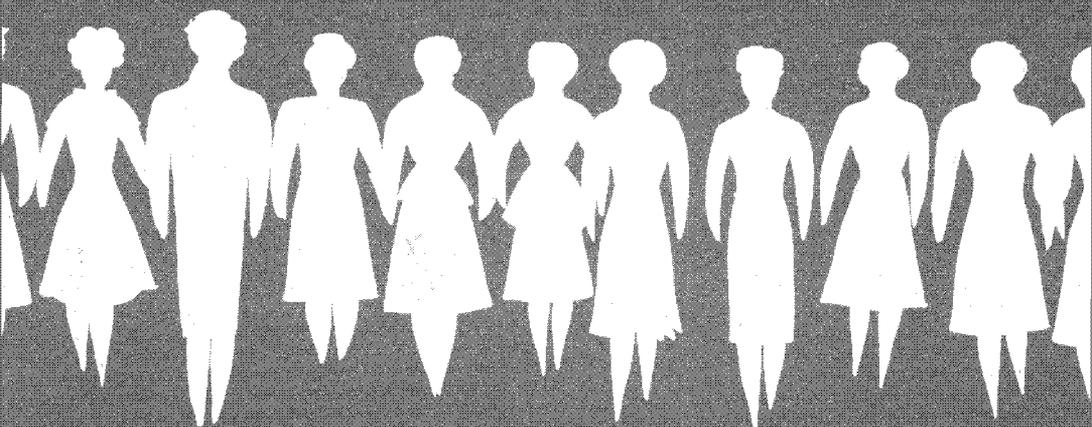


1956  
HANDBOOK  
on

# WOMEN WORKERS



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

*James P. Mitchell, Secretary*

WOMEN'S BUREAU

*Mrs. Alice K. Leopold, Director*

**Bulletin 261**

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

**THE WOMEN'S BUREAU**

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

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

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

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

SEC. 5. That the Secretary of Labor is hereby directed to furnish sufficient quarters, office furniture, and equipment for the work of this bureau.

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

Approved, June 5, 1920.

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

<sup>1</sup> Amount increased by Reclassification Act of March 4, 1923, as amended and supplemented.

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Women's Bureau  
Bulletin No. 261



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

WOMEN'S BUREAU  
*Mrs. Alice K. Leopold, Director*  
Washington : 1956

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## FOREWORD

The handbook of facts on women workers, published biennially by the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, brings together basic information on trends in women's employment and occupations; the age and marital status of women workers; women's earnings and income; women's educational status; and State laws affecting the employment and civil and political status of women. It is designed as a source book for the use of labor unions, employers, educators, and women's organizations. The 1956 edition contains much that is new or brought up to date since the 1954 edition. Where possible, data for April 1956 have been used.

The Division of Program Planning, Analysis, and Reports, of which Anna Jo W. Behrens is Chief, has the overall responsibility for this bulletin. Primary responsibility for the first three chapters was carried by Mary-Elizabeth Pidgeon. The sections on labor law and on civil and political status of women were prepared in the Division of Women's Labor Law and Civil and Political Status, of which Alice A. Morrison is Chief.

Alice K. Leopold  
*Director, Women's Bureau.*



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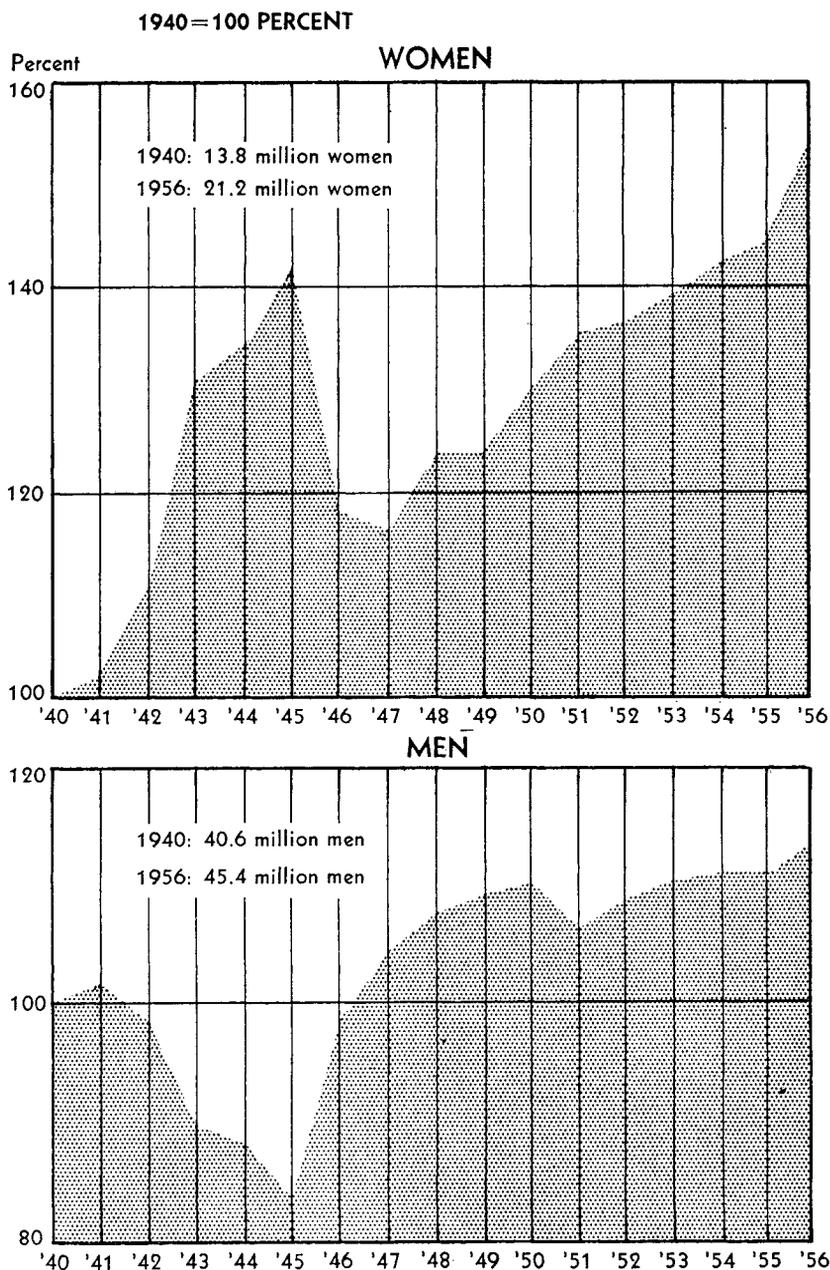
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# PERCENT CHANGE IN NUMBER OF WOMEN AND MEN WORKERS, 1940-1956



Source: Bureau of the Census.

Figure 1

# 1956 HANDBOOK ON WOMEN WORKERS

## WOMEN IN TODAY'S ECONOMY

Women in the labor force are making a greater contribution to the national economy today than at any previous period except, perhaps, during World War II. (See summary on p. 2.) The upward trend in number of women workers—from 5 million in 1900 to more than 21 million in 1956—has been more rapid than the growth in population or the expansion of the labor force. There are more women workers today than ever before.

Women's total contribution to the economy, moreover, far exceeds their contribution to the labor force. Most adult women who are not wage earners are homemakers, and family life depends on the services of homemakers. This has always been true; but never before have so many women been both homemakers and wage earners. (See p. 3.)

Among employed women the range of jobs held is wider than in any earlier period. (See p. 10.) At least a few women were reported in all the 446 occupations listed by the decennial census of 1950. Many of the gains made during two world wars, such as the general acceptance of women in executive and administrative positions, have been maintained and consolidated.

Earnings of women workers (see ch. 2) have advanced as standards of living have risen, although in general the increase in earnings has been less rapid for women than for men.

In education, women make a somewhat better showing than men. (See ch. 3.) Among adults 25 and over, the average woman has completed nearly a year more of school than the average man. However, the percentage who have completed 4 years or more of college is higher among men than among women. Educational and training opportunities for almost any profession or occupation are now open to women in universities, coeducational colleges, and technical schools.

# 1

## EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

### Growing Employment Opportunities

#### How Many Women Work

The number of women in the labor force averaged more than 20 million in 1955—a larger number than in any previous year in American history. The April 1956 figure was 21,194,000. This exceeds by more than 1½ million the number of women workers in April 1945, the peak war year. (See table 1.) It exceeds the 1940 figure by over 7 million.

In terms of proportion rather than absolute numbers, more than one-third (35 percent) of all women 14 years of age and over are in the labor force. Nearly one-third (32 percent) of all workers are women. These percentages have never been exceeded except during World War II.

Table 1.—WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE  
[Selected years]

Year	Women workers (14 years and over)		
	Number	Percent of all workers	Percent of all women
RECENT HIGHLIGHTS <sup>1</sup>			
Today (1956 April).....	21, 194, 000	32	35
Pre-Korea (1950 April).....	18, 063, 000	29	32
Postwar (1947 April).....	16, 320, 000	28	30
World War II peak (1945 April).....	19, 570, 000	36	37
Pre-World War II (1940 March).....	13, 840, 000	25	28
LONG-TERM TRENDS <sup>2</sup>			
1950 (April).....	16, 512, 000	27	29
1940 (April).....	13, 015, 000	24	26
1930 (April).....	10, 396, 000	22	24
1920 (January).....	8, 229, 000	20	23
1900 (June).....	4, 999, 000	18	20
1890 (June).....	3, 704, 000	17	18

<sup>1</sup> From Current Sampling Reports for civilian population.

<sup>2</sup> From decennial census for total population.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census.

Figures for the labor force include both the employed and the unemployed. The number of women reported as unemployed in April 1956 was 921,000. This means that as of that date there were 24 women who actually had jobs for every 1 who was unemployed and looking for work. About 36 percent of all unemployed persons were women; this is slightly higher than the percentage of all workers who were women.

### ***More Women Than Men in Population***

There are now 2 million more women than men in the population 14 years of age and over. This is the opposite of the situation at the turn of the century, when men outnumbered women by over 1½ million. When the decennial census of 1940 was taken, there were still slightly more men than women. By about 1942, however, the number of women had begun to exceed the number of men.

### ***Most Women Are Homemakers***

The majority of women continue to be homemakers, whether or not they also have paid jobs. More than a fourth of the married women, and many single women as well, are both workers and homemakers. Over half of all women devote full time to homemaking. Of the 115 million persons 14 years and over in the civilian population in April 1956, about 7 percent, mostly young people under 20, are in school. Of the women, 35 percent are in the labor force and 55 percent are keeping house full time. This means that practically all adult women in the population are making an essential contribution, as jobholders or homemakers or both, to the smooth running of the economy.

### ***Why Women's Employment Has Increased***

A powerful combination of twentieth-century forces has drawn increasing numbers of women into employment. Among these forces are momentous changes in the size and distribution of the population, in the organization of business, and in social customs. Also important are developments in industrial technology that increase the demand for women in special types of work, and the opening to women of educational and training facilities which enable them to prepare for a wider range of occupations.

The improvement in job opportunities for women has coincided with economic changes and labor-saving inventions that greatly reduce the time and energy required for household tasks: for example, the manufacture and sale of readymade clothing, the mass production of all kinds of home appliances, and new methods of food preservation and preparation. Associated with these developments is the concentration of population in urban areas and the trend toward more compact living quarters.

### **Women's Work Experience**

Because many women work only until they are married and have children, or work intermittently, or on a part-time basis, the number who have work experience is much greater than the number in the labor force at any one time.

At the present time there are 10 to 11 million women who hold full-time jobs the year round, plus a varying number of less permanent workers. Since a total of 27.7 million women worked at some time during 1955, and the number of unemployed women never rose above 1 million, there must be from 15 to 16 million of these in-and-out workers. They include women students who work during summer vacation or on weekends, women who take temporary jobs during rush seasons and housewives who prefer to work part time. In any one month, the number of women in the labor force will include from one-half to two-thirds of the in-and-out workers. Thus, a flexible reserve of experienced workers is built up, capable of rapid utilization in time of labor shortage.

Approximately 46 percent of the women 14 years of age and over worked at some time during 1955. The percentage of adult women in the population who have worked outside their homes at some time in their lives and have thus obtained some job experience is certainly much higher.

### **Women as Part-Time Workers**

Work on a part-time basis brings into use the skills of a considerable number of women who cannot take full-time jobs because of family responsibilities or for other reasons. The Bureau of the Census defines part-time employment as work for less than 35 hours a week. Under this definition, about a fourth of all women workers were on part time in the fall of 1955. About 60 percent of all those who usually work part time are women. Women who do not want, or could not accept, full-time employment make up less than one-fifth of the women in the labor force, but they account for the great majority of the women part-time workers. About a third of all workers who do not prefer, or could not accept, full-time jobs are women 25 to 54, and over a fifth are young girls and boys under 18, most of whom are still in school.

Women workers with children, especially children too young for school, are much more likely to take a part-time job than are other women workers. Among married women workers who have no children under 18, about the same proportion work part time as among women workers who are single or widowed or divorced.

The extent to which women are in part-time jobs varies with the occupation. In the two largest occupation groups for women—cleri-

cal and operative—and in professional work, about one-fifth of the women employed in the fall of 1955 were part-time workers. Over half of those in household work and more than one-third of those in other services and in sales occupations were on part time. 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 several years ago made a special study of more than 9,000 women part-time workers and over 1,000 employers of such workers, in 10 cities. (WB Bulletin 238.) This study, which did not include household employment or farmwork, showed that in most cities there were some part-time employees in social agencies, hospitals, educational organizations, libraries, insurance, and numerous other types of work. While later detailed studies are not available, it appears that there are even more opportunities for part-time employees now.

### **Women as Members of Unions**

Almost 3 million women were members of labor unions in 1954, according to estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. They constituted about one-sixth of all union members. The types of reporting and kinds of records kept vary widely among the unions. Some report on women members, others keep no separate record by sex. However, officers of unions usually can make rough estimates of their woman membership, often on a local rather than a nationwide basis.

Obviously, the membership of women in unions is likely to be greatest in industries that employ many women—needle trades, service industries, electrical-goods manufacturing, communications, and textile mills. In some of the big industrial and semi-industrial unions, also, there are large numbers of women, although they make up only a small portion of the total.

Of the 199 unions that replied to a Bureau of Labor Statistics questionnaire on membership, 95 reported the number of women members, 40 others reported that they had no women members, and for most of the remaining 64 there was information available from which estimates could be made. Most of the 40 unions that reported no women members are in occupations not likely to employ women, such as naval shore mechanics, railroad yardmasters, stonecutters, marine engineers.

Listed on p. 6 are the unions reporting 10,000 or more women members. In addition, 9 unions had from 5,000 to 10,000 members, including unions in jewelry, pottery, and paper industries. There were 10 that had from 2,500 to 5,000 women, including those in the watch-making and glove industries. Eleven had from 1,000 to 2,500 women; 20 had fewer than 100 women members. Further details as to types of unions reporting and numbers in the smaller unions are included in the Bureau of Labor Statistics publication, *Directory of National*

and International Labor Unions in the United States, 1955 (data on 1954 membership).

<i>Union</i>	<i>Approximate number of women</i>
International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union.....	330, 500
Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America.....	279, 100
International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers.....	189, 000
Communications Workers of America.....	180, 000
Retail Clerks International Association.....	132, 500
Textile Workers Union of America.....	117, 000
International Association of Machinists.....	86, 400
Alliance Independent Telephone Unions.....	66, 000
Laundry Workers' International Union.....	54, 900
Bakery and Confectionery Workers' International Union of America....	53, 300
International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Warehousemen and Helpers of America.....	49, 200
Office Employees' International Union.....	40, 000
Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen of North America..._	39, 800
International Brotherhood of Pulp, Sulphite and Paper Mill Workers..._	37, 500
United Textile Workers of America.....	36, 000
International Brotherhood of Bookbinders.....	32, 600
United Garment Workers of America.....	32, 000
American Federation of Teachers.....	27, 100
Tobacco Workers International Union.....	25, 500
United Shoe Workers of America.....	24, 000
Oil, Chemical and Atomic Workers International Union.....	23, 800
International Leather Goods, Plastic and Novelty Workers' Union....	18, 200
United Hatters, Cap and Millinery Workers International Union....	16, 000
American Federation of Government Employees.....	15, 500
International Printing Pressmen and Assistants' Union of North America .....	14, 800
National Federation of Salaried Unions.....	13, 900
Glass Bottle Blowers Association of the United States and Canada....	12, 800
Upholsterers' International Union of North America.....	12, 700
United Paperworkers of America.....	10, 000

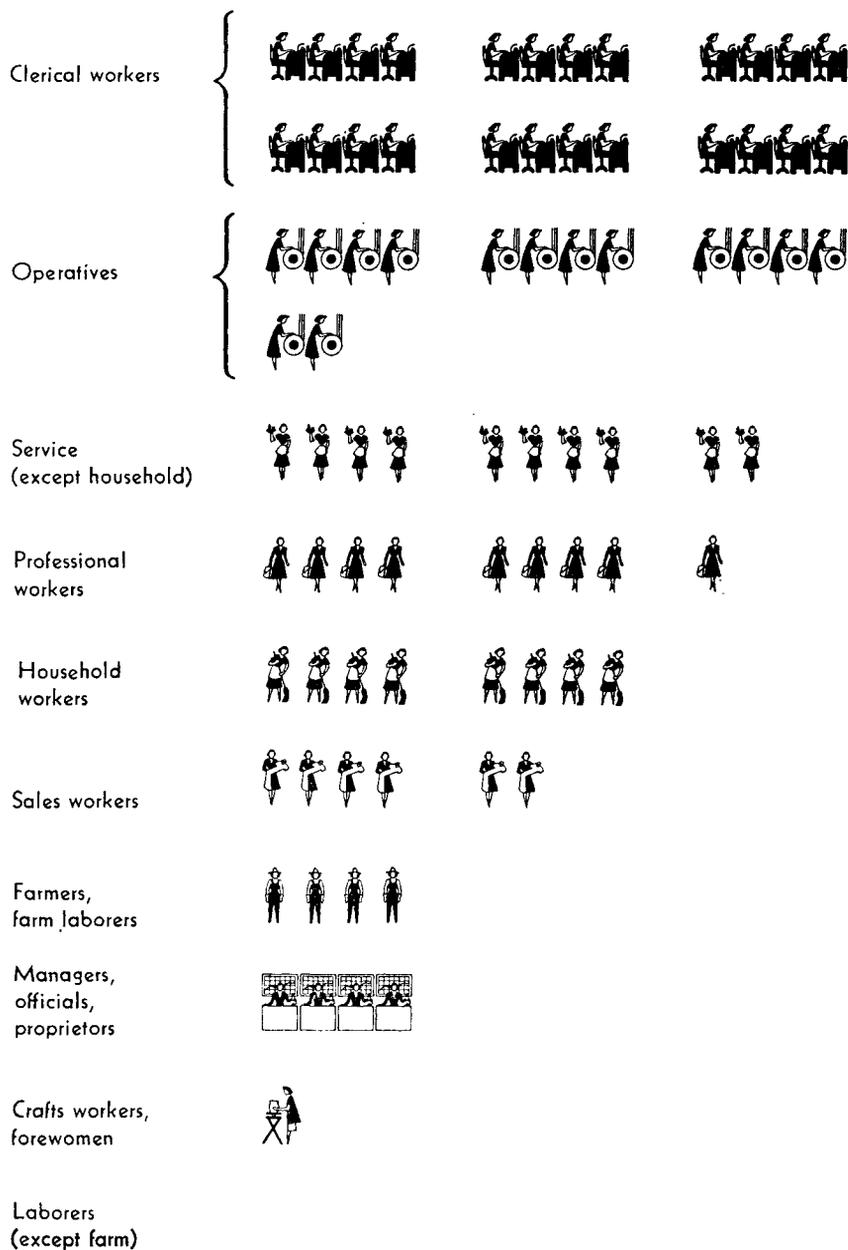
## Occupations of Women

### **Chief Occupation Groups**

More women by far are in clerical work than in any other major occupation group. The second largest occupation group is made up of operatives, the majority of whom are in factory production. Nearly half of all employed women are in these two types of occupation. These are followed by service occupations (other than in private households) and professional or technical work. (See table 2.)

Increases have occurred since 1940 in the number of women employed in every occupation group, with two exceptions—private household employment remained about the same and general laboring occupations declined. The greatest expansion occurred among clerical

## OCCUPATIONS OF WOMEN WORKERS, APRIL 1956



Each symbol represents 250,000 women.

\*Less than 100,000 women.

Figure 2

workers. Their numbers more than doubled from 1940 to 1956, as 3½ million more women joined their ranks.

The demand for clerical workers continues to grow. This arises from the needs of business corporations and large-scale financial organizations. It likewise comes from expansion in market areas, in mail-order business, in governmental requirements, and in other undertakings. Recent inventions are mechanizing office processes to a greatly increased extent. Better trained clerical workers with mechanical and technical ability will be needed, rather than those able to perform only the simpler tasks that made up the great volume of clerical work in the past.

Increased numbers of women also have been needed in a variety of factory and service occupations. More than a million additional women went into each of these types of work between 1940 and 1956. Much of the increased demand for factory workers first arose during the war. In that period, changes in factory processes were accelerated, with emphasis on simplification and on reducing the heavier features of the work, as a result of which more jobs became suitable for performance by women. The demand has continued into today's high-level economy.

Table 2.—WOMEN EMPLOYED IN EACH OCCUPATION GROUP, 1956 AND 1940

Occupation group	April 1956		March 1940		Percent of all workers	
	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution	1956	1940
All women.....	20, 272, 000	100	11, 920, 000	100	32	26
Clerical workers.....	6, 104, 000	30	2, 530, 000	21	67	53
Operatives.....	3, 548, 000	18	2, 190, 000	18	28	26
Service workers (except private household).....	2, 597, 000	13	1, 350, 000	11	49	40
Professional workers.....	2, 125, 000	10	1, 570, 000	13	35	45
Private household workers..	2, 111, 000	10	2, 100, 000	18	99	94
Sales workers.....	1, 480, 000	7	830, 000	7	37	28
Farmers, farm laborers....	1, 031, 000	5	690, 000	6	16	8
Managers, officials, proprietors.....	932, 000	5	450, 000	4	15	12
Craftswomen.....	253, 000	1	110, 000	1	3	2
Laborers (except farm)....	93, 000	( <sup>1</sup> )	100, 000	1	3	3

<sup>1</sup> Less than 1 percent.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-57, No. 166.

The proportion of women among all workers is much greater in some occupation groups than in others. For example, two-thirds of the clerical workers and half the service workers (other than in private households) are women. Nearly all service workers in private households are women. Women are over a third of the professional

and sales workers, and more than a fourth of the operatives. On the other hand, in the managerial and crafts groups, the percentage of women is small.

In most occupation groups the proportion of women is larger than in 1940—in some cases considerably larger. The greatest gain is among clerical workers, of whom women were only a little over half in 1940, two-thirds in 1956. Only in the professional group is there a decline in proportion of workers who are women. Numerically, this group includes half a million more women than in 1940, but the increase in the number of men in the professions has far exceeded the increase in the number of women. One explanation is in the many women who marry young. Another is that numerous openings in non-professional jobs offer relatively good entrance pay without the time and expense necessary for a professional education. Such jobs attract many women even though they may promise little advancement in the long run. Other factors may be the current stress on scientific professions, in most of which women constitute only a small minority; and the efforts to advance veterans in jobs for which they have received GI college training.

According to the decennial census (1950), 37 percent of nonwhite women were in the labor force, a total of nearly 2,000,000. (See table 3.) The greatest gains, compared with 1940, occurred among service

Table 3.—NUMBER AND OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF NONWHITE EMPLOYED WOMEN, 1950 AND 1940

Occupation group	Number in 1950	Increase in numbers 1940-1950	Percent distribution	
			1950	1940
All occupations.....	1, 869, 956	327, 683	100	100
Manual groups.....	314, 043	202, 722	17	7
Operatives.....	274, 000	178, 605	15	6
Laborers (except farm, mine).....	28, 414	15, 007	2	1
Craftswomen, forewomen.....	11, 629	9, 110	1	(1)
White-collar groups.....	229, 032	131, 217	12	6
Professional workers.....	104, 728	38, 091	6	4
Clerical workers.....	74, 255	61, 180	4	1
Sales workers.....	25, 492	17, 674	1	1
Managers, proprietors, officials.....	24, 557	14, 272	1	1
Service groups.....	1, 125, 446	51, 332	60	70
Private household workers.....	773, 590	<sup>2</sup> 145, 411	41	60
Service workers (except private household).....	351, 856	196, 743	19	10
Farm groups.....	170, 606	<sup>2</sup> 74, 640	9	16
Farm laborers, forewomen.....	139, 657	<sup>2</sup> 59, 373	7	13
Farmers, farm managers.....	30, 949	<sup>2</sup> 15, 267	2	3
Occupation not reported.....	30, 829	17, 052	1	1

<sup>1</sup> Less than 1 percent.

<sup>2</sup> In this case a decrease.

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

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workers (not in private households), operatives, and clerical and professional workers. Farmworkers, and also private household workers, declined both in numbers and in percent of total.

### Important Individual Occupations

Nationwide information on detailed occupations of women is obtained only once in 10 years, from the decennial census. At least a few women were reported in each of the 446 occupations listed in the 1950 census, but generally women were concentrated in relatively few occupations. Table 4 shows the number of women employed in 1950 in each of the 28 largest occupations for women, and the percentage of all workers in that occupation who were women.

Table 4.—THE 28 LARGEST OCCUPATIONS OF WOMEN, 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 (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

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

In certain individual occupations, a very large proportion of all workers are women. The list that follows shows the occupations in which half or more of the workers in 1950 were women. Some of these are among the largest occupations for women, others are relatively small, because the occupation itself is not a large one. Additional detail is given in Women's Bureau Bulletin 253, "Changes in Women's Occupations, 1940-50."

## OCCUPATIONS WITH WOMEN HALF OR MORE OF THE WORKERS, 1950

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

## 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 (not elsewhere classified)
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

## WOMEN ARE HALF TO TWO-THIRDS OF THE WORKERS—Continued

Occupations with 100,000 or more women—Continued	Occupations with less than 100,000 women—Continued
-----------------------------------------------------	-------------------------------------------------------

Operatives—  
 Personal service  
 Leather products (except foot-  
 wear)  
 Bakery products  
 Counter, fountain workers  
 Musicians, music teachers  
 Therapists, healers  
 Farm-, home-management advisers  
 Operatives—Paper, pulp products (mis-  
 cellaneous)

**Women's Advancement to Upper-Level Jobs**

Women's advancement to high-level positions is a subject of keen interest, not only to women workers, but to educators, women's organizations, and many others. A significant number of women fill top-level positions successfully. Numerous examples can be found in the field of management, among business proprietors, in most professions, and in government. Nevertheless, the proportion of women usually is much smaller in the upper levels of an occupation than in the occupation as a whole. Or, to put it another way, in almost every occupation, a much larger proportion of men than of women reach the high-level positions.

Employers, unions, and the public can further women's advancement by discarding attitudes and practices prejudicial to women workers and by promoting their acceptance on the basis of individual qualifications for the job.

*Women proprietors, managers.*—Nearly 1 million women are classified by the census as proprietors or managers (including a very small proportion who are company officials). This is almost twice as many as in 1940. However, women are only about one-tenth of all proprietors and managers, and the *proportion* has changed very little since 1940. Over half of these women are proprietors running their own businesses. Many are operators of restaurants, food stores, or apparel shops. Others head personal service establishments, manufacturing plants, and stores. A small, but growing, number are in the real estate or insurance business.

Over 2 million women performing professional and technical work in 1956 comprised the fourth largest group among women workers, following after clerical workers, operatives, and service workers. This number was one-third higher than in 1940, although the proportion of women among all professional and technical workers declined from 45 to 35 percent during this period.

Fully four-fifths of professional women are estimated to be concentrated in seven occupational groups, on the basis of 1950 data avail-

able for individual jobs. Teaching continues to be the major professional activity for women, with nursing second in importance. Other occupations with large numbers of women are musicians and music teachers, medical and dental technicians, accountants and auditors, social workers, and librarians. The remaining women are found in a wide variety of jobs—as diverse as airplane pilot, optometrist, radio operator, veterinarian.

Women have made significant gains in numerous professions, according to the decennial censuses of 1940 and 1950. As accountants and auditors, their numbers increased from 18,000 to 56,000. There have also been notable gains in the number of women employed as professional engineers; the eightfold increase recorded in 1950 raised the number to almost 6,500 and indicates continued encouragement for women to enter this critically short field. Although these estimates may include some subprofessional workers, there is little doubt that women are sharing in the expanding demand for qualified personnel with professional skills and are finding greatly improved employment opportunities in new fields.

With teaching as the largest professional occupation of women, it might be expected that women would hold the great majority of the upper educational jobs, but this is not the case. Women are three-fourths of all elementary and secondary school teachers, but they represent a much smaller proportion of school administrators and college faculty members.

A survey of 164 cities by the National Council of Administrative Women in Education (1950) reported that it is much more usual to find women as principals in elementary schools than in high schools. At least a few women were employed as elementary-school principals in over 90 percent of the cities, as junior-high principals in nearly 40 percent, and as high-school principals in about 15 percent. Less than one-tenth of the junior and senior high-school principals, but well over one-half the elementary-school principals and about half of the supervisors and department directors were women. In 1,200 rural areas, about a third of all administrative positions were held by women.

As to institutions of higher education, the National Education Association reported on the position of women in nearly 1,000 colleges (1952). Women held about three-fourths of the administrative positions in women's colleges. Most of these were substantial jobs. They held about one-fifth of the administrative positions in coeducational colleges. The dean of women was almost always a woman, as were the great majority of the directors of food services and of residence, and the librarians. In these colleges also, women were a third to one-half of the registrars, bursars, auditors or accountants, and the

directors of student guidance, health, student activities, practice teaching, alumni contact, and student personnel. Over nine-tenths of the women's colleges and about two-thirds of the coeducational colleges had women members on the boards. However, they were less than one-tenth of all board members in coeducational colleges having any women on the board, and just over a third of those in women's colleges.

*Women in Government.*—Some outstanding women hold high and responsible positions in the executive branch of the Federal Government. In the legislative branch, 17 women, including one Senator, were elected to the 84th Congress, more than in any previous session.<sup>1</sup> The Congresswomen are about evenly divided between the two political parties. (For a biographical sketch of each woman in Congress see the Women's Bureau report, *Women in the 84th Congress.*)

About one-third of the Federal white-collar workers are women, but relatively few are in positions of a policy-making level. (See discussion on Federal employees under chief industry groups.)

In 1956, all except 5 States (Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Kentucky, and Oklahoma) have 1 or more women in their State legislatures. The total reported was 277 women members of lower houses, and 21 in the upper houses. The States are reported to have almost 6,000 women in top-level appointive positions, and 38 in statewide elective positions. For the first time in the history of the country 1 State (Vermont) has a woman as lieutenant governor. Women hold the position of secretary of state in 7 States and that of superintendent of public instruction in 4 States. Lists of women in responsible State positions are kept current by the Women's Division of the Republican National Committee and information is also available at the Office of Women's Activities of the Democratic National Committee. (See ch. 7 for their addresses.)

## Industry Groups

### *Distribution of Women by Industry*

Almost two-thirds of the women employed in 1955 were in three industry groups—manufacturing, retail trade, and professional services. (See table 5.) An industry may employ women in a wide variety of occupations. For example, a manufacturing firm may have, in addition to operatives employed in production, salespersons of several types, clerical office forces, and technical and research employees.

<sup>1</sup> One Congresswoman died in November 1955, and was replaced by a man.

Table 5.—EMPLOYED WOMEN IN EACH INDUSTRY GROUP, 1955 AND 1940

Industry group	Number 1955	Percent of all workers		Percent dis- tribution	
		1955	1940	1955	1940
All groups.....	19,285,000	31	26	100	100
Manufacturing.....	4,405,000	26	23	23	21
Retail trade.....	3,990,000	41	31	21	17
Professional, related services.....	3,478,000	59	57	18	17
Personal services.....	2,985,000	71	73	15	26
Finance, insurance, real estate.....	940,000	42	33	5	4
Agriculture.....	931,000	15	6	5	5
Public administration.....	850,000	29	20	4	3
Transportation, communication.....	753,000	17	12	4	3
Wholesale trade.....	426,000	19	16	2	2
Business, repair services.....	257,000	17	10	1	1
All other industries.....	270,000	5	4	1	1

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports.

### Women as Factory Workers

More than a fifth of all employed women are in manufacturing industries. In spite of a recent slight decline in number of women employed (from 4.5 million in 1953 to 4.4 million in 1955), they still employ more women than any other industry group.

Manufacturing industries are considered in two major classes: Durable-goods and nondurable-goods industries. Figures on the number and percent of women workers in the chief manufacturing industries, both durable and nondurable, taken from reports to the Bureau of Labor Statistics for January 1956, are shown in table 6.

Nondurable-goods, or consumer-goods, industries employ 42 percent of all factory workers, but about 60 percent of all women factory workers. The majority of women are concentrated in three industries—textiles, apparel, and food products.

The durable-goods industries employed relatively few women prior to World War II. But as these industries have expanded, and as improvements in processes have been adopted which tend to lighten the physical demands on the worker, the number of women employed in them has increased. They employed 33 percent of the women factory workers in 1950, and about 40 percent in 1956. The electrical-machinery industry employs more women than any other durable-goods industry.

These figures include women working in factory offices, as well as production workers. The proportion in different kinds of jobs varies from industry to industry. When last reported (1947) about four-fifths of all women in factories were production workers. However, in some of the primary metal industries, the proportion in production

Table 6.—WOMEN WAGE AND SALARIED WORKERS IN CHIEF MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES, 1956 AND 1950

Industry	Women					
	1956		Percent			
	Number	increase from 1950	distribution		of all workers	
			1956	1950	1956	1950
Total.....	4,385,400	+17	100	100	26	27
Nondurable goods.....	2,634,900	+5	60	67	37	38
Apparel, finished textile products.....	979,900	+11	22	24	78	76
Textile mill products.....	466,600	-15	11	15	43	43
Food products.....	342,200	-3	8	9	24	25
Printing, publishing.....	225,700	+14	5	5	28	27
Leather, leather products..	198,500	+12	5	5	51	46
Chemical products.....	145,600	+24	3	3	18	18
Paper products.....	123,800	+13	3	3	22	23
Rubber products.....	76,400	+27	2	2	26	26
Tobacco manufactures....	59,000	-7	1	1	59	58
Products of petroleum, coal.....	17,200	+58	( <sup>1</sup> )	( <sup>1</sup> )	7	5
Durable goods.....	1,750,500	+44	40	33	18	17
Electrical machinery.....	459,300	+60	10	8	40	37
Transportation equipment..	240,000	+103	5	3	12	10
Machinery, except electrical.....	234,200	+44	5	4	14	13
Fabricated metal products (not elsewhere classified)..	209,000	+28	5	4	19	19
Instruments and related products.....	116,500	+50	3	2	36	34
Stone, clay, glass products..	91,300	+21	2	2	17	16
Primary metal industries..	77,800	+32	2	2	6	5
Furniture, fixtures.....	65,400	+19	1	1	17	16
Lumber, wood products....	49,200	-1	1	1	7	7
Ordnance, accessories.....	24,500	+498	1	( <sup>1</sup> )	20	17
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries.....	183,300	+11	4	4	39	40

<sup>1</sup> Less than 1 percent.

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

jobs was less than half, while in industries long known as important employers of women, such as the apparel and textile industries, it was over nine-tenths.

### Women as Federal Employees

More than half a million women are at work in the executive branch of the Federal Government. About one-fourth of all Federal em-

ployees are women, and nearly one-fifth of them are located in Washington, D. C. A small proportion of women (about 9 percent) had veteran's preference in the appointment to their jobs. Of these, over half are women who have been in the armed services, and the remainder are wives of disabled veterans, or widows or mothers of deceased veterans. Table 7 shows the number of women Government employees in recent years. The employment of women rose to well over a third of all workers in the executive branch during the war, when the Government employed about twice as many women as in the postwar years. The postwar low occurred in 1948. Since that time fluctuations have taken place from year to year, with fewer women holding Government jobs in some years and considerable numbers being added in other years.

Table 7.—WOMEN IN THE FEDERAL SERVICE, 1944-55

[Civilian employees in continental United States]

Year	Number of women	Women as percent of all employees	Women in District of Columbia as percent of total women employees
1944	1, 110, 545	37	15
1945	1, 097, 155	37	14
1946	650, 100	29	18
1947	444, 194	24	22
1948	427, 353	23	22
1949	437, 744	23	23
1950	410, 327	23	24
1951	577, 526	25	21
1952	601, 215	25	19
1953	560, 663	24	19
1954	521, 945	24	19
1955	524, 939	24	19

Source: U. S. Civil Service Commission. Figures are for June of each year except in 1944, which are for July.

Of the workers covered by Government retirement acts (well over nine-tenths of all Federal employees), 5 percent of the women and 13 percent of the men had service of 20 years or more, according to a special study made in 1953. Half of the men and two-thirds of the women had been in Government work less than 10 years.

Civil-service positions are classified from grade 1 up to grade 18. About 850 women are classified in grade 13 or above. This is one-fifth of 1 percent of the women in the service, although 8 percent of the men are in these grades, according to a recent comprehensive report on white-collar workers in Federal employment made by the Civil Service Commission. Half the women are in grade 3 or below; on the other hand, 45 percent of the men are in grade 8 or above. In grades 2 through 6, half to three-fourths of the employees are women. In grades 10 and above almost 95 percent of the workers are men.

As to the types of work done by the women white-collar workers in Federal employment, two-thirds of them are in general administrative, clerical, and office work. Groups next in size are accounting and fiscal, and supply services. Approximately one-tenth are in medical, hospital, dental, or public health work, where the great majority are nurses or nurses' assistants. Almost three-fourths of the small group of library and archives workers in the Government are women, as are half of those in personnel, mathematical or statistical, and accounting or fiscal work.

*Women in the Armed Services.*—Women are accepted for service in the four branches of the Armed Forces of the United States. Members of the Women's Army Corps are known as Wacs, who enlist for a minimum of 2 years. Those in the Navy are WAVES, who enlist for at least 4 years. The WAF (members of the Air Force) and the Women Marines enlist for at least 3 years. To enter these services a woman must be at least 18 years of age and have a high-school diploma or the equivalent. If she is under 21 she must have written consent of her parents or guardian.

During 1955 an average of 36,000 women were in the armed services—1 percent of the total. As in the civilian labor force, more girls enter the clerical field than any other occupation. They serve as typists, file clerks, stenographers, accounting-machine operators. Others become office managers or personnel experts. Women in the armed services work also as teletype or switchboard operators, as chauffeurs, and in food services, radio maintenance, repair and cleaning of clothing, entertainment, information, intelligence, weather observation, and other technical work.

Women with suitable qualifications may enter the Officer Candidate Program and eventually be promoted to rank as high as captain in the Navy or colonel in the Army, Air Force, or Marine Corps. Women holding the bachelor degree are eligible for direct commissions as officers. Nurses, dietitians, and occupational or physical therapists are commissioned in the service of their choice (except the Marine Corps, since the Navy provides its medical services). For more detailed information see *Careers for Women in the Armed Forces*, published jointly by the Department of Defense and the Department of Labor's Women's Bureau.

*Women in the United States Foreign Service.*—In the Foreign Service of the United States, 2 of the 75 chiefs of mission in 1955 were women. The Ambassador to Italy was a woman, as was the Ambassador to Switzerland, who is a career officer. The State Department reported almost 150 women among more than 2,500 foreign service officers at the end of 1955. (See table 8.) This was 5 percent of the total. The highest grade in the Foreign Service is class 1, unlike the classified civil service in which GS-1 is the lowest grade.

Table 8.—WOMEN AND MEN IN THE FOREIGN SERVICE, BY RANK, 1955

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Women</i>		<i>Men</i>	
		<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Chiefs of Mission.....	75	2	-----	73	-----
Other Foreign-Service Officers <sup>1</sup> ...	2, 687	146	100	2, 541	100
Career Minister and Class 1....	141	-----	-----	141	6
Classes 2 and 3.....	810	10	7	800	31
Class 4 and below.....	1, 736	136	93	1, 600	63
Foreign-Service Staff.....	4, 205	2, 170	100	2, 035	100
Classes 1 and 2.....	86	-----	-----	86	4
Classes 3 to 8.....	742	121	6	621	31
Classes 9 to 11.....	1, 873	934	43	939	46
Class 12 and below.....	1, 504	1, 115	51	389	19

<sup>1</sup> Includes 392 Reserve Officers (21 women).

Source: Figures for Dec. 31, 1955, furnished by the Department of State.

More than one-half of the members of the United States foreign-service staff are women. They number over 2,000, and are employed in a great variety of specialized occupations. They are employed as clerks, stenographers, typists, secretaries, placement officers, records administrators, liaison officers, fiscal officers, administrative assistants, and code clerks.

### Ages of Women Workers

More than one-third of the women workers of 1956 are 45 years of age and over, compared with one-fifth in 1940. In part, this is because women of these ages make up a somewhat larger proportion of the population than in 1940. The increase in employment of older women has been much more marked, however, than the increase in population. (See table 9.)

The age distribution of women workers varies considerably in different occupations. In the managerial group and among farmworkers, the proportion of women 45 to 64 years of age is especially high. Clerical workers, on the other hand, are a young group, with a very high proportion in the age groups 25 to 44 years.

The average (median) age of women workers has been advancing ever since the turn of the century, when it was 26 years. By 1940, it was 32 years. In this 40-year period, major advances which were made in State child-labor and school-attendance laws raised the average age of women workers by keeping children in school longer and raising the minimum age at which young people may go to work. In 1938, the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act established a basic minimum age of 16 years for employment in manufacturing industries.

Table 9.—AGE DISTRIBUTION OF WOMEN IN POPULATION AND LABOR FORCE, 1956 AND 1940

Age	Percent distribution <sup>1</sup>			
	1956		1940	
	Population	Labor force	Population	Labor force
Total.....	100	100	100	100
Under 45 years.....	59	63	66	78
14 to 24 years.....	20	20	27	31
25 to 34 years.....	20	20	21	28
35 to 44 years.....	19	23	18	19
45 years and over.....	40	37	34	22
45 to 54 years.....	16	20	15	13
55 to 64 years.....	12	13	10	7
65 years and over.....	12	4	9	2

<sup>1</sup> Percents do not always add to 100, due to rounding.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-57, No. 166.

During World War II, large numbers of women in their thirties and forties entered the labor force, and by 1945 the average age had risen to 34 years. After the war many of these women continued on the job. The postwar period of economic expansion has encouraged them to remain at work, and other older women to join them. As a result, the average age of women workers has risen steadily and in April 1956 was 39.5 years.

This trend is likely to continue for another decade, because the women now in their twenties are members of the small generation born during the 1930's when birth rates were low. The scarcity of younger workers, both men and women, improves the job prospects of older workers for the next few years. By 1966, however, the first of the generation that was born after World War II, when birth rates were rising rapidly, will be entering the labor market. A lowering of the average age of women workers may occur then, unless other factors operate to prevent it.

The percentage of women who work outside their homes is highest among young women—those 18 to 24 years of age. It drops sharply among women 25 to 34 years of age, whose homemaking responsibilities are generally heaviest. Almost as large a proportion of the women 35 to 54 years of age work, as among young women, probably because many women return to the labor force when their children are no longer requiring constant care. Not until ages 55 to 64 years does the proportion of women who work fall again to the level of the 25-to-34-year age group.

The percentage of women of each age group in the labor force in 1956, as compared with 1940, is as follows:

Age	Percent of population	
	1956	1940
14 and 15 years.....	9	2
16 and 17 years.....	27	14
18 and 19 years.....	46	43
20 to 24 years.....	45	48
25 to 34 years.....	35	36
35 to 44 years.....	43	29
45 to 54 years.....	45	24
55 to 64 years.....	37	18
65 years and over.....	11	7

The outstanding feature of this comparison is the great increase in the proportion of women working at all ages from 35 up to 65. This suggests that many women have chosen to continue working until they reach retirement age and can draw old-age insurance benefits under the Social Security Act, thus assuring themselves of a measure of independence in later years.

### Marital Status of Women Workers

One of the major influences affecting the role of women in the economy is the high marriage rate prevailing during recent years. More than four-fifths of all women, 14 years of age and over, are married or have been married.

#### *Proportions of Single and Married Women Who Work*

Single women now make up a much smaller proportion of the population than was formerly the case. Among women 14 years and over, only 18 percent were single in 1955, compared with 28 percent in 1940. Inevitably they also make up a much smaller proportion of the working force. One-fourth of all women workers were single in 1955; nearly one-half were single in 1940. (See table 10.) The proportion of single women who work, however, is surprisingly stable. Of those 20 to 64 years of age, three-fourths are in the labor force: In 1955 the percentage was 76; in 1940 it was 77.

Nearly two-thirds of all women 14 years of age and over are married and living with their husbands. About 28 percent of these women are in the labor force—a much lower rate of participation than among other marital groups, as might be expected. Nevertheless, because of their predominance in the population, they make up more than half (52 percent) of the woman labor force. In 1940, married women were only 30 percent of the woman labor force. During this period of 15 years, the number of married women who work outside their homes has more than doubled. This trend represents a major social change, far-reaching in its effects. The sections that follow on mothers in the

Table 10.—SINGLE AND MARRIED WOMEN IN POPULATION AND LABOR FORCE, APRIL 1955 AND 1940

<i>Marital status</i>	<i>Number of women (14 and over)</i>	<i>Increase 1940-1955</i>		<i>Percent distribution</i>	
		<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>1955</i>	<i>1940</i>
POPULATION					
Total.....	60, 250, 000	9, 701, 000	19	100	100
Single.....	10, 962, 000	<sup>1</sup> 2, 974, 000	<sup>1</sup> 21	18	28
Married (husband present).....	37, 570, 000	9, 053, 000	32	62	56
Other <sup>2</sup> .....	11, 718, 000	3, 621, 000	45	19	16
LABOR FORCE					
Total.....	20, 154, 000	6, 314, 000	46	100	100
Single.....	5, 087, 000	<sup>1</sup> 1, 623, 000	<sup>1</sup> 24	25	48
Married (husband present).....	10, 423, 000	6, 223, 000	148	52	30
Other <sup>2</sup> .....	4, 643, 000	1, 713, 000	58	23	21

<sup>1</sup> In this case a decrease.<sup>2</sup> Includes women who are widowed and divorced, and married women with husbands absent.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 62.

labor force and the family relationships of women workers discuss some of these effects.

In every age group the percentage of single women in the labor force is consistently highest and the percentage of married women lowest, with women of other marital status somewhere between. The only exception is the small group of girls under 20 who have married and lost their husbands, and who are much more likely to be working than other girls their age. The percent of women in each age group who are in the labor force is shown below by marital status:

<i>Age</i>	<i>Women workers as percent of woman population</i>		
	<i>Single</i>	<i>Married</i>	<i>Other marital status</i>
All women, 14 years and over.....	46	28	40
14 to 19 years.....	25	20	37
20 to 24 years.....	70	29	55
25 to 34 years.....	81	26	61
35 to 44 years.....	81	34	65
45 to 54 years.....	79	34	64
55 to 64 years.....	69	21	45
65 years and over.....	26	7	11

The proportion of married women who work is lowest at age 25 through 34 years, when women are most likely to have young children needing their care. In contrast, the percentage of single women in the labor force is high at all ages from 20 to 65.

The group classified under "other" marital status is composed of nearly 9 million women who are widowed or divorced and 2.8 million women whose husbands are absent from the home. Of the absent husbands, almost half a million are in the Armed Forces, and the rest are either separated from their wives or absent for other reasons—for example, they may be inmates of institutions, or simply employed at a distance from their homes. Two-fifths of the women of "other" marital status are in the labor force. More than half are working at every age from 20 through 55 years. However, among those 20 to 34 years of age there has been a noticeable decline since 1940 in labor-force participation. To a certain extent this results from provisions that enable these women to remain at home to care for children and family needs—such as social-security programs providing funds for dependent children and veterans' benefits for dependents. In age groups 35 to 54 years, nearly two-thirds of these women are in the labor force, compared with one-third of the married women.

**Occupations of Single and Married Women**

From two-thirds to three-fourths of the women workers in each marital group are in clerical, operative, or the service occupations. Nevertheless, there are noteworthy differences in the occupations of single and married women. The percentage distribution of women workers in each marital group among the major occupation groups in 1955 was as follows:

Occupation group	Percent distribution		
	Single	Married	Other marital status
Total	100	100	100
Clerical	40	25	20
Professional	15	11	8
Operative	12	22	19
Service (except household)	10	13	19
Household service	10	6	17
Sales	7	9	6
All other	6	14	11

Clerical work is the largest occupation in each group. However, among single women, the percentage of clerical workers is much higher than among women who are married, or widowed or divorced. More single women are professional workers, also, while relatively few are operatives.

Among married women living with their husbands, the percentage who are operatives is almost as high as for clerical workers. As might be expected, the proportion in household service is lower than in the other marital groups.

Those women of "other marital status" show a smaller percentage in professional occupations and larger percentages in service occupations than do the single or married women. This group includes widows, women who are divorced or separated, and also married women whose husbands are absent from home—in the Armed Forces or for other reasons. Doubtless there are among this number many women who work because they must support themselves or their children and who perhaps never prepared themselves to enter an occupation requiring special skill or training.

One-third of all women workers have children under 18. This can be seen from the following summary, showing the percentage of women workers with and without children under 18:

	<i>Labor force (percent distri- bution)</i>
All women workers.....	100
Married women, husband present.....	52
With no children under 18.....	26
With children under 18.....	26
Widows, women divorced or separated, and married women, husband absent.....	23
With no children under 18.....	16
With children under 18.....	7
Single women.....	25

The number of employed mothers with children under 18 years of age was reported to be 6.5 million in 1955, an increase of almost 1.9 million compared with 1950. Of these employed mothers, about 2.5 million had children under 6 years of age. Most of these were married women with husband present, but nearly 500,000 were either widowed or divorced or for other reasons the husband was not present. (See table 11.)

Of all women workers who are or have been married, however, over four-fifths have no children under 6, and almost three-fifths have none under 18. These women include the older workers whose children are grown, and the young wives who have not yet had children.

The increase in employment of married women apparently has not resulted in the birth of fewer children in recent years. On the contrary, in 1952, there were 549 children under 5 years of age per 1,000 ever-married women 15 to 49 years of age, compared with 413 in 1940.

Mothers whose husbands are dead or absent from the home evidently often must work to support their families. More than half of them are in the labor force, compared with one-fourth of the mothers whose husbands are present. Of those having children under 6 years of age, 40 percent work, compared with 16 percent of the mothers with husbands present.

Table 11.—EMPLOYMENT OF MOTHERS, 1955

	Population (thou- sands)	Labor force (thou- sands)	Percent of population in labor force
All women with children under 18----	24, 111	6, 522	27
Married, husband present-----	21, 602	5, 195	24
With children under 18, but none under 6_	9, 183	3, 183	35
With children under 6, but none between 6 and 18-----	6, 134	927	15
With children under 6 and between 6 and 18-----	6, 285	1, 086	17
All other women ever married-----	2, 509	1, 327	53
With children under 18, but none under 6_	1, 364	865	63
With children under 6, but none between 6 and 18-----	609	261	43
With children under 6 and between 6 and 18-----	536	201	38

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 62.

## Family Status of Women Workers

### Types of Family

There were over 40 million families in the United States in 1955. Families with husband and wife dwelling together formed approximately 85 percent of all families. Over one-tenth of the total had a woman as head; and a small group consisted of families (other than married couples) headed by a man.

In addition to these related family groups there were over 5½ million women (and 4 million men) classed as "unrelated individuals" who were not living with relatives. Four million of these women had their own homes or apartments and were living independently as "primary individuals." The remainder were boarders or employees in the households where they lived as "secondary individuals." Four-fifths of the women with their own establishments, and half of the others, were women 45 years of age or over.

Husband-wife families tended to be larger than other types of family. (See table 12.) Nearly half had four or more members, and in almost two-fifths there was more than one child under 18. However, nearly one-third of these families had no members in addition to husband and wife. In this group were many older couples whose children were grown and no longer living with them, and many young couples who had no children.

Table 12.—COMPOSITION OF FAMILIES, 1955

Size of family	Percent distribution of families—		
	With man as head		With women as head
	Husband-wife families	Other families	
Number of persons:			
2.....	30	55	45
3.....	23	22	24
4 or more.....	47	23	31
Number of own children under 18:			
None.....	42	81	56
1.....	20	8	17
2.....	20	7	13
3 or more.....	18	5	14

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-20, No. 67.

In over half of families headed by women in 1955, the woman head had no own children under 18 years old; in over four-fifths, she had none under 6 years of age. On the other hand, 27 percent had two or more children under 18. Moreover, nearly half a million women (12 percent of the women family heads) had children under 18 years old who were not their own children but were related to them in other ways—younger sisters and brothers, grandchildren, and so forth—in the family group.

The women family heads were a somewhat older group than the wives. Sixty percent were 45 years of age or over; only 10 percent were less than 30 years of age. As to marital status, widows predominated, constituting more than half of the group. Only 10 percent were single women.

#### Employment of Women in Relation to Family Status

The extent to which women enter the labor force varies considerably with their family status. More than half of the women who were unrelated individuals, and nearly half of those who were heads of families, were breadwinners, compared with little more than one-fourth of the wives dwelling with their husbands. The figures (as of April 1955) are as follows:

Family status	Population	Labor force	Percent of population in labor force
Women 14 years of age and over..	60, 250, 000	20, 154, 000	33
In families.....	54, 100, 000	17, 032, 000	31
Family head.....	4, 947, 000	2, 359, 000	48
Married, husband present.....	37, 570, 000	10, 423, 000	28
Other relatives.....	11, 583, 000	4, 250, 000	37
Unrelated individuals.....	5, 584, 000	3, 089, 000	55
In institutions.....	566, 000	-----	-----

Women family heads are more likely to be in the labor force than other women who live as members of a family. Nearly half of the 5 million women classed as family heads in 1955 were in the labor force. Of those between 25 and 65 years of age, 58 percent were working. In more than a fifth of the families headed by women there was no other wage earner.

About 28 percent of the women family heads who were employed were in service occupations (the proportion rises sharply among women over 35). Another 40 percent were equally divided between operative and clerical occupations (among those under 35, however, clerical work ranked first). Among those 65 years of age or over, about 10 percent were in professional occupations and another 10 percent were in farmwork.

Since "other relatives" in family groups include daughters still in school and grandmothers too old to work, it is somewhat surprising to find that more than a third of this group were working. The proportion was slightly higher than for all women 14 years old and over.

Women who do not live as members of a family—the unrelated individuals—are more likely to work than women living in family groups. More than half of them were in the labor force. This group includes many women, such as teachers and nurses, who go where the jobs are in order to utilize their training and skills. Another factor, of course, is that women who are not members of a family must work to support themselves, unless they have independent means.

### **Working Couples**

Working wives constitute the most rapidly growing group of working women, and one that has gained particular attention. They now exceed 10 million in number and make up slightly more than half of the entire woman labor force. The occupations in which working wives are employed are discussed in an earlier section.

Young married women are likely to work for a time to help establish their homes. Furthermore, it is becoming increasingly customary for wives to enter or reenter the labor force after their children are in school or well grown. The proportion of couples with both spouses in the labor force rose from 22 percent (just over 8 million couples) in 1950 to 26 percent (9.8 million couples) in 1955. There were half a million couples in which the wife was the only earner (in over one-third of these couples the husbands were 65 years of age or older) and about the same number in which other family members were the only earners. Nevertheless, in over half of all married couples, the husband was the only earner.

The extent to which wives and other family members (some of whom, of course, are daughters, sisters, mothers) were working in 1955 is shown in the following summary.

	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent distrib- ution</i>
All married couples.....	37, 570, 000	100
Wife earning.....	10, 423, 000	28
Both spouses earning.....	8, 130, 000	22
Both spouses and other relative earning.....	1, 663, 000	4
Wife and other relative earning.....	122, 000	(1)
Wife only earning.....	508, 000	1
Wife not earning.....	27, 147, 000	71
Husband only earning.....	20, 456, 000	54
Husband and other relative earning.....	3, 815, 000	10
Other relative earning.....	562, 000	1
No one earning.....	2, 314, 000	6

<sup>1</sup> Less than 1 percent.

## 2

# WOMEN'S EARNINGS AND INCOME

### Earnings in Selected Occupations

Women's earnings in certain occupations, such as nursing, stenography, and power laundry work, are considered here. So far as possible, representative occupations have been selected from the broad occupational groups employing large numbers of women.

#### *Factors Influencing Earnings*

Among workers receiving salaries or wages, whether men or women, earnings are affected by the skill requirements in widely varying occupations and industries. Moreover, the training, experience, and effectiveness of individual employees in any occupation may differ considerably, and these factors affect earnings. Market conditions, the locality in which the work is done, and sometimes the season of the year may cause variations in pay.

These factors, however, do not account entirely for the fact that the average earnings of women are consistently lower than those of men.

In the first instance, account must be taken of the prevalence of part-time work among women. Of the 27.7 million women who held jobs at some time during 1955, 8 million, or 29 percent, had part-time jobs. Another 4½ million women (17 percent of the total) worked half of the year or less.

To some extent the difference in average earnings of men and women is explained by the fact that women workers are concentrated in the lower paying occupations and in the lower pay brackets of these occupations. These tend to be jobs requiring little skill or training. Sometimes, however, these are occupations requiring long years of special training, but offering satisfactions (in terms of service or prestige) so attractive to women that low salaries are not the important consideration.

To the degree that the concentration in the lower pay brackets is a matter of training, it can be overcome as more women obtain technical training or training for the various crafts. There is great demand for skilled workers. To some extent, however, the concentration in lower pay brackets is a matter of length of service on the job. Many women work only a few years, or return to the labor force after an interval of years devoted to household responsibilities. They,

therefore, may lack the job seniority needed to qualify them for advancement.

Finally, even where a woman works side by side with men and has job duties similar to theirs, she is not always paid at the same rate. Efforts are being made to eliminate this unfair differential based on sex (see chs. 4 and 5 on equal pay) through legislation, through collective bargaining between labor unions and employers, and through public education. Nevertheless, lack of equal pay for women is still one of the factors, though probably not the most important one, which keeps women's earnings below those of men.

### Sources of Information on Earnings

Information for certain of the occupations that employ the largest numbers of women can be obtained from a variety of sources such as Government agencies and professional associations. There are, however, no general sources of periodic reporting on women's earnings for all types of work.

The discussion which follows describes the recent available data on women's earnings in certain important occupations. Most of the occupations discussed are listed below, with the number of women employed in each in 1950, when the decennial census of occupations was last taken, and the percentage of all workers in the occupation who were women:

<i>Occupations</i>	<i>Women, 1950</i>	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent of all workers</i>
<b>"White-collar" occupations:</b>		
Stenographers, typists, secretaries.....	1, 501, 090	94
School teachers.....	834, 996	75
Professional nurses.....	388, 921	98
Telephone operators.....	341, 706	95
Librarians.....	49, 027	89
Library attendants, assistants.....	9, 085	74
<b>Operatives:</b>		
Factory.....	2, 214, 989	41
Power laundry, dry cleaning.....	287, 533	67
<b>Service workers (except household):</b>		
Practical nurses.....	130, 304	96
Charwomen and cleaners.....	72, 116	60
Elevator operators.....	26, 929	30

Average rates only can be shown here. Individual earnings naturally may be much higher or much lower than the average. The wage or salary reported usually is either the basic rate of pay or earnings on the job. The actual amount in the worker's pay envelope or check—his "take-home pay"—is usually considerably less than this, because of the deductions customarily made for various purposes such as taxes, social security, union dues, pension fund, or health insurance. Most

of the deductions are ultimately to the advantage of the worker, but they reduce the amount available for current spending.

### “White-Collar” Workers

Professional, clerical, and sales occupations, which taken together employ almost half of all women workers, are often referred to as “white-collar” occupations. Regular reports are made of earnings in some of these occupations as, for example, earnings of office workers and of teachers in elementary and secondary schools. 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, or a women’s organization.

#### **Beginning Salaries of College Graduates**

A survey of the job status of 81,000 women graduated from co-educational and women’s colleges in June 1955 was made early in 1956 by the Women’s Bureau in cooperation with the National Vocational Guidance Association. The following summary shows the number of graduates estimated to be employed in some of the occupations dealt with in this chapter, and the average annual salary at which they started work :

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Number of graduates</i>	<i>Annual salary</i>
Stenographers, secretaries.....	4, 506	\$2, 895
Typists.....	996	2, 704
School teachers.....	37, 418	3, 197
Professional nurses.....	2, 252	3, 438

The average salary reported for employed graduates in these occupations and all other occupations was \$3,141. Starting salaries averaged highest for chemists (\$3,900 for 470 women) and mathematicians or statisticians (\$3,848 for 408 women).

#### **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 salaries of these workers is the Bureau of Labor Statistics, which reports on office workers’ occupations in various cities throughout the country. Large numbers of women clerical workers are found in the occupations of general stenographer, secretary, accounting clerk, and class B typist. For these, and a few other occupations, the range of average earnings in 15 metropolitan areas is shown in table 1. In noting these general averages it must be kept in mind that many individual women are receiving considerably more, or less, than the average.

Table 1.—WEEKLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN IN SELECTED OFFICE OCCUPATIONS, 1955

<i>Range of city averages</i>	<i>Average weekly earnings—</i>	
	<i>In 9 areas over 1,000,000 population</i>	<i>In 6 areas 500,000 to 1,000,000 population</i>
Accounting clerks A:		
Highest average.....	\$78. 00	\$72. 50
Lowest average.....	60. 50	64. 00
Accounting clerks B:		
Highest average.....	60. 50	58. 00
Lowest average.....	48. 50	50. 50
File clerks A:		
Highest average.....	65. 50	60. 00
Lowest average.....	51. 00	49. 50
File clerks B:		
Highest average.....	49. 00	46. 50
Lowest average.....	40. 50	40. 50
Secretaries:		
Highest average.....	81. 00	74. 50
Lowest average.....	63. 00	66. 00
Stenographers, general:		
Highest average.....	69. 50	60. 50
Lowest average.....	54. 50	54. 50
Typists A:		
Highest average.....	67. 00	58. 00
Lowest average.....	51. 00	49. 50
Typists B:		
Highest average.....	53. 50	50. 00
Lowest average.....	43. 50	42. 00

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Community Wage Surveys.

In clerical work, as in industrial work, the occupations requiring the greatest skill pay the best salaries. Reports indicate that the girl who hopes to reach the higher salary range 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 a secretary's job; or she should aim at becoming an expert accounting clerk. Women in these two occupations receive higher average salaries than those in the other occupations listed here. Other clerical occupations with better pay, not shown in detail here and usually employing fewer women, are those of hand bookkeeper, class A bookkeeping-machine operator, and technical stenographer.

Lowest average earnings (except for office girls in some cities) are those of class B file clerks and class B typists, who are among the larger groups of women office workers. They include beginning clerical employees with less experience than those in the class A grade.

The greatest ranges in average salaries among the cities included in this survey are for secretaries, stenographers, class A accounting clerks,

class A typists, class A file clerks. These are the occupations in which presumably a worker has the greatest opportunity to improve her level of skill, dependability, and general usefulness on the job. In the other clerical occupations the pay range is narrower.

Table 1 is not strictly comparable with the one published in the 1954 handbook, since the cities included are not identical. It is interesting to note, however, that in a period of about 2 years, earnings had advanced in every category shown. The smallest advance (50 cents a week) was in the low-average earnings of accounting clerks B, and the largest advance (\$7.50) was in high-average earnings of secretaries. This is a good illustration of the spread of earnings in a single occupation, depending on (1) skills required and (2) demand and supply in the local job market.

### Salaries of School Teachers

Over two-fifths of all professional women are school teachers. Median annual salaries of teachers in elementary schools and in junior and senior high schools in the school year 1954-55 are shown in table 2.

Table 2.—ANNUAL SALARIES OF TEACHERS,<sup>1</sup> BY TYPE OF SCHOOL, 1954-55

<i>Population of school district 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.....	\$5, 110	( <sup>2</sup> )	54
Junior high schools.....	4, 931	-----	48
Senior high schools.....	5, 864	( <sup>2</sup> )	77
100,000-500,000:			
Elementary schools.....	4, 055	2	19
Junior high schools.....	4, 311	1	27
Senior high schools.....	4, 650	1	39
30,000-100,000:			
Elementary schools.....	4, 028	2	16
Junior high schools.....	4, 382	1	26
Senior high schools.....	4, 686	1	38
10,000-30,000:			
Elementary schools.....	<sup>3</sup> 3, 857	3	10
Junior high schools.....	4, 103	1	15
Senior high schools.....	4, 385	1	25
5,000-10,000:			
Elementary schools.....	<sup>3</sup> 3, 591	5	4
Junior high schools.....	3, 751	2	6
Senior high schools.....	4, 021	2	12
2,500-5,000:			
Elementary schools.....	<sup>3</sup> 3, 465	6	3
Junior high schools.....	3, 579	2	2
Senior high schools.....	3, 848	3	8

<sup>1</sup> Includes men and women.

<sup>2</sup> Less than 1 percent.

<sup>3</sup> Includes kindergartens.

Source: National Education Association of the United States. Research Bulletin, April 1955.

The report of the National Education Association from which these data are taken covers a very large proportion of all employees in urban school systems throughout the country. Although there is no breakdown of salaries by sex, the figures represent salaries received by women, since nine-tenths of all elementary-school teachers and nearly half of all secondary-school teachers are women. Moreover, there is very little differential in the salaries of teachers on the basis of sex, although men teachers may receive higher salaries in some instances because of the subjects they teach, and because high-school teachers may be paid higher salaries than elementary-school teachers.

All school salaries are considerably higher in large cities than in small urban school districts. The NEA report shows that in districts with over 500,000 population, three-fourths of the senior-high and about one-half of the junior-high and elementary-school teachers received salaries of \$5,000 or more. In smaller areas, such salaries were received by a considerably smaller proportion of the teachers, and in areas of under 10,000 population they were unusual. Only a very small proportion of teachers received less than \$2,500, regardless of size of district or type of school.

Increasingly, school districts are adopting the single salary schedule: that is, the same schedule throughout an area for teachers with comparable training and experience, regardless of whether they teach in elementary or high school. This tends to narrow the salary differential between elementary-, junior-high-, and senior-high-school teachers. The greatest difference is in the largest districts (500,000 and over), where the median salary of senior-high-school teachers is over \$900 more than that of junior-high-school teachers.

In a survey of 80 large cities reported by the Tax Foundation, Inc., salaries in the school year 1954-55 for teachers with the bachelor's degree ranged from \$3,115 to \$5,190. For those with the master's degree, the range was from \$3,400 to \$5,450.

Salaries of 2,595 beginning classroom teachers in urban school systems were reported by the National Educational Association for 1954-55. Median salaries received were \$3,185 for women and \$3,378 for men. Median salaries for men and women combined were \$3,195 for elementary-school and \$3,300 for secondary-school teachers.

### **Earnings of Professional Nurses**

A fifth of all professional women are nurses; this is the second-largest professional group. Half of the nurses are employed in hospitals or other institutions; these, with private-duty nurses, constitute two-thirds of all women in the profession. A very small proportion are public-health nurses, and others are in teaching or administrative work, or employed by industrial firms.

The beginning salaries of hospital general-duty nurses who worked full time through the year averaged \$3,036 a year in 1955, according to a report of the monthly beginning salaries in almost 3,000 nonfederal hospitals, made annually by the American Hospital Association. These are not merely the cash salaries received, but include estimates for maintenance where such items as room, board, and laundry are provided. The monthly averages have increased by \$39 (18 percent) since 1950, and by nearly \$100 since 1945:

	<i>Average monthly beginning salary (including maintenance)</i>
1955.....	\$253
1954.....	247
1953.....	242
1950.....	214
1945.....	155

The 1955 survey shows average beginning salaries by size, type, and ownership of hospital and by size of locality and geographic area. In all these classifications, entrance salaries cover a considerably wider range currently than in 1945. The increase since 1945 in average beginning pay of general-duty nurses is about 63 percent in the general hospitals reported; it is considerably more in the specialized hospitals—77 percent in tuberculosis and 84 percent in mental hospitals. In seven of the nine geographic areas, the average beginning salaries (including maintenance) increased more than \$90 from 1945 to 1955, and in the two remaining areas the increase was more than \$80.

Table 3 gives the average gross monthly starting salaries in 1955 for general-duty nurses in nonfederal hospitals in the continental United States, according to region, size of hospital, ownership of hospital, and type of hospital.

Table 3.—MONTHLY STARTING SALARIES OF NURSES IN NONFEDERAL HOSPITALS, 1955

By area:	<i>Average salary</i>	By size of hospital:	<i>Average salary</i>
New England.....	\$232	Under 25 beds.....	\$259
Middle Atlantic.....	247	25-49 beds.....	256
South Atlantic.....	241	50-99 beds.....	249
East North Central.....	266	100-199 beds.....	248
East South Central.....	245	200-299 beds.....	250
West North Central.....	251	300-499 beds.....	250
West South Central.....	253	500 beds and over.....	275
Mountain.....	255	By ownership of hospital:	
Pacific.....	276	State.....	\$272
By type of service of hospital:		County.....	261
General.....	\$249	Municipal.....	256
Mental.....	276	Church.....	247
Tuberculosis.....	280	Other nonprofit.....	249
Other.....	267	Proprietary.....	257

Source: American Hospital Association. Hospital Salary Survey, 1955.

For the large group of private-duty nurses, payment is made by the day. For example, a statewide minimum of \$14 a day on an 8-hour shift was established for private-duty nurses in Minnesota in 1954, with \$9 per patient if the nurse takes care of two patients at the same time. The private-duty nurse frequently may lose time through delays in obtaining new cases, and this may have a considerable effect on earnings in the year. Data reported in the decennial census indicate that little more than half of all nurses work as much as 50 weeks in the year. At the rate cited, a year's earnings for 5 days a week for 50 weeks would amount to \$3,500 (with one patient only).

Industrial nurses constitute a small proportion of the total nurse group. Their average weekly salaries (fall 1954–spring 1955) in 17 cities in all parts of the country ranged from \$67.00 to \$80.50, as reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This would be a range of from \$3,484 to \$4,186 in a year of full-time employment. Averages were \$75 or over a week in 6 of these cities, below \$70 in 5 cities. Salaries of industrial nurses are shown in comparison with those of certain other professional or technical employees. Their average pay was below that of senior draftsmen; and in 6 of the 17 cities, below that of junior draftsmen—in two cities at least \$4 a week less than junior draftsmen's pay. Organizations of nurses promote establishment of pay standards consistent with the work and living costs. For example, in 1953 the Washington State Nurses' Association negotiated a contract for nurses with an aircraft company for a weekly salary of \$79.40, together with other benefits, including a health and welfare plan.

### **Earnings of Telephone Operators**

Telephone operators comprise another large group of white-collar workers—95 percent are women, according to the decennial census of 1950. In 1954, average earnings of over 175,000 women experienced as switchboard operators and employed by Class A telephone carriers were \$1.44 an hour, as reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This average would yield \$57.60 in a 40-hour week and, if 52 full weeks in the year were worked, would amount to just under \$3,000 per year. Seventeen percent received less than \$1.20 an hour, and the same proportion earned \$1.70 or more an hour.

The earnings of experienced switchboard operators were exceeded by those of workers (men and women combined) in other nonsupervisory occupations, as table 4 shows. The average earnings of non-supervisory sales or business-office workers were more than one-fourth higher than those of experienced switchboard operators. It may be of some significance that one-fourth of the sales and office workers were men, since all these were nonsupervisory occupations.

Table 4.—HOURLY EARNINGS OF TELEPHONE WORKERS, 1954  
[Employed by class A telephone carriers]

Selected occupations	Employees		Women as per- cent of total	Average hourly earnings of men and women	Percent men and women receiving—	
	Total	Women			Under \$1.20	\$1.70 or more
Experienced switchboard op- erators.....	175, 209	175, 179	<sup>1</sup> 100	\$1. 44	17	17
Nonsupervisory clerical work- ers.....	115, 417	107, 536	93	1. 57	14	31
Nonsupervisory workers in business office or sales....	30, 268	22, 642	75	1. 85	5	50

<sup>1</sup> Only 30 men employees.

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

### Earnings of Library Workers

Librarians constitute another large white-collar group; nine-tenths of them are women. In 1954, the average entrance salary of graduates of library schools was \$3,650, as reported in a survey of schools made by the Special Libraries Association. It was generally \$3,500 to \$3,800 in public libraries, with a few offering the trained beginner as much as \$4,000.

Median salaries of chief librarians in colleges and universities ranged from \$8,800 in those with especially strong graduate programs to \$4,200 in those with operating library budgets below \$35,000, according to reports from 386 colleges in 1955. The best pay for library assistants was in teachers' colleges.

The American Library Association made a special report on the salaries of more than 13,000 professional and almost as many nonprofessional workers in all types of libraries as of 1952. (See table 5.)

Table 5.—MONTHLY SALARIES OF LIBRARY WORKERS, 1952

[Men and women]

	All types of libra- ries <sup>1</sup>	Public libraries	In higher educational institutions	School libraries
Professional workers:				
Number.....	13, 140	7, 948	2, 980	1, 221
Median salary.....	\$314	\$304	\$305	\$418
Chief librarian.....	390	342	475	447
Division head.....	358	347	-----	-----
Branch librarian.....	326	326	-----	-----
Nonprofessional workers:				
Number.....	12, 457	7, 621	3, 543	228
Median salary.....	\$196	\$204	\$165	\$216

<sup>1</sup> Includes 991 library workers in other libraries not shown separately.

Source: Salaries of Library Personnel. American Library Association, 1953.

The median salary for all professional library workers was \$314 a month, or \$3,768 a year; for nonprofessional workers, \$196 a month, or \$2,352 a year.

## Factory Workers

Manufacturing industries employ almost one-fourth of all women workers, and women are somewhat over one-fourth of all workers in manufacturing. Average earnings of factory workers include earnings in a great variety of occupations with wide differences in skills required, methods of payment, working time, and local wage standards and customs.

The earnings of women factory workers throughout the country are not reported regularly by any agency. The most recent such survey showed the median of women's straight-time hourly earnings as \$1.28—in the spring of 1954. This would amount to \$51.20 for a 40-hour workweek. The median for men was \$1.80, which would be \$72 for 40 hours. The survey showed that one-fifth of the women and almost three-fourths of the men earned at least \$1.50 an hour; 3 percent of the women and 24 percent of the men earned \$2.10 or more an hour. At the other end of the scale, 23 percent of the women and 6 percent of the men received less than \$1 an hour.

This was prior to the establishment by law of \$1 an hour for a 40-hour week as the minimum wage payable under the Fair Labor Standards Act (that is, payable to employees of industries engaged in interstate commerce). No general survey has been made since this minimum went into effect in the spring of 1956.

### ***Effect on Earnings of Methods of Pay and Time Worked***

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 exact hours scheduled by the plant for a week's work. This will affect their earnings, and individuals will receive different amounts for work on the same kind of job. In fact, the earnings of the same worker at the same hourly rate may vary from week to week.

Another method frequently used for fixing the rate of pay in factory operations is the piece rate; that is, according to the number of items processed or tasks completed. 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 store or other sales jobs). 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 (as well as those in various other types of employment) is the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the United States Department of Labor. This agency makes special studies of numerous industries; it 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 paid for overtime or night-work. The most recently reported hourly averages in several industries that employ considerable numbers of women are shown in table 6.

The earnings given are averages for the industry, and include a wide range of occupations in many different localities. The averages also fail to show the great differences in the earnings of individual workers, especially in piece-work occupations.

Among the industries reported, those in which workers have the highest average earnings are household furniture and leather finishing. Women are a much smaller proportion of the workers in these industries than in the others listed and, with one exception, their earnings are lower than men's. On the other hand, women make up a large proportion of the workers in cigarmaking and cotton-textile industries, and their earnings here are only slightly below men's. Differences in occupations may account to a considerable extent for the differences in earnings.

Table 6.—HOURLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN AND MEN IN SELECTED MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES, 1954 AND 1955

Industry	Number reported		Average hourly earnings		Percent women receiving—	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Under \$1	\$1.50 and over
Cigars (1955) .....	28, 032	5, 987	\$1. 17	\$1. 20	33	5
Cotton textiles (1954) .....	133, 033	196, 781	1. 14	1. 21	14	2
Men's and boys' dress shirts and nightwear (1954) .....	79, 765	8, 762	1. 07	1. 30	48	9
Synthetic textiles (1954) .....	39, 509	48, 775	1. 19	1. 32	10	8
Household furniture (1954) .....	25, 426	145, 514	1. 26	1. 43	27	26
Leather tanning and finishing (1954) .....	3, 519	30, 565	1. 43	1. 72	2	38

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Wage Structure Reports.

Women also are a large proportion of the workers in the dress-shirt and nightwear industry, where the average pay of men is 23 cents an hour above that of women; this would be over \$8 in a 35-hour week. In this industry men do the cutting—a skilled occupation commanding better pay than the machine sewing and accessory jobs on which many of the women are employed. Moreover, pay by piecework is common in this industry, and this system often results in considerable variation in the pay.

### Women in Power Laundries

The average hourly earnings of women in power laundries and dry-cleaning plants (selected occupations) were reported in 1955 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for 29 areas throughout the country. These are straight-time earnings, omitting premium pay for overtime and nightwork. The decennial census of 1950 reported over 288,000 women employed as laundry operatives—two-thirds of the total.

Laundry and dry-cleaning occupations that usually employ considerable numbers of women and few men are: flatwork machine finisher, machine shirt presser, receiving clerk in retail outlets, and marker. Both women and men are employed as machine pressers in dry-cleaning plants. The range in earnings in selected laundry occupations is shown in table 7.

Table 7.—HOURLY EARNINGS IN POWER LAUNDRIES AND DRY-CLEANING PLANTS, 1955

[Selected occupations in 29 areas]			
<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Number reported</i>	<i>Highest hourly average</i>	<i>Lowest hourly average</i>
All production workers: <sup>1</sup>			
Women .....	68,371	\$1.32	\$0.57
Men .....	23,397	1.84	.77
Finishers (flatwork machine) <sup>2</sup> .....	14,876	1.15	.43
Shirt pressers (machine) <sup>2</sup> .....	8,721	1.24	.55
Receiving clerks (retail) <sup>2 3</sup> .....	5,902	1.45	.67
Markers <sup>2</sup> .....	4,285	1.37	.55
Pressers, dry cleaning (machine):			
Women .....	4,192	1.89	.71
Men <sup>3</sup> .....	3,479	1.93	.82

<sup>1</sup> Includes occupations not shown in detail in this table (routemen not reported).

<sup>2</sup> Data for women only; these occupations employ few men.

<sup>3</sup> This occupation not reported in all of the 29 areas.

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

The occupation in laundry production work in which women received the highest pay usually was that of shirt pressers operating machines. In 9 areas women in this occupation had average earnings of more than \$1.10 an hour; in 3 areas their average was less than 60 cents.

Women receiving clerks in retail outlets almost always had average hourly earnings above those of flatwork finishers. In 12 areas their hourly averages were above those of machine shirt pressers, but in 15 areas, receiving clerks averaged less than machine shirt pressers—by at least 10 cents an hour in several areas.

In 7 of 28 areas in which both men and women worked as machine pressers in dry-cleaning establishments, the average hourly earnings of men were at least 47 cents an hour above those of women. This is \$3.76 more for an 8-hour day or \$18.80 more for a 40-hour week.

In a few areas both men and women were employed as general spotters, an occupation requiring skill and one in which skills may vary considerably. In one area, men averaged over 50 cents more an hour than women, which would be a difference of over \$4 a day, or over \$20 in a 5-day week.

### **Selected Service Occupations**

Somewhat more than one-tenth of all women workers are employed in service occupations (other than those in private households). In this group, some data have been reported on the earnings of women as practical nurses, building cleaners, elevator operators and in certain occupations characteristic of hotels.

#### **Earnings of Practical Nurses**

Over 95 percent of all practical nurses are women. The decennial census of 1950 reported more than 130,000 women in this occupation. Average monthly earnings of practical nurses in more than 2,500 hospitals throughout the country were \$177 in 1955, according to reports of the American Hospital Association. However, this is not necessarily received in cash but includes an estimate for maintenance, such as room, board, or laundry when furnished. If the nurses were employed the full year, this would amount to \$2,124 a year (including maintenance where provided). This was an increase of about 57 percent over 1945.

#### **Earnings of Building Cleaners**

More than 72,000 women cleaners and charwomen were reported in the decennial census of 1950. Women were 60 percent of such workers. As reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1955, of nearly 25,000 women cleaners in office buildings in 24 cities in all parts of the country, over one-third earned \$1.30 an hour or more, and about one-third received under \$1.10. These workers would not necessarily benefit from the rise to the \$1 minimum under the Fair Labor Standards Act, because they are not employed in interstate industry.

Average earnings in the various cities ranged from \$1.57 to 56 cents an hour, which would yield from \$62.80 to \$22.40 for a 40-hour

week. In 6 areas, the average was \$1.25 or more, in 10 others over \$1; at the other end of the scale, the average was 80 cents or less in 3 cities.

### Earnings of Elevator Operators

Almost 27,000 women elevator operators were reported in the decennial census, 1950. Women were almost one-third of the workers in this occupation. The average hourly earnings of operators of passenger elevators in office buildings and in hotels in representative cities as reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1955 are shown in table 8.

About one-half of the women elevator operators, whether in office buildings or hotels, earned \$1.20 an hour or more. However, in office buildings almost one-fifth earned \$1.40 or more, while in hotels no women were paid so much. The difference in the pay scale between office buildings and hotels is even more marked for men than women—over 80 percent of the men operators in office buildings received \$1.40 or more an hour, which was higher than the pay for any of these employees in hotels.

At the other end of the scale, nearly one-fifth of the women elevator operators in office buildings and one-third of those in hotels received less than 90 cents an hour. A few men operators in hotels, but scarcely any in office buildings, were paid so low a rate.

In 3 of 20 cities in which the earnings of both women and men elevator operators in office buildings were reported, women's average hourly earnings were the same as men's; elsewhere, with one exception, men received more than women. In 11 cities, men's averages were from 10 to almost 50 cents above women's, which would be from \$4 to \$20 more for a 40-hour workweek.

In only 2 of 12 cities in which the earnings of both women and men elevator operators in hotels were reported did women's average earnings differ from men's by as much as 5 cents an hour; in 6 cities women had average earnings slightly above men's.

Table 8.—HOURLY EARNINGS OF OPERATORS OF PASSENGER ELEVATORS, 1955

Place of employment	Total reported				In cities employing both women and men		
	Number of cities	Number of workers	Percent receiving hourly earnings—		Number	Hourly average in area paying—	
			\$1.20 or over	Under 90 cents		Highest	Lowest
In office buildings:							
Women.....	21	3, 231	47	19	20	\$1. 64	\$0. 66
Men.....	23	10, 677	89	4	20	1. 69	. 83
In hotels: <sup>1</sup>							
Women.....	17	1, 492	43	31	12	1. 33	. 61
Men.....	14	2, 037	62	16	12	1. 33	. 48

<sup>1</sup> Women, but no men, were reported in 5 additional cities, with the lowest average 31 cents. Men, but no women, were reported in 2 cities, none higher or lower than shown here.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Occupational wage rates.

## Total Money Income

Information on total money income of individuals and of families for the year 1954 is available from current sampling reports of the Bureau of the Census. Total money income includes wage and salary income; it also includes income from other sources such as pensions, insurance policies, investments, rentals, old-age and survivor insurance benefits, and aid to dependent children or other forms of public assistance. Ninety percent of the men (14 years of age and over) in the population, but only 46 percent of the women, have income of their own from some source. Only persons who received some income during the year are included in the computations.

### Median Income of Women and Men, 1954

The median income of women having any income in 1954 was \$1,161; that of men was \$3,199. This is an increase over a 5-year period of 22 percent in women's income and 24 percent in men's. Fifteen percent of the women had an income of \$3,000 or more; nearly half received less than \$1,000. Of the men, on the other hand, more than half had an income of \$3,000 or more, and fewer than one-fifth received less than \$1,000. (See table 9.)

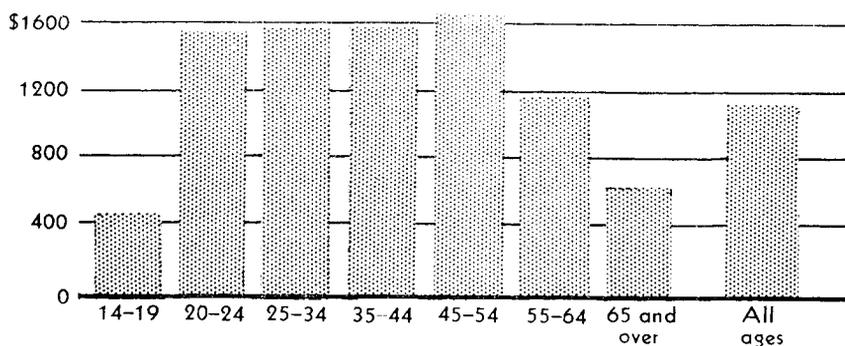
Table 9.—DISTRIBUTION OF INCOME, 1954

<i>Income</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
Persons receiving income:		
Number.....	27, 715, 000	49, 712, 000
Percent of population.....	46	90
Median income.....	\$1, 161	\$3, 199
<i>Percent distribution</i>		
Amount of income:		
Total.....	100	100
Under \$1,000.....	46	18
\$1,000, under \$2,000.....	21	14
\$2,000, under \$3,000.....	17	14
\$3,000, under \$5,000.....	13	33
\$5,000 or over.....	2	21

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 19.

### Age of Women Receiving Income

Part of the difference between the median income of men and of women is due to the fact that in the age group 65 and over there are many more women than men in the population. Persons 65 and over are less likely to have earnings and more likely to depend on other sources of income such as old-age benefits or pensions; therefore, their average income is lower than that of the younger adult groups.

**INCOME OF WOMEN, BY AGE GROUP, 1954****Figure 3**

A larger proportion of women in the age group 65 and over than in any other age group have some income. Many are retired workers or widows receiving pensions, old-age benefits, or income from inheritances. Others have income from rentals or investments of their own.

The proportion of persons having any income is lowest for both men and women in the age group under 20. At this age, of course, many girls and boys are students dependent on their parents and without any income of their own.

Among women in all age groups over 20 years, the age group 25 to 34 years has the smallest proportion receiving income. This corresponds to the drop in women's participation in the labor force during the years of life when family and homemaking responsibilities are greatest.

In amount, the median income of women rises abruptly at age 20 to 24 years, shows little change from 25 to 54 years, and drops sharply at age 55 to 64 years. (See table 10.)

**Table 10.—INCOME OF WOMEN AND MEN, BY AGE GROUP, 1954**

Age	Women in population		Median income of persons with income	
	Number	Percent with income	Women	Men
All ages (14 years and over)-----	59,684,000	46	\$1,161	\$3,199
14 to 19 years.....	6,600,000	33	430	448
20 to 24 years.....	5,328,000	58	1,569	2,042
25 to 34 years.....	12,191,000	42	1,583	3,664
35 to 44 years.....	11,517,000	46	1,582	4,051
45 to 54 years.....	9,438,000	47	1,632	3,811
55 to 64 years.....	7,322,000	43	1,195	3,195
65 years and over.....	7,288,000	62	694	1,268

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 19.

**Family Income**

In two-thirds of all families, the only income consists of the earnings of members. For the great majority of these, income is in the form of wages or salaries; for a small proportion, it is earnings from self-employment, according to the most recent census report on the subject, which gives data for the year 1954. More than half of all families have only one wage earner; one-third have two wage earners; 8 percent have three or more wage earners, and about the same number have none.

When families are grouped according to the age of the head of the family, it appears that median income rises as the age of the family head advances, until a peak of \$4,811 is reached among families headed by a person between 45 and 54 years of age. Among families with a family head between 55 and 64, the median income is \$4,052, and among those with a head aged 65 or over, median income is only \$2,294.

The median income of all families in 1954 was \$4,173. One-fifth had incomes of less than \$2,000 and a somewhat smaller percentage had incomes of \$7,000 or more. (See table 11.)

Table 11.—INCOME IN FAMILIES OF DIFFERENT TYPES, 1954

<i>Type of family</i>	<i>Families</i>		<i>Percent with income—</i>		
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per- cent</i>	<i>Median income</i>	<i>\$7,000 or over</i>	<i>Under \$2,000</i>
All families.....	41, 934, 000	100	\$4, 173	17	20
Male head.....	37, 709, 000	90	\$4, 322	18	17
Married.....	36, 395, 000	87	4, 333	18	17
Wife not in labor force..	27, 390, 000	65	4, 051	15	19
Wife in labor force....	9, 005, 000	21	5, 336	27	9
Other marital status.....	1, 314, 000	3	4, 014	16	24
Female head.....	4, 225, 000	10	2, 294	9	45

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 20.

*Husband-wife families.*—For the 36 million husband-wife families, the median income was \$4,333. In 9 million of these families, the wife was in the labor force and for these families, the median income was significantly higher than for other types of families—\$5,336. The median income of the 27 million husband-wife families where the wife was not in the labor force was \$4,051. Twenty-seven percent of the families with working wives had incomes of \$7,000 or more, compared to 15 percent of those with nonworking wives. An undetermined, though small, percentage of families had some income from the earnings of other members, but the extent to which this affected families with working wives is not known. In a very small percentage of families, the husband was not in the labor force.

*Families headed by a woman.*—One-tenth of all families have women heads. The median income in these families is less than 60 percent of that in husband-wife families where the wife is not in the labor force. Furthermore, only 9 percent of the families with women heads have incomes of \$7,000 or more, compared to 15 percent of the husband-wife families where the wife is not employed. More complete data reported in the decennial census (1950) indicate that the family headed by a woman depends to a larger extent than the husband-wife family on other than head-of-the-family income.

In husband-wife families, the median income of the male head is over four-fifths of the entire family median income, but in families headed by a woman, the woman head's income is only about half that of the whole family. Almost a third of the families with a woman head have two or more earners.

### **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. This includes not only women who have built up insurance credits through their own employment or self-employment, but also women who are aged wives, widows, and mothers of insured workers, and young widows as well, if they have children of insured workers. This system is a family insurance plan under the Social Security Act, operated by the Federal Government, and financed through a tax on employers, workers and self-employed persons. 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 covered under the system, they establish rights to future benefits.

Of 7.6 million women 65 years or over in the 1955 population, 3 million received monthly payments under the old-age and survivors insurance system as retired workers, wives of retired workers, or aged widows or mothers of deceased workers, according to the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Women accounted for somewhat less than half of the 6.3 million old-age and survivors insurance beneficiaries 65 years of age or over.<sup>1</sup>

Some indication as to what old-age insurance beneficiaries receive is shown by figures for the nearly 4.5 million retired workers who were on the OASI rolls at the end of 1955. The retired women workers

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<sup>1</sup> See footnote 1, p. 48.

(over 1 million) drew an average of \$50 per month; the 3.3 million retired men workers received an average payment of about \$67. An analysis of the more than half a million awards made during January–June 1955, which reflect the results of the liberalized benefit formula under the 1954 amendments to the Social Security Act, shows that the monthly average was almost \$57 for retired women workers and was nearly \$77 for men. Less than \$40 a month was received by 29 percent of the women workers and 12 percent of the men; \$70 or more by 29 percent of the women workers and 66 percent of the men. Women have been less steadily employed than men as full-time workers, and they tend to be employed on jobs that pay less than men's jobs. As a result, their average earnings (on which benefits are based, computed over the period specified by law) are less. Women dependents and survivors of insured workers receive benefits which are specified proportions of the benefit rate of insured workers—one-half for wives (retirement benefit) and three-fourths for widows (survivor benefit).

In addition to those receiving old-age and survivors insurance payments, about 700,000 women aged 65 and over were working in mid-1955, and another 900,000, who were not working, had husbands who were employed. Some 700,000 were receiving payments under other public retirement systems, such as State and local retirement systems, the veterans' pension program, and the like. About 1½ million older women (1.3 million fewer than those receiving old-age and survivors insurance benefits) received old-age assistance financed from State and Federal funds. Even though some women receive income from more than one of these sources, there remain 1.4 million women aged 65 and over with no income from any public retirement system or old-age assistance. These women either had income derived from other sources, such as personal funds or local relief, or had no money income and were in institutions or were being supported by relatives or in other ways.

Young widows with children under 18 years of age also share in the protection of old-age and survivors insurance. At the end of 1955 some 292,000 widows under 65 with young children, and over 1 million children were receiving survivor benefits based on the employment record of the deceased husband or father. Among these survivor families, a widow under 65 with two young children averaged a monthly benefit of \$135. About one-sixth of all beneficiaries were young children.

By the close of 1956, the old-age and survivors insurance program had completed 20 years of operation, so that a major proportion of the working population had been able to build up credits under it. A series of recent amendments have improved the protection afforded

by the program. The 1954 amendments extended the coverage of the program, increased benefit amounts, and provided for protecting the benefit rights of workers who suffer long-term total disability.<sup>1</sup>

It was estimated that, by 1956, over 90 percent of all mothers and children had survivorship protection in case the family bread-winner should die. Forty-five percent of all women 65 years of age and over were eligible for old-age and survivors insurance benefits. Taking into account other Government systems—State and local, Federal Civil Service, Armed Forces, etc.—about two-thirds of all women 65 years of age and over were either working or drawing a Government retirement benefit on their own account, or were the wives of men who were working or drawing such benefits.

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<sup>1</sup> An Act of Congress approved Aug. 1, 1956, lowers the age at which women may receive benefits from 65 to 62 years and makes other important changes in Old-Age and Survivors Insurance provisions. A forthcoming Women's Bureau pamphlet, "What Social Security Means to Women," discusses these in detail.

### 3

## WOMEN'S EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING

### Education Completed by Women

The average number of years of schooling completed was 10.4 years among women 25 years of age and over, according to the most recent report by the Bureau of the Census (1952). Forty-five percent had attended high school but not college; 13 percent had some college education, including 6 percent who completed 4 or more years of college. Women were about half of all persons with some college education, almost 45 percent of those with 4 or more years of college.

The average man in the population had slightly less formal education than the average woman, and a somewhat larger proportion of men than women had no high-school education. However, slightly larger proportions of men than of women had attended college 1 to 3 years, and also a larger proportion had completed 4 years of college. Table 1 shows further details.

Table 1.—YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED, BY WOMEN AND MEN, 1952  
[Persons 25 years of age and over]

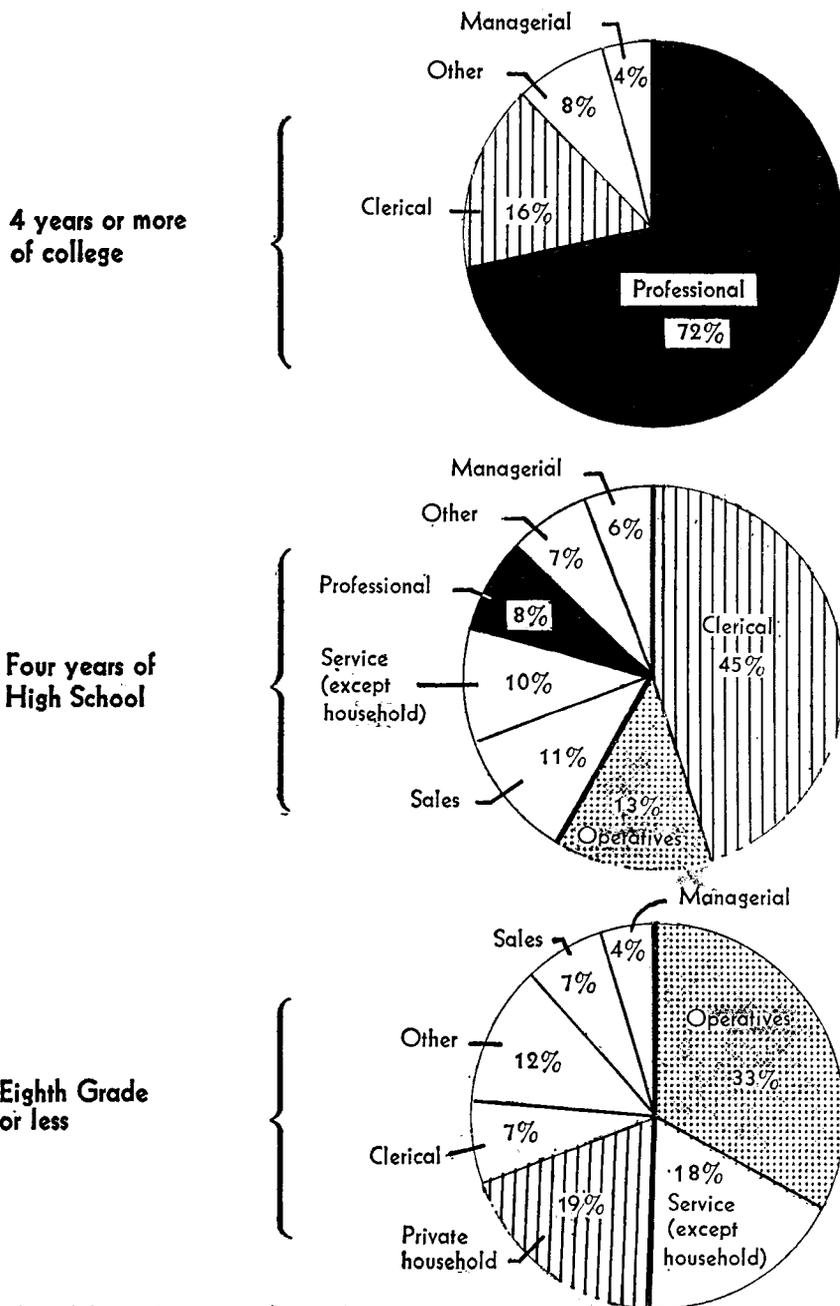
<i>Years of school completed</i>	<i>Percent distribution</i>	
	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
Total.....	100.0	100.0
No high school.....	41.3	45.5
High school only:		
Less than 4 years.....	17.8	16.6
4 years or more.....	26.8	20.7
College:		
Less than 4 years.....	7.7	7.5
4 years or more.....	5.7	8.2
No report.....	.7	1.5
Median years of school completed.....	10.4	9.7

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P-20, No. 45.

### **Educational Attainment and Occupations of Women Workers**

Employed women with college training are found predominantly in professional and technical occupations. Seven out of every 10 women workers who were graduated from college found employment in these occupations, and 3 out of every 10 of those who received 1

### OCCUPATIONS OF WOMEN IN SELECTED SCHOOL ATTAINMENT LEVELS, 1950



Note: Women 25 years of age and over.

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

Figure 4

to 3 years of college training were also professional or technical workers, according to 1950 census figures. A number of women college graduates (about 15 percent of those employed) were clerical workers, and about 35 percent of women workers with some college training were in this occupational group. Thus, a third of the women workers who did not complete college were clerical workers compared with less than one-sixth of those who were college graduates.

For women workers who had finished high school, the clerical occupations offered the greatest opportunity. About 4 of every 10 were clerical employees and about 1 of 10 was employed in each of three other occupational groups; namely, as service workers, such as waitresses, practical nurses, and hotel workers; as operatives; and as sales workers.

Women workers who received some high-school training, but did not graduate, found employment in large proportions in clerical, operative, sales and service occupations. Clerical and operative occupations accounted for almost half of these women. All service and sales occupations employed about two-fifths.

Approximately two-thirds of the women workers with an eighth-grade education or less were employed as operatives or service workers (including private household). The largest proportion were operatives.

Table 2 shows the distribution of women 25 years of age and over in selected occupation groups by educational attainment.

Table 2.—OCCUPATION GROUPS OF WOMEN, BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT, 1950

[Women 25 years of age and over, percent distribution <sup>1</sup>]

<i>Selected occupation groups</i>	<i>Educational attainment</i>					
	<i>Total</i>	<i>College</i>		<i>High school</i>		<i>Eighth grade or less</i>
		<i>4 years or more</i>	<i>1-3 years</i>	<i>4 years</i>	<i>1-3 years</i>	
Total.....	100	100	100	100	100	100
Professional and technical.....	14	72	35	8	3	1
Clerical.....	23	16	35	45	21	7
Private household service.....	10	1	2	3	8	19
Operatives.....	21	1	4	13	27	33
Sales.....	8	3	7	11	12	7
Service (except private household).....	13	2	6	10	17	18
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm).....	5	4	7	6	6	4
Other.....	6	1	4	4	6	11

<sup>1</sup> Percents (based on number reporting occupation) may not add to 100, due to rounding.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. 1950 Census of Population, PE, No. 5 B.

## Enrollment in Schools and Colleges

Among girls and young women 5 to 24 years of age, nearly 18 million were enrolled in schools and colleges (including kindergartens), according to census reports for 1955. Over nine-tenths of those under 18 years of age, but a much smaller percentage of those 18 and over, are in school. These figures are for regular schools only, including kindergartens but not "special" schools outside the regular system (such as trade schools and business colleges); nor do they include correspondence courses, or training on the job. Of the male population in the same age group, the proportion in school is higher than among women and girls, as table 3 shows. The proportion in school among those of both sexes is larger than it was 5 years ago.

Table 3.—SCHOOL ENROLLMENT<sup>1</sup> OF POPULATION UNDER 25 YEARS OF AGE, 1955 AND 1950

Age	Number of girls in school 1955	Percent of population in school			
		Female		Male	
		1955	1950	1955	1950
Total, 5 to 24 years.....	17,680,000	68	62	78	67
5 and 6 years.....	2,700,000	78	75	78	74
7 to 17 years.....	14,177,000	95	93	96	94
18 and 19 years.....	480,000	22	24	42	35
20 to 24 years.....	324,000	6	5	18	14

<sup>1</sup> Includes both public and private elementary schools, high schools, and colleges; enrollment as of October 1955 and 1950.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P-20, No. 66.

### Types of Schools in Which Students Are Enrolled

Nearly three-fourths of the students 5 years of age and up are in elementary schools, including kindergartens, and only 5 percent are in institutions of higher learning. These figures do not represent total college enrollments since they exclude students who are 25 years of age and over.

Almost half the elementary and high-school students are girls and young women. Young men predominate in the colleges, however. (See table 4.)

It was estimated that enrollments of girls and women as resident college students would reach more than 1 million during the school year 1955-56. Women are about one-third of all resident students. Reports from colleges show that 38 percent of the women in more than 1,800 institutions of higher education in 1955-56 are in universities, 34 percent in liberal arts colleges, 14 percent in teachers' colleges and 13 percent in junior colleges. The remaining small proportion are in other professional or technological schools. Women represent more

Table 4.—TYPE OF SCHOOL ATTENDED BY STUDENTS UNDER 25 YEARS OF AGE, OCTOBER 1955

	<i>Girls and women</i>		<i>Boys and men</i>	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent</i>
All types.....	117, 680, 000	100	19, 079, 000	100
Elementary school.....	13, 111, 000	74	13, 968, 000	73
High school.....	3, 882, 000	22	3, 976, 000	21
College or professional.....	688, 000	4	1, 135, 000	6

<sup>1</sup> Due to rounding, details do not always add to total.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P-20, No. 66.

than half of the students in teachers' colleges, over 40 percent of those in liberal arts colleges, and nearly 30 percent in universities. A report in *School and Society* (December 10, 1955) on first-year enrollments in nearly 800 colleges indicates that a large majority of the women are taking liberal arts courses and a considerable proportion, teacher training.

### Women Earning Degrees

Women received 124,000 earned degrees conferred by institutions of higher education in 1954-55, according to figures of the United States Office of Education. (See table 5.) Over one-third of the persons receiving the bachelor's degree, but less than one-tenth of those receiving the doctoral degree, were women. Eighty-four percent of the degrees earned by women were bachelor's or first professional degrees, and most of the rest were master's or second professional degrees; less than 1 percent were doctoral degrees.

Table 5.—DEGREES EARNED BY WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS, 1954-55

<i>Level of degree</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent of total degrees conferred</i>	
		<i>Percent distribution</i>	
Women receiving degrees <sup>1</sup> .....	124, 089	100	35
First level.....	103, 799	84	36
Second level.....	19, 464	16	33
Doctorate level.....	826	1	9

<sup>1</sup> First-level degrees include bachelor's and first-professional degrees, such as M. D. and D. D. S.; 338 women received the M. D. degree in 1954-55.

Second-level degrees include the master's and second-professional degrees.

Source: U. S. Office of Education, Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions, 1954-55. Circular No. 461.

### Subjects in Which Degrees Are Earned

One-third of the women earning the bachelor's degree in 1954-55, and almost two-thirds of those earning the master's degree, had a major in education. (See table 6.) Many teachers whose first degree is in a subject field continue with a master's degree in education, thus

Table 6.—SUBJECTS IN WHICH DEGREES WERE EARNED, 1954-55

<i>Subject</i>	<i>First-level degree</i>		<i>Second-level degree</i>	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent distribution</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent distribution</i>
WOMEN				
Total.....	103, 799	100	19, 464	100
Education (excludes physical education).....	35, 790	34	12, 189	63
Fine arts.....	8, 711	8	1, 144	6
Basic social sciences.....	8, 060	8	722	4
English.....	7, 978	8	834	4
Home economics.....	7, 169	7	687	4
Business, commerce.....	6, 091	6	248	1
Nursing.....	5, 179	5	540	3
Physical sciences and mathematics.....	2, 692	3	355	2
Biological sciences.....	2, 531	2	385	2
Psychology.....	2, 523	2	417	2
Foreign languages.....	2, 135	2	380	2
All other.....	14, 940	14	1, 563	8
MEN				
Total.....	183, 602	100	38, 740	100
Business, commerce.....	35, 564	19	3, 088	8
Engineering.....	22, 527	12	4, 471	12
Basic social sciences.....	19, 606	11	2, 368	6
Physical sciences and mathematics.....	11, 858	6	2, 950	8
Medical sciences, healing arts (except M. D., nursing).....	9, 219	5	1, 006	3
Law.....	7, 937	4	357	1
Fine arts.....	7, 606	4	2, 040	5
Education.....	7, 418	4	13, 655	35
Agriculture.....	7, 052	4	1, 336	3
Medicine (M. D. only).....	6, 718	4	-----	-----
Biological sciences.....	6, 519	4	1, 224	3
Religion.....	6, 447	4	1, 031	3
All other.....	35, 131	19	5, 214	13

Source: U. S. Office of Education. Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions, 1954-55. Circular No. 461.

developing the skills of their profession and meeting requirements for advancement. Other highly popular fields for women earning the bachelor's degree were fine arts, social sciences, English, and home economics; together these four fields accounted for nearly a third of the total.

Of the few women receiving the doctoral degree, over one-fourth were in education; the biological sciences, psychology, and basic social sciences each accounted for one-tenth. The remainder were distributed among a variety of subjects.

Among the men receiving degrees, the subject distribution is very different. Almost one-third of the men receiving the bachelor's degree and one-fifth of those receiving the master's, specialized in business and commerce or engineering. Nine-tenths of the persons receiving the bachelor's degree in agriculture, law, engineering, and medicine were men.

As might be expected, almost all of the graduates receiving a degree in nursing or home economics were women. Education and English were the fields in which women received the next highest proportions of degrees granted. Women received 83 percent of the bachelor's degrees and 47 percent of the master's degrees in education; and 61 percent of the bachelor's degrees and 49 percent of the master's degrees in English. Fifty-three percent of the bachelor's degrees in fine arts went to women.

### **The College Degree and the Job**

The majority of women college graduates take jobs soon after graduation, according to a survey of women who graduated from college in June 1955. Four-fifths of these women were employed 6 months after graduation. About 12 percent were neither studying nor employed, although only one-third of these were seeking work. One-third of the graduates were married, either before leaving college or soon after, and over two-thirds of them were working.

Jobs held were closely allied to the college major subject for over nine-tenths of the working women who majored in education and nursing, for two-thirds of those who majored in biological sciences, and for over half the chemistry majors. The following list shows the percentage of employed graduates with specified major subjects who were working in a field related to their subject of specialization.

<i>Major subject of graduates</i>	<i>Percent employed—</i>	<i>Who are in related field</i>
Nursing .....	96	Nurses.
Education .....	95	Teachers.
Physical education .....	85	Do.
Biological sciences .....	66	Biological technicians.
Music .....	63	Teachers.
Home economics .....	55	Do.
Business, commerce .....	46	Secretaries, stenographers.
Physical sciences, including chemistry <sup>1</sup> .....	45	Chemists.
Social sciences .....	39	Teachers.
Sociology, social work .....	40	Do.
	27	Recreation, religious, social, and welfare workers.

<sup>1</sup> Of the chemistry majors, 53 percent worked as chemists.

Source: Employment After College: Report on Women Graduates, Class of 1955. The National Vocational Guidance Association in Cooperation with the Women's Bureau U. S. Department of Labor, 1956.

## Women in Public Vocational Courses

Almost 1¾ million women and girls were enrolled in federally aided vocational courses in 1954-55, according to provisional figures of the Office of Education. (See table 7.) This training has a vitally important place in aiding women to develop some of the skills so much needed in this country's production and development programs. It is designed to meet the needs of persons 14 years of age or over—either those who are in school and wish to prepare for a trade, or those who are employed and desire to extend their skill and knowledge.

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 years of age and over. Evening instruction must be supplementary to employment. The program is broadly construed to include instruction in such vocational areas as safety, socio-economic problems, or labor laws.

Vocational courses were based in the first instance on the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. Later acts and modifications of the program have been made as needed, particularly in the Vocational Education Act of 1946—generally known as the George-Barden Act. The program is of special importance to the Nation's girls and women, since relatively few of them benefit from publicly supported training programs provided to veterans or given to men and boys in the military services.

Table 7.—WOMEN AND GIRLS IN FEDERALLY AIDED VOCATIONAL TRAINING COURSES, 1954-55

<i>Program</i>	<i>Women and girls enrolled</i>	<i>Percent of total enrollment in vocational courses</i>	<i>Percent distribution of women</i>	<i>Part-time and evening classes</i>	
				<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent of all women and girls in vocational courses</i>
3 programs <sup>1</sup> -----	1, 737, 741	65	100	778, 025	45
Home economics courses....	1, 504, 928	97	87	586, 057	39
Distributive occupations....	124, 502	53	7	124, 502	100
Trade and industrial:					
Trades and industries..	89, 255	11	5	48, 410	54
General continuation...	19, 056	45	1	19, 056	100

<sup>1</sup> Provisional figures on three programs only. Agricultural training not included, as data not available by sex.

Source: U. S. Office of Education, Division of Vocational Education.

The great majority of the women and girls benefiting from federally aided vocational training are in home-economics classes. (The teaching of home economics is limited by law to 20 percent of the Federal funds allotted to a State for vocational purposes.) A much smaller, but significant, number of women and girls are in courses which prepare them for distributive occupations—a branch of work added by the act of 1946. All the women taking courses in distributive work are in part-time or evening classes, and presumably are employed at least part-time. In 1954–55, almost 90,000 women and girls were enrolled in trade and industrial courses, well over half of them in part-time or evening classes. (The type of training being received is discussed in detail later.) The number of women in agricultural classes is not recorded separately, but they are believed to be only a very small proportion, probably about 1 to 2 percent, of the total. However, in certain short-unit intensive courses—for example, horticulture or poultry raising—the proportions may be higher.

Important skills women are learning in trades and industries classes include practical nursing, food handling, medical-assistant techniques, occupations in the needle trades such as dressmaking, and other skills in great demand. Nearly one-half of the women are taking training for work in service occupations; the majority of them are studying practical nursing and beauty service.

Over two-fifths of the women are studying a craft or operative occupation. More than half of the women in this group (25 percent of the total number) are learning skills in dressmaking and needle trades, with the food trades next in importance. A number of women are learning skills for electrical industries—for work in communications, radio, television, or electronics. Others are developing mechanical skills, such as those used in airplane production. A few are preparing for work in such fields as the printing industry, upholstering, paperhanging, and cabinetmaking.

A small group of women (6 percent) are studying technical occupations, including women preparing to assist in medical and dental laboratories and those taking commercial art, drafting, and photography. (See table 8.)

Some courses are organized especially to provide alternate periods of work and class attendance. If used in connection with industrial-plant training, they 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 under Federal law.

Table 8.—WOMEN ENROLLED IN FEDERALLY AIDED TRADES AND INDUSTRIES CLASSES, 1954-55

	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Total.....	89, 255	100
Service occupations.....	40, 869	46
Beauty operator, barber.....	12, 244	14
Cook, commercial.....	1, 083	1
Fireman, fire fighter.....	515	1
Janitor.....	1, 050	1
Nurse, practical.....	24, 952	28
Policeman (guarding life or property only).....	1, 025	1
Craft and operative occupations.....	38, 215	40
Airplane production worker.....	1, 262	1
Baker.....	920	1
Building trades <sup>1</sup> .....	292	(2)
Painter, paperhanger, glazier, interior decorator.....	168	
Electrician <sup>1</sup> .....	1, 778	2
Radio, television, electronics.....	652	
Communication (operative or service).....	1, 042	
Food trades worker.....	4, 599	5
Foreman or supervisor, manager.....	2, 413	3
Furniture, cabinetmaker.....	154	(2)
Lauderer, dry cleaner, presser.....	586	1
Machine operator (production).....	204	(2)
Machinist.....	213	(2)
Mechanic and repairman <sup>1</sup> .....	422	(2)
Automobile.....	128	
Maintenance or service.....	170	
Needle trades, dressmaker, machine operator.....	22, 636	25
Printer, stereotyper, lithographer, photoengraver.....	276	(2)
Shoe repairman.....	149	(2)
Textile worker.....	1, 847	2
Upholsterer.....	195	(2)
Other.....	269	(2)
Semiprofessional and technical occupations.....	4, 983	6
Artists, commercial.....	1, 632	2
Dental and medical assistant.....	2, 059	2
Draftsman.....	596	1
Laboratory assistant and technician, dental and medical.....	324	(2)
Photographer.....	372	(2)
Miscellaneous.....	5, 188	6

<sup>1</sup> Total includes small groups not shown separately.

<sup>2</sup> Less than 1 percent.

NOTE.—Percents do not add to total, due to rounding.

Source: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Provisional data.

# 4

## RECOMMENDED STANDARDS FOR EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

### *Development of Standards*

Significant changes in women's work have been in the process of development over the last century and a half. They have been the result of economic and technological progress, and of demographic and social influences. Two world wars speeded up the process. Today, women are an important part of the Nation's labor force. In large and increasing numbers they are employed in manufacturing goods or performing services for the public—working in factories, offices, schools, stores, hospitals, hotels, restaurants, and laundries. Many thousands of women are employed by 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 voluntarily have established such standards for their employees. In other cases, good standards have been adopted through collective bargaining between employers and workers. But when standards depend wholly on voluntary action, they often vary in adequacy from firm to firm and many workers are completely unprotected. 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. The standards vary from State to State, and not every State has established each type of standard.

Labor standards are not static, 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 in many States to reflect rising prices and improved standards 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, efficiency, and productivity. The development of good industrial health and safety practices provides a basis for protecting the worker from unsafe working conditions and from processes that endanger his health.

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.

In matters such as training, seniority, and promotion, women workers often are in a particularly vulnerable situation which requires special attention. These matters ordinarily are not governed by law, and fair adjustments require methods other than legislation. Women may be hired for beginning jobs on an equal basis with men, but may not get equal consideration for promotion. Frequently they do not have the same training opportunities, and 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.

Outlined in the following pages are basic recommended standards to safeguard health and efficiency of women employees. These standards apply mainly to manufacturing, trade, and service occupations and office workers. They do not attempt to deal with details, but indicate the direction in which good standards should move. Federal labor laws and social-security provisions affect both men and women workers and, therefore, lie for the most part outside the scope of this chapter. They relate to labor-management relations, wage and hour standards, social security, employment security, job training and education, workmen's compensation, and so forth.

### **Wage Standards**

Adequate basic wages serve to promote the Nation's welfare by maintaining a secure and healthful level of living for individual workers and by sustaining the purchasing power of workers as a whole. To aid in accomplishing this objective, many States have provided by law for a floor to wages. Since earnings determine standards of living, workers should be assured a minimum wage adequate to meet the cost of living. The adequacy of the wage depends not only on the amount of the rate paid, but also on the opportunity for regular employment throughout the year.

Wage standards should include the following:

1. A minimum wage adequate to maintain the health and well-being of the worker.
2. The principle of equal pay: Wage rate based on the job, and not on the sex of the worker.
3. No deduction from wages for protective clothing, other safety equipment, and uniforms; provision and maintenance of these facilities by the employer as part of the cost of production.
4. Wages paid regularly and in full, on a weekly or semimonthly

basis, and on a fixed day; assistance by the appropriate government agency in collection of unpaid wages.

### **Hours 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 workweek is an accepted practice in many industries.

Hours and leave standards should include:

1. A workweek of 8 hours a day and 40 a week with worktime over 8 or 40 to be paid at time and a half the worker's regular rate of pay.
2. At least 1 day of rest in 7; preferably 2 consecutive days in 7.
3. Meal periods of at least 30 minutes; no work period of more than 5 hours without a break for meal and rest.
4. A rest period of at least 10 minutes in the middle of each half-day work period, to be allowed in addition to the lunch period and without lengthening the workday.
5. Vacation with pay after 6 months on the job; longer vacation after longer service.
6. Time off with pay on legal holidays.
7. 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.
8. Nightwork, except in continuous-process industries and essential services, kept to a minimum; observance of the International Labor Organization standard; e. g., a guarantee of an uninterrupted rest period of 11 consecutive hours, including an absolute "barred period" of 7 hours between 12 midnight and 7 a. m.

### **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, restrooms and dressing rooms, and drinking water, to be convenient and available to all workers; lunchrooms with nourishing food at reasonable prices to be pro-

vided 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 to discover and protect against occupational hazards arising from the use of dangerous substances or processes.

5. Provision for mechanical aids in lifting weights. Elimination of undue physical strain for women workers.

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**

Industrial homework should be limited by law to handicapped persons who are unable to leave home for regular employment. For such workers it should be controlled by licensing provisions and related standards.

# 5

## STATE LABOR LAWS FOR WOMEN

as of April 1, 1956

### Basic Standards

Standards for women in private employment have been established in each of the 48 States, the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii and Puerto Rico. 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 nightwork; (3) industrial homework; (4) certain hazardous or unhealthful types or conditions of employment; (5) plant facilities; and (6) employment before and after childbirth. Not every State has enacted legislation on each of these subjects, and the standards established vary widely from State to State. In most laws, coverage is expressly limited to women or to women and minors.

In the last three-quarters of a century there has been notable development in labor legislation for women, both as to the number of laws enacted and the standards established.

In the following pages, information is given on State standards in effect April 1, 1956, in one or more industries in the major fields of minimum wage, equal pay, and hours of work, and in some other miscellaneous fields. Highest standards in effect April 1, 1956, are shown. Most of the standards are established by statute; some are provided for in minimum-wage or industrial-welfare orders. Additional information is available in other publications listed in Current Publications of the Women's Bureau, which will be furnished upon request.

### Minimum Wage

In 1955, with the enactment of laws in Idaho, New Mexico, and Wyoming, minimum-wage legislation was on the statute books in 29 States, the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico. Two-thirds of these laws are applicable to women or to women and minors. One-third of the laws apply also to adult males. Most of them are applicable to all occupations or industries except agriculture and domestic service. In practice, however, minimum-wage orders issued under State laws apply largely to workers in local trade and service

industries. The Federal Fair Labor Standards Act, originally enacted in 1938 and most recently amended in 1955, sets basic wage-and-hour standards for workers, both men and women, in manufacturing and other interstate industries.

Originally, State minimum-wage legislation was designed for the protection of women and minors and did much to raise the extremely inadequate wages in manufacturing as well as trade and service occupations. The first State minimum-wage law for women was enacted by Massachusetts in 1912. In the next 10 years, during which World War I took place, laws were enacted in 14 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico.

A decision of the United States Supreme Court in the succeeding decade, 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 minimum-wage law and Puerto Rico its second law, applicable to all persons, in which provision was made for setting minimum-wage rates by wage-board procedure. Three additional States—Idaho, New Mexico<sup>1</sup> and Wyoming—enacted laws for the first time in 1955, and a number of others provided for increases in rates.<sup>2</sup>

The jurisdictions having minimum-wage legislation are as follows:

Arizona	Louisiana (women and girls)
*Arkansas (females)	Maine
California	**Massachusetts (any person)
Colorado	Minnesota
**Connecticut (all persons)	*Nevada (women and girls)
District of Columbia	**New Hampshire (any employee)
*Idaho (any employee)	New Jersey
Illinois	*New Mexico (any employee) <sup>1</sup>
Kansas	New York (women; minors; men)
Kentucky	North Dakota

<sup>1</sup> New Mexico District Court, Sixth District, declared the act unconstitutional; the case is being appealed.

<sup>2</sup> A Rhode Island enactment of May 1956 established a statutory minimum-wage rate of 90 cents an hour, effective Oct. 1, 1956, making it the 13th jurisdiction having a rate set by statute. A comprehensive Puerto Rico act, approved June 26, 1956, establishes a series of statutory minimum rates by industry classifications, the highest being \$1 an hour. It also provides for the establishment of a statutory Minimum-Wage Board authorized to fix minimum wages not exceeding \$1 an hour for individual industries. The act expressly repeals minimum-wage acts of 1941 and 1919 but continues in full force and effect decrees promulgated under the 1941 act, with wage modifications as provided in the new act.

- |                                   |                              |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Ohio                              | Washington                   |
| Oklahoma (adult women)            | Wisconsin                    |
| Oregon                            | *Wyoming (any employee)      |
| Pennsylvania                      | *Alaska (any employee)       |
| Rhode Island (women; minors; men) | *Hawaii (women; minors; men) |
| *South Dakota (women and girls)   | ***Puerto Rico:              |
| Utah                              | (1) (women and girls)        |
|                                   | (2) (any person)             |

\*Statutory rates established in original laws.

\*\*State wage-board laws amended to include statutory rates.

\*\*\*See footnote 2, p. 64.

NOTE.—Unless otherwise specified, law applies to women and minors.

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

### STATE MINIMUM WAGE LAWS—APRIL 1, 1956

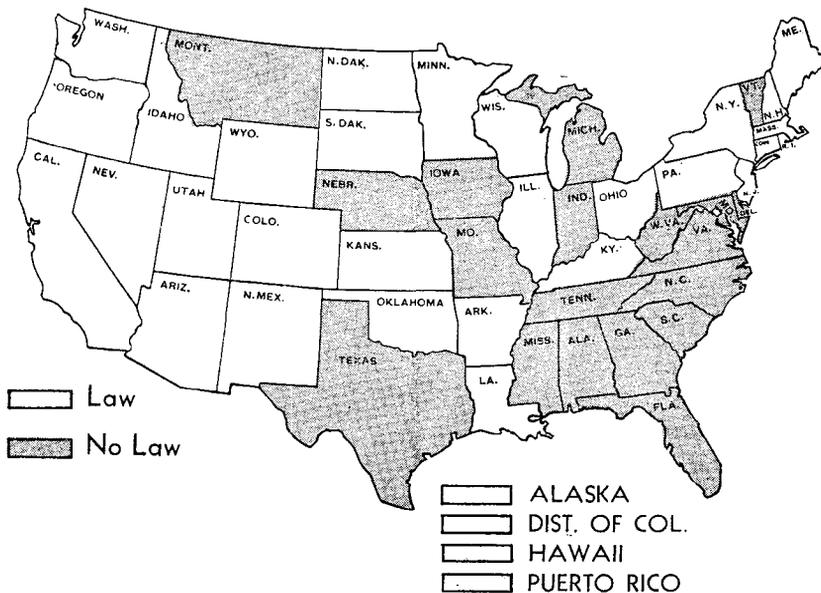


Figure 5

most of the jurisdictions having minimum-wage laws, 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. However, in 12 jurisdictions,<sup>2</sup> rates are set by statute or by statute and wage order.

<sup>2</sup> See footnote 2, p. 64.

In 11 jurisdictions—Connecticut, Idaho, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Mexico,<sup>1</sup> New York, Rhode Island, Wyoming, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico—minimum-wage laws are applicable to adult males as well as to women and minors.

## 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 16 States and Alaska:

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

The 16 States listed account for slightly over half of all employed women in the United States. The Colorado and Montana equal-pay laws have the most complete employee coverage; they apply 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 progress 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 4 States—Illinois, Massachusetts, New York, and Washington; and in the 4 years following in 6 more States—California, Connecticut, Maine, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island. In 1949, Alaska became the first Territory to take such action. New Jersey enacted its equal-pay law in 1952; Arkansas, Colorado, and Oregon adopted their legislation in 1955.

Interest in equal-pay legislation is not confined to State action. The President, in his State of the Union message, January 5, 1956, declared: “Legislation to apply the principle of equal pay for equal work with-

<sup>1</sup> See footnote 1, p. 64.

## STATE EQUAL-PAY LAWS FOR WOMEN—APRIL 1, 1956

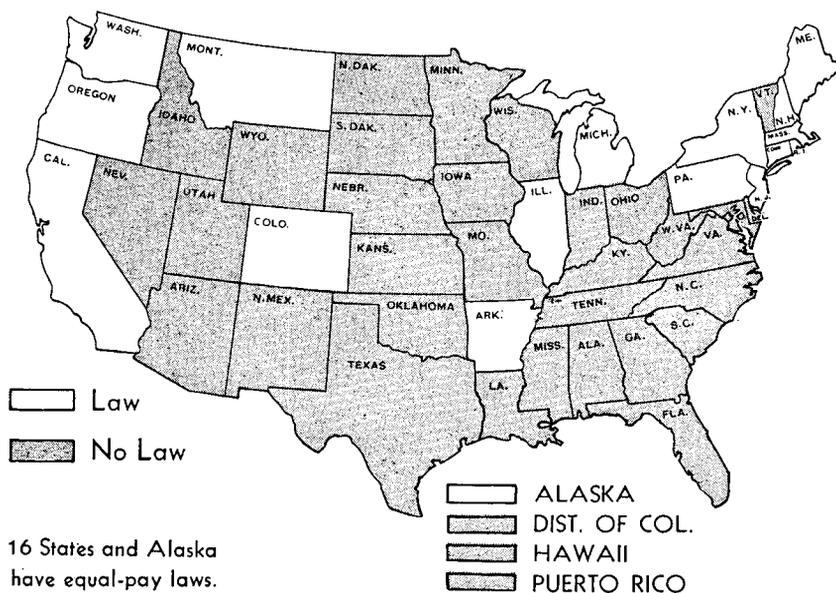


Figure 6

out discrimination because of sex is a matter of simple justice.” He then urged the Congress to pass this needed labor measure which would apply to private interstate industry. This statement stimulated Federal action, and a number of new proposals were introduced in both Houses of Congress with bipartisan support. Federal equal-pay bills have had the support of many national organizations, including women’s and civic groups and unions, since the first equal-pay proposal was introduced in the 79th Congress in 1945.

## Hours of Work

Laws regulating the hours of employment of women include statutes and minimum-wage or industrial-welfare orders establishing maximum daily and weekly hours and governing day-of-rest, meal and rest periods, and nightwork. However, 45 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have established legal standards governing at least one aspect of women’s hours of employment.<sup>3</sup>

### 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 which had many loopholes, but the first enforceable law

<sup>3</sup> Alaska and Hawaii have laws requiring premium pay for both men and women after specified hours of work.

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 (*Muller* case).

Today, 43 States and the District of Columbia have laws establishing daily and/or weekly maximum hours of work. Five States—Alabama, Florida, Indiana, Iowa, and West Virginia—do not have such laws. The laws of Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico set no maximum but require payment of premium rates for time over hours specified. (The 1955 wage-and-hour law of Alaska, which repealed a section setting a 60-hour weekly maximum for household employment requires payment of 1½ times regular rate of pay for hours over 8 a day, 40 a week for nonsupervisory employees of employers of 4 or more persons.)

In the tabulations which follow, the highest standard in each State (i. e., the fewest maximum hours) is shown. Standards given are applicable to one or more industries, and, except for Georgia and South Carolina, are applicable to women only.

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:

Arizona .....	8-48	New Mexico .....	8-48
*Arkansas .....	8	New York .....	8-48
California .....	8-48	North Carolina .....	9-48
**Colorado .....	8	North Dakota .....	8½-48
Connecticut .....	8-48	Ohio .....	8-48
District of Columbia .....	8-48	Oregon .....	8-44
Illinois .....	8-48	Pennsylvania .....	10-48
Kansas .....	8-48	Rhode Island .....	9-48
Louisiana .....	8-48	Utah .....	8-48
Massachusetts .....	9-48	Virginia .....	9-48
***Montana .....	8	Washington .....	8
Nevada .....	8-48	Wyoming .....	8-48
New Hampshire .....	10-48		

\*The Arkansas statute provides that no female shall be employed for more than 8 hours a day in described occupations but provides also that 9 hours may be worked without a special permit 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 and overtime paid. A day-of-rest law provides, in effect, for a 48-hour week.

\*\*Colorado wage orders provide, in effect, for a 48-hour week for the laundry industry and for beauty service occupations.

\*\*\*Various Montana statutory provisions for persons (men and women) employed in specified industries and occupations provide that 48 hours shall constitute a week's work.

Nine States have set a maximum 9-hour day for women; all but Idaho have weekly maximums 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 daily maximums of 10 hours and weekly maximums varying from 50 to 60 hours:

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

\*Standard shown is applicable to cotton and woolen mills. Maximums for mercantile establishments (12-60 hours) were set for women only.

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

### Day of Rest

Nearly half the States (22) and the District of Columbia establish a maximum 6-day week in some or all industries:

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	

\*Both men and women are covered.

In addition, Puerto Rico and two States have Sunday laws, the effect of which is to establish a 6-day week. Puerto Rico provides for a day of rest but permits work during such day on payment of double the employee's regular rate. The Rhode Island law, enforced by the Department of Labor, prohibits employment on Sundays and holidays unless under special permit and with premium pay. (A 1954 amendment requires that time and a half be paid for such work.) Kentucky has a law requiring payment of time and a half for work on the seventh consecutive day for persons working at least a 40-hour week. Other Sunday or blue laws do not regulate employment and, therefore, are not noted.

### Meal Periods

Over half the States (26) and the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico provide that meal periods varying from  $\frac{1}{3}$  to 1 hour must be allowed to women in some or all industries. Meal periods are pro-

vided for by statute in some States, and by minimum-wage or industrial-welfare orders in others:

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

\*Both men and women are covered.

### Rest Periods

Rest periods for women are provided for in 8 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 1 or more industries by minimum-wage order. Most provisions are for a 10-minute rest period within the half-day work period.

### Nightwork

Twenty States <sup>4</sup> and Puerto Rico place some limitation on the hours adult women may be employed at night. In 12 of these and in Puerto Rico, nightwork is prohibited in certain industries or occupations, and in 8 it is regulated.<sup>5</sup> Three additional States <sup>6</sup> and the District of Columbia prohibit messenger service for persons under 21. Laws prohibiting nightwork for girls under 18 are not dealt with here. Although there is considerable variation in the hours covered by nightwork restrictions, the period between midnight and 6 a. m. is almost always covered.

Jurisdictions prohibiting nightwork for adult women include the following (North Dakota and Washington prohibitions applicable only to elevator operators):

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

In eight additional States not having prohibitory provisions (as

<sup>4</sup> Previously 19; an Ohio law of 1955 prohibited the employment of women as taxicab drivers between 9 p. m. and 6 a. m.

<sup>5</sup> Includes a Delaware regulation of nightwork between 11 p. m. and 7 a. m. in mercantile and other specified establishments. A prohibition on employment from 11 p. m. to 6 a. m. in manufacturing and various other establishments was repealed in 1955.

<sup>6</sup> Arizona and Rhode Island, Virginia (girls only).

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 standards for working conditions.

California	New Hampshire	Pennsylvania
Delaware	New Mexico	Utah
Maryland	Oregon	

## Other Labor Legislation

### Weight Lifting

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

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

### Seating

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

### Occupational Limitations

Most of the laws prohibiting employment of adult women apply to mining or work in establishments serving liquor. Of 24 States having occupational limitations, 17 prohibit women's employment in mines.<sup>7</sup> Eleven prohibit employment of women mixing, selling or dispensing alcoholic liquors for on-premises consumption.<sup>8</sup> Seven States have legislation prohibiting women's employment in other occupations considered hazardous or injurious to health and safety.

The following list of States having occupational limitations does not include safety laws and codes which regulate various aspects of working conditions and which are applicable to both sexes :

<i>Mines</i>	<i>Barrooms</i>	<i>Other places and occupations</i>
Alabama	California	Colorado—Coke ovens
Arizona	Connecticut	Michigan—Operating polishing wheels, belts
Arkansas	Georgia	Minnesota—Corerooms; cleaning moving machinery
Colorado	Illinois	Missouri—Cleaning or working around moving machinery
Illinois	Indiana	New York—Coremaking, or in connection with coremaking, in a room in which the oven is also in operation
Indiana	Kentucky	
Maryland	Michigan	
Missouri	Ohio	
New York	Pennsylvania	

<sup>7</sup> Several permit clerical work. In some, work in quarries and smelters is specifically prohibited.

<sup>8</sup> Illinois State law authorizes city and county governments to prohibit.

<i>Mines</i>	<i>Barrooms</i>	<i>Other places and occupations</i>	
Ohio	Rhode Island	Ohio—Crossing watchman, section hand, express driver, metal molder, bellhop, taxi driver except between hours of 6 a. m. and 9 p. m., gas- or electric-meter reader; in shoe-shining parlors; in bowling alleys as pin-setters, or poolrooms; in delivery service on motor-propelled vehicles of over 1-ton capacity; in operating freight or baggage elevators if doors not controlled, in baggage handling, freight handling, trucking, and handling by means of hand trucks heavy materials of any kind; in operating wheels or belts	
Oklahoma	Wyoming		
Pennsylvania			
Utah			
Virginia			
Washington			
Wisconsin			
Wyoming			
			Pennsylvania—Dangerous or injurious occupations

### **Industrial Homework**

Nineteen States and Puerto Rico have laws or regulations governing industrial homework. The laws apply to all persons except in Colorado and Oregon; in these two States the laws apply to women and minors only.

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

### **Employment Before and After Childbirth**

Six States and Puerto Rico have laws prohibiting the employment of women immediately before and after childbirth. The six States merely prohibit 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. The following list shows periods during which women may not be employed in the States indicated:

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. **4 weeks before and 4 weeks after.
Puerto Rico -----	

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

\*\*Under the order for laundry, dry-cleaning and dyeworks industry.

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

### **Laws Affecting Household Employees**

Although declining in importance, household employment in private homes is still 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 old-age and survivors insurance provisions of the Federal Social Security Act to cover a large proportion of household workers.

# 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 45 States, the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, the Canal Zone, and the Virgin Islands.<sup>1</sup> The 3 States in which women cannot serve on juries are Alabama, Mississippi, South Carolina.

There are 2 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-five States,<sup>2</sup> Hawaii, and the Canal Zone have compulsory-type laws; and 20 States,<sup>3</sup> the District of Columbia, Alaska, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands have voluntary-type laws.

### **Domicile**

*Private domicile.*—A married woman's private domicile 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, some States permit a married woman to establish a separate domicile for voting;<sup>4</sup> five permit a separate domicile for eligibility to public office;<sup>5</sup> and three recognize separate domicile for personal property tax obligation.<sup>6</sup>

## **Civil Status—Family Relations**

### **Marriage**

The marriage laws of the various States generally do not differentiate between the sexes, except in establishing minimum ages. Most States set a lower marriage age for women. The same minimum age applies to both sexes in 7 States when parental consent is required<sup>7</sup> and

<sup>1</sup> As of December 1956.

<sup>2</sup> Arizona, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, Montana, Nebraska, New Jersey, New Mexico, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Texas, Vermont, West Virginia, Wyoming.

<sup>3</sup> Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri, Nevada, New Hampshire, New York, North Dakota, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, Washington, Wisconsin.

<sup>4</sup> California, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Virginia, Wisconsin.

<sup>5</sup> Maine, Michigan, Nevada, New Jersey, New York.

<sup>6</sup> Nevada, New Jersey, Virginia.

<sup>7</sup> Colorado, Connecticut, Idaho, Missouri, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Tennessee.

in 16 States when parental consent is not required.<sup>8</sup> All but 8 States<sup>9</sup> and the District of Columbia require a premarital health examination for both applicants for a marriage license; Louisiana requires 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 by another man 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 15 States<sup>10</sup> authorize the court to grant a husband alimony when the need is established and the wife is at fault.

### **Parent and Child**

All but six States<sup>11</sup> give both parents the same rights of natural guardianship. In those six jurisdictions the father is preferred as natural guardian during the marriage, giving him the first right to custody of his minor child's person, services, and earnings. However, there is no law in any State which prohibits a mother, if capable, from being the guardian of her minor child.

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.

Three States<sup>12</sup> and the District of Columbia by statute prefer the father when a guardian of property is to be appointed for a child.

*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 be-

<sup>8</sup> Connecticut, Florida, Idaho, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Nebraska, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia, Wyoming.

<sup>9</sup> Arizona, Arkansas, Maryland, Minnesota, Mississippi, Nevada, New Mexico, South Carolina.

<sup>10</sup> California, Illinois, Iowa, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Nebraska, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, Utah, Vermont, West Virginia.

<sup>11</sup> Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, New Mexico, North Carolina, Texas.

<sup>12</sup> Alabama, Louisiana, Texas.

tween 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 necessaries. In 36 of these States<sup>13</sup> 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 eight<sup>14</sup> 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 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 prop-

<sup>13</sup> 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.

<sup>14</sup> Arizona, California, Idaho, Louisiana, Nevada, New Mexico, Texas, Washington.

erty by specific statute in most of the States not having a community-property law. Five States <sup>15</sup> 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 <sup>14</sup> 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 States <sup>16</sup> give the wife control over her earnings, even as part of the communal estate.

In the 40 States <sup>17</sup> 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.

*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 to her half of the community estate.

In the absence of a will, a widow or 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.

<sup>14</sup> Arizona, California, Idaho, Louisiana, Nevada, New Mexico, Texas, Washington.

<sup>15</sup> California, Florida, Nevada, Pennsylvania, Texas.

<sup>16</sup> Idaho, Washington.

<sup>17</sup> 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.

# 7

## ORGANIZATIONS OF INTEREST TO WOMEN

National organizations for women, together with some professional organizations for both women and men, are grouped in the following list according to fields of interest. Membership is noted if recent figures are available. Individual national and international unions, collegiate and alumnae associations, and women's organizations affiliated with fraternal orders have been omitted. (For an alphabetical list of organizations included, see p. 95.)

### Organizations Having Social, Civic, or Religious Purposes

*American Women's Voluntary Services, Inc.*, 270 Park Avenue, Building B, New York 17, 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: Over 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: Approximately 67,500 in 186 Junior Leagues in the United States, Canada, Mexico, and Hawaii.

*Camp Fire Girls, Inc.*, 16 East 48th Street, New York 17, N. Y. Founded in 1910. Its purpose is "to perpetuate the spiritual ideals of the home" and "to stimulate and aid in the formation of habits making for health and character." It seeks to serve the leisure-time needs of all girls between the ages of 7 and 18 and emphasizes the individual development of each girl. Its program supplements the training of the home, church or synagogue, and school, through enjoyable and character-building activities. Membership: Over 400,000.

*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 54 countries, territories, and possessions (862,740 per capita paying members).

*Girl Scouts of the United States of America*, 155 East 44th Street, New York 17, N. Y. Founded in 1912. The purpose of scouting is to "help girls develop as happy, resourceful individuals willing to share their abilities as citizens in their homes, their communities, their country and the world." Membership: 2,000,000 girls, 600,000 adults.

*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: 127,000 in 985 local Leagues organized in 48 States, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Alaska.

*Lucy Stone League, Inc., The*, Suite 1116, 565 Fifth Avenue, New York 17, N. Y. The League is a center for research and information on the status of women. Membership: Over 200.

*National Association of Colored Women's Clubs, Inc.*, 1601 R Street NW., Washington 9, D. C. The organization was founded in 1896 with the purpose of preparing women of color for complete community participation by raising the standards of homelife, and by providing better health, educational and economic opportunities. Membership: 200,000 in 44 States, Alaska, Hawaii, and Haiti.

*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, social security and improvement of the conditions of migrant workers in agriculture. There are active State branches in New York, New Jersey, Michigan, and Ohio and individual members in every State. (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: Over 9,000,000 women through more than 10,000 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 21 national organizations and 92 local councils capable of reaching 850,000 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 Social Welfare Assembly, Inc.*, 345 East 46th Street, New York 17, N. Y. Organized 1945. The assembly believes that social welfare means the well-being of all people and that all parts of social welfare are interrelated; its purpose is to further these concepts through a threefold partnership of government and voluntary, national and local, lay and professional interests. Membership: 216 individuals from 63 affiliated national organizations and 4 associate groups. About one-third are women.

*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. Paid membership: 300,000.

*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*, 175 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 the United States in 1858, in London, 1855. Organized to advance the physical, mental, social and spiritual well being of women and girls and "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." Affiliated with the World YWCA. Approximately 2,000 units in the United States.

## Professional and Business Organizations

*International Association of Personnel Women*, c/o Mrs. Gladys D. Meyer, President, White-Rodgers Electric Co., 1209 Cass Avenue, St. Louis 3, Mo. Founded 1951. Its objectives are to encourage, promote, and extend women's memberships in personnel associations throughout the United States and other countries and to assist in coordinating the activities of the affiliated associations; to promote the recognition of women in the field of personnel; to improve personnel standards by encouraging qualified women to secure personnel training; to further the extension of desirable personnel practices by application, research, and publications. Membership: 800.

*National Association of Negro Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc.*, c/o Mrs. Marie L. Harrison, President, 248 South Burnett Street, East Orange, N. J. 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 Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc., The*, 1217 Dupont Circle Bldg., Washington 6, D. C. 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 3,100 Clubs in United States, Alaska, and Hawaii.

*National Secretaries Association (International)*, 222 West 11th 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 educational and social activities. Established the Institute for Certifying Secretaries, a Department of NSA; and sponsors the annual certifying examination presented by this institute the first Friday and Saturday of May at universities and colleges across the country. Membership: 15,000 in 360 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: 2,350.

*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: 350.

**Banking**

*National 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 executive women in banking, with members from national, State, and savings banks, and trust companies. Membership: 2,300.

**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: 2,800 members with 20 Regional Groups, plus an Allied Group in Paris.

**Finance**

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

**Geography**

*The Society of Women Geographers*, 1216 Connecticut Avenue NW., Washington 6, D. C. Founded in 1925. Its purpose is to 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 802, 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: 3,600. (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: 8,138.

*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: 8,200.

*American Dental Hygienists' Association*, 1735 I 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. Student membership 1,500.

*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 registered professional nurses. Its purposes are to foster high standards of nursing 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: 177,490.

*American Occupational Therapy Association*, 250 West 57th Street, New York 19, 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: 4,950. (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-

essional groups, citizens, agencies and schools to the end that the physical therapy needs of the people will be met. Membership: 6,446. Approximately 85 percent are women. In addition there are 549 student members.

*American Registry of X-Ray Technicians*, % Alfred B. Greene, Executive Secretary, Metropolitan Building, Minneapolis 1, Minn. Founded 1922. Its purpose is to promote the training standards of X-ray technicians and certify those qualified; it functions as the national examining board for X-ray technicians under the sponsorship of the American College of Radiology and the American Society of X-ray Technicians. Membership: 18,500 certified, of which about 16,000 are in good standing with 73 percent of them women.

*American Society of Medical Technologists*, % Rose Matthaei, Executive Secretary, 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: 6,000. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

*American Society of X-Ray Technicians*, % Genevieve J. Ellert, 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: 6,100. (Not restricted to women, but membership primarily women.)

*Association of American Women Dentists*, % Dr. Mary C. De Risi, President, 2849 29th Place NW., Washington 8, D. C. 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 300.

*National Association of Social Workers, Medical Social Work Section*. 1700 I Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. (Successor on October 1, 1955 to American Association of Medical Social Workers.) Founded in 1918. Its purpose is to improve and strengthen standards for social work in medical settings, through studies and consultation related to professional practice and education. Membership: 2,500. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

*National Association for Practical Nurse Education, Inc.*, 654 Madison Avenue, New York 21, N. Y. Organized in 1941. Its major purpose is to promote practical nurse education; it conducts an accrediting program for schools of practical nursing; sponsors workshops, institutes, and summer school sessions; offers consultation services; publishes a monthly magazine, manuals, and other educational literature. Membership: 1,049 individual and sustaining members, 6,174 affiliated members, 124 group members, and 2,310 students enrolled as future members. (Not restricted to women, but membership primarily women.)

*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: 28,000.

*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 675 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 nutrition of human beings; to advance the science of dietetics and nutrition; and to promote education in these and allied areas. Membership: 12,000. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

*American Home Economics Association*, 1600 20th Street NW., Washington 9,

D. C. Established in 1909. Its purpose is to provide opportunity for professional home economists and other Association members in related fields, to cooperate in the attainment of the well-being of individuals and of families, in improvement of homes, and in the preservation of values significant in home-life. Membership: 22,541 individual members; 446 affiliated college clubs with 20,094 members; 109 groups of homemakers whose members meet the Association's requirements for individual membership. Four foreign home economics associations are affiliated with American Home Economics Association. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

### Insurance

*National Association of Insurance Women*, Room 321, 823 South Detroit Avenue,

Tulsa 1, Okla. Founded June 1940. Its purpose is to encourage and foster educational programs designed to broaden the knowledge of insurance of its members and to cultivate their friendship, loyalty and service. Membership: Approximately 12,500 in 215 affiliated clubs.

*Women Underwriters, The National Association of Life Underwriters*, c/o Mrs.

Thelma R. Davenport, Northwestern Mutual Life Insurance Company, 1511 K Street, NW., Suite 640, Washington 5, D. C. Founded 1934. The purposes of the Committee are to promote, develop, and increase the contributions of women underwriters to the life insurance profession; to encourage increased participation on the part of women in the Association's affairs on a local, State, and national basis; to stimulate the participation of the woman life underwriter in community projects; to stimulate professional interest and growth; to develop cooperative effort and understanding among women of the same profession. Membership: 1,176.

### Law

*National Association of Women Lawyers*, American Bar Center, 1155 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, Ill., c/o (Mrs.) Victoria V. Gilbert, President, The Court House, Shelbyville, Ky. Founded in 1899. Its purpose is to promote the welfare and interests of women lawyers; to maintain the honor and integrity of the legal 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.)

### **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: 600,000. (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: 1,350.

### **Real Estate**

*Women's Council of the National Association of Real Estate Boards*, 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: 1,250.

### **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 members; and to encourage friendly understanding between the members and those whom they must contact in their profession. Membership: 360 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. Purposes are: To encourage higher professional standards among women in journalism and other media of public information; to present outstanding leaders and foster discussion in meetings and seminars, thereby encouraging dissemination of information to the public on national and international affairs—economic, educational, scientific and welfare developments, and any additional topics of current interest. Membership: 400.

## 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 supports two major projects through voluntary contributions of members: Grants-in-Aid, which awards gift grants to graduate women from Asia and Latin America in the United States for higher study, and Founders Fund Vocational Aid, which makes available through local Altrusa Clubs, grants for women of all ages who need job training, rehabilitation, or other help to equip themselves to find employment or start a business of their own. Membership: 13,300 in 420 clubs in 7 countries.

*Pilot Club International*, 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: 11,000 in 375 clubs which are located in the United States, Hawaii, Canada, England, France, Bermuda, and Japan.

*Quota Club International, Inc.*, 1145 19th 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: 10,000 in 300 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 assist in developing the highest concept of patriotism and love of country; to promote the spirit of service; to foster high ethical standards in business and professions; to advance the status of women; to develop interest in community, national, and international affairs; to recognize the worthiness and dignity of all legitimate occupations as affording to each Soroptimist an opportunity to serve society. Membership in International Association: 30,000 in 985 clubs in 26 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: 12,000 in 330 clubs in 13 countries.

## Educational Organizations

*Adult Education Association of the United States of America*. Administration, Publications, and Membership, 743 North Wabash Avenue, Chicago 11, Ill.; Council of National Organizations, 303 Lexington Avenue, New York City; Field Program Services and Public School Development, 1201 16th Street NW, Washington 6, D. C. Founded May 14, 1951. Its purpose is to further the

concept of education as a process continuing throughout life, by developing greater unity of purpose in the adult education movement; by helping individuals engaged in adult education increase their competence; by bringing agencies of adult education into closer relationship; by detecting needs and gaps in the field and to mobilize resources for filling them; by making the general public more aware of the need and opportunities for adult education; by assembling and making available knowledge about adult education; by serving as a voice for the adult education movement. Its services include the publication of *Adult Leadership*, *Adult Education*, and other leadership materials; consultation services; conferences and field services. Membership: 14,000. (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 137,000.

*American Council on Education*, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1918. Purpose is to conduct inquiries and investigations into specific educational problems and seek to enlist appropriate agencies for their solutions. Acts as a liaison between higher education and the Federal Government. Membership consists of educational associations and institutions, not individuals; 139 educational associations, 966 institutions.

*American Vocational Association, Inc.*, 1010 Vermont Avenue NW, Washington 5, D. C. Founded 1925 by a merger of two associations which go back to 1906. Its purpose is to promote and strengthen the belief that education for personal and occupational adjustment is essential to the maintenance of freedom and security for individuals and the Nation. Membership: 33,000, approximately 12,000 women.

*National Association of College Women*, c/o Mrs. Charlotte B. Gordon, Executive Secretary, 1122 Girard Street NW., Washington 9, D. C. Founded in 1924. Its purpose is to secure equal opportunities for women; 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: 1,500.

*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: 1,600.

*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. The theme of the current administration (1955-58) is "The Family and the Community: Each Shapes the Other—The P. T. A. Serves Both." Membership: 9,409,282. (Not restricted to women.)

*National Council of Administrative Women in Education*, Miss Lois M. Clark, Secretary-Treasurer, 1201 16th Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Founded in 1915. Its purpose is to strengthen professional relations of administrative women; to maintain high professional standards; to promote the advancement of women in education to executive positions; to encourage women to be alert in using their abilities for executive work; to urge women to prepare themselves professionally to hold administrative positions; to support and initiate desirable educational legislation. Membership: 1,000.

*National Congress of Colored Parents and Teachers*, 123 South Queen Street, Dover, Del. Founded May 7, 1926. 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; 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: 168,682. (Not restricted to women.)

*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: 644,659 individual personal memberships and approximately 1,100,000 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 participation in the Democratic Party.

*National Federation of Republican Women*, 1625 I Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. 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 46 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 I 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: 925.

## 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*, 1776 D Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1890. Objectives of Society are patriotic, historical, and educational. Membership: 183,554 in 2,797 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 War Between the States.)

*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

*American Farm Bureau Federation, Women's Committee*, Room 2300, Merchandise Mart, Chicago 54, 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: 1,623,220.

*Country Women's Council, U. S. A.*, % Mrs. George Apperson, Chairman, Mocksville, N. C. Founded 1939. 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*, c/o Mrs. J. Homer Remsberg, President, Middletown, Md. 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.*, c/o Mrs. Frederick B. Llewellyn, President, 17 Coniston Road, Short Hills, N. J. 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: 8,000.

## Labor Organizations <sup>1</sup>

*American Federation of Women's Auxiliaries of Labor*, c/o Mrs. Mary Poag, Secretary-Treasurer, 1501 Paris Avenue, Nashville, Tenn. 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*, c/o Mrs. Minnie Zoller, Secretary-Treasurer, 518 East Elgie, Beaumont, Tex. Established in 1941 as Congress of Women's

<sup>1</sup>These labor groups are women's auxiliaries. No information has been received concerning their merger.

**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.



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