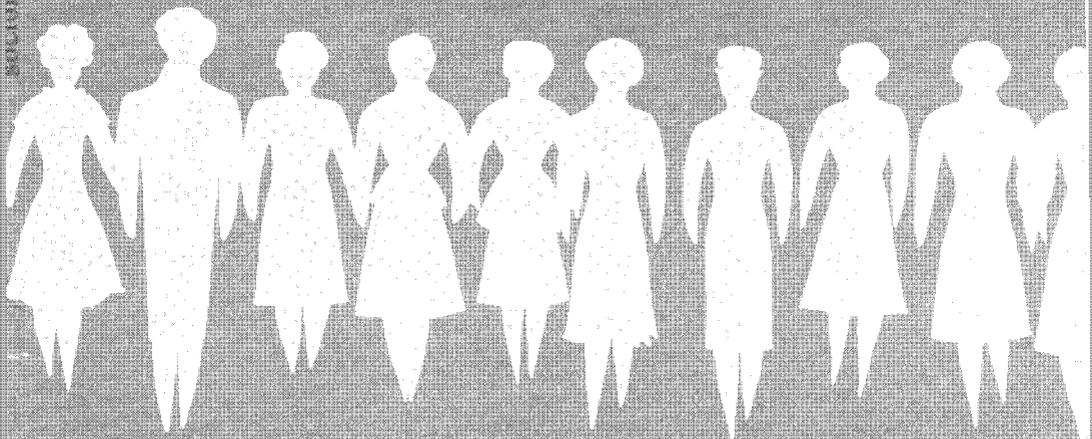


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1958
HANDBOOK
on
WOMEN
WORKERS

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

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James P. Mitchell, Secretary

WOMEN'S BUREAU

Mrs. Alice K. Leopold, Director

Bulletin 266

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

THE WOMEN'S BUREAU

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

SEC. 2. That the said bureau shall be in charge of a director, a woman, to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, who shall receive an annual compensation of \$5,000.¹ It shall be the duty of said bureau to formulate standards and policies which shall promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment. The said bureau shall have authority to investigate and report to the said department upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of women in industry. The director of said bureau may from time to time publish the results of these investigations in such a manner and to such extent as the Secretary of Labor may prescribe.

SEC. 3. That there shall be in said bureau an assistant director, to be appointed by the Secretary of Labor, who shall receive an annual compensation of \$3,500¹ and shall perform such duties as shall be prescribed by the director and approved by the Secretary of Labor.

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

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

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

Approved, June 5, 1920.

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

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

1958 HANDBOOK on WOMEN WORKERS

Women's Bureau
Bulletin No. 266



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

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

The handbook of facts on women workers in the United States is published biennially by the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor. It brings together basic information on 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. The publication is designed as a source book for the use of employers, labor unions, Government officials, educators and counselors, women's organizations, and other persons and organizations interested in the facts about women's employment. The 1958 edition contains information which has become available since 1956 and brings up to date previous editions. The index at the end indicates by section number all references to a specific subject.

The Division of Program Planning, Analysis, and Reports, of which Stella P. Manor is Chief, carried overall responsibility for the handbook. The first three chapters on women's employment, earnings, and education were prepared by Jean A. Wells. The chapters 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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NOTE

Percentages in the statistical tables do not necessarily add to 100 percent due to rounding.

Part I

Women in the Labor Force

HIGHLIGHTS

EMPLOYMENT IN 1958

Number—About 22 million women are in the labor force.

This is 36 percent of all women of working age.

Women are one-third of the labor force.

Occupation—Three-tenths of employed women are clerical workers and include over 2 million stenographers, typists, and secretaries.

One-fourth are service workers and include 1 million waitresses and cooks.

About one-seventh are operatives, chiefly in factories.

One-eighth are professional or technical workers and include over 1 million teachers.

Age—Half of the women workers are 40 years of age or older.

Almost two-fifths are 45 or older.

Marital status—Over half the women workers are married.

Of all married women, about 30 percent are working.

Of single women 20 to 64 years of age, over 75 percent are working.

Less than one-eighth of all women workers have children under 6.

EARNINGS IN 1957

Median income in 1957—\$3,000 for year-round full-time women workers; \$1,200 for all women with income.

EDUCATION IN 1957

Enrollment in schools and colleges—Almost 20 million girls and women were enrolled in the fall of 1957.

About half the female population 5 to 34 years of age was in school.

The 1 million college women were one-third of all college students.

Education completed—About 11 million women workers are high-school graduates, and 3.6 million of these have some college education.

Over 139,000 women earned college degrees in 1956-57.

Women were over one-third of all degree recipients.

Public vocational courses—Almost 1¾ million women and girls were enrolled in 1956-57.

1

WOMEN AS WORKERS

Women's Economic Progress

The significant contribution which women are making to the economic life of our country is a direct reflection of the rising number of women workers, their expanding job opportunities, and their effective job performance. Women's present working partnership with men in the economic world has developed largely as a result of the many social and economic changes of the last half century.

Scientific and technological improvements not only simplify many home duties and reduce the time required for the physical tasks of homemaking, but also mean more job specialization and new employment opportunities in offices and factories. Larger business organizations, expanded activities of commerce and communications, and new systems of distribution and advertising require the use of new sources of labor and help change traditional attitudes concerning women's status in the labor force. Two world wars have also placed greater demands on our economy and necessitated extensive employment of women.

The growing demand for women's services has been accompanied by broadened opportunities for their education and training. The nationwide development of free education for both boys and girls and the gradual achievement of equal opportunities for higher learning have encouraged women to prepare for and seek employment in ever-expanding occupational fields.

As working women have actively participated in the production of goods and services and helped raise and maintain living standards, American industry has come to recognize women's abilities and has facilitated women's integration into the working world. Over the years, more responsible jobs, with higher wages and better working conditions, have been opened to women, and these in turn have stimulated more of them to seek paid employment. In the future, women's employment status can be expected to depend even more on women themselves. For women of ability who are willing to secure suitable training and experience, there is a variety of opportunities for advancement in the business, industrial, and professional world.

Numbers and Trends

1. Twenty-two Million Equal One-third

More than 22 million women were in the work force in the early part of 1958. This figure exceeds by almost 2.7 million the number of women workers in April 1945, the peak for World War II. It compares with about 5 million women workers at the turn of the century (June 1900) and with a prewar (March 1940) figure of slightly less than 14 million women workers (table 1).

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 ¹			
Today (April 1958).....	22, 254, 000	33	36
Korean war (April 1953).....	19, 296, 000	31	33
Pre-Korea (April 1950).....	18, 063, 000	29	32
Postwar (April 1947).....	16, 320, 000	28	30
World War II peak (April 1945).....	19, 570, 000	36	37
Pre-World War II (March 1940).....	13, 840, 000	25	28
LONG-TERM TRENDS ²			
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

¹ From Current Population Reports for civilian labor force.

² From decennial census for total labor force, including Armed Forces.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census.

In addition to the many social and economic changes responsible for the expansion in women's employment, one of the other factors has been the rapid growth of our population. However, the female population 14 years of age and over did not quite triple (from 25 million women in 1900 to 62 million in 1958), while the woman labor force more than quadrupled during the same period.

The proportion of women in the labor force, which includes both the employed and the unemployed, has increased gradually during the

past decades—equaling 18 percent in 1900 and about 25 percent in 1940. It reached a high of 36 percent during World War II and then dropped sharply to 28 percent with the return of war veterans to civilian jobs—before starting to climb again. Today, 1 out of every 3 workers is a woman.

It is pertinent to note that the numerical relationship between men and women in the population has been reversed in recent years. Today there are almost 3 million more women than men of working age (14 years and over). This is the opposite of the situation in 1900, when men outnumbered women by over 1½ million. In 1940 there were still slightly fewer women, but in 1942 their number began to exceed that of men. But again, the size of this population change explains only to a small degree the marked increase in women's representation in the labor force.

The number of unemployed women—those actually seeking work—was 1,629,000 in April 1958. This means that at that time there were about 13 women who actually had jobs for every 1 who was unemployed and looking for work. About 32 percent of all unemployed persons were women; this is slightly lower than the percentage of all workers who were women. Although the unemployment rate has traditionally been lower for women than for men, the relationship has frequently been reversed in the past few years, as increased numbers of women enter or leave the labor force for short periods of time.

2. Most Women Are Homemakers

The majority of women continue to be homemakers, whether or not they also have jobs. Over half of all women devote full time to homemaking. Almost one-third of the married women, and many single women as well, are both workers and homemakers. During any one workweek in early 1958, about 35 percent of all women were in the labor force and about 55 percent were keeping house full time. The remainder were primarily girls under 20 years of age and in school. This means that practically all adult women in the population are making a contribution to the smooth running of the economy, either as jobholders, homemakers, or both.

3. Outlook for Women Workers

Estimates of population growth in the near future place the total at 193 million persons by 1965. In order to produce the goods and services needed for a population of this size, the economy can reasonably expect to have 10 million more workers than there were in 1955, or a projected labor force of 79 million. More than half of the additional workers predicted for 1965 will be women—about 1.8 million

women from 14 to 24 years of age, 1 million from 25 to 44, and 2.6 million aged 45 and over.

The upward trend in white-collar employment is expected to continue for both women and men. Probably over 2 million of the increase will be in professional fields. Demand for clerical and sales personnel will also be greater. The force of craftsmen, operatives, and managers will also grow, while jobs for unskilled laborers and farmworkers will decline.

These forecasts contain several implications for women workers. Population growth is expected to provide sufficient numbers of persons to meet future labor requirements quantitatively. But the complex nature of many jobs will place new emphasis on the quality of the labor force. The demand will be greatest for those with the needed training and experience. Women's goal, therefore, must be to develop their individual talents to the fullest extent possible.

Major Occupations of Women

The general expansion in women's employment has been accompanied by a marked increase in the number and variety of women's occupational opportunities. In the latest decennial census (1950), women were reported in all of the 446 individual occupations listed. Although there is still considerable concentration in a relatively few occupations, the number of women entering new fields continues to grow.

4. Broad Occupational Categories

The occupational activities of those in the labor force are generally divided into 11 broad categories by the Bureau of the Census. Among women, almost three-fifths were clerical workers, operatives, and service workers. Professional workers were the fourth largest group, with private-household, sales, and managerial workers following in that order. A small miscellaneous group was made up of farm workers, craftsmen, and laborers (table 2).

The most spectacular part of the story about women's recent employment expansion is the increase in women clerical workers from 2½ million in 1940 to over 6 million in 1958 (table 3). This large numerical increase is directly related to the expanded activities of business corporations, large-scale financial organizations, mail-order and other retail establishments, Government operations, and many other types of undertakings. Recently, inventions relating to office machines have mechanized office processes to a greatly increased extent. Better trained clerical workers with special technical and mechanical ability

Table 2.—OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS OF EMPLOYED WOMEN, APRIL 1958

<i>Occupational group</i>	<i>Number (in thou- sands)</i>	<i>Percent distri- bution</i>	<i>Percent of all workers</i>
All women.....	20, 625	100	33
Professional, technical, kindred workers.....	1 2, 584	13	37
Medical and other health workers.....	663	-----	56
Teachers, except college.....	1, 198	-----	75
Managers, officials, proprietors, except farm.....	1, 057	5	16
Clerical and kindred workers.....	1 6, 241	30	69
Stenographers, typists, secretaries.....	2, 192	-----	97
Sales workers.....	1 1, 478	7	36
Retail trade.....	1, 329	-----	56
Service workers, except private household.....	1 2, 854	14	52
Waitresses, cooks, and barmaids.....	1, 088	-----	72
Operatives and kindred workers.....	1 2, 985	14	27
Durable goods manufacturing.....	710	-----	22
Nondurable goods manufacturing.....	1, 604	-----	53
Private-household workers.....	2, 289	11	98
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers.....	220	1	3
Farmers and farm managers.....	126	1	4
Farm laborers and foremen.....	688	3	32
Paid workers.....	174	-----	14
Unpaid family workers.....	514	-----	54
Laborers, except farm and mine.....	105	1	3

¹ Includes women in occupations not shown separately in this category.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-57, No. 190.

are needed, rather than general clerical workers able to perform only fairly simple and routine tasks.

Professional and service occupations also employed more women in 1958 than they had in 1940 or 1950. During the 18-year period, the number of women in professional occupations increased by more than 1 million; and those in service occupations (other than private household), by over 1½ million.

The number of women in factory and other operative occupations rose from 1940 to 1950 but declined subsequently, equaling slightly less than 3 million in 1958. Much of the demand for women in operative jobs arose during World War II and continued into the high-level economy of the postwar period. However, with recent technical innovations and the increased use of automatic machinery in mass production, demand for production workers has not been increasing as fast as that for technicians, research and clerical workers, and skilled craftsmen.

Table 3.—OCCUPATIONAL TREND OF EMPLOYED WOMEN

Occupational group	Number of women (in thousands)			Percent distribution		
	1958	1950	1940	1958	1950	1940
All women.....	20, 625	17, 176	11, 920	100	100	100
Professional workers.....	2, 584	1, 862	1, 570	13	11	13
Managers, officials, proprietors...	1, 057	941	450	5	5	4
Clerical workers.....	6, 241	4, 539	2, 530	30	26	21
Sales workers.....	1, 478	1, 516	830	7	9	7
Service workers (except household).....	2, 854	2, 168	1, 350	14	13	11
Operatives.....	2, 985	3, 215	2, 190	14	19	18
Private-household workers.....	2, 289	1, 771	2, 100	11	10	18
Craftsmen, foremen.....	220	181	110	1	1	1
Farmers, farm managers.....	126	253	690	1	1	6
Farm laborers, foremen.....	688	663				
Laborers (except farm and mine)...	105	68	100	1	(¹)	1

¹ Less than 1 percent.

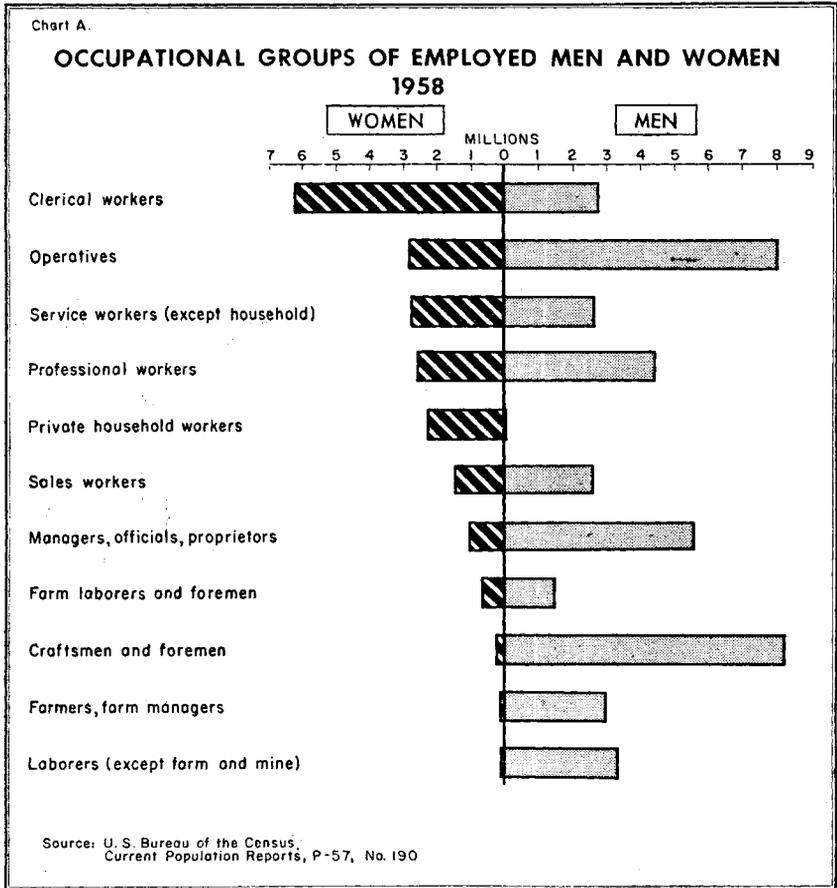
Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports.

At a time when women's employment has been expanding in the occupational areas where education and skill are important, the trend has been reversed for three other occupational groups. Women private-household workers numbered about the same in 1940 and 1958, but their proportion of all employed women decreased from 18 to 11 percent. This drop is part of a long-run decline in the relative significance of domestic work for employed women. For two other groups of women—those employed as general laborers and as farm workers—there have been somewhat smaller percentage decreases since 1940. With the general decrease in agricultural employment, the number of women farmers and farm laborers has dropped from 6 to 4 percent of all employed women.

Occupations with the largest numbers of women workers differ from those of men (chart A). In contrast to the predominance of clerical workers among women, almost 40 percent of all men workers were about evenly divided between craftsmen and operatives in early 1958. On the other hand, the percentages of clerical, service, or sales workers were much smaller among men than among women.

5. Proportion of Workers Who are Women

The importance of women in the labor force is indicated by their proportion of workers in various occupational groups. Women con-



stitute more than two-thirds of the clerical force in the country but relatively fewer of the workers in several other groups: Professional and sales workers (about one-third), operatives (one-fourth), and managers, officials, and proprietors (less than one-fifth). The proportions of women are largest among private-household workers and smallest among craftsmen, laborers, and farmers.

In most occupational groups, the proportion of workers who are women is larger in 1958 than it was in 1940. The greatest gain occurred for clerical workers, among whom the proportion of women rose from a little over half in 1940 to a little over two-thirds in 1958. There were also significant increases of women among service workers (except private household), sales workers, and farm laborers. Only in the professional group was there a decline in the proportion of women. This occurred, however, only because the number of pro-

essional men has increased even faster than the number of women. Many men who were able to receive college training under the veterans' benefits program have obtained professional positions. With the recent stress on engineering and science, large numbers of men have entered these professions—fields in which women constitute only a small minority. Nevertheless, in 1958 there were actually over 1 million more women performing professional work than there were in 1940.

6. Occupations of Nonwhite Women Workers

The civilian labor force in April 1958 included over 2¾ million nonwhite women, most of whom were Negroes. About 1 of every 7 women workers was nonwhite. Among all women in the population, about 45 percent of the nonwhite were working outside the home, as compared with about 35 percent of white persons.

Most nonwhite women were employed in three broad occupational groups: Private-household workers, other service workers, and operatives in factories, laundries, and other workplaces (table 4). In the past 2 decades, there has been a marked decrease in farm laborers and only a small increase in private-household workers. On the other hand, the number employed as clerical workers almost tripled between 1950 and 1958.

Table 4.—OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS OF NONWHITE EMPLOYED WOMEN, 1958

<i>Occupational group</i>	<i>Number (in thousands)</i>	<i>Percent distrib- ution</i>
Total employed	2, 513	100
Professional workers	146	6
Managers, officials, proprietors	48	2
Clerical workers	201	8
Sales workers	35	1
Service workers (except household)	550	22
Operatives	334	13
Private-household workers	1, 010	40
Craftsmen and foremen	17	1
Farmers, farm managers	20	1
Farm laborers and foremen	130	5
Laborers (except farm and mine)	22	1

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-57, No. 190.

7. Detailed Occupations

The latest information on most narrow occupational groups of women workers is contained in the 1950 decennial census. As noted earlier, the majority of women workers are concentrated in a relatively small number of occupations. In 1950, about half were employed in the 28 occupations listed in table 5.

Table 5.—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.	Sales workers—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 (wageworkers).....	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.

The largest detailed occupation for women—stenographers, typists, and secretaries—covered 1,501,090 women in 1950 (decennial census). The number had increased to 2,192,000 by April 1958, according to a new census report which gives monthly employment figures not only

for broad occupational groups but also for a few detailed occupations. This gain of 46 percent is evidence of the growing importance of this occupation in our modern society.¹ The two occupations with the next-largest numbers of clerical workers were the bookkeepers and the telephone operators, according to the 1950 census.

Among sales workers, there were 1,329,000 saleswomen engaged in retail trade, as indicated by the April 1958 census report. These included saleswomen in department stores, apparel, variety (5- and 10-cent), and food stores. Women's largest individual occupation among service workers, other than private-household workers, was that of waitresses and cooks, with 1,088,000 women in April 1958.

In certain individual occupations, a very large proportion of all workers are women. The occupations in which three-fourths or more of the workers in 1950 were women are shown in table 6.²

Table 6.—OCCUPATIONS WITH LARGE PROPORTIONS OF WOMEN, 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
Stenographers, typists, secretaries	Milliners
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)
Schoolteachers	Attendants, assistants—Library
Operatives—Knitting mills	Boarding-, lodging-housekeepers
	Operatives—Fabricated textiles
	Dancers, dancing teachers
	Religious workers
	Operatives—Tobacco manufacturers

¹ For additional information, see *Employment Opportunities for Women as Secretaries, Stenographers, Typists, and as Office-Machine Operators and Cashiers*. Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 263.

² Additional information is provided in *Changes in Women's Occupations, 1940-1950*. Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 253.

8. Women in Professional Positions

The 2,584,000 women performing professional and technical work in April 1958 comprised the fourth largest group among women workers—following after clerical workers, operatives, and service workers. This number was almost two-fifths higher than in 1950, and more than three-fifths higher than in 1940. However, as these numerical gains were about average for women, the percentage of all women workers in professional and technical jobs was the same in 1958 as in 1940.

With the demand still rising for teachers to staff the Nation's expanding school system, teaching continues to be the most popular profession among women. The 1,198,000 women teachers (except college) at work in April 1958 equaled 46 percent of all professional women, according to the newly expanded census report. This number of women teachers (considerably above the 767,769 teachers recorded in the 1940 census and the 834,996 teachers in 1950) gives some indication of the rapid expansion of our educational system arising from our population growth.

A general picture representing 1,100,000 public-school classroom teachers in 1955-56 was obtained in a special study by the National Education Association.³ About three-fourths of the teachers were women, and almost 60 percent of these were teaching in urban school districts with 2,500 or more population. Median age of the women teachers was 45.5 years (as compared with 35.4 years for men teachers). Somewhat over half the women were married, one-third were single, and the remainder were widowed, separated, or divorced. With respect to their education, about three-fifths had a first-level professional degree; about one-fifth, a master's degree; and most of the others, no degree. Women teachers averaged 15.4 years of teaching experience (men—8 years).

Among medical and other health workers, the only other category of professional workers reported separately by the Bureau of the Census in April 1958, there were 663,000 women, or 26 percent of all women in professional occupations. The largest single occupation in this group is that of professional nurses, estimated by the American Nurses' Association to number 430,000 in 1956. Other occupations include medical technologists, X-ray technicians, physical therapists, dietitians, pharmacists, occupational therapists, and medical-record librarians. Other women perform a wide variety of professional jobs. Relatively large numbers of women are musicians and music teachers, accountants and auditors, social workers, librarians, and editors and reporters. Women represent a small but growing proportion of law-

³ The Status of the American Public-School Teacher. National Education Association, Research Bulletin XXXV, No. 1, February 1957.

yers in this country.⁴ Small numbers of women are engaged in professions considered relatively unusual for women, such as engineering, architecture, geology, the ministry, and airplane navigation.

The long-time trend toward broadening women's occupational opportunities has been particularly noticeable in the professions. Of the approximately 1½ million women reported as professional, technical, and kindred workers in the 1940 decennial census, about three-fourths were engaged in teaching and professional nursing (including student nursing). Ten years later, despite the fact that the number of women in these two professions increased considerably, they accounted for just two-thirds of the almost 2 million women in professional work. Of the many other professions to which women were attracted, they made their greatest numerical gain as accountants and auditors, totaling 18,265 in 1940 and 55,660 in 1950. Percentagewise their numbers increased from 1 to 3 percent of all women professional workers and from 8 to 15 percent of all accountants and auditors.⁵

Of particular interest, in view of our present-day emphasis on engineering skills, is the relatively large increase in women engineers,⁶ which shows that women are sharing in the expanding demand for qualified personnel. In mathematics,⁷ statistics, and the sciences,⁸ the demand for larger numbers of trained personnel offers women opportunities for employment in a greater variety of jobs, provided they acquire the necessary education and training.

9. Women Proprietors, Officials, Managers

Slightly over 1 million women were classified by the April 1958 census report as proprietors, officials, and managers (except farm). This is over twice as many as in 1940 and over one-tenth more than in 1950. Almost half of the group are salaried workers. The classification is a very broad one and ranges from a large number of women proprietors running their own businesses to relatively few high-level corporation officials. Most of the women proprietors were engaged in retail trade, operating such establishments as restaurants, food stores, or apparel shops. Other women were owners of personal-service establishments, buyers or department heads of stores, public officials and

⁴ Employment Opportunities for Women in Legal Work. Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 265.

⁵ Employment Opportunities for Women in Professional Accounting. Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 258.

⁶ Employment Opportunities for Women in Professional Engineering. Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 254.

⁷ Employment Opportunities for Women Mathematicians and Statisticians. Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 262.

⁸ Employment Opportunities for Women in Science. Women's Bureau Bulletin (in preparation).

administrators, postmistresses, and managers and superintendents. Significant numbers of women are entering the insurance, real-estate, banking, and credit fields.

10. Women's Advancement

Women's advancement to high-level positions is a subject of keen interest, not only to women workers but also to educators, women's organizations, and those concerned with the Nation's future manpower needs. As our economy becomes increasingly complex, there is need for more and more high-caliber persons to shoulder administrative and managerial responsibilities. A significant number of women now 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 is usually much smaller in the upper levels of an occupation than in the occupation as a whole—even in their traditional fields of work. For example, in the library field, women fill a very large proportion of the staff positions but a very small proportion of the administrative positions.

Likewise, there are in the educational field relatively fewer women among administrators than among teachers. However, a survey of over 2,000 urban school systems, made by the National Education Association in 1955-56,⁹ indicated that the situation varied by location and type of school. At least a few women were employed as elementary-school principals in about 70 percent of the school districts, as junior-high-school principals in nearly 12 percent, and as high-school principals in about 6 percent. Women also held about 43 percent of other administrative positions, which included those of supervisors, directors, and assistant superintendents.

In elementary schools, almost nine-tenths of the teachers and about half of the principals are women. The proportion of women principals reported in the 1955-56 survey ranged from 38 percent in small urban school districts (2,500 to 5,000 population) to 62 percent in large districts (500,000 and over population). In secondary schools, where women fill about half the teaching positions, they were reported as comprising about 9 percent of the principals in junior-high schools and about 5 percent in senior-high schools. Again, the percentages of women principals were highest in the largest school districts.

Women constituted over one-fourth of the administrators in colleges and universities but were concentrated in women's colleges, ac-

⁹ Status of Urban School Systems, 1955-56. National Education Association.

ording to a study by the National Council of Administrative Women in Education (1952). Women held about three-fourths of the administrative positions in women's colleges and one-fifth in coeducational colleges. Positions in which two-thirds or more of the persons were women included dean of women, director of food service, director of residence, and head librarian. Among other college administrative positions, women were from one-third to one-half of the registrars, bursars, auditors or accountants, and 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 their governing boards. However, women were less than one-tenth of all board members in coeducational colleges having any women on the board, and just over one-third of those in women's colleges.

Industry Groups

11. Distribution of Women by Industry

About 95 percent of all employed women were working in nonagricultural industries in 1957, and almost two-thirds of these were engaged in the distribution of goods and services. Among the 7.7 million women providing services, almost 4 million were employed in professional services, about $3\frac{1}{4}$ million in personal services, and almost half a million in business services and recreation and entertainment. In each of these branches except personal services, women's employment has increased markedly since 1940; in that branch, it has been affected by the decline in the number of domestic workers. In relation to total employment expansion in each of the services, women have made their greatest gain in the business services, with their proportion rising from one-tenth of the workers in 1940 to two-tenths in 1958. Of the women engaged in the distribution of goods, about 4 million were employed in retail trade and almost $\frac{1}{2}$ million in wholesale trade.

Manufacturing industries, also large employers of women workers, had about 4.5 million women employees in 1957. In finance, insurance, and real-estate establishments, which employed about $1\frac{1}{4}$ million women in 1957, the proportion of women increased from one-third of the workers in 1940 to one-half in 1957. Of the remaining major industry groups, each employed fewer than 1 million women workers (table 7).

12. Women as Factory Workers

More than one-fifth of all employed women are working in manufacturing industries, and they constitute about one-fourth of all manu-

Table 7.—MAJOR INDUSTRY GROUP OF EMPLOYED WOMEN: 1957, 1950, AND 1940

Industry group	Number (in thou- sands) 1957	Percent distribution			Percent of all workers		
		1957	1950	1940	1957	1950	1940
Total.....	20, 592	100	100	100	32	29	26
Services.....	7, 736	38	36	45	58	55	59
Professional and related..	3, 975	19	16	17	59	55	57
Personal.....	3, 284	16	18	26	73	71	73
Business.....	336	2	1	1	21	13	10
Entertainment and recre- ation.....	141	1	1	1	28	24	21
Manufacturing.....	4, 474	22	23	21	25	25	23
Retail trade.....	3, 967	19	20	17	40	36	31
Finance, insurance, real estate..	1, 270	6	5	4	49	43	33
Public administration.....	853	4	4	3	29	25	20
Transportation, communica- tion.....	847	4	4	3	18	15	12
Agriculture.....	806	4	4	5	15	10	6
Wholesale trade.....	459	2	3	2	18	19	16
Construction.....	138	1	(1)	(1)	4	2	2
Mining.....	42	(1)	(1)	(1)	7	2	1

¹ Less than 1 percent.

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

facturing employees. Their numbers include women working in factory offices, as well as production workers. The relative importance of these two groups varies considerably from industry to industry. In some of the primary-metal industries, less than half of the women manufacturing employees have production jobs, while in the apparel and textile industries, more than nine-tenths do.

Manufacturing industries are generally considered in terms of two major divisions: Durable-goods industries and nondurable-goods industries. As indicated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in its quarterly report on the numbers of women in manufacturing industries, almost 2.5 million women, about 61 percent of all women factory workers were employed by nondurable (consumer) goods industries in January 1958 (table 8). This division was relatively more popular for women than men, as it covered only about 43 percent of all factory workers. Industries that manufacture apparel, textiles, and food products had the largest numbers of women workers. In two industries—textiles and tobacco manufacturing—there were fewer

women than in 1950. Women's total employment in nondurable-goods industries, which has had a small net decrease since 1950, shows a

Table 8.—WOMEN IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES: 1958 AND 1950

Industry	1958					
	Number of women	Percent change from 1950	Percent distribution		Percent of all workers	
			1958	1950	1958	1950
Total manufacturing.....	4, 094, 200	+9	100	100	26	27
NONDURABLE GOODS						
Subtotal.....	2, 496, 500	-1	61	67	37	38
Apparel, finished textile products.....	924, 400	+1	23	24	79	76
Textile mill products.....	406, 900	-26	10	15	43	43
Food and kindred products.....	334, 900	+1	8	9	24	24
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	235, 800	+22	6	5	27	27
Leather and leather products....	190, 200	+5	5	5	51	46
Chemicals and allied products..	148, 400	+29	4	3	18	17
Paper and allied products.....	121, 000	+12	3	3	21	23
Rubber products.....	65, 000	+8	2	2	25	26
Tobacco manufactures.....	52, 200	-3	1	1	57	57
Products of petroleum and coal..	17, 700	+64	(¹)	(¹)	7	5
DURABLE GOODS						
Subtotal.....	1, 597, 700	+29	39	33	18	17
Electrical machinery.....	430, 400	+42	11	8	37	38
Machinery (except electrical)..	214, 700	+27	5	4	14	13
Transportation equipment.....	209, 600	+96	5	3	12	10
Fabricated metal products.....	186, 600	+12	5	4	17	19
Instruments and related products.....	110, 500	+44	3	2	34	33
Stone, clay, and glass products..	81, 400	+4	2	2	16	16
Primary-metal industries.....	72, 100	+21	2	2	6	5
Furniture and fixtures.....	61, 500	+9	2	1	17	16
Lumber and wood products (except furniture).....	43, 600	-13	1	1	7	7
Ordnance and accessories.....	21, 400	+386	1	(¹)	18	17
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries.....	165, 900	-1	4	4	37	40

¹ Less than 1 percent.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Employment and Earnings. Figures are for January 1958 and March 1950.

strong seasonal influence, dropping somewhat in April and July and rising in October.

The durable-goods industries employed about 1.6 million women in 1958—about one-quarter of a million more than in 1950. Among the individual industries in this division, only lumber and wood products had fewer women workers in 1958 than 1950. The overall gain stems largely from two main factors: Industrial expansion in response to economic and military needs has brought many new jobs. And secondly, developments in industrial technology have introduced new processes which tend to lighten the physical demands on the worker and thus open more industrial jobs to women. As a result, durable-goods industries employed 39 percent of the women factory workers in 1958, in contrast to 33 percent in 1950. Largest employer of women in this industry division is the electrical-machinery industry, which includes firms manufacturing radio and television sets, telephones, electric lamps, electric measuring instruments, and household appliances.

13. Women on Farms

Of almost 7 million women living on farms in the United States in April 1958, slightly over one-fourth (1,903,000) were in the labor force (table 9). The numbers in both these groups were smaller than they had been in April 1950—as might be expected in view of the steady decline in farm population since 1933. About 37 percent of

TABLE 9.—EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF WOMEN LIVING ON FARMS, 1958

<i>Employment status</i>	<i>Number of women 14 years and over</i>	<i>Percent distribution</i>	<i>Percent change 1950 to 1958</i>
Women living on farms.....	6, 888, 000	100	—17. 9
In labor force.....	1, 903, 000	28	—1. 1
Employed.....	1, 792, 000	26	—3. 2
Agriculture.....	703, 000	10	—21. 5
Nonagriculture.....	1, 089, 000	16	+14. 0
Unemployed.....	111, 000	2	+52. 1
Not in labor force.....	4, 985, 000	72	—22. 9

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Farm Population Report, P-27, No. 25.

the women workers residing on farms in April 1958 were employed wholly or primarily in agriculture; the majority of women in this group were unpaid family workers. Another 57 percent were employed in nonagricultural industries and 6 percent were unemployed. In April 1950, about 47 percent had been engaged in agricultural work and slightly less than 50 percent in nonagricultural work. Principal factors explaining the move away from farm dwellings and farmwork have been the lower manpower requirements in agriculture, the increased employment opportunities in urban areas, and the relatively higher financial returns from many types of nonfarm work.

The urbanization of the population has been a factor in the increase of women's employment in the past 2 decades. Just as some persons have migrated to the city in search of jobs, so other women who have moved to the city with their families have entered the labor market because jobs were more readily available. Evidence that women's participation in the labor force is influenced to some extent by their location of residence is the fact that 28 percent of farm women were in the April 1958 labor force, compared with 36 percent of all women.

In April 1958, about 855,000 women were employed in agricultural industries. Of these, 126,000 were farmers and farm managers, and 688,000 were farm laborers and foremen. The remainder were performing a variety of clerical, sales, or service operations for agricultural firms. These figures are rather low for agricultural employment, as the peak periods of farm activity come in June and October. The lowest period is during the winter—with employment rising fairly steadily from March through June, when crops are planted and cultivated. Following a slight midsummer lull, fall harvesting brings farm employment to a secondary peak in September and October. During 1957 women's agricultural employment reached 1,860,000 in June and 1,546,000 in October. Fluctuations in farm employment are much greater than in nonagricultural employment and are one of the primary reasons for the seasonal pattern of the labor force as a whole. Women's employment shares in these fluctuations, as many housewives and schoolgirls enter the labor force temporarily to take summer jobs on farms.

14. Women in the Railroad Industry

The railroad industry, which has annually employed from 1½ to 3 million workers during the past 2 decades, has traditionally had few women employees. Part of the reason for this is that most railroad jobs are physically strenuous and not considered suitable for women. In the years just prior to World War II, there were about 50,000 to 60,000 women railroad employees (about 3 percent of the

total), according to a recent study made by the United States Railroad Retirement Board. Women's employment in the industry reached a peak 269,000 in 1944, or 9 percent of the total, and then dropped sharply at the end of the war. In 1955, about 99,000 women comprised 6 percent of all railroad employees. They represented a rising proportion of total railroad employment—primarily because technological changes have decreased employment in several jobs filled by men but to date have not greatly affected clerical and office jobs, to which most women railroad employees are assigned.

With many women first entering the railroad industry between 1941 and 1945, it is not surprising that women's average (median) length of service in the industry amounted to 9 years in 1955. Median age of the women employees was 40 years—about 4 years lower than that of railroad men.

At least two-thirds of the women railroad employees have office jobs, according to the Railroad Retirement Board's study of 75,000 women employed by Class I railroads in 1955. Some of the nonoffice jobs filled by women include those of coach cleaners; section women; waitresses, cooks, and kitchen helpers; general laborers; and baggage, parcel-room, and station attendants (table 10).

Table 10.—WOMEN EMPLOYEES OF CLASS I RAILROADS: 1955

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Number of women</i>	<i>Percent distri- bution</i>	<i>Percent of employees in occupation</i>
Total.....	75, 054	100	5
Clerks (B and C).....	24, 895	33	22
Stenographers and typists (B).....	12, 384	17	67
Mechanical-device operators.....	7, 339	10	70
Telephone-switchboard operators and office assistants.....	4, 438	6	67
Coach cleaners.....	2, 825	4	22
Stenographers and secretaries (A).....	2, 331	3	55
Janitors and cleaners.....	1, 734	2	24
Telegraphers, telephoners, and towermen....	1, 504	2	7
Section men.....	1, 427	2	1
Clerks and clerical specialists (A).....	1, 407	2	12
Messengers and office boys.....	1, 326	2	22
Waiters, camp cooks, kitchen helpers, etc....	1, 254	2	10
Clerk-telegraphers and clerk-typists.....	923	1	9
General laborers.....	876	1	3
Baggage, parcel-room, and station attendants..	755	1	6
Other occupations.....	9, 636	13	1

Source: U. S. Railroad Retirement Board. The Monthly Review, December 1957.

15. Women in the Federal Service

More than a half million women—about one-fourth of the total—are now working for the Federal Government, the largest single employer in the Nation. This number, about half as high as the World War II peak, is considerably above the prewar level of about 173,000 women. The gain is related largely to the Government's need to carry out its increased responsibilities and defense requirements, as well as to the Nation's expanding economy (table 11).

Table 11.—WOMEN IN THE FEDERAL SERVICE ¹
(Selected years between 1923 and 1957)

Year ²	Number of women	Women	
		Percent of total employees	Percent of women in D. C. area
1957.....	533, 802	25	17
1956.....	533, 318	24	18
1954.....	521, 945	24	19
1952 (Korean war).....	601, 215	25	19
1950.....	410, 327	23	24
1947 (return of war veterans).....	444, 194	24	22
1944 (World War II peak).....	1, 110, 545	37	15
1939.....	172, 733	19	29
1923.....	81, 486	16	34

¹ Civilian employees in continental United States.

² June figures are shown for each year except 1944 (July), 1956 (December), and 1957 (December).

Source: U. S. Civil Service Commission.

The variety of jobs held by women in Federal service is extensive.¹⁰ About 375,000 women, almost 85 percent of the women white-collar workers, were in clerical and related jobs in 1954—with the largest numbers employed as clerk-typists, clerk-stenographers, and secretaries. Another 16,000 women, about 4 percent, held jobs which may be described as semiprofessional, semiscientific, or semitechnical. About 33,000 women, slightly over 7 percent, had professional or scientific jobs requiring either a college degree or its equivalent. Women in higher level positions who determine policy or administer programs of the Federal Government represented somewhat less than 1 percent of all women white-collar workers. The remaining 4 percent of the women were miscellaneous workers, such as technicians

¹⁰ Government Careers for Women: A Study of the Salaries and Positions of Women White-Collar Employees in the Federal Service, 1954. Women's Bureau, 1957.

and specialists. (See chapter 2, table 22, for numbers of women and average salaries in selected occupations.)

16. Women in Public Office

Women administrators in the Federal Government have responsible positions as members of commissions and boards helping to determine Government policy, and as directors and deputy directors of agencies or divisions within an agency responsible for carrying out major Government programs. Some top-level women also serve as advisers to executives or are experts in highly specialized fields. Among the top administrative positions which women held in the executive branch in mid-1958 were the Under Secretary of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, the Treasurer of the United States, Director of the Passport Office, Chairman of the Subversive Activities Control Board, a Commissioner of the Patent Office, a Civil Service Commissioner, Director of the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Chief of the Children's Bureau, Deputy Assistant Secretary of Labor, and Assistant to the Secretary of Labor.

Other important positions held by women include Associate Press Secretary at the White House, Judge of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, Deputy United States Commissioner General of the Brussels Universal and International Exhibition, and as United States representative on each of the following commissions of the United Nations: Human Rights Commission, Social Commission, and Status of Women Commission. Women have also served regularly in the United States Delegation to the UN General Assembly.

In the legislative branch of the Federal Government, 1 woman was elected to the Senate and 15 women to the House of Representatives in the 85th Session of Congress. The Congresswomen are about evenly divided between the two political parties.¹¹

An all-time high of 321 women were in State legislatures in 1957—33 in upper houses and 288 in lower houses. There was at least one woman in the legislature of every State except Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Iowa, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Wisconsin. Thirty-eight women in 21 States had achieved statewide elective positions, including Secretary of State (6), member of the State Board of Education (8), State Superintendent of Public Instruction (4), State Auditor (4), and Trustees of the State University (4).

A considerable number of women have top-level appointive positions in the States. They serve in Governors' cabinets, as assistants and deputies to department heads, and as members of State boards

¹¹ For a biographical sketch of each woman in Congress, see *Women of the 85th Congress*. Women's Bureau, 1957.

and commissions. In addition, it is estimated that about 18,000 women serve in such county positions as circuit and county clerk, tax collector, auditor, treasurer, and superintendent of schools. In municipal posts, where about 10,000 women hold responsible jobs, there are significant numbers of women city clerks and chief finance officers and a few women mayors and city managers.¹²

17. Women in the Armed Services

Women are accepted for active duty in the four services of the Armed Forces of the United States. Members of the Women's Army Corps, popularly referred to as Wacs, have a minimum enlistment period of 2 years. Those in the Navy, the WAVES, enlist for at least 4 years. The WAF (women in the Air Force) and the Women Marines enlist for at least 3 years. Nurses, dietitians, and occupational or physical therapists are commissioned to a special branch in each of the services (except the Marine Corps, whose medical services are provided by the Navy).

In January 1958, there were 31,099 women on active duty in the armed services. They included 20,152 enlisted women, who constituted about 1 percent of total enlisted personnel, and 10,947 women officers, who were 3 percent of all military officers. About four-fifths of the women officers were nurses and other medical personnel. Women's peak participation in the Armed Forces came in May 1945, when there was a total of 266,184 women in the four above military services. Of these, 183,484 were enlisted women; 67,507, nurses and other medical personnel; and 15,193 nonmedical officers. In addition, at that time, there were about 10,000 enlisted women and 1,000 women officers in the Coast Guard (SPAR).

As in civilian life, enlisted women in the Armed Forces are more likely to have clerical jobs than any other kind. They serve as general clerks, typists, stenographers, file clerks, and accounting-machine operators. Some are promoted to supervisory jobs, such as office managers and personnel experts. Others are assigned 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 operations.¹³

¹² More detailed information is available from the Women's Division of the Republican National Committee and from the Office of Women's Activities of the Democratic National Committee.

¹³ See *Careers for Women in the Armed Forces*. U. S. Department of Defense in cooperation with the Women's Bureau.

18. Women in the Foreign Service

A total of 2,644 women served in the Foreign Service of the United States in February 1958. They equaled about one-third of all Foreign Service employees. Top position held by a woman was that of Ambassador to Norway—the only woman among 76 chiefs of mission. Other Foreign Service officers included 342 women, somewhat less than one-tenth of the total. Most of the women in this group were Secretaries, Counselors, and political officers in embassies and legations (table 12).

TABLE 12.—FOREIGN SERVICE PERSONNEL, BY RANK, 1958

Rank	Total	Women		Men	
		Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent
Total.....	8, 032	2, 644	100	5, 388	100
Foreign Service officers: ¹					
Chief of Mission.....	76	1	(²)	75	1
Career Minister and class 1....	233	1	(²)	232	4
Class 2 and 3.....	1, 054	18	1	1, 036	19
Class 4 and 5.....	1, 415	129	5	1, 286	24
Class 6 to 8.....	1, 425	195	7	1, 230	23
Foreign Service staff:					
Class 1 and 2.....	64	1	(²)	63	1
Class 3 to 5.....	134	8	(²)	126	2
Class 6 to 8.....	334	104	4	230	4
Class 9 to 11.....	1, 659	917	35	742	14
Class 12 to 14.....	1, 638	1, 270	48	368	7

¹ Includes 746 Foreign Reserve Officers (38 women).

² Less than one percent.

Source: U. S. Department of State. Analysis of American Personnel Activity. February 28, 1958.

Three-fifths of the staff positions in the Foreign Service were held by women. They were employed in a variety of specialized occupations, including clerk, stenographer, typist, and secretary, as well as assistant attaché, liaison officer, fiscal officer, consular attaché, administrative assistant, librarian, and political and research analyst.

Characteristics Affecting Women's Working Life

19. Why Women Work

Whether or not a woman works outside the home depends on numerous economic and social factors. When a group of women workers

themselves were questioned by the Women's Bureau¹⁴ about why they were working, most of them gave financial reasons. Practically all the women workers without husbands were supporting themselves and sometimes dependents as well. Most of the married women workers were contributing to essential living expenses. Some were working to raise family living standards and some were helping to send their children to college. Very few of the women were working just for the satisfaction of having a job or for the purpose of keeping their skills from getting rusty.

In addition to economic considerations, a woman's decision about paid employment is influenced by such personal factors as her age, marital status, and family responsibilities. These affect not only her decision on seeking employment, but also on how long to remain at work, on whether to reenter the labor force when family responsibilities decrease, and on when to retire. In recent years, new technological procedures, modes of living, and social customs have resulted in a striking increase in the number of women workers. In the following sections, consideration is given to several characteristics of working women which show the changes that are taking place—affecting not only the work-life pattern of individual women but also the total size and composition of the woman work force.

Ages of Women Workers

20. Rise in Average Age

The importance of older women in the work force has increased considerably in the last 2 decades. In 1940, women 45 years of age and over equaled just 22 percent of all women workers; by April 1958, their proportion had almost doubled—having jumped to 38 percent of the total. Part of this development stems from the fact that the country now has more women in this age group. But this is not the whole explanation, as the increased number of mature women in the labor force has far exceeded their gain in the population (table 13).

While the rise in the age of women workers has been a continuous one since the turn of the century, the change has been much more rapid since 1940 than previously. The average (median) age of all women workers rose from 26 years in 1900 to 32 years in 1940 and then to 40 years in 1958. Pertinent events which took place during the earlier part of this period include reforms in school-attendance and child-labor laws, requiring children to stay in school longer and raising the

¹⁴ Women Workers and Their Dependents. Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 239, 1952.

Table 13.—AGE DISTRIBUTION OF WOMEN IN THE POPULATION AND LABOR FORCE, 1958 AND 1940

<i>Age</i>	<i>1958</i>		<i>1940</i>	
	<i>Popula- tion</i>	<i>Labor force</i>	<i>Popula- tion</i>	<i>Labor force</i>
Total (percent).....	100	100	100	100
14 to 44 years:				
14 to 17 years.....	8	4	10	3
18 to 24 years.....	12	16	17	28
25 to 34 years.....	19	19	21	28
35 to 44 years.....	19	23	18	19
45 years and over:				
45 to 54 years.....	16	22	15	13
55 to 64 years.....	12	12	10	7
65 years and over.....	13	4	9	2

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-57, No. 190.

minimum age at which young people might go to work. In 1938, the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act established a minimum age of 16 years for employment by companies engaged in interstate commerce or industry. By curtailing the number of young people in the labor force, these actions tended to raise the average age of women workers.

World War II also contributed to the higher average age of women workers, as large numbers of mature women entered the labor force to assist in the war effort. By 1945, the average age of women workers was 34 years. After the war, the larger labor requirements of our expanding economy enabled many of the mature women to remain on the job and encouraged others to join them.

The higher age trend is likely to continue for another decade, since the women now entering the labor force are members of the relatively small generation born during the 1930's, when birth rates were low. This scarcity of young workers, both men and women, improves the job prospects of older workers for the next few years. By the 1960's, however, the generation of war and postwar babies will be entering the labor market in large numbers. Their numerical strength might be expected to lower the average age of women workers. But since the larger labor force predicted for the 1960's is also expected to include many more women in the group 45 years of age and over, the average age of women workers may not be greatly altered during this period.

21. Variation in Labor-Force Participation

Age is one of several important factors which influence women when they decide whether or not to work outside the home. The extent of labor-force participation is usually highest among young women and drops somewhat among women age 25 to 34, many of whom leave the labor force because of homemaking responsibilities. In April 1958, however, the percentages of workers among young women 18 and 19 years of age (47 percent) and 20 to 24 years of age (46 percent) were exceeded slightly by that (48 percent) of women 45 to 54 years of age, many of whom had returned to work when their family responsibilities decreased. The proportion fell to 36 percent for women 55 to 64 years old and to 11 percent among those 65 and over. This sharp drop reflects the large numbers of women who retire when they qualify for old-age insurance or retirement benefits (table 14).

Table 14.—TREND IN LABOR-FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN, BY AGE

Age	Women workers as percent of woman population ¹				
	1958	1955	1950	1945	1940
Women, 14 years and over.....	36	34	32	37	28
14 to 17 years.....	16	15	17	26	8
18 and 19 years.....	47	44	46	67	43
20 to 24 years.....	46	44	45	55	48
25 to 34 years.....	36	35	34	40	36
35 to 44 years.....	43	41	38	41	29
45 to 54 years.....	48	43	37	37	24
55 to 64 years.....	36	33	28	27	18
65 years and over.....	11	11	10	10	7

¹ Statistics are for March in 1940 and for April in remaining years.

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

Striking increases have occurred since 1940 in the proportions of women engaged in gainful employment. The greatest change was among women 45 to 54 years of age—with the proportion of women workers rising from 24 to 48 percent between 1940 and 1958. Also noteworthy is the increase from 18 to 36 percent among women 55 to 64 years of age. The slight decline since 1940 in the proportion of workers among women 20 to 24 years of age probably results from the large numbers who are going to college and the earlier ages at which some are marrying and starting their families.

22. Mature Women Workers

Since a major source of new workers in the labor force during the last decade has been women past 35 years of age, it is interesting to consider the types of jobs they have been obtaining. Special studies made by the Bureau of the Census indicate that the total number of women workers 35 years and over rose from less than 9 million in 1948 to almost 13 million in 1956. About one-third of the increase was in clerical jobs; one-sixth, in service jobs (excluding private-household work), and another sixth, in jobs as operatives in factories. Among the many other types of jobs obtained by mature women, the most significant numerically were professional, sales, and private-household work. In relation to other women workers, mature women made their greatest gains between 1948 and 1956 as sales workers, rising from 50 to 68 percent of all employed women in this field.

Table 15.—MAJOR OCCUPATIONAL GROUP OF EMPLOYED WOMEN 35 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, 1956

Major occupational group	Women 35 years of age and over		
	Number	Percent distribution	Percent of all women in each group
Total.....	12, 356, 000	100	61
Professional workers.....	1, 335, 000	11	63
Managers, officials, proprietors.....	803, 000	6	86
Clerical workers.....	2, 852, 000	23	47
Sales workers.....	1, 011, 000	8	68
Service workers (except household).....	1, 663, 000	13	64
Operatives.....	2, 270, 000	18	64
Private-household workers.....	1, 381, 000	11	65
Craftsmen and foremen.....	201, 000	2	(¹)
Farmers, farm managers.....	180, 000	1	(¹)
Farm laborers and foremen.....	614, 000	5	74
Laborers (except farm and mine).....	46, 000	(²)	(¹)

¹ Percent not shown where base is less than 225,000.

² Less than 1 percent.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 75.

As women 35 years of age and over comprised 61 percent of all women workers in 1956, it is not surprising that they constituted a majority of the women workers in most occupational groups. The single exception (among the occupations studied by the Bureau of

the Census) were women clerical workers, of whom 47 percent were 35 years and over. The highest proportions of women 35 and over were employed in three occupational groups: Managers, officials, and proprietors (86 percent); farm laborers and foremen (74 percent); and sales workers (68 percent) (table 15).

Marital Status

The increased tendency for married women to assume the dual role of homemaker and wage earner has been an important factor in the recent expansion of women's employment. Together with the higher marriage rates during and after World War II, it accounts for much of the rise in the number of women workers. But despite this significant change in social attitudes, the likelihood of a woman's being part of the labor force is still affected by her marital status.

23. Distribution by Marital Groups

Marriage rates, which started to rise during World War II, reached their peak about 1945 to 1948—their highest since the turn of the century. As a result, the proportion of single women aged 14 years and over fell from 28 percent in 1940 to only 19 percent in 1957. Another factor related to the increased work force of married women is that both men and women are getting married at an earlier age. In 1890, the average (median) age of women at first marriage was 22 years; in 1940, 21.5 years; and in 1956, 20.1 years. (The comparable ages for men in these three periods were 26.1 years, 24.3 years, and 22.9 years.)

The great increase of married women in the labor force has resulted from a steady gain during the past 2 decades. In 1940, married women (with husbands present) accounted for one-third of the female labor force; in 1950, almost half; and in 1957, more than half. Conversely, the proportion of single women fell from about one-half in 1940 to one-third in 1950, and to one-fourth in 1957. While the number of other women workers (widowed, divorced, or married with husband absent) has also increased since 1940, their proportion among all women workers (about one-fifth) is approximately the same throughout the 17-year period (table 16).

24. Proportion of Single and Married Women Who Work

The extent of labor-force participation among single women (14 years of age and over) has remained stable during the last 2 decades—

Table 16.—MARITAL STATUS OF WOMEN IN THE POPULATION AND LABOR FORCE:
MARCH 1957 AND 1940

(Women 14 Years of Age and Over)

Marital status	Number of women 1957	Percent dis- tribution		Change 1940-1957	
		1957	1940	Number	Percent
POPULATION					
Total.....	61,863,000	100	100	+11,314,000	+22
Single.....	11,487,000	19	28	-2,449,000	-18
Married, husband present..	38,940,000	63	56	+10,423,000	+37
Other ¹	11,436,000	18	16	+3,339,000	+41
LABOR FORCE					
Total.....	21,524,000	100	100	+7,684,000	+56
Single.....	5,378,000	25	49	-1,332,000	-20
Married, husband present..	11,529,000	54	30	+7,329,000	+175
Other ¹	4,617,000	21	21	+1,687,000	+58

¹ Includes women who are widowed, divorced, or married with husband absent.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 76.

aside from the temporary rise during World War II. From a level of 48 percent in 1940, the proportion of workers among single women rose to 59 percent in 1944 and then dropped back again to 47 percent in 1957 (table 17). Among the smaller group of single women 20 to 64 years of age, the same proportion (77 percent) were in the labor force in 1957 as in 1940.

The most remarkable change in women's participation in paid employment has occurred among married women (with husbands present). In 1940, 15 percent of these women were at work; by 1957, the percentage had doubled. As might be expected, this was still a much lower rate of labor participation than prevailed among other marital groups. Nevertheless, because of their predominance in the population (nearly two-thirds of all women 14 years of age and over are married and living with their husbands), married women make up more than half of the woman labor force.

Of the 2.3 million married women whose husbands are absent from home, over one-half are in the labor force. This exceeds the percentages of women in other marital groups, as it usually has except during wartime and early postwar years. Some of the absent husbands are in the Armed Forces, but most are absent or separated from their wives

Table 17.—TREND IN LABOR-FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN, BY MARITAL STATUS

(Women 14 Years of Age and Over)

Marital status	Women workers as percent of woman population ¹				
	1957	1955	1950	1944 ²	1940
All women workers.....	35	34	31	35	27
Single.....	47	46	51	59	48
Married.....	31	29	25	26	17
Husband present.....	30	28	24	22	15
Husband absent.....	52	51	47	52	53
Widowed and divorced.....	38	36	36	36	32

¹ Statistics are for March in 1940, 1950, and 1957; for April in 1944 and 1955.² Information not available for 1945.

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

for other reasons, such as separation by choice, residence in an institution, or employment away from home.

Of the 9 million widowed and divorced women in the population, slightly less than two-fifths were at work in 1957. Labor-force participation in this group has increased moderately since 1940.

25. Marital Status and Age Groups

When the labor-force participation of single and married women is analyzed in terms of age groups, it is evident that the probability of their working is generally affected more by their marital status than by their age. Differences in participation are most noticeable among women from 20 to 34 years of age—when women are most likely to have young children needing their care. For example, in the age group 25 to 29 years, 78 percent of the single women were at work in 1957 but only 26 percent of the married women (husband present). After age 35, the differences tend to decrease, as many married women seek paid employment. Among women 45 to 54 years of age, the percentage of married women in the labor force rose to 37 percent (the peak for married women), while the percentage of single women remained near its usual high level—78 percent (table 18).

In every age group starting with 20 years, the percentage of single women in the labor force is consistently highest and the percentage of married women lowest, with other women somewhere between (and

usually closer to the percentage for single women). Among girls under age 20, those most likely to work are the young girls who have married and lost their husbands.

The percentages of married women (husband present) in the labor force resembled those of single women more in the youngest and oldest age groups than in others. This suggests that the presence of a woman in the labor force during her earlier and later years is affected more by such factors as age, education, and health than by marital status.

Table 18.—LABOR PARTICIPATION RATES OF WOMEN, BY AGE AND MARITAL STATUS, 1957

Age	Women workers as percent of woman population		
	Single	Married ¹	Other
Total.....	47	30	40
14 to 19 years.....	27	24	36
20 to 24 years.....	75	30	53
25 to 29 years.....	78	26	60
30 to 34 years.....	82	28	64
35 to 44 years.....	82	36	69
45 to 54 years.....	78	37	66
55 to 64 years.....	67	25	48
65 to 74 years.....	33	7	20
75 years and over.....	11	3	3

¹ With husband present.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 76.

Of the more than 7 million increase in married women workers between 1940 and 1957, the largest group—over 3 million—were 45 to 64 years of age. They represented a 348-percent gain over 1940. Also particularly noteworthy is the approximately 200-percent increase between 1940 and 1957 of married women workers in two other age groups: 35 to 44 years, and 65 years and over. The number of women workers in these age groups increased to a much greater degree than the total population of married women (table 19).

26. Occupations of Single and Married Women

Even though clerical workers were the predominant occupational group among women workers in each of the three major marital groups in March 1957, there were significant differences in the occu-

Table 19.—AGE OF MARRIED WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE, 1957 AND 1940

Age	Number of married women workers ¹		Percent increase 1940-1957 of married women in—	
	1957	1940	Labor force	Popula- tion
Total.....	11, 529, 000	4, 200, 000	175	37
14 to 19 years.....	193, 000	70, 000	176	22
20 to 24 years.....	1, 013, 000	530, 000	91	18
25 to 34 years.....	2, 723, 000	1, 510, 000	80	26
35 to 44 years.....	3, 487, 000	1, 150, 000	203	39
45 to 64 years.....	3, 939, 000	880, 000	348	43
65 years and over.....	174, 000	60, 000	190	87

¹ With husband present.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 76 and No. 22.

pations of single and married women (table 20). That relatively more single women than other women workers have clerical jobs may be related to the fact that a majority of single women workers are under 25 years of age and many are employed in entry clerical positions, which require relatively little previous training and have correspondingly lower pay. In addition, most single women are able to accept full-time, year-round employment, as demanded in most clerical jobs. The percentage of single women in professional and technical

Table 20.—MAJOR OCCUPATIONAL GROUP OF EMPLOYED WOMEN, BY MARITAL STATUS, 1957

Major occupational group	Total	Single	Married ¹	Other
Total.....	100	100	100	100
Professional workers.....	12	17	11	9
Managers, officials, proprietors.....	5	2	6	7
Clerical workers.....	30	40	28	22
Sales workers.....	7	6	8	6
Service workers (except household).....	13	9	13	19
Operatives.....	17	11	19	17
Private-household workers.....	11	11	7	17
Other occupations.....	5	3	7	4

¹ With husband present.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 76.

positions also exceeds that of women in other marital groups, possibly because many more single women with considerable education and continuous work experience are able to qualify for these jobs.

Among married women living with their husbands in 1957, the largest group aside from clerical workers was that of the operatives. The relatively high popularity of operative jobs among married women may stem from the small amount of previous work experience required in many of these jobs and the relatively higher pay.

Among women workers who have lost their husbands, there were large proportions of service workers employed both in private households and in other types of service establishments. As many women in this group must seek work on short notice, they frequently accept service jobs, which are usually the most readily available type of work.

As married women (husband present) constituted over half of all women workers in 1957, they were also predominant in each of the major occupational groups. However, married women accounted for less than half of women professional workers and less than two-fifths

Table 21.—MARITAL STATUS OF EMPLOYED WOMEN IN MAJOR OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS, 1957

<i>Major occupational group</i>	<i>Total women workers</i>	<i>Marital status of women</i>		
		<i>Single</i>	<i>Married</i> ¹	<i>Other</i>
Total (percent)-----	100	25	54	21
Professional workers-----	100	36	48	16
Managers, officials, proprietors-----	100	11	62	27
Clerical workers-----	100	33	51	16
Sales workers-----	100	22	61	17
Service workers (except household)-----	100	17	53	30
Operatives-----	100	17	61	22
Private-household workers-----	100	27	38	35
Other occupations-----	100	15	69	16

¹ With husband present.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 76.

of private-household workers. On the other hand, married women had above-average representation in three occupational groups: operatives; managers, officials, or proprietors; and sales workers (table 21). Wives of proprietors are frequently in business with their husbands; and many married women interested in part-time employment take jobs as saleswomen.

Family Status of Women Workers

27. Types of Families

There were almost 43½ million families in the United States in 1957—with husband-wife families forming more than 85 percent of the total. Slightly over 10 percent of the families had a woman as head, and the remaining were families (other than married couples) headed by a man.

In addition to these related family groups, there were about 5¾ million women (and 4 million men) classed as “unrelated individuals” who were not living with relatives. Over 4 million of these women had their own homes or apartments and were living independently as “primary individuals.” Almost two-thirds were widows and over four-fifths were 45 years of age or over. The remaining group of unrelated individuals were roomers, boarders, hotel guests, resident employees, and inmates of institutions (including special schools and homes). More than half of these women were single, and more than half were 45 years or over.

Husband-wife families are likely to be larger than other types of families. In 1957, there were 4 or more members in nearly half of these families and only in about one-fourth of other types of families. However, about one-fifth of all husband-wife families had just one additional member, and nearly one-third had no other member. In the latter group were many couples whose children were grown and no longer living with them, and many young couples who had no children. Of all husband-wife families, almost two-fifths had 2 or more children under 18 years of age.

Of the almost 4.4 million families in which a woman was the head, almost half had 2 members; almost one-fourth, 3; and the remaining, 4 or more. Fifty-eight percent of these women who were family heads in 1957 had no children of their own, but 25 percent had 2 or more children of their own. In the family group of many of these women were children who were related to them in other ways, as, for example, younger sisters, brothers, or grandchildren.

The women family heads were a somewhat older group than the wives. Almost two-thirds were 45 years of age or over; only one-tenth were under 30.

28. Employment of Women in Relation to Family Status

The extent to which women enter the labor force varies considerably with their family status. Women who are not part of a family group—the unrelated individuals—are more likely to work than

women living with their families, since the former must support themselves, unless they have independent means. In recent years, somewhat over half the women in this group have engaged in paid employment.

Another group of women with a high proportion of employed persons is that in which women are heads of families. About 47 percent of this group were in the labor force in 1957. In contrast, 30 percent of wives living with their husbands were working.

29. Working Wives

A record number of working wives—11.5 million—accounted for 53 percent of all women in the labor force in March 1957. About 10.8 million of this number had husbands who were also in the labor force and together they amounted to 28 percent of all married couples (38.9 million) in the population. This represents a remarkable increase over 1940, when working couples numbered 3 million, or 11 percent of all married couples. By 1950, the group had increased to 8 million and their proportion to 22 percent.

The 1957 labor force also included over two-thirds of a million working wives whose husbands did not work. Most of the husbands outside the labor force were permanently retired or disabled. Among families where the wife was not in the labor force—husbands and other family members worked in about 4 million families; only family members other than the husband and wife worked in about one-half million families; and no one worked in about 2¼ million families. Nevertheless, in slightly over half (almost 20 million) of all husband-wife families in 1957, the husband was the only earner.

More wives work when their husband's income is relatively low than when it is high. In March 1957, about one-third of the wives were working in those families where the husband's income was under \$5,000; about one-fourth, where it was between \$6,000 and \$7,000; and one-eighth, where it was \$10,000 and over (table 22). The highest proportion of working wives (two-fifths) was found among couples in which the husband was unemployed. Part-time employment was secured most frequently in families where the husband's annual income was very low (under \$2,000) or very high (\$10,000 or over). It is not surprising to find that there is relatively more part-time employment (and thus less full-time employment) among wives in the high-income groups. But in the low-income groups, possible explanations may be that many of these wives have children to care for, are in poor health, or have reached an advanced age. Some may also be engaged in domestic service or other types of work where part-time employment is usual.

Table 22.—LABOR-FORCE STATUS OF WIFE, BY INCOME OF HUSBAND, 1957

Income of husband in 1956	Percent of wives in labor force, 1957	Percent distribution of employed wives		
		Total	Full time	Part time
Total.....	30	100	75	25
Under \$1,000.....	31	100	69	31
\$1,000 to \$1,999.....	29	100	69	31
\$2,000 to \$2,999.....	35	100	76	25
\$3,000 to \$3,999.....	36	100	79	21
\$4,000 to \$4,999.....	32	100	79	22
\$5,000 to \$5,999.....	29	100	75	25
\$6,000 to \$6,999.....	27	100	72	28
\$7,000 to \$9,999.....	21	100	73	27
\$10,000 and over.....	12	100	67	33

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 81.

Comparison of the occupations held by husbands and wives indicates that about one-third of them pursue similar lines of work. That the highest correlation for husband-wife jobs exists among those who are farmers is not surprising, since many farm wives have very few other job opportunities open to them. Also, about half of the wives of clerical workers had clerical jobs in March 1957, and over two-fifths of the wives of professional men were employed in professional work. The greatest difference in husband-wife jobs was indicated in the case of husbands who were employed as managers and officials and as sales workers. The generally low similarity between the jobs of husbands and wives stems primarily from the fact that the kinds of jobs held by most women in the labor force are still quite different from those of men (table 23).

30. Working Mothers

Of the 21½ million women in the labor force in March 1957, almost 7 million, or about one-third, had children under 18 years of age. About 4½ million of these women had children of school age only (6 to 17 years); and the others, about 2½ million, had one or more children of preschool age (under 6 years). The number of working mothers increased sharply during World War II and has continued to rise steadily since then. In 1940, they numbered only 1½ million (about one-tenth of all women workers) and by 1950 they exceeded 4½ million (about one-fourth). Most of 1957's working mothers were married women with husband present, but about 1.3 million women

Table 23.—OCCUPATION OF WIFE, BY OCCUPATION OF HUSBAND, MARCH 1957

Occupation of wife	Occupation of husband									
	Profes- sional workers	Managers and officials	Proprie- tors	Clerical workers	Sales workers	Service workers	Opera- tives	Crafts- men	Laborers	Farmers
Total.....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Professional workers.....	42	16	7	13	16	6	4	9	4	8
Managers and officials.....	4	9		3	6	4	3	4	2	(1)
Proprietors.....	1		26		1	1	(1)	1	(1)	2
Clerical workers.....	39	42	27	51	43	22	23	32	18	8
Sales workers.....	6	9	17	6	14	7	8	9	5	4
Service workers (except house- hold).....	3	7	9	10	9	30	15	13	19	7
Operatives, craftswomen, labor- ers.....	4	13	12	13	10	18	36	27	25	12
Private-household workers... Farmers.....	2	2	2	3	1	13	9	5	24	9
		1	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	2	1	3	52

¹ Less than 1 percent.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 81.

were widowed, divorced, or separated from their husbands for other reasons (table 24).

Table 24.—WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE, BY MARITAL STATUS AND PRESENCE AND AGE OF CHILDREN, 1957

<i>Marital status and presence and age of children</i>	<i>Labor force</i>		<i>Percent distribution within marital group</i>
	<i>Number (in thousands)</i>	<i>Percent distribution</i>	
All women workers.....	21, 524	100	
Married women, husband present.....	11, 529	54	100
With no children under 18.....	5, 805	27	50
With children:			
6 to 17 only.....	3, 517	16	31
6 to 17 and under 6.....	1, 247	6	11
Under 6 only.....	961	4	8
All other women ever married.....	4, 617	21	100
With no children under 18.....	3, 353	16	73
With children:			
6 to 17 only.....	884	4	19
6 to 17 and under 6.....	167	1	4
Under 6 only.....	212	1	5
Single women.....	5, 378	25	-----

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 81.

Overall, about 1 of every 3 mothers with children under 18 years of age was working in 1957. But the ratio changed considerably when the ages of the children were taken into consideration. Among mothers with school-age children only, about 2 out of 5 were working. For those with some preschool children, the ratio was about 1 out of 5. There is little doubt that most mothers prefer, when possible, to stay at home to take care of their young children. Once the children reach school age, however, the employment of mothers rises markedly (table 25).

Mothers whose husbands are dead or absent from the home are generally subject to more severe economic pressures than are married women with husbands present. Although some receive other income,

such as social-security benefits for dependent children and veterans' benefits for dependents, many must work to support themselves and their children. Four-tenths of the mothers who are widowed, divorced, or separated are in the labor force, as compared with three-tenths of the mothers whose husbands are present. Of those having children under 6 years of age, 36 percent of the former group work, compared with 17 percent of the latter. Despite these major differences in extent of labor-force participation, however, both groups appear to be influenced by the state of family finances when they make their decisions regarding work outside the home. Among

Table 25.—EMPLOYMENT OF MOTHERS, MARCH 1957

<i>Group of mothers</i>	<i>Number of mothers (in thousands)</i>		<i>Percent of population in labor force</i>
	<i>Popula- tion</i>	<i>Labor force</i>	
All women with children under 18.....	50, 376	16, 146	32
Married, husband present.....	38, 940	11, 529	30
Other women ever married.....	11, 436	4, 617	40
Mothers with school-age children only ¹	11, 011	4, 401	40
Married, husband present.....	9, 599	3, 517	37
Other women ever married.....	1, 412	884	63
Mothers with preschool children ²	14, 073	2, 587	18
Married, husband present.....	13, 016	2, 208	17
Other women ever married.....	1, 057	379	36

¹ Includes mothers with some children 6 to 17 years but none younger.

² Includes mothers with some children under 6 years (with or without children 6 to 17).

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 81.

mothers (husband present) 20 to 44 years of age, the largest proportions in the labor force were those whose husbands earned less than \$4,000 a year. As the husband's income rose, the labor-force participation of the wife dropped. Since more than fourth-fifths of all working mothers are living with their husbands, it can be concluded that most mothers who are working are doing so to help pay living expenses.

Working Life of Women

31. Predominant Work Patterns

The differing effects that marriage, children, widowhood, and divorce have in determining women's participation in the labor force indicate that the work pattern of women is much more complex than that of men. Most women work sometime during their lives, whether they marry or not. But marriage and the presence of children tend to curtail their employment, while widowhood, divorce, and the decrease of family responsibilities tend to attract them back into the labor force. As indicated from the preceding statistics on women's characteristics and from a special Bureau of Labor Statistics study on work-life expectancy,¹⁵ several major work patterns are found to exist among women.

For women who remain single, the work pattern is relatively simple and bears a strong resemblance to that for men. Women in this group, which includes about one-tenth of all women, work most of their lives. Those who enter the labor force before age 20 and remain unmarried, will probably continue to work for about 40 years—not quite as long as the 43-year average for men. These single women can expect to live an average of 13 years after retirement.

Women who marry, do not have children, and remain married (about one-tenth of all married women) have a work-life expectancy of 31 years—9 years less than single women. After age 35, these married women have an average of 20 more working years (about 7 years less than single women). Whereas most single women must depend on their own earnings for support, these women with husbands are in a better position to stop work when they have minor disabilities or for other reasons.

The length of the average working life for the large group of married women with children cannot be readily estimated because of the intermittent nature of their work careers. Like other women, they typically start to work immediately after finishing school—generally when they are 17 or 18 years old. After about 4 years, they typically quit work to get married and have children. Since the current tendency is for women to marry and have children at a younger age than formerly, many are in their early thirties when all their children are in school and their family responsibilities considerably decreased. Stimulated by such factors as economic pres-

¹⁵ Tables of Working Life for Women, 1950. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 1204. The study is based on a "stationary population" and assumes that 1950 rates of birth, marriage, death, and labor-force participation will remain constant.

tures, lighter housekeeping tasks, and better job opportunities, those who return to the labor market have generally been out for about 8 to 10 years. If they reenter when they are 30 years of age and have no more children, they can expect to average another 23 years of work.

Among women who are widowed, divorced, or separated, a relatively large percentage return to the labor force after losing their husbands. After age 30, the length of time these women can expect to remain in the work force is slightly shorter than for single women but is more comparable to this group than any other.

Women generally retire at an earlier age than men. Their separation from the labor force for reasons other than marriage and child-bearing becomes significant for women after age 45. When family finances improve—because of higher earning power on the part of husbands or decreased family expenses—some wives leave the labor market. In the age group 55 to 60, about twice as large a proportion of women workers leave the labor force as that of men. Nevertheless, about 95 percent of the women workers of this age continue at work.

32. Women as Part-Time Workers

Many women who cannot work full time because of family and household responsibilities are willing and able to work on a part-time basis. During April 1958, almost 6½ million women—about 30 percent of the women workers in nonagricultural industries—were employed part time, that is, less than 35 hours a week (as defined by the Bureau of the Census). Women who were regular part-time workers equaled 22 percent of all nonfarm women workers.

Less than 4 percent of all women workers indicated they were usually employed full time but working part time in April 1958 for economic reasons such as slack work, repairs to plant or equipment, or inability to find full-time work. The remainder were working part time for personal or miscellaneous reasons.

Part-time employment has characterized the work pattern of many women for a long time. Many women who are married and have children value part-time work as a way of supplementing or increasing their income, utilizing their skills and abilities, and providing outside interests and contacts. To their employers, part-time work has such advantages as furnishing needed aid during peak business load and relief periods.

The extent to which women are in part-time jobs varies in different occupations. Part-time work exists most frequently among private-household workers, farm laborers and sales workers. According to a census survey made in 1956, relatively few women workers were employed part time in four occupational groups: Managerial and pro-

prietary, operative, clerical, and professional. A Women's Bureau study¹⁶ of more than 9,000 women part-time workers and over 1,000 employers of such workers (excluding manufacturing, household, and farm workers) indicated that establishments and organizations which frequently employ women on a part-time basis include retail stores, restaurants, educational groups, hospitals, social agencies, and libraries.

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

33. Labor Turnover

Since many part-time workers enter and leave the labor market in a relatively short period, women's employment tends to fluctuate more than men's. Economic forces, of course, have similar influences on the employment of both groups and are largely responsible for major changes. However, labor turnover, or movements of employees among firms, is generally somewhat higher for women than for men. In a study of average turnover rates for factory workers during the period from January 1950 to January 1955, women's hiring rates were about 16 percent above men's. Their separations were also higher because women's quit rates were consistently above men's (table 26).

Table 26.—LABOR TURNOVER RATES OF WOMEN AND MEN FACTORY WORKERS, 1950-1955

<i>Type of labor turnover</i>	<i>Rate per 1,000 employees</i>	
	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
Accessions (hires).....	44	38
Separations, total.....	43	38
Quits.....	24	18
Layoffs and other involuntary separations.....	19	20

Source: Women's Bureau. Monthly Labor Review, August 1955 (p. 889).

There are some indications that factory women are less inclined to quit their jobs than they formerly were. This is borne out in a comparison of quit rates for 1950-55 with those for 1944-47. Women's quit rates exceeded men's by only 33 percent in 1950-55, in contrast to a 40-percent difference in 1944-47. Some of the possible explana-

¹⁶ Part-Time Jobs for Women. Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 238, 1951.

tions for women's greater employment stability include their growing interest in continuous employment, the higher family income required by higher living standards, and the larger proportion of mature women workers with fewer home responsibilities.

34. Women's Work Experience

Because of part-time and intermittent work, the number of women in the labor force at any one time (figure previously quoted) is smaller than the number of different women who work all or part of a year. Preliminary figures show that a total of almost 29 million women worked at some time during 1957, whereas an average of 22 million women workers were in the labor force during that year.

Approximately 47 percent of all women 14 years of age and over in the population had some work experience during 1957. More than 10¾ million women (37 percent of the women with work experience in 1957) held full-time jobs the year round. Another 9 million (32 percent) were employed in full-time jobs for part of the year. Of these, about half worked from 27 to 49 weeks and half from 1 to 26

Table 27.—WORK EXPERIENCE OF WOMEN WORKERS IN 1956, BY MAJOR OCCUPATIONAL GROUP

Major occupational group of longest job	Total with work experience		Percent of women who worked at—			
	Number (in thousands)	Per-cent	Full-time jobs			Part-time jobs
			50-52 weeks	27-49 weeks	26 weeks or less	
Women, 14 years of age and over.....	¹ 27,948	100	37	16	17	29
Professional workers.....	2,835	100	44	27	12	18
Managers, officials, proprietors..	1,156	100	63	14	9	14
Clerical workers.....	7,562	100	53	14	16	17
Sales workers.....	2,471	100	26	10	18	46
Service workers (except household).....	3,632	100	31	18	21	30
Operatives.....	4,606	100	39	26	21	14
Private-household workers.....	2,618	100	21	8	11	60
Craftswomen.....	288	100	49	16	17	18
Farm laborers, foremen.....	2,449	100	6	6	20	68

¹ Includes women employed as "farmers and farm managers" and "laborers except farm," although separate information was not released for these groups.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 77.

weeks. On the other hand, almost 9 million women (31 percent) had part-time jobs. Since 1950 the number of women in part-time jobs has increased more rapidly than the number in full-time work.

Detailed information on women's work experience is available for 1956, when 19.7 million women worked at full-time jobs at least part of the year and 8.2 million women at part-time jobs. By occupation, approximately half or more of the women managers, officials, and proprietors; clerical workers; and craftsmen worked at year-round full-time jobs in 1956 (table 27).

Principal reasons offered by women for part-year work (less than 50 weeks at either full-time or part-time jobs) were household responsibilities, unemployment or layoffs, school attendance, and illness or disability.

Regularity of employment was highest for women workers 45 to 59 years of age. This group had the largest proportion of women workers at full-time year-round jobs (table 28). For those working the year round at part-time jobs, the extent of regular employment among women workers 45 to 59 years of age was exceeded only by that among women 60 years of age and over. Short-time employment occurred most frequently among girls 14 to 17 years of age. Regularity of employment increased among women 18 to 19 years—the age group in which the largest proportion of women had work experience in 1956.

Table 28.—WORK EXPERIENCE OF WOMEN IN 1956, BY AGE GROUP

Work experience in 1956	Total	Age group of women workers				
		14-17 years	18-34 years	35-44 years	45-59 years	60 years and over
Number of women (in thousands)	27, 948	1, 688	10, 377	6, 189	7, 225	2, 469
Percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Primarily at part-time jobs ¹ ..	29	69	22	28	28	41
26 weeks or less	14	50	12	11	9	14
27 to 49 weeks	6	8	4	6	6	8
50 to 52 weeks	10	12	6	11	13	19
Primarily at full-time jobs ¹ ...	71	31	78	72	72	59
26 weeks or less	17	25	23	14	10	11
27 to 49 weeks	16	4	19	16	17	13
50 to 52 weeks	37	2	36	42	45	35

¹ Part-time jobs were those lasting less than 35 hours a week and full-time jobs, 35 hours or more a week. Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 77.

35. Women Not in the Labor Force

A current report on the total number of women who have obtained some work experience during their lifetime is not available. However, a 1951 survey made by the Bureau of the Census among women not in the labor force indicated that about one-third had had some previous work experience during or after World War II. These women, along with others who have secured some work experience since 1951, can be viewed as a flexible reserve of experienced workers, capable of rapid utilization in time of labor shortage—provided, of course, that family responsibilities would permit their return to the labor force. Since over half the survey group were from 20 to 34 years of age, it is likely that many would be responsible for the care of young children.

A more practical estimate of the supply of women actually available for increasing the Nation's work force would exclude young mothers and elderly women. Even if these groups are not included, the number of women in the labor reserve exceeds that of men—making women the largest single source for labor-force expansion. It emphasizes the importance of providing more opportunities for women to improve their skills when our manpower resources need to be fully developed.

36. Women as Members of Unions

About 3.4 million women were members of labor organizations at the end of 1956, according to estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. They accounted for just under one-fifth of all union members and slightly over one-seventh of all women in the labor force. The relatively low proportion of women members is influenced by the nature of women's employment. Women who plan to remain in the labor market only a few years, as well as many who are part-time or part-year workers, are less inclined to join a union than persons who expect to work during most of their lifetime.

Of the 189 unions participating in the 1956 membership survey, 137 unions indicated they had women members. The highest membership figures for women were reported by unions engaged in collective bargaining in industries with large numbers of women. These include the needle trades, electrical-goods manufacturing, service industries, communications, retail trade, and textile mills. In addition, there were large numbers of women in several big industrial and transportation unions, although women were only a small portion of their total membership. This second group of industries includes automobile and machinery manufacturing, as well as trucking (table 29).

There are no separate unions for women alone. In 8 unions, women constituted at least three-fourths of the membership, but in 79 unions

Table 29.—NUMBER OF WOMEN MEMBERS OF LABOR UNIONS, 1956
(Unions reporting 25,000 or more women members)

<i>Union</i>	<i>Approximate number of women</i>
American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations:	
International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union.....	338, 100
Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America.....	288, 800
International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers.....	202, 500
Hotel and Restaurant Employees and Bartenders International Union	176, 400
International Union, United Automobile, Aircraft and Agricultural Implement Workers of America.....	175, 000
International Union of Electrical, Radio, and Machine Workers...	159, 000
Communications Workers of America.....	155, 400
International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Warehousemen and Helpers of America ¹	150, 500
Retail Clerks International Association.....	150, 000
International Association of Machinists.....	95, 000
Laundry Workers' International Union ¹	85, 500
Textile Workers Union of America.....	81, 100
Building Service Employees International Union.....	69, 000
Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen of North America	62, 000
Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Union.....	58, 800
Bakery and Confectionery Workers' International Union of America ¹	53, 300
United Textile Workers of America.....	52, 000
Brotherhood of Railway and Steamship Clerks, Freight Handlers, Express and Station Employees.....	43, 900
American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees...	37, 500
United Rubber, Cork, Linoleum and Plastic Workers of America...	35, 600
International Brotherhood of Bookbinders.....	35, 000
International Brotherhood of Pulp, Sulphite, and Paper Mill Workers	33, 000
United Garment Workers of America.....	32, 000
United Shoe Workers of America.....	30, 000
American Federation of Teachers.....	30, 000
United Packinghouse Workers of America.....	27, 000
Tobacco Workers International Union.....	26, 000
United Steelworkers of America.....	(²)
Office Employees' International Union.....	(²)
Unaffiliated:	
Alliance Independent Telephone Unions.....	60, 000
United Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers of America.....	25, 000

¹ Expelled by AFL-CIO Convention, December 1957.

² Number of women members not available but believed to be significant.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Directory of National and International Labor Unions in the U. S., 1957. Bulletin No. 1222.

their representation was less than 20 percent. Not included in the latter figure are 51 unions with no women members. Most of these unions cover occupations not likely to employ women, such as bricklayers, fire fighters, locomotive engineers, and plasterers.

Union contracts frequently provide maternity benefits not only for women employees but also for dependent wives. A Bureau of Labor Statistics survey¹⁷ in late 1955 revealed that of 300 health and insurance plans established by collective bargaining, 272 plans (covering 4.8 million employees) contained maternity provisions for women workers and 263 plans covered wives of workers. The majority of plans provided a combination of hospital and surgical benefits to workers and dependents in maternity cases plus sickness benefits to workers during maternity leave.

The major labor federation in the United States, the American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations, has formed a separate union auxiliary for women in the families of men who are members of one of its affiliate unions. The purpose of the auxiliary is described in part III, which lists national organizations of interest to women.

37. Women Receiving Vocational Rehabilitation

From 20,000 to 25,000 handicapped women yearly are being helped to become useful workers through the State-Federal program of vocational rehabilitation. The almost 25,000 women aided during the year ending June 30, 1957 equaled about 35 percent of all persons served by the program, according to a report prepared by the Women's Bureau in cooperation with the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation.¹⁸

A major purpose of these programs is to help disabled people build up and use their remaining abilities so that they can make a living. Besides counseling, training, and job placement based on individual requirements, the programs include medical or physical treatment and furnish such equipment as hearing aids and braces when needed by the individual.

Of the 23,000 women rehabilitated through the State-Federal program in 1956, 70 percent became gainfully employed and the remainder stayed at home to care for their families or do unpaid family work. Over one-fourth of the handicapped women who became wage earners were clerical workers, and about one-sixth were in each of the following

¹⁷ Analysis of Health and Insurance Plans under Collective Bargaining, Late 1955. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Bulletin No. 1221.

¹⁸ Help for Handicapped Women. Women's Bureau Pamphlet 5. U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, in cooperation with U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Vocational Rehabilitation. 1958.

fields: Private-household service; other services; and crafts or skilled and semiskilled manual work. Nearly one-tenth were professional or semiprofessional workers. Most of the others were salespersons, proprietors of vending stands, or unskilled workers on farms or in industrial production.

2

WOMEN'S INCOME AND EARNINGS

Women's income and earnings, both strongly influenced by the extent of their employment and the kinds of jobs they have, are two measures of women's economic status. Total income data, as reported by the United States Department of Commerce's Bureau of the Census, include not only salaries and earnings from self-employment but also income from such sources as pensions, insurance policies, interest, dividends, rentals, old-age and survivors insurance benefits, and aid to dependent children or other forms of public assistance.

38. Factors Affecting Earnings

Payroll earnings, usually the largest income item reported by women, refer to compensation received in such forms as wages, salaries, piece-rate payments, and cash bonuses—all computed prior to deductions for taxes, insurance, bonds, pensions, union dues, or other items. Such earnings vary widely among individuals as a result of many factors—for example, the skill requirements of an occupation, industry of employment, location of plant or office, size of company, and extent of unionization. Of course, general economic conditions in any period of time have a major effect on the wage and salary levels of all workers.

Women generally receive lower full-time earnings than men—mainly because of differences in the types of jobs they hold and in their education and training. Many women are concentrated in traditionally low-paying occupations and relatively low-wage industries. Many also obtain jobs which do not require a great deal of skill or training. In instances where men and women have somewhat similar jobs, women are usually in the lower pay brackets. Since many women leave the labor force for marriage and family reasons and return when their responsibilities decrease, they often lack the job seniority and work experience needed to qualify them for advancement.

Women sometimes are paid at lower rates than men even though they do the same kind of work. Efforts to achieve equal pay for women workers are being made through legislation, through collective bargaining between labor unions and employers, and through public education. (*See* chapter 5 on equal-pay legislation.) To the degree that women's concentration in lower pay brackets stems from their limited amount of training, their pay will be improved as more women obtain professional and technical skills or training for various crafts.

Recently published data on women's total income and payroll earnings are reported in the following sections, along with information available on social-security payments, civil-service and railroad pensions, and investment holdings.

Income of Women and Families

39. Individual Income in 1957

Women who received income of their own in 1957 had an average (median) income of \$1,199, according to advance estimates of the Bureau of the Census. This was almost 5 percent over their median income of \$1,146 in 1956 and meant a larger percentage gain for women than for men. Median income of men in 1957 was \$3,684—about 2 percent above their 1956 figure of \$3,608. Since World War II, women's income has usually increased less than men's despite the fact that wage rates have risen markedly for both women and men.

Several reasons account for the differences in men's and women's income. Of primary importance is the large number of women who are part-time workers and the growing numbers of women who work intermittently at part-year jobs. These women receive only part-year earnings, in contrast to most men, who receive full-year earnings. Among year-round, full-time workers in 1957, women's wage and salary earnings (\$3,000) were almost two-thirds as much as men's (\$4,700), instead of less than one-third, as in the case of the total income of all women receiving income. Other reasons for differences in men's and women's income and earnings were discussed under factors affecting earnings (sec. 38).

40. Income by Age and Occupation, 1956

Detailed information on income of individuals and families is available for 1956 (table 1). During that year, about 52 percent of the women (14 years of age and over) in the population and about 92 percent of the men received some income of their own. Among women, the age group with the largest proportion (71 percent) of income recipients was that of 65 years and over. This high proportion, which increased sharply during the past decade, reflects the large number of beneficiaries of social-security payments and private or public pension funds. In the large combined group of women 25 to 64 years of age, the percentages of those receiving some income ranged between 46 and 52 percent. Of the girls 14 to 19 years of age, many of whom are students, only 41 percent received some income during the year.

In amount, the median income of women rises quickly in the early

years of maturity (from \$413 for girls 14 to 19 years to \$1,567 for women 20 to 24 years). It increases only slightly for women between 25 and 54 years of age (peak of \$1,750 for women 45 to 54 years), and then drops sharply thereafter (\$738 for women 65 years and over). Women's income varied from one age group to another much less than did men's income—partially because of women's relatively less continuous employment in the labor market.

Table 1.—INCOME OF WOMEN AND MEN, 1956

Item	Total money income		Wage and salary income	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	TOTAL INCOME RECIPIENTS			
Number (in thousands).....	31, 823	52, 016	23, 517	40, 900
Percent of population	52	92	38	72
Median income.....	\$1, 146	\$3, 608	\$1, 405	\$3, 811
<i>Range of income</i>	<i>Percent distribution</i>			
	100	100	100	100
Under \$1,000.....	47	17	42	16
\$1,000-\$1,999.....	19	12	19	9
\$2,000-\$2,999.....	16	12	19	12
\$3,000-\$3,999.....	11	15	13	17
\$4,000-\$4,999.....	4	16	5	18
\$5,000 and over.....	3	28	2	29
	YEAR-ROUND FULL-TIME WORKERS			
Percent of total income recipients.....	29	62	38	67
Median income.....	\$2, 828	\$4, 462	\$2, 827	\$4, 466

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 27.

With wage and salary income strongly affected by the skills, knowledge, and abilities required in an occupation, women who were year-round full-time workers received their highest median income as professional workers (\$3,650) and as managers, officials, and proprietors (\$3,525) (table 2). In both of these groups and also for operatives, women's earnings increased percentagewise slightly more than men's between 1939 and 1956 and approximated three-fifths of men's earnings in 1956. For the large group of women clerical workers, median earnings (\$3,145) were almost three-fourths as much as men's—the highest proportion reached by women when compared with men in the same occupational group. Women service workers, the third largest occupational group, earned slightly over half as much as men. Women sales workers earned about two-fifths as much as men—the lowest proportion in the 1956 occupational comparison.

Table 2.—WAGE OR SALARY INCOME FOR SELECTED OCCUPATIONS: 1956 AND 1939

Occupational group	Year-round full-time workers			
	Women		Men	
	1956	1939	1956	1939
Professional workers.....	\$3, 650	\$1, 277	\$5, 847	\$2, 100
Managers, officials, proprietors.....	3, 525	1, 218	5, 967	2, 254
Clerical workers.....	3, 145	1, 072	4, 388	1, 564
Operatives.....	2, 632	742	4, 235	1, 268
Sales workers.....	2, 090	745	5, 005	1, 451
Service workers (except household).....	1, 950	607	3, 521	1, 019
Private-household workers.....	879	339	-----	549

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 27.

41. Income and Education

Education is an important determinant of average income for both men and women. Among women who received some money income in 1956, the college graduates had a median income of \$3,050—1½ times that of high-school graduates (with no college training) and 3 times that of elementary-school graduates (with no high-school training). Although the differences were not so great among women who were year-round full-time workers, median income of these women also increased with schooling. Women college graduates who were year-round full-time workers received median income of \$3,809 in 1956 (table 3). In a comparison among year-round full-time men and

Table 3.—INCOME AND EDUCATION, 1956

Years of school completed	Median income			
	Total income recipients		Year-round full-time workers	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total.....	\$1, 146	\$3, 608	\$2, 828	\$4, 462
College:				
4 years or more.....	\$3, 050	\$6, 038	\$3, 809	\$6, 980
Less than 4 years.....	1, 734	4, 458	3, 440	5, 457
High school:				
4 years.....	1, 898	4, 413	3, 021	4, 887
Less than 4 years.....	941	3, 577	2, 583	4, 514
Elementary school:				
8 years.....	957	3, 229	2, 408	4, 035
Less than 8 years.....	724	2, 012	1, 811	3, 120

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 27.

women workers with similar amounts of schooling, women's median income was approximately three-fifths of men's income—regardless of educational level.

The median earnings of nonwhite women workers (\$970) in 1956 were somewhat less than half those of white women workers. However, income of nonwhite women increased almost fourfold between 1939 and 1956, while that of white women increased about threefold (table 4). The fact that over half of nonwhite women workers have service jobs and that many work part time is partial explanation of their low median earnings. Among the nonwhite women who were year-round full-time workers, median wage and salary income was \$1,637 during 1956—somewhat over half that of white women.

Table 4.—WAGE OR SALARY INCOME OF WHITE AND NONWHITE WOMEN AND MEN: 1956 AND 1939

<i>Group and year</i>	<i>All workers</i>	
	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
White:		
1956-----	\$2, 179	\$4, 260
1939-----	676	1, 112
Nonwhite:		
1956-----	970	2, 396
1939-----	246	460

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 27.

42. Median Income of Families

The more than 43 million families in the Nation in 1957 had a median income of \$4,971. About one-seventh received less than \$2,000 and almost one-fourth, \$7,000 or more. Income of families, like income of individual persons, has continued to increase since 1945, rising almost 90 percent from a median of \$2,621. In 1956, the latest year for which detailed information on family income is available, the median was \$4,783 (table 5).

One factor responsible for the higher family income has been the increase in the number of family wage earners. In 1956, fully 10 percent of the families had 3 or more earners and 35 percent, 2 earners. About 49 percent of all families had 1 earner and only 6 percent, no earners. In about three-fifths of all families, the only income consisted of the earnings of members. For the great majority of these, income was in the form of wages and salaries; for only a small proportion, it was earnings from self-employment.

Table 5.—FAMILY INCOME, 1956

Type of family	Families		Median income	
	Number	Percent	Total families	Head year-round full-time worker
All families.....	43, 445, 000	100	\$4, 783	\$5, 515
Male head.....	39, 079, 000	90	4, 965	5, 564
Married.....	37, 849, 000	87	4, 973	5, 561
Wife in the labor force..	10, 266, 000	24	5, 957	6, 575
Wife not in labor force..	27, 583, 000	63	4, 645	5, 244
Other marital status....	1, 230, 000	3	4, 167	5, 359
Female head.....	4, 366, 000	10	2, 754	4, 320

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 27.

43. Husband-Wife Families

For the almost 38 million husband-wife families, the median income was \$4,973 in 1956. In the 10 million families in which both the husband and wife worked, median income was \$5,957. This was considerably above the \$4,645 median income of families in which the wife did not work. Thirty-six percent of the families with working wives had incomes of \$7,000 or more, compared with 21 percent of those with nonworking wives. An undetermined, though small, percentage of husband-wife families had some income from the earnings of other members. In a very small percentage of families, the husband was not in the labor force.

44. Families Headed by a Woman

One-tenth of all families in 1956 had women as family heads and received median income of \$2,754. This was relatively low in comparison with other family groups—equaling about 55 percent of the income in all families with a male as head and about 60 percent of the income in husband-wife families where the wife was not in the labor force. About 10 percent of the families with women as heads had incomes of \$7,000 or more. The more detailed data from the decennial census (1950) indicate that families headed by women depend to a larger extent than husband-wife families on income from other family members.

Earnings of Women Workers

Of the 31.8 million women in the population who were income recipients in 1956, 23.5 million reported wage and salary income. Al-

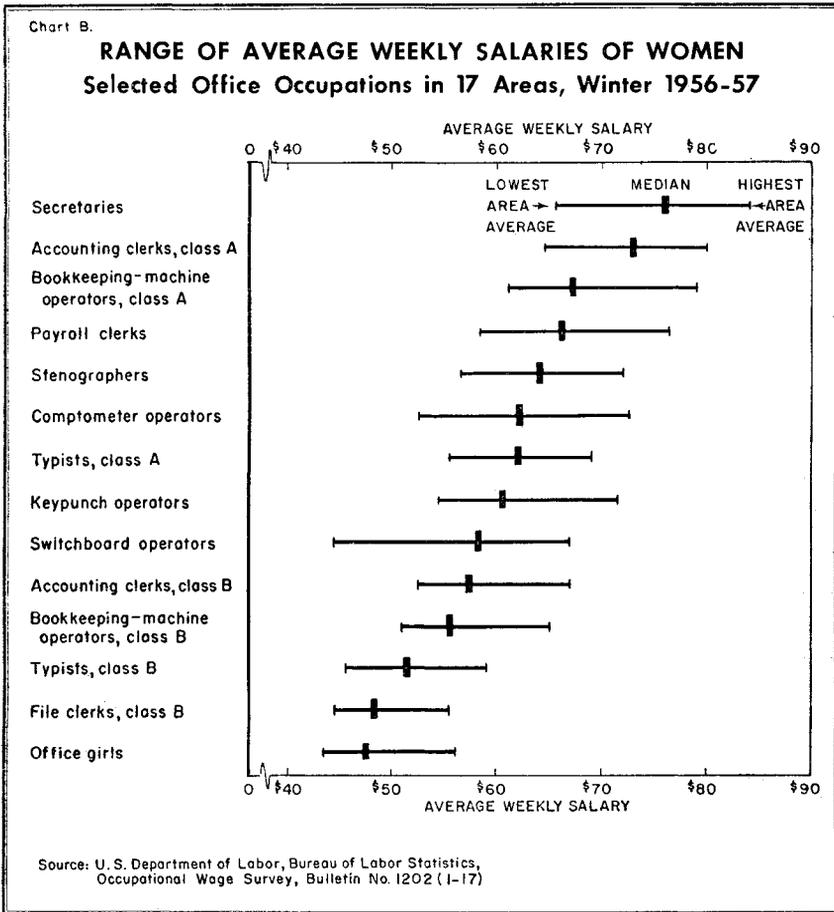
most two-fifths (about 9 million) of the latter group of women were year-round full-time workers in 1956 and earned an average (median) income of \$2,827 during the year. In 1957, year-round full-time women workers had a median income of \$3,000, according to an advance report of the Bureau of the Census. Because of the wide variation in individual earnings, the most useful information on earnings relates to particular industries and occupations at a given period of time and in a particular locality. The following pages describe the earnings data available for selected groups of women. Most of the information was collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and some, as noted, by other Government agencies or private groups.

45. Office Workers' Salaries

For the more than 6 million women engaged in clerical work, the primary source of salary information is the Bureau of Labor Statistics' community wage surveys conducted regularly in a number of important centers of business and industry. Like other Bureau of Labor Statistics reports on wages, these areawide surveys show straight-time earnings for a regular workweek, excluding any premium pay that may be paid for overtime or nightwork. In addition to the average (mean) earnings summarized here for major office occupations, the full reports show the numbers of workers receiving specified salaries.

Wage surveys in 17 large metropolitan areas during late 1956 and early 1957 included office jobs employing about 1.5 million women. The largest numbers of women were classified as secretaries, general stenographers, and routine copy typists (class B). Other major office jobs covered in the survey are given in chart B, which shows the range of salaries averaged by occupational groups in each of the 17 survey areas and the median (middle) average.

Secretaries received the highest salaries among the women clerical workers surveyed in 1956-57. With their average earnings ranging from \$65.50 a week in Memphis to \$84 a week in Los Angeles-Long Beach, secretaries had a median area average of \$76 a week. General stenographers earned from \$10 to \$12 a week less than secretaries in a majority of the areas surveyed; their average weekly salaries ranged from \$56.50 in Memphis to \$72 in Los Angeles-Long Beach. Copy typists were among the lowest paid clerical workers studied, with weekly salaries averaging from \$45.50 to \$59 in the same two cities.



Greatest ranges in average weekly salaries among the areas were found in the higher paying jobs, such as secretaries, class A bookkeeping-machine operators (\$61 to \$79), payroll clerks (\$58.50 to \$76.50), comptometer operators (\$52.50 to \$72.50), and switchboard operators (\$44.50 to \$67). These are the occupations in which a worker presumably has the greatest opportunity to improve her level of skill. Relatively narrow pay ranges prevailed in the two lowest paying jobs: class B file clerks (\$44.50 to \$55.50), and office girls (\$43.50 to \$56).

These earnings were received in most instances for 40 hours of work per week. In offices having a shorter work schedule, it was typically 37.5 hours a week.

Salary levels of women office workers rose 5 percent on the average from winter 1955-56 to winter 1956-57. (Preliminary figures col-

lected in some of the same areas in winter 1957-58 indicate that office salaries rose about 3 to 6 percent in the following year.) The 4-year increase from 1953 to 1957 averaged 20 percent for office workers, ranging from 15 percent in Buffalo to 24 percent in Kansas City. These increases were generally smaller than those recorded for men employed in skilled maintenance trades and unskilled plant jobs in the same metropolitan areas.

46. Earnings of Telephone Workers

Of approximately 420,000 women employed in the telephone industry, more than half are telephone operators (including trainees, assistants, instructors, and chiefs), according to a Bureau of Labor Statistics report for October 1956. The major occupations in which women predominate as employees of class A telephone carriers are listed in table 6.

Table 6.—HOURLY EARNINGS OF TELEPHONE WORKERS, OCTOBER 1956
(Employed by class A telephone carriers)¹

Selected occupations	Employees		Women as percent of total	Aver- age hourly earn- ings of men and women	Percent of men and women receiving—	
	Total	Women			Under \$1.30	\$1.90 and over
Experienced switchboard operators.....	158, 939	158, 916	² 100. 0	\$1. 55	19	15
Nonsupervisory clerical workers.....	132, 948	123, 142	92. 6	1. 66	17	23
Nonsupervisory business-office and sales employees.....	34, 875	25, 642	73. 5	2. 00	6	41
Service assistants and instructors (operators).....	20, 751	20, 750	² 100. 0	1. 89	1	46
Chief operators.....	14, 314	14, 301	99. 9	2. 43	1	83

¹ Covers telephone carriers with annual operating revenue exceeding \$250,000.

² Less than 0.05 percent were men.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics in cooperation with the Federal Communications Commission. Earnings of Communication Workers, October 1956. BLS Report No. 121.

The 159,000 women employed as experienced switchboard operators were the largest single group of telephone workers and received the lowest average earnings—\$1.55 an hour (table 7). For their average scheduled workweek of 36.9 hours, experienced switchboard operators earned \$57.20 a week—or almost \$3,000 if they worked a full year.

Telephone jobs in which women predominated and in which earnings (of both men and women combined) exceeded those of switchboard operators included those of the chief operators and nonsupervisory business-office and sales employees, as well as the large group of nonsupervisory clerical workers.

Relatively high earnings (\$1.70 an hour) were also received by the experienced operators (5,423 women and 947 men) employed by the wire-telegraph industry.

Table 7.—AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS OF EXPERIENCED SWITCHBOARD OPERATORS, BY REGION, OCTOBER 1956

(Employed by class A telephone carriers)¹

<i>Region</i>	<i>Number of workers</i> ²	<i>Average hourly earnings</i>
United States.....	³ 158, 939	\$1. 55
New England.....	14, 984	\$1. 59
Middle Atlantic.....	34, 480	1. 67
Great Lakes.....	28, 537	1. 63
Chesapeake.....	8, 541	1. 49
Southeast.....	18, 236	1. 31
North Central.....	6, 020	1. 43
South Central.....	18, 650	1. 43
Mountain.....	6, 100	1. 43
Pacific.....	16, 967	1. 68

¹ Covers telephone carriers with annual operating revenue exceeding \$250,000.

² Women comprised over 99 percent of the total number of experienced switchboard operators.

³ Includes a few employees not listed separately.

Note: The regions for which separate data are presented include: *New England*—Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont; *Middle Atlantic*—Delaware, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania; *Great Lakes*—Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin; *Chesapeake*—District of Columbia, Maryland, Virginia, and West Virginia; *Southeast*—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee; *North Central*—Iowa, Minnesota, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota; *South Central*—Arkansas, Kansas, Missouri, Oklahoma, and Texas (except El Paso County); *Mountain*—Arizona, Colorado, Idaho (south of Salmon River), Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Texas (El Paso County), Utah, and Wyoming; *Pacific*—California, Idaho (north of Salmon River), Oregon, and Washington.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics in cooperation with the Federal Communications Commission. Earnings of Communications Workers, October 1956. BLS Report No. 121.

47. Average Factory Earnings

Women factory workers, who numbered over 4 million at the beginning of 1958, were employed in numerous types of industries and a great variety of occupations. Their wide range of earnings reflected not only the many industries in which they were employed and their

varying job skills but also differences in methods of wage payment and local wage standards and customs. Some of the more skilled and experienced women workers earned more than twice as much as other women employed in the same establishment or industry. All the figures on average earnings, therefore, must be understood to include many who earned less than the average amount, and many who earned more.

The most comprehensive survey on wages of women factory workers was made in April 1954 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Straight-time earnings for over 3 million women production workers employed in manufacturing industries were \$1.28 an hour, which would amount to \$51.20 for a 40-hour workweek. For men, the average wage rate was \$1.80 an hour—or \$72.00 for a 40-hour workweek. Production workers, as defined in this and most Bureau of Labor Statistics reports, refer to working foremen and nonsupervisory plant workers, including those engaged in maintenance, storage, shipping, janitorial, and watchman services.

The monthly reports published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics on average hourly and weekly earnings of factory workers by industry do not show separate information for women.

48. Earnings in Particular Manufacturing Industries

A subsequent study of wages in 5 major industries employing about 13¼ million women production workers was made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in April 1956. Average hourly earnings reported in these industries are shown in table 8.

Table 8.—HOURLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN AND MEN IN FIVE MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES, APRIL 1956

Industry	Number of workers (in thousands)		Average hourly earnings		Percent women receiving—	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Under \$1.05	\$1.50 and over
Food and kindred products	260	763	\$1.35	\$1.77	27	34
Apparel and related products	855	214	1.33	1.91	30	25
Furniture and fixtures	48	267	1.33	1.63	23	30
Leather and leather products	167	165	1.26	1.67	32	20
Textile-mill products	433	538	1.24	1.44	18	12

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Factory Workers' Earnings in 5 Industry Groups: April 1956. BLS Report No. 118.

In addition to this information on women's earnings, more detailed data are available for four industries recently surveyed on a nationwide basis (table 9), as well as two industries surveyed partially. Area-centered surveys rather than industrywide surveys are frequently conducted for wage purposes in industries which are highly concentrated in a few areas of the country.

Men's shirt and nightwear industry.—The largest of the four industries surveyed fully, the men's shirt and nightwear industry, employed about 87,000 women, who constituted more than nine-tenths of the work force and earned an average of \$1.20 an hour in October 1956. The majority of the women workers in this industry were sewing-machine operators and, paid on a piece-rate basis, earned from \$1 to over \$2.50 an hour. Average earnings of the women operators were \$1.21 an hour.

Table 9.—WOMEN'S EARNINGS IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS,
1955, 1956, AND 1957

Industry or occupation	Women workers		Percent women receiving—	
	Number	Average hourly earnings	Under \$1.05	\$1.50 and over
Men's seamless hosiery (April 1957)	20, 639	\$1. 16	37	7
Examiners, grey (inspectors, hosiery)	1, 219	1. 09	59	-----
Knitters, automatic	2, 197	1. 16	33	4
Loopers, toe	4, 933	1. 20	27	9
Men's and boys' shirts (except work shirts) and nightwear (Oct. 1956)	87, 136	1. 20	(¹)	(¹)
Pressers, finish, hand	7, 814	1. 26	33	18
Sewing-machine operators	53, 242	1. 21	39	13
Work distributors	1, 152	1. 14	33	4
Textile dyeing and finishing (April 1956)	10, 736	1. 30	6	16
Winders, yarn	2, 134	1. 27	(¹)	(¹)
Industrial chemicals (August 1955)	3, 893	1. 61	(¹)	(¹)
Janitors	249	1. 66	(¹)	(¹)
Laboratory assistants	965	1. 87	(¹)	(¹)

¹ Data not available.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Reports No. 103, 110, 116, and 129.

Men's seamless-hosiery industry.—Women were also predominant in the men's seamless-hosiery industry. Working primarily in small towns (less than 25,000 population) in the Southeast, they averaged \$1.16 an hour in April 1957. Men averaged \$1.40 an hour, as most

of them were assigned to the relatively more skilled jobs of knitting-machine adjuster or fixer. Among women workers in the industry, over half the hosiery inspectors and over one-fourth of the toe loopers and automatic knitters were receiving \$1 to \$1.05 an hour—minimum or near-minimum earnings. Piece-rate methods of pay brought higher earnings to some of the others. Women employed as string knitters averaged the highest earnings (\$1.22).

Textile dyeing and finishing.—In another branch of the textile industry, textile dyeing and finishing, women constituted about 17 percent of the work force and averaged \$1.30 an hour in April 1956. Highest earnings were reported for women inspecting cloth by machine (\$1.36). The large group of women yarn winders received lower earnings (\$1.27). Men employed in this industry averaged \$1.54 an hour.

Industrial chemical industry.—Women employed in industrial chemical plants received relatively high wages in comparison with other women factory workers. However, they performed less skilled work than men and had considerably lower average earnings. In August 1955, women averaged \$1.61 an hour and men, \$2.08 an hour. In this industry, women equaled less than 3 percent of the work force.

Children's seamless hosiery.—As most mills manufacturing children's seamless hosiery are concentrated in the Southeast, wage data for this industry were collected only in this one region in April 1957. Almost 80 percent of the employees in these mills were women. Women's average earnings of \$1.13 an hour were 1 cent above their April 1956 average. Men averaged \$1.29 an hour—4 cents more than the previous year. Fully two-fifths of the women were receiving \$1.00 to \$1.05 an hour at the time of the 1957 survey and another fifth, from \$1.06 to \$1.15 an hour.

Women's and misses' coats and suits.—Wage data collected in February 1957 from plants manufacturing women's and misses' coats and suits in 10 metropolitan areas covered fully three-fourths of the industry's employees. Women coat-and-suit workers were found to receive the highest average hourly earnings in New York City (\$2.22) and the lowest, in Baltimore (\$1.57) (table 10). In addition to the different market influences found in these areas, the wage variations reflect, to some extent, differences in manufacturing processes: The tailor system of sewing, which is popular in New York City, requires a more highly trained sewing-machine operator than is needed on the section system of sewing prevailing in Baltimore.

Women had lower average earnings than men in all the 10 coat-and-suit centers surveyed. Differences were smallest in Kansas City (women—\$1.62; men—\$1.97) and greatest in Los Angeles-Long Beach (women—\$1.85; men—\$3.19). Women's lower average earn-

ings reflected the concentration of women in the lower paid jobs of hand finisher, section-system operator, and thread trimmer, whereas most men were employed in the jobs of cutter, marker, presser, or tailor.

Table 10.—EARNINGS OF WOMEN IN WOMEN'S AND MISSES' COAT-AND-SUIT-MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY IN 10 MAJOR AREAS, FEBRUARY 1957

Area	Number of women production workers	Average hourly earnings ¹		Percent of women receiving—	
		Women	Men	Less than \$1.20	\$2.50 or more
Baltimore.....	603	\$1. 57	\$2. 08	18	6
Boston.....	193	1. 74	2. 70	15	4
Chicago.....	805	2. 00	3. 13	13	23
Kansas City.....	1, 444	1. 62	1. 97	24	6
Los Angeles-Long Beach.....	2, 352	1. 85	3. 19	11	16
Newark-Jersey City.....	5, 477	1. 87	2. 57	12	15
New York City.....	10, 206	2. 22	2. 95	4	29
Patterson.....	4, 246	1. 80	2. 52	13	10
Philadelphia.....	469	1. 77	2. 82	16	13
San Francisco-Oakland.....	851	1. 69	2. 65	11	9

¹ Excludes premium pay for overtime and for work on weekends, holidays, and late shifts.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Report No. 122.

49. Effects of \$1 Minimum on Women's Earnings

Wage studies made in several low-wage industries to determine the effects of a higher legal minimum wage provide additional information on women's earnings. The minimum wage was raised from 75 cents to \$1 an hour in establishments covered by the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 and its amendments. The new rate, effective March 1, 1956, raised the wages of significant numbers of women.

The most pronounced wage gains made by women workers as a result of the \$1 minimum requirement, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics surveys, occurred in seasonal industries, which often hire temporary workers to perform unskilled jobs. During the 1955 fall season (prior to the new legal minimum), women cannery workers were paid an average hourly rate of 76 cents in both Georgia and Texas; a year later, they averaged 98 cents in Georgia and 99 cents in Texas. (Not all the workers surveyed were covered by the minimum-wage requirements of the Act.) Between fall 1955 and fall 1956, average earnings of women employees in North Carolina tobacco stemming-and-redrying plants increased from 84 cents to

\$1.03 an hour. Sharp increases were also recorded in two segments of the garment industry: In plants making men's shirts and night-wear, women's average earnings rose from \$1.07 an hour in February 1956 to \$1.19 an hour in April 1956; in men's seamless hosiery mills, from \$1.04 to \$1.14. Other industries in which wages were studied for minimum-wage purposes are listed in table 11.

Table 11.—AVERAGE EARNINGS OF WOMEN IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES, BEFORE AND AFTER THE EFFECTIVE DATE (MARCH 1, 1956) OF THE \$1 MINIMUM WAGE

<i>Industry and area</i>	<i>Before \$1 minimum¹</i>		<i>After \$1 minimum¹</i>	
	<i>Number of women</i>	<i>Average hourly earnings</i>	<i>Number of women</i>	<i>Average hourly earnings</i>
Men's and boys' shirts (except work shirts) and nightwear—United States.....	85, 859	\$1.07	83, 820	\$1.19
Men's seamless hosiery—United States.....	22, 897	1.04	20, 233	1.14
Footwear—South.....	-----	1.08	15, 296	1.16
Wooden containers—South.....	-----	.85	4, 729	1.05
Processed waste—South.....	-----	.84	826	1.05
Children's seamless hosiery—Southeast.....	14, 202	1.01	12, 099	1.12
Work shirts—Southeast.....	4, 172	.91	4, 077	1.11
Cigars:				
Southeast.....	8, 333	1.10	7, 806	1.16
York County, Pa.....	1, 593	1.08	1, 576	1.12
Canning and freezing:				
Florida.....	5, 404	1.10	5, 471	1.17
Texas.....	2, 091	.76	1, 950	.99
Georgia.....	2, 783	.76	1, 544	.98
Raw cane-sugar manufacturing—Louisiana.....	314	.89	282	1.07
Tobacco stemming and redrying:				
Kentucky.....	2, 039	.93	1, 870	1.07
Virginia.....	4, 059	.92	4, 179	1.06
North Carolina.....	14, 809	.84	14, 798	1.03

¹ Survey date "before \$1 minimum" was February 1956, and "after \$1 minimum" was April 1956 for all industries listed except canning, tobacco stemming, and sugar manufacturing, which were surveyed during the closest peak-employment seasons.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Studies of the Effects of the \$1 Minimum Wage.

50. Wages of Women in Small Towns

Wages in 10 comparatively small communities were studied by the Bureau of Labor Statistics as part of its analysis of the economic effects of the \$1 minimum wage. The earnings data secured for women workers are particularly interesting as indicative of the level

of women's wages in small towns, where relatively little wage information is collected. Wages for comparable work are frequently found to be lower in small communities than in large communities within the same region of the country. Sometimes, the types of industries and activities located in a community appear to have a strong influence on the wage level. In many of the 10 small towns surveyed, over half the workers were employed in nonmanufacturing industries, principally retail trade and services, and others in lower paying manufacturing industries such as textiles, food products, and furniture.

During 1956 and 1957, women's average earnings in the 10 communities ranged from 94 cents an hour in Meridian, Miss., to \$1.39 an hour in Millville, N. J. Of the three groups of women workers for whom separate earnings data were reported, the highest paid in each of the communities were the office workers. Their average earnings ranged from \$1.15 an hour in Dothan, Ala., and Spartanburg, S. C., to \$1.37 an hour in Millville, N. J. On the basis of a 40-hour week, office workers' salaries in Millville averaged \$54.80—an amount lower than the median area earnings for 11 of the 14 occupations listed on chart B for 17 large metropolitan areas.

Table 12.—WOMEN'S AVERAGE EARNINGS IN 10 SMALL COMMUNITIES, 1956 AND 1957

Town	Total women ¹ (nonsupervisory)		Average hourly earnings of women		
	Num- ber	Aver- age hourly earn- ings	Office work- ers	Sales work- ers	Cus- todial work- ers
April 1957:					
Athens, Ga.....	3, 054	\$1. 09	\$1. 28	\$0. 99	\$0. 55
Dalton, Ga.....	3, 983	1. 17	1. 34	. 77	. 66
Dothan, Ala.....	1, 833	1. 03	1. 15	1. 10	. 46
Fort Smith, Ark.....	4, 106	1. 05	1. 20	. 79	. 51
Hickory, N. C.....	5, 990	1. 10	1. 24	. 80	-----
Meridian, Miss.....	2, 545	. 94	1. 17	1. 01	. 57
Sunbury-Shamokin-Mt. Car- mel, Pa.....	7, 137	1. 17	1. 18	. 84	. 87
April 1956:					
Burlington, Vt.....	3, 009	1. 09	1. 32	. 86	. 99
Millville, N. J.....	1, 782	1. 39	1. 37	-----	1. 15
Spartanburg, S. C.....	10, 266	1. 07	1. 15	. 73	. 93

¹ Includes production and other nonsupervisory workers in addition to those shown separately.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Studies of the Effects of the \$1 Minimum Wage.

Earnings were reported for women sales workers and also for women custodial workers in 9 of the 10 towns surveyed. The average for the sales workers was 73 to 86 cents an hour in 6 of the towns and 99 cents to \$1.10 an hour in the other 3 towns. Lowest earnings were usually received by women custodial workers, who averaged from 46 to 66 cents an hour in 5 towns and from 87 cents to \$1.15 an hour in 4 towns (table 12).

51. Women's Earnings in Retail Trade

The 2,412,800 women employed in retail stores (except eating and drinking places) in October 1956 held 40 percent of the nonsupervisory jobs in the industry and received average earnings of \$1.11 an hour. The average for 3.6 million men was \$1.58 an hour. Since the industry is exempt from the Fair Labor Standards Act, the \$1 minimum does not apply to these workers. The survey disclosed that about 16 percent of the women earned less than 75 cents an hour, and 25 percent earned from 75 cents to \$1. Women equaled about 60 percent of the retail employees earning less than \$1 an hour.

About one-half of the nonsupervisory employees in retail stores are sales personnel, according to the 1950 census. Nonselling occupations with large numbers of women include those of clerical workers, seamstresses, cooks, waitresses, decorators, milliners, accountants, and pharmacists. These employees are usually paid hourly rates or salaries, as are salespersons in most variety stores and grocery stores. Most other salespeople receive straight commissions or some combination of base pay plus commission or bonus. The earnings data reported here include commission and/or bonus earnings and any special sales bonuses paid quarterly or more often.

Women had consistently lower average earnings than men in each of the major retail-trade groups surveyed (table 13). The greatest difference prevailed in department stores (women—\$1.15; men—\$1.74) and drugstores (women—95 cents; men—\$1.54)—both groups in which a majority of the employees are women. The women employed by motor-vehicle dealers received the highest average earnings (\$1.40) among all retail-store women but they constituted only one-tenth of the dealers' work force. In variety stores, where women were about nine-tenths of the work force, their earnings averaged 85 cents an hour—the lowest among retail workers.

On the basis of hours worked per week, average earnings were highest for women in retail stores who worked 40 hours (\$1.23 an hour) and 35 to 39 hours (\$1.22). These two groups equaled about two-fifths of all the women surveyed. Lowest hourly earnings (86 cents) were received by the very small group of women with the longest

Table 13.—HOURLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN AND MEN IN RETAIL STORES, OCTOBER 1956

Type of store	Number of employees (in thousands)		Average hourly earnings		Percent women receiving—	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Under 75 cents	\$1.50 and over
All retail stores ¹	2, 413	3, 620	\$1. 11	\$1. 58	16	14
Motor-vehicle dealers (franchised).....	59	509	1. 40	1. 76	3	36
Furniture, home-furnishings, and appliance stores.....	93	239	1. 24	1. 75	7	21
Building-materials and farm-equipment dealers.....	68	426	1. 19	1. 55	10	20
Food stores.....	465	920	1. 16	1. 59	13	19
Department stores.....	551	227	1. 15	1. 74	7	12
Apparel and accessories stores..	362	173	1. 15	1. 66	12	15
Gasoline service stations.....	16	374	1. 00	1. 22	27	9
Drugstores and proprietary stores.....	186	145	. 95	1. 54	29	9
Variety stores.....	274	31	. 85	1. 15	37	2

¹ Excludes eating and drinking places; includes miscellaneous retail stores not shown separately.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Report No. 119; and Bulletin 1220-Nos. 1 through 7.

weekly work schedules (49 hours or more), and next lowest earnings (89 cents) by those with the shortest workweek (less than 15 hours). The latter group represented almost one-tenth of the women workers. The extent of part-time work among women retail workers varied by type of retail establishment. There were relatively few part-time workers in furniture and home-furnishings stores and large numbers in variety stores. Earnings of men retail workers, about three-fourths of whom worked at least 40 hours a week, ranged from \$1.38 an hour (49 hours or more) to \$1.89 an hour (40 hours).

52. Earnings of Practical Nurses and Hospital Aides

A survey of salaries and employment conditions of selected hospital personnel was conducted in 16 large metropolitan areas between May 1956 and March 1957 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in cooperation with the Women's Bureau. The occupations for which wage information was obtained include those of practical nurses, nursing aides, and selected office, kitchen, laundry, housekeeping, and maintenance work-

ers, as well as professional nurses. Sections 54 and 55 in this chapter contain a discussion of the salaries received by registered nurses and other professional persons employed by hospitals.

Practical nurses and nursing aides typically made up over half the nursing team in the hospitals surveyed. Women practical nurses (who generally were from 75 to 90 percent of all the practical nurses studied) averaged between \$50 and \$60 a week in 9 of the 16 cities (table 14). Highest earnings were paid in San Francisco-Oakland and lowest in Atlanta, Dallas, Memphis, Philadelphia, and St. Louis. The majority of practical nurses were scheduled to work 40 hours a week. In over half the survey areas they earned about 70 to 80 percent as much as general-duty nurses.

Table 14.—AVERAGE EARNINGS OF WOMEN IN SELECTED NONPROFESSIONAL HOSPITAL OCCUPATIONS IN 16 AREAS, 1956-1957¹

Area	Date of survey	Average weekly earnings		Average hourly earnings	
		Nursing aides	Practical nurses	Kitchen helpers	Maids
Atlanta.....	9/56	\$29.00	\$43.00	\$0.52	\$0.50
Baltimore.....	6/56	38.00	47.00	.83	.77
Boston.....	8/56	44.50	51.50	1.00	1.01
Buffalo.....	6/56	42.50	54.00	.90	.84
Chicago.....	8/56	47.00	54.00	1.09	1.04
Cincinnati.....	9/56	42.00	52.50	.97	.98
Cleveland.....	11/56	40.50	51.50	.97	.95
Dallas.....	11/56	29.50	40.00	.57	.63
Los Angeles-Long Beach.....	1/57	52.50	59.50	1.23	1.25
Memphis.....	12/56	30.50	41.00	.58	.47
Minneapolis-St. Paul.....	4/57	53.00	56.50	1.33	1.37
New York City.....	2/57	40.00	57.50	1.18	1.05
Philadelphia.....	7/56	35.00	38.00	.80	.65
Portland (Oreg.).....	7/56	47.50	53.00	1.17	1.15
St. Louis.....	6/56	36.50	44.50	.79	.76
San Francisco-Oakland.....	11/56	59.00	63.00	1.41	1.39

¹ Includes both private and government hospitals.

Note: Weekly salaries are regular straight-time earnings and have been rounded to nearest 50 cents.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Earnings and Supplementary Benefits in Hospitals, Bulletin No. 1210, parts 1-16. See also Women's Bureau Pamphlet 6.

Women's representation was slightly lower among nursing aides than among practical nurses—equaling about 70 to 90 percent in most survey cities. Average straight-time earnings of women nursing aides

ranged between \$35 and \$50 a week in 10 of the 16 areas. The San Francisco-Oakland area paid the highest wages to this group of women; and Atlanta, Dallas, and Memphis, the lowest. The majority of nursing aides had a regular 40-hour workweek; most of the others worked 44 hours. Women nursing aides earned 55 to 70 percent as much as women general-duty nurses in 10 of the 16 cities.

Two other hospital occupations with fairly large numbers of women are those of hospital maids and kitchen helpers. Both require very little skill and are frequently two of the lowest paid hospital jobs. Average earnings of maids in the 16 survey cities in 1956-57 ranged from 47 cents an hour in Memphis to \$1.39 an hour in San Francisco-Oakland. On the basis of a 40-hour week (worked by a majority of hospital employees in Memphis and all in San Francisco-Oakland), their average weekly earnings range from \$18.80 to \$55.60. Women kitchen helpers usually earned slightly more than maids, averaging 52 cents an hour in Atlanta and \$1.41 an hour in San Francisco-Oakland.

53. Salaries of Schoolteachers

Of the approximately 2.6 million women employed in professional or technical occupations (April 1958), over two-fifths were schoolteachers. For the large group of teachers in urban areas, salary data are made available periodically. The frequency of these studies is fairly exceptional in professional work. For certain groups of professional nurses, some wage studies are conducted regularly. But for the remaining group of women who perform a wide variety of professional jobs, special studies are made only occasionally by some professional group for its own membership, or by a research organization, a college alumnae association, or a woman's organization.

The 1,198,000 women who were teaching (except in colleges and universities) in April 1958 represented about three-fourths of all noncollege teachers. In elementary schools about nine-tenths of the teachers were women and in secondary schools, about half. Although the teachers' salaries reported by the National Education Association do not usually show separate averages for men and women, the figures are considered representative of women's salaries because of the large number of women teachers. Moreover, salary differentials based on sex have been largely eliminated for teachers in the past few decades, 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.

Although differentials between elementary-, junior-high-, and senior-high-school teachers have existed in the past, most school dis-

tricts now have a single-salary schedule based on education and experience for all teachers in their area. Higher salaries are sometimes paid, however, to teachers of vocational education, physical education, and other special courses. Regular salary increases are given to most teachers for length of service and additional education.

Salaries of classroom teachers were estimated by the National Education Association—in the sixteenth of a series of annual estimates—to average \$4,520 during the school year 1957–58, with elementary-school teachers averaging \$4,325 and secondary-school teachers \$4,840. By comparison, average salaries of classroom teachers in 1956–57 were: Total—\$4,220, elementary schools—\$4,025, and secondary schools—\$4,560.¹

Detailed information on salaries paid to teachers in urban districts are collected biennially by the National Education Association. Median salaries for the school year 1956–57 (the latest available) are shown in table 15.

Teachers generally receive higher salaries in large cities than in small cities or towns, but requirements are usually higher in large cities. In 1956–57, salaries of \$5,000 a year or more were received by a majority of the teachers employed in urban school districts of 500,000 or more population, but by less than one-third of the teachers in districts of 2,500 to 9,999 population. Conversely, virtually none of the teachers in the larger districts earned less than \$3,500 a year, but from 11 to 28 percent did in the districts with 2,500 to 4,999 population. The greatest difference relating to size of school district existed for senior-high-school teachers; those in districts of 500,000 and over population averaged \$2,029 a year more than those in districts of 2,500 to 4,999.

For the school year 1957–58, the National Education Association surveyed minimum and maximum salaries of classroom teachers in urban school districts with at least 30,000 population. Average (median) salaries of beginning teachers with a bachelor's degree, by population of school district, were: \$4,000—districts of 500,000 and over population, \$3,800—districts of 100,000 to 499,999, and \$3,800—districts of 30,000 to 99,999. Similarly, the medians of the minimum salaries for teachers with a master's degree were \$4,200, \$4,000, and \$4,050, respectively, by size of district. Thus, the minimum salary for teachers with a master's degree was 5 to 7 percent higher than the minimum for those with a bachelor's degree.

In recognition of experience, the 1957–58 maximum salaries paid to teachers with a bachelor's degree were about 50 to 60 percent above

¹ Advance Estimates of Public Elementary and Secondary Schools for the School Years 1956–57, 1957–58. Issued November 1956 and November 1957, respectively. National Education Association.

Table 15.—ANNUAL SALARIES OF TEACHERS, BY TYPE OF URBAN SCHOOL DISTRICT, 1956-57

Population of school district and type of school	Number of teachers ¹	Median annual salary	Percent receiving—	
			Under \$3,500	\$5,000 and over
500,000 and over:				
Senior high schools.....	30, 883	\$6, 326	1	83
Junior high schools.....	13, 565	5, 565	2	68
Elementary schools.....	68, 180	5, 579	1	65
100,000-499,999:				
Senior high schools.....	35, 533	5, 028	8	51
Junior high schools.....	20, 889	4, 522	12	36
Elementary schools.....	80, 286	4, 442	15	32
30,000-99,999:				
Senior high schools.....	29, 963	5, 135	7	55
Junior high schools.....	20, 378	4, 783	9	42
Elementary schools.....	63, 331	4, 454	14	32
10,000-29,999:				
Senior high schools.....	31, 896	4, 866	9	45
Junior high schools.....	13, 634	4, 540	11	32
Elementary schools.....	² 63, 477	4, 317	16	24
5,000-9,999:				
Senior high schools.....	16, 755	4, 496	11	31
Junior high schools.....	3, 338	4, 282	12	20
Elementary schools.....	² 27, 472	4, 086	22	15
2,500-4,999:				
Senior high schools.....	6, 170	4, 297	11	22
Junior high schools.....	754	3, 875	24	8
Elementary schools.....	² 10, 288	3, 946	28	12

¹ Includes men and women.² Includes kindergarten teachers.

Source: National Education Association of the United States. Research Bulletin, Vol. 35, No. 2, April 1957.

minimum salaries. For those with a master's degree, the maximums exceeded the minimums by similar amounts. The medians of the maximum salaries which can be obtained by teachers with the highest level of preparation recognized in their district were \$6,950 in the largest school districts and \$6,400 in other school districts with at least 30,000 population.

College and university teachers, less than one-fourth of whom are women, received a median salary of \$6,015 for 9 months of full-time teaching during the school year 1957-58, according to a special study of the National Education Association. By teaching rank, median salaries were: Professors—\$8,072, associate professors—\$6,563, assistant professors—\$5,595, and instructors—\$4,562.

54. Salaries of Registered Nurses

The second largest group of professional women, registered nurses, was estimated to number about 430,000 in 1956. Over half of the registered nurses are employed by hospitals and related institutions. Approximately 17 percent are private-duty nurses, 8 percent—office nurses employed by physicians or dentists in private practice, 6 percent—public health nurses, and 4 percent—industrial nurses. Very small percentages of nurses are engaged in teaching or administrative work.

Hospital nurses assigned to general duty were generally paid from \$60 to \$80 a week by hospitals in the 16 areas surveyed in 1956-57 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in cooperation with the Women's Bureau. Average weekly salaries of women general-duty nurses ranged from \$58.50 in Philadelphia to \$75.50 in San Francisco-Oakland. (Average salaries in the other survey areas are shown in table 16 for general-duty nurses and other professional nursing personnel. Hospital nurses worked 40 hours a week in most of the areas surveyed. For work after 40 hours, they usually received either compensatory time off or straight-time pay. Government hospitals generally paid higher salaries than private hospitals in the same area.

Table 16.—AVERAGE WEEKLY SALARIES OF WOMEN IN SELECTED HOSPITAL NURSING OCCUPATIONS IN 16 AREAS, 1956-57 ¹

Area	Date of survey	Directors of nursing	General-duty nurses	Head nurses	Nursing instructors
Atlanta.....	9/56	\$109. 50	\$59. 50	\$69. 50	\$71. 00
Baltimore.....	6/56	102. 50	66. 00	69. 00	78. 50
Boston.....	8/56	100. 50	64. 50	70. 00	76. 50
Buffalo.....	6/56	112. 50	66. 00	75. 50	80. 00
Chicago.....	8/56	119. 00	73. 00	81. 00	88. 50
Cincinnati.....	9/56	113. 00	68. 00	74. 50	77. 00
Cleveland.....	11/56	121. 00	70. 00	80. 50	84. 50
Dallas.....	11/56	117. 00	68. 50	79. 00	78. 50
Los Angeles-Long Beach.....	1/57	116. 50	75. 00	87. 00	93. 00
Memphis.....	12/56	106. 00	69. 00	75. 00	80. 00
Minneapolis-St. Paul.....	3/57	124. 50	71. 50	83. 50	88. 00
New York City.....	2/57	117. 00	69. 50	77. 50	81. 00
Philadelphia.....	7/56	115. 00	58. 50	66. 00	75. 50
Portland (Oreg.).....	7/56	110. 00	70. 50	77. 50	-----
St. Louis.....	6/56	113. 00	66. 00	74. 00	74. 50
San Francisco-Oakland.....	11/56	121. 50	75. 50	85. 50	95. 50

¹ Combined figures for both private and Government hospitals.

Note: Salaries are regular straight-time earnings and have been rounded to nearest 50 cents.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Earnings and Supplementary Benefits in Hospitals. Bulletin No. 1210, parts 1-16. Also in Women's Bureau Pamphlet 6.

Of all hospital nurses, directors of nursing received the highest earnings, averaging 50 to 75 percent more than general-duty nurses in most of the survey areas. Supervisors of nursing and nursing instructors generally averaged about 20 to 30 percent more than general-duty nurses; and head nurses about 10 to 15 percent more.

Starting salaries of general-duty nurses in nonfederal hospitals have been surveyed annually since 1945 by the American Hospital Association. The latest study, made in 1956 (none in 1957), showed that general-duty nurses who worked full time averaged \$262 a month—or \$3,144 a year. These figures include not only cash salaries received but also estimated amounts for maintenance where such items as room, board, and laundry are provided. The monthly averages have increased by \$38 (17 percent) since 1951, and by \$107 (69 percent) since 1945, as shown in table 17.

Table 17.—AVERAGE STARTING SALARIES OF HOSPITAL NURSES, SELECTED YEARS

<i>Year</i>	<i>Average gross monthly starting salary</i>	<i>Average hours scheduled per week</i>
1956-----	\$262	41
1955-----	253	41
1953-----	242	42
1951-----	224	44
1949-----	213	45
1945-----	155	48

Source: American Hospital Association. Hospital Salary Survey, 1956.

As *private-duty nurses* are self-employed, their compensation is individually determined. In 1957, salary standards in most States called for a minimum fee of \$14 to \$16 for a basic 8-hour day, for the care of one patient only. For private-duty nurses who worked a full 50 weeks, this would mean annual earnings of \$3,500 to \$4,000. However, as private-duty nurses frequently lose time through delays in starting on new cases, their total earnings may be considerably lower than this. Data reported in the decennial census indicate that little more than half of all nurses work as much as 50 weeks in the year.

Public health nurses employed as supervisors and consultants by State health departments in August 1956 received median earnings of \$5,296 a year, according to the eighth study of this kind made by the United States Public Health Service. A salary range of \$4,859 to \$6,017 was reported for the middle 50 percent of the group of supervisory and consultant public health nurses.

Salaries of *industrial nurses* have been surveyed annually since 1953 in major metropolitan areas as part of the occupational wage-survey program of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. During late 1957 and early 1958, women industrial nurses received weekly salaries averaging from \$76.50 in Boston to \$90 in New York City (*see* table 18). This would mean a range of about \$4,000 to \$4,700 for a full year's work (52 weeks). In the period from 1953 to 1958, average salaries of industrial nurses increased about 23 to 33 percent; and during the year prior to the latest survey, 3 to 7 percent.

Table 18.—AVERAGE WEEKLY SALARIES OF INDUSTRIAL NURSES, WINTER 1957-58

<i>Area</i>	<i>Number of women</i>	<i>Average weekly salary</i>
Baltimore.....	166	\$85.00
Boston.....	273	76.50
Chicago.....	654	89.00
Dallas.....	71	81.00
Denver.....	35	81.00
Memphis.....	31	77.50
Minneapolis-St. Paul.....	128	82.00
New York.....	589	90.00
Philadelphia.....	280	82.00
St. Louis.....	228	80.50
San Francisco-Oakland.....	155	89.00
Seattle.....	95	89.00

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

55. Salaries of Other Professional Employees in Hospitals

Salaries of hospital personnel performing professional or technical work outside the nursing field were also studied in the 1956-57 hospital survey. Women were in the majority in all occupations of this group—constituting three-fifths of the X-ray technicians, about three-fourths of the medical technologists and physical therapists, and all or almost all of the medical social workers, dietitians, and medical-record librarians. In the 16 survey areas, women had the following range of average weekly salaries in these hospital jobs (listed in order of their numerical importance in the hospitals studied): medical technologists—\$57 to \$83.50, X-ray technicians—\$53.50 to \$76, dietitians—\$68.50 to \$84.50, medical social workers—\$68 to \$99, physical therapists—\$65 to \$85, and medical-record librarians—\$68 to \$86.50 (table 19).

The relationship of nurses' salaries to those of women employed by hospitals in other professional jobs was not consistent from area to area. In general, however, general-duty nurses tended to earn more than X-ray technicians and about the same as medical technologists. On the other hand, salaries of general-duty nurses were typically below those of medical social workers, medical-record librarians, physical therapists, and dietitians in most of the survey areas.

Table 19.—AVERAGE WEEKLY SALARIES OF WOMEN IN SELECTED NONNURSING HOSPITAL OCCUPATIONS IN 16 AREAS, 1956-57¹

<i>Area</i>	<i>Date of survey</i>	<i>Dietitians</i>	<i>Medical technologists</i>	<i>Physical therapists</i>	<i>X-ray technicians</i>
Atlanta.....	9/56	\$68. 50	\$67. 50	-----	\$53. 50
Baltimore.....	6/56	76. 50	69. 00	\$77. 00	57. 50
Boston.....	8/56	72. 00	60. 00	65. 00	58. 00
Buffalo.....	6/56	70. 00	68. 00	71. 50	64. 00
Chicago.....	8/56	84. 50	71. 00	78. 50	70. 00
Cincinnati.....	9/56	78. 50	71. 50	81. 50	64. 50
Cleveland.....	11/56	80. 50	67. 00	74. 50	63. 00
Dallas.....	11/56	73. 50	68. 50	76. 50	70. 50
Los Angeles—Long Beach..	1/57	78. 50	83. 50	82. 00	73. 50
Memphis.....	12/56	75. 00	69. 00	-----	55. 00
Minneapolis—St. Paul.....	3/57	82. 00	79. 00	85. 00	61. 50
New York City.....	2/57	74. 00	65. 00	73. 00	67. 00
Philadelphia.....	7/56	69. 50	57. 00	69. 00	56. 50
Portland (Oreg.).....	7/56	79. 00	70. 50	80. 00	73. 50
St. Louis.....	6/56	73. 50	66. 00	77. 50	66. 50
San Francisco—Oakland....	11/56	81. 00	80. 50	83. 50	76. 00

¹ Includes both private and Government hospitals.

Note: Salaries are regular straight-time earnings and have been rounded to nearest 50 cents.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Earnings and Supplementary Benefits in Hospitals. Bulletin No. 1210, parts 1-16. Also in Women's Bureau Pamphlet 6.

56. Starting Salaries of Recent College Graduates

Salaries and jobs of women who were graduated from coeducational and women's colleges in June 1956 were surveyed in the winter of 1956-57 by the Women's Bureau in cooperation with the National Vocational Guidance Association. Of the 87,000 women represented in the survey, 75 percent were employed full time and averaged \$3,446 a year. Highest salaries were received by women chemists (\$4,453) and women mathematicians and statisticians (\$4,382). Teachers, predominant occupational group among women graduates, averaged \$3,492 per year. Table 20 shows the principal occupations reported by

the June 1956 graduates, along with the estimated number of women graduates in each occupation and their average annual salary, by region.

The June 1956 graduates earned about 10 percent more than was reported a year earlier by the June 1955 graduates. In the winter of 1955-56, starting salaries of college women had averaged \$3,141 a year. At that time, the recent women graduates employed as chemists had averaged \$3,900; as mathematicians and statisticians, \$3,848; and as teachers, \$3,197.

Table 20.—STARTING SALARIES OF JUNE 1956 WOMEN GRADUATES, BY REGION

Occupation	Number of graduates	Average annual salary—				
		Total	North-east	North Central	South	West
Graduates represented.....	¹ 64, 841	\$3, 446	\$3, 482	\$3, 613	\$3, 073	\$3, 803
Chemists.....	397	4, 453	-----	-----	-----	-----
Mathematicians and statisticians.....	454	4, 382	-----	-----	-----	-----
Home economists.....	683	3, 803	-----	-----	-----	-----
Therapists.....	800	3, 733	3, 615	3, 784	-----	-----
Nurses.....	3, 191	3, 647	3, 718	3, 580	3, 466	3, 807
Teachers.....	39, 059	3, 492	3, 546	3, 715	3, 019	3, 961
Technicians, biological...	1, 810	3, 492	3, 455	3, 663	-----	-----
Social and welfare workers.....	1, 462	3, 440	3, 349	3, 494	3, 261	-----
Dictitians.....	355	3, 351	-----	-----	-----	-----
Librarians.....	434	3, 339	-----	-----	3, 222	-----
Secretaries and stenographers.....	4, 017	3, 148	3, 252	3, 189	2, 960	3, 227
Typists.....	780	2, 912	-----	-----	3, 179	-----

¹ Includes some graduates whose occupations are not shown separately or who did not report their occupations, as well as a few graduates working outside continental United States.

Source: College Women Go To Work: Report on Women Graduates, Class of 1956. Women's Bureau Bulletin 264.

57. Federal Employees' Salaries

Salaries of white-collar employees of the Federal Government were surveyed by the Civil Service Commission as of August 1954 and the data for women analyzed by the Women's Bureau.² The single-time survey showed that about 440,000 women white-collar workers had an

² Government Careers for Women: A Study of the Salaries and Positions of Women White-Collar Employees in the Federal Service, 1954. Women's Bureau, 1957.

average (mean) salary of \$3,562 in 1954, as compared with \$4,618 a year for men. At that time, salaries ranged from \$2,500 for grade 1 jobs to \$14,800 for grade 18 jobs—as determined under the Classification Act of 1949, as amended. Salaries were increased about 7.5 percent effective March 1955; and retroactive to January 1958, they were raised approximately 10 percent. After the 1958 increase, scheduled salaries ranged from \$2,960 to \$17,500 a year.

The average (median) job grade for women in 1954 was grade 4 and for men, grade 7, if postal employees not covered by the Classification Act are excluded from consideration. Almost 85 percent of the women were in grades 5 and below; almost 15 percent, in grades 6 to 11; and less than 1 percent, in grades 12 and above (table 21).

Table 21.—SALARIES OF WOMEN WHITE-COLLAR EMPLOYEES IN THE FEDERAL SERVICE, AUGUST 1954

<i>Salary range</i> ¹	<i>General Schedule grade equivalent</i>	<i>Number of women</i>	<i>Percentage distribution</i> ²	<i>Percent of total Federal white-collar employees</i>
Total.....	-----	440, 282	100. 0	33. 6
\$2,500-\$2,980.....	1	3, 466	0. 9	30. 4
\$2,750-\$3,230.....	2	62, 296	15. 3	61. 0
\$2,950-\$3,430.....	3	137, 311	33. 7	75. 1
\$3,175-\$3,655.....	4	92, 207	22. 7	66. 4
\$3,410-\$4,160.....	5	49, 001	12. 0	52. 0
\$3,795-\$4,545.....	6	23, 725	5. 8	49. 1
\$4,205-\$4,955.....	7	17, 396	4. 3	20. 3
\$4,620-\$5,370.....	8	6, 266	1. 5	25. 3
\$5,060-\$5,810.....	9	8, 922	2. 2	11. 4
\$5,500-\$6,250.....	10	768	. 2	5. 9
\$5,940-\$6,940.....	11	3, 297	. 8	6. 3
\$7,040-\$8,040.....	12	1, 442	. 4	4. 0
\$8,360-\$9,360.....	13	557	. 1	2. 3
\$9,600-\$10,600.....	14	217	. 1	1. 9
\$10,800-\$11,800.....	15	58	(³)	1. 1
\$12,000 and over.....	over 15	16	(³)	1. 1
Salary not specified.....	-----	33, 337	-----	-----

¹ Effective March 1955, salary rates for classified workers were raised approximately 7.5 percent; and retroactive to January 1958, about 10 percent.

² Salary was not specified for some employees covered by the Postal Pay Act and other pay plans, and these employees are excluded from the percentage distribution.

³ Less than 0.05 percent.

Source: U. S. Civil Service Commission.

On the basis of women's representation among total employees (including postal employees), women made up over three-fifths of

all employees in grades 1 through 5, although they were only one-third of all white-collar workers in 1954. As the job grade increased, the percentage of women decreased. Women were 13 percent of all workers in grades 6 to 11 and less than 3 percent of those in grades 12 and above. In supergrades 16, 17, and 18 they were 1 percent of the total.

Differences between men's and women's grades and salaries are related largely to differences in types of jobs held and extent of education and training, as well as to preference for men or for women in certain types of work and length of service. For example, a special study of Federal employment records revealed that in 1953 the average length of service was 11.3 years for men and 7.6 years for women. Employees with less than 5 years of service included 41 percent of the women but only 16 percent of the men. About one-half of the men and one-third of the women had at least 10 years of service.

By occupation, average yearly earnings of women (in occupational series with at least 20 women) ranged from \$2,823 for sorting-

Table 22.—WOMEN'S AVERAGE SALARIES IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONS IN FEDERAL SERVICE, 1954

<i>C. S. C. occupational series</i>	<i>Number of women employees</i>	<i>Average annual salary</i>	<i>Percent of women in series</i>
Medical officer.....	267	\$8, 144	4
Social administration.....	166	7, 430	50
Attorney-adviser.....	172	6, 905	6
Business economics.....	85	5, 908	26
Statistics.....	416	5, 693	21
Adjudicating.....	370	5, 552	15
Position-classification.....	663	5, 543	31
Physics.....	112	5, 541	4
Bacteriology.....	227	5, 348	27
Public health nurse.....	186	5, 168	99
Budget administration.....	610	5, 110	21
Chemistry.....	559	5, 067	12
Mathematics.....	450	4, 937	35
Library.....	2, 889	4, 799	78
Dietitian.....	1, 069	4, 785	99
Nurse.....	19, 128	4, 450	97
Information and editorial.....	2, 862	4, 277	55
Secretary.....	22, 783	3, 741	99
Medical technician.....	1, 265	3, 729	53
Clerk-stenographer.....	46, 349	3, 296	98
Clerk-typist.....	77, 368	3, 115	93
Nursing assistant.....	8, 208	2, 973	25
Sorting-machine operation.....	155	2, 823	79

Source: U. S. Civil Service Commission.

machine operators to \$8,144 for medical officers. Clerk-typists, the largest single occupational group, included 77,368 women, who averaged \$3,115 a year in August 1954. In other numerically important clerical occupations, 46,349 clerk-stenographers earned \$3,296 on the average, and 22,783 secretaries—\$3,741. The 32,613 women performing professional work for the Federal Government averaged \$4,754 a year in 1954. Women's average earnings in significant professional and other occupations are shown in table 22.

Retirement Income

More than half of the 8 million women 65 years of age and over in the population received income in 1957 under federally administered retirement programs—either as former workers or as wives or widows of former workers. By far the largest number were beneficiaries of the old-age, survivors, and disability insurance system (see sec. 58). Also included were about 720,000 women (December 1956) who were covered by retirement programs for Federal Government employees (see sec. 59) and railroad workers (see sec. 60) or by pension and compensation programs for veterans.

Another 1.4 million women 65 years of age and over (February 1958) received old-age assistance under State programs financed by State and Federal funds.

Of the remaining women 65 and over, about 760,000 women were receiving income from their own employment, and 920,000 were wives of employed workers (June 1957). Other women were receiving retirement and survivors benefits from State and local governments and from private pension plans. It was not known how many elderly women had income derived from other sources, including personal funds and local relief, or had no money income and were being supported by relatives or others.

58. Women Benefiting From Old-Age and Survivors Insurance

Almost 4.9 million women 62 years of age and over were receiving old-age or survivors benefits at the end of 1957, according to the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance of the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Male beneficiaries age 65 or over were slightly fewer in number (4.2 million). Among the 9.5 million adults receiving some type of benefit, women accounted for slightly more than half the total.

The old-age, survivors, and disability insurance programs, which were originally established as the old-age insurance program by the

Social Security Act of 1935, provide for a partial replacement of lost income when employment is cut off because of old age, disability, or death. They cover almost all types of workers, with the principal exceptions of Federal employees and self-employed physicians. By the beginning of 1957, almost 103 million workers now living, including about 44 million women, had accumulated social-security credits toward future insurance payments. Women who benefit from the Act, in addition to women workers, include aged wives of retired workers, widows and dependent mothers of deceased workers, as well as young widows and wives if they have children of insured workers in their care.

The social-security program is financed through a tax on workers and their employers and on self-employed persons and is administered by the Federal Government. A series of amendments to the original act has extended its coverage, increased benefit amounts, and protected the benefit rights of certain workers who suffer long-term total disability. Since July 1957 disabled workers 50 years of age or over who have been covered under the program for a sufficient length of time are eligible for disability benefits.

The retirement age for women was lowered in 1956 from 65 to 62 years—with permanently reduced benefits to women workers and wives who become entitled (and apply) before age 65. Full benefits are provided at age 62 to widows and mothers of deceased insured workers. As a result of the 1956 amendment, there was a sharp increase in the number of women applying for benefits. From November 1956 through December 1957, benefits under the liberalized age provision were awarded to 999,000 women.

Benefits paid in 1958 ranged from \$24 to \$108.50 a month for a retired worker and from \$39 to \$162.80 a month for a married couple, depending on a worker's average monthly earnings. At the beginning of 1957, old-age benefits averaging \$51.20 a month were paid to 1,542,000 retired women workers. The average for 3,572,000 retired men workers was \$68.20 a month. More than one-third of the women but fewer than one-fifth of the men received less than \$40 a month; fewer than one-fifth of the women but about half of the men received \$90 or more a month. Since smaller proportions of women than men work steadily at full-time jobs and since women tend to be employed on jobs that pay less than men's, their average earnings, and thus their benefits, are lower than men's.

Disabled workers who were 50 to 64 years of age and receiving disability-insurance benefits at the end of 1957 included 29,000 women and 121,000 men. The average monthly benefit was \$69.80 for the women and \$73.50 for the men.

About 328,000 young widows with child beneficiaries in their care were receiving old-age and survivors insurance at the end of 1957. Survivor families composed of a mother and 2 children received benefits averaging \$144.60 a month (as of June 1957).

Beneficiaries under 72 years of age may receive payments for every month of the year if they earn less than 1,200 a year; after that age, benefits are paid without regard to current earnings.

Editor's note: By an amendment enacted in August 1958 and effective February 1959, the minimum benefit has been raised to \$26.40 and the maximum to \$116 a month—with an average increase of about \$4.75 a month for each retired worker. Eventually, the maximum payment for a person who retires in the future will be \$127 a month. For couples, the new minimum is \$42.90 and the new maximum, \$174 a month.

59. Income of Civil-Service Retirees

Approximately 60,000 women who formerly worked for the Federal Government are now receiving retirement benefits in accordance with the Civil Service Retirement Act, originally enacted in 1920 and amended several times since then. The Act covers, in general, permanent Federal civilian employees, who numbered over 2 million in 1958. The Federal retirement fund is financed jointly by covered employees, who contribute 6.5 percent of their basic salaries, and by appropriations from the Federal Government. Annuities, for which employees normally are eligible at age 60 with 30 years' service or age 62 with 5 years' service, are based primarily on length of service and on average salary for the 5 best consecutive years (usually the last 5 years) of service. Employees with at least 5 years of service who are totally disabled are guaranteed a minimum disability annuity, which varies according to age and salary.

An average annuity of \$1,417 a year was received by women who retired prior to October 1, 1956 for reasons of age and service, according to a Civil Service Commission study made in January 1958. Women who retired because of disability received an average annuity of \$1,145 a year. Among men, age-and-service annuitants averaged \$1,805 and disability annuitants, \$1,281. Civil-service retirement payments constituted a larger proportion (70 percent) of the women retirees' total income than of the men's (60 percent). Additional income—from such sources as social security, other Federal benefits, current employment, and investments—amounted to \$693 a year for women age-and-service retirees and \$1,269 a year for men (table 23). Effective August 1958, annuity payments were increased 10 percent (with a maximum increase of \$500 a year) for former Federal employees who had retired prior to October 1, 1956. Annuities had been boosted previously for those retired after that date.

Table 23.—AVERAGE ANNUAL INCOME OF CIVIL-SERVICE ANNUITANTS,
JANUARY 1958

<i>Type of annuitant</i>	<i>Average annual income—</i>		
	<i>Total</i>	<i>Civil-service annuity</i>	<i>Other income</i>
Age and service:			
Total.....	\$2, 895	\$1, 733	\$1, 162
Women.....	2, 110	1, 417	693
Men.....	3, 074	1, 805	1, 269
Disability:			
Total.....	2, 236	1, 248	988
Women.....	1, 586	1, 145	441
Men.....	2, 433	1, 281	1, 152

Source: Civil Service Commission. Report on Civil Service Annuitants. 1958. (Represents annuitants who retired prior to Oct. 1, 1956.)

60. Income of Women Railroad Retirees

Over 10,000 women received retirement annuities in December 1956 from the United States Railroad Retirement Board.³ They equaled about 3 percent of retired railroad employees, but their proportion was expected to increase in the future because of the upward trend of women's employment in the industry. Under the Railroad Retirement Act of 1937 as amended, annuities are paid to employees who retire because of age or disabilities. Benefits are also paid to wives, aged widows, widowed mothers, and children of former workers.

Women retirees have increased markedly since 1946, when the Railroad Retirement Act was amended to liberalize disability provisions and to eliminate annuity reductions for women who retire after 30 years' service but before they are 65 years of age. Nevertheless, only 8 percent (250 out of 3,300) of the women who were 60 to 64 years of age and eligible to retire did so in 1956—even though they would have received full annuities. By contrast, 17 percent (433 out of 2,600) of the women who were 65 or over did retire in 1956 when eligible (minimum of 10 years' service).

Annuities awarded by the Railroad Retirement Board to about 1,500 women who retired during the calendar year 1957 averaged \$103 per month. With annuity computations based on years of railroad service and total earnings during that time, the typical woman railroad employee who retired in 1957 had received an average of \$173 a month during 24 years of service. The average annuity of \$124 awarded to

³ Retirements of Women Employees. Railroad Retirement Board, *The Monthly Review*, March 1958 (p. 11).

men during 1957 was based on \$207 in monthly pay and 26 years of service. About four-fifths of the women retired because of age and one-fifth, because of disability. Of the women receiving annuities based on age, about one-third were 60 to 64 years of age; one-half, 65 to 69; and the remaining, 70 or older.

Investment Income

61. Women as Stockholders

Women's participation in stock ownership is another indicator of their economic status. The 4,455,000 women estimated to have one or more shares of stock in publicly owned corporations at the end of 1955 equaled almost 52 percent of 8,630,000 individual shareowners, according to a study made by the New York Stock Exchange.⁴ As this was the first study to show women stockowners outnumbering men, the change was believed to stem from the 1954 tax law under which a husband and wife are each allowed a \$50 dividend tax exemption.

About 1 in every 12 men and women in the adult population was estimated by the Stock Exchange study to be a shareowner. The number of shares owned individually by women equaled 22 percent of the total, about 6 percent less than owned individually by men. The remaining shares (50 percent) were held by institutions, brokers and dealers, persons with joint accounts, and nominees (who hold shares for others).

An earlier study by the Brookings Institution estimated that 3,230,000 women owned stock in 1951-52 and represented slightly less than half of all individual shareowners. This study examined "the belief that women own most of the Nation's securities—or the Nation's wealth" and found that although women had more shareholdings (each stock issue held by an individual or other owner) registered in their names, they were outranked by men in the number of shares held and in average value per stockholding. Out of a grand total of 3,695 million shares of stock, women owned 823 million shares and men, 1,050 million. Women's shareholdings averaged 98 shares per person and men's, 139—both far below the average recorded for brokers and dealers, nominees, and miscellaneous groups. Average value of women's shareholdings was \$3,461 and men's, \$4,197. Shareholdings of brokers and dealers and of nominees had a much higher average value than the shareholdings of individuals (table 24).

⁴ Who Owns American Business? 1956 Census of Shareowners. New York Stock Exchange.

Table 24.—SHAREHOLDINGS IN COMMON AND PREFERRED STOCKS COMBINED, BY TYPE OF HOLDER, 1951

<i>Type of holder</i>	<i>Number of shareholders (in thousands)</i>	<i>Number of shares (in thousands)</i>	<i>Average value per shareholding</i>
Total.....	20, 321	3, 695, 279	\$6, 500
Women.....	8, 432	823, 224	\$3, 461
Men.....	7, 565	1, 050, 237	4, 197
Joint accounts.....	2, 585	234, 036	2, 263
Fiduciaries.....	976	255, 573	11, 839
Institutions and foundations.....	145	70, 277	22, 837
Brokers and dealers.....	240	381, 636	42, 469
Nominees.....	140	375, 115	128, 539
Others.....	238	505, 182	93, 587

Source: Share Ownership in the United States. The Brookings Institution, Washington, D. C. 1952.

To learn something about the relative importance of publicly owned stocks among various types of investments, the Brookings Institution also collected information about individual ownership of nine types of investment (table 25). Fewer men and women held publicly

Table 25.—SELECTED INVESTMENTS OWNED BY WOMEN, 1952

<i>Type of investment</i>	<i>Number of women owners (in thousands)</i>	<i>Percent of women who are owners ¹</i>	<i>Percent of owners who are women</i>
Total ²	61, 200	77. 8	50
Life insurance.....	49, 980	63. 6	48
Savings accounts.....	26, 430	33. 6	50
U. S. Series "E" bonds.....	21, 130	26. 9	49
Annuities and pensions ³	5, 010	6. 4	35
Publicly owned stock.....	3, 230	4. 1	50
Other government bonds ⁴	1, 960	2. 5	53
Privately held stocks.....	1, 140	1. 5	38
Real-estate mortgages and bonds.....	850	1. 1	45
Corporate bonds.....	350	0. 4	44

¹ Based on a total female population of 78,620,000 in 1952.

² Items exceed the total because some women had more than one type of investment.

³ Does not include Federal old-age and survivors insurance.

⁴ Includes bonds of Federal (excluding Series "E" bonds), State, county, municipal, and foreign governments.

Source: Share Ownership in the United States. The Brookings Institution, Washington, D. C. 1952.

owned stocks than had life insurance, savings accounts, U. S. Series "E" bonds, or annuities and pensions. However, publicly owned stocks were more popular than government bonds (excluding "E" bonds), privately held stocks, real-estate mortgages and bonds, and corporate bonds. Of all the types of investment studied, only life insurance had been purchased by a majority of women and men.

3

EDUCATION AND JOB TRAINING OF WOMEN

Women's occupational choices and their opportunities for further job advancement are strongly influenced by the amount and type of education they have received. In fact, whether or not a woman is part of the labor force at all is associated somewhat with her educational level. Any discussion of women's employment, therefore, must recognize the vocational benefits which accompany the social and cultural values of education. Moreover, from the viewpoint of the national welfare, women's education plays a significant role in considerations of economic development because of its relationship to womanpower resources for the national economy.

Enrollment in Schools and Colleges

62. Numbers of Women by Type of School

Almost 20 million American girls and women, or half the female population 5 to 34 years of age, were attending school in the fall of 1957, according to the Bureau of the Census. The proportions of women who were students varied considerably by age groups. Over nine-tenths of the girls and boys between the ages of 7 and 17 were in school, thereby supporting the belief that education through secondary school is available to virtually everyone in the Nation. After age 17, the percentages of students dropped considerably—with the drop much sharper for women than men. Enrollment rates for both men and women over age 17 have increased significantly since 1950. For the total group of women and girls under age 35, enrollment rates rose from 41 percent in 1950 to 50 percent in 1957 (table 1).

Of the almost 20 million American girls and women enrolled in schools and colleges in the fall of 1957, over 14 million (72 percent) were attending kindergarten or elementary school. Another 4.5 million (23 percent) were high-school students and over 1 million women (6 percent) were in colleges or professional schools. These three groups of students were all enrolled in what is generally called the

Table 1.—SCHOOL ENROLLMENT OF POPULATION UNDER 35 YEARS OF AGE, 1957 AND 1950

Age	Number of girls in school 1957 ¹	Percent of population in school			
		Female		Male	
		1957	1950	1957	1950
Total, 5 to 34 years	19, 657, 000	50	41	57	48
5 and 6 years	2, 866, 000	79	75	78	74
7 to 13 years	11, 121, 000	² 100	99	² 100	99
14 to 17 years	4, 421, 000	88	82	91	84
18 and 19 years	629, 000	28	24	43	35
20 to 24 years	439, 000	8	5	21	14
25 to 29 years	111, 000	2	(³)	10	6
30 to 34 years	70, 000	1	(³)	3	2

¹ Refers to enrollment as of October 1957 and 1950 in both public and private schools and colleges.

² Less than 0.5 percent were not in school.

³ Less than 1 percent were in school.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-20, No. 80.

“regular school system,” which includes both public and private schools (table 2). These figures include enrollments in public vocational courses (see sec. 72).

Table 2.—TYPE OF SCHOOL ATTENDED BY STUDENTS UNDER 35 YEARS OF AGE, OCTOBER 1957

Type of school	Girls and women		Boys and men	
	Number	Per- cent	Number	Per- cent
All types	19, 657, 000	100	21, 509, 000	100
Elementary and kindergarten	14, 085, 000	72	14, 987, 000	70
High school	4, 462, 000	23	4, 494, 000	21
College or professional school	1, 110, 000	6	2, 028, 000	9

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-20, No. 80.

About 377,000 women and girl students were enrolled in private trade schools and business colleges outside the “regular school system” in October 1956, when the latest census count was made for “special schools.” Courses offered included those in art, business, fashion design, photography, and cosmetology. No figures are available on

women who obtained employment training by means of correspondence courses, on-the-job instruction, apprenticeship training, and courses sponsored by private organizations.

63. Types of Colleges in Which Women are Enrolled

College enrollments for women have increased steadily since World War II, except for the period 1949–51, when the numbers remained relatively stable. The 1,065,000 women reported by the United States Office of Education to be attending college in 1957 amounted to 46 percent more than in 1950—despite a slightly smaller number of girls aged 18 to 21 in the population. The Office of Education study of fall 1957 enrollment in institutions of higher learning shows that about 33 percent of the college women were in universities, another 33 percent in liberal-arts colleges, about 14 percent in teachers colleges, and about 12 percent in junior colleges.¹ Most of the remaining college women were in theological schools and technological schools.

Major differences in the proportions of men and women attending school occur at the college level. Boys and girls are about evenly divided in elementary and high schools, but young men predominate in the colleges and universities. Since 1952, women have equaled about one-third of the students in all types of colleges combined. In teachers' colleges, however, women represented slightly over half the students in the fall of 1957; in liberal-arts colleges—almost 45 percent; in junior colleges—about 35 percent; and in universities—just under 30 percent. In contrast, women were only 6 percent of the students in technological schools and 18 percent in theological schools.

It is also interesting to note that one-tenth of the women enrolled in college during October 1957 were married and living with their husbands. Among students 20 to 34 years old, those who were married equaled 18 percent of the college women and 41 percent of the college men. By comparison, 76 percent of the 20- to 34-year-old group not in college were married.

¹ U. S. Office of Education. Opening Enrollment in Higher Educational Institutions, Fall 1957. Circular No. 518.

Education Completed by Women

64. Rise in Formal Education

The educational level of American workers continues on its long-term upward climb. Women workers 18 to 64 years of age had completed an average (median) of 12.1 years of schooling in 1957, as compared with 10.2 years in 1940, according to the Bureau of the Census. The amount of formal education they received was slightly higher than that of men workers, who averaged 11.3 years of schooling in 1957 and 8.8 years in 1940.

Differences in the educational attainment of men and women are related to several factors. A major influence is the types of jobs they seek and the kinds of training usually offered and required for obtaining these jobs. Women are concentrated in white-collar work, and training for much of this work is available in high school. As a result, many women stay in high school through graduation. Men, on the other hand, enter a variety of jobs for which formal training is often not available in high school. For many technical and craft jobs held by men, training is frequently given on the job. In the case of some manual jobs, employers are more interested in aptitude and experience than in formal public-school education.

The smaller difference that existed between men's and women's average years of formal schooling in 1957 than prevailed in 1940 stems largely from the fact that the 1957 labor force included more mature women workers. As these women were educated in a period when high-school attendance was less widespread than now, their relatively lower educational attainment has caused the average for all women workers to rise more slowly than that for men workers.

Women in the work force in 1957 averaged seven-tenths of a year more schooling than all women in the population, for whom the average was 11.4 years of formal education (table 3). Those who had attended college equaled 17 percent of the women workers but only 13 percent of all women 18 years and over in the population. Similarly, among women workers there were more with a high-school diploma and fewer without an elementary-school diploma than prevailed among all women as a group. Educational differences between those in the labor force and those in the total population were less great among men than among women, since a much larger proportion of men than women are in the labor force.

Fully 11 million of the almost 21 million women workers 18 years of age and over in March 1957 had obtained at least a high-school education. Of these, 1.7 million are college graduates and 1.9 million

Table 3.—EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF POPULATION AND OF WORKERS, 1957
(Persons 18 years of age and over)

<i>Years of school completed</i>	<i>Percent distribution</i>			
	<i>Population</i>		<i>Labor force</i>	
	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
Total.....	100	100	100	100
College:				
4 years or more.....	5	9	8	9
Less than 4 years.....	8	8	9	8
High school:				
4 years.....	32	24	36	26
Less than 4 years.....	19	18	19	19
Elementary school:				
8 years.....	16	17	14	17
5 to 7 years.....	11	13	9	12
Less than 5 years.....	7	9	4	7
No report.....	1	2	1	1
Median school years reported.....	11.4	10.7	12.1	11.1

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 78.

have had 1 to 3 years of college. Slightly less than 3 million women workers had not finished elementary school (chart C).

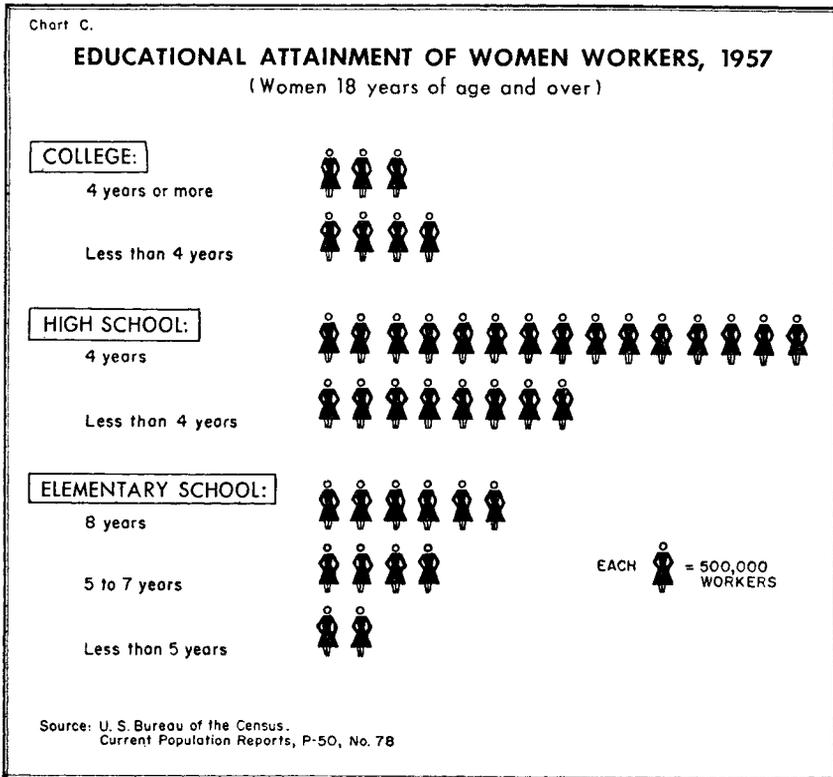
In 1957, nonwhite women workers had completed an average (median) of 8.9 years of schooling—in comparison with 12.2 school years completed by white women workers (table 4). While both groups have made gains in the past few years, the advancement has been greater for the nonwhite group. Like other women workers,

Table 4.—YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED BY WHITE AND NONWHITE WOMEN AND MEN, 1957

<i>Group</i>	<i>Median school years completed by—</i>	
	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
White:		
In labor force.....	12.2	11.5
Not in labor force.....	11.0	8.6
Nonwhite:		
In labor force.....	8.9	8.0
Not in labor force.....	8.2	4.6

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 78.

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nonwhite women in 1957 had completed slightly more years of formal education than nonwhite men.

65. Education and Labor-force Participation

Chances that a woman will seek paid employment tend to increase with the amount of education she has received. For example, more than half of the American women with a college degree were working in 1957, in contrast to less than one-third of the women who had left school after the eighth grade. The relationship of educational attainment and employment was almost as strong for married women living with their husbands as it was for single women. The percentages of married women in the labor force were: 40 percent of the college graduates, 31 percent of the high-school graduates, 28 percent of the elementary-school graduates, and 21 percent of those with less than 5 years' schooling. Among single women, the percentages of workers varied from 90 percent of those with the most education to 33 percent of those with the least (table 5).

Table 5.—PERCENT OF WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT AND MARITAL STATUS, 1957
(Women 18 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	Percent of women in labor force			
	Total	Single	Married ¹	Other
Total.....	37	69	30	42
College:				
4 years or more.....	55	90	40	67
Less than 4 years.....	42	56	34	61
High school:				
4 years.....	41	80	31	57
Less than 4 years.....	36	58	29	50
Elementary school:				
8 years.....	32	62	28	34
5 to 7 years.....	29	51	25	32
Less than 5 years.....	22	33	21	21

¹ With husband present.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 78.

66. Educational Attainment and Occupations

The amount of education obtained by a woman influences strongly the type of job she can obtain. In 1957, fully 75 percent of the employed women with college degrees had professional or technical jobs and another 14 percent were clerical workers (chart D). Of the remaining 11 percent, more than half were included in the broad group of managers, officials, and proprietors—who range from high-level executives to part owners of small businesses. Of the women workers who had 1 to 3 years of college training, 31 percent had professional or technical jobs in 1957, and 42 percent had clerical jobs (table 6).

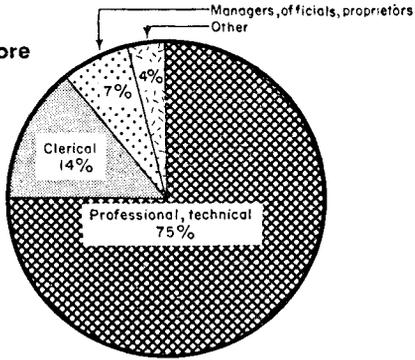
For women workers who had finished high school but had not attended college, the greatest employment opportunities were in the clerical field. More than 5 of every 10 women in this group were clerical workers in 1957; slightly more than 1 out of 10 were service workers, such as waitresses, practical nurses, and hotel workers; another 1 out of 10 were operatives employed primarily in apparel factories, laundries, textile mills, and food companies; and almost 1 out of every 10 was a sales worker.

Most of the women workers who had received from 1 to 3 years of high-school training were divided in fairly equal proportions among three major occupational groups: Service, operative, and clerical. Of

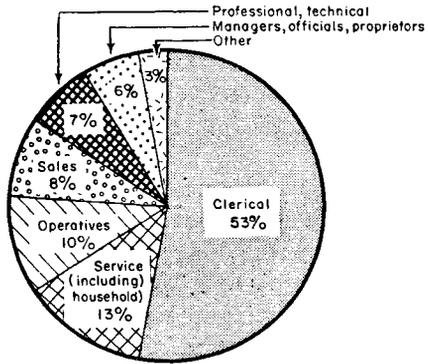
Chart D.

OCCUPATIONS OF WOMEN WITH SPECIFIED YEARS OF SCHOOLING, 1957

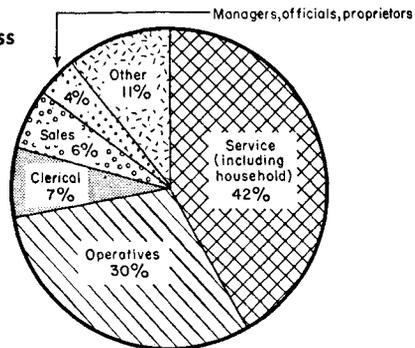
With 4 years or more of college....



With 4 years of high school....



With 8 years or less of grade school....



Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census.
Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 78

Table 6.—OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS OF WOMEN BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT, 1957
(Women 18 years of age and over)

Selected occupational groups	Total	Educational attainment				
		College		High school		
		4 years or more	Less than 4 years	4 years	Less than 4 years	Eighth grade or less
Total.....	100	100	100	100	100	100
Professional workers.....	12	75	31	7	2	1
Managers, officials, proprietors..	6	6	8	6	6	4
Clerical workers.....	30	14	42	53	22	7
Sales workers.....	7	2	5	8	10	6
Service workers.....	23	2	8	13	29	42
Operatives.....	17	1	3	10	26	30
Other.....	5	1	3	3	6	10

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 78.

the women who had not graduated from high school, almost none were employed in professional jobs.

Among employed women with an eighth-grade education or less, service workers predominated, and operatives were the second-largest group. Clerical and sales jobs were filled by significant proportions of the women who had graduated from eighth grade but by only small proportions of those with fewer years of schooling.

The strong relationship between education and occupation is also evident from an analysis of the amount of education received by women in each of the major occupational groups. The largest percentage of women in professional occupations had a college education; in clerical, managerial, and sales occupations, a high-school education; and in operative and service occupations, an elementary-school education (table 7). Of the small group of women who were employed as farm laborers, almost three-fifths had an eighth-grade education or less, whereas of the craftswomen, over two-fifths were high-school graduates.

67. Retention Rates for Students

Student withdrawals from schools and colleges may represent a waste of potentially skilled manpower and womanpower if the students involved have the capacity for further study. Recent Office of Education studies, directed toward determining factors that encourage students to stay in school until graduation, indicate the extent and

Table 7.—EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF WOMEN WORKERS IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS, 1957

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Selected occupational groups	Educational Attainment					
	Total	College		High school		Eighth grade or less
		4 years or more	1-3 years	4 years	1-3 years	
Total ¹	100	8	9	37	18	26
Professional workers.....	100	52	24	19	3	2
Managers, officials, proprietors.....	100	10	13	38	18	19
Clerical workers.....	100	4	13	64	13	6
Sales workers.....	100	2	7	42	25	22
Service workers (except household).....	100	1	4	28	27	39
Operatives.....	100	(²)	2	22	28	47
Private-household workers....	100	1	2	13	19	63
Other ³	100	1	5	25	19	49

¹ Includes women employed as "farmers and farm managers" and "laborers, except farm," although separate information was not released for these groups. Also includes a few women for whom education was not reported.

² Less than 1 percent.

³ Covers "craftsmen" and "farm laborers."

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-50, No. 78.

reasons for school dropouts. Among a class of high-school students surveyed in 14 large cities through a 4-year period (1951-55), relatively fewer girls than boys were found to have left school before graduation. More than 60 percent of the high-school girls and at least 50 percent of the high-school boys remained to graduate, as is shown in table 8.

Table 8.—RETENTION RATES FOR HIGH-SCHOOL GIRLS AND BOYS IN 14 LARGE CITIES, 1951-55

City population	Percent of students entering high school who graduated	
	Girls	Boys
Over 1,000,000.....	61	50
200,000 to 1,000,000.....	65	60

Source: U. S. Office of Education. Retention in High Schools in Large Cities. Bulletin 1957, No. 15.

Among the girls, about three-fourths of the school leavers withdrew voluntarily for the following principal reasons: To go to work, to marry, or lack of interest in school. Most boys gave employment as the reason for leaving. Smaller but significant numbers of the latter indicated lack of interest or inability to adjust in school; few withdrew because of marriage.

In a Bureau of Labor Statistics study aimed at learning the advantages that high-school graduates have over dropouts in adjusting to present-day job requirements, it was found that most high-school graduates surveyed in a labor surplus area between 1951 and 1955 had received some vocational education.² Less than two-thirds of the nongraduates, on the other hand, had taken such vocational courses as typing, shorthand, bookkeeping, home economics, or distributive education. About two-fifths of the girls who graduated from high school were first employed as salesclerks, whereas about the same proportion of nongraduates became waitresses. Similarly, the more skilled jobs of typists, stenographers, and bookkeepers were obtained by 30 percent of the girl graduates but only 4 percent of the others. In the case of both girls and boys, salaries studied in July 1956 were found to be significantly higher for those who completed their school program than for those who did not.

Of the 1,200,000 boys and girls in the United States who were graduated from high school in 1950, about 32 percent continued their education on a full-time basis in the fall of 1950, according to another Office of Education study.³ An additional 11 percent of the high-school graduates attended school part time. The students who ranked in the upper fifth of their high-school graduating class were 42 percent of college enrollees and, subsequently, only 32 percent of college dropouts.

About 40 percent of the college students entering institutions of higher learning in the fall of 1950 were graduated in 1954 by their college of original registration. When this group is augmented by students who transferred to other institutions and by those still in school, a total of 60 percent were expected eventually to graduate. In the group graduating from their college of entry were 38.8 percent of the men students and 40.5 percent of the women students. It was noted that the percentage of men who entered the fourth year of college study but did not graduate was slightly higher than that for women, and this was attributed partly to the larger enrollment of

² Education and Work of Young People in a Labor Surplus Area. Bureau of Labor Statistics *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1957 (p. 1457).

³ Retention and Withdrawal of College Students. U. S. Office of Education. Bulletin 1958, No. 1.

men in extended programs such as engineering, medicine, or law. On the basis of its findings, the Office of Education report concluded, "The difference is too small to say with certainty that, in terms of ultimate graduation, one sex or the other had a superior record."

Major reasons given by women students for leaving college before graduation were: Personal or family financial difficulties, marriage plans, full-time employment, and lack of interest in their studies. Men students named military service, financial difficulties, and lack of interest as their main reasons for discontinuing college attendance.

Women Earning Degrees

68. Numbers and Types of Degrees

Institutions of higher learning conferred 139,171 earned degrees on women during the school year 1956-57, as reported by the Office of Education. This was 5 percent more than in the previous year and almost 60 percent more than in 1940. Women's degrees in 1956-57 included 117,609 bachelor's and other first-level degrees (85 percent), 20,623 master's and other second-level degrees (15 percent), and 939 doctorates (1 percent) (table 9).

The proportion of women among all degree recipients has changed considerably over the years. In 1890, time of the first official report, women received less than one-fifth of all college degrees. Subse-

Table 9.—DEGREES EARNED BY WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

<i>School year ending</i>	<i>Number of women receiving degrees¹</i>	<i>Percent of total degrees conferred</i>
1957.....	139,171	34
First level.....	117,609	35
Second level.....	20,623	33
Doctorate.....	939	11
1956.....	132,639	35
1950.....	121,540	24
1946.....	87,621	56
1940.....	87,606	41
1930.....	55,261	40
1920.....	18,018	34
1910.....	9,170	22
1900.....	5,561	19
1890.....	2,882	17

¹ First level includes bachelor's and other first-professional degrees; second level includes the master's and other second-professional degrees.

Source: U. S. Office of Education. Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions.

quently, their representation expanded—equaling about two-fifths during the 1930's and over half near the end of World War II, when many young men were in military service. As some of these men later entered college under the veterans' education and training program, the proportion of women receiving degrees dropped in 1950 to about one-fourth of the total. In 1956–57, as in the previous 4 years, women earned about one-third of the first- and second-level degrees and about one-tenth of the doctorates.

69. Major Subjects Studied by Women

Women who earned bachelor's (first-level) degrees in the school year 1956–57 had studied undergraduate subjects customarily popular with women. About 46 percent had majored in education, including such specialties as physical education, art education, and home-economics education. The humanities and arts—which include fine and applied arts, English and journalism, and foreign languages—were long-time favorites of college women and were the majors of 16 percent of the women who graduated in 1956–57. Social sciences and health professions were also important fields for women. Relatively few women had majored in biological sciences, physical sciences, mathematics and statistics, law, or medicine (table 10).

Among the women who earned graduate degrees in 1956–57, education was also the principal subject of study—being reported by 70 percent of the women receiving master's (second-level) degrees and 31 percent of those receiving doctorates. Other fields in which relatively large groups of women received master's degrees were the social sciences, English and journalism, and fine and applied arts. Of the relatively few women receiving doctorates, slightly over one-tenth had specialized in the biological sciences, about one-tenth in the social sciences, and almost one-tenth in English and journalism.

Subjects in which the largest numbers of men earned their degrees were quite different from those of women, except for social sciences. The three most popular undergraduate majors for men were business and commerce (19 percent), engineering (14 percent), and social sciences (14 percent). Men specializing in education equaled 10 percent of the men receiving bachelor's degrees and 40 percent of those receiving master's.

Women predominated in several fields of study, receiving almost all the degrees in home economics and nursing, over three-fourths of those in library science, about two-thirds of those in education, and a majority of those in English and journalism and fine and applied arts. Men, by contrast, received at least nine-tenths of the degrees in engineering, business and commerce, agriculture, law, medicine, and

pharmacy; almost nine-tenths of those in physical sciences; and about three-fourths in biological sciences and mathematical subjects.

Table 10.—SUBJECTS IN WHICH DEGREES WERE EARNED, 1956-57

<i>Subject</i>	<i>First-level degrees</i>		<i>Second-level degrees</i>	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent distribution</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent distribution</i>
WOMEN				
Total.....	117, 609	100	20, 623	100
Education.....	54, 447	46	14, 517	70
Social sciences.....	13, 153	11	990	5
English and journalism.....	10, 128	9	1, 009	5
Health professions.....	8, 260	7	505	2
Fine and applied arts.....	6, 315	5	927	4
Home economics.....	4, 545	4	468	2
Business and commerce.....	3, 911	3	123	1
Biological sciences.....	3, 144	3	369	2
Psychology.....	2, 666	2	332	2
Foreign languages and literature.....	2, 598	2	406	2
Mathematical subjects.....	1, 720	1	188	1
Physical sciences.....	1, 613	1	221	1
Library science.....	1, 173	1	152	1
Other subjects.....	3, 936	3	416	2
MEN				
Total.....	222, 738	100	41, 332	100
Business and commerce.....	42, 849	19	3, 147	8
Engineering.....	31, 130	14	5, 217	13
Social sciences.....	31, 012	14	3, 562	9
Education.....	23, 275	10	16, 455	40
Health professions (incl. M.D.).....	14, 815	7	880	2
Physical sciences.....	11, 321	5	2, 483	6
Biological sciences.....	10, 724	5	1, 432	3
Law (LL.B., J. D. or higher degrees)....	8, 559	4	435	1
English and journalism.....	7, 870	4	1, 246	3
Religion.....	6, 886	3	925	2
Fine and applied arts.....	5, 470	2	1, 460	4
Agriculture.....	5, 340	2	934	2
Other subjects.....	23, 487	11	3, 156	8

Source: U. S. Office of Education. Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions.

70. Trend in Women's Majors

Comparisons of the subjects in which women have majored during the past decade are interesting to consider but somewhat misleading unless interpreted with an understanding of the survey procedures involved. Since the school year 1947-48, the Office of Education has made an annual survey of the subjects in which degrees are received by men and women students. As instructions and interpretations have been strengthened in succeeding surveys, some of the changes in degree subjects reflect different interests of students, and some are a result of different survey procedures. The major change in survey instructions was made in the 1955-56 survey, when the definition of "education" was expanded to include such specialties as art education, business education, nursing education, and science education.

With this qualification in mind, it is interesting to note the marked increase during the past decade in the proportion of women majoring in "education." Part of the increase is probably related to the post-war demand for more grade-school teachers (who generally major in "education" rather than a subject-matter field), in addition to the added attractiveness of grade-school positions as salary differentials were removed. During the school year 1947-48 (the earliest date for which relatively comparable figures are available), 26 percent of the women earning degrees specialized in "education"; during 1954-55, 41 percent; and during 1956-57, 50 percent (table 11). Small decreases occurred between 1947-48 and 1956-57 in the percentages of college women earning degrees in each of the following subjects: Social sciences, English and journalism, psychology, home economics, business and commerce, foreign languages, physical sciences, biological sciences, and mathematical subjects. There has been a slight rise, however, in the proportion of women preparing for the health professions, including nursing.

71. College Majors and First Jobs

Most women college graduates are interested in paid employment, either immediately after graduation or in the future, according to a survey of June 1956 women college graduates made by the Women's Bureau in cooperation with the National Vocational Guidance Association. About 6 months after graduation, 75 percent of the women were employed full time; 9 percent were attending school full time, 5 percent were employed or attending school part time, 3 percent were seeking work, and 8 percent were not in the labor market. Over one-third of the graduates were married, either before leaving college or soon after, and more than two-thirds of these were working wives.

Table 11.—TREND OF DEGREE SUBJECTS FOR WOMEN: 1957, 1955, 1948

<i>Degree subject</i>	<i>Women receiving degrees of all levels</i>					
	<i>1956-57</i>		<i>1954-55</i>		<i>1947-48</i>	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per- cent</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per- cent</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per- cent</i>
Total.....	139, 171	100	124, 089	100	110, 168	100
Education.....	69, 256	50	51, 144	41	29, 003	26
Social sciences.....	14, 243	10	12, 861	10	14, 829	13
English and journalism.....	11, 214	8	9, 715	8	10, 645	10
Health professions.....	8, 772	6	8, 060	6	5, 443	5
Fine and applied arts.....	7, 294	5	9, 781	8	8, 798	8
Home economics.....	5, 045	4	7, 903	6	7, 776	7
Business and commerce.....	4, 034	3	6, 349	5	6, 467	6
Biological sciences.....	3, 625	3	3, 015	2	4, 456	4
Psychology.....	3, 088	2	3, 024	2	4, 149	4
Foreign languages and litera- ture.....	3, 051	2	2, 558	2	3, 481	3
Mathematical subjects.....	1, 921	1	1, 469	1	1, 805	2
Physical sciences.....	1, 905	1	1, 641	1	2, 696	2
Religion.....	1, 615	1	1, 522	1	1, 318	1
Library science.....	1, 329	1	1, 376	1	1, 285	1
Other subjects.....	2, 779	2	3, 671	3	8, 017	7

Source: U. S. Office of Education. Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions.

Five specific occupations accounted for about three-fourths of the 70,000 employed graduates represented in the survey. Teaching—traditionally the favorite with college women—led the list (59 percent), followed by secretaries and stenographers (6 percent), nurses (5 percent), biological technicians (3 percent), and social and welfare workers (2 percent). The remaining graduates (25 percent) were performing a wide variety of work and held such rather unusual jobs for women as hydraulic engineer, policewoman, and foreign business specialist in a bank.

The majority of employed women graduates reported work in fields related to their undergraduate training. Teaching attracted almost nine-tenths of the employed education majors as well as a majority of the employed graduates who had majored in physical education, music, English, history, foreign languages, home economics, and mathematics. Table 12 shows the principal groups of employed graduates in occupations related to their undergraduate majors.

Table 12.—UNDERGRADUATE MAJOR AND FIRST JOB OF JUNE 1956 WOMEN GRADUATES (Selected groups)

<i>Undergraduate major</i>	<i>Percent of employed women graduates in—</i>	<i>Related occupations</i>
Biological sciences	51	Biological technicians
	29	Teachers
Business and commerce	44	Secretaries, stenographers
Education	88	Teachers
English	60	Do.
Health fields (excluding nursing).	50	Biological technicians
	35	Therapists
	55	Teachers
Home economics	12	Dietitians
	11	Home economists
Journalism	47	Editors, copywriters, reporters
Mathematics	52	Teachers
	14	Mathematicians, statisticians
Nursing	99	Nurses
Physical sciences (including chemistry).	33	Chemists
	31	Biological technicians
Sociology, social work	31	Social and welfare workers
	28	Teachers

Source: College Women Go to Work: Report on Women Graduates, Class of 1956. Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 264.

Vocational Training

72. Women in Public Vocational Courses

Almost 1¾ million women and girls were enrolled in federally aided vocational courses in 1956-57, according to provisional figures of the Office of Education (table 13). Vocational education of less than college grade is provided on a cooperative Federal-State basis in such fields as home economics, distributive education, trades and industries, practical nursing, and agriculture. The aim of the program is to advance the national welfare by helping students to develop the skills, understandings, and attitudes needed for useful employment. Public vocational-education courses are especially important to the Nation's girls and women, since relatively few women benefit from publicly supported training programs for military personnel and veterans or from State apprenticeship programs (see section 73).

Federal funds for vocational education were first provided in the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 and considerably expanded in the Vocational Education Act of 1946—generally known as the George-Barden Act. The law requires that at least one-third of the funds allotted to

a State, if spent, be used for part-time classes or evening classes. Students in part-time and evening classes must be at least 16 years of age and employed.

Table 13.—WOMEN AND GIRLS IN PUBLIC VOCATIONAL COURSES, 1956-57

Program	Women and girls			Part-time and evening classes	
	Number enrolled	Percent distribution	Percent of program enrollment	Number of women	Percent of women in program
Total ¹	1, 715, 398	100	62	800, 117	47
Home economics.....	1, 460, 498	85	97	593, 696	41
Distributive education.....	141, 029	8	50	141, 029	100
Trade and industrial:					
Trades and industries classes.....	95, 384	6	10	50, 385	53
General continuation.....	11, 437	1	51	11, 437	100
Practical nursing.....	7, 050	(²)	99	3, 570	51

¹ Provisional figures subject to audit. Only 4 programs are included because enrollment of women in agricultural classes is negligible.

² Less than 1 percent.

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

Some courses are arranged to allow alternate periods of work and class attendance. If industrial-plant training is part of the arrangement, it must be under public supervision to assure that actual vocational training is provided. The participants are called "student-learners" to distinguish them from learners whose wages and hours are regulated by the United States Department of Labor under the Fair Labor Standards Act.

Almost 1½ million women and girls, about 85 percent of those receiving federally aided vocational training in 1956-57, were enrolled in home economics classes. The general purpose of home economics education is to help improve the quality of home and family life. Subjects include foods, clothing, home furnishings, home management, child growth and development, and consumer education. Over half the homemaking students were enrolled in all-day classes.

The 141,000 women and girls participating in the distributive education program during the 1956-57 school year were studying such subjects as salesmanship, buying, pricing, advertising and display, fashion, and business organization. A majority were enrolled in evening classes. Some students, employed at least 15 hours a week

in a distributive occupation, are in cooperative programs, which combine work experience with classroom training and enable students to complete their high-school education.

About 95,000 women and girls were enrolled in trades and industries courses in 1956-57, the majority of them in part-time or evening classes. Over half the women (49,348) were preparing for a craft or industrial occupation; about two-fifths (41,169), for a service trade; and most (4,813) of the others, for a semiprofessional or technical occupation (table 14).

Table 14.—WOMEN ENROLLED IN VOCATIONAL TRADES AND INDUSTRIES CLASSES, BY OCCUPATION, 1956-57

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Total.....	95, 384	100
Craft and operative:		
Airplane production worker.....	2, 603	3
Baker.....	398	(¹)
Building trades worker.....	220	(¹)
Dressmaker, machine operator (needle trades).....	26, 366	28
Electrician.....	1, 755	2
Food trades worker.....	6, 026	6
Foreman, supervisor, manager.....	2, 826	3
Jeweler, watch repairman, engraver.....	247	(¹)
Launderer, drycleaner, presser.....	423	(¹)
Machine operator (production).....	1, 857	2
Machinist.....	347	(¹)
Mechanic.....	3, 668	4
Printer, steryotyper, lithographer, photoengraver...	366	(¹)
Textile worker.....	1, 730	2
Upholsterer.....	164	(¹)
Welder.....	115	(¹)
Other.....	237	(¹)
Service:		
Beauty operator, barber.....	15, 514	16
Cook (commercial).....	1, 934	2
Fireman, fire fighter.....	231	(¹)
Janitor.....	971	1
Nurse (practical).....	21, 875	23
Policeman.....	644	1
Semiprofessional and technical:		
Artist (commercial).....	1, 533	2
Dental and medical assistant.....	1, 670	2
Draftsman.....	717	1
Laboratory technician (dental and medical).....	460	(¹)
Photographer.....	433	(¹)
Miscellaneous.....	54	(¹)

¹ Less than 1 percent.

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

In the trades and industries program, the courses with the largest numbers of women and girls offered training for dressmakers and machine operators in the needle trades industry. Two service occupations came next—those of practical nurses and beauty operators. Relatively large numbers of women were enrolled also in food trades and electrical courses, the latter covering primarily radio, television, or electronics work. Other women were preparing for employment in such fields as textile manufacturing, airplane production, baking, printing, upholstering, and laundering and dry cleaning. Significant increases have occurred during the past two years in the numbers of women enrolled in public vocational courses for mechanics, some training for production work and others for maintenance and repair.

Women preparing for semiprofessional and technical occupations included those enrolled in dental and medical assistants' courses and those studying commercial art, drafting, and photography.

In addition to those training to become practical nurses under trades and industries funds, about 7,000 women and girls were enrolled in practical nursing courses financed by special funds in the George-Barden Act. The special appropriations, first made available for the school year 1956-57, were provided by Congress to increase the number of trained practical nurses and thus help ease the nursing shortage.

Students enrolled in federally aided agricultural classes are not recorded separately by sex but the number of women is believed to be a very small proportion of the total. In certain short-unit intensive courses—as for example, horticulture or poultry raising—the proportions of women, however, are probably relatively high.

Apprenticeship Training

73. Women Apprentices

Formal programs for the employment and training of apprentices have been established in about 300 skilled occupations in 89 trade classifications—mostly in the building, printing, metal, and service trades. Since persons registered under approved Federal or State apprenticeship programs are not identified by sex, the number of women apprentices is not available. However, a count of the female names listed among registered apprentices in 7 States in 1954 indicated that less than 1 percent of the group were women. Likewise, very few women were believed to be among the 185,691 registered apprentices reported to the United States Department of Labor's Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training at the end of 1957.

Principal reason for the small number of women apprentices is that few trades recognized as "apprenticeable" in this country employ many women, either because of the physical requirements of the occupation or because of the length of training required.

Two trades which employ relatively significant numbers of women as apprentice trainees are bookbinding and cosmetology. The program for women bindery workers has a 2-year training period. It differs from the 4-year apprenticeship program for male bookbinders largely because women handle small and less complicated types of work. Cosmetology training, which is regulated by a licensing board in most States, is carried on under a 2-year apprenticeship program in Wisconsin.

Other occupations in which women apprentices are sometimes found include those of dressmaker, dental technician, fur finisher, fabric cutter, tailoress, and printer. During World War II, a number of women received training as welders and machine-tool operators—occupations which may be considered as part of a trade.

Part II

***Laws Governing Women's
Employment and Status***

HIGHLIGHTS

- Minimum wage—30 States, D. C., and 3 Territories have minimum-wage laws applying to women; of these, 12 apply also to men.
- Equal pay—16 States and Alaska have equal-pay laws.
- Hours of work—43 States and D. C. regulate daily and/or weekly working hours for women; 24 States and D. C. set maximum hours of 8 a day, 8–48 a week, or 48 or less a week.
- Nightwork—20 States and Puerto Rico prohibit and/or regulate the employment of adult women at night.
- Industrial homework—18 States and Puerto Rico have industrial homework laws or regulations.
- Employment before and after childbirth—6 States and Puerto Rico prohibit the employment of women immediately before and/or after childbirth.
- Occupational limitations—25 States prohibit the employment of women in specified occupations or industries or under certain working conditions considered hazardous or injurious to health.
- Jury duty—45 States, D. C., and all the Territories permit women to serve on State juries. Women are eligible for Federal jury service in all jurisdictions by virtue of the 1957 Federal Civil Rights Law.
- Guardianship—All but 6 States give both parents the same rights of natural guardianship over their minor children. No State prohibits a mother from serving as guardian if the father is deceased.
- Married women's rights—All States recognize a married woman's legal capacity to contract her personal services outside the home.
—Married women generally have control of their own earnings. However, in 6 of the 8 community-property States, the wife's earnings are under the control of the husband.

Editor's note: After this bulletin went to press, the Alaska Statehood Act was signed by the President of the United States and ratified by the people of Alaska.

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.

74. Variations in Standards

The Nation's best interests demand good labor standards for women, many of whom are mothers and homemakers as well as wage earners. In many instances, employers have voluntarily 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 that govern 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.

75. Methods of Establishing Standards

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 has often stimulated the adoption by employers of better standards for men also.

In matters such as training, seniority, and promotion, women workers are often in a particularly vulnerable situation which requires special attention. 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. These matters ordinarily are not governed by law, and fair adjustments require methods other than legislation.

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 work. 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 relate to such matters as labor-management relations, wage and hour standards, social security, employment security, job training, education, and workmen's compensation. They affect both men and women workers and, therefore, lie for the most part outside the scope of this chapter.

Wages and Hours

76. 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.

77. 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; i. e., 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 adequate to insure safe and healthful working conditions are essential in all workplaces. The standards should include:

78. Health Standards

1. Working environment: Adequate ventilation, lighting, and heating to preserve health and reduce strain and fatigue.
2. Plant facilities: Washrooms, toilets, restrooms, dressing rooms, and drinking water to be convenient and available to all workers; lunchrooms with nourishing food at reasonable prices to be provided where the size of the plant makes it practicable; facilities to conform to high standards of health and sanitation.
3. Medical services in the plant commensurate with needs of the workers.
4. A program to discover and protect against occupational hazards arising from the use of dangerous substances or processes.
5. Provision of mechanical aids for 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.

79. Safety Standards

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 workspace; 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.

Other

80. 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, 1958

During a century of development, the field of labor legislation for women has seen a tremendous increase in the number of laws and a notable improvement in the standards established. Today, each of the 48 States, the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico have laws relating to the employment of women. The principal subjects of regulation are (1) minimum wage; (2) equal pay; (3) hours of work, including maximum daily and weekly hours, day of rest, meal and rest periods; (4) industrial homework; (5) employment before and after childbirth; (6) occupational limitations; and (7) other standards, such as seating provisions and weight-lifting limitations. Not every State and Territory has enacted legislation in each of these fields, and the standards established vary widely.

In some jurisdictions different standards apply to different occupations or industries. Only the highest standards established for the principal subjects of regulation, in effect April 1, 1958, are shown in this summary.¹ Laws relating to minors are mentioned only if they also apply to women.

Minimum Wage

With the enactment of minimum-wage legislation in Vermont in 1957, a total of 30 States, the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico have minimum-wage laws. These laws apply to men as well as women in 9 States and 3 Territories. In 21 States and the District of Columbia minimum-wage laws apply only to women or to women and minors.

Most of these laws are applicable to all industries and occupations except domestic service and agriculture, which are specifically exempt in most States. Nearly all the State laws cover manufacturing. However, since enactment of the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act in 1938 establishing a basic hourly rate for both men and women em-

¹ Women's Bureau publications analyzing State minimum-wage laws and orders (Bull. 247, 50¢) and State hour laws for women (Bull. 250, 40¢) can be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. Mimeographed summaries of State labor laws affecting women will be furnished by the Women's Bureau on request (specify State).

ployed in manufacturing and other interstate industries, the benefits of State minimum-wage legislation apply chiefly to workers in local trade and service industries.

81. Historical Record

The history of minimum-wage legislation began with the passage of a minimum-wage law in Massachusetts in 1912. At that time, minimum-wage legislation was designed for the protection of women and minors, and did much to raise their extremely low wages in manufacturing (now covered by the FLSA), trade and service industries. Between 1912 and 1922, laws were enacted in 14 States,² the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico. Legislative progress was interrupted by the 1923 decision of the United States Supreme Court declaring the District of Columbia law unconstitutional, and no new minimum-wage laws were passed during the next 10 years.

The depression years of the 1930's brought a revival of interest in minimum-wage legislation, and 13 additional States and Alaska enacted laws. In 1937, the United States Supreme Court upheld the constitutionality of the minimum-wage law in the State of Washington, expressly reversing its prior decision on the District of Columbia minimum-wage law.

In 1941, Hawaii enacted a minimum-wage law, bringing to 30 the number of jurisdictions with such legislation. Between 1941 and 1955, no States enacted minimum-wage laws. However, there was a considerable amount of legislative activity in the States with minimum-wage legislation on their statute books: In some States, the laws were amended to extend coverage to men; in others, to establish or increase a statutory rate; in still others, to strengthen the procedural provisions.

In the period 1955-57, 4 States (Idaho, New Mexico, Vermont and Wyoming) enacted minimum-wage laws: Puerto Rico and Rhode Island amended their laws to establish a statutory rate; 6 States (Connecticut, Massachusetts, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Mexico, and Rhode Island) and Hawaii amended existing legislation to raise statutory rates; and other amendments in several States increased the effectiveness of existing minimum-wage laws.

² Two were later repealed.

82. Roster of Minimum-Wage States

The 34 jurisdictions having minimum-wage legislation are as follows:

Arizona	Massachusetts	Rhode Island
Arkansas	Minnesota	South Dakota
California	Nevada	Utah
Colorado	New Hampshire	Vermont
Connecticut	New Jersey	Washington
District of Columbia	New Mexico	Wisconsin
Idaho	New York	Wyoming
Illinois	North Dakota	Alaska
Kansas	Ohio	Hawaii
Kentucky	Oklahoma	Puerto Rico
Louisiana	Oregon	
Maine	Pennsylvania	

Six States and two Territories have statutory minimum-wage rates only, that is, the rate is set by the legislature. Another 5 States and 1 Territory have statutory rates and also provide for the establishment of occupation or industry rates based on recommendations of wage boards. Nineteen States and the District of Columbia have no fixed rate in the law but provide that minimum rates be established on an occupation or industry basis by wage-board action.

The following list shows for the 34 jurisdictions the type of law and employee coverage by sex:

1. Statutory rates and wage-board rates for—

Men, women, and minors

Connecticut	New Hampshire	Vermont
Massachusetts	Rhode Island	Puerto Rico

2. Wage-board rates only for—

Men, women, and minors

New York

Women and minors

Arizona	Kentucky	Oregon
California	Maine	Pennsylvania
Colorado	Minnesota	Utah
District of Columbia	New Jersey	Washington
Illinois	North Dakota	Wisconsin
Kansas	Ohio	

Females

Louisiana
Oklahoma (16 and over)

3. Statutory rates only for—

Men, women, and minors

Idaho

New Mexico

Alaska

Hawaii

Men and women (18 and over)

Wyoming

Females

Arkansas

Nevada

South Dakota

Equal Pay

Sixteen States and Alaska have equal-pay laws applicable to private employment which prohibit discrimination in rate of pay because of sex. They establish the principle of payment of a wage rate based on the job and not on the sex of the worker.

83. Historical Record

Public attention was first sharply focused on equal pay for women during World War I when large numbers of women were employed in 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 legislation. For nearly 25 years these were the only States with equal-pay laws on their statute books.

Great progress in the equal-pay field was made during World War II when 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 public were concerned with the removal of wage differentials as a means of furthering the war effort. During the period 1943–45, equal-pay laws were enacted in 4 States—Illinois, Massachusetts, New York, and Washington. In the next 4 years, 6 States—California, Connecticut, Maine, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island—passed equal-pay laws; in 1949, Alaska passed a similar law. New Jersey enacted its equal-pay law in 1952; Arkansas, Colorado, and Oregon increased the number of States with equal-pay laws to 16 by passing such legislation in 1955. In 1957, California amended its equal-pay law to strengthen existing legislation, and Nebraska adopted a resolution endorsing the policy of equal pay for equal work without discrimination as to sex and urging the adoption of this policy by all employers in the State.

84. Roster of Equal-Pay States

The 17 jurisdictions with equal-pay laws are:

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

Equal-pay laws in Colorado and Montana are applicable to public as well as private employment. In 12 States and Alaska the laws apply to most types of private employment except agricultural labor and domestic service; in Illinois and Michigan, they apply to manufacturing industries only.

Hours of Work

The first enforceable law which regulated the hours of employment of women became effective in Massachusetts in 1879. Today 45 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have established standards governing at least one aspect of women's hours of employment; i. e., maximum daily or weekly hours, day of rest, meal and rest periods, and nightwork. Some of these standards have been established by statute, others by minimum-wage or industrial-welfare orders.

85. Maximum Daily and Weekly Hours

Forty-three States and the District of Columbia have laws which regulate the number of daily and/or weekly hours of employment for women in one or more industries. These limitations have been established either by statute or by orders. Five States—Alabama, Florida, Indiana, Iowa, and West Virginia—do not have such laws; laws of Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico set no maximum daily or weekly hours but require the payment of premium rates for time worked over hours specified.

One-half of the States (24) and the District of Columbia have set maximum hours of 8 a day, or 48 or less a week, or both.

Nine States have a maximum 9-hour day, and of these all but one (Idaho) have a maximum 50- or 54-hour week.

Minnesota has no daily hour limitation in its statute; weekly hours are limited to 54.

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

The highest standard (the fewest maximum hours) for each State and the District of Columbia applicable to one or more industries is shown here. Standards for Georgia, Montana, and South Carolina are applicable to both men and women.

Highest standards established for daily and weekly hours in 44 jurisdictions are as follows:

	<i>Maximum hours</i>			<i>Maximum hours</i>	
	<i>Daily</i>	<i>Weekly</i>		<i>Daily</i>	<i>Weekly</i>
Arizona.....	8	48	Nevada.....	8	48
Arkansas*	8	--	New Hampshire.....	10	48
California	8	48	New Jersey.....	10	54
Colorado.....	8	48	New Mexico.....	8	48
Connecticut	8	48	New York.....	8	48
Delaware	10	55	North Carolina.....	9	48
District of Columbia...	8	48	North Dakota.....	8½	48
Georgia.....	10	60	Ohio.....	8	48
Idaho.....	9	--	Oklahoma	9	54
Illinois	8	48	Oregon	8	44
Kansas	8	48	Pennsylvania	10	48
Kentucky	10	60	Rhode Island.....	9	48
Louisiana.....	8	48	South Carolina.....	10	55
Maine	9	50	South Dakota.....	10	54
Maryland.....	10	60	Tennessee.....	10	50
Massachusetts.....	9	48	Texas	9	54
Michigan	9	54	Utah	8	48
Minnesota	--	54	Vermont.....	9	50
Mississippi.....	10	60	Virginia	9	48
Missouri.....	9	54	Washington	8	--
Montana.....	8	48	Wisconsin.....	9	50
Nebraska	9	54	Wyoming	8	48

*Day-of-rest law provides, in effect, for 48-hour week. Nine hours a day permitted, if time worked over 8 hours a day is paid for at one and one-half times the employee's regular rate.

Virtually all State hour laws cover manufacturing; most of them apply to a variety of other industries as well. Standards are usually the same for manufacturing and nonmanufacturing. However, in 4 States, the highest standards established for daily and weekly hours apply to nonmanufacturing. For manufacturing establishments, the maximum daily and weekly hours in these 4 States are:

	<i>Daily</i>	<i>Weekly</i>
Connecticut	9	48
Kansas	9	49½
Montana	8	--
Ohio	9	48

86. Day of Rest

Twenty-two States and the District of Columbia have established a maximum 6-day workweek for women employed in some or all industries; in 6 of these States this standard is applicable to both men and women. Jurisdictions providing for a 6-day maximum workweek are:

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

*Standard shown is applicable to females; another statute prohibits Sunday employment of all employees in commercial occupations or work in any industrial process with specified exceptions. (Employees covered by statute who are employed on Sunday must be relieved of duty for one of the following 6 days.)

Besides the 23 jurisdictions with laws limiting the workweek to 6 days, 8 States have laws applicable to both men and women which prohibit employment on Sunday with specified exceptions:

Alabama	Minnesota	Virginia
Florida	Mississippi	West Virginia
Maryland	Missouri	

Eight other States—Georgia, Maine, Michigan, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Texas, and Vermont—have Sunday “blue laws” which prohibit the performance of work by an individual. These, since they do not regulate employment, are not listed with the day-of-rest laws shown above.

Three additional jurisdictions—Rhode Island, Kentucky, and Puerto Rico—have laws which require the payment of overtime rates on the seventh day or on Sunday, thus, in effect, encouraging a 6-day workweek. The Rhode Island statute, under the jurisdiction of the Department of Labor, prohibits employment on Sundays and holidays, but allows work of necessity and charity to be performed on such days by special permit, provided time and one-half the worker’s regular rate is paid. The Kentucky law requires the payment of time and one-half the worker’s regular rate for work on seventh consecutive day for persons working at least 40 hours a week. Puerto Rico provides for a day of rest but permits work on such a day at double the employee’s regular rate. In these three jurisdictions the laws apply to both men and women.

87. Meal Period

Over half of the States (26), the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico provide that meal periods, varying from one-third of an hour to 1 hour in duration, must be allowed women employed in some or all industries; in 4 States, these provisions apply to men as well as women. Meal periods are provided for by statute, orders, or regulations in 28 jurisdictions:

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

Arkansas and North Dakota combine meal- and rest-period provisions. In addition, a Wyoming statute mentions a lunch period in a provision for required rest periods.

88. Rest Period

Eleven States have provided for rest periods (as distinct from a meal period) for women workers, 5 by statute and 6 by wage order. The statutes in Kentucky, Nevada, and Wyoming cover a variety of industries (in Wyoming, applicable to women standing continuously); laws in New York and Pennsylvania apply to elevator operators not provided with seating facilities. Rest periods in one or more industries are provided by wage orders in Arizona, California, Colorado, Oregon, Utah, and Washington. Most of the provisions are for a 10-minute rest period within each half day of work.

89. Nightwork

In 20 States and Puerto Rico, nightwork for adult women is prohibited and/or regulated in certain industries or occupations.

Twelve States and Puerto Rico prohibit nightwork for adult women in certain occupations or industries or under specified conditions:

Connecticut	New Jersey	Utah
Kansas	New York	Washington
Massachusetts	North Dakota	Wisconsin
Nebraska (except by permit)	Ohio	Puerto Rico
	South Carolina	

In North Dakota and Washington, the prohibition applies only to elevator operators; in Ohio, only to taxicab drivers. Utah prohibits the employment of women in restaurants on a split shift after midnight.

In 8 other States, as well as in several of the States which prohibit nightwork in specified industries or occupations, the employment of adult women at night is regulated either by maximum-hour provisions or by specified standards of working conditions:

California	New Hampshire	Pennsylvania
Delaware	New Mexico	Rhode Island
Maryland	Oregon	

Two additional States—Arizona and Virginia—and the District of Columbia prohibit night messenger service for females under 21; the Arizona law is also applicable to males under 21.

Other Labor Legislation

90. Industrial Homework

Eighteen States and Puerto Rico have industrial-homework laws or regulations:

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

These regulations apply to all persons, except for Oregon, where the provisions apply to women and minors only.

In addition, the Hawaii Territorial Wage and Hour Law empowers the Commission of Labor and Industrial Relations to issue rules and regulations restricting or prohibiting industrial homework where necessary to protect the standards of the wage-and-hour law.

91. Employment Before and After Childbirth

Six States and Puerto Rico prohibit the employment of women in one or more industries or occupations immediately before and/or after childbirth. These standards are established by statute or by minimum-wage and welfare orders. In addition to the prohibition of employment, Puerto Rico requires the employer to pay the working mother during an 8-week period one-half of her regular wage or

salary and provides for job security during the required absence. Women may not be employed in—

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

*Standards established by minimum-wage orders vary according to industry covered.

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

92. Occupational Limitations

Twenty-five States have laws or regulations which prohibit the employment of adult women in specified occupations or industries or under certain working conditions considered hazardous or injurious to health and safety. In the majority (17) the prohibition applies to women's employment in or about mines (clerical or similar work is excepted from the prohibition in half of these States). Nine States prohibit women from mixing, selling, or dispensing alcoholic beverages for on-premises consumption, and 1 State, Georgia, prohibits their employment in retail liquor stores. In addition, a Florida statute authorizes the city of Tampa to prohibit females from soliciting customers to buy alcoholic beverages.

The following States have occupational limitations applicable to:

	<i>Mines</i>	<i>Establishments serving alcoholic beverages</i>
Alabama	Ohio	California
Arizona	Oklahoma	Connecticut
Arkansas	Pennsylvania	Illinois*
Colorado	Utah	Indiana
Illinois	Virginia	Kentucky
Indiana	Washington	Ohio
Maryland	Wisconsin	Pennsylvania
Missouri	Wyoming	Rhode Island
New York		Wyoming

*Illinois State law empowers city and county governments to prohibit by general ordinance or resolution.

Eleven States prohibit women's employment in other places, occupations, or under certain conditions:

Arizona—In occupations requiring constant standing.

Colorado—Working around coke ovens.

Massachusetts—Working on cores over 2 cubic feet or 60 pounds.

Michigan—Handling harmful substances; in foundries without approval of Department of Labor; operating polishing wheels, belts.

Minnesota—Placing cores in or out of ovens; cleaning moving machinery.

Missouri—Cleaning or working between moving machinery.

New York—Working in basements of mercantile establishments or restaurants without permits; coremaking, or in connection with coremaking, in a room in which the oven is also in operation.

Ohio—As crossing watchman, section hand, express driver, metal molder, bellhop, gas- or electric-meter reader; in shoe-shining parlors, bowling alleys as pinsetters, poolrooms; in delivery service on motor-propelled vehicles of over 1-ton capacity; in operating freight or baggage elevators if doors are not automatically or semiautomatically controlled; in baggage and freight handling; trucking and handling by means of hand trucks heavy materials of any kind; operating emery wheels, belts; in blast furnace and smelter.

Pennsylvania—In dangerous or injurious occupations.

Washington—As bellhop.

Wisconsin—In dangerous or injurious occupations.

The majority of the States with occupational limitations for adult women also have prohibitory legislation for persons under 21 years. In addition, 9 States have occupational limitations for persons under 21 only. Most of these limitations apply to the serving of liquor and to the driving of taxicabs, school buses, or public vehicles; others prohibit the employment of females under 21 years in jobs demanding constant standing, or as messengers, bellhops, or caddies.

93. Seating and Weight Lifting

A number of jurisdictions through statute, minimum-wage orders, and other regulations have established employment standards for women relating to plant facilities such as seats, lunchrooms, dressing rooms and restrooms, toilet rooms, and to weight lifting. Only the seating and weight-lifting provisions are included in this summary.

Seating.—Forty-five States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have seating laws; all but one (the Florida law) applies exclusively to women. Illinois, Maryland, and Mississippi have no seating laws.

Weight lifting.—Ten States and Alaska have statutes, rules, regulations, or wage orders which specify the maximum weight women

employees are permitted to lift, carry, or lift and carry. Following is the highest standard established for weight lifting and carrying in the 11 jurisdictions:

Any occupation: 15 pounds in Utah; 25 in Alaska and Ohio; 35 in Michigan. Foundries and core rooms: 25 pounds in Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, and New York.

Specified occupations or industries (by wage order): 25 pounds in California and Oregon; "excessive burdens" in Washington.

94. Laws Affecting Household Employees

Although declining in importance, household employment in private homes is still one of the major occupations for women workers. About one-tenth of all employed women are in this occupational group, and practically all such workers are women. On the whole, domestic workers are excluded from most legislation. However, a major gain was made in recent years through an amendment of the old-age and survivors insurance provisions of the Federal Social Security Act to cover a large proportion of household workers.

Minimum-wage laws in some States do not specifically exempt domestic-service workers. One State—Wisconsin—has a minimum-wage order applicable to household employees. Washington State has established a weekly hour maximum for domestic workers.

6

POLITICAL AND CIVIL STATUS OF WOMEN

as of January 1, 1958

Since the adoption of the 19th amendment to the Constitution, which gave women the right to vote (1920), women have continued to make impressive gains in the economic, social, and political life of the Nation. Among other factors, the increased participation of women in the labor force has given impetus to the removal, by State legislatures, of most of the inequities that existed under common law. Recent action which some of the States have taken to improve women's status include revision of family and property laws and removal of prohibitions against service by women on juries. Following is a brief summary of some of the more important aspects of legislation affecting women's civil and political status.

Political Status

95. Citizenship

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.

96. 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 women who qualify. 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, the Virgin Islands, and Guam. In 3 States women are barred from serving on State juries: Alabama, Mississippi, and South Carolina.

The Civil Rights Act of 1957¹ has the effect of removing the disqualification of women for service on Federal juries in the 3 States where they are still barred from service on State juries. By virtue of this Act, any citizen 21 years old who has resided in the judicial district for a year is now qualified to serve on a grand or petit Federal jury, provided he or she has not been convicted of a crime, is not illiterate, or does not suffer from a physical or mental infirmity which would impair such service.

Laws permitting women to serve on juries may be divided into two general categories: compulsory-service laws, which require jury duty for all qualified persons, subject to grounds for exemption or release by the presiding judge; and voluntary-service laws, which permit a woman to be excused solely on the basis of sex. Twenty-six States,² Hawaii, the Canal Zone, and Guam have compulsory-type laws; and 19 States,³ the District of Columbia, Alaska, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands have voluntary-type laws.

¹ P. L. 85-315. 85th Cong., Sept. 9, 1957. Sec. 152, amending 28 U. S. C. 1861.

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

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

97. 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, a few States permit a married woman to establish a separate domicile for voting; permit a separate domicile for eligibility to public office; or recognize separate domicile for personal-property taxes.

Civil Status—Family Relations

98. Marriage

The marriage laws of the various States generally do not differentiate between the sexes, except in establishing minimum ages. Most States set lower minimums for women than for men. The same minimum age applies to both sexes in 9 States when parental consent is required⁴ and in 19 States when parental consent is not required.⁵ Where the consent of the parents is not required, the minimum age for women is 18 in 33 States, the District of Columbia, and Alaska; 20 or 21 in the remainder of the jurisdictions. All but 6 States⁶ and the District of Columbia require a premarital health examination for both applicants for a marriage license.

99. Divorce

All States recognize 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.

⁴ Colorado, Connecticut, Idaho, Maine, Missouri, New York, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Tennessee.

⁵ Connecticut, Florida, Idaho, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia, Wyoming.

⁶ Maryland, Minnesota, Mississippi, Nevada, South Carolina, Washington.

All States give the court discretionary power to grant alimony to the wife on divorce because of the fault of the husband, and at least 15 States ⁷ authorize the court to grant a husband alimony when the need is established and the wife is at fault.

100. Parent and Child

All but 6 States ⁸ give both parents the same rights of natural guardianship. In those 6 jurisdictions the father is preferred as natural guardian during the marriage and has 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 ⁹ 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 between the rights of the father and the mother to inherit from legitimate children. Most States allow the unmarried mother to inherit from her child.

101. Family Support

Notwithstanding the legal emancipation of women and their increased participation in the labor force, the husband and father is primarily liable for the support of the family in all States. If the father is dead or otherwise incapable of furnishing such support, the responsibility devolves on the wife and mother. In the 8 States having community-property laws of ownership between husband and wife,¹⁰ the common estate of husband and wife is liable for family support; in the remaining States and the District of Columbia the property of the husband is primarily liable for family necessities.

⁷ California, Illinois, Iowa, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Nebraska, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, Utah, Vermont, West Virginia.

⁸ Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, New Mexico, North Carolina, Texas.

⁹ Alabama, Louisiana, Texas.

¹⁰ Arizona, California, Idaho, Louisiana, Nevada, New Mexico, Texas, Washington.

In the majority of the States 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.

Uniform Reciprocal Enforcement of Support Acts.—Uniform Reciprocal Enforcement of Support Acts are now in effect in all jurisdictions of the United States, as a result of the 1957 law enacted by Congress for the District of Columbia. One of the most important features of this legislation is the provision making possible the enforcement of a support decree in any jurisdiction where the party who has liability for support may be found. In addition, these laws provide that public agencies may secure a prospective and continuing support order, as well as reimbursement for public assistance previously made. The laws have been used extensively by courts throughout the country. Their enforcement has, to a large extent, lightened the burden of welfare agencies and contributed to the preservation of the family unit by making it possible for the parties to become reconciled, since the action is civil and not criminal in character.

Civil Status—Contract and Property Law

102. 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 8 community-property States (see footnote 10) 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. In all States a married woman may contract with respect to separate property, but in 7 States¹¹ this is subject to her husband's joining in execution of a conveyance of her real property.

¹¹ Alabama, Florida, Indiana, Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Texas.

103. 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 property by specific statute in most of the States not having a community-property law. Five States¹² 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.—In the 8 States which have the community-property system (see footnote 10), the husband has principal control of most of the property acquired by joint efforts while the spouses live together. Two of the community-property States¹³ give the wife control over her earnings, even as part of the communal estate.

In the District of Columbia and the 40 States that are not community-property States, 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; however, 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.

In the absence of a will, a widow or widower inherits similar portions from the deceased spouse in all States except Delaware, North Carolina, and Tennessee. The surviving spouse's share of the estate generally depends on whether issue, parents, or next of kin survive.

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 for either spouse who survives during this period.

¹² California, Florida, Nevada, Pennsylvania, Texas.

¹³ Idaho, Washington.

Part III

Organizations of Interest to Women

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. 149.)

Social, Civic, and Religious Organizations

American Women's Voluntary Services, Inc., 125 E. 65th Street, New York 21, 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.

Association of the Junior Leagues of America, Inc., The Waldorf-Astoria, New York 22, N. Y. Nonprofit, advisory to 190 Junior Leagues in the United States, Canada, Mexico, and Hawaii with total membership of over 70,000 community volunteers. Junior League 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. First League founded in 1901.

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: 500,000.

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

Girl Scouts of the United States of America, 830 Third Avenue, New York 22, 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: 2,300,000 girls, 700,000 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: 128,000 in over 1,000 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, 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 11,000 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 2 national organizations and 93 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 nine 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: 217 individuals from 70 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 Miss Mildred K. Siegel, President, Employers Mutuals, 407 Grant Street, Wausau, Wis. 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 standards by encouraging more 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 interests 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; and to inspire and train young women for leadership. Membership: 5,000.

National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc., The, 2012 Massachusetts Avenue NW., 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. Membership: 170,000 in 3,300 Clubs in the United States, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico.

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 professional 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: 18,000 in 430 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 many of its members to become certified public accountants. Membership: 3,000.

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: 420.

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: 2,800.

Engineering

Society of Women Engineers, Engineering Societies Building, 11th Floor, 29

West 39th Street, New York 18, 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: 653.

Fashion

The Fashion Group, Inc., 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y. Founded in

1931. It is a nonprofit association of women engaged in fashion work, formed to advance the principles of applied art in industry; to maintain high standards; to provide liaison between the many facets of fashion industries; to disseminate information on trends through meetings and bulletins; and to encourage new interest in fashion through training courses and scholarships. Membership: 3,250 members with 23 regional groups in the United States, plus 2 regional groups in Canada and an allied group in Paris.

Finance

Federation of Women Shareholders in American Business, Inc., 257 Lexington

Avenue, New York 17, N. Y. Founded in 1947. Its purpose is to educate women on the importance of their vote as stockholders and their responsibilities toward management and labor, also to give women financial education. It stands for equal pay for equal work and for equal opportunity in business.

Geography

The Society of Woman Geographers, 1216 Connecticut Avenue NW., Washington

6, D. C. Founded in 1925. Its purpose is to form a medium of contact between traveled women engaged in geographical work and allied arts and sciences; to further geographical work in all its branches; to spread geographical knowledge; and to encourage geographical research. Membership: 350.

Health Services

American Association of Industrial Nurses, Inc., 170 East 61st Street, New

York 21, N. Y. Founded in 1942. The professional association of registered 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: 4,949.

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 science so that it may be of greater service to the science of medicine and public health. Membership: 3,800. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Association of Nurse Anesthetists, 3010 Prudential Plaza, Chicago 1, 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: 9,150.

American Dental Assistants Association, Inc., 410 First National Bank Building, LaPorte, Ind. Established in 1924. Its purpose is to aid in the advancement of the dental profession by encouraging persons in the dental assistant vocation to form societies whereby they may secure the advantages of lectures, clinical demonstrations, discussions and instruction in their duties; to bring to its members a realization of their responsibilities in relation to the public and a desire to render more efficient service; and to promote a desire for fellowship, cooperation, and mutual improvement among its members. Membership: 8,500.

American Dental Hygienists' Association, 100 East Ohio Street, Chicago 11, Ill. 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 3,200. Student membership 1,700.

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: 181,366.

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 professional groups, citizens, agencies and schools to the end that the physical therapy needs of the people will be met. Membership: 7,221. Approximately 80 percent are women. In addition there are 824 student members.

American Society of Medical Technologists, c/o 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: 7,500. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Society of X-Ray Technicians, c/o 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: 7,100. (Not restricted to women, but membership primarily women.)

American Speech and Hearing Association, 1001 Connecticut Avenue, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. Founded in 1925. Its purposes are to encourage basic scientific study of the processes of individual human speech and hearing, promote investigation of speech and hearing disorders, and foster improvement of therapeutic procedures with such disorders; to stimulate exchange of information among persons thus engaged, and to disseminate such information. Membership, including associates: 5,000. Not restricted to women.

Association of American Women Dentists, c/o Dr. Nancy Holmes, President, 1617 Medical Arts Building, Dallas, Tex. 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 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: 1,147 individual and sustaining members; 18,898 State associations (per capita); 82 group members; and 2,278 students enrolled as future members. (Not restricted to women, but membership primarily women.)

National Association of Social Workers, Medical Social Work Section, 95 Madison Avenue, New York 16, N. Y. (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 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: 32,000.

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: 21,885 individuals and 994 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: 13,000. (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 opportunities for professional home economists and other Association members from related fields to co-operate in the attainment of the well-being of individuals and of families, the improvement of homes, and the preservation of values significant in home-life. Membership: 24,420 individual members; 441 affiliated college clubs with 20,579 members; 145 groups of homemakers whose members meet the Association's requirements for individual membership. Six 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 13,000 in 239 affiliated clubs.

Women Underwriters, The National Association of Life Underwriters, c/o Mrs. Arlene Weitzel, CLU, New York Life Insurance Company, P. O. Box 63, Burlington, Vt. 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 (Miss) Grace B. Doering, President, Doering Building, 5484 Broadway, Cleveland, Ohio. 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 use of books and reading through improvement and extension of library services. Membership: Approximately 20,000. (Not restricted to women, but personal membership is predominantly 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., 501 Madison Avenue, New York 22, 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: 1,600.

Real Estate

Women's Council of the National Association of Real Estate Boards, 36 South Wabash Avenue, 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: 1,600.

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, 1204 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: 15,000 in 445 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: More than 11,000 in 403 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, Inc., 1616 Walnut Street, Philadelphia 3, 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: 35,000 in 1,100 clubs in 28 countries.

Zonta International, 56 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: 13,500 in 370 clubs in 15 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 by mobilizing 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: 10,000. (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 142,000.

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; 140 educational associations, 1,009 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 vocational education and to improve the quality of

vocational education in the schools, to find the aptitudes and talents of each child and prepare him for the vocation in which he is best fitted to earn his livelihood, and by so doing to contribute to the freedom and security of both the individual and the Nation. Membership: 30,000, approximately 9,000 of whom are women.

National Association of College Women, 1501 15th Street NW., Washington, D. C. Founded in 1924. Its purpose is to promote a closer union and fellowship among college women for constructive educational work; to study educational conditions with emphasis upon problems affecting college women; to raise educational standards in colleges and universities; to stimulate intellectual attainment among college women; and to arouse in college women a consciousness of their responsibility in aiding in the solution of pertinent problems on local, State, and national levels. Membership: 1,500.

National Association of Women Deans and Counselors, 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: 1,750.

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 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: 10,694,474. (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: 1,500.

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: 703,829 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 47 States, the Territories of Alaska and Hawaii, Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, 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: 184,372 in 2,821 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.)

Disabled American Veterans Auxiliary, 220 E. Washington Street, Colorado Springs, Colo. Established in 1922. Its purpose is to uphold and maintain the Constitution and laws of the United States, to advance the interests and work for the betterment of all wounded, injured, and disabled veterans and their families. Membership composed of wives, widows, mothers, daughters, sisters, granddaughters, and grandmothers of disabled veterans of World Wars I and II and the Korean conflict, and disabled women veterans. Membership: Approximately 50,000.

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, U. D. C. Memorial Building, 328 North Boulevard, Richmond 20, Va. Established in 1894. Purpose is historical, benevolent, educational, and social. Membership: Approximately 36,000. (Membership restricted to women who are descendants of Confederate Veterans of the War Between the States.)

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 the development of the business, economic, social, educational, and spiritual interests of the farm families of the Nation; and to develop agriculture. Membership: 1,587,812.

Country Women's Council, U. S. A., c/o Mrs. Everett Spangler, Chairman, 444 South 88th Street, Omaha 14, Nebr. Founded 1939. This Council is a coordinating group made up of the representatives of the 4 national and some 60 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. Verne W. Alden, President, Wellsville, Kans. 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. Homer N. Sweet, President, 163 Wellesley Street, Weston 93, Mass. 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

The Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor, in its *Directory of National and International Labor Unions in the United States, 1957*, includes a table listing the unions that report membership by sex. (See table 29 of chapter 1 for list of unions reporting 25,000 or more women members.)

American Federation of Labor—Congress of Industrial Organizations Auxiliaries, c/o Mrs. Anna P. Kelsey, President, 1073 East 27th South Street, Salt Lake City 6, Utah. Established in December 1957 by merger of the former American Federation of Women's Auxiliaries of Labor and National C. I. O. Auxiliaries. Composed of women from families of men in a trade union affiliated with the AFL-CIO. Its purpose is to further the program of the AFL-CIO; to foster the organizing of the unorganized members of union families and to educate them in the benefits of trade unionism; to aid in securing better schools and instructors; to abolish child labor; to promote legislation which will benefit the workers and their families; and to promote social and cultural activities. Membership: 50,000.

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