

1954 HANDBOOK

on

WOMEN WORKERS

Women's Bureau
Bulletin No. 255



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
James P. Mitchell, *Secretary*

WOMEN'S BUREAU
Mrs. Alice K. Leopold, *Director*

Washington : 1954

United States Government Printing Office, Washington : 1954

For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office
Washington 25, D. C. - Price 30 cents

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR,
WOMEN'S BUREAU,
Washington, June 1, 1954.

SIR: I have the honor of transmitting a handbook of facts relating to women workers. This publication serves as a source book for numerous organizations and persons, and also enables the Women's Bureau to give prompt and full replies to requests received daily for a great variety of current facts about women and their work. It presents information that is in wide public demand, and that is new or brought up to date since the 1952 biennial edition of the handbook.

Three divisions of this Bureau contributed to the 1954 revision. Coordination of new material and rewriting of the sections dealing with the employment, income, and education of women are primarily the work of Mary-Elizabeth Pidgeon, Economic Consultant, under the general direction of Mary N. Hilton, Chief of the Research Division. The sections on legislation were revised in the Division of Women's Labor Law and Civil and Political Status, directed by Alice A. Morrison. The section on national women's organizations is the work of the Division of Special Services, directed by Adelia B. Kloak.

Respectfully submitted.

ALICE K. LEOPOLD,
Director.

HON. JAMES P. MITCHELL,
Secretary of Labor.

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Note on Figures Used

Figures on labor force, employment, and income are based chiefly on census data, and refer to women 14 years of age and over. Unless otherwise stated, the data are taken from current sampling reports for the noninstitutional civilian population. A spring month is used (March or April), avoiding some of the extreme summer or midwinter seasonal influences that affect various industries. In later years the spring has been the period of the decennial census, though decennials of 1870-1900 and 1920 were taken in January or June. In accordance with the practice of the Census Bureau, rounded percents in a distribution are not adjusted to exactly 100.

HIGHLIGHTS

WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE (APRIL 1954)

Number—Over 19½ million.

This is a third of all women of working age.

Women are over 30 percent of the labor force.

Occupation—Over a fourth are clerical workers.

Over a fifth are service workers.

A fifth are operatives, chiefly in factories.

Over a tenth are professional or technical workers.

Age—Half are 38 years of age or older.

44 percent are under 35 years.

33 percent are 45 or older.

Marital status (April 1953)—Of all single women, 42 percent 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 a fourth 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.

More than a tenth of women workers are the only earners in their families. In addition, women are two-thirds of the supplementary earners in some 17 million families.

WOMEN'S EDUCATION

Half of all women 25 years of age and over have had more than 10 years of schooling, over a tenth have had some college education (1952).

Over 40 percent of all college students and 33 percent of those earning degrees in 1953 were women.

STATE LABOR LAWS FOR WOMEN*

26 States have minimum-wage laws applying to women, and 5 of these have extended the law to men.

13 States have equal-pay laws.

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

19 States limit the employment of women at night.

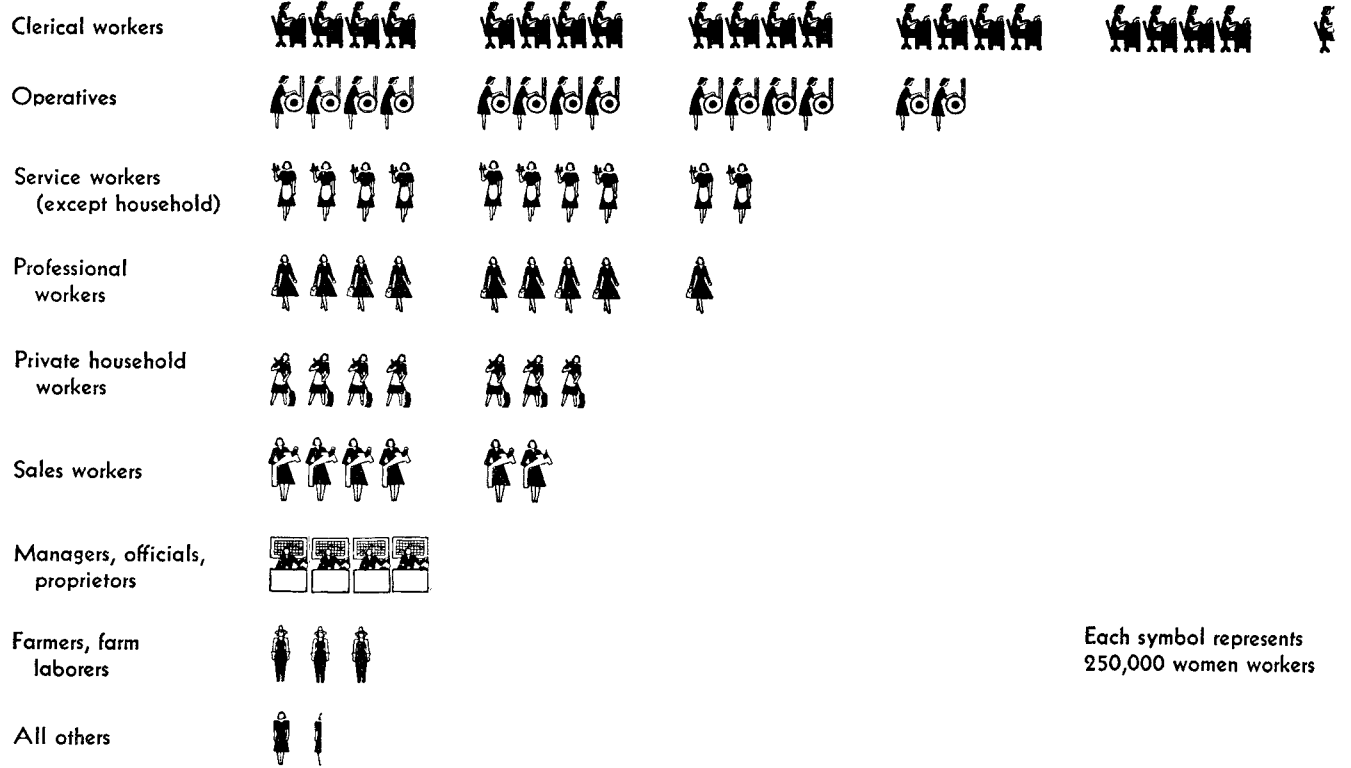
6 States prohibit employment of women immediately before and after childbirth.

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

*For similar laws in territories and the District of Columbia, see pp. 50-58

Chart 1.—Occupations of women workers, April 1954

III A



Each symbol represents
250,000 women workers

1954 HANDBOOK ON WOMEN WORKERS

1

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

Growing Employment Opportunities

The advance in women's employment has been one of the most marked features running through the past century of this country's life, and has continued into the 1950's. Causes of this long-time trend include great changes in the size and character of the population, in social customs, in the organization of business, and in modes of living. Among these changes are the growth of giant business corporations and large-scale financial organizations, and the expansion of marketing areas and of mail-order business, each of which has created jobs for large numbers of women as office workers. Two world wars also drew greatly increased numbers of women into the labor force in a wide variety of occupations.

The growing demand for women's services has been accompanied by broadened opportunities for their education and training, and thus more of them have become available for work in occupations where women have shown evidence of special aptitudes. At the same time, housewives have found their traditional duties simplified by numerous changes that reduced the time required for the physical tasks of homemaking. These include the growth of urban areas, and the trend toward more compact living quarters; the invention and mass production of numerous household appliances; and more recently the revolution in methods of food preservation and preparation.

In 1954 the civilian labor force includes over 19½ million women, over 6 million more than in 1940. And even as early as 1940, there were about as many women workers as there had been of both men and women workers in the country 70 years earlier, when the Census Bureau first fully reported women's occupations.

Recent years have witnessed a most important population change—the numerical relation of men and women in the population has been reversed. Today there are over 2 million more women than men of working age, though at the turn of the century men outnumbered

women by over 1½ million, and when the 1940 census was taken there still were slightly more men than women in the population. When this is considered, it is not surprising that women are now over 30 percent of all workers, though in 1870 they were only 15 percent. The summary following gives an indication of the trends.

Notable changes also have occurred in the types of occupations in which women are chiefly engaged. They are now employed to a much greater extent than formerly in clerical and factory work. On the other hand, women's employment has declined through the years in some service occupations and hand trades that once were considered among the most characteristic occupations of women.

TRENDS IN EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

	<i>Women workers (14 years and over)</i>		
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent of all workers</i>	<i>Percent of all women</i>
RECENT HIGHLIGHTS			
[<i>Census current sampling reports</i>]			
Today (1954).....	19, 726, 000	31	33
Current (1953).....	18, 912, 000	30	32
Pre-Korea (1950).....	18, 063, 000	29	32
Postwar (1947).....	16, 320, 000	28	30
World War II peak (1945).....	19, 670, 000	36	37
Pre-World War II (1940).....	13, 840, 000	25	28

LONG-TERM TRENDS

[<i>Decennial census</i>]			
1950.....	16, 512, 000	27	29
1940.....	13, 015, 000	24	26
1930.....	10, 396, 000	22	24
1920.....	8, 229, 000	20	23
1900.....	4, 999, 000	18	20
1890.....	3, 704, 000	17	18

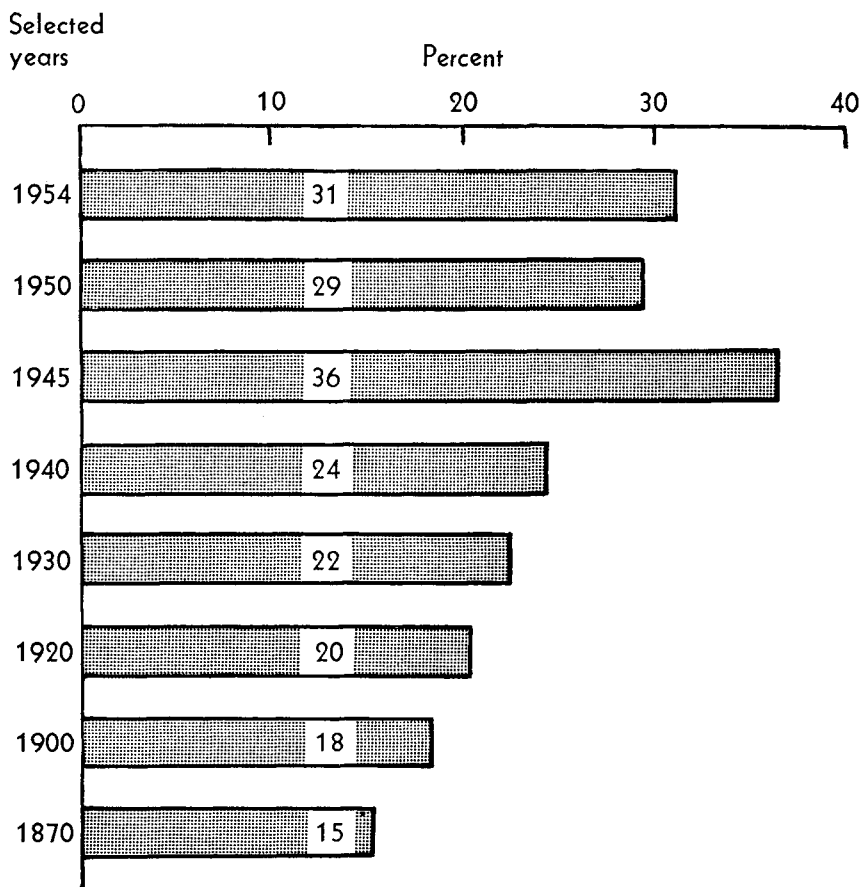
Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Detail for 1954 not exactly comparable with previous years. Decennial census figures not exactly comparable with current sampling.

The total number of women who worked at some time during the past year is much larger than the 19½ million in the current labor force—in fact it is nearly 25 million. This is about 43 percent of all women of working age. Furthermore, the great majority of the women in the population have worked at some time in their lives.

On the other hand about a fifth of all employed women are in part-time jobs, defined by the Census Bureau as work for less than 35 hours a week. Many of these, and many of the full-time workers as well, have not been employed through the full year. Although 33 percent

of all women of working age are in the labor force, only about 17 percent are in full-time jobs for the whole year.

Chart 2.—Percent of all workers who were women, 1870–1954



Chief Occupation Groups

Many more women are in clerical work than in any other major group of occupations. Operatives come next, the majority of them in factory production. About half of all employed women are in these two occupation groups, as may be seen in the summary following. Next come those in service occupations (other than in private households) and in professional or technical work. However, a combination group of those in household employment and in other services would 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 or laborers.

Increases have occurred since 1940, some of them very great, in the number of women in every occupation group except in household and farm employment, which have declined. The greatest expansion has been among clerical workers. Operatives and those in service trades also constitute larger proportions of all employed women than formerly. Management and sales occupations show growth for women, though employing considerably smaller numbers than clerical, operative, and service occupations.

WOMEN IN EACH OCCUPATION GROUP

Occupation group	Number, 1954	Percent distri- bution		Percent of all workers	
		1954	1940	1954	1940
All women.....	18,604,000	100	100	31	26
Clerical workers.....	5,122,000	28	21	65	53
Operatives.....	3,462,000	19	18	28	26
Service workers (except private household).....	2,491,000	13	11	48	40
Professional workers.....	2,226,000	12	13	39	45
Private household workers.....	1,770,000	10	18	97	94
Sales workers.....	1,475,000	8	7	37	28
Managers, officials, proprietors.....	963,000	5	4	16	12
Farmers, farm laborers.....	719,000	4	6	12	8
Craftswomen.....	269,000	1	1	3	3
Laborers (except farm).....	107,000	1	1	3	3

Proportion of Workers Who Are Women

Practically all the private household workers are women, as are almost two-thirds of the clerical workers and almost half the service workers (other than in private households). Women are over a third of the professional and sales workers, a somewhat smaller proportion of the operatives, and a still smaller proportion of the employees in other occupation groups.

In most of the occupation groups, the proportion of workers who are women, though not as great as in wartime, is notably greater than in 1940. The professional group is the only one in which the proportion of women in the total is 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. Teaching requires a longer training period than, for example, many clerical occupations greatly in demand, or

some nonprofessional jobs offering relatively high pay. 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.

Important Individual Occupations

The decennial census (1950) gives a detailed occupation list of 446 items. Of these 270 are specific occupations, such as textile spinner, librarian, waitress, busdriver, telephone operator. Other items are in more general terms, as for example, operative in apparel or in electrical factory; official or administrator in State public administration; or forewoman in textile or apparel plant.

OCCUPATIONS EMPLOYING 99,000 WOMEN OR MORE, 1950

Rank	Occupation	Women employed	
		Number	Percent of all persons in the occupation
1.	Stenographers, typists, secretaries.....	1, 501, 090	94
2.	Saleswomen—Retail trade.....	1, 192, 323	49
3.	Teachers (n. e. c.) (school).....	834, 996	75
4.	Operatives—Apparel, accessories.....	616, 864	81
5.	Bookkeepers.....	556, 229	77
6.	Waitresses.....	545, 565	82
7.	Nurses (professional).....	388, 921	98
8.	Telephone operators.....	341, 706	95
9.	Managers, proprietors—Retail trade.....	320, 139	17
10.	Farm laborers (unpaid family workers).....	317, 578	35
11.	Operatives—Laundry and dry cleaning.....	287, 533	67
12.	Cooks (except private household).....	242, 422	56
13.	Operatives—Textile yarn, thread, fabric mills.....	220, 054	50
14.	Beauticians (includes manicurists, barbers).....	189, 870	50
15.	Operatives—Food products.....	186, 337	38
16.	Cashiers.....	183, 586	81
17.	Operatives—Electrical machinery, supplies.....	179, 946	54
18.	Housekeepers (private household).....	134, 453	96
19.	Dressmakers, seamstresses (except factory).....	134, 310	97
20.	Farm laborers (wage workers).....	130, 327	9
21.	Practical nurses.....	130, 304	96
22.	Attendants—Hospitals, other institutions.....	121, 261	59
23.	Office machine operators.....	116, 917	82
24.	Farmers (owners, tenants).....	114, 179	3
25.	Operatives—Footwear, except rubber.....	110, 743	53
26.	Operatives—Wholesale, retail trade.....	107, 834	38
27.	Operatives—Knitting mills.....	104, 926	72
28.	Textile spinners, weavers.....	99, 182	55

Note: N. e. c. means not elsewhere classified.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Decennial Census. 1950.

Women are at work in all the 446 occupations, though of course some employ great numbers and others very few women. The largest groups of women workers are in some of the clerical and sales occupations, household employment, and teaching.

Even though found in all occupations, women workers are concentrated to a large extent in relatively few. Of all employed women, almost a third are either manufacturing operatives, stenographers or typists, or private household workers. Half are either in one of these three occupations or are teachers, saleswomen, bookkeepers, or waitresses.

Each of 28 individual occupations employs about 100,000 women or more as the list on page 5 shows. Sixty percent of all women workers are in these occupations.

Proportion of Women in Individual Occupations

In certain individual occupations, most, or a very large proportion, of all workers are women. The list that follows shows the occupations in which half or more of the workers were women in 1950. Some of these are among the largest occupations for women, others are relatively small.

OCCUPATIONS WITH WOMEN HALF OR MORE OF THE WORKERS

<i>Occupations with less than 100,000 women</i>	<i>Occupations with 100,000 or more women</i>
---	---

WOMEN ARE NINE-TENTHS OR MORE OF THE WORKERS

Nurses (professional).	Nurses (student).
Dressmakers, seamstresses.	Laundresses (private household).
Practical nurses.	Attendants—Physician's, dentist's offices.
Telephone operators.	Dietitians, nutritionists.
Housekeepers (private household).	Librarians.
Private household workers (except housekeepers, laundresses).	Milliners.
Stenographers, typists, secretaries.	

WOMEN ARE ABOUT FOUR-FIFTHS OF THE WORKERS

Office machine operators.	Midwives.
Waitresses.	Demonstrators.
Cashiers.	Housekeepers (except private household).
Operatives—Apparel, accessories.	

WOMEN ARE ABOUT THREE-FOURTHS OF THE WORKERS

Bookkeepers.	Spinners (textile).
School teachers.	Attendants, assistants—Library.
Operatives—Knitting mills.	Boarding-, lodging-housekeepers.
	Operatives—Fabricated textiles.
	Dancers, dancing teachers.
	Religious workers.
	Operatives—Tobacco manufactures.

OCCUPATION WITH WOMEN HALF OR MORE OF THE WORKERS—Continued

<i>Occupations with 100,000 or more women</i>	<i>Occupations with less than 100,000 women</i>
WOMEN ARE HALF TO TWO-THIRDS OF THE WORKERS	
Operatives—Laundry, dry cleaning.	Social, welfare workers (except group).
Attendants—Hospitals, institutions.	Attendants—Professional, personal services (n. e. c.).
Cooks (except private household).	Operatives—
Operatives—	Confectionery.
Electrical machinery, supplies.	Canning fruits, vegetables.
Footwear (except rubber).	Drugs, medicines.
Yarn, thread, fabric mills.	Charwomen, cleaners.
Beauticians (includes barbers, manicurists).	Packers, graders—Fruit, nut, vegetable.
Salespersons—Retail trade.	Operatives—
	Clocks, watches.
	Food (not specified).
	Technicians—Medical, dental.
	Bookbinders.
	Operatives—
	Personal services.
	Leather products (except footwear).
	Bakery products.
	Counter, fountain workers.
	Musicians, music teachers.
	Therapists, healers.
	Farm-, home-management advisers.
	Operatives—Paper, pulp products (miscellaneous).

Note: N. e. c. means not elsewhere classified.

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

Women as Teachers

Teaching is one of the largest individual occupations of women, and this has been true in every decade since the Census Bureau has reported the occupations of women in full detail. Among women teachers in elementary and secondary schools three-fourths are in the elementary schools. Only about 5 percent of all women teachers are in institutions of higher education. Women are about nine-tenths of the elementary teachers, more than half those in secondary schools, and about a fourth of those in colleges and universities.

Chief Industry Groups

About two-thirds of the women employed in 1953 were in three industry groups—manufacturing, retail trade, and personal services. Each of these employs 3 million or more, manufacturing over 4 million. The number and proportion of women among all workers in

each industry group are shown in the following summary. Any industry may employ women in a wide variety of occupations, as for example, salespersons of several types, clerical office forces, manufacturing operatives, and so forth. Occupational data are shown elsewhere in this report (pp. 4. 5).

WOMEN IN EACH INDUSTRY GROUP

<i>Industry</i>	<i>Number, 1953</i>	<i>Percent of all workers</i>		<i>Percent distribution</i>	
		<i>1953</i>	<i>1940</i>	<i>1953</i>	<i>1940</i>
All groups.....	18, 434, 000	30	26	100	100
Manufacturing.....	4, 524, 000	26	23	25	21
Retail trade.....	3, 666, 000	39	31	20	17
Personal services.....	3, 094, 000	73	73	17	26
Professional, related services.....	2, 904, 000	57	57	16	17
All other industries.....	4, 246, 000	17	11	23	19

Women Factory Workers

Factories employ a fourth of all women workers, more than are in any other industry group—over 4¼ million women in 1954. According to current reports of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, about 40 percent of the women in manufacturing produce 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 account for about 60 percent of all women in factories. All but the electrical industry are in the nondurable goods group, which always employs by far the greatest number of women.

In recent years, durable goods, often called the heavier industries, have shown a striking increase in employment of women; in 1954 they employed almost one-half million more women than in 1950. Important employers of women in this group of industries are electrical and other machinery, metals, and transportation equipment. Some of the durable goods industries formerly not thought of as large employers of women, have grown notably—machinery (except electrical), transportation equipment, and fabricated metals. The number and proportion of women in each of the various industry groups are shown in the following table. These figures include all the women in factory offices, as well as production workers. About four-fifths of the women in factories are production workers, but the proportion varies markedly from industry to industry. For example, in some of the metal industries half or more of the women are in the factory offices, while in the industries long known as important employers of women, such as textiles and clothing, well over nine-tenths of the women are production workers.

WOMEN WAGE AND SALARIED WORKERS IN CHIEF MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

Industry	Women					
	1954					
	Number	Percent increase from 1950	Percent distribution		Percent of all workers	
1954			1950	1954	1950	
Total	4, 289, 700	14	100	100	26	27
Nondurable goods	2, 567, 100	2	60	67	38	38
Apparel, finished textile products	949, 000	4	22	24	77	76
Textile mill products	466, 400	² 15	11	15	43	43
Food products	339, 800	2	8	9	24	24
Printing, publishing	220, 800	14	5	5	27	27
Leather, leather products	191, 800	6	4	5	51	46
Chemical products	143, 200	24	3	3	18	17
Paper products	121, 100	12	3	3	23	23
Rubber products	66, 100	10	2	2	26	26
Tobacco manufactures	53, 500	² 1	1	1	58	57
Products of petroleum, coal	15, 400	43	(¹)	(¹)	6	5
Durable goods	1, 722, 600	39	40	33	18	17
Electrical machinery	432, 600	42	10	8	38	38
Transportation equipment	236, 800	121	6	3	13	10
Machinery, except elec- trical	227, 400	35	5	4	14	13
Fabricated metal products (n. e. c.)	205, 700	24	5	4	19	19
Instruments and related products	116, 200	51	3	2	36	33
Stone, clay, glass prod- ucts	85, 400	9	2	2	17	16
Primary metal industries	71, 800	20	2	2	6	5
Furniture, fixtures	62, 000	10	1	1	18	16
Lumber, wood products	48, 600	² 4	1	1	7	7
Ordnance, accessories	47, 900	989	1	(¹)	24	17
Miscellaneous manufac- turing industries	188, 200	12	4	4	40	40

¹ Less than 1 percent.² In this case a decline.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Employment and Earnings* (formerly *Employment and Payrolls*). (March figures.)

Of all factory employees in 1954, women were just over a fourth. However, women were half to three-fourths of the employees in apparel, tobacco, and leather factories, a somewhat smaller proportion

in textile mills, and well over a third of those in electrical machinery and supply plants and instrument making.

	<i>Women as percent of all workers</i>		<i>Women as percent of all workers</i>
Apparel.....	77	Printing, publishing.....	27
Tobacco.....	58	Rubber.....	26
Leather.....	47	Food.....	24
Textiles.....	43	Ordnance.....	24
Electrical machinery.....	38	Paper.....	23
Instruments.....	36		

Women as Federal Employees

More than half a million women are at work in the executive branch of the Federal Government. These women are a fourth of all such workers. About a fifth of them are located in Washington, D. C. Somewhat less than a tenth had veterans' preference in appointment to their jobs. Of these, over half are women who have been in the armed services; somewhat less than half are wives of disabled veterans, or widows and mothers of deceased veterans. The table following shows the number of women government employees in the postwar years, and other information about them along the lines discussed. The employment of women in government service was considerably greater during the war years—in fact, in the highest postwar year it was 42 percent less than at the wartime peak.

WOMEN IN THE EXECUTIVE BRANCH OF THE FEDERAL SERVICE

<i>Year</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent of all workers</i>	<i>Percent of women employees</i>		
			<i>Located in D. C.</i>	<i>With veterans' prefer- ence</i>	<i>Percent wives, widows, mothers¹</i>
1947.....	417, 200	24	21	9	40
1948.....	431, 500	23	(²)	9	43
1949.....	422, 200	22	(²)	10	39
1950.....	440, 600	23	(²)	10	41
1951.....	580, 700	25	20	8	42
1952.....	586, 600	25	18	8	44
1953.....	536, 000	24	18	9	45

¹ As percent of all women with veterans' preference.

² Not available.

Source: U. S. Civil Service Commission. Figures are for September in each year except 1947, when they are for November.

Ages of Women Workers

Most young women of today take a job until marriage or for some time after. They then are most likely to leave the labor force during

the time their small children require continual care. When their children are partly grown and no longer need constant attention, many women return to work. Because of this cycle that appears in the lives of many American women, a larger proportion are in the labor force at the ages 20 to 24 years than in older groups. The proportion in the labor force declines in the age group 25 to 34 and increases again at 35.

In the woman population as a whole, a somewhat larger proportion than in 1940 are of the ages 35 to 64. Furthermore, a very much larger proportion than formerly of these women are in the labor force, as the following summary shows. There was a considerable movement of women beyond 35 into the labor force during wartime, and many of them remained at work after the war. Women 35 to 64 are now more than half the women workers, though in 1940 they were less than 40 percent. Also larger than in 1940 is the proportion of women under 20 years old who are in the labor force; however, these young girls are less than a tenth of all women workers.

The only age group present in the labor force in somewhat smaller proportion than in 1940 is that of women 20 to 24. This may be largely explained by the postwar increases in youthful marriages, and the high birthrate that keeps many of the wives at home to care for their young children.

AGES OF WOMEN IN POPULATION AND LABOR FORCE

Age (in years)	Percent of population who were in labor force		Percent distribution in—			
			1954		1940	
	1954	1940	Popu- lation	Labor force	Popu- lation	Labor force
All ages, 14 and over.	33	28	100	100	100	100
14 to 19.....	27	20	11	9	15	11
20 to 24.....	44	48	9	12	12	20
25 to 34.....	36	36	21	22	21	28
35 to 44.....	41	29	19	24	18	19
45 to 64.....	36	22	28	30	25	20
65 and over.....	9	7	12	3	9	2

The result of the changes just discussed is that the median age of the women workers of today, 38 years, is several years older than the median of the women employed in 1940. (The median is the midpoint, half the women being older, half younger.) The trend toward entrance of increasing numbers of older women into the labor force is not new, but has been continuing over a long period. However, it has been especially marked since 1940. In 1900 the median age of women workers was only 26 years, by 1940 it was nearly 32. Since 1940, the median age of women in the labor force has advanced as much as in the preceding four decades, as the following figures show.

<i>Date</i>	<i>Median age (years)</i>	<i>Date</i>	<i>Median age (years)</i>
1954-----	38	1940-----	32
1950-----	37	1930-----	30
1947-----	35	1920-----	30
1945-----	34	1900-----	26

Among all women workers about 30 percent are 45 to 64 years of age, but the proportions who are of these ages vary considerably in different occupations. The proportion 45 to 64 is much larger than this among management and household workers, somewhat larger among service and farm workers. At the more youthful end of the scale, over a fifth of the women workers are under 25 years of age, but among clerical workers the proportion under 25 is much higher.

Single and Married Women Workers

Half the single women 14 years and over are in the labor force, as are more than a third of the widowed and divorced women, and a fourth of the married women.

Marked changes have occurred since 1940 in the proportions of married and single women, both in the population and in the labor force. These changes, which are indicated in the accompanying summary, began in the war period and still show their effects. The population of today includes over 8½ million more married women and 3 million fewer single women than in 1940. This results to a considerable extent from the fact that the marriage rate was accelerated during and just after the war and has continued at a high level. There now are almost three and one-half times as many married as single women in the population, though in 1940 there were only twice as many married as single.

SINGLE AND MARRIED WOMEN IN THE POPULATION AND LABOR FORCE

<i>Marital status</i>	<i>Number of women (14 and over)</i>		<i>Percent distribution</i>	
	<i>1953</i>	<i>1940</i>	<i>1953</i>	<i>1940</i>
POPULATION				
Total-----	58, 940, 000	50, 549, 176	100	100
Single-----	10, 774, 000	13, 935, 866	18	28
Married (husband present)-----	37, 106, 000	28, 516, 937	63	56
Other marital status-----	11, 060, 000	8, 096, 373	19	16
LABOR FORCE				
Total-----	18, 920, 000	13, 840, 000	100	100
Single-----	5, 140, 000	6, 710, 000	27	48
Married (husband present)-----	9, 588, 000	4, 200, 000	51	30
Other marital status-----	4, 192, 000	2, 930, 000	22	21

The increase in married and decline in single women in the labor force is not explained entirely by the marked changes in the population, though it likewise stems from wartime influences. In 1940 about half the single women were already in employment. Great pressures were exerted to bring added numbers of women into wartime work. Both single and married women entered the labor force in increased numbers, a larger proportion of the single than of the married. But the number of married women in the population was increasing markedly, the number of single declining. Many more married than single women were available to meet the wartime needs for labor-force increases. 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.

After the war, when the number of single women in the population had declined, the proportion of single women who were workers dropped to the prewar level. Among married women, on the other hand, the proportion in the labor force not only maintained the wartime level but showed some additional increase. (See summary following.) A considerable part of the explanation for this is revealed in figures on age. The median age of single women workers is 24 years, of those married, 39 years. This indicates that married women of the ages when family cares are less pressing remained in the labor force to a considerable extent, having become accustomed to use of their new or revived skills at work. A custom well developed before the war grew even more usual—that the new wife remain at work for a time while establishing the home. This accounts for the fact that about a tenth of the married women workers are under 25 years of age. With both these sectors of the married woman population, the prevailing high living costs accented the need to continue in an earning status.

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN BY MARITAL STATUS

<i>Marital status</i>	<i>Percent of all women of each marital status who were workers</i>			
	<i>1940</i>	<i>1944</i>	<i>1950</i>	<i>1953</i>
All groups.....	27	35	31	22
Single.....	48	59	51	42
Married (total).....	17	26	25	27
Husband present.....	15	22	24	26
Husband absent.....	53	52	47	48
Widowed and divorced.....	32	36	36	35

The result of these changes is that among single women, who always are employed to a considerable extent, much the same proportion as in 1940 are employed—about half. Among married women with husband present, while 15 percent were employed in 1940, today 26 percent are employed. The changes in numbers appear especially great because the total number of married women has increased, of single women declined.

Occupations of Single and Married Women

There are notable differences in the occupations of single and married women. Much larger proportions of single than married women are in the clerical and professional groups, and considerably larger proportions of the married than of the single are in the operative and the managerial groups (the latter, however, being relatively small for women).

A much larger proportion of the widowed and divorced than of either the married or the single are in service occupations. However, more than three-fourths of all women workers, whether single or married, are clerical or sales workers, operatives, or service workers.

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 26 $\frac{2}{3}$ million in 1940 to over 37 million in 1953. Of these couples, the proportion with both spouses in the labor force increased from 11 percent (almost 3 million couples) in 1940 to almost 26 percent (over 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ million couples) in 1953.

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 husband present. Thus, no account is taken of mothers who are widowed or divorced, nor of women, whether married or single, who are responsible for the care of children other than their own. The number of such women may be considerable, especially since the war.

Of all women in the labor force in 1953 just over 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ million (about 1 in 4) are married, living with husband, and have children under 18 years of age. The majority of these have children of school age only (6 to 17 years). Somewhat fewer than 2 million have children under 6; these constitute about 1 in 10 of all employed women.

Mothers of preschool children are much less likely to be in the labor force than those whose children have reached school age.

Among women with children of school age only, as well as among those with no children, just over 30 percent are workers, as the following summary shows. On the other hand, among the mothers of pre-school children, the proportion who enter the labor force is only about half as high—15 percent.

The age distribution of married women workers is revealing in connection with their child-care problems. Over 45 percent of the employed married women are 40 years of age or older, and in many cases their children are grown. Somewhat larger proportions of the married women in older than of those in younger groups are workers—over 33 percent of those 40 to 44 compared to 25 percent of those 25 to 35 years of age.

In recent years when increasing proportions of married women have entered the labor force (thus contributing both to family finances and to the country's labor supply) their contribution to other primary phases of home life also is maintained; in fact the birthrate continues to be at a higher level than in almost any year in the past three decades. Furthermore, the number of children under 5 years of age per 1,000 women aged 15 to 49 years was 429 in 1953 (latest figures available), an increase from 281 in 1940, or more than 50 percent. In addition, of the women 25 to 29 years of age, 24 percent in 1953 as compared to 13 percent in 1940 had two or more children; of those aged 30 to 34, 15 percent in 1953 and 9 percent in 1940 had two or more children.

MARRIED WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE WITH AND WITHOUT CHILDREN, 1953

	<i>Number of women in—</i>		<i>Percent of all women workers</i>	<i>Percent in labor force</i>
	<i>Population</i>	<i>Labor force</i>		
Married women, husband present-----	37, 106, 000	9, 588, 000	51	26
With no own children under 18---	16, 430, 000	5, 038, 000	27	31
Total with own children under 18..	20, 676, 000	¹ 4, 550, 000	24	22
With children 6-17 only-----	8, 538, 000	2, 700, 000	14	32
With children under 6 only--	6, 618, 000	1, 028, 000	5	16
With children both 6-17 and under 6-----	5, 520, 000	822, 000	4	15
Total with own children under 6..	12, 138, 000	1, 850, 000	10	15

¹ Note that only married women with husbands present are reported for 1953. It is estimated that more than 1 million additional mothers are at work—primarily those who are widowed, separated, or divorced.

The absence of the husband from the family tends to increase markedly the necessity for the mother to seek employment. 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, 53 percent had gone to work, according to latest data available

(1951). 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 41 percent of those with husbands absent had to work.

Of all children under 5 years of age in this country (1952) almost nine-tenths have mothers not in the labor force (about 14½ million children). The remaining tenth (almost 2⅓ million) have mothers who work, some on part time, some in their own business, some on full-time jobs.

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 1953 a woman was the head in nearly 4 million of this country's families (two or more related persons living together). This is about a tenth of all families in the United States.

Of the women family heads in 1953, two-thirds are 45 years of age or older, a fourth being 65 or older. Almost 60 percent of them are widowed. Over a fourth of them have families of four or more members. About half—almost 2 million women family heads—have children under 18 in the family, over one-half million of them having at least one child under 6 years of age.

The percent of women family heads is likely to be 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. The median income in families headed by a woman was not much over half the median for those headed by a man, according to the latest report available (1952 income). Almost half such families have incomes below \$2,000 a year.

Not all family heads, be they men or women, are in the labor force. Data available on this subject (1949) show about 45 percent of the women family heads in the labor force, most of them undoubtedly working not only for their own support but also toward the family's maintenance.

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. 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, families with women heads returned to the 1930 proportion.

Women as 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. The Census Bureau defines part-time employment as work for less than 35 hours a week. Under this definition more than a fifth of all women workers were on part time in late 1953. Some of these are only temporarily in this situation, some are unable to work full time for economic reasons such as slack work or unavailability of full-time jobs. Three-fourths of the women who regularly work part-time do not want or could not accept full-time employment, though these constitute only 16 percent of the woman labor force as a whole.

Part-time work is more likely to be sought by women than men, since women frequently need to combine a paid job with household cares. Over 60 percent of all those who usually work part time are women.

Nearly a third of married women workers but only about a fifth of other women workers are on part time, according to an earlier census report (1950). If married women workers have children, especially preschool children, they are much more likely to take a part-time than a full-time job. If there are no children under 18, the proportion of married women workers who are on part time is similar to that of the single or the widowed or divorced.

Almost two-thirds of the women part-time workers are in household employment, sales occupations, or farmwork. To obtain more detailed information on kinds of part-time jobs women are doing, skills required, hours worked, earnings, and advantages and disadvantages in such employment, the Women's Bureau made a special study of more than 9,000 women part-time workers and over 1,000 employers of such workers, in 10 cities. (See Bull. 238.) This study, which did not include household employment or farmwork, shows that in most cities some part-time employees are in social agencies, hospitals, educational and library services, insurance, and numerous other types of work.

The age distribution of women part-time workers does not differ greatly from that of the woman labor force as a whole. However, larger proportions of the part-time than of the full-time woman labor force are in the youngest and the oldest groups—under 20 years of age, and 55 years of age or older.

Women as 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 nationwide 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 show that unions in industries known to be large employers of women, such as the textile, clothing, telephone, and shoe industries, have larger numbers and proportions of women members than such industries as teaming and trucking, railroading, gas and electric, in which women are much smaller percentages of the employees. The Bureau of Labor Statistics reports the number of union members from questionnaires sent to the officers of the unions. About 80 unions give some report on their woman membership, and of these the 12 listed below each report more than 35,000 women members. Largest of these, each with over 260,000 women, are two great unions of clothing workers, and three other important unions also have well over 100,000 women members apiece.

<i>Union</i>	<i>Number of women reported</i>
International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union (AFL)-----	292, 500
Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America (CIO)-----	261, 800
International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers (AFL)-----	150, 000
Retail Clerks International Association (AFL)-----	125, 000
United Automobile, Aircraft & Agricultural Implement Workers of America (CIO)-----	118, 500
United Steelworkers of America (CIO)-----	80, 000
Laundry Workers' International Union (AFL)-----	65, 000
Bakery and Confectionery Workers' International Union of America (AFL)-----	60, 200
Building Service Employees' International Union (AFL)-----	55, 500
Alliance Independent Telephone Unions (Ind.)-----	45, 500
American Federation of Teachers (AFL)-----	37, 500
Brotherhood of Railway & Steamship Clerks, Freight Handlers, Express & Station Employees (AFL)-----	36, 000

Negro Women Workers

Negro women are 10 percent of the woman population and 12 percent of the woman labor force, according to the decennial census, 1950.

Of all the Negro women in the population, 37 percent are in the labor force. These women are 35 percent of all Negro workers. The num-

ber of Negro women in the labor force increased about 20 percent from 1940 to 1950. The following summary shows the numbers of Negro women employed in the chief occupation groups.

CHIEF OCCUPATIONS OF NEGRO WOMEN

Occupation	Negro women workers, 1950		Percent distribution	
	Number	Percent of all Negro workers	1950	1940
Total employed.....	1, 869, 956	35	100	100
Private household workers.....	773, 590	96	41	59
Service workers (except private house- hold).....	¹ 351, 856	43	19	11
Cooks.....	60, 385	58	-----	-----
Waitresses.....	42, 139	50	-----	-----
Operatives.....	¹ 274, 000	27	14	6
Laundry.....	98, 998	69	-----	-----
Apparel, fabricated textiles.....	52, 910	87	-----	-----
Farm laborers.....	139, 657	28	8	13
Unpaid family workers.....	72, 751	39	-----	-----
Wage workers.....	66, 906	21	-----	-----
Professional workers.....	¹ 104, 728	58	6	4
Teachers.....	67, 857	78	-----	-----
Clerical workers.....	74, 255	41	4	1
All other occupations.....	151, 870	-----	8	6

¹ Total exceeds details, as only the individual occupations that employ as many as 40,000 Negro women are shown.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Decennial Census. 1950.

Changes in Employment of Negro Women

The number of employed Negro women increased from 1940 to 1950 by 20 percent. In the same period the total number of employed women increased about 40 percent.

In the occupations of Negro women, marked changes occurred from 1940 to 1950. The addition to the Negro labor force of 60,000 women as clerical workers and 40,000 as professional workers brought these groups to 10 percent of all employed Negro women from only 5 percent in 1940. The number of Negro women employed as operatives and as service workers (except in households) each increased by more than 175,000. Well over half the operatives are in laundries or apparel factories. Over 10,000 Negro women were added to each of the groups of sales workers, laborers, and managers and proprietors, and nearly 10,000 to that of craftswomen. On the other hand, Negro women declined in number by more than 144,000 as household workers and almost 75,000 as farm workers.

Owing to the changes in employment, 10 percent of the Negro women workers are in professional and clerical occupations (com-

bined) as compared to 5 percent in 1940, 15 percent are operatives as compared to 6 percent in 1940, and almost 20 percent are service workers (other than in households) compared to 10 percent in 1940. As a result of the declines that occurred over the decade, household occupations engage just over 40 percent of the Negro women compared to almost 60 percent in 1940, and 9 percent are at work on farms compared to 16 percent in 1940.

Negro women are a larger proportion of the women workers in 1950 than in 1940 in all groups except farmwork. The gains in proportion of Negroes among all women workers are especially marked among household employees and general laborers.

CHANGES IN MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUPS OF NEGRO WOMEN, 1940-50

Occupation group	Change in number of Negro women, 1940-50 ¹	Negro women as percent of all women	
		1950	1940
All occupations.....	327, 683	12	14
Service groups.....	51, 332	35	34
Private household workers.....	-145, 411	58	47
Service workers (except private household)....	196, 743	18	13
Manual groups.....	202, 722	9	5
Operatives.....	178, 605	9	5
Laborers (except farm, mine).....	15, 007	22	13
Craftswomen, forewomen.....	9, 110	5	2
White collar groups.....	131, 217	3	2
Professional workers.....	38, 091	5	4
Clerical workers.....	61, 180	2	1
Sales workers.....	17, 674	2	1
Managers, proprietors, officials.....	14, 272	4	3
Farm groups.....	-74, 640	30	52
Farm laborers, forewomen.....	-59, 373	31	62
Farmers, farm managers.....	-15, 267	27	30
Occupation not reported.....	17, 052	11	8

¹ Increase unless minus sign shown.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Decennial Census, 1940 and 1950.

2

WOMEN'S INCOME, EARNINGS, FAMILY SUPPORT

Income Received in the Year

About nine-tenths of the men and almost half the women in the adult population receive some income. About two-thirds of both men and women receive all their income from wages or salaries in their jobs. A fifth of the women and well under a tenth of the men have no earnings but receive all their income from other sources such as pensions, rents, or investments. Some have income from both earnings and other sources, as the following summary shows:

SOURCE OF INCOME, 1952		
	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
All income recipients.....	100	100
With earnings from:		
Wages or salaries only.....	68	66
Self-employment only.....	4	10
Both wages or salary and self-employment..	(1)	3
Both earnings and other income.....	7	13
With income but no earnings.....	21	7

¹ Less than 1 percent.

The median income for all women who receive income is \$1,147 a year, for men \$3,105, according to the latest Census Bureau figures (for the year 1952). In the 2-year period just preceding, median incomes of both sexes increased by about a fifth. The median tells only part of the story. Somewhat more than a tenth of the women who have income receive over \$3,000 a year and nearly half have less than \$1,000, as the following summary shows. Of the men, on the other hand, over half receive \$3,000 or more.

INCOME OF WOMEN AND MEN, 1952

<i>Annual money income</i>	<i>Total income</i>		<i>Wage and salary income</i>	
	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
With income:				
Number of persons (14 years old and over)---	27, 150, 000	49, 242, 000	20, 040, 000	38, 629, 000
Percent of population---	47	91	34	72
Median income.....	\$1, 147	\$3, 105	\$1, 398	\$3, 201

PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONS WITH INCOME, 1952

<i>Annual money income</i>	<i>Total income</i>		<i>Wage and salary income</i>	
	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
Total.....	100	100	100	100
Under \$1,000.....	47	17	41	14
\$1,000, under \$2,000.....	22	14	23	12
\$2,000, under \$3,000.....	18	17	23	18
\$3,000, under \$5,000.....	12	36	12	40
\$5,000 and over.....	1	16	1	15

Women's Income by Age

Income varies with age. For both sexes the median income rises to age group 35 to 44, and declines somewhat at later ages. For women the highest median is only 5 percent above that received by young women 20 to 24 years old. On the other hand, the highest for men is almost 75 percent above that of men 20 to 24 years old. Among both women and men the income is lowest for young persons under 20 years of age, and for those 65 and older, when many have retired. The medians at various ages, and other information as to age differences in income, are shown in the following summary.

Of the women 20 to 24 years old, when the proportion in the labor force is largest, almost 60 percent have some income. The same is true of women 65 and older, when many retired persons receive pensions or old age insurance. Of the women 25 to 64 years of age about 45 percent have some income.

INCOME AND AGE, 1952

<i>Age (years)</i>	<i>Women with income</i>				
	<i>Percent of total</i>	<i>Median income</i>	<i>Percent with income—</i>		<i>Median income of men</i>
			<i>Under \$2,000</i>	<i>\$3,000 or over</i>	
All ages 14 years and over.....	47	\$1, 147	69	13	\$3, 105
14, under 20.....	37	447	98	5	437
20, under 25.....	58	1, 511	65	8	2, 137
25, under 35.....	43	1, 578	60	16	3, 493
35, under 45.....	45	1, 587	61	18	3, 709
45, under 55.....	46	1, 576	61	20	3, 486
55, under 65.....	43	1, 175	69	16	3, 009
65 and over.....	59	654	89	6	1, 247

Women's Wages and Salaries

About \$1,400 a year is the median for earnings of all women with wages or salaries (half the women earn more, half less). The corresponding figure for men is \$3,200. A single figure of this type conceals wide variations in the earnings of individuals. For example, over 10 percent of the women whose earnings make up this median receive \$3,000 or more, and 40 percent of them receive less than \$1,000. (See p. 22.) These figures include the regular part-time workers who are employed only for certain days in the week or for certain hours in the day (see p. 17), and who consequently receive less than if they worked through the hours scheduled for a full week.

There are many reasons for the wide variations that occur in wages and salaries. Important among these are differences in the industries and occupations in which the workers are employed; in the training, experience, and proficiency of individual workers in a given industry; and in the methods or systems of payment for various types of work. (See p. 29.) Furthermore 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 the numerous factors that influence wages, the best information on earnings or on standards of wages and salaries is furnished by various studies that relate to particular industries or occupations at a given period of time, and often in particular localities, and that take into account the specific reasons for wage variations. Such studies sometimes afford separate data on women's wages; information will be given below for the largest and most recent of these that are available.

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.

Women's Earnings by Occupation

It is well known that employed women's earnings differ according to the occupations in which they are engaged. Median earnings are highest for women managerial and professional workers—in each case about \$2,700 a year, as the following summary shows.

MEDIAN WAGE OR SALARY OF EXPERIENCED WORKERS, BY MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUP, 1952

<i>Major occupation group</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
Managers, officials, proprietors	\$2, 705	\$4, 696
Professional workers	2, 695	4, 691
Clerical workers	2, 270	3, 421
Crafts workers	2, 075	3, 756
Operatives	1, 908	3, 216
Service workers (except private household)	1, 128	2, 374
Sales workers	1, 075	3, 576
Private household workers	433	(¹)
Farm laborers, foremen	(¹)	847
Farmers, farm managers	(¹)	479
Laborers (except farm, mine)	(¹)	2, 244

¹ Sample too small to justify a median.

Earnings of "White-Collar" Workers

Widely varying groups often are referred to under the term "white-collar" workers (including, for example, those in professional, clerical, and sales occupations, which taken together employ almost half of all women workers). Regular reports are made of earnings in some of these occupations, such as those of office workers and teachers in elementary and secondary schools. Although teachers' salaries are not given by sex, they represent the earnings of many women, since women are 75 percent of the school teachers. 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, and women are two-thirds of all clerical workers. 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. Usually, especially large numbers of women clerical workers are in the occupations of general stenographer, secretary, accounting clerk, and class B typist. For these, and a few other occupations the range of women's average earnings in 17 large cities is shown here.

AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN IN SELECTED OFFICE OCCUPATIONS
IN 17 CITIES, 1953 AND 1954

<i>Range of city averages</i>	<i>Average weekly earnings¹ in areas of—</i>	
	<i>Over 1,000,000 population</i>	<i>500,000 under 1,000,000 population</i>
Accounting clerks A:		
Highest average.....	\$71. 50	\$68. 50
Lowest average.....	57. 00	59. 00
Accounting clerks B:		
Highest average.....	58. 50	56. 50
Lowest average.....	48. 00	46. 00
File clerks A:		
Highest average.....	62. 00	56. 50
Lowest average.....	47. 50	45. 50
File clerks B:		
Highest average.....	47. 50	44. 50
Lowest average.....	38. 00	38. 00
Secretaries:		
Highest average.....	75. 50	67. 00
Lowest average.....	58. 00	60. 50
Stenographers—general:		
Highest average.....	64. 50	56. 00
Lowest average.....	49. 50	49. 50
Typists A:		
Highest average.....	60. 50	54. 00
Lowest average.....	47. 00	48. 50
Typists B:		
Highest average.....	51. 00	46. 50
Lowest average.....	41. 50	40. 00

¹ *Highest averages:*

Largest cities—All occupations—Los Angeles or San Francisco-Oakland.

Cities of next size—

Most occupations—Portland, Oreg.

Secretaries—Milwaukee; typists B—Denver.

Lowest averages:

Largest cities—

Most occupations—Boston.

Accounting clerks A—Philadelphia; B—Minneapolis-St. Paul.

Cities of next size—All occupations—Dallas or New Orleans.

Other cities included:

Over 1 million—New York, Chicago, Buffalo, Detroit, St. Louis, Newark-Jersey City.

500,000 under 1 million—Atlanta.

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

In clerical as well as in industrial work the occupations requiring the greatest skill pay 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, or she should aim toward becoming an expert accounting clerk. Women in these two

occupations have higher average pay than those in the other occupations listed here. The average weekly earnings in these 17 large cities range from \$58 to \$75.50 for secretaries and from \$57 to \$71.50 for class A accounting clerks. 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 averages (except those paid office girls in some cities) are 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. Salaries of class B file clerks range from \$38 to \$47.50 a week in these 17 cities. Salaries of class B typists range from \$40 to \$51. It must always be remembered that these are figures based on general averages. Many individual women whose salaries are included will be receiving considerably more or less than the average.

The greatest ranges in average salaries among the 17 cities are for secretaries, stenographers, class A accountants, and class A file clerks. In these occupations, the cities with the highest average pay from about \$750 to over \$900 more a year than those with lowest averages. These are the occupations in which presumably it is most possible for a worker to improve her level of skill, dependability, and general usefulness on the job. In the other clerical occupations the pay range is not so great.

Average earnings of clerical workers have been on the increase. In some cases the increases have been considerable over the past 2 years. In a number of instances the pay raises brought more nearly into line one of the occupations or one of the cities that had been paying relatively little. For example, in some cities class A file clerks who had been paid relatively low wages were advanced considerably more than workers in most other clerical occupations. Elsewhere, this was true for grade A typists. Frequently the larger increases went to those in the higher paying occupations—secretary, general stenographer, and file clerk A. As a result, in individual cities the difference in wage levels among occupations is likely to be greater than formerly.

Salaries of School Teachers

School teachers are over 40 percent of all professional women. In high schools their median salaries in the 1952-53 school year ranged from \$5,526 to \$3,498, according to size of locality; in elementary schools from \$4,817 to \$3,118. These figures are from a report of the National Education Association covering a very large proportion of all employees in city school systems through the country. While not

shown by sex, the figures represent what many women receive, since three-fourths of all teachers are women. The list below summarizes these salaries. Among factors influencing salaries are differences in salary schedules of particular localities.

ANNUAL SALARIES OF TEACHERS, BY TYPE OF SCHOOL AND SIZE OF CITY,
1952-1953

[Figures for men and women combined]

<i>Size of city and type of school</i>	<i>Median salary</i>	<i>Percent receiving—</i>	
		<i>Under \$2,500</i>	<i>\$5,000 or more</i>
Over 500,000:			
Elementary schools.....	\$4, 817	(¹)	35
Junior high schools.....	4, 897	-----	49
Senior high schools.....	5, 526	-----	74
100,000-500,000:			
Elementary schools.....	3, 756	5	8
Junior high schools.....	4, 023	1	16
Senior high schools.....	4, 360	1	26
30,000-100,000:			
Elementary schools.....	3, 682	4	6
Junior high schools.....	4, 069	1	12
Senior high schools.....	4, 292	1	21
10,000-30,000:			
Elementary schools.....	² 3, 437	6	4
Junior high schools.....	3, 695	4	5
Senior high schools.....	3, 954	3	11
5,000-10,000:			
Elementary schools.....	² 3, 190	11	2
Junior high schools.....	3, 436	3	2
Senior high schools.....	3, 620	5	4
2,500-5,000:			
Elementary schools.....	² 3, 118	11	1
Junior high schools.....	3, 233	8	(²)
Senior high schools.....	3, 498	3	2

¹ Less than 1 percent.

² Includes kindergartens.

Source: National Education Association. Research Bulletin, April 1953.

Teachers' salaries are considerably higher in large than in small cities. Median salaries in both elementary and junior high schools are more than \$1,660 higher for the largest than for the smallest cities; in senior high schools, over \$2,000 higher.

This report shows that three-fourths of the senior high, half the junior high, and a third of the elementary school teachers in cities over 500,000 receive salaries of \$5,000 or more. In smaller cities, such salaries are unusual except in some of the senior and junior high schools, mainly in cities of 30,000 or more population. At the other end of the pay scale, teachers who receive less than \$2,500 are chiefly

in elementary schools or in cities of less than 30,000 population. Only small proportions are paid so little, except that the proportion rises to about a tenth among teachers in elementary schools in cities of under 10,000 population.

Differences in teachers' salaries according to type of school are tending to narrow somewhat as more cities adopt the single salary schedules: that is, the same schedule throughout a city for teachers with comparable training and experience, regardless of whether teaching in elementary or high school. The median salaries in senior high schools exceed those in junior high schools by from \$184 for a group of the smaller cities to over \$600 for cities of over 500,000 population. Median salaries in junior high schools exceed those in elementary schools by from \$80 for the largest cities to over \$375 for cities of 30,000 to 100,000. In the larger cities (100,000 and over) the salaries differ more from junior to senior high school than from junior high to the elementary. On the other hand, in most midsize cities the greatest salary differences are from the elementary to the junior high school.

Earnings of Professional Nurses

A fifth of all professional women are nurses; this is the second largest professional group (after teachers). Little very recent information is available on their earnings in general. This may be largely explained by the fact that half the nurses are in hospitals or other institutions, and these with private-duty nurses constitute almost three-fourths of all women in the profession. Reports on the earnings of public health nurses (about a tenth of the total) show that their 1953 salaries range in general from \$3,000 to \$3,599 for staff nurses and \$3,800 to \$4,599 for supervising nurses. Salaries of nurse directors in nonofficial agencies (only a very small proportion of all nurses), run to nearly \$5,000. For all professional nurses throughout the country, the decennial census reports show about half earning under \$2,500 in 1949, and somewhat more than a tenth earning as much as \$3,500. For the large group of private-duty nurses, there may be considerable fluctuation in work on the job. The census data show that but little more than half of all nurses work as much as 50 weeks in the year.

Earnings of Telephone Operators

Telephone employees are another large group of white-collar workers for whom some data on earnings can be shown. Experienced switchboard operators receive an average of \$1.35 an hour, clerical workers in the same industry \$1.45 an hour, according to a special study of telephone carriers (Class A) made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in late 1952. Practically all the switchboard operators and nine-tenths of those in clerical occupations in this industry are women.

A worker earning \$1.20 an hour receives \$2,558.40 a year, if she works a full 40-hour week throughout the year. However, about 30 percent of the switchboard operators and clerical workers earned less than \$1.20 an hour. At the other end of the scale, about 15 percent of the operators and over 20 percent of the clerical workers receive \$1.70 or more, which would give about \$3,500 for the full year's work. The summary below gives further details.

HOURLY EARNINGS OF EMPLOYEES OF CLASS A TELEPHONE CARRIERS, SELECTED OCCUPATIONS, 1952

Hourly earnings	Experienced switchboard operators	Nonsupervisory		
		Clerical	Business office and sales	Building service ¹
Number of men and women reported.....	² 165, 070	108, 928	28, 885	16, 213
Women as percent of all workers..	100	93	77	52
<i>Percent distribution</i>				
Under \$1.....	5	4	1	13
\$1, under \$1.20.....	24	24	13	32
\$1.20, under \$1.40.....	31	22	22	29
\$1.40, under \$1.70.....	27	29	28	20
\$1.70, under \$2.10.....	13	16	19	6
\$2.10 and over.....	1	6	17	(³)
Average hourly earnings (men and women).....	\$1. 35	\$1. 45	\$1. 67	\$1. 27

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

² Includes only 43 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 of Factory Workers

Manufacturing industries employ a fourth of all women workers. To secure an average for the earnings of factory workers is particularly difficult because of the great variety in their occupations, the skills required, the methods of payment, working time, and local wage standards and customs. At present there is no agency that reports current or periodic data on the average earnings of all women factory production workers.

Time Worked and Methods of Pay Affect Earnings

Aside from the variety in factory occupations, the great differences in methods of pay and in working time are influences that particularly affect both factory and service workers, and that also apply to some clerical and other occupations.

If the worker is paid by the time worked, the *rate* of pay is established for a given period, often by the hour (time rate). The worker receives the rate per hour multiplied by hours worked. Individuals may work for different lengths of time rather than for the full hours scheduled by the plant for a week's work. Of course this will affect their earnings and different individuals will receive different amounts for work on the same kind of job. In fact, earnings of the same worker at the same hourly rate may vary from week to week.

Another method of fixing the rate of pay is according to the number of items processed or tasks completed (piece rate). In such cases, an employee's earnings may differ from day to day and even from hour to hour, since they are affected to a large extent by differences in the way in which the employer or the worker organizes the work, as well as by variations in the 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.

Earnings in Particular Industries

For the country as a whole, a primary source of information on the wages of factory workers is the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the United States Department of Labor. This agency makes special studies of numerous industries and reports average hourly earnings in many occupations, showing separately the earnings of women in occupations performed to any notable extent by women. The reports give the averages that workers usually receive adjusted to a straight-time basis, omitting any premium pay that may be received for overtime or nightwork. The following table shows the most recently reported hourly averages in nine industries that employ large numbers of women (in practically all these the report includes many more women than men).

The earnings shown are averages for the industry, and include a wide range of occupations in many different localities. The processes performed by women and men in the same industry usually differ, and this is one of the primary causes for the differences in the earnings of the two sexes. The data illustrate a rather widespread situation—that women workers in an industry often receive less pay than men to meet their living costs. The averages also conceal the great differences in the earnings of individual workers that may arise in piece-work occupations.

For example, men's hourly earnings discussed here average from \$1.07 to \$1.53, women's from \$0.90 to \$1.20. In 4 of the 9 industries, the average for men is higher than the maximums for women in any

of the industries. In eight of them, men's average is more than 20 cents an hour above women's, and thus at the end of a 40-hour week, men have at least \$8 more in the pay envelope than women have.

NUMBERS AND HOURLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN AND MEN IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES

Industry	Number reported		Median hourly earnings		Percent of women receiving—	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Under \$0.80	\$1.50 and over
Footwear ¹ (1953).....	100, 429	77, 408	\$1. 13	\$1. 53	11	13
Converted paper products ¹ (1953).....	71, 989	114, 279	1. 16	1. 51	3	73
Work clothing ¹ (1953).....	58, 384	7, 803	. 94	1. 15	32	3
Overalls and industrial garments.....	29, 315	4, 173	. 96	1. 17	31	4
Work pants.....	18, 185	2, 406	. 91	1. 07	37	2
Work shirts.....	7, 710	780	. 90	1. 16	32	(²)
Candy and other confectionery ¹ (1953).....	27, 146	18, 951	1. 08	1. 39	7	5
Hosiery ² (1952):						
Seamless.....	41, 348	14, 148	. 95	1. 19	25	2
Full-fashioned.....	31, 116	23, 629	1. 20	1. 85	7	17

¹ Data for footwear, paper products, work clothing, and candy were reported for from 41 to 48 States, in some cases with the District of Columbia in addition.

² Less than 1 percent.

³ Reported from 27 States and the District of Columbia.

Even in the same occupation women often receive far less than men. There are many valid explanations for this, since processes may differ markedly in a single occupation, and workers differ in experience and capabilities. However, the fact remains that to meet current living expenses women's work frequently yields less than men's in the same occupation. For example, in a skilled branch of the footwear industry—the making of men's welt shoes—women machine cutters, vampers, assemblers, and treers average at least 33 cents an hour less than men, or \$13.20 less for a 40-hour week. In the making of lighter shoes—misses' and children's cement process shoes—women vampers, assemblers, and treers average at least 43 cents an hour less than men, or \$17.20 less for a 40-hour week. For a year's work men's income would thus exceed women's in the first group of occupations by over \$685 and in the second group by almost \$900.

Earnings of Women in Laundries

Earnings of women in various occupations in laundries were reported in 1953 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 33 cities in all parts of the country. These are straight-time earnings, omitting premium pay for overtime and nightwork. 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 all or most of these six laundry occupations, women's average hourly earnings were above 90 cents in the cities on the west coast and in Chicago, Milwaukee, and in the Minneapolis, St. Paul, and New York City areas. On the other hand, in all or most of these laundry occupations, women averaged only 75 cents or less in 13 cities in the South (or southern borderline, since this includes Baltimore). Averages were below 60 cents an hour in all or most of these occupations in five of these cities.

In most cities the laundry occupation paying highest to women was either machine shirt presser or receiving clerk. Lowest-paid women in most cities were finishers operating flatwork machines, who in 12 cities had average earnings of less than 60 cents an hour. The following summary indicates the general range of pay in the chief occupations of women in power laundries.

RANGE OF HOURLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN, POWER LAUNDRIES, 33 AREAS, 1953

Occupation	Highest hourly average earnings ¹	Number of areas with hourly earnings averaging—			Lowest hourly average cents ²	
		\$1 or over	75 cents and under \$1	60 cents and under 75 cents		Under 60_cents
Clerks (retail receiving).....	\$1. 28	5	19	7	2	50
Finishers—Flatwork machine.....	1. 10	2	16	3	12	29
Identifiers ³	1. 29	4	14	7	3	51
Markers.....	1. 28	6	15	3	9	44
Pressers (shirt)—Machine.....	1. 19	11	10	5	7	47
Wrappers (bundle) ³	1. 23	3	16	3	10	41

¹ In each occupation the highest average was in San Francisco, and in most cases Portland, Oreg., paid second highest.

² In each occupation the lowest average was in Macon, Ga., or Montgomery, Ala.

³ In a few of the 33 areas this occupation was not reported.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Industry Wage Studies.

Women Benefiting From Old Age and Survivors Insurance

The old-age and survivors insurance system is an important source of income for many women 65 years of age and over who have built

up insurance credits through their own employment, and also for widows of men with insurance credits. This system is a family insurance plan under the social-security law, which is operated by the Federal Government, through a tax on employers and workers. 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. For aged persons who are not eligible for old-age and survivors insurance and who have no other resources, old-age assistance is provided under federally aided State programs.

Of over 7 million women 65 years old or over in the 1953 population, over 2 million received monthly payments under the old-age and survivors insurance system. These women were somewhat less than half of such beneficiaries. Some of them were receiving insurance built up in their own working life; others were widows or aged dependent mothers benefiting from the insurance of deceased husbands or children.

Some indication as to what old-age insurance beneficiaries receive is shown by figures for awards made during a recent 6-month period when the monthly average was almost \$45 for women and somewhat less than \$62 for men. Less than \$35 a month was received by 40 percent of the women and 15 percent of the men; \$65 or more by 15 percent of the women and 50 percent of the men.

Aside from those receiving OASI payments, almost two-thirds million women of 65 and over were working, and 1 million had husbands who were employed. About two-thirds million were receiving other types of Government insurance, as from State and local sources, the veterans' pension program, and the like. About 1½ million women having no other resources received old-age assistance from State and Federal funds (half a million fewer than those receiving OASI). Almost 2 million women of 65 and over either had no income or their income was derived from other sources such as personal funds or local relief.

By the close of 1953 the OASI program had been in effect 17 years, so that time had enabled a major proportion of the working population to build up credits under it. Amendments that went into effect in August 1950 substantially extended coverage and increased the amount of benefits. Further improvements were made in the law in later years.

Women's Contributions to Family Support

Women's earnings are a substantial asset in maintaining and advancing the standard of living in many American families. A large number of studies indicate that among women workers 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.

Most recent of many studies of the contribution of women as supplementary earners in their families is a survey by *Fortune* magazine related to 1953 incomes. This estimates women to be 15 million of the 22 million supplementary earners in 17 million families. The report credits these women with a substantial share in raising the living levels of their families.

In more than a tenth of the families in the country, women furnish half or more of the entire income, according to the only report that has been made on this phase of the subject, issued by the Census Bureau several years ago (1947).

Women as Only Earners in the Family

More than a tenth of the women workers are the only earners in their families, according to numerous special studies that afford such information. Most recent among these is a study made by the Women's Bureau of about 9,000 women workers who were members of several different union groups. The report shows that especially large proportions of the widowed and divorced are the only earners in their families, but that many single women, and some of the married also, are the sole earners in their families. The findings may be summarized briefly as follows:

<i>Marital status</i>	<i>Number reported</i>	<i>Percent sole family earner</i>	
		<i>Lowest, any union</i>	<i>Highest, any union</i>
Single women.....	3, 050	12	23
Married women.....	3, 800	3	13
Widows.....	850	30	47
Divorced women.....	1, 100	40	54

Contribution of Working Wives and Daughters

It is generally recognized that most single women who work are self-supporting. It is well known that working daughters and sisters often contribute notably to family upkeep in many ways. For example, in some families daughters help with medical or grocery bills, provide added household furnishings or facilities, or aid with education of younger sisters or brothers. In many families the contri-

bution of the employed wife is no less substantial. Of the women reported in the Fortune survey referred to, 9 million are wives, 4 million daughters, the remainder in some other relationship to their families.

A wife is more likely to enter the labor force if the income of her husband is low than if it is at a considerably higher level. A census report on income of nonfarm families shows that where the husband's wage or salary is less than \$2,000 a year (and he has no other income), more than 35 percent of the wives are at work. Where the husband earns \$3,000 or more, only 25 percent of the wives are employed, and where he earns \$5,000 or more, 21 percent or fewer of the wives are in the labor force. These figures are based on incomes in families with wives 18 to 65 years old who were employed in 1952.

Where the husband's income is low the working wife's earnings also are low. In fact, the wife's median income tends to be about half that of the husband's. However, the wife's income is a substantial aid to the entire family budget, and the family's median is raised well over a fourth by her earnings, according to this report.

Women With Dependents

Another way of approaching the financial responsibilities of women is to inquire how many are supporting dependents. It happens that women's share in family support is often given in ways which make it difficult to measure the extent of their responsibility for 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 of the employed women consider themselves in some degree responsible for the support of dependents.

A few of the examples of such reports include the following. A comprehensive study of nurses showed 30 percent responsible for dependents. A study of women school teachers in cities throughout the country indicated that over half had dependents. Various studies of women workers in wartime showed a third to half with dependents. In a number of States unemployed women receive additional payments when they have dependents, and reports show that considerable proportions of the women receiving compensation during unemployment proved their responsibility for the support of dependents. For further details on this subject, see Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 239. *Women Workers and Their Dependents.*

Working Women's Budgets

In connection with women's earnings, account must also be taken of the necessary expenses that enter into their budgets. Estimates for the budget requirements of self-supporting women have been prepared by various State labor departments, primarily for use in the administration of State minimum-wage laws. These estimates are based originally on field surveys that priced the necessities of living at a given time, and are kept up to date, either by a complete re-pricing or by using current cost-of-living indexes. Budgets for the States listed below are available through the Women's Bureau. The commodity and service specifications and other pertinent facts about budgets of the various States are contained in Women's Bureau Bulletin 226, *Working Women's Budgets in Thirteen States*.

All but two of the budgets set a minimum-adequate standard of living for a self-supporting woman without dependents; two, Maine and Massachusetts, consider the needs of self-supporting persons of either sex. The budgets include board and lodging, clothing and its upkeep, personal care, medical care, transportation, recreation (including vacation), reading material, educational and other miscellaneous expenses; with one exception, Massachusetts, they also make allowances for taxes, insurance, and savings. In most budgets, the cost of food and housing is based on average prices for a furnished room and three restaurant meals a day. Variations in the amounts budgeted reflect differences not only in living arrangements (as in furnished room, boardinghouse, or family group), but also in quantity and quality of commodities and other services allowed. Because of differences in content and in the dates for which prices were collected, budget figures for the several States are not comparable.

<i>State</i>	<i>Total budget</i>	<i>Date</i>
Arizona	\$2, 312	1954 (Feb.).
California	2, 004	1950 (Oct.).
Colorado	1, 813	1949 (Jan.).
Connecticut	1, 867	1949 (Mar.).
District of Columbia	2, 209	1953 (May).
Kentucky	1, 992	1949 (Feb.).
Maine	2, 236	1950 (Dec.).
Massachusetts	¹ 1, 723	1954 (Feb.).
New Jersey	2, 492	1950 (Oct.).
New York	2, 442	1952 (Sept.).
New York City	2, 521	1953 (Sept.).
Pennsylvania	2, 121	1949 (Nov.).
Utah	2, 230	1950 (Oct.).
Washington	2, 664	1952 (May).

¹ A commodity and service budget only; no provision made for taxes or savings. Federal income and social security taxes would amount to \$209 and \$34.46 respectively, which would bring the budget to \$1,966.53 without savings.

3

WOMEN'S EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Education Completed by Women

Of the women in the population 25 years of age and over, half have completed more and half have completed less than 10.4 years in school, according to Bureau of the Census reports for 1952. Forty-five percent of all women 25 and over have attended high school but not college; 13 percent have had some college education, including 6 percent who have completed 4 or more years of college. Women are about half of all persons with some college education, almost 45 percent of those who have had 4 or more college years.

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

YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED, 1952

[Women and men 25 years of age or older]

	Women	Men
Median years of school completed.....	10.4	9.7
<i>Percent distribution</i>		
Total.....	100	100
No high school.....	41	45
High school only.....	45	37
Less than 4 years.....	18	17
4 years or more.....	27	21
College.....	13	15
Less than 4 years.....	8	7
4 years or more.....	6	8
No report.....	1	2

Enrollment in Schools and Colleges

Among young women and girls 5 to 24 years of age, not far from two-thirds are enrolled in schools and colleges, according to census reports. However, 95 percent of those in age groups 6 years but under 18 are in school, and only small proportions of the 5-year-olds and of those 20 and over are attending. These figures are for regular schools only, and do 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 has increased slightly in the past 3 years. In the male population the proportion in school is higher than among women and girls, and has increased more than with women and girls.

SCHOOL ENROLLMENT¹ OF POPULATION UNDER 25 YEARS OF AGE

Age (years)	<i>Girls in school</i>				
	Number, 1953-54	Percent of female population		Percent of male pop- ulation in school	
		1953-54	1950-51	1953-54	1950-51
Total.....	15,702,000	64	61	73	67
5.....	265,000	15	22	14	19
6, under 18.....	14,553,000	95	93	95	94
18 and 19.....	538,000	26	24	38	35
20, under 25.....	346,000	6	5	19	14

¹ Includes both public and private elementary schools (but not kindergartens), high schools, and colleges; enrollment as of October 1953 and 1950.

Types of Schools in Which Students Enrolled

By far the largest proportion of the students are in elementary schools (including kindergartens) as the following summary shows.

TYPE OF SCHOOL ATTENDED BY STUDENTS 5 TO 24 YEARS OF AGE, OCTOBER 1953

	GIRLS AND WOMEN	
	Number	Percent distrib- ution
All types.....	15,702,000	100
Elementary school.....	11,314,000	72
High school.....	3,612,000	23
College, professional school.....	776,000	5
BOYS AND MEN		
All types.....	16,560,000	100
Elementary school.....	11,835,000	71
High school.....	3,627,000	22
College, professional school.....	1,098,000	7

Girls and young women constitute almost half the elementary and high-school students, and two-thirds of the high-school graduates. In the colleges, on the other hand, young men predominate much more markedly, according to census figures for the 1953-54 school year.

Women Earning Degrees

Almost 125,000 women were graduated from institutions of higher education in 1953, according to figures of the United States Office of Education. Over 80 percent of these received the bachelor's or first professional degree. Women are a third of all recipients of the bachelor's and master's degrees and a tenth of those granted the doctoral degree.

The proportion of degree recipients who are women has increased markedly in the past few years, as the following summary shows. The increased number of women receiving master's or second professional degrees has been especially striking—almost a fifth greater in 1953 than 3 years earlier. Among causes of this may be development of greater incentives to women to improve their qualifications for jobs or their cultural equipment for living. Moreover, the decreased number of men with veterans' training rights may enable more women to take advantage of facilities for higher education. The number of women receiving the doctor's degree also increased by nearly a fourth, though they remain only 1 percent of all degrees taken by women in the year.

COLLEGE AND PROFESSIONAL DEGREES EARNED BY WOMEN

Degree	1952-53			1949-50		
	Number of women	Percent of total degree recipients	Percent distribution	Number of women	Percent of total degree recipients	Percent distribution
All degrees.....	124, 863	33	100	121, 540	24	100
Bachelor's and first professional.....	104, 037	34	83	103, 915	24	85
Master's and second professional.....	20, 034	33	16	16, 982	29	14
Doctor's.....	792	10	1	643	10	1

Source: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. Statistical Circulars No. 380a and No. 282.

Subjects in Which Degrees Were Earned

A third of the bachelor's degrees granted to women are in the field of education, another third in humanities, arts, and social sciences, according to a special study made by the National Science Foundation and reported in 1954. The concentration in these subjects is even

greater in the master's degrees, over half being in education, almost three-fourths in education plus the humanities, arts, and social sciences. Education is the one specific field where the proportion of women receiving the master's degree is larger than the proportion receiving the bachelor's degree. This indicates that many teachers whose first degree was in a subject field obtained a second degree in education. The marked growth in proportion of master's degrees in education also reflects the usual practice of teachers to keep currently abreast of the skills and developments in their profession and meet the requirements for advancement. In the smaller and more specialized fields (all other) also, the percentage of women receiving the master's degree was larger than the percentage who received the bachelor's degree. The list that follows gives some basis for further interesting analyses as to additional fields.

SUBJECTS IN WHICH DEGREES WERE EARNED

	<i>Percent distribution of—</i>	
	<i>Bachelor's</i>	<i>Master's</i>
WOMEN		
Total.....	100	100
Education.....	34	52
Humanities, arts.....	20	14
Social sciences.....	11	5
Applied biological fields.....	8	4
Natural sciences.....	7	5
Business, commerce.....	6	2
Health fields.....	4	3
All other.....	10	15
MEN		
Total.....	100	100
Business, commerce.....	19	9
Engineering sciences.....	15	10
Social sciences.....	12	8
Education.....	11	33
Natural sciences.....	11	14
Humanities, arts.....	8	11
Health fields.....	6	1
Applied biological fields.....	4	3
All other.....	14	11

Source: National Science Foundation. Scientific Manpower Bulletin, Mar. 1, 1954. Based on questionnaires sent every third recipient of bachelor's and every fifth recipient of master's degrees in over 1,000 colleges and universities, in June 1951.

The chief subjects for men differed from those for women, and men were not concentrated in 2 or 3 fields to such a large extent as women. A fifth of the men with bachelor's degrees were in business or com-

merce, the second largest field being engineering sciences (represented by less than 1 percent among the women's degrees), and the third, social sciences. A tenth each were in natural sciences and education. Among men, a larger proportion of the master's than of the bachelor's degrees were in education, and also in natural sciences and in the humanities and arts.

In the next year after receiving a bachelor's degree, the men professionally employed had a median income \$1,000 above that of the women. A part of the explanation for this lies in the fact that very few women took degrees in the field of men's highest earnings, which attracted considerable proportions of the men—engineering sciences—and only small proportions of women were in the two fields of women's highest earnings—health and natural sciences. Moreover, in social sciences and the humanities, in which a third of the women's and a fifth of the men's degrees were taken, men's median earnings were respectively \$800 and \$600 above women's.

MEDIAN ANNUAL INCOME OF EMPLOYED GRADUATES BY AREA OF SPECIALIZATION
(In first year after receiving degree)

	<i>Women with—</i>		<i>Men with—</i>	
	<i>Bachelor's degree</i>	<i>Master's degree</i>	<i>Bachelor's degree</i>	<i>Master's degree</i>
All areas.....	\$2, 700	\$3, 700	\$3, 700	\$4, 200
Education.....	2, 800	3, 900	3, 200	3, 900
Humanities, arts.....	2, 600	3, 300	3, 200	3, 600
Social sciences.....	2, 600	(¹)	3, 400	3, 900
Applied biological fields.....	2, 700	(¹)	3, 600	(¹)
Natural sciences.....	2, 900	(¹)	3, 700	4, 600
Business, commerce.....	2, 700	(¹)	3, 700	4, 500
Health fields.....	3, 100	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)
Engineering sciences.....	(¹)	(¹)	4, 400	5, 400

¹ Too few cases reported to show median.

Source: National Science Foundation. Scientific Manpower Bulletin, March 1954. Income in 1952 of employed recipients of degrees in 1951.

While the bachelor's degree thus was considerably less productive for women than for men, the advance after receiving a master's degree was greater for women—\$1,000 for women but only \$500 for men. In education, men with the bachelor's degree received \$400 more than women, but the median for those with the master's degree was the same for both sexes. In the important major fields for men—engineering sciences, natural sciences, and business and commerce—not only did men with the bachelor's degree have higher median incomes than in other fields, but increases after receiving a master's degree were greater than in other fields.

The median income of all women with the master's degree was the same as that of men with the bachelor's degree, while men with mas-

ter's degrees had a median \$500 higher. In the two fields in which largest proportions of women's degrees were granted—education and humanities and arts—their median increased with the master's degree by \$1,000 and \$700 respectively, increases considerably greater than for men.

Women in Federal Vocational Courses

Almost 1½ million women and girls were enrolled in federally aided vocational courses in 1952-53, according to provisional figures of the Office of Education, as shown in the summary following. This does not include persons in agricultural courses, for which data on women are not available.

WOMEN AND GIRLS IN FEDERALLY AIDED VOCATIONAL TRAINING, FISCAL YEAR 1952-53¹

	<i>All women and girls</i>			<i>Women and girls in part-time and evening classes</i>	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent of all students</i>	<i>Percent distribution</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent of all women</i>
Three programs.....	1, 491, 921	64	100	700, 310	47
Home economics.....	1, 277, 609	96	86	520, 177	41
Distributive.....	112, 385	54	7	112, 385	100
Trade and industrial:					
Trades and industries...	86, 089	13	6	51, 910	60
General continuation....	15, 838	54	1	15, 838	100

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

Source: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Division of Vocational Education.

The vocational training includes education in trade and industrial, home economic, and distributive occupations. 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).

The great importance of this training program 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. It will be seen from the summary that the great majority of the women and girls benefiting from federally aided vocational training are in

WOMEN ENROLLED IN TRADES AND INDUSTRIES CLASSES, YEAR ENDED JUNE 30,
1953

	<i>Enrollment of women</i>	
	<i>Total</i>	<i>All-day classes</i>
Total.....	186,089	34,179
Personal service trades.....	33,770	14,630
Nursing:		
Practical.....	19,351	5,972
Other.....	1,350	100
Cosmetology.....	9,215	7,594
Household service.....	2,246	394
Janitor service.....	560	-----
Dental assistants.....	503	286
Garment and textile trades.....	24,550	13,053
Dressmaking.....	12,177	8,660
Power sewing-machine operation.....	7,019	2,447
Tailoring.....	1,562	743
Textiles.....	884	9
Millinery.....	842	407
Food trades.....	10,896	2,352
Food handler.....	4,514	-----
Waitress.....	2,171	169
Cooking.....	1,647	875
Food service.....	1,444	845
Baker, cake decorator.....	673	150
Aircraft manufacturing and maintenance trades.....	2,497	1,161
Airplane assembly and riveting.....	1,319	1,067
Printing and publishing trades.....	2,559	1,597
Commercial artist.....	1,842	1,232
Electrical trades.....	2,094	353
Telegraphy and telephony.....	1,126	124
Metal trades.....	1,214	266
Machine shop.....	511	87
Mechanical service and hand trades.....	472	154
Building and construction trades.....	377	34
Miscellaneous trades.....	7,660	579
Handicrafts for independent wage earning.....	2,827	48
Foreman, supervisor.....	1,458	-----
Drafting.....	726	112
Transportation.....	650	-----

¹ In all subheads, total exceeds details, as details are shown only for courses enrolling 500 or more women.

Source: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Division of Vocational Education. Federally aided classes in which women were enrolled, excluding enrollments in general continuation classes.

home-economics classes, a field for which the demand runs far above the supply of workers. 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 are in courses for distributive occupations, a branch of work added by the act of 1946. Women and girls are over half the students in these courses, which deal with buying and selling trades and merchandising activities.

In agricultural classes the numbers of women are not recorded separately, but they are thought to be only a very small proportion, probably about 1 to 2 percent. However, in some short-unit intensive courses, especially those on certain subjects, for example, horticulture or poultry raising, the proportions may be higher.

Trades and industries classes enrolled over 85,000 women. This training has a vitally important place in preparing some of the women who are so much needed in this country's production and development programs. For example, large groups are learning practical nursing, power sewing-machine operation, food handling, airplane assembly, dressmaking, work as waitress, and numerous other skills much in demand. The chief types of courses taken are shown in the list that follows.

Of all women in these courses, about 40 percent are learning operations in garment, textile, or food trades, another 40 percent in personal services. In these fields, smaller groups of women not shown in the list below are training in laundry work, upholstery, interior decorating, and as assistants to doctors. Among small groups not shown in other fields are women taking courses on printing, radio operation and repair, sheet metal and welding and flame cutting, shoemaking and repair.

About 60 percent of the women and girls in trades and industries courses are enrolled in part-time or evening classes, as are about 40 percent of those in home economics courses. 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 United States Department of Labor.

Women Aided by Vocational Rehabilitation Programs

Under Federal and State vocational rehabilitation programs, 22,044 women were given service in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1953. Women were 36 percent of the total number of persons thus aided in this period. A major objective of these programs is to assure gainful employment to persons otherwise unable to work because of disability, injury, or disease. Besides training and job placement based on individual requirements, the programs include medical or physical treatment and also furnish equipment where needed by the individual, such as hearing aids, braces, and the like. According to reports prepared by the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, the number of women aided in 1953 represented an increase of about 6 percent over 1951.

4

STANDARDS FOR EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

Need for Standards for Women Workers

Great changes in women's work have been developing for about a century and a half. These result primarily from the transfer of industry from the home to the factory, but other influences have contributed. Two world wars have speeded up the process. Women have become an important part of the Nation's labor force. In large and gradually increasing numbers they are employed either in manufacturing goods or performing services for the public—working in factories, offices, schools, stores, hospitals, hotels, restaurants, and laundries. Many thousands of women also are employed by the Federal, State, and local governments; other thousands work in private households.

The Nation's best interests demand good labor standards for women, many of whom are mothers and homemakers as well as wage earners. In many instances, employers have established high standards of employment. In other cases, adequate standards have been adopted through collective bargaining between employers and trade unions. But when standards depend wholly on voluntary action, they often do not apply to all workers in an industry; and they may vary in adequacy from firm to firm. For this reason the States quite generally have set up standards for women's employment, governing wages, hours, and other conditions of work in a large number of occupations and industries.

Development of Standards

Labor standards are not stationary but are influenced by continuously changing conditions. They change as a result of advancing scientific knowledge and as a result of growing recognition by both workers and employers of the importance of good working conditions.

Minimum-wage standards have been 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 provides a basis for regulating the use of industrial materials or processes that endanger the health of workers.

Labor standards are developed through many channels—employers, unions, governmental and private agencies. The enactment in many States of laws establishing adequate standards governing wages, hours, and working conditions for women often has stimulated the adoption by employers of better standards for men also.

Outlined in the following pages are basic recommended standards to safeguard health and efficiency of women employees. These apply mainly to industrial and office workers. They do not attempt to deal with details, but indicate the direction in which good standards should move.

In matters such as training, seniority, and promotion women workers often are in a particularly vulnerable situation which requires special attention. These ordinarily are not governed by law, and fair adjustments require methods other than legislation. Women frequently are hired for beginning jobs on an equal basis with men but do not get equal consideration for promotion. Frequently they do not have the same training opportunities, and even if trained, are not given a chance at better jobs. The opportunity to secure an equal rate of pay or equal seniority in their jobs is sometimes lacking.

Wage Standards

Adequate basic wages serve to sustain the Nation's economic stability by maintaining a secure and healthy level of living for individual workers. 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. Since earnings determine standards of living, workers should be assured a minimum wage adequate to meet the cost of living. To be adequate the wage should continue throughout the year, since standard of living depends not merely on the adequacy of the wage rate but also on regularity of earnings. Wage standards should include the following:

1. The principle of "equal pay": Wage rate based on the job, and not on the sex of the worker, nor on other factors not related to ability to perform the job.
2. A comprehensive minimum-wage system established through legislation and geared to living costs.
3. Provision that protective clothing, other safety equipment, and uniforms be furnished and maintained by the employer as part of the cost of production.
4. Wage-payment laws requiring regular payment of wages in full, on a weekly or semimonthly basis, and on a fixed day, with provision for the appropriate Government agency to help collect unpaid wages.

Hours and Leave Standards

Standards which provide workers with adequate rest for health and welfare, and time for other responsibilities and for leisure, are important to both workers and employers. Experience has shown that maximum production can be maintained over a prolonged period only under working conditions that sustain the health and efficiency of the workers and strengthen their morale. The 5-day, 40-hour work-week, which allows employees sufficient time for rest, for educational and recreational activities, and for civic and home responsibilities, is a growing practice in many industries.

Hours and leave standards should include:

1. Not more than 8 hours of work a day, and not more than 48 a week; worktime 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 to 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 legal holidays.

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

Health and Safety Standards

Standards adequate to insure safe and healthful working conditions 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, to be convenient and available to all workers; lunchrooms with nourishing food at reasonable prices to be provided where the size of the plant makes it practicable; facilities to 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; workers to be free to use them 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 Homework

Efforts to abolish industrial homework, 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 homework exists is recommended until prohibitory laws can be passed.

5

STATE LABOR LAWS FOR WOMEN

as of April 1, 1954

Basic Standards

Each of the 48 States, the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico has on its statute books laws establishing standards for the employment of women. Principal subjects of regulation are (1) wages, including minimum wages and equal pay; (2) hours of work, including maximum daily and weekly hours, day of rest, meal and rest periods, and night work; (3) industrial homework; (4) certain hazardous or unhealthful types or conditions of employment; (5) plant facilities; and (6) employment before and after childbirth. 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.

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 establish. Highest State standards in effect April 1, 1954, in one or more industries in the major fields of minimum wage, equal pay, and hours of work and in miscellaneous other fields are shown in the following pages; standards in effect for wages and hours of household employees are also shown. More detailed information on State minimum-wage and hours legislation is available in two other Women's Bureau publications: Bulletin 247, State Minimum-Wage Laws and Orders, and Bulletin 250, State Hour Laws for Women.

Minimum Wage

Minimum-wage legislation is on the statute books in 26 States, District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico. Most of the laws are applicable to women workers in all occupations or industries except agriculture and domestic service. The Maine law, however, applies only to fish packing.

Originally, State minimum-wage legislation was designed for the protection of women and minors and did much to raise the extremely inadequate wages in both the manufacturing and the trade and service occupations. The first State minimum-wage law for women was enacted by Massachusetts in 1912. In the decade that preceded and

followed World War I, laws were enacted in approximately 14 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico. In the succeeding decade, a decision of the United States Supreme Court holding unconstitutional the District of Columbia law (*Adkins* case, 1923) temporarily interrupted the advance of new legislation. However, a number of States continued to administer existing laws. In the depression of the 1930's, stimulated by the force of public opinion, 12 more States enacted laws. The United States Supreme Court upheld the constitutionality of the Washington State law (*Parrish* case) in 1937, expressly reversing its prior decision on the District of Columbia law.

In 1941, Hawaii enacted a law and Puerto Rico a second law, applicable to all persons, in which provision was made for setting minimum-wage rates by wage-board procedure. Since 1941, existing laws have been extended and considerably strengthened in many States.

Methods of establishing minimum wages differ. In some States, minimum wages are fixed in the statute itself; in others they are established by minimum-wage orders issued by the State labor commissioner; and in others by both statutory rate and wage order. In most of the 26 States and in the District of Columbia, minimum wages are not in effect until wage orders are issued in an individual industry or occupation by the commissioner of labor. However, in nine jurisdictions, rates are set by statute or by statute and wage order.

In seven jurisdictions—Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, Rhode Island, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico—minimum-wage laws are applicable to adult males as well as to women and minors.

Arizona.	North Dakota.
*Arkansas (females).	Ohio.
California.	Oklahoma (adult women).
Colorado.	Oregon.
**Connecticut (all persons).	Pennsylvania.
District of Columbia.	Rhode Island (women; minors; men).
Illinois.	*South Dakota (women and girls).
Kansas.	Utah.
Kentucky.	Washington.
Louisiana (women and girls).	Wisconsin.
Maine.	
**Massachusetts (any person).	
Minnesota.	*Alaska (women).
*Nevada (women and girls).	*Hawaii (men; women; minors).
**New Hampshire (any employee).	**Puerto Rico:
New Jersey.	(1) (women and girls).
New York (women; minors; men).	(2) (any person).

Note: Unless otherwise specified law applies to women and minors.

* Statutory rates established in original laws.

** State wage-board laws amended to include statutory rates. Puerto Rico has two laws; one provides for establishment of minimum wages by statute and another sets rates by wage-board procedure.

The Federal Fair Labor Standards Act, originally enacted in 1938, gives the majority of workers in manufacturing and other interstate industries broad Federal protection. However, local trade and service industries in which large numbers of women are employed are not covered by the Federal Act. Wage orders issued under the State laws apply largely to workers in the intrastate industries, although some States also continue to set minimum wages for manufacturing.

Equal Pay

Laws applicable to private employment which establish the equal-pay principle—i. e., a wage rate based on the job and not on the sex of the worker—are in effect in 13 States and 1 Territory:

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

These 13 States account for almost half of all employed women in the United States. The Montana equal-pay law has the most complete employee coverage; it applies to public as well as to private employment. In all but two of the other States, the laws apply to most types of private employment; those of Illinois and Michigan are applicable only to manufacturing.

Establishment of equal pay for women helps to safeguard wage levels of all workers and to sustain consumer purchasing power. Public attention was first sharply focused on equal pay for women during World War I when large numbers of women were employed in emergency war industries on the same jobs as men, and the National War Labor Board enforced the policy of "no wage discrimination against women on the grounds of sex." In 1919, two States—Michigan and Montana—enacted equal-pay laws.

Greater gains came during World War II when additional large numbers of women entered the labor force, many of them in jobs previously held by men. Government agencies, employers, unions, women's organizations, and the general public were concerned with the removal of wage differentials as a means of furthering the war effort. During the period 1943–45, equal-pay legislation was enacted in four States—Illinois, Massachusetts, New York, and Washington; and in the 4 years following, in six more States—California, Connecticut, Maine, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island. Alaska in 1949 became the first Territory to take such action. New Jersey enacted its equal-pay law in 1952.

Hours of Work

Today 45 States, the District of Columbia, Alaska, and Puerto Rico have laws regulating the hours of employment of women. Such State legislation includes laws establishing maximum daily and weekly hours and governing day of rest, meal and rest periods, and nightwork.

Maximum Daily and Weekly Hours

Maximum hour laws were the first standards to be adopted regulating women's employment. As early as 1852, Ohio adopted a 10-hour law for women, but the first enforceable law was adopted by Massachusetts in 1879. The constitutionality of maximum hours for women was established in 1908 by a United States Supreme Court decision upholding the Oregon 10-hour law (*Müller* case).

Today 43 States, the District of Columbia, and Alaska have laws setting a legal limit to 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, have set maximums of 8 hours a day and/or 48 hours a week or less:¹

Arizona	8-48	New Mexico.....	8-48
Arkansas ¹	8	New York.....	8-48
California	8-48	North Carolina.....	9-48
Colorado	8-(²)	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 ³	8	Washington	8
Nevada	8-48	Wyoming.....	8-48
New Hampshire.....	10-48		

¹ Statute provides that no female may be employed for more than 8 hours a day in described occupations but provides also that 9 hours may be worked if overtime compensation is paid at 1½ times the employee's regular rate. For overtime of a permanent nature beyond 9 hours a day, a permit must be obtained from the commissioner of labor, in addition to the payment of overtime rates.

² Day-of-rest law provides, in effect, for a 48-hour week.

³ Various statutory provisions also require that 8 hours shall constitute a day's work for persons (men and women) employed in specified industries and occupations, including retail stores, restaurants, and others. Some provide also that 48 hours shall constitute a week's work.

¹ If a State has set different legal maximum hour standards for different industries, the law establishing the highest standards, i. e., the lowest maximum hours, is shown.

Nine States have set a maximum 9-hour day for women; all but Idaho have a weekly maximum of 50 or 54 hours:

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		

Nine States have set a maximum day of 10 hours and a week of from 50 to 60 hours:

Delaware	10-55	New Jersey	10-54
Georgia (men and women)	10-60	South Carolina (men and women) ¹	10-55
Kentucky	10-60	South Dakota	10-54
Maryland	10-60	Tennessee	10-50
Mississippi	10-60		

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 establish a 6-day week for women in some or all the industries; in 7 of these, both men and women are covered:

Arizona.	Kansas.	North Dakota.
Arkansas.	Louisiana.	Ohio.
*California.	*Massachusetts.	Oregon.
Colorado.	Nevada.	Pennsylvania.
*Connecticut.	*New Hampshire.	South Carolina.
Delaware.	New Jersey.	Utah.
District of Columbia.	*New York.	*Wisconsin.
*Illinois.	North Carolina.	

* Covers both men and women.

In addition, Puerto Rico has a law which provides for a day of rest but permits work during such day on payment of double the employee's regular rate. Also, Rhode Island has a law, enforced by the Department of Labor, prohibiting employment on Sundays and holidays except to perform work absolutely necessary. Kentucky has a law requiring payment of time and one-half for work on the 7th consecutive day. Other State Sunday or blue laws do not regulate employment and, therefore, are not noted.

Meal Periods

Over half the States (27), and the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico have provided that meal periods varying from $\frac{1}{3}$ to 1 hour must be allowed to women in some or all industries; in 4, both men and women are covered:

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

* Covers both men and women.

Rest Periods

Rest periods are provided for in eight States. Two—Nevada and Wyoming—provide rest periods for a variety of industries by statute, and 6—Arizona, California, Colorado, Oregon, Utah, and Washington—provide rest periods for one or more industries by minimum-wage order. Most provisions are for a 10-minute rest period within the half-day's work.

Nightwork

Nineteen States and Puerto Rico place some limitation on the hours adult women may be employed at night. Four other States and the District of Columbia limit nightwork of persons 18 to 21 only.² Although there is considerable variation in the hours covered by nightwork restrictions, the period between midnight and 6 a. m. is almost always covered.

In 12 States and Puerto Rico nightwork for adult women is prohibited in certain industries or occupations. In North Dakota and Washington the prohibition applies only to elevator operators.

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

² In District of Columbia, Arizona, and Rhode Island, nightwork is prohibited for persons under 21 in messenger service; in Virginia, for girls under 21. Ohio prohibits nightwork in a number of establishments for girls under 21, but an emergency relaxation measure suspends nightwork prohibitions until Sept. 1, 1955, except for those under 18.

In 7 additional States not having prohibitory provisions (as well as in several States already listed), the employment of adult women at night is regulated either by maximum-hour provisions or by the establishment of specific working-conditions standards.

California.	New Mexico.	Utah.
Maryland.	Oregon.	
New Hampshire.	Pennsylvania.	

Other Labor Legislation

Weight Lifting

Ten States and Alaska have some regulation regarding the lifting or carrying of heavy weights by women :

California.	Minnesota (core rooms only).	Oregon.
M a r y l a n d (foundries only).	New York (core rooms only).	Utah.
Massachusetts.		Washington.
Michigan.	Ohio.	Alaska.

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

Occupations to which most of the prohibitory laws for adult women apply are mining and work in establishments serving liquor. Of 24 States having such laws, 17 prohibit women's employment in mines (several permit clerical work in mines, some permit work in quarries or smelters). Nine prohibit³ mixing, selling, or dispensing alcoholic liquors for on-premises consumption. Eight States have legislation prohibiting other employment considered hazardous or injurious to health and safety. (List does not include safety laws and codes regulating various aspects of working conditions and applicable to both sexes.)

<i>Mines</i>	<i>Barrooms</i>	<i>Other places and occupations</i>
Alabama.	California.	Colorado—Coke ovens.
Arizona.	Connecticut.	Louisiana—Cleaning moving machinery.
Arkansas.	Illinois.	Michigan—Operating polishing wheels,
Colorado.	Indiana.	belts. ¹

¹ Attorney General opinions differ as to whether or not Michigan law applies only to employment underground.

³ Illinois State law authorizes city and county governments to prohibit.

<i>Mines—Con.</i>	<i>Barrooms—Con.</i>	<i>Other places and occupations—Con.</i>
Illinois.	Kentucky.	Minnesota—
Indiana.	Michigan.	Core rooms.
Maryland.	Ohio.	Cleaning moving machinery.
Missouri	Pennsylvania.	Missouri—Cleaning or working between moving machinery.
New York.	Rhode Island.	New York—Coremaking, or in connection with coremaking, in a room in which the oven is also in operation.
Ohio.		Ohio—Other prohibitions include: Baggage handling, freight handling and trucking of any kind; bellhop; in blast furnaces; pinsetter in bowling alleys; crossing watchman; delivery service; express or jitney driver; meterreader (gas or electric); metal molder; operating freight or baggage elevators; in poolrooms; section hand; in shoe shining parlor; as taxi driver; ² operating wheels, belts.
Oklahoma.		Pennsylvania—Dangerous or injurious occupations.
Pennsylvania		
Utah.		
Virginia.		
Washington.		
Wisconsin.		
Wyoming.		

² Until Sept. 1, 1955, an emergency relaxation measure in Ohio permits taxi driving except between 9 p. m. and 6 a. m.

Industrial Homework

Twenty States and Puerto Rico have industrial homework 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 Puerto Rico have laws prohibiting the employment of women immediately before and after childbirth. State provisions are limited to prohibiting employment. Puerto Rico, in addition, requires the employer to pay to the working mother during an 8-week period one-half of her regular salary or wage and provides for job

security during the required absence. List shows periods during which women may not be employed.

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.....	

¹ In minimum-wage and welfare orders for manufacturing, food processing industry, and fresh fruit and vegetable packing industry; prohibition may be waived by special permit.

² In order for laundry, dry-cleaning and dyeworks industry.

Rhode Island's Temporary Disability Insurance Act expressly provides that employed women who are pregnant are entitled to cash benefits for 6 weeks before and 6 weeks after childbirth.

Laws Affecting Household Employees

Household employment in private homes is one of the major occupations for women. It employs about a tenth of all women workers, and is an occupation in which practically all the workers are women. On the whole, legislation has tended to exclude this group. However, a major gain was made in recent years through amendment of the Federal Old Age and Survivors Insurance provisions of the Social Security Act to cover a large proportion of household workers. The following material shows the limited extent of minimum-wage and maximum-hour legislation for this large group of women workers.

Minimum-Wage Laws

Only Wisconsin and Alaska have minimum-wage rates applicable to domestic workers. A 1947 Wisconsin minimum-wage order for domestic service establishes weekly minimum-wage rates for women and minors working 45 hours or more per week, according to size of community and whether or not board only, or board and lodging, are furnished; it sets hourly part-time rates. The Alaska minimum-wage law sets a statutory weekly rate for a 6-day, 48-hour workweek and a minimum hourly rate for part-time work.

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, on-call time being included as employed time. Washington's law covers both males and females.

6

POLITICAL AND CIVIL STATUS OF WOMEN

as of January 1, 1953

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.

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.

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.

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

Civil service positions.—Appointive positions in both Federal and State civil service are open generally to qualified women. Appointing agencies for the Federal Government may designate whether men or women employees are preferred when requesting a list of eligibles

from the Civil Service Commission. Some States by statute specify the sex of appointees for certain positions, such as superintendents, wardens, matrons, or attendants in institutions.

Courts—Jury service.—Women are eligible by law to serve on juries in 43 States, the District of Columbia, and all Territories. There are only five States remaining in which women cannot serve on juries—Alabama, Mississippi, South Carolina, Texas, and West Virginia. Georgia enacted a jury-service law for women in 1953, and Texas adopted a resolution providing for a jury-service referendum to be held in November 1954. The last two Territories which barred women from juries, Puerto Rico and Hawaii, removed the ban in 1952.

There are two types of jury-service legislation: Compulsory, which requires jury duty from all qualified persons, subject to grounds for exemption or release by the presiding judge; and voluntary, or optional service laws, which permit a woman to be excused solely on the basis of sex. Twenty-three States and 2 Territories have compulsory-type laws¹ and 20 States, the District of Columbia and 3 Territories have voluntary-type laws.²

Domicile

Private domicile of a married woman generally depends on that of her husband. The rule is that when the interests of husband and wife are hostile and result in dissolution of the marriage, an aggrieved wife may establish a separate domicile. Separate existence, interests, and rights are recognized in these cases.

Public domicile.—Most States limit husband and wife to the same marital domicile during marriage for voting, jury service, and holding of public office. However, at least 12 States³ permit a married woman to establish a separate domicile for voting; five⁴ permit separate domicile for eligibility to public office; and three⁵ recognize separate *domicile for personal property tax* obligation.

Civil Status—Family Relations

Marriage

The marriage laws of the various States generally do not distinguish between the sexes, except in establishing minimum ages.

¹ Arizona, California, Canal Zone, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Hawaii, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, Montana, Nebraska, New Jersey, New Mexico, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Vermont, Wyoming.

² Alaska, Arkansas, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri, Nevada, New Hampshire, New York, North Dakota, Puerto Rico, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Utah, Virgin Islands, Virginia, Washington, Wisconsin.

³ California, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Wisconsin.

⁴ Maine, Michigan, Nevada, New Jersey, New York.

⁵ Nevada, New Jersey, Virginia.

Most States set a lower age for women. The same minimum age applies to both sexes in 6 States⁶ when parental consent is required and in 16 States⁷ when parental consent is not required. A premarital health examination is required for both applicants for a marriage license in 35 States;⁸ two States (Louisiana and Texas) require such examination for men only.

Divorce

All States permit either husband or wife to secure a divorce on at least one ground. The grounds are generally the same for either husband or wife, although some States recognize nonsupport as a ground for granting the wife a decree. The most usual grounds for divorce in State laws are adultery, desertion, cruelty, alcoholism, impotency, felony conviction, insanity, and neglect to provide. Other grounds which appear frequently in State laws are drug addiction, pregnancy at marriage, imprisonment, violence against the other party, and commission of an infamous crime.

All States give the court discretionary power to grant alimony to the wife on divorce because of the fault of the husband, and in addition 11 States⁹ authorize the court to grant a husband alimony when the need is established and the wife is at fault.

Parent and Child

Thirty-four States¹⁰ give both parents the same rights of natural guardianship. Fourteen States¹¹ 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 a minor child. The best interests of the child guide the court's disposition of his custody.

Seven States¹² and the District of Columbia by statute prefer the father when a guardian of property is to be appointed for his child.

⁶ Connecticut, Idaho, Missouri, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Tennessee.

⁷ Connecticut, Florida, Idaho, Kentucky, Louisiana, Montana, Nebraska, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Virginia, West Virginia, Wyoming.

⁸ Alabama, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin, Wyoming.

⁹ California, Illinois, Iowa, Maine, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, Utah, Vermont.

¹⁰ Arizona, Arkansas, California, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin.

¹¹ Alabama, Colorado, Georgia, Iowa, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New York, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Vermont, Virginia, Wyoming.

¹² Alabama, Colorado, Louisiana, Montana, New Mexico, Oregon, Texas.

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

Family Support

In all States the husband and father is primarily liable for family support; the responsibility devolves on the mother if the father is dead or otherwise incapable of furnishing such support. Under community-property law (see footnote 14) the common estate of husband and wife is liable for family support; in the remaining States and the District of Columbia the property of the husband is primarily liable for family necessities. In 36 of these States¹³ the wife and mother is declared by law to be liable for the support of the family if the husband and father is dead or unable to provide support.

Unmarried parents.—The mother is primarily liable for support of her child born out of wedlock. Most States have legal procedures for establishing paternity if satisfactory proof is submitted. Until 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.

Civil Status—Contract and Property Law

Power to Make Contracts

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

The eight¹⁴ 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.

Ownership, Control, and Use of Property

General.—In property management and control, inheritance, and freedom of enjoyment of earnings, there is no distinction between the

¹³ Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, Wyoming.

¹⁴ Arizona, California, Idaho, Louisiana, Nevada, New Mexico, Texas, Washington.

rights of unmarried women and unmarried men. In most States, married women and married men have the same degree of control 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. Five States¹⁵ have 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.

Property acquired by joint efforts after marriage.—Eight States (see footnote 14) have the community-property 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 States¹⁶ give the wife control over her earnings, even as part of the communal estate.

In the 40 States¹⁷ 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 is generally under the control of the husband subject to certain restrictions, and except as the effect of this rule may be overcome by private agreement between the parties.

Three States¹⁸ and the District of Columbia retain the form of property ownership called "estate by entirety," applicable only to husband and wife. Under it, the wife has only a contingent interest in the property unless she survives her husband, no matter what amount she has contributed to the estate. The husband controls the property and receives the income during marriage.

Disposition of property after death.—Married women may dispose of their separate property by will as freely as married men may. Two of the community-property States, Nevada and New Mexico, limit a wife's testamentary rights over her half of the community estate.

In the absence of a will, a widow or a widower inherits similar portions from the deceased spouse in most States.

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

¹⁵ California, Florida, Nevada, Pennsylvania, Texas.

¹⁶ Idaho, Nevada.

¹⁷ Alabama, Arkansas, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin, Wyoming.

¹⁸ Massachusetts, Michigan, North Carolina.

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WOMEN'S NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

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: 183 Leagues in the United States, Canada, Mexico, and Hawaii, with approximately 62,000 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: 11,000,000 through combined membership with affiliated groups in 42 countries, territories, and possessions (815,000 per capita paying members).

League of Women Voters of the United States, 1026 17th 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: 122,000 in 917 local Leagues organized in 48 States, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Alaska.

National Association of Colored Women, Inc., 1114 O Street NW., Washington 5, D. C. The organization was founded in 1896 for the purpose of raising to the highest plane the home life, moral standards, and civic life of the race. Membership: 50,000.

National Consumers League for Fair Labor Standards, 348 Engineers' Building, Cleveland 14, Ohio. 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. (Not restricted to women.)

National Council of Catholic Women, 1312 Massachusetts Avenue NW., Washington 5, D. C. Established in 1920. Its purpose is to federate existing organizations of Catholic women in order that they may speak and act as a unit when the welfare of the church or 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: 8,000,000 (approximately) through more than 9,000 National, State, diocesan, and local affiliated groups.

National Council of Jewish Women, Inc., 1 West 47th 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: Over 100,000.

National Council of Negro Women, Inc., 1318 Vermont Avenue NW., Washington 5, D. C. Organized in 1935. The Council seeks the cooperation and membership of all races and works for the integration of Negroes into the economic, social, cultural, civic, and political life of every community. There are 20 national organizations and 80 local councils reaching 800,000 women.

National Council of Women of the United States, Inc., 345 East 46th Street, New York 17, N. Y. Organized in 1888. Its purpose is to achieve, through the unity of women, world peace, security, and equal opportunity for all. Founder-member of the International Council of Women. Membership: 5,000,000 (approximately) through combined membership of affiliated groups.

National Jewish Welfare Board, 145 East 32d 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 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.

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.

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 United States of America. 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: 10,000,000 and 2,200 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, 214 2d Street NE., Washington 2, 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., 1790 Broadway, New York 19, 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: 165,000 in 2,900 Clubs in United States, Alaska, and Hawaii.

National Association of Negro Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc., 4723 South State Street, Chicago 9, Ill. 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: 5,000.

National Secretaries Association, 25 East 12th Street, Kansas City, Mo. Organized in 1942. Its purpose is to elevate the standards of the secretarial profession by uniting for their mutual benefit women who are or have been engaged in secretarial work, by means of social and educational activities. Membership: 13,000 members in 300 chapters.

Accountancy

American Society of Women Accountants, 327 South LaSalle Street, Chicago 4, Ill. 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: 1,900.

American Woman's Society of Certified Public Accountants, 327 South LaSalle Street, Chicago 4, Ill. 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: 300.

Banking

Association of Bank Women, 60 East 42d 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 benefit; 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: 1,900.

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: 400.

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: 2,510.

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 Woman Geographers, 1216 Connecticut Avenue NW., Washington 6, D. C. Founded in 1925. Its purpose is to form a medium 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: 350.

Health Services

American Association of Industrial Nurses, Inc., 654 Madison Avenue, Room 909, New York 21, N. Y. Founded in 1942. The professional association of nurses engaged in the practice of industrial nursing. Its purpose is to maintain the honor and character of the profession among industrial nurses; to improve community health by bettering nursing service to workers; to develop and promote standards for industrial nurses and industrial nursing services; to stimulate interest in and provide a forum for the discussion of problems in the field of industrial nursing. Membership: 4,000.

American Association of Medical Record Librarians, 510 North Dearborn Street, Chicago 10, Ill. Founded in 1928. Its purpose is to improve the quality and efficiency of medical records in hospitals, clinics, and other health and medical institutions; to establish standards and criteria of competency; to develop

and improve the teaching and practice of medical record library science so that it may be of greater service to the science of medicine and public health. Membership: 3,330. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Association of Medical Social Workers, 1834 K Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Founded in 1918. Its purpose is to improve and strengthen professional standards for social case work in medical settings, including educational standards, teaching materials and practice. Membership: 2,500. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

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: 7,200.

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: 7,200.

American Dental Hygienists' Association, Inc., 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., 1790 Broadway, New York 19, 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. The American Nurses' Association is an organization of and for registered professional nurses. Its overall purposes are to foster high standards of nurse practice and to promote the welfare of nurses to the end that all people may have better nursing care. Affiliated with the International Council of Nurses. Membership: 173,390.

American Occupational Therapy Association, 33 West 42d Street, New York 36, N. Y. Founded 1917. 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: 4,100. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Physical Therapy Association, 1790 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y. Founded in 1921. The object of this organization is to foster the development and improvement of physical therapy service and physical therapy education through the coordinated action of physical therapists, allied pro-

professional groups, citizens, agencies and schools to the end that the physical therapy needs of the people will be met. Membership: 5,778. Approximately 92 percent are women. In addition there are 594 student members.

American Society of Medical Technologists, Suite 25, Hermann Professional Building, Houston 25, Tex. 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: 5,800. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Society of X-Ray Technicians, % Genevieve J. Eilert, Executive Secretary, 16 14th Street, Fond du Lac, Wis. Founded in 1920. Its purpose is to promote the science and art of radiography; to assist in establishing approved standards of training and recognized qualifications for those engaged in technical work in radiological departments. Membership: 4,100. (Not restricted to women, but membership primarily women.)

Association of American Women Dentists, % Dr. Bertha L. Eastwood, President, 5334 Greene Street, Philadelphia 44, Pa. 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 57th 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. Membership: 18,000.

National League for Nursing, 2 Park Avenue, New York 16, N. Y. Organized in 1952. Its purpose is to foster the development of hospital, industrial, public health, and other organized nursing services and of nursing education through the coordinated action of nurses, allied professional groups, citizens, agencies, and schools to the end that the nursing needs of the people will be met. Membership: 20,000 individuals and 550 member agencies.

Home Economics

American Dietetic Association, 620 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago 11, Ill. Founded in 1917. The objective of this Association is to improve the nutritional status of human beings and advance the science of dietetics and education in this field. Membership: 11,000. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Home Economics Association, 1600 20th Street NW., Washington 9, D. C. Established in 1908. Its purpose is to promote standards of home living beneficial to the individual and to society. Membership: 20,519 individual members; 19,805 affiliated through college clubs; approximately 1,800 affiliated through homemakers' groups. Three foreign home economics associations are affiliated with American Home Economics Association. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

Insurance

Women Underwriters, The National Association of Life Underwriters, % Mrs. Alberta Light, National Chairman, 1320 United Artists Building, Detroit 26, Mich. 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, % Dorothea Blender, President, 214 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago 1, Ill. Founded in 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: 1,200.

Library Science

American Library Association, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago 11, Ill. 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. (Not restricted to women, but personal membership is primarily women.)

Special Libraries Association, 31 East 10th Street, New York 3, N. Y. 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. (Not restricted to women, but membership is largely women.)

Music

National Federation of Music Clubs, 445 West 23d Street, New York 11, N. Y. 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. (Not restricted to women but membership is primarily women.)

Radio and Television

American Women in Radio and Television, Inc., 70 East 45th 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: 925.

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: 1,100.

Teaching

See Educational Organizations.

Writing

American Newspaper Women's Club, Inc., 1604 20th Street NW., Washington 9, D. C. Founded in 1932. Its purpose is to maintain a meeting place for members; to promote professional pursuits and good fellowship among the mem-

bers; and to encourage friendly understanding between the members and those whom they must contact in their profession. Membership: 228 professional, 122 associate members.

National League of American Pen Women, Inc., 1300 17th 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: 360.

General Service Organizations of Business and Professional Women

Altrusa International, Inc., 332 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago 4, 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: 11,600.

Pilot 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: 9,500.

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: 8,300 in 260 clubs in 4 countries.

Soroptimist International Association, % American Federation of Soroptimist Clubs, 1124 Land Title Building, Philadelphia 10, 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: 25,000 in 900 clubs in 20 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: 11,000 in 300 clubs in 13 countries.

Educational Organizations

Adult Education Association of the United States of America, (dual headquarters) 1201 16th Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. and 743 Wabash Avenue, Chicago 11, Ill. 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 com-

petence; 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. (Not restricted to women.)

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: Over 127,000.

National Association of College Women, % Mrs. Lottie Gordon, Executive Secretary, 1122 Girard 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: 1,000.

National Association of Deans of Women, 1201 16th 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, 700 North Rush Street, Chicago 11, Ill. 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 into closer relation the home and the school, that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child, and to develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, social, and spiritual education. Membership: 8,822,694. (Not restricted to women.)

National Council of Administrative Women in Education, % Miss Lois M. Clark, 1201 16th Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. 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 Educational Association. Membership: 1,000.

National Education Association of the United States, 1201 16th Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. 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: 552,156 individual personal memberships and approximately 1,000,000 affiliated through State, territorial, and local groups. (Not restricted to women, but a majority of the members are women.)

Political and Legislative Organizations

Democratic National Committee, Office of Women's Activities, 1001 Connecticut Avenue, NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1953, to replace the Women's Division which had been set up in 1922. The purpose of this integration was to place women on a completely equal footing with men in the Democratic Party. The function of the office of women's activities is to prepare and distribute materials which stimulate participation by both men and women in the organization and activities of the Democratic Party; to promote the principles and program of the Democratic Party; and to encourage citizens to share the responsibility of democratic government through membership in the Democratic Party.

National Federation of Republican Women, 1625 Eye Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1953, to replace National Federation of Women's Republican Clubs which was founded in 1938. The objectives are to promote an informed electorate through political education; to increase the effectiveness of women in the cause of good government through active political participation; to facilitate cooperation among women's Republican clubs; to foster loyalty to the Republican Party and to promote its ideals; to support objectives and policies of the Republican National Committee and to work for the election of the Republican Party's nominees. Membership of 500,000 women in 39 State Federations in 43 States, the Territories of Alaska and Hawaii and the District of Columbia.

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, 1625 Eye Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Founded in 1918 to give women a voice in the Councils of the Republican National Committee. Its basic objectives are to coordinate the activities of women in the Republican Party to achieve a maximum effectiveness from their efforts; to encourage their participation in party work; and to promote equal recognition of women with men at all levels of party organization, to develop leadership among Republican women and to keep women informed of party activities and current issues.

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 clearinghouse 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: 850.

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*, 17th and D Streets NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1890. Objectives of Society are patriotic, historical, and educational. Membership: 176,343 in 2,756 chapters.
- Daughters of Union Veterans of the Civil War, 1861-65*, 534 South Second Street, Springfield, Ill. Organized in 1885. Purpose is patriotic, historical, and educational. Membership: 30,000. (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 34th Street, Kansas City 11, 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.
- United Daughters of the Confederacy*, 5330 Pershing Avenue, St. Louis 12, Mo. Established in 1894. Purpose is historical, benevolent, educational, and social. Membership: Approximately 36,000. (Membership restricted to women whose ancestors sided with the South during the Civil War.)
- Women's Overseas Service League*, % Miss Mabel A. Clay, President, 150 Fifth Avenue, San Francisco 18, Calif. Established in 1921. Its purpose is to maintain the ties of comradeship formed by overseas service; to inculcate a sense of individual obligation to the community, State, and Nation; to work for the welfare of those now in the armed services, as well as for those who were wounded or incapacitated; to foster and promote friendship and understanding between the United States and all the other nations of the world. Membership: 3,000.

Farm and Rural Organizations

- Associated Women of the American Farm Bureau Federation*, 221 North LaSalle Street, Chicago 1, Ill. The object is to assist in an active, organized way in carrying forward the program of the American Farm Bureau Federation; to promote, strengthen, and assist in every possible manner the development of the business, economic, social, educational, and spiritual interests of the farm families of the Nation; and to develop agriculture. Membership: 1,591,777.
- Country Women's Council, U. S. A.*, % Mrs. George Apperson, Chairman, Mocksville, N. C. This Council is a coordinating group made up of the representatives of the 5 national and some 50 regional and State societies in the United States which are constituent members of the Associated Country Women of the World. Its purpose is to effect a closer association among these United States groups in carrying out the aims and programs of the Associated Country Women of the World in furthering friendship and understanding among the country women of the world, in improving their standard of living, and in representing them in international councils. Membership: 2,000,000.
- National Home Demonstration Council*, % Miss Jennie Williams, President, Banner, Wyo. Founded in 1936. Its purpose is to strengthen and develop adult education in home economics through the cooperative Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture and the land-grant colleges; 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: Approximately 1,000,000.

Woman's National Farm and Garden Association, Inc., % Miss Gertrude L. Warren, President, Hotel 2400, 16th Street NW., Washington 9, D. C. Founded in 1914. Its purpose is to stimulate interest in the conservation of natural 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 and girls 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; and to cooperate with national and international groups of women with similar interests. Membership: 7,500.

Labor Organizations ¹

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.

National C. I. O. Auxiliaries, % Bertha Perrin, Secretary-Treasurer, 2123 West Market Street, Warren, Ohio. Established in 1941 as Congress of Women's Auxiliaries of the CIO. The present name was adopted in 1952. 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: 20,000.

¹These 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.