have no coverage under any public retirement program. The persons without such protection are chiefly farmers, farm and household workers not classified as regularly employed under old-age and survivors insurance, and self-employed professional people.

PART III

ECONOMIC RESPONSIBILITIES OF WOMEN WORKERS

WOMEN'S CONTRIBUTIONS TO FAMILY INCOME OR SUPPORT

The extent to which women support dependents and the portions of their earnings that go to support others or to general family expenses are subjects of continual interest. There are many evidences, resulting from numerous investigations, that women's earnings are a substantial asset in maintaining and advancing the standard of living of American families. A large number of studies reporting on the economic responsibilities of women workers indicate that among those who live with their families over nine-tenths usually make regular contributions to the family upkeep. Among women who live apart from their families, about a fifth contribute regularly to the support of relatives.

PART OF FAMILY INCOME WOMEN FURNISH

Women furnish half or more of the entire income of nearly 5 million families of two or more related persons, or 13 percent of all families in the country. This information comes from a Census Bureau sample for 1947, the only over-all report ever made that gives data on this particular subject. (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

About a fifth of all women workers were either the only earners or the principal earners contributing to the support of their families, according to a Census Bureau sampling study for 1946, the only over-all report ever made on this phase of the subject. Women were the only earners or principal earners in 12 percent of the country's families. More than 1½ million women were the sole earners, and about 2½ million the principal earners, in their families. The principal earner in a family is the one who receives the highest money earnings in that family; if there are several earners contributing, this may not be as much as half of the family's entire income.

The findings of numerous special studies of various types correspond with this in showing that considerably more than a tenth of the women workers are the only earners in their families. Two of the largest recent studies affording such information were made by the Women's

Bureau. One of these shows results of interviews with some 10,500 women who were employed in the war period 1944-45, in various types of industry (except household work), and who lived in family groups. More than a tenth of the married and single women and over a third of those who were widowed or divorced were the only earners in their families, as the following summary shows.

FAMILY SUPPORT RESPONSIBILITIES OF 10,500 WOMEN WHO LIVED IN FAMILY GROUPS, BY MARITAL STATUS, 1944-45

<i>Extent of family support</i>	<i>Percent distribution of—</i>			
	<i>All women reported</i>	<i>Single</i>	<i>Married</i>	<i>Widowed or divorced</i>
All women reported.....	100	100	100	100
Sole support of the family group.....	14	12	11	34
Contributed regularly to family expenses as—				
One of two wage earners.....	49	40	58	39
One of three or more wage earners....	29	40	22	23
Made no regular contribution.....	8	8	9	4

Source: Women's Bureau Bull. 209. 1946.

The second of these studies included about 9,000 women members of seven different union groups. The following summary for some 6,000 women who lived with their families shows the percent who were sole family earners, by marital status.

SOLE FAMILY EARNERS, AMONG 6,000 UNION WOMEN WHO LIVED IN FAMILY GROUPS, BY MARITAL STATUS, 1950

<i>Union</i>	<i>Percent who were sole family earners among—</i>				
	<i>All women reported</i>	<i>Single</i>	<i>Married</i>	<i>Widowed</i>	<i>Separated or divorced</i>
Brotherhood of Railway and Steamship Clerks.....	14	16	3	47	45
Communication Workers of America.....	16	21	5	(1)	45
Hotel and Restaurant Employees Union.....	21	23	7	45	49
International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union.....	14	12	9	30	46
International Association of Machinists.....	15	20	6	(1)	40
Textile Workers Union of America..	13	14	7	34	54
Women's Trade Union League...	19	12	13	46	48

¹ Not computed; base too small.

Source: Women's Bureau Bulletin 239. 1952.

Several reports on mothers who use public child-care centers indicate that especially large proportions of these workers are the only earners in their families. One of the largest of these included more than 11,500 working mothers in California, of whom over 50 percent were the only earners in their families. For professional women, two reports in the wartime and prewar periods showed that, respectively, a tenth of 3,600 women reported and a fourth of 7,200 women reported were the only earners in their families. For further information on the many reports on women's economic responsibilities, see Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 239.

FAMILY INCOME LEVEL AND INCOME OF WOMEN MEMBERS

Of all women who live with their families about 40 percent have some income, the Bureau of the Census reports. Of these over half are wives, almost a third are other relatives of the family head (chiefly daughters), and 16 percent are themselves the heads of the families.

Wives are much more likely to enter the labor force when the husband's income is low than when it is more adequate, as the summary following shows. When the husband's income is below \$3,000, wives in urban areas are especially likely to enter the labor force. When the husband's income is low, the wife's income also averages less than the income of wives whose husbands have higher income. However, the median income of wives is very low compared to their husband's income in all groups above \$2,000.

WIFE'S 1951 PARTICIPATION IN LABOR FORCE AND 1950 INCOME OF HUSBAND AND WIFE

<i>Income of husband, 1950</i>	<i>Percent of wives in labor force, 1951</i>		<i>Median income of wives in paid work, 1950</i>
	<i>United States</i>	<i>Urban areas</i>	
Under \$1,000.....	28	34	\$908
\$1,000, under \$2,000.....	29	34	1,094
\$2,000, under \$3,000.....	28	32	1,548
\$3,000, under \$4,000.....	27	28	1,718
\$4,000, under \$5,000.....	21	21	1,954
\$5,000, under \$6,000.....	16	17	
\$6,000, under \$10,000.....	11	11	
\$10,000 and over.....	12	11	

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Series P-60, No. 9, Mar. 25, 1952.

The substantial part the wife's employment plays in lifting the family income level (not including savings due to her household management and services) is indicated in the summary shown below, which reports on families with both husband and wife present. The median income in families where the wife is in the labor force is about a fifth above that in families where the wife is not in the labor force. Incomes below \$2,000 a year were received by 23 percent of the families where the wife was not in the labor force, but by only 15 percent of those with working wives. About a third of the families where wives were not in the labor force, but half those with working wives had incomes of as much as \$4,000.

INCOME OF HUSBAND-WIFE FAMILIES, 1950, AND WIFE'S LABOR FORCE STATUS, 1951

<i>Family income</i>	<i>Percent distribution of families with—</i>	
	<i>Wife in labor force</i>	<i>Wife not in labor force</i>
All incomes.....	100	100
Under \$1,000.....	5	11
\$1,000, under \$3,000.....	24	32
\$3,000, under \$4,000.....	20	22
\$4,000 or more.....	50	36
Median income of families.....	\$4, 003	\$3, 315

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, Consumer Income. Series P-60, No. 9, Mar. 25, 1952.

The more frequent employment of the wife where the husband's income is low than where it is high is a situation found both in families with and in those without children. Whatever the income level, much larger proportions of the wives without children than of the wives with children are in the labor force. Furthermore, of wives with children much larger proportions are at work where all children are of school age than where there are children under 6. (See Part I, pp. 20 to 22.)

The earnings of daughters are of great importance in many families. They were among the family earners and contributors in about half of some 2,000 Cleveland workers' families whose incomes were studied by the Women's Bureau shortly before World War II. In about a third of the families with working daughters, these girls and women were the only family earners.

WOMEN WITH DEPENDENTS

Interest in women's financial responsibilities often takes the form of a question as to how many women are supporting dependents. Women's share in the support of their families often is given in such a way as to make it very difficult to assess the full extent to which the individual is supporting dependents. For example, many women put a part of their earnings into the general family fund. Others regularly pay certain of the family's expenses, such as those for groceries, rent, medical care.

Information on the proportions of working women who have dependents is afforded by a great variety of special studies made at different times and places and including workers in differing occupation groups. An examination of a large number of these indicates that half or well over half the employed women consider themselves in some degree responsible for the support of dependents. The following summary shows the results of some of these investigations:

WOMEN WHO CONTRIBUTE TO SUPPORT OF DEPENDENTS

	<i>Number of women reported</i>	<i>Percent with de- pendents</i>
Industrial women:		
Women members of seven unions, 1950.....	9, 000	48-64
Women war workers living in family, 10 areas, 1944-45.....	10, 500	92
Women war workers, Dallas, 1944.....	3, 300	40
Women workers, Chicago, 1941-42.....	3, 000	33
Women workers, Duluth, 1945.....	1, 500	51
Women aircraft workers, Kansas City, 1943-44.....	1, 200	48
Women workers, electrical union, New York, 1944-45.....	1, 100	91
Professional and business women:		
Professional nurses, 1949.....	300, 500	30
Business, professional women, 1937.....	10, 900	48
University women, 1935.....	8, 800	41
Rural teachers, 20 States, 1936-37:		
White.....	6, 300	57
Negro.....	1, 100	92
School teachers, Connecticut, 1941-42.....	5, 000	65
Urban teachers, 42 States, 1944.....	3, 400	52
Professional women, 1943.....	3, 100	42

Source: For references and details of these and many additional studies, see Women's Bureau Bull. 239. The study of nurses was not by sex, but 99 percent are women.

DEPENDENTS OF WOMEN UNDER UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION

Under the unemployment compensation provisions administered by State employment services, 11 States (or Territories) provide unemployed women with added benefits if they have dependents. The definitions of dependents vary among the States, and records from this source give only a partial indication of the full extent to which

women included have dependents. Some adult dependents are provided for in 4 of these jurisdictions—Alaska, Arizona, District of Columbia, and Nevada. Of the women receiving unemployment compensation in these States in the last quarter of 1950, the proportions who had dependents were, respectively, 9, 37, 23, and 9. Of all those receiving compensation in Arizona in 1949–50, who had dependents, a fourth had adult dependents.

In the other 7 States, the benefits allowed for women's dependents apply only to children, and no benefits are allowed for women's adult dependents. These States are Connecticut, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, North Dakota, Ohio, and Wyoming. In 4 of them only from 3 to 6 percent of the women receiving unemployment compensation had children dependent on them and thus were entitled to the added benefits. In Ohio the proportion with child dependents was 8 percent, in Wyoming 12 percent, and in North Dakota as high as 29 percent. In Oregon, where dependents are not provided for, a special study of women receiving unemployment compensation in 1948 showed that of those with dependents 40 percent had adult dependents.

DEPENDENTS OF WOMEN UNDER OASI

The old-age and survivors insurance provisions of the Social Security Act were amended in 1950, giving significant recognition to the responsibility of married women for their dependents. One of the amendments provides that children under 18 who lose their mother can receive benefits based on her earnings, regardless of the father's contributions to their support, provided the mother worked at least half of the time in the 3 years before her death in occupations covered by the act, or was fully insured (a more lenient requirement based on work at any time since 1936). In these cases, benefits would be payable if the mother had been furnishing at least half of the support of the children; or if the father were neither living with the children nor contributing toward their support, and she had been furnishing any part of their support.

Another amendment provides that if an insured woman's husband is receiving at least half his support from her at the time she retires or dies, he can receive benefits on the basis of her record of wages and self-employment income. To receive these he must be 65 or older, and must be the father of her children or have been married to her for at least 3 years.

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 two set a minimum-adequate standard of living for a self-supporting woman without dependents; these two, Maine and Massachusetts, consider the needs of an employed man as well. The budgets priced include board and lodging, clothing and its upkeep, personal care, medical care, transportation, recreation (including vacation), reading matter, educational and other miscellaneous expenses; with one exception, Massachusetts, 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 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 California, District of Columbia, and Utah budgets provide for living and eating in a boarding house, and in New York food and housing costs were determined in terms of living as a member of a family group. Except for Utah's, these four budgets provide for lunches to be eaten in restaurants, and the California budget makes an additional allowance for Sunday dinner.

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, revised 1951, "Working Women's Budgets in Thirteen States," and latest mimeographed supplements issued for the various 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.

<i>State</i>	<i>Total budget amount</i>	<i>Date</i>
Arizona	\$1, 953	1948 (Apr.)
California	2, 004	1950 (Oct.)
Colorado	1, 813	1949 (Jan.)
Connecticut	1, 867	1949 (Mar.)
District of Columbia	2, 149	1951 (Aug.)
Kentucky	¹ 1, 992	1949 (Feb.)
Maine	2, 236	1950 (Dec.)
Massachusetts	² 1, 527	1950 (Aug.)
New Jersey	2, 492	1950 (Oct.)
New York	2, 340	1951 (Sept.)
Pennsylvania	2, 121	1949 (Nov.)
Utah	2, 230	1950 (Oct.)
Washington	2, 231	1949 (May)

¹ An alternate budget of the same date, based on living and eating in a boarding house, amounts to \$1,839.

² A commodity and service budget only; no provision is made for taxes or savings.

PART IV

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 about a century and a half 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, the States have quite generally set up standards for women's employment covering certain occupations and industries and relating to a variety of working conditions such as daily and weekly hours, night work, health and safety conditions, equal pay, and minimum wages. The Nation's best interests demand good labor standards for women, many of whom are mothers and home-makers 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 detrimental to the worker's health and efficiency. The development of industrial hygiene has provided a basis for regu-

lating 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.

Federal labor laws and social security provisions affect both men and women workers and therefore lie for the most part outside the scope of this Handbook. They relate to labor-management relations, wage and hour standards, social security, employment security, job training and education, workmen's compensation, and so forth. An analysis of Federal labor laws is contained in *Federal Labor Laws and Agencies: A Layman's Guide* (U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Standards, Bull. 123).

WAGE STANDARDS

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.

EMPLOYMENT STANDARDS

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

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

2. At least 1 day of rest in 7.

3. Meal periods of at least 30 minutes. No work period of more than 5 hours without a break for meal or rest.

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

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

6. Sick leave and maternity leave without loss of job or seniority rights. Maternity leave should cover a minimum of 6 weeks before

and 2 months after confinement, with extension of either period on advice of the worker's physician.

7. Time off with pay on chief legal holidays.

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.

OTHER STANDARDS

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

For Health

1. Working environment: Adequate ventilation, lighting, and heating, to preserve health and reduce strain and fatigue.

2. Plant facilities: Washrooms, toilets, rest rooms and dressing rooms, and drinking water should be convenient and available to all workers. Where the size of the plant makes it practicable, lunchrooms with nourishing food available at reasonable prices should be provided. 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 to abolish industrial home work, with its long and irregular hours, low earnings, and child labor, should be continued. Strict regulation of hours, wages and working conditions in industries where it exists is recommended until prohibitory laws can be passed.

PART V

SUMMARY OF STATE LABOR LAWS FOR WOMEN¹

Basic standards as of July 1, 1952

The basic purpose of labor legislation for women is protection of the health 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. Women'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 laws 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 more industries. In about half the States, the limit so established is 8 hours a day and/or 48 hours a week.

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

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 11 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 are matters 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 (General Motors case). No equal pay law has 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. Notable among laws passed in 1951 was an amendment to the Connecticut minimum-wage law establishing a statutory minimum of 75 cents an hour. Connecticut was the first State to attain the basic hourly minimum of the Fair Labor Standards Act. Equal-pay legislation included strengthening of the Massachusetts law by a 1951 amendment which bases the application of the principle of equal pay on "comparable" work and the adoption of an equal-pay law by New Jersey in 1952. Hours of work legislation enacted since Korea (June 1950-Jan. 1, 1952) includes some temporary relaxation of maximum hour standards in a few States.

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.....	8	-(¹)	New York.....	8	-48
California.....	8	-48	North Carolina.....	9	-48
Colorado.....	8	-(¹)	North Dakota.....	8½	-48
Connecticut.....	8	-48	Ohio.....	8	-48
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.....	8	-48	Washington.....	8	
Nevada.....	8	-48	Wyoming.....	8	-48
New Hampshire.....	10	-48			

¹ Day-of-rest law provides, in effect for a 48-hour week.

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 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.....	9-54	Vermont.....	9-50
Missouri.....	9-54	Wisconsin.....	9-50
Nebraska.....	9-54		

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.

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).....	10-60	South Carolina (men and	
Kentucky.....	10-60	women) ¹	10-55
Maryland.....	10-60	South Dakota.....	10-54
Mississippi (men and women)....	10-60	Tennessee.....	10-50

¹ 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.

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

Nearly half the States (22) and the District of Columbia prohibit employment of women for more than 6 days a week in some or all industries.³ 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)	Wisconsin (men and women)
Nevada	

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.

³ 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.

MEAL PERIODS

Over half the States (27), the District of Columbia, and one Territory, listed below, have provided that meal periods varying from $\frac{1}{2}$ hour to 1 hour must be allowed to women in some or all industries. This provision applies to manufacturing establishments in all but 3 of these States—Colorado, Illinois, and North Carolina.

Arkansas	New Jersey (men and women)
California	New Mexico
Colorado	New York (men and women)
Delaware	North Carolina
District of Columbia	North Dakota
Illinois	Ohio
Indiana (men and women)	Oregon
Kansas	Pennsylvania
Kentucky	Rhode Island
Louisiana	Utah
Maine	Washington
Maryland	West Virginia
Massachusetts	Wisconsin
Nebraska (men and women)	Puerto Rico
Nevada	

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

Nineteen States and Puerto Rico place some limitation on the hours adult women may be employed at night. In addition, 3 States limit the night work of persons 18 to 21 years of age only.

In 13 States and Puerto Rico night work for adult women is prohibited in certain industries or occupations. In North Dakota and Washington the prohibition applies only to elevator operators; in Ohio, only to taxicab drivers.

Connecticut	New York
Delaware	North Dakota
Indiana (suspended until 1961)	Ohio
Kansas	South Carolina
Massachusetts	Washington
Nebraska (except on permit)	Wisconsin
New Jersey	Puerto Rico (except on permit)

In 6 additional States—California, Maryland, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Pennsylvania, and Utah—as well as in several of the States already listed, the employment of adult women at night, while not prohibited, is regulated either by provision for a lower maximum hour limit for night work than for day work or by the establishment of specific working-conditions standards.

In the District of Columbia and 3 States that do not prohibit or regulate night work for adult women—Arizona, Rhode Island, and Virginia—night work is prohibited for persons under 21 in messenger service (in Virginia for girls under 21). Of the 13 States listed as prohibiting night work for women, 2—Massachusetts and Ohio—prohibit the employment of girls under 21 in numerous industries or occupations.

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

The majority of States have occupational limitation laws for women and minors—24 of them having one or more such limitations on the employment of adult women. In the 24 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 10 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 occupations or places considered hazardous or injurious to health or safety, such as operating polishing wheels or belts, cleaning moving machinery, employment as a bellhop, or in basements of establishments specified.

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

<i>Mines</i>	<i>Barrooms</i>	<i>Other places and occupations</i>
Alabama	California	Arizona—Constant standing (all industries).
Arizona	Connecticut	Louisiana—Cleaning moving machinery.
Arkansas	Illinois	Michigan—Operating polishing wheels, belts, etc., in room wholly or partly under- ground.
Colorado	Indiana	Constant standing (all industries).
Illinois	Kentucky	Foundries.
Indiana	Louisiana	Handling certain harmful substances.
Maryland	Michigan	Hazardous occupations.
Missouri	Ohio	Minnesota—Core rooms.
New York	Pennsylvania	Cleaning moving machinery.
Ohio	Rhode Island	Missouri—Cleaning, or working between, moving machinery.
Oklahoma		New York—Operating polishing wheels, etc. Basement of a mercantile or restaurant establishment.
Pennsylvania		Ohio—Lists 15 occupations (in addition to mines, smelters, barrooms) in which women's employment is prohibited. Examples are bell-hops, express drivers, operation of freight or baggage elevators, work in shoe-shining parlors, pool rooms, etc.
Utah		Pennsylvania—Dangerous or injurious occu- pations.
Virginia		Washington—Bell-hop.
Washington		Wisconsin—Disorderly house.
Wisconsin		
Wyoming		

WEIGHT LIFTING

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

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

INDUSTRIAL HOME WORK

Twenty States and one Territory have industrial home-work laws or regulations. In all but 3—Colorado, Oregon, and Utah—the law applies to all persons; in these 3 jurisdictions the law applies to women and minors only.

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

EMPLOYMENT BEFORE AND AFTER CHILDBIRTH

Six States and one Territory have laws prohibiting the employment of women immediately before and after childbirth. Except in Puerto Rico, their provisions 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 and provides for job security during the required absence. The jurisdictions and the periods during which women may not be employed are:

Connecticut.....	4 weeks before and 4 weeks after.
Massachusetts.....	4 weeks before and 4 weeks after.
Missouri.....	3 weeks before and 3 weeks after.
New York.....	4 weeks after.
Vermont.....	2 weeks before and 4 weeks after.
Washington.....	4 months before and 6 weeks after. ¹
	4 weeks before and 4 weeks after. ²
Puerto Rico.....	4 weeks before and 4 weeks after.

¹ Applies to women in manufacturing, food processing, and fresh fruit and vegetable packing industries.

² Applies to women in the laundry, dry cleaning and dye works industry.

Rhode Island's Temporary Disability Insurance Act (formerly Cash Sickness Compensation Law) expressly provides that employed women who are pregnant are entitled to cash benefits during the 6 weeks before, and the 6 weeks after, childbirth.

EQUAL PAY

Thirteen 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. Massachusetts in 1951 amended its law to base application of the principle of equal pay on “comparable work”. In 1952 New Jersey became the thirteenth State to enact such legislation.

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

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 below. These laws are broad in their coverage of industries, most of them being all-inclusive with a few listed exemptions, usually domestic service and agriculture. The Maine law, 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	South Dakota (women and girls)
Louisiana (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)

Connecticut in 1951 amended its minimum-wage law to establish a statutory minimum of 75 cents an hour (requiring a modification of wage orders to provide the basic minimum). Application of the law was broadened to cover all but a few occupations. Minnesota, New Hampshire, Puerto Rico, and Hawaii also enacted amendments to their laws in 1951.

PART VI
LEGISLATION AFFECTING HOUSEHOLD EMPLOYEES

As of January 1, 1952

**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 which:

Covers both male and female employees.

Prohibits their employment over 60 hours a week, including all the 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.

Makes violation of the law a misdemeanor.

2. Alaska has a law establishing 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:

California	Oklahoma	Washington
Colorado	Oregon	Wisconsin
Kansas	Utah	Alaska

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 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: Domestic workers (except those employed on farms) employed by the same employer for a minimum of 48 hours a week in cities of at least 40,000 population are covered by a 1947 amendment to the Workmen's Compensation Law. 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 workers, but 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.

STATES IN WHICH COVERAGE IS ELECTIVE ¹

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

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.

Vermont: Coverage for domestic workers was provided in 1951 by the deletion of a previous exemption. The law is voluntary for those employing seven or fewer employees.

STATES IN WHICH COVERAGE IS VOLUNTARY ²

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

STATES WHICH EXCLUDE DOMESTIC WORKERS

Alabama	Mississippi	West Virginia
Delaware	Montana	Wyoming
District of Columbia	Tennessee	
Iowa	Texas	

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**STATES REQUIRING REGULAR PAYMENT OF WAGES****A. Law applies to domestic workers expressly:**

California (monthly if boarded and lodged by employer; semimonthly if not)

B. Law applies to all workers; thus sufficiently broad to include domestic workers:

Connecticut	Montana	Pennsylvania
Georgia	Nevada	Rhode Island
Indiana	New Jersey	West Virginia
Massachusetts	New York	Alaska

STATES REQUIRING PAYMENT IMMEDIATELY OR WITHIN A SPECIFIED PERIOD UPON DISCHARGE**A. Law applies to domestic workers expressly:**

California (if not boarded and lodged by employer)

B. Law applies to all workers; thus sufficiently broad to include domestic workers:

Connecticut	Massachusetts	Rhode Island
Idaho	Minnesota	West Virginia
Illinois	Montana	Wyoming
Louisiana	Nevada	Alaska

COVERAGE OF DOMESTIC WORKERS BY SOCIAL SECURITY LEGISLATION NOW IN EFFECT**OLD-AGE AND SURVIVORS INSURANCE**

Under the amended Federal Social Security Act, effective January 1, 1951, old-age and survivors insurance protection is provided for "regularly employed" domestic workers in private homes if the worker:

- (1) Works on some part of at least 24 days in the calendar quarter for an employer (or had worked for this employer on some part of 24 days in the preceding quarter).
- (2) Is paid cash wages of at least \$50 during the quarter for these services.

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 four or more domestic workers in his home for 15 days in a calendar year.

Claims for unemployment insurance should be filed with the local public employment security office.

PART VII

THE POLITICAL AND CIVIL STATUS OF WOMEN

Including principal sex distinctions as of January 1, 1952 ¹

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.

¹ Material has been brought up to date as far as possible, but there has not been an opportunity for exhaustive research of new State legislation.

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

Courts—Jury service.—Women are entitled by law to serve on juries in 42 States, the District of Columbia, Alaska, Canal Zone, and the Virgin Islands; by this fact they are eligible also for Federal jury service in these jurisdictions. [Three States—New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Tennessee—enacted jury service laws in 1951.]²

In about half of these jurisdictions,³ jury duty is compulsory for qualified women; and in about half, it is optional for women.

There are now only six States⁴ remaining in which women are not permitted to serve on State juries. Women are also barred from Federal juries in these jurisdictions by virtue of the provision of the Federal Judicial Code of 1948 which requires Federal juror qualifications to conform to those in effect in the State where the Federal jury is sitting.

DOMICILE

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

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

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

California	Nevada	Ohio
Maine	New Jersey	Pennsylvania
Massachusetts	New York	Virginia
Michigan	North Carolina	Wisconsin

² Since January 1, 1952, Hawaii and Puerto Rico have made women eligible for jury service.

³ In a few jurisdictions where jury service for women has only recently been permitted, the Women's Bureau has not yet obtained information showing whether it is compulsory or optional.

⁴ Ala., Ga., Miss., S. C., Tex., W. Va.

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 women. The same minimum age applies to both sexes in 6 States ⁵ when parental consent is required, and in 17 States ⁶ 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, Wisconsin) require pre-marital health tests of men applicants only. One State (Louisiana) bars remarriage of a woman for a 10-month period after dissolution of her marriage.

DIVORCE

Sixteen States ⁷ 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 ⁸ may grant a divorce to the wife on grounds that are exclusive to her, generally the husband's desertion or nonsupport.

PARENT AND CHILD

Thirty-four States ⁹ give both parents the same rights of natural guardianship. Fourteen States ¹⁰ 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.

⁵ Conn., Idaho, Mo., N. C., Pa., Tenn.

⁶ Conn., Fla., Idaho, Ky., La., Mont., Nebr., N. C., Ohio, Pa., R. I., S. C., S. Dak., Tenn., Va., W. Va., Wyo.

⁷ Ala., Ariz., Ga., Iowa, Kans., Ky., Miss., Mo., N. H., N. Mex., N. C., Okla., Tenn., Va., Wis., Wyo.

⁸ Ala., Ariz., Colo., Del., Ind., Ky., Maine, Mass., Mich., Mo., Mont., Nebr., Nev., N. H., N. Mex., R. I., Tenn., Vt., Wash., Wis., Wyo.

⁹ 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.

¹⁰ Ala., Ark., Colo., Ga., Iowa, Mass., Mich., Minn., N. Y., N. C., Okla., Vt., Va., Wyo.

Six States ¹¹ and the District of Columbia by statute prefer the father when a guardian of property is to be appointed for his child.

Nine States ¹² 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 ¹³ of the thirteen ¹⁴ 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 ¹⁵ 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 20) make the common estate of husband and wife liable for family support, without relieving the husband as head of the family from his liability for its proper care. The remaining States and the District of Columbia, under common-law rule in this respect, hold the husband and his property primarily liable for family support. In 21 of these States ¹⁶ the wife and her property are declared liable also for family necessities, but without changing the husband's primary obligation.

Ten States ¹⁷ 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.

¹¹ Ala., Colo., La., Mont., Oreg., Tex.

¹² Ariz., Idaho, Mont., N. Dak., Okla., Oreg., S. Dak., Utah, Vt.

¹³ Ariz., Idaho, Mont., N. Dak., Okla., S. Dak., Utah.

¹⁴ Ariz., Calif., Del., Idaho, La., Mont., Nev., N. Y., N. Dak., Okla., Pa., S. Dak., Utah.

¹⁵ Idaho, Kans., La., Mont., Nev., N. Mex., N. Dak., Okla., S. Dak.

¹⁶ Ariz., Ark., Calif., Colo., Conn., Idaho, Ill., Iowa, La., Mass., Minn., Mo., Mont., N. Dak., Oreg., Pa., S. Dak., Utah, Wash., W. Va., Wyo.

¹⁷ Calif., Idaho, Mont., Nev., N. Mex., N. Dak., Ohio, Okla., S. Dak., Wis.

Unmarried parents.—In general, the mother is primarily liable for support of her child born out of wedlock. 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 States¹⁸ 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 States¹⁹ 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 eight²⁰ community-property States do not ordinarily empower a wife to contract alone concerning the common marital property, though the husband has extensive powers of sole contract, particularly over the personal property owned in common.

Five States²¹ forbid a wife to obligate herself as surety for her husband.

Five States²² limit to some extent because of sex the appointment of a woman to positions of trust, such as executor or administrator.

Six States²³ may impose special restrictions on a woman who marries while serving in these offices of trust.

OWNERSHIP, CONTROL, AND USE OF PROPERTY

Separate property.—In property management and control, inheritance, and freedom of enjoyment of earnings, unmarried women and unmarried men stand equal under the law. Married women in most States have the same degree of control over their separate property that married men have over their separate property. Personal earnings of married women are made their separate property by specific statute in most of the States not under the community-property regime. In the 15 States²⁴ without such specific law, general statutes are interpreted to have the same effect.

¹⁸ Idaho, Mo., Tex., Va.

¹⁹ La., Nebr., Tex.

²⁰ Ariz., Calif., Idaho, La., Nev., N. Mex., Tex., Wash.

²¹ Ala., Ga., Idaho, Ky., N. H.

²² Idaho, Nev., Okla., Oreg., S. Dak.

²³ Del., Nev., N. H., N. C., S. C., Utah.

²⁴ Del., Ky., Md., Mass., Miss., Mont., N. Y., N. Dak., Ohio, Okla., Oreg., S. Dak., Tenn., Vt., Va.

Six States ²⁵ 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; and only Texas 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 (see footnote 20) 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 ²⁸ give the wife control over her earnings, even as part of the communal estate.

In the 40 States ²⁹ and the District of Columbia where the common-law 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.

²⁵ Ala., Fla., Ind., N. C., Pa., Tex.

²⁶ Mass., Mich., N. C.

²⁷ Calif., Fla., Nev., Pa., Tex.

²⁸ Idaho, Nev.

²⁹ 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.

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.

PART VIII

WOMEN'S EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING

EDUCATION COMPLETED BY WOMEN

Of the women in the population 25 years of age and over, half had completed more and half had completed less than 9.6 years in school, according to Bureau of the Census reports for 1950. Over 40 percent of these women had attended high school, 13 percent had had some college education, and 5 percent had completed 4 years of college or more. Women were about half of all persons who had gone to college, and 43 percent of those with 4 years of college or more.

Among men in the population, the median of years of education was a little below women's, and a somewhat larger proportion of men than of women had no high-school education. However, slightly larger proportions of men than of women had attended college, and had completed 4 years of college. Table 31 shows further details.

TABLE 31.—YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED BY WOMEN AND MEN IN THE POPULATION 25 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY COLOR, 1950 AND 1940

School attainment	Percent distribution of population 25 years of age and over					
	Women			Men		
	Total	White	Nonwhite	Total	White	Nonwhite
1950						
Total.....	100	100	100	100	100	100
No high school.....	45	43	67	49	47	71
1 to 3 years of high school.....	18	18	14	17	17	12
Completed high school or more.....	35	37	15	32	34	11
High school only.....	23	24	8	18	19	7
Attended college.....	13	13	6	14	15	5
4 years or more of college.....	5	5	2	7	7	2
No report.....	2	2	4	2	2	6
Median years of school completed.....	9.6	10.0	7.4	9.0	9.3	6.5
1940						
Total.....	100	100	100	100	100	100
No high school.....	57	55	80	62	60	84
1 to 3 years of high school.....	16	16	10	14	16	7
Completed high school or more.....	26	28	8	22	24	7
High school only.....	16	17	5	12	13	4
Attended college.....	10	10	3	10	11	3
4 years or more of college.....	4	4	1	5	6	1
No report.....	1	1	2	2	2	2
Median years of school completed.....	8.7	8.8	6.1	8.6	8.7	5.4

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Decennial, 1950.

The number of women who had some college education increased by almost 2 million from 1940 to 1950, and the number who had completed 4 years of college increased by well over $\frac{1}{4}$ million. (See table 32.) Though in this period the woman population had increased, the increase in education was not due entirely to this. The proportion of women in the population who had 4 years of college increased slightly from 1940 to 1950. (See table 31.) The proportion of women who had 4 years of high school or more increased notably from 1940 to 1950, being 26 percent in 1940 and 35 percent in 1950. Nonwhites constituted about 9 percent of the woman population, and were 4 percent of the women with college education in 1950, and about 3 percent of those with 4 years' high school (but no college). Among nonwhite women, the proportion who had 4 years of college increased from 1 percent in 1940 to 2 percent in 1950; the proportion with 4 years of high school increased from 5 percent in 1940 to 8 percent in 1950.

TABLE 32.—INCREASE FROM 1940 TO 1950 IN NUMBERS OF WOMEN AND MEN 25 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER IN POPULATION AND WITH COLLEGE EDUCATION, BY COLOR

College attendance	Number of persons 25 years of age and over		Percent increase, 1940 to 1950
	1940	1950	
WOMEN			
<i>Population:</i>			
Total.....	37,312,749	44,636,000	20
White.....	33,885,551	40,634,000	20
Nonwhite.....	3,427,198	4,002,000	17
<i>Attended college:</i>			
Total.....	3,637,306	5,620,000	55
White.....	3,523,357	5,370,000	52
Nonwhite.....	113,949	250,000	119
<i>Completed 4 years or more of college:</i>			
Total.....	1,386,103	2,258,000	63
White.....	1,344,490	2,176,000	62
Nonwhite.....	41,613	82,000	97
MEN			
<i>Population:</i>			
Total.....	37,463,087	43,039,000	15
White.....	34,113,972	39,132,000	15
Nonwhite.....	3,349,115	3,907,000	17
<i>Attended college:</i>			
Total.....	3,845,209	5,921,000	54
White.....	3,745,109	5,738,000	53
Nonwhite.....	100,100	183,000	83
<i>Completed 4 years or more of college:</i>			
Total.....	2,021,228	2,968,000	47
White.....	1,975,295	2,886,000	46
Nonwhite.....	45,933	82,000	79

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Decennial Census reports for 1950.

SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY EMPLOYED WOMEN

Among employed persons 18 to 64, women have a median of 11.7 years of schooling, men 10.2 years. The proportions with 4 years of high school or more education were greater for women than men among clerical and sales, professional, and crafts workers, according to a special Census Bureau study in 1948. Larger proportions of men than women had at least 4 years of high school among service and farm workers, operatives, and proprietors. The summary following shows details. The census data further show that among professional workers, most of whom had at least a high-school education, a slightly larger proportion of women than of men had entered college, but a considerably larger proportion of men than of women had 4 years of college or more.

EDUCATION OF EMPLOYED WOMEN AND MEN 18 TO 64 YEARS OLD
IN MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUPS, 1948

Occupation group	Percent with 4 years of high school or more	
	Women	Men
All occupations.....	48	37
Professional, semiprofessional workers.....	95	90
Clerical, sales, kindred workers.....	75	66
Proprietors, managers, officials (except farm).....	53	54
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers.....	36	30
Operatives, kindred workers.....	22	24
Service workers.....	22	26
Farmers, farm managers.....	18	20
Farm laborers and foremen.....	11	16
Laborers (except farm).....	-----	14

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Series P-50, No. 14, May 23, 1949.

ENROLLMENT IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

The foregoing discussion refers to schooling completed by adults in the population at a given time. In the younger group—5 to 24 years—about 60 percent of the women and girls are enrolled in schools and colleges, according to census reports. This includes regular schools only, and does not include kindergartens nor “special” schools outside the regular system (such as trade schools and business colleges), nor correspondence courses, nor training on the job. As the following summary shows, the proportion of girls and young women enrolled in schools has been somewhat higher in recent years (1948-51) than before the war. The proportion in schools is somewhat higher among the male than the female population, and the difference is somewhat greater in postwar years than in 1940, perhaps owing to a considerable extent to the veterans’ training program.

SCHOOL ENROLLMENT OF POPULATION AGED 5 TO 24

Year	Women and girls enrolled in schools			Percent of male population aged 5 to 24 in schools
	Number	Percent of female population aged 5 to 24	Percent of all enrollees	
1940.....	13, 144, 514	57	49	59
1946.....	12, 983, 000	58	48	65
1947.....	13, 070, 000	57	48	64
1948.....	13, 352, 000	58	48	65
1949.....	13, 705, 000	59	48	66
1950.....	14, 311, 000	61	48	67
1951.....	14, 632, 000	62	48	70

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Series P-20: No. 34, July 26, 1951, and No. 37, Feb. 18, 1952.

TYPES OF SCHOOLS IN WHICH STUDENTS ENROLLED

It is not surprising that, as the following summary shows, by far the largest proportion of the students are in elementary schools (which include kindergartens).

DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS BY TYPE OF SCHOOL

(Estimates for 1950-51)

Type of school	Girls and women		Boys and men	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
All schools.....	15, 365, 500	100	16, 962, 500	100
Kindergartens and elementary schools.....	11, 457, 000	75	12, 229, 000	73
Secondary schools.....	3, 117, 000	20	3, 025, 000	17
Institutions of higher learning....	791, 500	5	1, 708, 500	10

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

Girls and young women constitute about half the elementary and high-school students, and slightly over half of the high-school graduates. In the colleges, on the other hand, young men predominate. Table 33 shows that in recent years, though more women than in 1945-46 have attended college and been graduated, women have constituted a much smaller proportion, both of the college students and of graduates than in 1945-46. This was to be expected, because veterans were given broad educational opportunity and assistance, and the numbers of men attending college and graduated from college increased enormously during the postwar period. Estimates for 1950-51 indicate that women are somewhat less than a third of the college students, and a still smaller proportion of the graduates.

TABLE 33.—STUDENTS ENROLLED IN AND GRADUATES OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS, VARIOUS YEARS ¹

Type of school and school year	Enrollments			Graduates		
	Number		Per- cent females are of total	Number		Per- cent females are of total
	Total	Girls and women		Total	Girls and women	
Kindergarten and elementary schools:						
1945-46.....	20,051,408	9,755,270	48.7	(?)	(?)	(?)
1947-48.....	20,828,958	10,118,991	48.6	(?)	(?)	(?)
1949-50.....	² 22,760,000	³ 11,000,000	48.3	(?)	(?)	(?)
1950-51.....	² 23,686,000	³ 11,457,000	48.4	(?)	(?)	(?)
Secondary schools:						
1945-46.....	6,237,133	3,320,028	53.2	1,080,033	613,107	56.8
1947-48.....	6,305,168	3,240,889	51.4	1,189,909	627,046	52.7
1949-50.....	³ 6,240,000	³ 3,165,000	50.7	³ 1,200,000	³ 633,000	52.8
1950-51.....	³ 6,142,000	³ 3,117,000	50.7	³ 1,181,000	³ 622,000	52.7
Institutions of higher education:						
1945-46.....	1,676,851	749,189	44.7	136,174	77,510	56.9
1947-48.....	2,616,262	779,923	29.8	271,019	95,563	35.3
1949-50.....	2,659,021	805,953	30.3	432,058	103,217	23.9
1950-51.....	³ 2,500,000	³ 791,500	31.7	³ 384,352	³ 105,009	27.3

¹ Includes only regular session students in full-time day schools.

² Not reported because of differences in elementary school organization.

³ Estimated figures, unpublished when this Handbook went to press.

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

WOMEN COMPLETING COLLEGE AND EARNING DEGREES

More than 100,000 women were graduated from institutions of higher education in 1951, according to figures of the U. S. Office of Education. Women graduated from college in a given year constitute from a tenth to an eighth of the number attending; the proportion has increased slightly in recent years, as table 34 shows. A smaller proportion of men than of women attending college graduated in 1945-46. The situation was reversed in more recent years, when men taking advantage of the educational aids to veterans were reaching the period of graduation. The 1951 men graduates, numbering over 279,000, were a larger proportion of men students than were women graduates among the women students.

TABLE 34.—RATIO OF COLLEGE GRADUATES TO COLLEGE ENROLLEES, BY SEX

Year	Women			Men		
	Number of enrollees	Graduates		Number of enrollees	Graduates	
		Number	Percent of enrollees		Number	Percent of enrollees
1945-46.....	749,189	77,510	10	927,662	58,664	6
1947-48.....	779,923	95,563	12	1,836,339	175,456	10
1949-50.....	805,953	103,217	13	1,853,068	328,841	18
1950-51 ¹	791,500	105,009	13	1,708,500	279,343	16

¹ Estimated figures, unpublished when this Handbook went to press.

Source: U. S. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. Statistical Circular No. 263, November 1949; and No. 326, August 1951.

The number of degrees (other than honorary) conferred on women in the 1949-50 term had increased by more than a third from those in 1939-40, according to figures of the U. S. Office of Education. The increase in higher degrees was much greater—two-thirds for the master's or second professional, and one-half for the doctor's. Women received about a fourth of the bachelor's or first professional degrees, a somewhat larger proportion of the master's degrees, and about a tenth of the doctor's degrees in 1949-50.

Though the number of degrees conferred on women has increased markedly, the increases for men were very much greater than for women in every type of degree. Much of this probably is due to the veterans' educational opportunities already mentioned. There also have been new types of scholarships, as for example, in the post-graduate field under the Fulbright plan, and it is well known that men much more frequently than women receive such educational grants.

TABLE 35.—COLLEGE AND PROFESSIONAL DEGREES EARNED BY WOMEN AND MEN

Degree	1939-40				1949-50			
	Total number	Women			Total number	Women		
		Number	Percent of total	Percent distribution		Number	Percent of total	Percent distribution
All degrees.....	216,521	87,606	40	100	496,874	120,823	24	100
Bachelor's and first professional.....	186,500	76,954	41	88	432,058	103,217	24	85
Master's and second professional.....	26,731	10,223	38	12	58,133	16,963	29	14
Doctor's.....	3,290	429	13	(¹)	6,633	643	10	1

¹ Less than 1 percent.

Source: U. S. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. Statistical Circular No. 326, August 1951.

WOMEN TAKING FEDERALLY AIDED VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Over 1½ million women and girls were enrolled in federally aided vocational courses in 1950-51, according to provisional figures of the Office of Education, as shown in table 36. This does not include persons in agricultural courses, for which data on women are not available.

The vocational training includes education in trade and industrial, home economics, and distributive occupations, as well as agricultural. It is designed to meet the needs of persons 14 or over, either those who have left school and wish to prepare for a trade, or those who are employed and desire to extend their skill and knowledge in their work. It is based in the first instance on the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 (39 Stat. 929), with later acts and modifications of the program as needed, especially by the Vocational Education Act of 1946, also known as the George-Barden Act (60 Stat. 775).

Current needs for increased national production emphasize the great importance of this training program. Its importance to the Nation's girls and women scarcely can be overestimated, since for the most part they do not benefit from publicly supported training programs open to veterans or those given to men and boys in the military services.

Instruction in trades and industries was taken in 1950-51 by more than 75,600 women and girls, who were a tenth of all persons in such courses, according to the provisional figures cited. The list given below shows that the subjects for which women and girls were enrolled in notable numbers were of a wide variety, though they also were concentrated to a considerable extent in certain industrial groups. Over a third of these women and girls were in courses for garment and textile trades, the largest groups taking dressmaking (including alterations) and power-sewing-machine operation. Another third were training in household and personal services, nearly two-thirds of these being in nursing classes and another considerable group in cosmetology. In addition to the instruction in trades and industries under this program a smaller number of women were enrolled in part-time general continuation classes, which may cover any subjects related to the civic or vocational needs of teen-age workers.

WOMEN ENROLLED IN TRADES AND INDUSTRIES CLASSES

Federally aided classes in trades and industries in which women were enrolled as classified by U. S. Office of Education, year ending June 30, 1951¹

	Enrollment of women			Enrollment of women	
	Total	All-day		Total	All-day
Total	75,675	28,961	Mechanical service and hand trades	1,551	165
Garment and textile trades	27,347	12,929	Jewelry and watchmaking.....	205	32
Dressmaking.....	12,645	8,791	Shoemaking and repair.....	141	61
Power-sewing-machine operation.....	5,936	2,739	Dental mechanics.....	132	58
Men's tailoring.....	1,174	130	Auto mechanics.....	53	6
Millinery.....	1,041	452	Pattern-making.....	14	0
Textiles.....	922	36	Industrial maintenance.....	2	0
Laundering, cleaning, dyeing, and pressing.....	264	73	Mechanical service and hand trades, other.....	1,004	9
Upholstering.....	221	67	Electrical trades	1,276	640
Fur cutting and making.....	64	2	Radio.....	559	417
Garment and textile trades, other.....	5,080	639	Telegraphy and telephony.....	341	114
Domestic and personal service trades	26,559	9,639	Electric wiring.....	213	87
Nursing.....	16,868	3,759	Air-conditioning and refrigeration.....	15	15
Cosmetology.....	6,185	4,771	Electric motors.....	2	0
Household service and management.....	946	423	Electrical trades, other.....	146	7
Hotel service and management.....	526	26	Metal trades	1,238	564
Interior decoration.....	495	270	Machine shop.....	692	296
Janitor service.....	426	0	Welding and frame cutting.....	453	268
Barbering.....	43	33	Sheet metal.....	74	0
Domestic and personal service trades, other.....	1,070	357	Foundry.....	6	0
Food trades	4,731	1,979	Iron and steel millwork.....	1	0
Food service.....	1,848	875	Metal trades, other.....	12	0
Cooking.....	1,042	532	Building and construction trades	196	24
Baking.....	614	106	Carpentry and woodworking.....	137	5
Meat cutting.....	40	0	Painting and decorating.....	28	6
Food trades, other.....	1,287	466	Plumbing and pipe fitting.....	17	12
Aircraft manufacturing and maintenance trades	3,163	995	Structural and ornamental metal work.....	3	0
Assembly and riveting.....	1,091	171	Building and construction trades, other.....	11	1
Sheet metal.....	786	332	Shipbuilding trades	75	41
Mechanics (other than engines).....	177	68	Sheet metal.....	42	41
Electricity and radio.....	112	25	Electricity.....	32	0
Welding.....	28	0	Welding and cutting.....	1	0
Engine and propeller mechanics.....	19	3	Miscellaneous trades	6,781	547
Instruments.....	17	0	Public service.....	2,211	0
Aircraft manufacturing and maintenance trades, other.....	933	396	Foremanship.....	1,368	0
Printing and publishing trades	2,370	1,416	Drafting.....	474	119
Commercial art.....	1,621	1,121	Paper making.....	129	0
Photography.....	459	179	Furniture making.....	33	0
Printing.....	203	77	Petroleum processing.....	25	0
Bookbinding.....	73	39	Gardening and landscaping.....	23	19
Printing and publishing trades, other.....	14	0	Mining.....	9	0
			Miscellaneous trades, other.....	2,509	409
			Unclassified	388	22

¹ Provisional figures as of April 23, 1952. Excludes enrollments in general continuation classes.

The great majority of the women and girls benefiting from federally aided vocational training were in home economics classes, a field for which the demand runs far above the supply of workers. (See table 36.) Teaching of home economics is limited by law to 20 percent of the funds allotted to a State for vocational purposes. The second largest group of women and girls (a tenth of the total, excluding agriculture) took courses for distributive occupations, and they consti-

tuted half the persons in these classes, a branch of work added by an act of 1946. These courses deal with buying and selling trades, merchandising activities in general.

In agricultural classes women constituted only a very small proportion, probably about 1 to 2 percent, of some 771,000 persons estimated to be enrolled in 1950-51. The numbers of women are not recorded separately. Proportions of women may run slightly higher in some of the short-unit intensive courses, especially those on certain subjects, for example, horticulture or poultry raising.

Both in home economics and in trades and industries courses, over half the women and girls enrolled were in part-time and evening classes. Those taking work in distributive occupations and the very small proportion in the general continuation classes were all on the part-time or evening basis. The law provides that at least a third of the funds allotted a State must be used for part-time classes, which may be held by day or may include evening classes for workers 16 or over. Instruction must be supplementary to employment, broadly construed so that it may include some instruction in such aspects, for example, as training in safety, socio-economic problems, or labor law, as related to the workers' occupations. Some courses are organized especially to provide alternate periods of work and class attendance. If used in connection with industrial-plant training these must be under public supervision to assure that actual vocational training is being given; those who take them are referred to as "student-learners" to distinguish them from the learners under plant supervision, whose minimum wage and learning time are specified by the U. S. Department of Labor.

TABLE 36.—WOMEN AND GIRLS IN FEDERALLY AIDED VOCATIONAL TRAINING, 1950-51 ¹

Type of program	All women and girls			Women and girls in part-time and evening classes	
	Number	Percent of all students	Percent distribution	Number	Percent of all women
Three programs.....	1,681,130	65	100	970,668	58
Home economics.....	1,393,287	96	83	711,786	51
Distributive.....	171,623	50	10	171,623	100
Trade and industrial:					
Trades and industries.....	75,675	11	5	46,714	62
General continuation.....	40,545	51	2	40,545	100

¹ Provisional figures. Agricultural training not included, as data not available by sex.

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

The woman and girl students in federally aided vocational programs had increased considerably in number from the late war and immediate postwar period to 1950-51, as may be seen from table 37. That the numbers in trades and industries fell off after the war (from 1945-46 to 1947-48) is understandable, though students in distributive occupations and home economics continued to increase. By 1950-51 the number of women and girls enrolled in all these branches of training was considerably larger than at the end of the war.

TABLE 37.—WOMEN AND GIRLS IN FEDERALLY AIDED VOCATIONAL PROGRAMS, VARIOUS YEARS ¹

Year	Home economics	Distributive	Trade and industrial		Total of three programs
			Trades and industries	Continuation classes	
1945-46	880,086	101,740	70,632	44,896	1,097,354
1947-48	1,085,892	137,034	65,156	37,496	1,325,578
1949-50	1,360,030	172,129	74,406	42,349	1,648,914
1950-51 ²	1,393,287	171,623	75,675	40,545	1,681,130

¹ Agricultural training not included, as data not available by sex.

² Provisional figures.

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

WOMEN SERVED BY VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION PROGRAMS

The number of women receiving service from Federal and State vocational rehabilitation agencies in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1951, was 20,762, or 31.4 percent of the total number of persons rehabilitated under these agencies, according to the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation in the Federal Security Agency.

PART IX

AMERICAN WOMEN

A selected bibliography of basic sources of current and historic interest

The following brief bibliography lists, under subject heading, some 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 in 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 (though an occasional foreign reference may be included if published recently and analyzing women's situation in a manner having general application). A number of the books listed (including both early and some later Women's Bureau bulletins) are available only in libraries. A few works, designated with an asterisk (*), seem of especially comprehensive or timely importance.

WOMEN AS CITIZENS

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

**May 1947:*

Allen, Florence E. Participation of Women in Government.

Beard, Mary R. Woman's Role in Society.

Fisher, Marguerite J. Women in Political Parties.

Stone, Kathryn H. Women as Citizens.

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

November 1914: Women in Public Life.

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

Beard, Mary R.:

America Through Women's Eyes. New York, N. Y., Macmillan, 1933.

A collection of documents and quotations from women themselves in various periods of American history.

Woman as Force in History: A Study in Traditions and Realities. New York, N. Y., Macmillan, 1946.

Woman's Work in Municipalities. New York, N. Y., Appleton, 1915.

Blackwell, Alice Stone. Lucy Stone, Pioneer of Women's Rights. New York, N. Y., Little, Brown and Co., 1930.

- Breckinridge, Sophonisba P. *Women in the Twentieth Century: A Study of Their Political, Social, and Economic Activities*. New York and London, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. *Part III, Women and Government*.
- Catt, Carrie Chapman, with collaboration of Shuler, Nettie R. *Woman Suffrage and Politics*. New York, N. Y., Scribner's, 1923.
- History of Woman Suffrage (Vols. I to VI): Vol. I (1848-61) was published in 1881. This and Vols. II and III were written by Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony, with collaboration of Matilda Joslyn Gage, later joined by Mrs. Stanton's daughter Harriot. Vol. IV was prepared by Mrs. Ida Husted Harper working with Susan B. Anthony. Vols. V and VI were written by Mrs. Harper. First 4 vols. published by Fowler and Wells, New York, N. Y., last 2 by National American Suffrage Assn., New York, N. Y.
- Irwin, Inez H. *Angels and Amazons: A Hundred Years of American Women*. New York, N. Y., Doubleday, Doran, 1933.
- Lutz, Alma. *Created Equal: A Biography of Elizabeth Cady Stanton, 1815-1902*. New York, N. Y., John Day Co., 1940. This deals with the early history of the woman suffrage movement, and is a fascinating human story of the pioneer women leaders of the mid- and late-nineteenth century.
- Paxton, Annabel. *Women in Congress*. Richmond, Va., The Dietz Press, Inc., 1945.
- Peck, Mary Gray. *Carrie Chapman Catt*. New York, N. Y., H. H. Wilson Co., 1944. This is written in several sections, which deal with early life and development of leadership, work for women's international organizations (earlier and later periods), the Federal Amendment campaign, and later work for peace and disarmament.
- Shaw, Dr. Anna Howard, with collaboration of Jordan, Elizabeth. *The Story of a Pioneer*. New York, N. Y., Harper and Bros., 1915. Written in the vigorous and scintillating style of Dr. Shaw's speech, this is a fitting companion volume to Elizabeth Cady Stanton's biography.
- Thurston, Lucy M. *Mistress Brent: A Story of Lord Baltimore's Colony in 1638*. 1901. The earliest colonial advocate of women's right to vote. (This book will be found in few libraries.)
- Whitney, Janet. *Abigail Adams*. Boston, Mass., Little, Brown and Co., 1947.
- Women's Bureau Publications:*
- 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.
- 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. (Documented; separates; mimeograph.)
- Young, Louise M. *Understanding Politics: A Practical Guide for Women*. New York, N. Y., Pellegrini & Cudahy, 1950.

WOMEN AS WORKERS

EMPLOYMENT AND OCCUPATIONS

Abbott, Edith:

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

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

Anderson, H. Dewey, and Davidson, Percy E. Occupational Trends in the United States. Stanford University, Calif., Stanford University Press, 1940. Annals of the American Academy (cited also under Women as Citizens).

May 1947:

Kyrk, Hazel. Who Works and Why.

Miller, Frieda S. Women in the Labor Force.

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

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

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

Dexter, Elisabeth W. Colonial Women of Affairs. New York, N. Y., Houghton, Mifflin, 1924.

Durand, John D. The Labor Force in the United States, 1890-1960. New York, N. Y., Social Science Research Council, 1948. *See especially* chs. 2, 3, and 5. International Labor Office. The War and Women's Employment. Part II, United States. *See especially* chs. I, II, IV. Montreal, the Office, 1946.

Jaffe, A. J., and Stewart, Charles D. Manpower Resources and Utilization: Principles of Working Force Analysis. New York, N. Y., John Wiley & Sons, 1951.

Josephson, Hannah. The Golden Threads: New England's Mill Girls and Magnates. New York, N. Y., Duell, Sloan and Pearce, 1949. The women who worked in the textile mills of Lowell, Mass., 1822 to 1850.

*Josselyn, Irene M., M. D., and Goldman, Ruth Schley. Should Mothers Work? *In* the Social Service Review, March 1949. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill.

Labor Yearbook. Vol I. Thirty-ninth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor. 1951.

Larcom, Lucy (1824-93). A New England Girlhood: Outline from Memory. New York, N. Y., Houghton, Mifflin. Reprint. 1924. A vivid picture of the young woman cotton-mill worker in New England.

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

Monthly Labor Review, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics:

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

Robinson, Mary V. Woman Workers in Two Wars. October 1943.

- Spruill, Julia Cherry. *Women's Life and Work in the Southern Colonies*. Chapel Hill, N. C., University of North Carolina Press, 1938.
- Tryon, Rolla. *Household Manufactures in the United States, 1640-1860: A Study in Industrial History*. Chicago, Ill., University of Chicago Press, 1917.
- Van Kleeck, Mary. *Women in Industry*. In *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*, Vol. 15. New York, N. Y., Macmillan, 1935.

Women's Bureau Bulletins:

- Changes in Women's Employment During the War. Sp. Bull. 20. 1944.
- Community Household Employment Programs. Bull. 221. 1948.
- The Economic Status of University Women in the U. S. A. Bull. 170. 1939.
- Employment of Women in the Early Postwar Period. Bull. 211. 1946.
- The Occupational Progress of Women, 1910-30. Bull. 104. 1933.
- Outlook for Women:
- Home Economics Occupations. Bull. 234. Nos. 1-2. 1950, 1952.
- Occupations in the Medical and Other Health Services. Bull. 203. Nos. 1-12. 1945, 1946.
- Police Work. Bull. 231. 1949.
- Science. Bull. 223. Nos. 1-8. 1948, 1949.
- Social Work Occupations. Bull. 235. Nos. 1-8. 1950-51.
- Part-Time Jobs for Women. Bull. 238. 1951.
- The Woman Wage Earner. Bull. 172. 1939. *Part II, Women's Place in Industry*.
- Women in Higher-Level Positions. Bull. 236. 1950.
- Women in the Economy of the United States. Bull. 155. 1937. *Part I, Ch. 1. The Trend in the Occupations of Women*.
- Women in the Federal Service. Bull. 230. Part I, Trends in Employment, 1923-47. 1949. Part II, Occupational Information. 1950.
- Women's Jobs, Advance and Growth. Bull. 232. 1949.
- *Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades (1870-1940). Bull. 218. 1947.

WAGES AND EQUAL PAY

- Annals of the American Academy (cited also under Women as Citizens). *May 1947*: Brady, Dorothy S. Equal Pay for Women Workers.
- International Labor Office:
- The War and Women's Employment. Part II, United States. *Wages in Wartime*, in Ch. II, Women in Industry. Montreal, the Office, 1946.
- Equal Remuneration for Men and Women Workers for Work of Equal Value. Thirty-fourth Session of International Labor Conference. Geneva. Reports VII-1 (1950) and VII-2 (1951).
- Monthly Labor Review, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics:
- Effects of War Casualties on Economic Responsibilities of Women. February 1946.
- Legislative Changes in State Minimum-Wage Laws: 1950-51. December 1951.
- Progress of State Minimum-Wage Legislation:
- 1949-50. October 1950.
- 1948-49. August 1949.
- 1947-48. September 1948.
1946. June 1947.
- 1943-45. May 1946.
- Recent Occupational Trends. August 1947.

U. S. Congress. Hearings on Bills providing equal pay, before Subcommittees of the Committees on Education and Labor, respectively, of the Senate and the House of Representatives. (*Testimony* of Frieda S. Miller; *exhibits* prepared in the Women's Bureau; and *testimony* of various representatives of labor unions and women's organizations.)

81st Congress. On H. R. 1584 and H. R. 2438. May 17, 18, 19, 1950.

80th Congress. On H. R. 4273 and H. R. 4408. Feb. 9, 10, 11, 13, 1948.

79th Congress. On S. 1178. Oct. 29, 30, 31, 1945.

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

Women's Bureau Bulletins:

Case Studies in Equal Pay for Women. 1951.

Earnings of Women in Selected Manufacturing Industries, 1946. Bull. 219. 1948.

Equal Pay for Women. Leaflet 2 Revised. 1952.

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

State Minimum-Wage Laws and Orders, 1942. Bull. 191. 1942. Supplements: (1) July 1, 1942-July 1, 1950. Bull. 227 Revised. 1950. (2) July 1, 1950 to January 1, 1952. Mimeo. (*See also* Monthly Labor Review articles cited.)

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

Working Women's Budgets in 13 States. Bull. 226 Revised. 1951. Also see mimeographed supplements.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR FAMILY SUPPORT

Women's Bureau Bulletins:

The Share of Wage-Earning Women in Family Support. Bull. 30. 1923. A summary of 22 studies.

Women Workers and Their Dependents. Bull. 239. 1951. A summary of findings in over 200 studies.

Women Workers in Ten War Production Areas. Bull. 209. 1946.

Women Workers in Their Family Environment. Bull. 183. 1941.

HEALTH, PHYSICAL WELFARE, CONDITIONS OF WORK

Baetjer, Dr. Anna M. Women in Industry: Their Health and Efficiency. Philadelphia and London, W. B. Saunders Co., 1946.

Brandeis, Elizabeth. Labor Legislation. *Vol. IV of History of Labor in the United States 1896-1932.* New York, N. Y., Macmillan, 1935.

Hamilton, Dr. Alice:

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

Women Workers and Industrial Poisons. Washington. 1926.

Industrial Poisons in the United States. New York, N. Y., Macmillan, 1925.

International Labor Office:

Facilities for Women Workers with Home Responsibilities. *In International Labor Review*, March 1951.

The War and Women's Employment. Part II, United States. *Conditions of Work*, in Ch. II, Women in Industry. Montreal, the Office, 1946.

- McElroy, Frank S., and Moros, Alexander. *Illness Absenteeism in Manufacturing Plants, 1947.* In *Monthly Labor Review*, September 1948. A study of extent and causes of absence through a year. Includes about 9,500 women.
- Webb, Beatrice (Mrs. Sidney). (Work cited under Wages.)
- Woman and Child Wage Earners in the United States. Report of the comprehensive pioneer national investigation of this subject which was ordered by Act of Congress in 1907 to be conducted by the Secretary of Commerce and Labor. Published in 19 volumes.

Women's Bureau Bulletins:

- Effective Industrial Use of Women. Sp. Bull. 1. 1940. A brief summary of current knowledge as to the work women do best, effective hour and wage standards, industrial poisons and other hazards. See also other bulletins in the wartime series, especially Nos. 2 to 7.
- Industrial Injuries to Women:
- (1) Series, presenting and interpreting State data (1920 to 1934). Bulls. 81, 102, 129, 160.
 - (2) Special Studies. Bulls. 60 (1927), 151 (1938), 212 (1945).
- The Industrial Nurse and the Woman Worker. Sp. Bull. 19. 1944. (Reprinted with minor revisions as Bull. 228. 1949.)
- Maternity Protection: Bibliography. 1951.
- Maternity Protection of Employed Women. Bull. 240. 1952.
- Occupational Diseases of Women. Series, presenting and interpreting State data (1920 to 1938). Bulls. 114, 147, 181.
- Proceedings of the Women's Industrial Conference. Bull. 33. 1923. Addresses by Florence Kelley, Mrs. Raymond Robins, Maud Swartz, Mary McDowell, and others.
- Recommended Standards for Employment of Women. Leaflet. 1950. Latest revision of the Bureau's earliest advices on standards, first published in 1918.
- State Labor Laws for Women, December 1944. Bull. 202. Part I, Hour Laws; Part II, Plant Facilities Laws; Part III, Regulatory, Prohibitory and Maternity Laws; Part IV, Industrial Home-Work Laws; Part V Explanation and Appraisal (of Wartime Modifications). 1945 and 1946. Various earlier bulletins deal with historic developments. See also mimeographed annual summaries of State Legislation of Special Interest to Women Workers, 1945-1951; and Digest of State Labor Laws for Women, 1948-1951 (separates for individual States). (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, night work, piecework, etc.)
- Women's Wartime Hours of Work: The Effect on Their Factory Performance and Home Life. Bull. 208. 1947. A study of 13 war-production plants.

ORGANIZATION INTO UNIONS

- Abbott, Edith. *Women in Industry* (cited under Employment and Occupations). Gives interesting incidents of early activities of women in unions.
- Anderson, Mary. *Woman at Work.* Minneapolis, Minn., University of Minnesota Press, 1951. Recollections of a woman who pioneered in organizing women in 20th century.
- Annals of the American Academy (cited also under Women as Citizens).
May 1947: Dickason, Gladys. *Women in Labor Unions.*
September 1904: Yudelson, Sophie. *Women's Place in Industry and Labor Organizations.*

- Boone, Gladys. *The Women's Trade Union League in Great Britain and the United States of America.* New York, N. Y., Columbia University Press, 1942.
- Dreier, Mary E. *Margaret Dreier Robins, Her Life, Letters, and Work.* Island Press Cooperative, N. Y., 1950. Valuable records of movement to organize women in 20th century.
- Glück, Elsie. *Women in Industry: Problems of Organization.* *In* *Encyclopaedia of Social Science*, Vol. 15. New York, N. Y., Macmillan, 1935.
- Henry, Alice:
 The Trade Union Women. New York and London, Appleton, 1915.
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- *International Labor Office. *The War and Women's Employment.* Part II, United States. Ch. III, *Women in Trade Unions.* Montreal, the Office, 1946.
- Women's Bureau Bulletin:*
 The Woman Wage Earner. Bull. 172. 1939. Part IV, *Women's Participation in Labor Organizations.*

WOMEN AS HOMEMAKERS

Annals of the American Academy (cited also under *Women as Citizens*):

May 1947:

- Daggett, Harriet S. *Reflections on the Law of the Family.*
 Gruenberg, Sidonie Matsner. *Changing Conceptions of the Family.*
 Reid, Margaret G. *The Economic Contribution of Homemakers.*

March 1932:

- Boothe, Viva. *Gainfully Employed Women in the Family.*
 Bonde, Ruth L. *Management in Daily Living.* New York, N. Y., Macmillan, 1944.
 Brown, Harriet Connor. *Grandmother Brown's Hundred Years (1827-1927).* New York, N. Y., Little, Brown and Co., 1929.
 Gross, Irma Hannah, and Crandall, E. W. *Home Management in Theory and Practice.* New York, N. Y., Crofts & Co., 1947.

Women's Bureau Bulletin:

- The Employed Woman Homemaker.* Bull. 148. 1936.
- Consult especially* the Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture, for information on various phases of home economics such as nutrition, meal planning and food budgets, textiles and clothing, housing and household equipment.
- Consult* the Women's Bureau on subjects relating to household employment and conditions of work for household employees.
- See also* certain items listed elsewhere:
 *Groves (work cited under *General*).
Women in the Economy of the United States (cited under *Wages*). Section on *Women as Homemakers.*
 Women's Bureau report on Conference, 1948—*The American Woman, Her Changing Role—Worker, Homemaker, Citizen* (cited under *General*).
 Women's Bureau bulletins on responsibility of women for the support of others (cited under *Wages*).

GENERAL

- Annals of the American Academy (cited also under Women as Citizens).
May 1947: Women's Opportunities and Responsibilities. Ed. by Louise M. Young. See article by Taeuber, Irene B., and Eldridge, Hope T. Some Demographic Aspects of the Changing Role of Women.
May 1929: Women in the Modern World. Ed. by Viva B. Boothe.
- American Association of University Women:
 Beard, Mary R. A Changing Political Economy as It Affects Women. Washington, D. C., the Association, 1934. A study outline, with questions for investigation and discussion and an extensive bibliography.
 Summaries of Studies on the Economic Status of Women. Women's Bureau Bull. 134. 1935. Lists studies up to 1935 that deal with college women, business and professional women, women in industry, women in all occupations.
- American Women: The Standard Biographical Dictionary of Notable Women. Vol. 3, 1939-40. Ed. by Durward Howes. Los Angeles, Calif., American Publications, Inc., 1939.
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- Gilman, Charlotte Perkins. Women and Economics. Boston, Mass., Small, Maynard, 1900. This work still raises challenging questions as to women's status.
- *Groves, Ernest R. The American Woman: The Feminine Side of a Masculine Civilization. New York, N. Y., Emerson Books, Inc., Revised ed. 1944. An important and basic work that considers many aspects of the changing status of women, from colonial times to our modern society, and gives an informed and sympathetic discussion.
- Haslett, Caroline. D.B.E. Problems Have No Sex. London, Hodder and Stoughton, 1949. An analysis of woman's situation in the postwar world.
- Klein, Viola. The Feminine Character. London, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner and Co., Ltd., 1946. A small book presenting a careful exploratory survey of the various aspects of woman's position—historical, psychological, biological, anthropological, sociological.
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PART X
WOMEN'S NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

List as of January 1952

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**

American Women's Voluntary Services, Inc., 500 Park Avenue, New York 22, N. Y. Founded in 1940. Its purpose is to make available to all women of America the opportunity to work actively on a voluntary basis for their country through constructive service to their community, and to instruct and guide these volunteers toward the achievement of this end. Membership: 27,100.

Association of the Junior Leagues of America, Inc., The Waldorf-Astoria Hotel, New York 22, N. Y. Founded in 1901. Its purpose is to foster interest among its members in the social, economic, educational, cultural, and civic conditions of the community, and to make efficient their volunteer service. Membership: 177 Leagues in the United States, Canada, Mexico, and Hawaii, with approximately 57,000 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 803,400 individual members, in addition to State, National, and international organizations affiliated with the General Federation.

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: 100,300 in 800 local and college Leagues organized in 45 States, Hawaii, and Alaska.

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. Its legislative program includes minimum wage, child labor, hours of work, and social security. It is currently concentrating its efforts on improvement of the conditions of migrant workers in agriculture. There are six State branches and individual members in every State of the Union.
- National Council of Catholic Women*, 1312 Massachusetts Avenue N.W., 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 the country demands such expression. Through special committees, it endeavors to stimulate interest in the welfare of all workers. Affiliated with the World Union of Catholic Women's Organizations. Membership: 7,000,000 (approximately) through more than 6,800 National, State, diocesan, and local affiliated groups.
- National Council of Jewish Women, Inc.*, 1 West Forty-seventh Street, New York 36, 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, community welfare; and to help in reconstruction of Jewish communities overseas through providing training in educational and social welfare fields, and sending material aid. Membership: 94,000.
- National Council of Negro Women*, 1318 Vermont Avenue N.W., 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. It is also the recognized Jewish community agency for meeting the religious, welfare, and moral needs of Jewish personnel in the armed forces, and is a constituent agency of the United Service Organizations (USO). The Women's Organizations' Division of the National Jewish Welfare Board coordinates the work of eight National Jewish women's organizations united for services to hospitalized veterans, military personnel in army camps, and chaplains.
- National Woman's Forum, Inc.*, 266 Fulton Avenue, Hempstead, N. Y. Founded in 1944. Under the motto "For a United Community—For a Stronger Democracy," it serves as a clearinghouse of organizations (primarily women's) on the local level, coordinating their activities in common projects, for the betterment of the community and the strengthening of democracy at the grassroots.
- 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 Church Women (Protestant), 156 Fifth Avenue, New York 10, N. Y. Organized in December 1941. It is a General Department of the National Council of the Churches of Christ in the U. S. A. 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 approximately 1,800 active local councils of church women.

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.

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.

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 elevate the standards and promote the interests of business and professional women; to extend opportunities to business and professional women through education along lines of industrial, scientific, and vocational activities. Affiliated with the International Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs. Membership: 160,000 in 2,700 Clubs in United States, Alaska, and Hawaii.

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: 3,500.

National Secretaries' Association, 1005 Grand Avenue, Kansas City 6, Mo. Organized in 1942. Its purpose is to elevate the standards of the secretarial profession. Membership: 11,000 members in 300 chapters.

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: 1,517.

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: 250.

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. It is the only *national* organization of women in banking, with members from national, State, and savings banks, and trust companies. Membership: 1,383.

ENGINEERING

Society of Women Engineers, 4 Washington Square North, New York 3, N. Y. Established in 1950. Its purpose is to contribute to the professional advancement of women engineers; to inform industry and the public of the availability of qualified women for engineering positions; to encourage young women with suitable aptitudes to enter the engineering profession. Membership: 300.

FASHION

The Fashion Group, Inc., 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y. Founded in 1931. It is a noncommercial 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 so that those engaged in the field of fashion may better serve themselves and the public. Membership: 2,321.

FINANCE

Federation of Women Shareholders in American Business, Inc., 247 Lexington Avenue, New York 16, N. Y. Founded in 1947. Its purpose is to educate women on the importance of their vote as stockholders and their responsibilities as employers of management and labor. Also to give women financial education. It stands for equal pay for equal work and for equal opportunity in business.

GEOGRAPHY

The Society of Women Geographers, 1216 Connecticut Avenue NW., Washington 6, D. C. Founded in 1925. Its purpose is to create avenues of contact between traveled women engaged in geographical work and 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, 510 North Dearborn 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: 2,716.

- 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: 2,350.
- American Association of Nurse Anesthetists*, 116 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago 3, 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: 5,750.
- American Dental Assistants Association, Inc.*, 410 First National Bank Building, LaPorte, 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*, 1735 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: Approximately 3,000.
- American Medical Women's Association, Inc.*, 52 Gramercy Park North, New York 10, 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, Inc.*, 2 Park Avenue, New York 16, 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: 173,201.
- American Occupational Therapy Association*, 33 West Forty-second Street, New York 36, N. Y. Founded 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 conduct a national registration examination; to maintain a registry of qualified occupational therapists; to promote research; and to engage in other activities advantageous to the profession and its members. Membership: 4,000.
- 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: 4,800.

American Society of Medical Technologists, Suite 25, Hermann Professional Bldg., Houston 25, 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: 5,500.

American Society of X-Ray Technicians, c/o Genevieve J. Eilert, Executive Secretary, 16 Fourteenth Street, Fond du Lac, Wis. (Not restricted to women, but membership 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. Membership: 4,100.

Association of American Women Dentists, c/o Dr. Cornelia Thompson, President, Brown Building, 101 South Meramec Avenue, Clayton 5, Mo. Founded in 1921. Objectives are to promote good fellowship and cooperation among its members and aid in the advancement of women in dentistry. Membership: Approximately 250.

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 and to promote the most effective use of their services.

National League for Nursing, 2 Park Avenue, New York 16, N. Y. Organized in 1952. Open to nurses and others interested in the development and improvement of nursing education and community nursing services.

HOME ECONOMICS

American Dietetic Association, 620 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago 11, Ill. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.) Founded in 1917. The objective of this Association is to improve the nutrition of human beings, to raise the standards of dietetic service, to protect the status of the profession, and to foster cooperation among members and their associates in allied fields. Membership: 9,500.

American Home Economics Association, 1600 Twentieth Street NW., Washington 9, 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: 19,590 individual members; 19,805 affiliated through college clubs; approximately 1,500 affiliated through homemakers' groups. Three foreign home economics associations are affiliated with American Home Economics Association.

INSURANCE

Women Underwriters, the National Association of Life Underwriters, c/o Elsie Doyle, National Chairman, 1703 Union Central Building, Cincinnati 2, Ohio. 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 the Association's affairs; to stimulate professional interest and growth; to develop cooperative effort and understanding among women of the same profession. Membership: 1,500.

LAW

National Association of Women Lawyers, c/o Mary H. Zimmerman, President, 1700 United Artists Building, Detroit 26, Mich. Founded 1899. 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 personal membership is primarily women.) Founded in 1876. Its objective is to increase the usefulness of books and reading as a working educational force in American life, through improvement and extension of library services easily accessible to all the people. Membership: 20,000.

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, 455 West Twenty-third Street, New York 11, N. Y. (Not restricted to women but membership is primarily women.) Founded in 1898. Its purpose is to bring into working relation musical organizations and individuals associated with musical activity, for the purpose of aiding and encouraging musical education and developing and maintaining high musical standards throughout America and other countries. Membership: 500,000.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

American Women in Radio and Television, Inc., 70 East Forty-fifth Street, New York 17, N. Y. Established in 1951. Its objectives are to provide a medium of exchange of ideas that will help women to become greater commercial assets to their stations, networks, and employers; to encourage greater cooperation among women in radio and television and those in closely allied fields; to increase women's opportunities to be of service to the broadcasting industry as a whole. Membership: 650.

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: 1,000.

TEACHING

See Educational Organizations.

WRITING

American Newspaper Women's Clubs, Inc., 1604 Twentieth 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 the people with whom they deal in their profession. Membership: 186 professional members; 96 associate members.

National League of American Pen Women, Inc., 1300 Seventeenth Street NW., Washington 6, 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: 350.

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: 10,500.

Pieta Club International, 514-520 Persons Building, Macon, Ga. Organized in 1921. Its objectives are to develop friendship as a means of encouraging and promoting international peace and cultural relations; to inculcate the ideal of service as the basis of all worthy enterprises; to encourage high ethical standards among business and professional women; to promote active participation in any movement that will tend to improve the civic, social, industrial, and commercial welfare of the community. Membership: 8,000.

Quota Club International, Inc., 1737 H Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1919. A classified civic service club of women executives. Among its objectives are service to country and community, developing good fellowship and enduring friendship, and emphasizing the worth of useful occupation. It promotes international understanding through club programs and the granting of an international fellowship. Membership: 7,500 in 243 clubs in 4 countries.

Soroptimist International Association, c/o 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: 23,000 in 800 clubs in 18 countries.

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: 8,500 in 250 clubs in 12 countries.

EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

- Adult Education Association of the United States of America*, 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Founded May 14, 1951. Its purpose is to further the concept of education as a process continuing throughout life by affording to educators of adults and to other interested persons opportunities to increase their competence; by encouraging organizations and agencies to develop adult educational services; by providing the balanced development of educational services needed by the adult population in the United States; and by cooperating with adult education agencies internationally. Membership: 4,000.
- 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: 118,000.
- 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: 1,550.
- 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: 6,589,516.
- National Association of College Women*, c/o Mrs. Lottie Gordon, Executive 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: 900.
- National Council of Administrative Women in Education*, c/o Miss Kathryn Steinmetz, 4257 North Tripp Avenue, Chicago 41, Ill. Founded in 1915. 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: 1,000.
- National Education Association of the United States*, 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. (Not restricted to women, but a majority of the members are 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: 465,266 individual personal memberships and 880,156 affiliated through State, territorial, and local groups.

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 strengthen Party organization throughout the country and disseminate educational material on the issues, thus aiding and stimulating participation of women in support of the policies of the Democratic Party.

National Federation of Women's Republican Clubs, 923 Fifteenth Street NW., Washington 5, D. C. Founded in 1938. Objectives are "to foster and encourage loyalty to the Republican Party and to promote its ideals; to facilitate cooperation among the women's Republican clubs of the Nation; to support objectives and policies of the Republican National Committee; to collect, analyze, report upon and disseminate information concerning governmental and political affairs; to cooperate in the election of the Republican Party's nominees; and in general, to promote the principles of freedom, equality and justice on which is founded the government of this country." Approximately 4,000 clubs affiliated with the National Federation, representing a membership of 500,000 women throughout the country.

National Woman's Party, 144 Constitution Avenue NE., Washington 2, 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, 923 Fifteenth Street NW., Washington 5, 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: 800.

PATRIOTIC ORGANIZATIONS

American Legion Auxiliary, 777 North Meridian Street, Indianapolis 7, Ind. Established in 1921. Its purpose is to assist the American Legion in the promotion of Americanism, patriotism, and world peace; and in its program for the benefit of veterans and their families. Membership composed of wives, widows, mothers, daughters, and sisters of veterans of World Wars I and II and the Korean conflict, and women veterans of said hostilities. The veteran, if living, must be a member of the American Legion. Membership: Approximately 1,000,000.

Daughters of the American Revolution, Seventeenth and D Streets NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1890. Objectives of the Society are patriotic, historical, and educational. Membership: 170,760 in 2,699 chapters.

Daughters of Union Veterans of Civil War, 1861-65, 524 South Second Street, Springfield, Ill. 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 in 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., c/o 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.) Membership: 40,000.

Women's Overseas Service League, c/o Mrs. Gertrude Bannister, 264 Wordsworth Street, Ferndale 20, Mich. Established in 1921. Its purpose is to maintain the ties of comradeship created during service overseas in World Wars I and II. Membership: 3,000.

FARM AND RURAL ORGANIZATIONS

Associated Women of the American Farm Bureau Federation, 221 North LaSalle Street, Chicago 1, Ill. Its purpose is to promote, protect, and represent the business, economic, social, educational, and spiritual interests of the farm families of the Nation; to develop agriculture and to provide a means whereby the rural women of the United States may participate in national and international councils of women. Membership: 1,500,000.

Country Women's Council, U. S. A., c/o Mrs. George Apperson, Chairman, Mocksville, N. C. This Council is the U. S. Branch of the Associated Country Women of the World (ACWW). Founded in 1939. Its purpose is to effect closer association between the United States members of The Associated Country Women of the World in order to carry out more efficiently the aim and objectives of the parent organization in furthering friendship and mutual understanding among the rural women of every land and in promoting interest in international relations in every way consistent with the aims of the ACWW. Membership: 4,000,000.

National Home Demonstration Council, c/o Miss Jennie Williams, President, Banner, Wyo. 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: 960,877.

Woman's National Farm and Garden Association, Inc., c/o Mrs. Henry P. Williams, President, 344 Provencal Road, Grosse Pointe Farms 30, Mich. Founded in 1914. Its purpose is to stimulate interest in the conservation of national resources and an appreciation of country life; to work for improvement of rural conditions; to promote good relationships between farm and city women; 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 stimulate and make available to members opportunities for the marketing of farm and garden products; to cooperate with national and international groups of women with similar interests. Membership: 5,500.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS¹

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 American Federation of Labor. 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.

Congress of Women's Auxiliaries of the C. I. O., 2123 West Market Street, Warren, Ohio. Established in 1941. Its purpose is to further the program of the Congress of Industrial Organizations; 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.

¹ These 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 3¼ million women are members of trade unions.