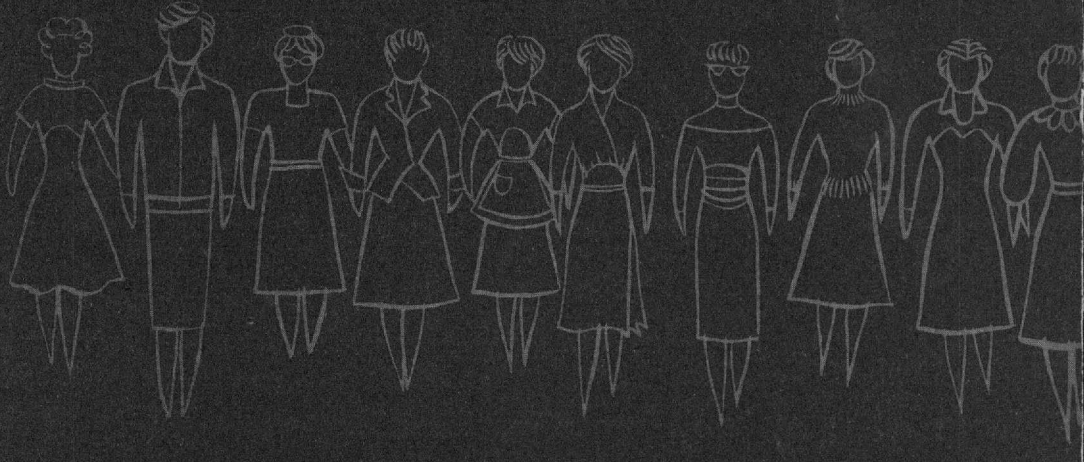
1962 HANDBOOK on WOMEN WORKERS



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
W. Willard Wirtz, *Secretary*

WOMEN'S BUREAU
Mrs. Esther Peterson, *Director*

Bulletin 285

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

THE WOMEN'S BUREAU

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

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

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

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

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

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

Approved, June 5, 1920.

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

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

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Women's Bureau
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FOREWORD

This 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 concerning women's employment and occupations, the age and marital status of women workers, their earnings and income, their education, and State laws affecting the employment and the civil and political status of women.

The publication is designed as a sourcebook for employers, labor unions, government officials, educators and counselors, women's organizations, and other individuals and organizations interested in women's employment. This 1962 edition provides information which has become available since 1960, and thus brings previous editions up to date. A bibliography is included to furnish additional source material. The index indicates by section number all references to specific subjects.

Part III presents the Executive Order which established the Commission on the Status of Women. The Commission was appointed by President John F. Kennedy in December 1961 to make a broad review of the status of women and offer recommendations for advancement of the full partnership of women in our national life.

The Division of Research and Manpower Program Development, of which Stella P. Manor was then Chief, had primary responsibility for preparation of this handbook. The first three chapters on women's employment, earnings, and education were prepared by Jean A. Wells with the assistance of Harriet G. Magruder and Grace R. Hipp. Drucilla R. Hopper assisted in preparation of the Bibliography. Alice A. Morrison, Chief of the Division of Legislation and Standards, with the assistance of Regina M. Neitzey and Laura Lee Spencer, prepared Part II (three chapters), Laws Governing Women's Employment and Status. Ruth Erskine, Iva L. Bockting, and Laura T. Danley of Editorial Branch, Division of Information and Publications, were responsible for review and edit of the Bibliography and the Organizations List.

Esther Peterson
Director, Women's Bureau

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NOTE

Because of rounding, percentages in the statistical tables do not necessarily add to 100.

Part I

Women in the Labor Force

HIGHLIGHTS

EMPLOYMENT IN 1962

Number—About 24 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 2⅓ million stenographers, typists, and secretaries.
- One-fourth are service workers and include 1¼ million waitresses and cooks.
- One-seventh are operatives, chiefly in factories.
- One-eighth are professional or technical workers and include 1¼ million teachers.

Age—Half of the women workers are 41 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, 33 percent are working.
- Of single women 20 to 64 years of age, 77 percent are working.
- About one-eighth of all women workers have children under 6.

EARNINGS IN 1961

Median income in 1961—$3,342 was received by year-round full-time women workers; $1,279 by all women with income.

EDUCATION IN 1960–61

Enrollment in schools and colleges—Almost 23 million girls and women were enrolled in the fall of 1961.
- Over half the female population 5 to 34 years of age was in school.
- The 1.4 million college women were over one-third of all college students.

Education completed—Almost 12 million women workers are high-school graduates, and 3.8 million of these have some college education.
- Almost 164,000 women earned college degrees in 1959–60.
- Women were one-third of all degree recipients.

Public vocational courses—About 1.9 million women and girls were enrolled in 1960–61.

1

WOMEN AS WORKERS

Toward Economic Equality

The growing contribution of women 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. The present working partnership of men and women 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 and subsequent high levels of economic activity have also placed greater demands on our economy and necessitated extensive employment of women.

The increased 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 to 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.

However, equality of economic opportunity for women has not been fully achieved as yet. Advancement toward this goal requires continued adjustments in our social customs and habits of thinking, as

well as concrete efforts on the part of women themselves. For women of ability who are willing to secure suitable training and experience and to accept job responsibilities, there is a variety of opportunities for advancement in the business, industrial, and professional world.

Numbers and Trends

1. Twenty-four Million Women Workers

About 24 million women were in the work force in April 1962. This figure exceeds by about 3½ million the record number of World War II: 20,430,000 women workers in July 1944. 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]		
April 1962	24, 052, 000	34	36
Start of sixties (April 1960)	23, 239, 000	33	36
Mid-fifties (April 1955)	20, 154, 000	31	34
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 (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] "Current Population Reports" for civilian labor force.
[2] Decennial census for total labor force, including Armed Forces.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics; and U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

The total labor force, which includes both the employed and the unemployed, has experienced a marked increase in the proportion of women during the past century. In 1900, women were 18 percent of the labor force, and in 1940 about 25 percent. The proportion of women 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, one out of every three workers is a woman.

The number of unemployed women—those actually seeking work—was 1,411,000 in April 1962. This means that at that time there were about 17 women who actually had jobs for every 1 who was unemployed and looking for work. The percentage of women among unemployed persons (36 percent) was slightly higher than the percentage of women among all workers (34 percent). The unemployment rate has usually been higher for women than for men in the past few years, primarily because of the increased numbers of women who enter or leave the labor force for short periods of time.

One of the factors responsible for the expansion in women's employment has been the rapid growth of our population. However, the woman labor force was nearly five times as large in 1962 as in 1900, while the female population 14 years of age and over did not quite triple—from 25 million women in 1900 to 66½ million in 1962 (table 2).

In the population, the numerical count of men and women has been reversed in recent years. Today there are 3½ million more women than men of working age (14 years and over), while in 1900 men outnumbered women by over 1⅓ million. According to the 1940 decennial census, there were still slightly fewer women, but in 1942 their number began to exceed that of men and has since been gaining steadily. The size of this population change partly explains the marked increase in women's representation in the labor force.

Another major reason for the dramatic gain in women's employment is the greater tendency of women to work outside the home. The percentage of women workers among all women of working age has jumped significantly from about 20 percent in 1900 to 28 percent in 1940 to 36 percent in 1962. Social and economic forces behind this trend were alluded to earlier. They include the easing of household tasks by use of modern appliances and equipment, the higher standard of living desired by our society, the need of an expanding economy for additional workers in occupations employing women, and changes in traditional attitudes toward women's work outside the home.

Table 2.—Employment Status of Women and Men in the Population, April 1962

Item	Women		Men	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Persons 14 years and over	66, 544, 000	100	63, 044, 000	100
In labor force	24, 086, 000	36	49, 568, 000	79
Civilian labor force	24, 052, 000	36	46, 717, 000	74
Employed	22, 641, 000	34	44, 183, 000	70
Unemployed	1, 411, 000	2	2, 534, 000	4
Armed forces	34, 000	(1)	2, 851, 000	5
Not in labor force	42, 457, 000	64	13, 475, 000	21
Keeping house	34, 987, 000	53	89, 000	(1)
In school	6, 015, 000	9	6, 062, 000	10
Unable to work	807, 000	1	1, 182, 000	2
Other	649, 000	1	6, 143, 000	10

[1] Less than 0.5 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Employment and Earnings," May 1962.

2. Most Women Are Homemakers

The majority of women continue to be homemakers, whether or not they also have jobs. About 35 million women devote their full time to homemaking. One-third of all married women, and many single women as well, are both workers and homemakers. During any one workweek in early 1962, about 36 percent of all women were either full- or part-time workers and 53 percent were full-time housewives. The remainder were primarily girls under 20 years of age and in school. This means that practically all adult women in the population are contributing to the economy either as jobholders, homemakers, or both.

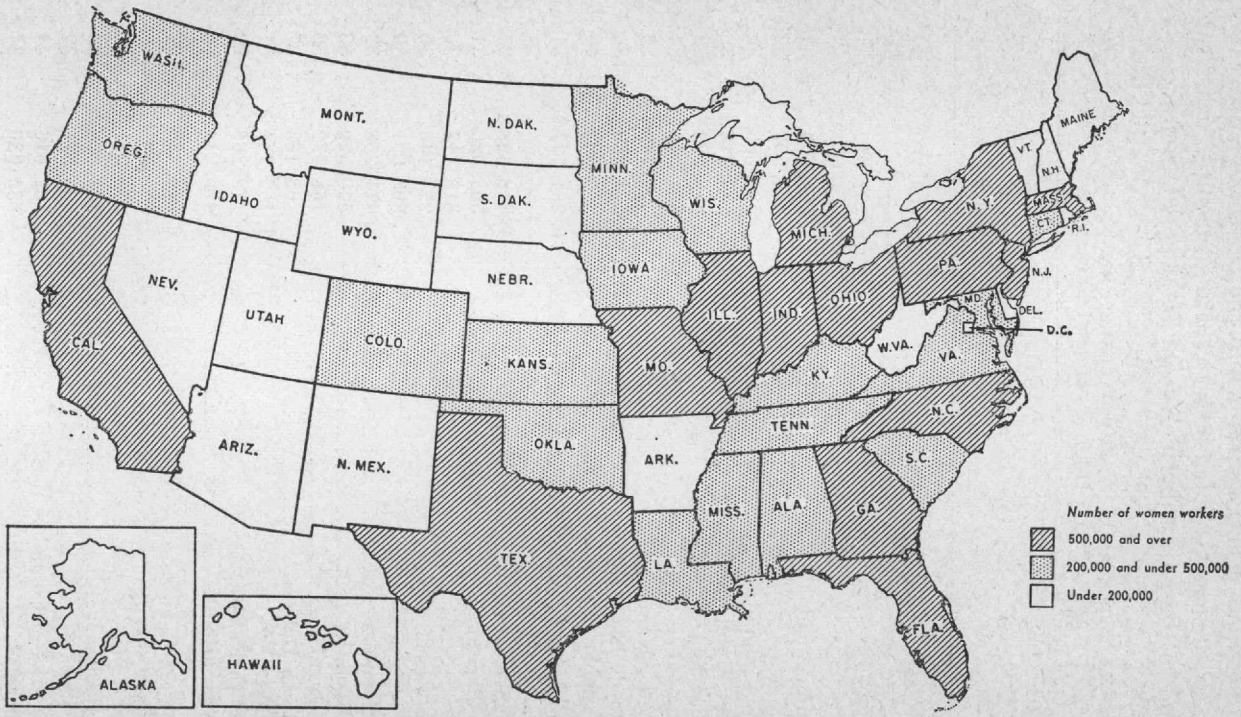
3. Geographical Locations of Women Workers

Six of our 50 States each have over one million women workers, according to the 1960 decennial census. These States, in descending order of number of women workers, are: New York, California, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Ohio, and Texas (table 3). As a result, women's employment is concentrated most heavily in the Middle Atlantic and North Central regions and in California and Texas (chart A).

Comparisons of the numbers of working women reported in the 1950 and 1960 decennial censuses show, however, a slight shift in the

Chart A

WOMEN WORKERS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1960



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Census of Population: 1960.

geographical distributions of women workers away from the Northeast and North Central States into the South and the West.[1] The changes are closely related both to the movement of American industry and to the redistribution of our total population.

Table 3.—Number Of Women Workers, by Region and State, 1960
(14 years of age and over)

Region and State	*Number* [1]	*Percent of all workers*	*Percent of all women*
United States, total	22, 409, 760	32	34
Northeast	6, 137, 979	34	36
Connecticut	366, 669	34	39
Maine	118, 596	32	34
Massachusetts	753, 506	35	38
New Hampshire	89, 318	36	40
New Jersey	812, 222	32	36
New York	2, 404, 340	34	37
Pennsylvania	1, 422, 749	32	33
Rhode Island	121, 980	34	38
Vermont	48, 599	33	34
North Central	6, 261, 147	31	34
Illinois	1, 348, 328	33	36
Indiana	563, 026	31	34
Iowa	318, 117	30	32
Kansas	254, 140	30	32
Michigan	893, 091	30	33
Minnesota	411, 258	32	34
Missouri	540, 329	32	33
Nebraska	168, 472	30	33
North Dakota	63, 163	27	30
Ohio	1, 152, 741	31	33
South Dakota	72, 268	29	31
Wisconsin	476, 214	31	34
South	6, 546, 420	32	34
Alabama	373, 381	32	32
Arkansas	183, 398	30	29
Delaware	56, 571	32	36
District of Columbia	162, 616	44	52
Florida	635, 639	34	35
Georgia	525, 397	35	38
Kentucky	291, 234	28	27

See footnote at end of table.

[1] "Women Workers in 1960: Geographical Differences," Women's Bureau Bull. No. 284. 1962.

Table 3.—Number Of Women Workers, by Region and State, 1960 (14 years of age and over)—Continued

Region and State	Number [1]	Percent of all workers	Percent of all women
South—Continued			
Louisiana	335, 975	31	30
Maryland	399, 330	32	36
Mississippi	244, 959	33	33
North Carolina	600, 051	34	37
Oklahoma	257, 587	30	30
South Carolina	310, 895	35	38
Tennessee	426, 550	32	33
Texas	1, 106, 657	30	33
Virginia	473, 734	31	34
West Virginia	162, 446	28	24
West	3, 464, 214	31	35
Alaska	23, 791	24	40
Arizona	140, 336	30	32
California	2, 041, 120	32	36
Colorado	212, 997	31	35
Hawaii	77, 636	29	40
Idaho	71, 355	28	32
Montana	73, 380	29	33
Nevada	40, 039	31	41
New Mexico	91, 509	28	30
Oregon	216, 367	32	34
Utah	94, 103	30	32
Washington	344, 478	31	34
Wyoming	37, 103	29	34

[1] Includes members of the Armed Forces.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: 1960 Census of Population.

Women's representation in the labor force varies considerably throughout the country. According to the 1960 census, the highest percentages of women among all workers prevailed in the urban District of Columbia (44 percent) and New Hampshire (36 percent), and the lowest in North Dakota (27 percent) and Alaska (24 percent). The percentages were affected by such factors as the existence of industries which employ high percentages of women, the ratio of men to women in the population, and the proportion of temporary residents.

The percentages of women workers among all women of working age centered between 32 and 36 percent in a majority of the States in 1960. The range extended from 41 percent in Nevada (52 percent in the District of Columbia) to 24 percent in West Virginia. Varia-

tions in rates are related primarily to the availability of jobs as well as to tradition and custom.

4. Outlook for Women Workers

Estimates of population growth in the near future place the total at 209 million persons by 1970. In order to produce the goods and services needed for a population of this size, the economy can reasonably expect to have 12.6 million more workers than in 1960, or a projected labor force of 86 million.[2] Almost half of the additional workers predicted for 1970 will be women—resulting in a 25-percent increase for women workers, as compared with a 14-percent increase for men.

The upward trend in white-collar employment is expected to continue for both women and men. Probably the fastest growth will occur in the professional and technical fields. Demand for clerical and sales personnel will also continue to be high. While the force of craftsmen, operatives, and managers also will increase, the number of jobs for unskilled workers will remain about the same and those for 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.

Principal 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 1960 decennial census, women were reported in all of the 479 individual occupations listed. Although there is still considerable concentration in relatively few occupations, the number of women entering new fields continues to grow.

5. Major Occupational Categories

The occupational activities of those in the labor force are generally divided into 11 broad categories in monthly employment figures collected by Bureau of the Census and published by Bureau of Labor Statistics. Among women, three-fifths were clerical workers, service

[2] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Interim Revised Projections of U.S. Labor Force, 1965–75, "Special Labor Force Report," No. 24.

workers, and operatives in April 1962. Professional workers were the fourth largest group, with private-household, sales, and managerial workers following in that order. The remaining group was made up of farmworkers, craftsmen, and laborers (table 4).

Table 4.—Occupational Groups of Employed Women, April 1962

Occupational group	*Number (in thousands)*	*Percent distribution*	*Percent of all workers*
All employed women	22, 641	100	34
Professional, technical, kindred workers	[1] 2, 941	13	37
Medical and other health workers	776	------	57
Teachers (except college)	1, 258	------	70
Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)	1, 148	5	15
Clerical and kindred workers	[1] 6, 948	31	69
Stenographers, typists, secretaries	2, 411	------	97
Sales workers	[1] 1, 685	7	39
Retail trade	1, 499	------	58
Service workers (except private household)	[1] 3, 364	15	54
Waitresses, cooks, and barmaids	1, 295	------	73
Operatives and kindred workers	[1] 3, 290	15	28
Durable-goods manufacturing	899	------	25
Nondurable-goods manufacturing	1, 643	------	51
Private-household workers	2, 275	10	98
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred workers	239	1	3
Farmers and farm managers	137	1	5
Farm laborers and foremen	504	2	26
Paid workers	81	------	7
Unpaid family workers	423	------	59
Laborers (except farm and mine)	112	(2)	3

[1] Includes women in occupations not shown separately in this category.
[2] Less than 0.5 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Employment and Earnings," May 1962.

The most spectacular part of the story about women's recent employment expansion [3] is the increase in women clerical workers from 2½ million in 1940 to almost 7 million in 1962 (table 5). 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

[3] For information concerning the period from 1940 to 1950, see "Changes in Women's Occupations, 1940–50," Women's Bureau Bull. No. 253. 1954.

Table 5.—Occupational Trend of Employed Women

Occupational group	Number of women (in thousands)			Percent distribution		
	1962	1950	1940	1962	1950	1940
All employed women	22, 641	17, 176	11, 920	100	100	100
Professional workers	2, 941	1, 862	1, 570	13	11	13
Managers, officials, proprietors	1, 148	941	450	5	5	4
Clerical workers	6, 948	4, 539	2, 530	31	26	21
Sales workers	1, 685	1, 516	830	7	9	7
Service workers (except household)	3, 364	2, 168	1, 350	15	13	11
Operatives	3, 290	3, 215	2, 190	15	19	18
Private-household workers	2, 275	1, 771	2, 100	10	10	18
Craftsmen, foremen	239	181	110	1	1	1
Farmers, farm managers	137	253	690	1	1	6
Farm laborers, foremen	504	663		2	4	
Laborers (except farm and mine)	112	68	100	(1)	(1)	1

[1] Less than 0.5 percent.

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

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

Professional and service occupations also employed considerably more women in 1962 than they had in 1940 or 1950. During the 22-year period, the number of women in professional occupations increased by 1⅓ million; and those in service occupations (outside private households) by 2 million.

While the number of women in factory and other operative occupations is higher in 1962 than it was 10 or 20 years ago, the increase has not kept pace with the overall expansion in women's employment. In 1962, there were 3.3 million women operatives—about 15 percent of all women workers. However, in 1950 the smaller number of 3.2 million women operatives had been almost 19 percent of the total. 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.

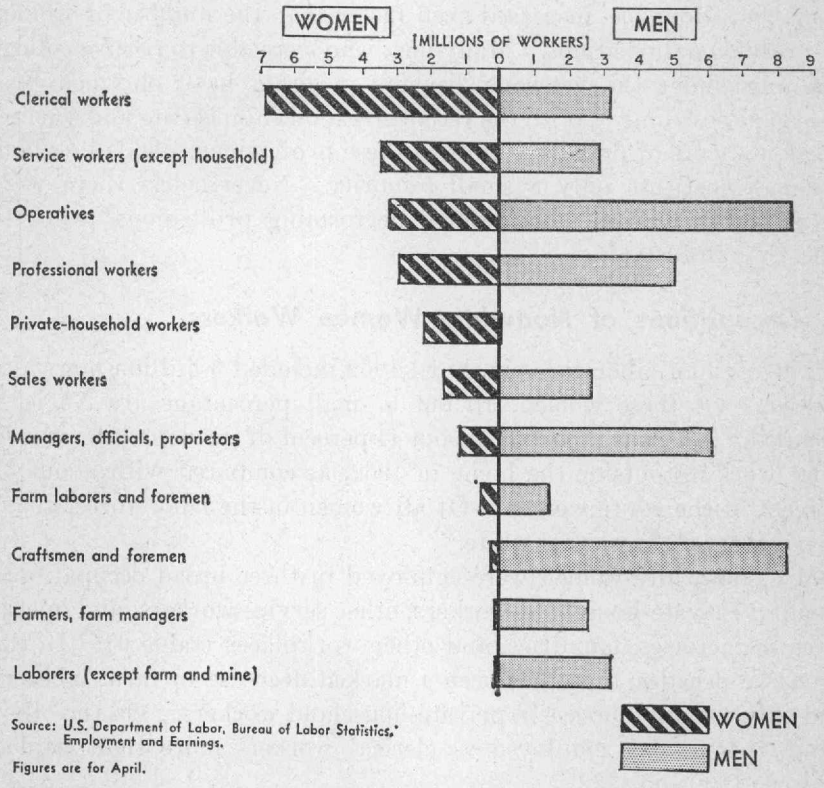
The trend has been reversed for three other occupational groups at a time when women's employment has been expanding in the

occupational areas where education and skill are important. Women private-household workers were slightly more numerous in 1962 than in 1940, but their proportion of all employed women was down to 10 percent from 18 percent. This drop can be explained by the long-run decline in the relative significance of domestic work for employed women. In the last 22 years, there have been decreases also in the proportions of women workers in two other occupations—those of general laborers and farm workers.

Occupations with the largest numbers of women workers differ from those of men (chart B). 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 1962. On the other hand, the percentages of clerical, service, or sales workers were much smaller among men than among women.

Chart B

OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS OF EMPLOYED MEN AND WOMEN, 1962



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings.

Figures are for April.

6. 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 constitute 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 two-fifths), operatives (over one-fourth), and managers, officials, and proprietors (one-seventh). 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 1962 than it was in 1940. A marked gain occurred for clerical workers, among whom the proportion of women rose from a little over half in 1940 to over two-thirds in 1962. 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 significant decline in the proportion of women. This occurred, however, only because the number of men in professional positions has increased even faster than the number of women in professional positions. 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 there were actually 1⅓ million more women performing professional work in 1962 than in 1940.

7. Occupations of Nonwhite Women Workers

The civilian labor force in April 1962 included 3 million nonwhite women. Of these women, all but a small percentage are Negroes, according to census reports. About 44 percent of the nonwhite women were working outside the home in 1962, as compared with about 35 percent of the white women. Of all women in the labor force, about one of every eight was nonwhite.

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 6). In the past two 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 more than tripled between 1950 and 1962.

Table 6.—Occupational Groups of Nonwhite Employed Women, 1962

Occupational group	Number (in thousands)	Percent distribution
Total employed	2,727	100
Professional workers	202	7
Managers, officials, proprietors	46	2
Clerical workers	278	10
Sales workers	60	2
Service workers (except household)	614	23
Operatives	398	15
Private-household workers	1,017	37
Craftsmen and foremen	19	1
Farmers, farm managers	8	(1)
Farm laborers and foremen	65	2
Laborers (except farm and mine)	22	1

[1] Less than 0.5 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Employment and Earnings," May 1962.

8. Detailed Occupations

Employment information for a large number of detailed occupational groups of workers is collected only in the decennial censuses. These surveys have continually shown that the majority of women workers are concentrated in a relatively small number of occupations. In 1960, over half were employed in the occupations listed in table 7.

The largest detailed occupation for women—secretary—covered 1,423,352 women in 1960 (decennial census). In addition, there were 258,554 stenographers and 496,735 typists. The number of women in these three occupations totaled 2,411,000 in April 1962, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics report which gives monthly employment figures not only for very broad occupational groups, but also for a few more detailed occupational groups. The number of women employed as stenographers, typists, and secretaries in April 1960 jumped 45 percent from 1950 and 120 percent from 1940. This gain is evidence of the continually growing importance of this group in our modern society. With the development of large-scale operations in business, industry, and government has come a greater need for written communications and accurate recordkeeping. Among the many clerical jobs developed or expanded to meet changing office requirements, bookkeepers, cashiers, and office-machine operators[4] have had the largest increases in numbers.

[4] For additional information, see "Employment Opportunities for Women as Secretaries, Stenographers, Typists, and as Office-Machine Operators and Cashiers," Women's Bureau Bull. No. 263. 1957.

Table 7.—The 25 Largest Occupations of Women, 1960

Rank	Occupation	Women employed	
		Number	Percent of total in occupation
1.	Secretaries	1, 423, 352	97
2.	Saleswomen, salesclerks (retail)	1, 397, 364	54
3.	Private-household workers [1]	1, 162, 683	96
4.	Teachers (elementary schools)	860, 413	86
5.	Bookkeepers	764, 054	84
6.	Waitresses	714, 827	87
7.	Nurses, professional	567, 884	98
8.	Sewers and stitchers (mfg.)	534, 258	94
9.	Typists	496, 735	95
10.	Cashiers	367, 954	78
11.	Cooks (except private household)	361, 772	64
12.	Telephone operators	341, 797	96
13.	Babysitters (private household)	319, 735	98
14.	Attendants (hospitals and other institutions)	288, 268	74
15.	Laundry and dry cleaning operatives	277, 396	72
16.	Assemblers	270, 769	44
17.	Apparel and accessory operatives	270, 619	75
18.	Hairdressers and cosmetologists	267, 050	89
19.	Packers and wrappers [1]	262, 935	60
20.	Stenographers	258, 554	96
21.	Teachers (secondary schools)	243, 452	47
22.	Office-machine operators	227, 849	74
23.	Checkers, examiners, inspectors (mfg.)	215, 066	45
24.	Practical nurses	197, 115	96
25.	Kitchen workers [1] (except household)	179, 796	59

[1] Excludes those listed separately by the Bureau of the Census.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: 1960 Census of Population.

Among sales workers there were 1,499,000 saleswomen engaged in retail trade, as indicated by the April 1962 employment report. These included saleswomen in department, 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 1,295,000 women in April 1962.

9. Women in Professional Positions

The 2,941,000 women performing professional and technical work in April 1962 were 58 percent more than the number in 1950 and 87 percent more than in 1940. However, the proportion of women professional workers in the total woman labor force was the same in 1962 as in 1940. As the occupational group with the fourth largest number of women workers, professional workers are exceeded by clerical workers, service workers, and operatives.

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 1,258,000 women teachers (except college) at work in April 1962 equaled 43 percent of all professional women, according to the monthly report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. 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 of public-school classroom teachers in March 1961 was obtained in a special study by the National Education Association.[5] About 14 percent of the teachers worked in metropolitan school districts with 50,000 or more pupils each. About two-thirds of all the teachers were women—with a slightly higher percentage of women in the metropolitan schools than elsewhere. Median age of the teachers was 41 years; in the large districts teachers were 2 years older (43 years) than those elsewhere. About two-thirds of the teachers were married, one-fifth were single, and the remainder were widowed, separated, or divorced. With respect to their education, about three-fifths had a first-level professional degree; almost one-fourth had a master's degree; and most of the others had no degree. The group averaged 11 years of teaching experience.

Among medical and other health workers (the only other category of professional workers for whom employment figures are reported regularly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics), there were 776,000 women in April 1962, or 26 percent of all women in professional positions. The largest single occupation in this group is that of professional nurses;[6] a total of 567,884 were employed in the labor force in the 1960 census. The number of women physicians in the United States was 15,513. Other health occupations with significant numbers of women include medical technologists, X-ray technicians, physical therapists, dietitians, pharmacists, occupational therapists, and medical record librarians.

Women also hold a wide variety of professional jobs outside the teaching and health fields. Relatively large numbers of women are musicians and music teachers, accountants and auditors, social workers, librarians, and editors and reporters. The 7,434 women lawyers reported in the 1960 census represent a small but growing proportion of lawyers in this country.[7] Small numbers of women

[5] "Profile of the Metropolitan Teacher," National Education Association Research Bull., Vol. 40, No. 3, October 1962.

[6] For additional information, see "Nurses and Other Hospital Personnel, Their Earnings and Employment Conditions," Women's Bureau Pamphlet 6. Reprinted with Supplement. 1961.

[7] "Employment Opportunities for Women in Legal Work," Women's Bureau Bull. No. 265. 1958.

are also engaged in professions considered relatively unusual for women, such as engineering, architecture, geology, the ministry, and forestry.

The longtime 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 professional workers. They were also about two-thirds of the 2¾ million women reported in professional work in the 1960 census. Of the many other professions to which women were attracted, they made particularly large numerical gains as accountants and auditors, totaling 18,265 in 1940, 55,660 in 1950, and 79,045 in 1960. Percentagewise their numbers increased from 1 to 3 percent of all women professional workers and from 8 to 17 percent of all accountants and auditors [8] during the 20-year period.

Of particular interest, in view of our present-day emphasis on scientific and engineering skills, are the relatively large increases in women scientists,[9] technicians,[10] and engineers,[11]—evidence that women are sharing in the expanding demand for qualified personnel. In mathematics,[12] statistics, retail trade,[13] and insurance,[14] the demand for larger numbers of trained personnel also offers women opportunities for employment in a greater variety of jobs, provided they acquire the necessary education and training.

10. Women Proprietors, Officials, Managers

Over 1 million women were classified by the April 1962 labor force report as proprietors, officials, and managers (except farm). This is over twice as many as in 1940 and about one-fifth more than in 1950. 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

[8] For additional information, see "Employment Opportunities for Women in Professional Accounting," Women's Bureau Bull. No. 258. 1955.

[9] "Careers for Women in the Physical Sciences," Women's Bureau Bull. No. 270. 1959. and "Careers for Women in the Biological Sciences," Women's Bureau Bull. No. 278. 1961.

[10] "Careers for Women as Technicians," Women's Bureau Bull. No. 282. 1962.

[11] "Employment Opportunities for Women in Professional Engineering," Women's Bureau Bull. No. 254. 1954.

[12] "Employment Opportunities for Women Mathematicians and Statisticians," Women's Bureau Bull. No. 262. 1956.

[13] "Careers for Women in Retailing," Women's Bureau Bull. No. 271. 1959.

[14] "Life Insurance Selling—Careers for Women as Life Underwriters," Women's Bureau Bull. No. 279. 1961.

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

11. 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 more than 2,000 urban school systems, made by the National Education Association in 1955–56,[15] 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.

[15] "Status of Urban School Systems, 1955–56," National Education Association.

Women constituted over one-fourth of the administrators in colleges and universities but were concentrated in women's colleges, according to a study made by the National Council of Administrative Women in Education in 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

12. Distribution of Women by Industry

More than 95 percent of all employed women were working in nonagricultural industries in 1961, and almost two-thirds of these were engaged in the distribution of goods and services (table 8). Among the 9.4 million women providing services, over 5 million were employed in professional services, such as schools, hospitals, and welfare agencies. More than 3¾ million women worked in establishments offering personal services, such as hotels, laundries, and beauty shops. Another half million women were engaged in business services and recreation and entertainment. In service industries excluding personal services, women's total employment has increased 155 percent since 1940; the small increase of only 21 percent more women workers engaged in personal services results from the very small increase 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 1961. Of the women engaged in the distribution of goods, slightly over 4 million were employed in retail trade and almost one-half million in wholesale trade.

Manufacturing industries, also large employers of women workers, had about 4¼ million women employees in 1961. In finance, insurance, and real estate establishments, which employed almost 1½ million women in 1961, the proportion of women increased from one-

Table 8.—Major Industry Group of Employed Women: 1961, 1950, 1940

Industry group	Number (in thousands) 1961	Percent distribution 1961	1950	1940	Percent of all workers 1961	1950	1940
Total	22,413	100	100	100	34	29	26
Services	9,388	42	36	45	59	55	59
Professional and related	5,074	23	16	17	60	55	57
Personal	3,801	17	18	26	75	71	73
Business	338	2	1	1	19	13	10
Entertainment and recreation	175	1	1	1	31	24	21
Manufacturing	4,258	19	23	21	26	25	23
Retail trade	4,194	19	20	17	40	36	31
Finance, insurance, real estate	1,491	7	5	4	47	43	33
Public administration	862	4	4	3	26	25	20
Transportation, communications	828	4	4	3	18	15	12
Agriculture	722	3	4	5	14	10	6
Wholesale trade	491	2	3	2	20	19	16
Construction	151	1	(1)	(1)	4	2	2
Mining	28	(1)	(1)	(1)	5	2	1

[1] Less than 0.5 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Current Population Reports."

third of the workers in 1940 to almost one-half in 1961. Of the remaining major industry groups, each employed fewer than 1 million women workers (chart C).

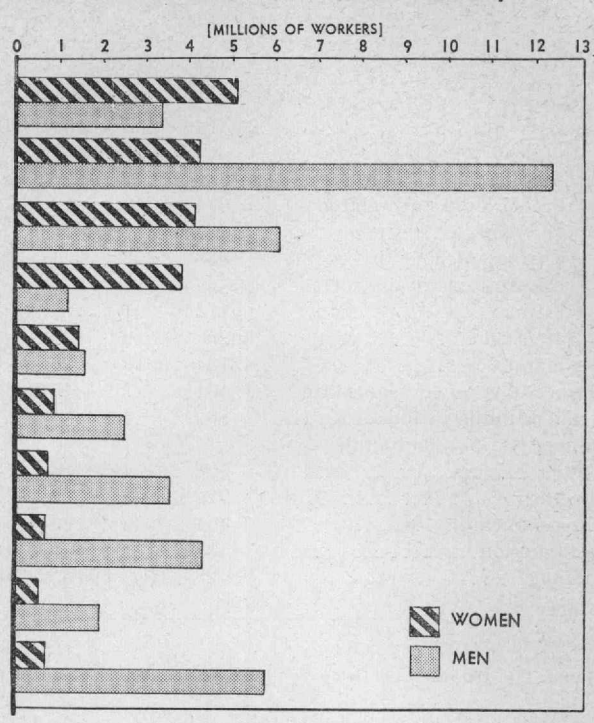
13. Women as Nonfarm Workers

The numbers of women employed in certain detailed industries are issued quarterly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures for women manufacturing employees have appeared since October 1940 (with a few breaks in continuity), but those for women in selected nonmanufacturing industries were first released in 1962.

The BLS employment reports are obtained from establishment payrolls and may include some duplications in the case of persons employed by more than one firm. As a result, some of these employment figures may differ from Bureau of the Census figures shown in section 12. Differences may stem also from the fact that the two reports refer to different survey periods and, possibly even more important, the Census survey of householders includes self-employed and unpaid family workers.

Chart C

MAJOR INDUSTRIES OF EMPLOYED MEN AND WOMEN, 1961



[1] Includes business services, entertainment and recreation, construction, and mining.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Current Population Reports," P-60, No. 37.

Factory workers.—One-fifth of all employed women are working in manufacturing industries, and they constitute about one-fourth of all manufacturing 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 heavy manufacturing industries, less than half the women employees have production jobs. In other lighter manufacturing industries, such as apparel and textiles which women entered during early periods of labor scarcity, more than nine-tenths of the women are production workers.

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 2.6 million women were employed by nondurable (consumer) goods industries in January 1962 (table 9). The consumer industries

Table 9.—Women in Manufacturing Industries: 1962 and 1950

Industry	1962					
	Number of women	Percent change from 1950	Percent distribution		Percent of all workers	
			1962	1950	1962	1950
Total manufacturing	4,264,000	+13	100	100	26	26
NONDURABLE GOODS						
Subtotal	2,590,000	+1	61	68	36	37
Apparel, and related products	935,000	+7	22	23	78	74
Textile-mill products	382,500	−28	9	14	44	44
Food and kindred products	379,800	−3	9	10	22	23
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	260,500	+26	6	5	28	28
Leather and leather products	187,400	+5	4	5	52	46
Chemicals and allied products	153,200	+35	4	3	18	19
Paper and allied products	123,000	+9	3	3	21	24
Rubber and miscellaneous plastic products	108,500	+31	3	2	29	29
Tobacco manufactures	43,700	−30	1	2	48	57
Petroleum refining and related industries	16,500	+56	(1)	(1)	8	5
DURABLE GOODS						
Subtotal	1,674,000	+40	39	32	18	16
Electrical equipment and supplies	556,400	+80	13	8	37	35
Machinery (except electrical)	191,400	+37	4	4	13	13
Fabricated metal products	183,500	+18	4	4	17	18
Transportation equipment	179,000	+55	4	3	11	10
Instruments and related products	117,500	+51	3	2	33	33
Stone, clay, and glass products	85,300	+12	2	2	16	15
Primary-metal industries	72,800	+13	2	2	6	6
Furniture and fixtures	64,400	+16	2	1	17	16
Lumber and wood products (except furniture)	42,400	−17	1	1	7	7
Ordnance and accessories	39,300	+859	1	(1)	19	16
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	141,700	−6	3	4	39	41

[1] Less than 0.5 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Employment and Earnings." Figures are for January 1962 and January 1950.

were relatively more important for women than men, as they accounted for 61 percent of women factory workers but only 44 percent of all factory workers. Manufacturers of apparel, textiles, and food products had the largest numbers of women workers in the nondurable division. In three industries—tobacco, textiles, and food manufacturing—there were fewer women in 1962 than in 1950. Women's total employment in nondurable goods industries, which has had a small net gain since 1950, shows a seasonal influence, usually reaching a peak in October.

The durable-goods industries employed almost 1.7 million women in 1962—almost half a million more than in 1950. Among the individual industries in this division, only lumber and wood products had fewer women workers in 1962 than 1950. The overall gain since 1950 stems largely from two main factors: Marked industrial expansion in response to economic and military needs has brought a great number of new jobs—both white collar and blue collar—in durable-goods industries. 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 two-fifths of the women factory workers in 1962, in contrast to one-third in 1950. Largest employer of women in this industry division is the electrical equipment and supplies industry, which includes firms manufacturing radio and television sets, telephones, electric lamps, electric measuring instruments, and household appliances.

Nonmanufacturing workers.—There are generally a greater percentage of women in the work force of nonmanufacturing industries than of manufacturing industries. Among the selected nonmanufacturing industries surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in October 1961, the largest percentages of women among total workers were found in hospitals (81 percent), general merchandise stores (71 percent), apparel and accessory stores (66 percent), and laundries (65 percent) (table 10). On the other hand, nonmanufacturing industries with low percentages of women included mining (5 percent), motor freight transportation (8 percent), passenger transit (8 percent), and wholesale trade (23 percent).

Of the many service industries, relatively few are reported in the women's employment survey made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Among those surveyed, the industries with the largest numbers of women were hospitals (936,600) and laundries, cleaning, and dyeing plants (335,700). In the retail trade industry, which had over 3½ million women employees in 1961, the largest numbers of women worked in general merchandise stores, which included department stores (649,200) and limited-price variety stores (280,600). Al-

Table 10.—Women in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, 1961 and 1960

Industry	October 1961			
	Number of women	Percent change from 1960[1]	Percent of all workers	
			1961	1960
Finance, insurance, and real estate	1,379,000	+2	50	50
Banking	423,600	+2	61	61
Credit agencies, other than banks	142,000	+1	54	55
Insurance agents, brokers, and services	112,800	(2)	56	57
Insurance carriers	424,500	+1	50	50
Real estate	200,500	+2	37	37
Security dealers and exchanges	39,800	+13	31	31
Other finance, insurance, and real estate	36,200	+3	48	46
Mining	34,000	−3	5	5
Retail trade	3,618,000	−1	43	43
Apparel and accessories stores	428,900	+2	66	65
Eating and drinking places	893,800	−1	55	55
Food stores	446,200	−2	33	33
Furniture and appliance stores	112,200	−4	27	28
General merchandise stores	1,127,100	−1	71	72
Other retail trade	609,300	−2	22	22
Services and miscellaneous:				
Advertising	37,200	+2	34	33
Hospitals	936,600	+3	81	81
Hotels, tourist courts, and motels	248,600	+3	47	49
Laundries, cleaning and dyeing plants	335,700	−1	65	65
Motion pictures	63,800	−4	35	35
Transportation and public utilities:				
Air transportation	43,800	+5	22	22
Communication	418,100	−3	51	52
Electric, gas, and sanitary services	92,300	(2)	15	15
Local and interurban passenger transit	20,300	−1	8	7
Motor freight transportation and storage	77,500	+1	8	9
Pipeline transportation	1,600	0	7	7
Wholesale trade	690,000	−2	23	23

[1] Figures are for October of both years.
[2] Less than 0.5 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Employment and Earnings," August 1962.

though women's total employment in service and trade industries has increased markedly over the past two decades, many of the industry divisions surveyed in these two fields had fewer women employees in 1961 than in 1960.

More than 1⅓ million women were employed in the finance, insurance, and real estate industry in October 1961. About 70 percent of these women employees were concentrated in insurance firms (537,300) and banks (423,600). Women's total employment in this major industry group rose 2 percent in the 12 months preceding October 1961. The greatest percentage increase (13 percent) was recorded by security dealers and exchanges.

Among the transportation and public utility industries, communication firms reported that their 418,100 women employees in October 1961 represented a 3 percent employment decrease over the previous year, while air transportation companies indicated their 43,800 women employees were a 5 percent gain.

14. Women on Farms

About 5 million women—only 7 percent of the women 14 years of age and over in the United States—were estimated to be living on farms in April 1961. One-third (1,603,000) of the farmwomen were in the labor force (table 11). These numbers were much lower than those reported prior to 1960 for two reasons: the steady decline in farm population since 1933, and the revision in 1960 of the definition of a farm, based on land acreage and value of agricultural products sold. Almost half of the employed women residing on farms in April 1961 were working wholly or primarily in agriculture; the majority of women in this group were unpaid family workers. Most of the remaining were employed in nonagricultural industries and 4 percent were unemployed. Principal factors explaining the move away from farm dwellings and farmwork have been lower manpower requirements in agriculture, increased employment opportunities in urban areas, and relatively higher financial returns from many types of nonfarmwork.

Urbanization of the population has been a factor in the increase of women's employment during the past two decades. Just as some 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. Women's participation in the labor force is influenced to some extent by their residence because the percentage of farm women in the labor force is usually lower than the percentage of all women in the labor force. In April 1961, 33 percent of farm women were gainfully employed, as compared with 37 percent of all women.

About 701,000 women—3 percent of all women workers—were employed in agricultural industries in April 1961. Of these, 120,000 were farmers and farm managers and 539,000 were farm laborers and foremen. The remainder were performing a variety of clerical, sales,

Table 11.—Employment Status of Women Living on Farms, 1961

Employment status	*Number of women 14 years and over*	*Percent distribution*	*Women as percent of total persons*
Women living on farms	4, 874, 000	100	47
In labor force	1, 603, 000	33	26
Employed	1, 543, 000	32	26
Agriculture	763, 000	16	19
Nonagriculture	780, 000	16	40
Unemployed	60, 000	1	39
Not in labor force	3, 271, 000	67	78

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Current Population Reports," P-27, No. 31.

or service operations for agricultural firms. These figures are fairly low for agricultural employment, as the peak periods of farm activity come in late spring and fall. 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 or October. During 1961, women's agricultural employment reached 1,430,000 in June and 1,339,000 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.

15. Women in the Railroad Industry

The railroad industry, which has annually employed from 1½ to 3 million workers during the past two 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 study made by the U.S. Railroad Retirement Board.[16] Women's employment in the industry reached a peak of 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

[16] "Women in the Railroad Industry," Railroad Retirement Board, The Monthly Review, December 1957 (p. 231).

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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 by that date had 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 in 1955 women's average (median) length of service in the industry amounted to 9 years. Median age of the women employees was 40 years—about 4 years lower than that of railroadmen.

At least two-thirds of 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.

16. Women in the Federal Service

More than 560,000 women are now working for the Federal Government, the largest single employer in the Nation. This number, slightly over 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 for more employees to carry out the increased responsibilities resulting from an expanding economy as well as to defense requirements (table 12).

About one out of every four Federal employees is a woman. The variety of jobs held by women in Federal service is extensive.[17] About 360,000 women, 78 percent of the 460,000 women white-collar workers employed by the Federal Government in the United States in October 1959, were in clerical and related jobs—with the largest numbers employed as clerk-typists, clerk-stenographers, and secretaries. Another 37,000 women, 8 percent, held jobs which may be described as semiprofessional, semiscientific, or semitechnical. About 35,000 women, almost 8 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 5 percent of the women were miscellaneous workers, such as technicians and specialists. (See ch. 2, table 23 for numbers of women and average salaries in selected occupations.)

[17] "Women in the Federal Service, 1939–1959," Women's Bureau Pamphlet 4 Revised, 1962, and "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.

Table 12.—Women in the Federal Service

(Selected years between 1923 and 1961)

Year [1]	Women		
	Number of women [2]	As percent of total employees	Percent of women in District of Columbia area
1961	[3] 560, 593	25	17
1958	533, 001	24	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] Figures are for June of each year except 1944 (July) and 1956, 1958, and 1961 (December).

[2] Covers civilian employees in continental United States.

[3] The total number of women Federal employees in the United States and foreign countries was 593,579 in 1961.

Source: U.S. Civil Service Commission.

The 40,649 women reported by the Civil Service Commission as employed in blue-collar occupations on October 31, 1959 constituted 6 percent of all Federal blue-collar workers and 8 percent of all women Federal employees.[18] Forty percent of the blue-collar women workers were engaged in such service operations as laundering and dry cleaning. In addition, large percentages were assigned to "manual labor," "fabric, fur and textile work," and "printing and reproduction." About three-fourths of the total group worked for the military establishments or the Veterans' Administration.

Women administrators in the Federal Government have responsible positions as department and agency officials and as members of commissions 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 1962 were Assistant Secretary of Labor, Assistant Administrator for Human Resources and Social

[18] Civil Service Commission: "Occupations and Salaries of Women in the Federal Service, October 31, 1959," Pamphlet 62. 1962.

Development (A.I.D.), Public Housing Commissioner, the Treasurer of the United States, Deputy Assistant Secretary of State for Public Affairs, Director of the Passport Office, Director of the Mint, Director of the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Chief of the Children's Bureau, and Director of the Bureau of Public Assistance. Other important positions held by women included White House physician, Chief Judge of a Circuit Court of Appeals, Judge of the U.S. District Court for the District of Columbia, Judge of the U.S. Customs Court, Assistant Surgeon General, and Deputy Administrator of Agricultural Research Service.

17. Women in Public Office

In the legislative branch of the Federal Government, 2 women were in the Senate and 18 women in the House of Representatives in the 87th Session of Congress. Congresswomen are about evenly divided between the two political parties.[19]

In 1961, 328 women were in State legislatures—34 in upper houses and 294 in lower houses. There was at least one woman in the legislature of every State except Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Wisconsin. Women in numerous States had achieved statewide elective positions, including seven as Secretary of State, and others as Treasurer, members of the State Board of Education, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Auditor, and Trustees of the State University.

A considerable number of women (estimated around 925) have high-level appointive positions in the States. They serve in Governors' cabinets, as deputies and assistants to department heads, and as members of State boards and commissions. In addition, it is estimated that about 20,000 women serve in such county positions as judge, justice of the peace, county clerk, tax collector, 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.[20]

In the international field, women have represented the United States regularly as Delegates in the U.N. General Assembly, the UNESCO General Conference, UNICEF, the Organization of American States, and other bodies. At the present time, women serve as representatives of the United States on three United Nations Commissions (Human Rights Commission, Social Commission, and Status

[19] For the latest in a series of biographical sketches of women in Congress, see "Women of the 87th Congress," Women's Bureau, 1961.

[20] More detailed information may be obtained from the Women's Division of the Republican National Committee and from the Office of Women's Activities of the Democratic National Committee.

of Women Commission), and women serve in various capacities in the U.S. Permanent Mission to the United Nations. The United States is a member of the Inter-American Commission of Women and a woman represents the United States in the Inter-American Children's Institute. In addition, U.S. delegations to international conferences usually include women among their advisers and in other technical capacities.

18. 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).

At the end of February 1962 there were 32,819 women on active duty in the armed services. They included 21,510 enlisted women who constituted about 1 percent of total enlisted personnel, and 11,309 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 military services. Of these, 183,484 were enlisted women, 67,507 were nurses and other medical personnel, and 15,193 were 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 hold supervisory jobs, such as office managers and personnel experts. Others are assigned as teletype or switchboard operators, chauffeurs, and in food services, radio maintenance, repair and cleaning of clothing, entertainment, information, intelligence, weather observation, and other technical operations.[21]

The U.S. Veterans' Administration estimates that in 1962 there are approximately 416,000 women veterans, less than 2 percent of all war veterans. Of the total number of women veterans, about 24,000 are veterans from World War I, 318,000 from World War II, and 74,000

[21] See "Careers for Women in the Armed Forces," U.S. Department of Defense in cooperation with the Women's Bureau. 1957.

from the Korean war. Both women and men veterans are entitled to the same benefits as, for example, reemployment and educational benefits.

19. Women in the Foreign Service

A total of 2,606 women served in the Foreign Service of the United States in April 1962. They equaled three-tenths of all Foreign Service employees. Top position held by a woman was that of Ambassador to Ceylon—the only woman among 100 chiefs of mission. When a woman was appointed as Minister to Bulgaria later in 1962, the number of women chiefs of mission was increased to two. Other Foreign Service officers included 395 women, somewhat less than one-tenth of the total. Most of the women in this group were Consular Officers, Secretaries, and Political Officers in embassies and legations (table 13). The first woman to be appointed a labor attaché was assigned to the Netherlands the latter part of 1962.

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.

Table 13.—Foreign Service Personnel, By Rank, 1962

Rank	Total	Women		Men	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	8,831	2,606	100	6,225	100
Foreign Service officers:[1]					
Chief of mission	100	1	(2)	99	2
Career minister and class 1	306	2	(2)	304	5
Class 2 and 3	1,351	35	1	1,316	21
Class 4 and 5	1,849	215	8	1,634	26
Class 6 to 8	1,494	143	5	1,351	22
Foreign Service staff:					
Class 1 and 2	32	------	------	32	1
Class 3 to 5	67	7	(2)	60	1
Class 6 to 8	256	127	5	129	2
Class 9 to 11	2,002	1,067	41	935	15
Class 12 and 13	1,374	1,009	39	365	6

[1] Includes 1,267 Foreign Reserve Officers (72 women).
[2] Less than 0.5 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of State: "Summary of Employment," April 30, 1962.

Characteristics Affecting Women's Working Life

20. 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 Bureau [22] 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.[23] These affect not only her decision on seeking employment, but also how long to remain at work, whether to reenter the labor force when family responsibilities decrease, and 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

21. Rise in Average Age

The importance of older women in the work force has increased considerably in the last two decades. In 1940, women 45 years of age and over equaled just 22 percent of all women workers; and in 1950, about 31 percent. By April 1962, their proportion had almost doubled over 1940—having increased to 39 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, for the increased number of mature women in the labor force has far exceeded their gain in the population (table 14).

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

[22] "Women Workers and Their Dependents," Women's Bureau Bull. No. 239. 1952.
[23] "Are Women Taking Men's Jobs?" Women's Bureau. 1961.

Table 14.—Age of Women in the Population and Labor Force, 1962 and 1940

Age group	Number of women 1962	Percent distribution		Change 1940–62	
		1962	1940	Number	Percent
POPULATION					
Total	66, 510, 000	100	100	+16, 370, 000	+33
14 to 17 years	6, 138, 000	9	10	+1, 354, 000	+28
18 to 24 years	8, 617, 000	13	17	+241, 000	+3
25 to 34 years	11, 300, 000	17	21	+540, 000	+5
35 to 44 years	12, 399, 000	19	18	+3, 279, 000	+36
45 to 54 years	10, 648, 000	16	15	+3, 173, 000	+42
55 to 64 years	8, 201, 000	12	10	+3, 086, 000	+60
65 years and over	9, 207, 000	14	9	+4, 697, 000	+104
LABOR FORCE					
Total	24, 052, 000	100	100	+10, 212, 000	+74
14 to 17 years	957, 000	4	3	+567, 000	+145
18 to 24 years	3, 974, 000	17	28	+84, 000	+2
25 to 34 years	4, 051, 000	17	28	+231, 000	+6
35 to 44 years	5, 579, 000	23	19	+2, 899, 000	+108
45 to 54 years	5, 327, 000	22	13	+3, 497, 000	+191
55 to 64 years	3, 222, 000	13	7	+2, 302, 000	+250
65 years and over	942, 000	4	2	+632, 000	+204

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Employment and Earnings," May 1962; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Current Population Reports."

rapid since 1940 than previously. The average (median) age of all women workers rose from 26 years in 1900 to 32 years in 1940, 37 years in 1950, and 41 years in 1962. 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 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.

During the coming decade, the average age of women workers is likely to remain around its current high level. The generation of war and postwar babies will be entering the labor market during the 1960's, and their large numbers might be expected to lower the overall average. A counteracting factor, however, is that the larger labor force is also expected to include many more women 45 years of age and over, who will, of course, exert an upward influence on the average. As a result, the average age of women workers may not be greatly altered in the 1960's.

22. *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 has customarily been highest among young women, dropping somewhat among women age 25 to 34, many of whom leave the labor force because of homemaking responsibilities. In April 1962, 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 clearly exceeded by that of women 45 to 54 years of age (50 percent), many of whom had returned to work when their family responsibilities decreased. The proportion fell to 39 percent for women 55 to 64 years old and to 10 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 15).

Striking increases have occurred since 1940 in the proportions of women engaged in gainful employment. The greatest change has been among women 45 to 54 years of age—with the proportion of women workers rising from 24 percent in 1940 to 37 percent in 1950 to 50 percent in 1962. Also noteworthy is the increase from 18 percent to 28 percent to 39 percent in these same years 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. Conversely, the rise in gainful employment among those 35 to 44 years old is related to the earlier age at which women are completing their families as well as the higher educational level—a factor tending to increase labor-force participation.

By 1970, a larger proportion of women are expected to be engaged in paid employment. The only exception will be teenage girls,

Table 15.—Trend in Labor-Force Participation of Women, By Age

Age	Women workers as percent of woman population [1]					
	1962	1960	1955	1950	1945	1940
Women, 14 years of age and over	36	36	34	32	37	28
14 to 17 years	16	17	15	17	26	8
18 and 19 years	47	48	44	46	67	43
20 to 24 years	46	45	44	45	55	48
25 to 34 years	36	36	35	34	40	36
35 to 44 years	45	44	41	38	41	29
45 to 54 years	50	49	43	37	37	24
55 to 64 years	39	37	33	28	27	18
65 years and over	10	11	11	10	10	7

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

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Employment and Earnings," May 1962; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Current Population Reports."

more of whom will still be in school. Excluding this group and also women 65 years of age and over (most of whom are retired or past working age), it is anticipated that at least two-fifths of the women of working age will be in the labor force in 1970. The highest labor-force participation rate will probably continue among women 45 to 54 years of age (chart D).

23. Mature Women Workers

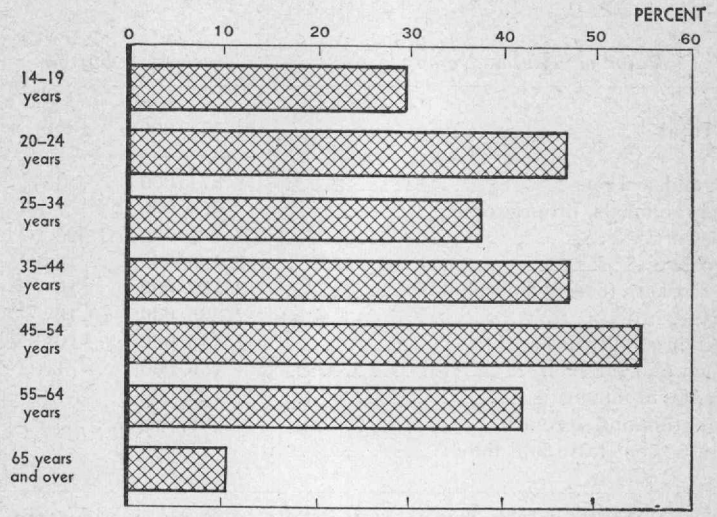
Since a major source of new workers in the labor force during the last decade has been women past 35 years of age, it is interesting to consider the types of jobs they have been obtaining. Figures published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show that the number of women workers 35 years of age and over was almost 14.2 million in 1961—a considerable gain over the 8.5 million figure of 1948. Occupationally, most of the increase was in clerical jobs, service jobs (excluding private-household work), and professional jobs.

Among the many other types of jobs held by mature women in 1961, the most significant numerically were those of factory operatives, private-household workers, and sales workers.

As women 35 years of age and over comprised 63 percent of all women workers in March 1961, it is not surprising that they amounted to over half the woman work force in all of the major occupational groups (table 16). The highest proportions of women of this age were employed in three occupational groups: Farmers and farm

Chart D

PERCENT OF WOMEN IN EACH AGE GROUP EXPECTED TO BE IN THE LABOR FORCE IN 1970



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Special Labor Force Report," No. 24.

managers (96 percent), managers, officials, and proprietors (86 percent), and laborers (except farm and mine) (86 percent)—groups which include several occupations normally held by older and experienced workers.

Information about the work performance of mature women workers was obtained in a Bureau of Labor Statistics study of 6,000 officeworkers employed in comparable clerical jobs during the winter of 1958–59.[24] Only employees of private companies and Federal agencies which maintained production records for certain types of work were included. About 85 percent of the workers surveyed were women; approximately half were paid in accordance with an incentive plan.

The study of officeworkers showed little or no variation in their average performance (output per man-hour) from one age group to another except for the youngest women, whose lower average was probably related to their lack of experience. As there was considerable variation within each age group, many older workers exceeded the average performance of younger groups. Women between the

[24] "Comparative Job Performance by Age: Office Workers," Bureau of Labor Statistics Bull. No. 1273. 1960.

Table 16.—Major Occupational Groups of Employed Women 35 Years of Age and Over, March 1961

Major occupational group	Women 35 years of age and over		
	Number	Percent distribution	Percent of all women in each group
Total	14, 171, 000	100	63
Professional workers	1, 871, 000	13	65
Managers, officials, proprietors	964, 000	7	86
Clerical workers	3, 585, 000	25	52
Sales workers	1, 190, 000	8	70
Service workers (except household)	2, 168, 000	15	66
Operatives	2, 225, 000	16	69
Private-household workers	1, 445, 000	10	61
Craftsmen and foremen	156, 000	1	71
Farmers, farm managers	128, 000	1	96
Farm laborers and foremen	368, 000	3	69
Laborers (except farm and mine)	71, 000	1	86

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 20.

ages of 45 and 65 years had exceptionally high performance records in jobs such as typing, sorting, and filing.

When weekly production figures were studied for consistency (similarity in an individual's rate of production from week to week), the mature women—particularly those 55 to 65 years of age—were found generally to have a steadier rate of output than their younger coworkers. At the same time, the quality (accuracy) of their work compared favorably with that of the younger women. Survey conclusions emphasized the need for individual evaluation of workers, irrespective of age.

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 married women workers. But despite this significant change in social attitudes, the likelihood of an individual woman's participation in the labor force is still affected by her marital status.

24. Distribution by Marital Groups

Marriage rates, which started to rise during World War II, reached their peak about 1946 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 1961. Another factor which helps to explain the increased numbers of married women in the work force 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 1961, 20.3 years. (The comparable ages for men in these three periods were 26.1 years, 24.3 years, and 22.8 years.)

The great increase in the numbers of married women in the labor force has resulted from a steady gain during the past two decades. In 1940, married women (with husbands present) accounted for about one-third of the female labor force; in 1950, almost half; and in 1961, more than half (table 17). Conversely, the proportion of single women fell from about one-half in 1940 to one-third in 1950, and to less than one-fourth in 1961. While the number of other women workers (widowed, divorced, or married with husband absent) has

Table 17.—Marital Status of Women in the Population and Labor Force, March 1961 and 1940

(Women 14 years of age and over)

Marital status	Number of women 1961	Percent distribution		Change 1940–61	
		1961	1940	Number	Percent
		POPULATION			
Total	65, 847, 000	100	100	+15, 298, 000	+30
Single	12, 764, 000	19	28	−1, 172, 000	−8
Married, husband present	40, 524, 000	62	56	+12, 007, 000	+42
Other [1]	12, 559, 000	19	16	+4, 462, 000	+55
		LABOR FORCE			
Total	24, 199, 000	100	100	+10, 359, 000	+75
Single	5, 663, 000	23	48	−1, 047, 000	−16
Married, husband present	13, 266, 000	55	30	+9, 066, 000	+216
Other [1]	5, 270, 000	22	21	+2, 340, 000	+80

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

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 20; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Current Population Reports," P-50, No. 22.

also increased since 1940, their proportion among all women workers (about one-fifth) is approximately the same throughout the last 21 years.

25. 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 fairly stable during the last two decades—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, amounting to 44 percent in 1961 (table 18). The decrease can be explained partially by the fact that single women 14 years of age and over include a rising proportion of young teenage girls—a group which has a labor-participation rate well below the average for single women. Among the smaller group of single women 20 to 64 years of age, the same proportion (77 percent) were in the labor force in 1961 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 1961 the percentage had more than doubled (chart E). As might be expected, this was still a much lower rate of labor participation than prevailed among women who were not married. Nevertheless, because of their predominance in the population (more than three-fifths of all women 14 years of age and over are married and living with their

Table 18.—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]					
	1961	1960	1955	1950	1944 [2]	1940
All women workers	37	37	33	31	35	27
Single	44	44	46	51	59	48
Married	34	32	29	25	26	17
Husband present	33	30	28	24	22	15
Husband absent	54	52	51	47	51	53
Widowed and divorced	39	37	36	36	36	32

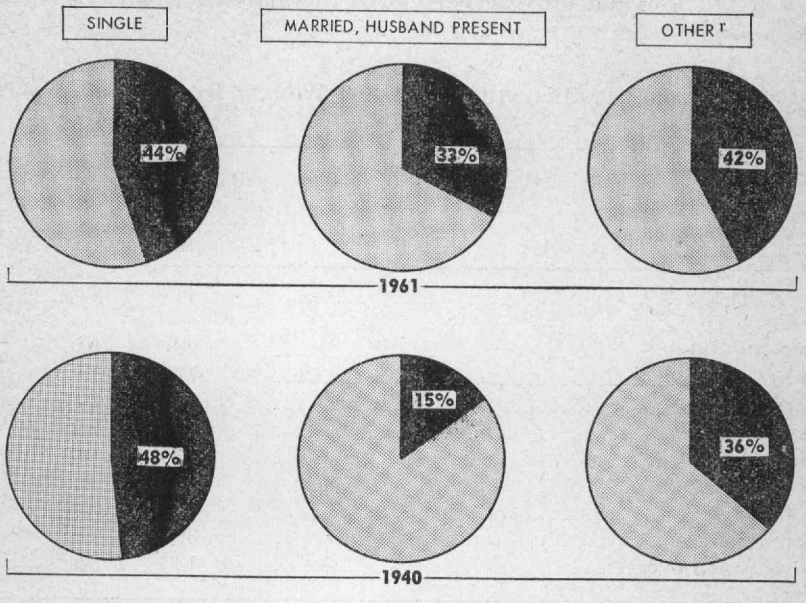
[1] Statistics are for April in 1944 and 1955 and for March in remaining years.

[2] Information not available for 1945.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 20; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Current Population Reports."

Chart E

PROPORTION OF WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE BY MARITAL STATUS, 1940 AND 1961



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Special Labor Force Report, Nos. 13 and 20.

[1] Widowed; divorced; and married, husband absent.

husbands), married women make up more than half of the woman labor force.

More than half of the 2.5 million married women with husband absent from home are working. This group includes some women whose husbands are in the Armed Forces but consists largely of those whose husbands are absent for such reasons as employment away from home, residence in an institution, or separation by choice. Women whose husbands are absent from home are typically in the labor force.

Of the 10.1 million widowed and divorced women in the population, slightly less than two-fifths were at work in 1961. Labor-force participation in this group has increased moderately since 1940.

26. *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 (table 19). For example, in the age group 30 to 34 years, 81 percent of the single women were at work in 1961 but only 29 percent of the married women (husband present).

Table 19.—Labor Participation Rates of Women, By Age and Marital Status, 1961

Age	*Women workers as percent of woman population*		
	Single	*Married*[1]	*Other*
Total	44	33	42
14 to 19 years	26	28	42
20 to 24 years	77	32	58
25 to 29 years	79	29	60
30 to 34 years	81	29	63
35 to 44 years	77	38	72
45 to 54 years	82	42	70
55 to 64 years	69	29	52
65 to 69 years	36	11	24
70 years and over	13	3	7

[1] With husband present.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 20.

After age 35 the differences tend to decrease because many married women seek paid employment. Among women 35 to 44 years of age, the percentage of married women in the labor force rose to 38 percent, while the percentage of single women remained near its usual high level—77 percent. In both these marital groups, the peak in labor-force participation came at 45 to 54 years of age: 82 percent of the single women and 42 percent of the married women.

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 widowed, separated, and divorced 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 approximated those of single women most closely among the young and mature groups. 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.

Of the more than 9-million increase in married women workers between 1940 and 1961, the group with the largest increase—about 4

million—were 45 to 64 years of age (table 20). They represented a 465-percent gain over 1940. Also particularly noteworthy are the large percentage increases (226–280 percent) between 1940 and 1961 of married women workers in three other age groups: 14 to 19 years, 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 20.—Age of Married Women in the Labor Force, 1961 and 1940

Age group	Number of married women workers [1]		Percent increase 1940–61 of married women in—	
	1961	1940	Labor force	Population
Total	13, 266, 000	4, 200, 000	216	42
14 to 19 years	228, 000	70, 000	226	25
20 to 24 years	1, 166, 000	530, 000	120	26
25 to 34 years	2, 756, 000	1, 510, 000	83	19
35 to 44 years	3, 920, 000	1, 150, 000	241	45
45 to 64 years	4, 968, 000	880, 000	465	56
65 years and over	228, 000	60, 000	280	113

[1] With husband present.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 20; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Current Population Reports," P-50, No. 22.

27. 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 1961, there were significant differences in the occupations of single and married women (table 21). 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 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 1961, the largest group following clerical workers was operatives. The relatively high popularity of operative jobs among married women may

Table 21.—Major Occupational Group of Employed Women, by Marital Status, 1961

Major occupational group	*Total*	*Single*	*Married*[1]	*Other*
All employed women (in thousands)	22, 413	5, 235	12, 337	4, 841
Percent	100	100	100	100
Professional workers	13	17	13	9
Managers, officials, proprietors	5	3	5	6
Clerical workers	31	40	29	23
Sales workers	8	6	9	6
Service workers (except household)	15	9	15	20
Operatives	15	8	17	15
Private-household workers	11	15	6	18
Other occupations	4	3	6	3

[1] With husband present.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 20.

stem from the small amount of previous work experience required in many of these jobs and the relatively higher pay.

Just as married women (husband present) constituted over half the total number of women workers in 1961, they were also the majority of each of the major occupational groups—with the exception of private-household workers (table 22). In this group, they were only one-third of the total. Especially high proportions of women workers who were married were found in three occupational groups: Sales workers; operatives; and managers, officials, or proprietors. Many married women interested in part-time employment take jobs as saleswomen; and wives of proprietors are frequently in business with their husbands.

Family Status of Women Workers

28. *Types of Families*

There were almost 45.4 million families in the United States in 1961—with husband-wife families forming 87 percent of the total. Ten percent of the families had a woman as head of the family and the remaining were families (other than married couples) headed by a man.

In addition to these related family groups, there were about 6.8 million women (and 4.3 million men) classed as "unrelated individuals" who were not living with relatives. Over 5 million of these women had their own homes or apartments and were living inde-

Table 22.—Marital Status of Employed Women in Major Occupational Groups, 1961

Major occupational group	Total		Marital status of women		
	Number (in thousands)	Percent	Single	Married[1]	Other
Total	22, 413	100	23	55	22
Professional workers	2, 884	100	30	55	15
Managers, officials, proprietors	1, 117	100	14	59	27
Clerical workers	6, 859	100	31	53	16
Sales workers	1, 704	100	17	66	17
Service workers (except household)	3, 265	100	14	56	30
Operatives	3, 227	100	14	64	23
Private-household workers	2, 386	100	32	33	35
Other occupations	971	100	14	71	14

[1] With husband present.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 20.

pendently as "primary individuals." Just over three-fifths were widows; the median age was 63. The remaining group of unrelated individuals were roomers, boarders, hotel guests, resident employees, and inmates of institutions (including special schools and homes). About three-fifths of these women were single; the median age of this group was 37 years.

Husband-wife families are likely to be larger than families headed by a woman or by a man without a wife. In 1961, there were four 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, two-fifths had two or more children under 18 years of age.

Of the 4.6 million families in which a woman was the head, almost half had two members; almost one-fourth, three; and the remaining four or more. Fifty-three percent of these women who were family heads in 1961 had no children of their own, but 27 percent had two or more children. 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. Their median age was 50 years, as compared with a median of 41 years for the wives of family heads.

29. 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. Fifty-two percent of this group were in the labor force in 1961. In contrast, 33 percent of wives living with their husbands were working.

30. Working Wives

The 13.3 million working wives in the labor force in March 1961 accounted for 55 percent of all women workers. About 12.4 million of the group had husbands who were also in the labor force, and they amounted to 31 percent of all married couples (40.5 million) in the population. This represents a notable 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 1961 labor force also included about nine-tenths of a million working wives whose husbands did not work. Most of the husbands outside the labor force were retired or disabled. Among families where the wife was not in the labor force—both husbands and other family members worked in almost 3.2 million families; only family members other than the husband and wife worked in almost one-half million families; and no one worked in more than 2.8 million families. Nevertheless, in over half (19.5 million) of all husband-wife families in 1961, the husband was the only earner.

Influence of family income and children.—More wives work when their husband's income is relatively low than when it is high. In March 1961, about one-third of the wives were working in those families where the husband's income was under $3,000; about two-fifths where it was between $3,000 and $5,000; and one-fourth, where it was $7,000 and over (table 23).

The presence and age of children in the family has even a stronger influence on whether or not a wife works than does the income of her husband. Among married women living with their husbands, the average proportion in the labor force varied from 20 percent for those with children under 6 years old to 42 percent for those with school-age children only. The relatively low labor-force participation rate (37

Table 23.—Labor Force Status of Wife, by Income of Husband, 1961

Income of husband in 1960	Percent of married women (with husband present) in labor force—			
	Total	No children under 18	Children 6–17 only	Children under 6
Total	33	37	42	20
Under $3,000	34	32	50	27
$3,000 to $4,999	39	46	48	25
$5,000 to $6,999	32	42	42	18
$7,000 and over	24	33	30	10

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 20.

percent) for those with no children under 18 years of age is affected by the inclusion in this group of many older women who are retired or unable to work. Within all three of these groups, the percentage of working wives generally decreased as the husband's income rose. As a result, the highest labor-force participation rate (50 percent) existed among wives with children 6 to 17 years and husband's income under $3,000, and the lowest rate (10 percent), among wives with small children and husband's income of $7,000 and over.

There is additional corroboration of the statement that the labor-force participation of married women increases with family need. The evidence is provided by a recent analysis of data collected in 1950 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in its Survey of Consumer Expenditures and the City Worker's Family Budget.[25] The definition of those in "need" covered families with income below the CWFB (which represented a "modest but adequate" level of living).

It was found, for example, that of mothers with children under 18 years of age and other adults in the family, 43 percent worked when family income (without the mother's earnings) was below the CWFB standard and 23 percent worked when it was above. Overall, 38 percent of the wives worked in families with "need," as compared with 28 percent of the wives in the other families. It was recognized, of course, that some families in the higher socio-economic levels might consider the CWFB standard as less than adequate.

Contribution to family income.—The analysis of previously unpublished data from the 1950 Survey of Consumer Expenditures considered also the economic contribution of working wives to family income. The 1950 data indicated that working wives supplied about 35–40 percent of their family's total income when they worked full time and about 15–20 percent when they worked part time. These

[25] "The Working Wife and Her Family's Economic Position," Monthly Labor Review, April 1962 (p. 366).

relationships were fairly constant among families, regardless of the wife's job class, the regional location, or the size of the city. It was speculated, therefore, that there may be a high correlation between age, education, and employment opportunities of the husband and those of the wife, and that these latter factors (rather than the ones analyzed) may have a definite and significant relationship to the wife's earning power. It was noted, incidentally, that only 1 wife in 20 was in a higher earnings bracket than her husband.

A review of family savings, as recorded by the1950 Survey of Consumer Expenditures, revealed that there was little difference (within income levels) in the savings of families with working wives and those with nonworking wives. Neither were there significant differences in family savings when the wife worked full time or intermittently.

Possible reasons offered for the similarities in family savings were that many wives work because of specific financial need and that paid employment itself involves additional expense. In addition, the findings were thought to suggest that, as working wives become more numerous and socially acceptable, the wife's earning ability is viewed more and more as a family reserve, which may be utilized when needed. If this is so, the earnings of working wives may be considered a permanent part of family income. These earnings are also an influence for increased demand and higher consumption in our society.

Job-related expenses.—An exploratory study to learn more about the job-related expenses of the working wife was made in four small Georgia cities during the spring of 1958 by the Agricultural Research Service [26] in the U.S. Department of Agriculture. For the wives surveyed who had been employed at least 1,000 hours in 1957, earnings ranged from $388 to $5,006 and averaged $2,200. Job-related expenses reported by the working wives averaged $903 and included such items as transportation, lunches, and office gifts as well as tax, paid help, and clothing expenses in excess of those required by the survey wives who had not been employed at all in 1957. The average working wife's net income was about three-fifths of her total pay. Variations existed, of course, in relation to such factors as the number and age of children in the family and the amount of income earned by the husband. When asked why they were employed, more than four-fifths of the wives gave economic reasons.

Occupations of husbands and wives.—Comparison of the occupations held by husbands and wives indicates that almost one-third of them pursue similar lines of work (table 24). 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 op-

[26] U.S. Department of Agriculture: "Job-Related Expenditures and Management Practices of Gainfully Employed Wives in Four Georgia Cities." Home Economics Research Report No. 15. 1962.

Table 24.—Occupation of Wife, by Occupation of Husband, March 1961

Occupation of wife	Occupation of husband									
	Total	*Professional workers*	*Managers, officials, and proprietors*	*Clerical workers*	*Sales workers*	*Service workers*	*Operatives*	*Craftsmen*	*Laborers*	*Farmers*
Number of husbands (in thousands)	10,639	1,223	1,808	796	632	702	2,025	2,044	537	873
Percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Professional workers	13	41	14	15	15	6	6	9	5	8
Managers, officials, and proprietors	6	3	16	2	8	5	3	4	3	2
Clerical workers	30	35	35	45	45	20	26	34	17	9
Sales workers	10	7	15	8	14	8	8	11	5	4
Service workers (except household)	14	6	11	14	5	30	17	15	21	11
Operatives, craftswomen, laborers	18	5	8	14	11	19	33	23	26	12
Private-household workers	5	1	1	2	1	13	7	4	21	8
Farmers	4	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	------	1	1	2	46

[1] Less than 0.5 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 20.

portunities open to them. Also, over two-fifths of the wives of clerical workers had clerical jobs in March 1961, and almost as many wives of professional men were employed in professional work. The greatest difference in jobs held by husbands and wives was indicated in the sales and managerial groups. 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.

31. Working Mothers

Of the 24.2 million women in the labor force in March 1961, 8.7 million had children under 18 years of age (table 25). Among these working mothers, 7.1 million were married women with husband present and 1.6 million women were widowed, divorced, or separated from their husbands for other reasons. By comparison, 5.7 million working women were single and 9.8 million were married or had been married at some time but had no children under 18 years of age.

Five and a half million working mothers had children of school age only (6 through 17 years); and 3⅛ million had one or more younger children (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) as compared with the 1961 figure of 8.7 million (over one-third).[27]

Overall, one of every three mothers with children under 18 years of age was working in 1961 (table 26). But the ratio changes substantially when the ages of the children are considered. Among mothers whose children were 6 through 17 years of age, over two out of five were working. For those with some children under 6, the ratio was about one out of five. When only mothers with young children under 3 years of age are considered, the proportion who work (18 percent) is found to be even smaller. There is little doubt that most mothers stay at home, when possible, to take care of their young children.[28] Once the children reach school age, however, many of these mothers seek employment.

Among women without children, 37 percent of the women ever married were working in 1961 and 77 percent of the single women (20 to 64 years of age).

Most mothers whose husbands are dead or absent from the home are, of course, subject to more severe economic pressures than are married women with husbands present. Although some receive other

[27] "Who Are the Working Mothers?" Women's Bureau Leaflet 37 Revised. 1962.
[28] "Why Do Mothers Work?" Women's Bureau. 1962.

Table 25.—Women in the Labor Force, by Marital Status and Presence and Age of Children, 1961

Marital status and presence and age of children	Labor force		Percent distribution within marital group
	Number (in thousands)	Percent distribution	
All women workers	24, 199	100	
Married women, husband present	13, 266	55	100
With no children under 18	6, 186	26	47
With children:			
6 to 17 only	4, 419	18	33
Under 6 [1]	2, 661	11	20
All other women ever married	5, 270	22	100
With no children under 18	3, 638	15	69
With children:			
6 to 17 only	1, 110	5	21
Under 6 [1]	522	2	10
Single women	5, 663	23	

[1] Also includes children 6 to 17 years of age, if any.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 20.

income, such as social-security benefits for dependent children and veterans' benefits for dependents, many must work to support themselves and their children. Three-fifths 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, 47 percent of the former group work, compared with 20 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 mothers with husband present in March 1961, the largest proportion in the labor force were in families where husbands earned less than $5,000 a year. (See sec. 30, table 23.) Since more than four-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.

Children living with their mother only.—New findings which stress the strong influence of children's age and family income on a mother's decision to work are contained in a Bureau of the Census study of family characteristics. These reveal that about half of the approxi-

Table 26.—Employment of Mothers, March 1961

Group of mothers	Number of mothers (in thousands)		Percent of population in labor force
	Population	Labor force	
Mothers with children under 18 years	26, 652	8, 712	33
Married, husband present	23, 918	7, 080	30
Other women ever married	2, 734	1, 632	60
Mothers with children 6 to 17 years only	12, 218	5, 529	45
Married, husband present	10, 596	4, 419	42
Other women ever married	1, 622	1, 110	68
Mothers with children under 6 years	14, 434	3, 183	22
Married, husband present	13, 322	2, 661	20
Other women ever married	1, 112	522	47

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 20.

mately 5.5 million children under 18 years old who were living with their mother only, in March 1959, had a mother who was working or seeking work (table 27). The percentage of children with an employed mother decreased as the age of the children decreased—from 57 percent of the children 14 to 17 years of age to 33 percent of the children under 3 years.

Regardless of age, most of the 2,523,000 children living with an employed mother but not with their father were in low-income families. Their mother's income was less than $2,000 in 1959 for fully 44 percent of the children, and between $2,000 and $4,000 for an additional 39 percent. Only 16 percent of the children had a mother with income of at least $4,000 a year. These statistics suggest that low income is the major factor which causes a mother who is not living with her husband to seek work outside the home.

Child-care arrangements.—Interest in the arrangements made by working mothers with children under 12 years of age prompted the Children's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to arrange with the Bureau of the Census for a special survey in June 1958. At that time, approximately 2.9 million women with at least one child under 12 years old were employed on a full-time basis. About 81 percent of these women were married and living in the same household with their husbands, 8 percent had a husband who was not living at home for a variety of reasons, and 11 percent were divorced or widowed. Per family, there was an average of 2.3 children.

Table 27.—Children Living With Mother Only, by Work Status of Mother and by Income of Employed Mother, 1959

Item	Total [1]	Children by age group: Under 3 years	3–5 years	6–13 years	14–17 years
WORK STATUS OF MOTHER					
Number of children (in thousands)	5,481	882	896	2,490	1,213
Percent	100	100	100	100	100
With employed mother	46	33	37	49	57
1–34 hour workweek	14	9	12	16	17
35–40 hour workweek	23	14	19	25	28
41 hour workweek or more	9	10	6	8	12
With unemployed mother	5	6	6	4	4
With nonworking mother	49	61	58	47	40
INCOME OF EMPLOYED MOTHER					
Number of children with employed mother (in thousands)	2,523	290	329	1,219	685
Percent	100	100	100	100	100
$1,999 or less	44	74	54	42	31
$2,000–$3,999	39	20	35	40	48
$4,000–$5,999	13	6	10	15	16
$6,000 and over	3	------	1	3	6

[1] Excludes children with father in Armed Forces.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, "Current Population Reports," P-20, No. 112.

The working mothers surveyed had more than 5 million children under 12 years old, of whom 2 million were under 6 years (table 28). The survey showed that while their mothers were working a majority of the children received care in their own homes, looked after by their father (16 percent), by other relatives including older children in the family (30 percent), or by nonrelatives (12 percent). Only slightly over one-fifth of the children were cared for outside their own home either in the homes of relatives (11 percent), the homes of nonrelatives (9 percent), or at such group facilities as nurseries, day-care centers, settlement houses, and nursery schools (2 percent).

Some of the children, primarily of school age, were caring for themselves (8 percent). The remaining group (13 percent) were covered by a variety of arrangements difficult to classify. Included among miscellaneous arrangements was direct care by those mothers able to arrange their employment so that they were at home when their

Table 28.—Child-Care Arrangements of Working Mothers, 1958

Type of arrangement	Children under 12 years of age		
	Total	Under 6 years	6–11 years
Number of children (in thousands)	5,073	2,039	3,034
	Percent Distribution		
Total	100	100	100
Care at own home by—			
Father	16	15	17
Relative:			
Under 18 years	11	7	14
18 years or over	19	20	18
Nonrelative	12	14	10
Care at caretaker's home by—			
Relative	11	14	8
Nonrelative	9	13	6
Group care	2	4	1
Self-care	8	1	13
Other	13	11	14

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare: "Child Care Arrangements of Full-Time Working Mothers." Children's Bureau Publication No. 378.

children were out of school, as well as those with jobs allowing them immediate access to their children. These findings concerning the kinds of arrangements being made for children of working mothers have further stimulated interest in the provision of adequate day-care services for the children who need them.[29]

Maternity protection.—Substantial numbers of women workers, as well as wives of men workers, receive maternity protection in this country, as indicated in a study by the Women's Bureau.[30] This protection is provided primarily through health and insurance programs established voluntarily or, in some cases, by legislative action.

Voluntary health plans include those negotiated between unions and management, commercial insurance plans, plans operated by associations of hospitals or physicians, and cooperative plans operated by members. Principal types of maternity benefits made available to women workers through voluntary plans are: Maternity leave and provisions for job security, allowances for medical care or direct

[29] "Day Care Services—Form and Substance. Report of a National Conference, November 17–18, 1960." Women's Bureau Bull. No. 281. Children's Bureau Pub. No. 393. 1961.
[30] "Maternity Benefit Provisions for Employed Women," Women's Bureau Bull. 272. 1960.

medical services, and cash payments to compensate for loss of wages. The costs may be financed entirely by the employer, shared by the employer and employees, or—least frequently—paid by the employees alone.

Union contracts frequently provide maternity benefits not only for women employees but also for dependent wives. Bureau of Labor Statistics studies [31] in 1959 revealed that of 300 health and insurance plans established by collective bargaining, 276 plans contained maternity provisions for women workers and 271 plans covered wives of workers. The majority of plans provided a combination of hospital and surgical benefits during maternity leave. A few provided medical benefits covering prenatal and postnatal care of women workers and dependent wives. Most of the health and insurance plans without maternity benefits were in industries employing few women, such as construction or transportation.

Legislation has been enacted providing cash sickness benefits to women workers in the railroad industry and in New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Puerto Rico. Six other States and Puerto Rico prohibit employment for specified periods before and/or after childbirth.

Women employees of the Federal Government receive maternity protection both by regulation and legislation. In accordance with a Civil Service Commission regulation, maternity leave may be taken by using both annual and sick leave. In addition, under the Federal Employees Health Benefits Act of 1959, effective July 1, 1960, Government employees may elect to participate in a health insurance program which includes maternity medical care for women employees as well as for wives of Government men. Many State and local governments also allow women employees to use their sick leave as maternity leave and some also provide insured medical care.

Wives of servicemen are eligible for maternity care at Government expense. Although women members of the Armed Forces who become pregnant are separated from the services, they too are eligible for Government-paid maternity care.

Working Life of Women

32. *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

[31] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Health and Insurance Plans Under Collective Bargaining: Hospital Benefits, Early 1959." Bull. No. 1274 and "Health and Insurance Plans Under Collective Bargaining: Surgical and Medical Benefits, Late Summer 1959," Bull. No. 1280.

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,[32] 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, 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 estimated readily because of the intermittent nature of their work careers. Like other women, typically they start to work immediately after finishing school—generally when they are 17 or 18 years old. After about 4 years, often they 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 pressures, 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

[32] "Tables of Working Life for Women, 1950," U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics Bull. 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.

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 childbearing 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.

33. 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. Over 6 million women—29 percent of the women workers in nonagricultural industries—were employed part time, that is, less than 35 hours a week in mid-April 1962.

Over 24 percent in this group were regular part-time workers. About 3 percent are usually employed full time but were working part time in April 1962 for personal or miscellaneous reasons. The remaining 2 percent indicated they were working part time for economic reasons, such as slack work in their plants, repairs to plant or equipment, or inability to find full-time work.

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 the family 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, farmworkers, and sales workers. According to a Bureau of Labor Statistics study of 1960, relatively few women workers are employed part time in five occupational groups: Craft, managerial, operative, clerical, and professional.

A Women's Bureau study [33] on the nature and extent of part-time employment opportunities for women indicated that industries and establishments with large numbers of women working part time include private households, retail stores, agriculture, restaurants, personal-service establishments, hospitals, and educational groups. Individual occupations in which part-time work is significant for

[33] "Part-time Employment for Women," Women's Bureau Bull. No. 273. 1960.

women are those of private-household worker, farmworker, retail saleswoman, waitress, beauty operator, practical nurse, typist, cashier, telephone operator, teacher, and professional nurse.

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

34. Women's Work Experience

Because of part-time and intermittent work, the number of women who work at some time during the year is greater than the average number of women in the labor force at any one time. A total of about 30.4 million women worked at some time during 1961, whereas the average number of women workers at any one time during that year was slightly over 24 million.

Approximately 46 percent of all women 14 years of age and over in the population had some work experience during 1961. About 11.2 million women (37 percent of the women with work experience in 1961) held full-time jobs the year round. Another 9.5 million (31 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 weeks. On the other hand, 9.7 million women (32 percent) had part-time jobs (less than 35 hours a week).

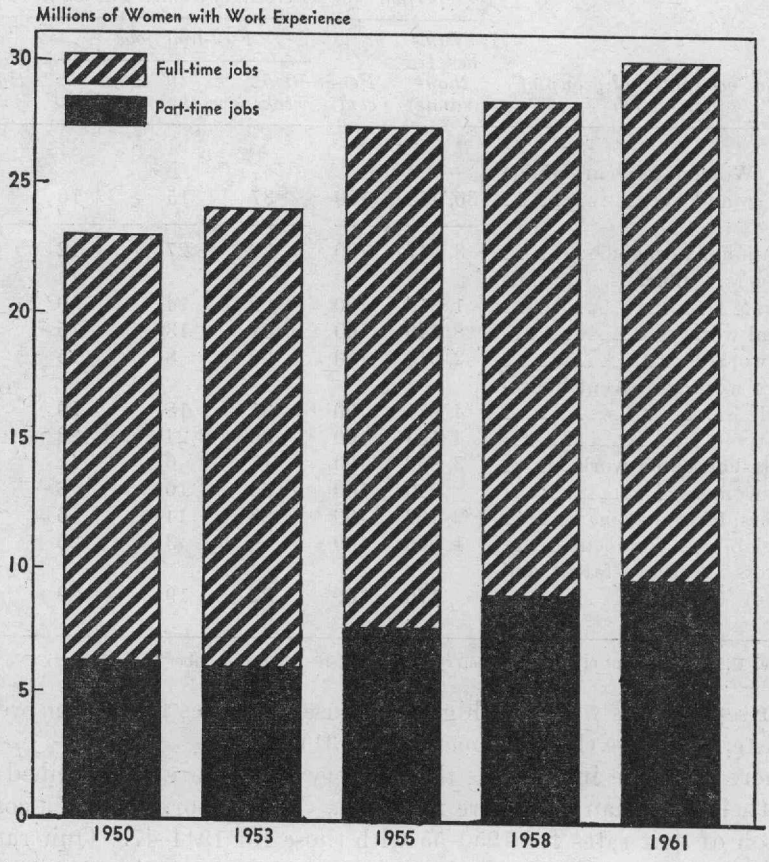
During the 1950-61 period, the number of women in part-time jobs has increased much more rapidly than the number in full-time work (part year and full year combined). (See chart F.) Principal reasons offered by women and girls for part-time work are household responsibilities, school attendance, preference for part-time work, unemployment or layoff, and illness or disability.

Occupational groups with the largest proportions of women holding part-time jobs in 1961 were farm laborers, private-household workers, farmers, and sales workers (table 29). In contrast, over half of the craftswomen; women managers, officials, and proprietors; and women clerical workers worked at year-round full-time jobs in 1961.

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 30). The next largest group of regular workers were the women 35 to 44 years of age. 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 1961.

Chart F

NUMBER OF WOMEN WITH WORK EXPERIENCE IN PART-TIME AND FULL-TIME JOBS, 1950–1961



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

35. Labor Turnover

Since many part-time workers enter and leave the labor market in a relatively short period, the employment of women tends to fluctuate more than the employment of men. 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, hiring rates for women were about 16 percent above those for men.

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Table 29.—Work Experience of Women in 1961, by Major Occupational Group

Major occupational group of longest job	Total with work experience		Percent of women who worked at—			
			Full-time jobs			Part-time jobs
	Number (in thousands)	Percent	50–52 weeks	27–49 weeks	26 weeks or less	
Women, 14 years of age and over	30,433	100	37	15	16	32
Professional workers	3,547	100	38	27	12	22
Managers, officials, proprietors	1,318	100	62	14	9	16
Clerical workers	8,546	100	51	13	15	21
Sales workers	2,515	100	29	8	15	48
Service workers (except household)	4,571	100	31	18	20	31
Operatives	4,134	100	39	24	23	15
Private-household workers	3,358	100	17	6	11	67
Craftswomen	249	100	63	16	8	13
Farmers, farm managers	160	100	28	14	6	52
Farm laborers, foremen	1,865	100	9	3	20	69
Laborers (except farm and mine)	170	100	32	19	20	29

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 25.

Their separations were also higher because quit rates for women were consistently above those for men (table 31).

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

36. Women Not in the Labor Force

A report on the total number of women who have obtained some work experience during their lifetime is not available. However, the latest decennial census revealed that of the 42½ million adult women not in the labor force, about 15 million had had some work experi-

Table 30.—Work Experience of Women in 1961, by Age Group

Work experience in 1961	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)	30,433	2,044	10,547	6,517	8,497	2,828
Percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Primarily at part-time jobs [1]	32	81	25	29	28	41
26 weeks or less	16	59	14	13	10	17
27 to 49 weeks	6	12	5	6	6	8
50 to 52 weeks	10	11	6	10	12	16
Primarily at full-time jobs [1]	68	19	75	71	72	59
26 weeks or less	16	17	25	13	9	11
27 to 49 weeks	15	1	18	15	16	12
50 to 52 weeks	37	1	32	43	47	37

[1] Part-time jobs lasted less than 35 hours a week; full-time jobs lasted 35 hours or more a week.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 25.

ence during the previous 10 years. These women, along with others who have secured some work experience since 1960, 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 about two-fifths of the women with recent work experience were from 20 to 34 years of age, it is likely that many would be responsible for the care of young children. In addition, about one-tenth of the women were 65 years of age and over, and some of these might be unable to work.

Table 31.—Labor Turnover Rates of Women and Men Factory Workers 1950–55

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

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau: "Labor Turnover of Women Factory Workers, 1950–55," U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Monthly Labor Review," August 1955 (p. 889).

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.

37. Women as Members of Unions

About 3.3 million women were members of labor organizations in 1960, according to estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. They accounted for 1 out of 6 union members and 1 out of 7 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 184 unions participating in the 1960 membership survey, 136 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 relatively 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 32).

There are no separate unions for women. In 9 unions, women constituted at least 70 percent of the membership, but in 81 unions their representation was less than 20 percent. Not included in the latter figure are 1 union for which appropriate information is not available and 47 unions with no women members. Most of these unions cover occupations not likely to employ women, such as bricklayers, firefighters, locomotive engineers, and plasterers.

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.

Table 32.—Number of Women Members of Labor Unions, 1960

(Unions reporting 25,000 or more women members)

Union	Approximate number of women
American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations:	
International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union	334, 900
Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America	266, 300
International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers	231, 300
Hotel and Restaurant Employees and Bartenders International Union	199, 400
Retail Clerks International Association	198, 400
International Union, United Automobile, Aircraft and Agricultural Implement Workers of America	136, 300
Communications Workers of America	130, 000
International Union of Electrical, Radio, and Machine Workers	115, 200
International Association of Machinists	89, 800
Textile Workers Union of America	76, 800
Building Service Employees' International Union	76, 200
Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Union	64, 500
Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen of North America	50, 000
United Rubber, Cork, Linoleum and Plastic Workers of America	42, 500
International Brotherhood of Bookbinders	38, 400
Office Employees' International Union	37, 100
Brotherhood of Railway and Steamship Clerks, Freight Handlers, Express and Station Employees	36, 000
American Federation of Teachers	33, 700
United Federation of Postal Clerks	33, 300
United Shoe Workers of America	31, 900
United Garment Workers of America	28, 000
Oil, Chemical, and Atomic Workers International Union	26, 100
American Bakery and Confectionery Workers' International Union	25, 500
United Steel Workers of America	(1)
Unaffiliated:	
Alliance of Independent Telephone Unions	54, 000
Laundry, Dry Cleaning and Dye House Workers International Union	39, 400
International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Warehousemen and Helpers of America	(1)
United Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers of America	(1)
Bakery and Confectionery Workers' International Union of America	(1)

[1] 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 United States, 1961." Bull. No. 1320.

38. Women Receiving Vocational Rehabilitation

Approximately 35,200 handicapped women were helped in the year ending June 30, 1961 to become useful workers through the State-Federal program of vocational rehabilitation. These women equaled 38 percent of all persons rehabilitated by the program, according to the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation. The number of handicapped women who have been helped in the last three decades, has increased considerably, rising from 850 in 1930 to 3,069 in 1940 and 19,667 in 1950.

A major purpose of the vocational rehabilitation program is to help disabled people build up and use their remaining abilities so that they can make a living.[34] Besides counseling, training, and job placement based on individual requirements, the program includes medical or physical treatment and furnishes such equipment as hearing aids and braces when needed.

Of the women rehabilitated through the State-Federal program in 1961, it is estimated that 67 percent became gainfully employed and the remainder stayed at home to care for their families or do other unpaid family work. An estimated one-fourth of the handicapped women who became wage earners were clerical workers, one-fifth were in private-household service, one-sixth in other services, and one-seventh in crafts or skilled and semiskilled manual jobs. 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.

[34] "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.

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

39. *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, employing industry, 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 still employed 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.[1] Efforts to achieve equal pay for women workers are being made through legislation, through collec-

[1] "Economic Indicators Relating to Equal Pay," Women's Bureau Pamphlet 9. 1962.

tive bargaining between labor unions and employers, and through public education. (See ch. 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, investment holdings, and income and expenditures.

Income of Women and Families

40. Individual Income in 1961

Women who received income of their own in 1961 had an average (median) income of $1,279, according to advance estimates of the Bureau of the Census. This was about 1 percent over their median income of $1,262 in 1960 (table 1). Median income of men in 1961

Table 1.—Income of Women and Men, 1960

Item	*Total money income*		*Wage or salary income*	
	Women	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*
	TOTAL INCOME RECIPIENTS			
Number (in thousands)	36, 526	55, 172	25, 978	43, 302
Percent of population	56	91	40	72
Median income	$1, 262	$4, 081	$1, 595	$4, 300
	Percent distribution			
Income range	100	100	100	100
Under $1,000	44	16	40	17
$1,000–$1,999	18	11	16	8
$2,000–$2,999	14	10	16	9
$3,000–$3,999	11	11	14	12
$4,000–$4,999	7	12	8	13
$5,000 and over	5	39	6	41
	YEAR-ROUND FULL-TIME WORKERS			
Percent of total income recipients	28	58	38	63
Median income	$3, 296	$5, 435	$3, 293	$5, 417

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Current Population Reports," P-60, No. 37.

was $4,189—about 3 percent above their 1960 figure of $4,081. 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 income of men and women. 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.

During 1960 (the latest year for which detailed information on income of individuals and families is available), the more than 19 million women employed in full-time jobs had a median income of $2,531 (table 2). By contrast, the median income of the almost 7½ million women with part-time jobs amounted to only $508. Nearly half the women in this latter group had worked part time for less than 27 weeks during the year.

Among year-round, full-time workers in 1960, women's wage or salary income ($3,293) was three-fifths as much as men's ($5,417), 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 presented under factors affecting earnings (sec. 39).

Table 2.—Median Income of Women Workers, by Work Experience, 1960

Length of work experience in 1960	*Full-time jobs*		*Part-time jobs*	
	Number [1]	*Median income*	*Number* [1]	*Median income*
Total	19, 136, 000	$2, 531	7, 454, 000	$508
50–52 weeks	10, 585, 000	3, 296	2, 029, 000	1, 046
40–49 weeks	2, 289, 000	2, 620	887, 000	978
27–39 weeks	1, 987, 000	1, 895	879, 000	758
14–26 weeks	2, 083, 000	1, 123	1, 325, 000	440
13 weeks or less	2, 192, 000	415	2, 334, 000	319

[1] Refers to number of women with income.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Current Population Reports," P–60, No. 37.

41. Income by Age and Occupation, 1960

When women's income is studied in terms of age, significant variations are found in the proportions of women receiving income as well as in the amount of income. During 1960, about 56 percent of the women (14 years of age and over) in the population and about 91

percent of the men received some income of their own. Among women, the age group with the largest proportion (76 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 49 and 58 percent. Of the girls 14 to 19 years of age, many of whom are students, only 43 percent received some income during the year.

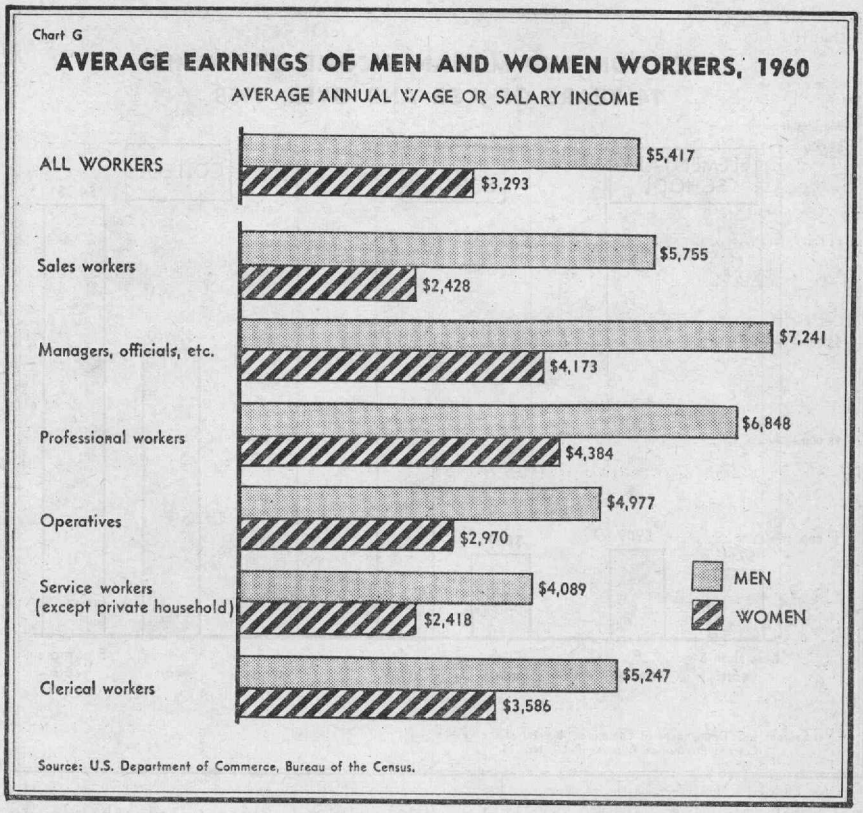
In amount, the median income of women rises quickly in the early years of maturity (from $388 for girls 14 to 19 years to $1,696 for women 20 to 24 years). It increases only moderately for women between 25 and 54 years of age (peak of $2,102 for women 45 to 54 years), and then drops sharply thereafter ($821 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.

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 ($4,384) and as managers, officials, and proprietors ($4,173) (table 3). For both of these groups and also for operatives, women's earnings increased percentagewise more than men's between 1939 and 1960 and approximated three-fifths of men's earnings in 1960 (chart G). For the large group of women clerical workers, median earnings ($3,586) were over two-thirds as much as men's—the highest proportion reached by women when compared with men

Table 3.—Wage or Salary Income for Selected Occupations: 1960 and 1939

Occupational group	*Year-round full-time workers*			
	Women		*Men*	
	1960	*1939*	*1960*	*1939*
Professional workers	$4, 384	$1, 277	$6, 848	$2, 100
Managers, officials, proprietors	4, 173	1, 218	7, 241	2, 254
Clerical workers	3, 586	1, 072	5, 247	1, 564
Operatives	2, 970	742	4, 977	1, 268
Sales workers	2, 428	745	5, 755	1, 451
Service workers (except household)	2, 418	607	4, 089	1, 019
Private-household workers	1, 133	339	------	549

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Current Population Reports," P-60, No. 37.



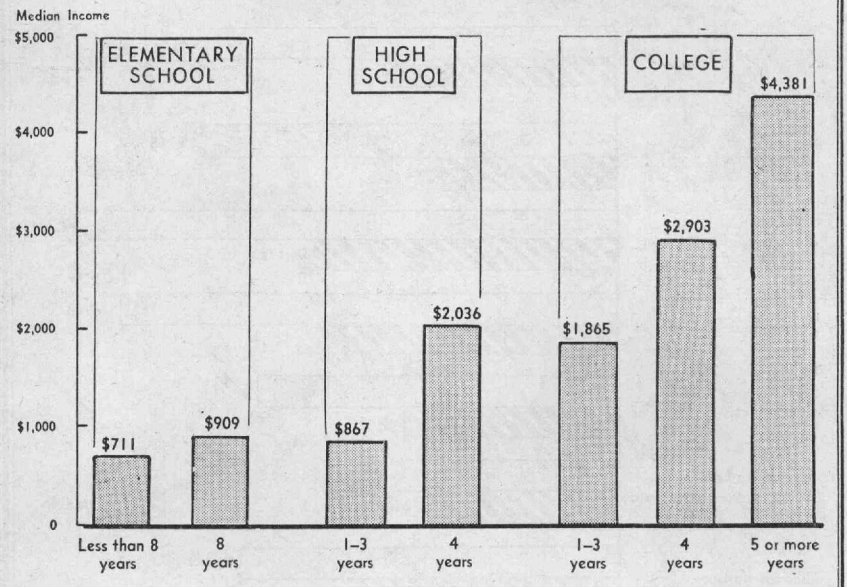
in the same occupational group. Women service workers, the second largest occupational group, earned about three-fifths as much as men. Women sales workers earned about two-fifths as much as men—the lowest proportion in the 1960 occupational comparison.

42. *Income and Education*

Education is an important determinant of average income for both men and women. (Latest data supporting this statement were collected by the Bureau of the Census in 1958.) Among women who received some money income in 1958, those with 5 years or more of college education had a median income of $4,381—1½ times that of college graduates (with no graduate study), more than 2 times that of high school graduates (with no college training), and almost 5 times that of elementary school graduates (with no high school training) (chart H). In a comparison of men and women with similar amounts of schooling, women's median income was approximately two-fifths of men's income—with three major exceptions: Elementary school graduates and those with less than 4 years of high school (who earned about one-fourth as much as men) and college graduates with at

Chart H

EDUCATION AND MEDIAN INCOME OF WOMEN 14 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, 1958



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 33

least 1 year of graduate study (who earned almost two-thirds as much as men).

The median earnings of nonwhite women workers ($1,276) in 1960, were about half those of white women workers. However, income of nonwhite women increased more than fivefold between 1939 and 1960, while that of white women increased less than fourfold (table 4). The fact that the majority 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 or salary income was $2,372 during 1960—slightly over two-thirds that of white women.

43. Median Income of Families

The almost 45½ million families in the Nation in 1960 had a median income of $5,620 (table 5). About one-seventh received less than $2,000 and over one-third, $7,000 or more. Income of families, like income of individual persons, has continued to increase since 1945, rising almost 115 percent from a median of $2,621.

Table 4.—Wage or Salary Income of White and Nonwhite Women and Men: 1960 and 1939

Group and year	All workers	
	Women	Men
White:		
1960	$2,537	$5,137
1939	676	1,112
Nonwhite:		
1960	1,276	3,075
1939	246	460

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Current Population Reports," P-60, No. 37.

One factor responsible for the higher family income has been the increase in the number of family wage earners. In 1960, about 10 percent of the families had three or more earners, and 36 percent had two earners. About 46 percent of all families had one earner, and only 7 percent had no earners. By comparison, in 1945 only 34 percent of the families had at least 2 earners whereas 59 percent had just one earner and 8 percent, no earners.

For a majority of families, the earnings of their members provided the sole income. For most 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, 1960

Type of family	Families		Median income	
	Number	Percent	Total families	Head year-round full-time worker
All families	45,435,000	100	$5,620	$6,599
Male head	40,826,000	90	5,857	6,688
Married	39,624,000	87	5,873	6,706
Wife in the labor force	12,007,000	26	6,900	7,815
Wife not in labor force	27,617,000	61	5,520	6,292
Other marital status	1,202,000	3	4,860	5,810
Female head	4,609,000	10	2,968	4,689

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Current Population Reports," P-60, No. 37.

44. Husband-Wife Families

For the almost 40 million husband-wife families, the median income was $5,873 in 1960. In the 12 million families in which both the husband and wife worked, median income was $6,900. This was considerably above the $5,520 median income of families in which the wife did not work. Almost 50 percent of the families with working wives had incomes of $7,000 or more, compared with 32 percent of those with nonworking wives. An undetermined although 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.

45. Families Headed by a Woman

One-tenth of all families in 1960 had women as family heads and received a median income of $2,968. This was relatively low in comparison with other family groups—equaling about 51 percent of the income in all families with a male as head and about 54 percent of the income in husband-wife families where the wife was not in the labor force. Almost 15 percent of the families with women as heads had incomes of $7,000 or more. More detailed data from the decennial censuses 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 36½ million women in the population who were income recipients in 1960, 26 million reported wage or salary income. Almost two-fifts (about 10 million) of the latter group of women were year-round full-time workers in 1960 and earned an average (median) income of $3,293 during the year. In 1961, year-round full-time women workers had a median income of about $3,342, 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. Earnings data available for selected groups of women follow. Most of the information was collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and some, as noted, by other Government agencies or private groups.

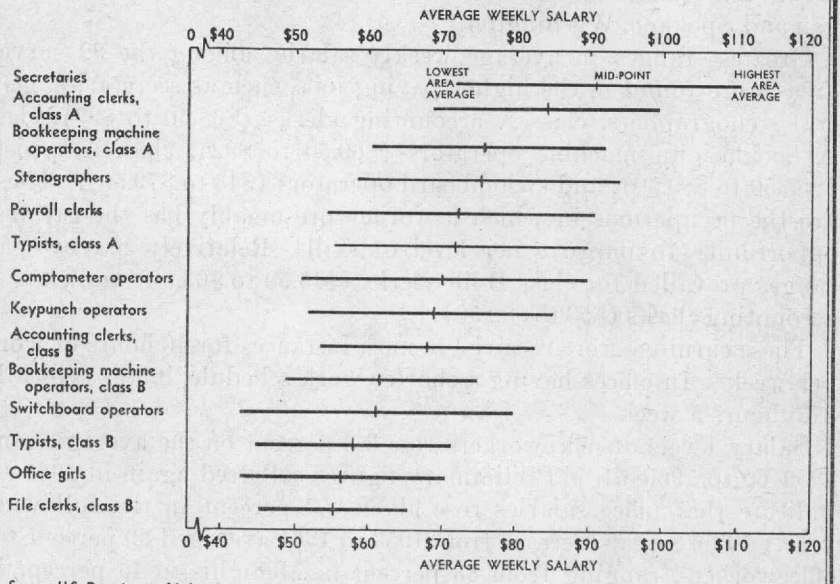
46. Office Workers' Salaries

For the almost 7 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 impor-

Chart I

RANGE OF AVERAGE WEEKLY SALARIES OF WOMEN

Selected Office Occupations in 82 Areas, Winter 1960–61



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics Occupational Wage Survey, Bulletin No. 1285 (1–82)

tant 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 by specified salary groupings.

Wage surveys in 82 metropolitan areas during late 1960 and early 1961 included office jobs employing about 2.7 million workers. 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 I, which shows the range of salaries averaged by occupational groups in each of the 82 survey areas and the median (middle) average.

Secretaries received the highest salaries among women clerical workers surveyed in 1960–61. With their average earnings ranging from $71 a week in Little Rock-North Little Rock, Arkansas to $110 a week in Wilmington, Delaware, secretaries had a median area average of $90.50 a week. General stenographers earned from $10 to $15 a week less than secretaries in a majority of the areas surveyed; their average weekly salaries ranged from $58.50 in Little Rock-North

Little Rock to $93.50 in Dayton, Ohio. Copy typists were among the lowest-paid clerical workers studied, with weekly salaries averaging from $45.50 in Little Rock-North Little Rock to $71 in Detroit, Michigan and Spokane, Washington.

Greatest ranges in average weekly salaries among the 82 survey areas were found in the higher paying jobs, such as secretaries, general stenographers, class A accounting clerks ($68.50 to $99), class A bookkeeping-machine operators ($60.50 to $92), class A typists ($55.50 to $89.50), and switchboard operators ($43 to $79.50). These are the occupations in which a worker presumably has the greatest opportunity to improve her level of skill. Relatively narrow pay ranges prevailed for class B file clerks ($45.50 to $65.50) and class B accounting clerks ($53 to $82.50).

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 officeworkers rose 3.3 percent on the average from 1959–60 to 1960–61. (Preliminary figures collected again in 1961–62 indicate that office salaries rose about 3.3 percent in the following year.) The 8-year increase from 1953 to 1961 averaged 39 percent for officeworkers, ranging from 33 percent in Memphis to 45 percent in Baltimore. These increases were generally smaller than those recorded for men employed in skilled maintenance trades and unskilled plant jobs in the same metropolitan areas.

47. Earnings of Telephone Workers

Of approximately 360,000 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 1960. The major occupations in which women predominate as employees of class A telephone carriers are listed in table 6.

The 139,000 women employed as experienced switchboard operators were the largest single group of telephone workers and received the lowest average earnings—$1.83 an hour. By region, average earnings of experienced operators ranged from $1.96 an hour in the Pacific region to $1.56 an hour in the Southeast (table 7). For an average scheduled workweek of 36.9 hours, an experienced switchboard operator typically earned $67.53 a week—or $3,512 if she 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 nonsuper-

Table 6.—Hourly Earnings of Telephone Workers, October 1960
(Employed by class A telephone carriers[1])

Selected occupations	Employees		Women as percent of total	Average hourly earnings of men and women	Percent of men and women receiving	
	Total	Women			Under $1.50	$2.10 and over
Experienced switchboard operators	139, 302	139, 287	[2] 100. 0	$1. 83	15	21
Nonsupervisory clerical workers	122, 096	113, 503	93. 0	1. 98	14	33
Nonsupervisory business-office and sales employees	36, 984	26, 496	71. 6	2. 40	5	54
Service assistants and instructors (operators)	13, 534	13, 533	[2] 100. 0	2. 19	1	64
Chief operators	11, 611	11, 599	99. 9	2. 91	[3]	91

[1] Covers telephone carriers with annual operating revenue exceeding $250,000.
[2] Less than 0.05 percent were men.
[3] Less than 0.5 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics in cooperation with the Federal Communications Commission, "Industry Wage Survey: Communications." October 1960. BLS Bull. No. 1306.

visory business-office and sales employees, as well as the large group of nonsupervisory clerical workers.

Relatively high earnings ($2.02 an hour) were also received by the experienced operators (3,931 women and 890 men) employed by the wire-telegraph industry.

48. Average Factory Earnings

Women factory workers, who numbered over 4 million at the beginning of 1962, 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.

Table 7.—Average Hourly Earnings of Experienced Switchboard Operators, by Region, October 1960

(Employed by class A telephone carriers [1])

Region	Number of workers [2]	Average hourly earnings
United States, total	139, 302	$1. 83
New England	11, 219	1. 87
Middle Atlantic	30, 368	1. 94
Great Lakes	24, 227	1. 90
Chesapeake	8, 105	1. 79
Southeast	17, 055	1. 56
North Central	5, 514	1. 63
South Central	16, 600	1. 75
Mountain	5, 554	1. 74
Pacific	14, 774	1. 96

[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.

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; and 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, "Industrial Wage Survey: Communications." October 1960, BLS Bulletin No. 1306.

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 for a 40-hour workweek. At that time, combined earnings of men and women factory workers averaged $1.68 an hour. A similar survey made in May 1958 showed average earnings of $1.97 an hour for all factory workers but did not report separate information for women. Production workers, as defined in these 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.

49. Earnings in Selected Manufacturing Industries

More detailed information on women's earnings is available for eight manufacturing industries recently surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics on a nationwide basis (table 8), as well as one manufacturing industry surveyed partially. Area-centered surveys rather than industrywide surveys are sometimes conducted for wage purposes in industries which are highly concentrated in a few areas of the country.

Men's shirt and nightwear industry.—The second largest of the eight industries surveyed fully, the men's shirt and nightwear industry, employed about 84,000 women, who constituted more than nine-tenths of the work force and earned an average of $1.24 an hour in May–June 1961. The majority of women worked in the Southeast, where their earnings averaged $1.13 an hour and where almost half received between $1 and $1.05 an hour. The largest number of women in the industry were sewing-machine operators, who averaged $1.25 an hour.

Work clothing industry.—Women were also predominant in the work clothing industry. Working primarily in small nonmetropolitan towns in the South in May–June 1961, they averaged $1.21 an hour—the lowest average in the eight nationwide industries surveyed recently. Women earning between $1 and $1.05 an hour included about one-third of those in the South and about one-fifth in the West. Men averaged $1.48 an hour, since many of them were assigned to the relatively more skilled jobs of machine cutter and sewing-machine repairman.

Paints and varnishes industry.—Women employed in paint and varnish 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 May 1961, women averaged $1.78 an hour and men, $2.25 an hour. In this industry, women equaled only 5 percent of the work force.

Cigar manufacturing.—The 16,841 women cigar workers accounted for over three-fourths of the work force in the cigar industry and were predominant in all jobs except those involving machine adjusting, maintenance, and custodial work. About half of the workers were located in the Middle Atlantic States and most of the others in the Southeast. Women's average hourly earnings in April–May 1961 were $1.37, and men's $1.48. By occupation, women's average earnings ranged from $1.08 an hour for those rolling cigars by hand to $1.65 for cigarmaking machine operators (3 positions).

Textile dyeing and finishing.—In one of the smaller branches of the textile industry, textile dyeing and finishing, women constituted about

Table 8.—Women's Earnings in Selected Industries and Occupations, 1960–61

Industry and occupation	Women workers		Percent women receiving—	
	Number	Average hourly earnings	Under $1.20	$1.80 and over
Men's and boys' shirts (except work shirts) and nightwear (May–June 1961)	84,346	$1.24	57	6
Pressers, finish, hand	6,567	1.30	(1)	(1)
Sewing-machine operators	54,829	1.25	(1)	(1)
Work distributors	1,134	1.22	(1)	(1)
Work clothing (May–June 1961)	45,460	1.21	56	3
Pressers, finish, machine	667	1.26	(1)	(1)
Sewing-machine operators	36,196	1.22	(1)	(1)
Work distributors	224	1.16	(1)	(1)
Paints and varnishes (May 1961)	1,521	1.78	5	48
Fillers, hand or machine	353	1.69	(1)	(1)
Labelers and packers	681	1.75	(1)	(1)
Cigar manufacturing (Apr.–May 1961)	16,841	1.37	24	6
Cigarmaking machine operators (1 position)	4,278	1.35	18	-----
Packers, cigar	1,934	1.54	12	15
Strippers, hand and machine	2,322	1.24	46	2
Textile dyeing and finishing (Apr.–May 1961)	9,859	1.45	11	7
Inspectors, cloth, machine	307	1.64	(1)	(1)
Winders, yarn	2,034	1.42	(1)	(1)
Candy and other confectionery products (Nov.–Dec. 1960)	29,296	1.40	28	9
Dipping-machine operators' helpers	2,017	1.43	(1)	(1)
Wrappers, machine	2,511	1.55	(1)	(1)
Cotton textiles (Aug. 1960)	98,439	1.40	9	2
Battery hands	11,923	1.30	(1)	(1)
Spinners, ring frame	24,071	1.42	(1)	(1)
Weavers	11,840	1.65	(1)	(1)
Winders, yarn	18,199	1.37	(1)	(1)
Synthetic textiles (Aug. 1960)	29,021	1.42	10	7
Battery hands	2,283	1.30	(1)	(1)
Spinners, ring frame	2,306	1.39	(1)	(1)
Weavers	3,254	1.79	(1)	(1)
Winders, yarn	8,085	1.37	(1)	(1)

[1] Information not available.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Reports No. 184, 192, 195, 1311, 1317, 1318, 1321, and 1323.

17 percent of the work force and averaged $1.45 an hour in April–May 1961. Highest earnings were reported for women inspecting cloth by machine ($1.64). The large group of women yarn winders received

lower earnings ($1.42). Men employed in this industry averaged $1.76 an hour.

Candy manufacturing.—Hourly earnings in plants making candy averaged $1.40 for women and $1.82 for men in November–December 1960. The majority of the candy workers were employed in metropolitan areas in the Middle Atlantic and Great Lakes regions. Comprising almost three-fifths of the work force, women were employed principally as hand packers, machine wrappers, dipping-machine operators' helpers, and candy inspectors.

Cotton textiles.—The largest of the textile industries, cotton textiles, in August 1960 employed 98,439 women, who constituted about two-fifths of the work force. Virtually all the workers were located in the Southeast, with the result that women's earnings averaged $1.40 an hour both in the South and in the Nation. Numerically, the major jobs held by women in the cotton textile industry were those of spinner, winder, battery hand, and weaver. Almost half the weavers were women, and their average hourly earnings ($1.65) were almost as much as the men's ($1.69).

Synthetic textiles.—The 29,021 women employed by plants engaged in the manufacture of synthetic textiles comprised two-fifths of the work force and averaged $1.42 an hour in August 1960. By comparison, men averaged $1.57 an hour. About two-thirds of the workers were in the Southeast, and most of the others were in the Middle Atlantic and New England regions. Women's average hourly earnings ranged from $1.39 in the Southeast to $1.47 in New England.

Women's and misses' dresses.—Wage data collected in August 1960 from plants manufacturing women's and misses' dresses in 12 metropolitan areas covered about two-thirds of the industry's 140,000 production workers. Women dress workers received their highest average hourly earnings in New York City ($2.19) and their lowest in Cleveland ($1.35) (table 9). 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 Cleveland.

Women had lower average earnings than men in all the 12 dress centers surveyed. Differences were smallest in Fall River and New Bedford, Massachusetts (women—$1.62; men—$1.79) and greatest in Paterson-Clifton-Passaic, New Jersey (women—$1.98; men—$3.52). Women's lower average earnings reflected the employment of numerous women in the lower paid jobs of examiner, hand sewer, section-system operator, and thread trimmer, whereas most men were employed in the jobs of cutter, presser, or tailor.

Table 9.—Hourly Earnings in Women's and Misses' Dress Industry, August 1960

Area	Number of women production workers	Average hourly earnings		Percent of women receiving—	
		Women	Men	Under $1.20	$2.50 or more
Boston, Mass	1,950	$1.80	$2.97	11	12
Chicago, Ill	2,650	1.68	2.53	16	8
Cleveland, Ohio	699	1.35	2.10	36	-----
Dallas, Tex	2,080	1.36	1.77	40	1
Fall River and New Bedford, Mass	4,779	1.62	1.79	13	6
Los Angeles-Long Beach, Calif	4,957	1.83	2.67	12	12
Newark and Jersey City, N.J	3,410	1.91	2.81	11	19
New York, N.Y	41,236	2.19	3.26	3	32
Paterson-Clifton-Passaic, N.J	1,691	1.98	3.52	4	19
Philadelphia, Pa	2,678	1.79	2.61	5	11
St. Louis, Mo	2,253	1.59	2.16	14	5
Wilkes-Barre-Hazleton, Pa	5,834	1.41	1.55	32	2

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Report No. 193.

50. Earnings in Selected Service Industries

In addition to its area-centered survey of the dress manufacturing industry, the Bureau of Labor Statistics recently made a similar type survey in three nonmanufacturing industries: power laundries, hotels, and hospitals. Information was obtained for only selected metropolitan areas of the Nation, although these industries are located in almost all cities and towns.

Power laundries.—Women employed in power laundries in 10 major metropolitan areas in April–July 1960 received average hourly earnings which ranged from 98 cents in Baltimore to $1.52 in San Francisco-Oakland (table 10). At least three-fifths of the women earned less than $1.10 an hour in Baltimore, Washington, D.C., and Detroit, and about one-half of the women in Chicago and Boston.

In most of the 10 areas, women workers outnumbered men workers by at least 3 to 1. The largest number of women were employed as flatwork finishers, retail receiving clerks, and shirt pressers (machine).

Hotels.—A wage survey covering employees in selected hotel occupations in 24 metropolitan areas indicated that the largest numbers of women were employed as chambermaids, waitresses, and elevator operators. Average hourly earnings of the chambermaids ranged from 41 cents in New Orleans to $1.51 in San Francisco-Oakland in March–June 1960 (table 11). For women elevator operators, the

Table 10.—Women's Earnings in Power Laundries in 10 Major Areas, April–July 1960

Area	Number of women production workers	Average hourly earnings		Percent of women receiving	
		Women	Men	Under $1.00	$1.50 or more
Northeast:					
Boston	1,941	$1.15	$1.47	1	6
Newark and Jersey City	2,462	1.23	1.57	2	8
New York City	5,053	1.24	1.54	----	12
Philadelphia	2,582	1.22	1.52	1	8
South:					
Baltimore	1,807	.98	1.23	52	3
Washington	1,779	1.11	1.42	7	5
North Central:					
Chicago	5,103	1.16	1.62	1	8
Detroit	1,206	1.12	1.46	6	6
West:					
Los Angeles-Long Beach	2,536	1.33	1.66	(1)	17
San Francisco-Oakland	1,403	1.52	2.13	----	44

[1] Less than 0.5 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Report No. 178.

range was from 53 cents an hour in Atlanta to $1.63 an hour in New York City. Waitresses received tips in addition to the earnings reported in the Bureau of Labor Statistics study.

51. Earnings of Practical Nurses and Hospital Aides

A survey of salaries and employment conditions of selected hospital personnel was conducted in 15 large metropolitan areas between June and August 1960 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The occupations for which wage information was obtained include those of practical nurses, nursing aides, and selected office, kitchen, laundry, housekeeping, and maintenance workers, as well as professional nurses. Sections 53 and 54 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 half or more of the nursing team in the hospitals surveyed. Women practical nurses (who generally constituted at least 85 percent of all the practical nurses in the areas studied) averaged between $60 and $70 a week in 9 of the 15 cities (table 12). Highest earnings were paid in Los Angeles-Long Beach and lowest in Atlanta, Dallas, Memphis, and

Table 11.—Women's Earnings in Selected Hotel Occupations in 24 Major Areas, March–June 1960

Area	Chambermaids		Elevator operators	
	Number of women	Average hourly earnings[1]	Number of women	Average hourly earnings[1]
Northeast:				
Boston	516	$1.10	------	----------
Buffalo	306	1.09	29	$1.13
Newark and Jersey City	128	.77	9	.88
New York City	5,530	1.34	193	1.63
Philadelphia	476	1.00	80	1.04
Pittsburgh	554	1.41	80	1.44
South:				
Atlanta	311	.47	80	.53
Baltimore	210	.55	------	----------
Miami	1,043	.78	127	.81
New Orleans	264	.41	------	----------
Washington	952	1.03	37	1.06
North Central:				
Chicago	1,796	1.14	265	1.43
Cincinnati	230	1.06	29	1.11
Cleveland	404	1.07	83	1.14
Detroit	554	1.03	96	1.32
Indianapolis	179	.65	39	.62
Kansas City	378	.89	74	.93
Milwaukee	186	1.23	------	----------
Minneapolis-St. Paul	342	1.18	24	1.27
St. Louis	474	.94	78	1.13
West:				
Denver	219	.99	------	----------
Los Angeles-Long Beach	1,398	1.16	97	1.32
Portland	153	1.20	28	1.20
San Francisco-Oakland	805	1.51	25	1.62

[1] Excludes tips and the value of free room and meals, as well as premium pay for overtime.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Report No. 173.

Philadelphia. The majority of practical nurses were scheduled to work 40 hours a week. In two-thirds of the survey areas, they earned about 75 to 85 percent as much as general-duty nurses.

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 $45 and $60 a week in 9 of the 15 areas. The San Francisco-Oakland area paid the highest wages to this group of women; and Atlanta, Dallas, and Memphis, the lowest. The majority

Table 12.—Average Earnings of Women in Selected Nonprofessional Hospital Occupations in 15 Areas, Mid-1960

Area	Date of survey	Average weekly earnings [1]		Average hourly earnings [1]	
		Nursing aides	Practical nurses	Kitchen helpers	Maids
Atlanta	6-60	$33.00	$42.00	$0.56	$0.55
Baltimore	6-60	46.50	60.00	.97	1.00
Boston	6-60	55.00	68.50	1.21	1.29
Buffalo	6-60	55.50	62.50	1.27	1.24
Chicago	7-60	54.00	66.50	1.40	1.28
Cincinnati	6-60	45.00	61.50	1.19	1.17
Cleveland	7-60	46.50	60.00	1.10	1.09
Dallas	6-60	35.50	46.50	.70	.75
Los Angeles-Long Beach	8-60	61.50	75.50	1.36	1.46
Memphis	7-60	32.50	44.50	.50	.53
Minneapolis-St. Paul	7-60	57.50	65.50	1.45	1.45
New York City	7-60	57.50	67.00	1.41	1.39
Philadelphia	7-60	43.00	48.00	.95	.95
Portland, Oreg	7-60	56.50	60.50	1.36	1.37
San Francisco-Oakland	8-60	67.00	72.50	1.57	1.61

[1] Covers those in private and nonfederal 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." Bull. No. 1294. *See also* Women's Bureau Pamphlet 6 with supplement.

of nursing aides had a regular 40-hour workweek. Women nursing aides earned 55 to 70 percent as much as women general-duty nurses in 9 of the 15 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 15 survey cities in mid-1960 ranged from 53 cents an hour in Memphis to $1.61 an hour in San Francisco-Oakland. On the basis of a 40-hour week, their average weekly earnings ranged from $21.20 to $64.40. Women kitchen helpers usually earned about the same as maids, averaging from 50 cents an hour in Memphis to $1.57 an hour in San Francisco-Oakland.

52. Salaries of Schoolteachers

Of the approximately 2.9 million women employed in professional or technical occupations (April 1962), 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 1,258,000 women who were teaching (except in colleges and universities) in April 1962 represented about 70 percent of all noncollege teachers. In elementary schools almost nine-tenths of the teachers were women, and in secondary schools they were almost half. Although teachers' salaries reported by the National Education Association usually do not 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 districts 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 20th of a series of annual estimates—to average $5,527 for the total group during the school year 1961–62, with elementary school teachers averaging $5,327 and secondary school teachers, $5,800. By comparison, average salaries of classroom teachers in 1960–61 were: Total—$5,275, elementary schools—$5,075, and secondary schools—$5,543.[2] Thus, both elementary and secondary school teachers earned on the average 5 percent more in 1961–62 than in 1960–61.

Detailed information on salaries paid to teachers in urban districts are collected biennially by the National Education Association. For the school year 1960–61 (the latest available), the median salary of urban teachers was $5,510 a year (table 13). (The number of teachers estimated in urban areas throughout the country totaled 936,000.) Separate data for elementary, junior high, and senior high schools (reported from 1922–23 through 1956–57) are no longer obtained because of the difficulty of securing figures, the widespread

[2] "Estimates of School Statistics, 1961–62," Research Report 1961–62, December 1961, National Education Association.

Table 13.—Annual Salaries of Urban Teachers, by Size of Urban School District, 1960–61

Population of school district	Number of urban teachers [1]	Median annual salary	Percent receiving— Under $4,000	Percent receiving— $6,000 and over
Total reported	578, 464	$5, 510	6	43
500,000 and over	152, 552	6, 422	1	60
100,000–499,999	181, 145	5, 506	7	38
30,000–99,999	179, 985	5, 561	7	39
10,000–29,999	47, 825	5, 318	9	31
5,000–9,999	14, 129	5, 031	12	20
2,500–4,999	2, 828	4, 727	18	12

[1] Includes men and women in school districts participating in survey.

Source: National Education Association: "Salaries and Salary Schedules of Urban School Employees, 1960–61." Research Report 1961–R17, October 1961.

use of a single-salary schedule by school boards, and the increased interest in salary data in terms of preparation levels.

Teachers generally receive higher salaries in large cities than in small cities or towns, but requirements are usually higher in large cities. In 1960–61, salaries of $6,000 a year or more were received by three-fifths of the teachers employed in urban school districts of 500,000 or more population, and by less than one-fifth of the teachers in districts of 2,500 to 9,999 population. Conversely, virtually none of the teachers in the largest districts earned less than $4,000 a year, but over one-tenth did in the smallest districts.

For the school year 1961–62, 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: $4,600, districts of 500,000 and over population; $4,500, districts of 100,000 to 499,999; and $4,500, districts of 30,000 to 99,999.[3] The median of the minimum salaries for teachers with a master's degree was $4,800 in all three size-groups of districts. Thus, the minimum salary for teachers with a master's degree was around 5 percent higher than the minimum for those with a bachelor's degree.

In recognition of experience, the 1961–62 maximum salaries paid to teachers with a bachelor's degree were about 50 to 56 percent above minimum salaries. For those with a master's degree, the maximums

[3] "Salary Schedules, Classroom Teachers, 1961–62." Data for urban districts 100,000 and over in population in Research Report 1961–R19, and for urban districts 30,000–99,999 in Research Report 1962–R3, National Education Association.

exceeded the minimums by 54 to 57 percent. The medians of the maximum salaries which can be obtained by teachers with the highest level of preparation recognized in their district (top maximum) were $7,700, $8,057, and $7,800, respectively, in the three size-groups of districts.

Women college teachers, about one-fifth of the faculty in colleges and universities granting bachelor's degrees, received a median salary of $6,410 during the school year 1961–62 (table 14). Salaries were computed for 9 months of full-time teaching in a study made by the National Education Association. With women's occupational averages ranging from $5,331 for instructors to $8,832 for professors, differences in average salaries from one major teaching level to another were slightly over $1,000.

Considerably higher salaries were received by women teachers in municipal universities ($7,388) than in any other type of institution of higher learning. Among the remaining schools, State colleges ($6,918) were the highest paying, and small private colleges ($5,027) the lowest.

Table 14.—Annual Salaries of Teaching Staff in Colleges and Universities, by Occupation, 1961–62

Occupation	Number		Median annual salary	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total teaching staff	19,994	89,742	$6,410	$7,699
Professor	2,692	26,176	8,832	10,327
Associate professor	4,230	22,256	7,546	8,245
Assistant professor	6,761	26,723	6,434	6,996
Instructor	6,311	14,587	5,331	5,706

Source: National Education Association: "Salaries Paid and Salary Practices in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1961–62." Research Report 1962-R2, February 1962.

Salaries reported for administrative positions in colleges and universities were combined for men and women. In a list of 26 positions held by administrative officers, the deans of women received the second-lowest salaries ($7,399) on the average. Also low were the salaries of registrars ($7,312) and head librarians ($8,163). Among deans of professional and graduate schools were deans of home economics ($13,625) and of nursing ($11,750)—two posts frequently held by women. All administrative salaries covered a full calendar year (1961–62.)

In addition to degree-granting institutions, junior colleges were also surveyed for salary information. The 3,066 women teachers employed by public junior colleges had a median salary of $6,720, and the 1,023 women teachers in private junior colleges $4,795. With salaries computed on the basis of 9 months of service in 1961–62, women's medians were lower than men's by $508 and $571, respectively.

53. Salaries of Registered Nurses

The second largest group of professional women, registered nurses, numbered 567,884 in the 1960 census. The majority of registered nurses are employed by hospitals and related institutions. According to estimates of the American Nurses' Association,[4] approximately 14 percent are private-duty nurses; 8 percent, office nurses employed by physicians or dentists in private practice; 6 percent, public health nurses; 4 percent, industrial nurses, sometimes called occupational health nurses; and 3 percent, nurse educators. Additional nurses are engaged in other positions, such as research, organizational, or administrative work.

Hospital nurses assigned to general duty typically received from $70 to $90 a week in private and nonfederal government hospitals in the 15 areas surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in mid-1960. Average weekly salaries of women general-duty nurses ranged from $65 in Atlanta to $89 in Los Angeles-Long Beach. (Average salaries in the other survey areas are shown in table 15 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. Nurses assigned to late-shift work were generally paid a shift differential, which varied widely—in most cases from $2.50 to $10 a week.

Of all hospital nurses, directors of nursing received the highest salaries, averaging 65 to 85 percent more than general-duty nurses in most of the survey areas. Supervisors of nurses and nursing instructors generally averaged about 20 to 30 percent more than general-duty nurses, and head nurses about 10 to 20 percent more.

Since 1945, starting salaries of general-duty nurses in nonfederal hospitals have been surveyed annually by the American Hospital Association. The latest study, made in 1961, showed that general-duty nurses who worked full time had an average starting salary of $312 a month—or $3,744 a year. These figures include not only cash salaries received but also estimated amounts for maintenance where

[4] "Facts About Nursing," American Nurses' Association. 1961.

Table 15.—Average Weekly Salaries of Women in Selected Hospital [1] Nursing Occupations in 15 Areas, Mid-1960

Area	Date of survey	Directors of nursing	General duty nurses	Head nurses	Nursing instructors
Atlanta	6–60	----	$65.00	$71.50	$79.50
Baltimore	6–60	$131.50	74.00	82.50	92.00
Boston	6–60	135.00	79.50	91.50	98.50
Buffalo	6–60	142.00	80.50	95.50	102.00
Chicago	7–60	140.00	85.50	95.00	102.00
Cincinnati	6–60	118.00	77.50	85.50	87.00
Cleveland	7–60	143.50	82.00	95.00	99.50
Dallas	6–60	133.50	74.00	83.00	89.50
Los Angeles-Long Beach	8–60	145.00	89.00	105.00	116.50
Memphis	7–60	127.00	68.50	75.00	78.00
Minneapolis-St. Paul	7–60	153.50	80.50	95.00	103.00
New York City	7–60	138.50	82.50	94.00	100.00
Philadelphia	7–60	127.50	72.00	82.50	93.50
Portland, Oreg	7–60	137.50	79.50	88.50	98.00
San Francisco-Oakland	8–60	158.50	87.50	105.50	113.00

[1] Includes both private and nonfederal 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." Bull. No. 1294. *See also* Women's Bureau Pamphlet 6 with supplement.

such items as room, board, and laundry are provided. The monthly averages have increased by $88 (39 percent) since 1951, and by $157 (101 percent) since 1945, as shown in table 16.

Table 16.—Average Starting Salaries of General-Duty Nurses, Selected Years

Year	Average gross monthly starting salary	Average hours scheduled per week
1961	$312	41
1959	294	41
1958	286	41
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."

As *private-duty nurses* are self-employed, their compensation is individually determined. The median average daily fee of private-duty nurses was $18 for a basic 8-hour day, according to a survey made by the American Nurses' Association in June 1961. Most of the nurses charged from $15 to $20 a day. They worked an average (median) of 18 days in January 1962 and had a median income of $320 for the month.

Office nurses, when surveyed in July 1962 by the American Nurses' Association, averaged $4,320 for full-time work. Their salaries varied directly with the size of the city of their employment, ranging from $4,776 a year in cities with at least one-half million population to $3,900 a year in towns of less than 10,000 persons. About 42 percent of the office nurses regularly worked 40 hours a week; 32 percent, less than 40 hours; 19 percent, more than 40 hours; and 7 percent, no report.

Local *public health nurses* in staff nurse positions received average salaries of $4,652 in official (public) agencies and $4,316 in nonofficial (private) agencies, as reported in an April 1961 survey by the National League for Nursing. By region, salaries were highest in the West, next highest in the Midwest and North Atlantic States, and lowest in the South.

School nurses in urban school districts received an average (median) salary of $5,318 a year, according to a National Education Association study made for the school year 1960–61.

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 1961 and early 1962, women industrial nurses received weekly salaries averaging from $75 in Greenville, South Carolina to $118.50 in Beaumont-Port Arthur, Texas (table 17). This would mean a range of about $3,900 to $6,162 for a full year's work (52 weeks). In the period from 1953 to 1962, average salaries of industrial nurses increased about 50 percent.

Nurse educators received full-time annual earnings averaging $5,150 in October 1960, as reported in an American Nurses' Association survey of nursing educational programs. Median earnings were $4,870 for teachers in hospital schools and $6,000 for teachers in collegiate schools. Considered by type of institutional control, salaries were higher in schools of nursing operated by State or local governments than in schools operated by churches or other nongovernmental agencies.

Table 17.—Average Weekly Salaries of Industrial Nurses in Selected Metropolitan Areas, 1961–62

Area	Number of women	Average weekly salary (mean)	Area	Number of women	Average weekly salary (mean)
Akron	66	$101.00	Milwaukee	203	$98.00
Albany-Schnectady-Troy	43	102.50	Minneapolis-St. Paul	109	95.00
Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton	38	98.00	Muskegon-Muskegon Heights	17	90.00
Atlanta	69	99.50	Newark-Jersey City	332	99.50
Baltimore	146	99.50	New Haven	52	98.50
Beaumont-Port Arthur	33	118.50	New Orleans	37	101.00
Birmingham	40	100.00	New York	517	105.50
Boston	282	92.00	Paterson-Clifton-Passaic	73	103.50
Buffalo	186	102.50	Philadelphia	268	95.50
Canton	59	99.50	Phoenix	28	100.00
Charleston	48	108.00	Pittsburgh	324	104.50
Chattanooga	18	94.00	Portland, Me	12	80.00
Chicago	574	101.50	Portland, Oreg	32	93.50
Cincinnati	114	100.50	Providence-Pawtucket	83	80.50
Cleveland	269	102.00	Richmond	61	100.00
Columbus	60	92.50	Rockford	38	88.50
Dallas	65	91.00	St. Louis	184	97.00
Davenport-Rock Island-Moline	29	105.50	San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario	30	102.50
Dayton	68	105.00	San Francisco-Oakland	127	107.00
Denver	45	95.00	Scranton	14	78.00
Des Moines	17	96.50	Seattle	72	100.50
Fort Worth	40	103.00	South Bend	24	99.50
Greenville	19	75.00	Toledo	46	100.00
Indianapolis	116	103.00	Trenton	37	97.00
Kansas City	102	97.50	Washington, D.C.	46	93.00
Los Angeles-Long Beach	535	108.50	Waterbury	25	99.00
Louisville	53	98.50	Wichita	31	104.50
Memphis	31	89.00	Wilmington	39	107.00
Miami	29	85.00			

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Occupational Wage Survey."

54. 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 hospital survey. Women were in the majority in all occupations of this group—constituting two-thirds 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 15 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—$69 to $109, X-ray technicians—$57 to $88, dietitians—$75.50 to $102.50, physical therapists—$77.50 to $103, medical social workers—$93.50 to $123, and medical-record librarians—$80 to $112 (table 18).

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. On the other hand, salaries of general-duty nurses were typically below those of medical social workers, medical-record librarians, dietitians, physical therapists, and medical technologists in most of the survey areas.

Table 18.—Average Weekly Salaries of Women in Selected Nonnursing Hospital [1] Occupations in 15 Areas, Mid-1960

Area	Date of survey	Dietitians	Medical technologists	Physical therapists	X-ray technicians
Atlanta	6–60	$82.50	$74.50	------	$63.00
Baltimore	6–60	98.50	79.50	$85.50	71.50
Boston	6–60	93.00	73.00	77.50	72.00
Buffalo	6–60	94.00	84.00	86.50	75.00
Chicago	7–60	98.00	87.00	82.50	82.00
Cincinnati	6–60	100.00	81.50	88.50	70.50
Cleveland	7–60	92.50	77.50	84.50	70.50
Dallas	6–60	86.50	82.00	81.50	67.00
Los Angeles-Long Beach	8–60	99.00	109.00	103.00	88.00
Memphis	7–60	75.50	77.00	------	57.00
Minneapolis-St. Paul	7–60	95.50	98.50	96.00	70.00
New York City	7–60	86.50	80.00	80.50	78.50
Philadelphia	7–60	88.50	69.00	85.50	66.00
Portland, Oreg.	7–60	95.50	86.50	101.00	81.50
San Francisco-Oakland	8–60	102.50	106.00	98.50	88.00

[1] Includes both private and nonfederal 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. 1294. *See also* Women's Bureau Pamphlet 6 with supplement.

55. Salaries of Social Welfare Workers

A comprehensive salary survey covering 105,000 social workers (62,000 women and 43,000 men) and 10,500 recreation workers (3,500 women and 7,000 men) was made in 1960 by the National Social Wel-

fare Assembly, Inc.; the U.S. Department of Labor; and the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Although the number of women social workers had increased 23 percent over 1950, their relative proportion declined from 68 to 59 percent of the total group—reflecting a conscious effort in recent years to attract more men into the profession.

Approximately 42,000 women social workers employed in direct-service positions on such programs as public assistance and child welfare earned $4,590 on the average in 1960, as compared with the $5,060 average salary received by 23,000 men (table 19). Salary differences tended to decrease when workers were grouped by type of employing agency and level of education. Federal workers in direct-service positions had higher average salaries than those employed by voluntary agencies or State and local governments.

Table 19.—Annual Salaries of Social Welfare Workers, 1960

Group	Number		Average annual salary	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Social workers [1]	62,216	43,047	$4,940	$5,760
Direct-service positions	42,148	22,900	4,590	5,060
Supervisory positions	5,691	3,926	6,520	6,050
Executive positions	9,278	12,589	5,440	7,270
Other positions	4,848	3,565	6,300	6,310
Recreation workers	3,520	6,902	4,560	5,310

[1] Total numbers include a few who did not indicate their position.

Source: National Social Welfare Assembly: "Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960." Joint survey with the U.S. Department of Labor and the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

56. Starting Salaries of Recent College Graduates

Salaries and jobs of women who were graduated from coeducational and women's colleges in June 1957 were surveyed in the winter of 1957–58 by the Women's Bureau in cooperation with the National Vocational Guidance Association. Of the 88,000 women represented in the survey, 76 percent were employed full time and averaged $3,739 a year. Highest salaries were received by women chemists ($4,847) and women mathematicians and statisticians ($4,675). Teachers, predominant occupational group among women graduates, averaged $3,799 a year. Table 20 shows the principal occupations reported by the June 1957 graduates, along with the estimated number of women

graduates in each occupation and their average annual salary, by region.

The June 1957 graduates earned 9 percent more than was reported about 6 months after graduation by the June 1956 class and 19 percent more than by the June 1955 class. In the winter of 1956–57, starting salaries of college women had averaged $3,446 a year, and in the winter of 1955–56, $3,141 a year. Women graduates employed as chemists were also the highest paid in previous years, receiving starting salaries of $4,453 in 1956–57 and $3,900 in 1955–56. The large group of women teachers averaged $3,492 at the start in 1956–57 and $3,197 in 1955–56.

Table 20.—Starting Salaries of June 1957 Women Graduates, by Region

Occupation	Number of graduates	Average annual salary				
		United States	Northeast	North Central	South	West
Graduates represented [1]	63, 945	$3, 739	$3, 764	$3, 860	$3, 381	$4, 050
Chemists	569	4, 847	4, 847	------	------	------
Mathematicians and statisticians	627	4, 675	4, 608	------	------	------
Home economists	808	4, 040	3, 965	------	4, 011	------
Research workers	626	3, 971	3, 955	------	------	------
Therapists	701	3, 947	------	3, 957	------	------
Nurses	4, 302	3, 875	3, 845	4, 167	3, 673	3, 814
Technicians, biological	1, 586	3, 854	3, 595	3, 987	3, 897	4, 000
Teachers	39, 320	3, 799	3, 840	3, 925	3, 348	4, 185
Social and welfare workers	1, 266	3, 792	3, 752	3, 791	3, 553	4, 131
Dietitians	401	3, 576	3, 624	------	------	------
Secretaries and stenographers	4, 089	3, 295	3, 437	3, 403	3, 069	3, 372
Typists	449	3, 104	------	------	3, 222	------

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

Source: "First Jobs of College Women: Report on Women Graduates, Class of 1957." Women's Bureau Bull. No. 268. 1959.

57. Salaries of College Graduates: Two Years Later

The Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc., conducted a survey for the National Science Foundation in 1960 to learn the occupational status of young college graduates with different specializations and especially of those with skills in short supply. Of the 119,541 [5]

[5] As reported by the National Science Foundation.

women who had earned a bachelor's degree in June 1958, a total of 11,723—or about 10 percent—participated in the survey. The status of this sample group in May 1960 was: 70 percent employed full time, 6 percent with part-time jobs, 19 percent housewives, and 3 percent students.

The highest salaries reported in 1960 by employed women who had earned a bachelor's degree in 1957–58 were averaged by women chemists ($5,540), women mathematicians ($5,520), and women pharmacists ($5,500) (table 21). The largest numbers among the total employed group had jobs as teachers in elementary schools ($4,330) and in secondary schools ($4,250), as secretarial and clerical workers ($3,960), and as nurses ($4,200).

Table 21.—Women's Salaries Two Years After Graduation From College, By Occupation, 1960

Occupation	*Number*	*Percent*	*Median annual salary in 1960*
A. WOMEN WHO EARNED A BACHELOR'S DEGREE IN 1958			
Total employed women	8, 802	100	-------
Accountants	42	1	$4, 290
Artists	49	1	3, 720
Chemists	50	1	5, 540
Dietitians	114	1	4, 410
Mathematicians	67	1	5, 520
Nurses	387	4	4, 200
Pharmacists	31	(1)	5, 500
Research assistants	171	2	3, 940
Sales workers	61	1	3, 400
Secretarial and clerical workers	801	9	3, 960
Service and unskilled workers	64	1	3, 620
Social and welfare workers	247	3	4, 180
Teachers, elementary school and kindergarten	3, 223	37	4, 330
Teachers, secondary school	1, 989	23	4, 250
Writers	115	1	3, 990
Others	1, 391	16	-------
B. WOMEN WHO EARNED A MASTER'S DEGREE IN 1958			
Total employed women	1, 844	100	-------
Teachers, elementary school and kindergarten	538	29	$5, 280
Social and welfare workers	130	7	5, 340
Others	1, 176	64	-------

[1] Less than 0.5 percent.

Source: Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc.: "The 1958 College Graduate—Two Years Later." 1961.

Of the 23,652 [6] women who had earned a master's degree in 1957–58, there were 2,234 survey participants. On the basis of the two occupational groups for which salary comparisons could be made, the women with a master's degree were averaging about $1,000 a year more than those with a bachelor's degree. The two occupations reported by the largest numbers of master-degree recipients were teachers in elementary schools ($5,280) and social and welfare workers ($5,340).

58. Federal Employees' Salaries

The latest salary information for women employees of the Federal Government was obtained by the Civil Service Commission as of October 1959. The survey showed that about 476,000 women white-collar workers had an average (mean) salary of $4,480 in 1959, as compared with $6,078 a year for men. At that time, salaries ranged from $2,960 for grade 1 jobs to $17,500 for grade 18 jobs—as determined under the Classification Act of 1949, as amended. Since the survey, salaries were increased about 7.5 percent, effective July 1960. In addition, a two-part increase averaged 9.6 percent for employees covered by the Classification Act and 11.2 percent for postal employees. The first part of the second increase went into effect in October 1962, and the remainder is due in January 1964. After the October 1962 increase, scheduled salaries ranged from $3,245 to $20,000 a year.

The average (median) job grade for women in 1959 was grade 4 and for men, grade 9, if postal employees not covered by the Classification Act are excluded from consideration. Almost 80 percent of the women were in grades 5 and below; 20 percent, in grades 6 through 12; and less than 1 percent, in grades 13 and above (table 22).

On the basis of women's representation *among total employees*, women made up over two-thirds of all employees in grades 1 through 5, although they were only one-third of all white-collar workers in 1959. As the job grade increased, the percentage of women decreased. Women were 20 percent of all workers in grades 6 to 12 and 2 percent of those in grades 13 and above. In supergrades 16, 17, and 18 they were 1 percent of the total.[7]

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 1958 the average length

[6] Degrees in library science and social work were included in this study among master's degrees, although they are usually considered first-professional degrees.

[7] For further analysis, see "Women in the Federal Service, 1939–1959," Women's Bureau Pamphlet 4 Revised, 1962 and "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.

Table 22.—Salaries of Women White-Collar Employees in the Federal Service, October 1959

Salary range [1]	*General schedule grade equivalent*	*Number of women*	*Percentage distribution*	*As percent of total Federal white-collar employees*
Total	--------	476, 448	--------	32. 7
Grade specified	--------	413, 303	100. 0	42. 5
$2,960–$3,530	1	946	. 2	26. 5
$3,255–$3,825	2	23, 652	5. 7	56. 7
$3,495–$4,065	3	119, 276	28. 9	71. 9
$3,755–$4,325	4	114, 921	27. 8	71. 8
$4,040–$4,940	5	68, 199	16. 5	61. 3
$4,490–$5,390	6	25, 248	6. 1	52. 2
$4,980–$5,880	7	30, 021	7. 3	32. 5
$5,470–$6,370	8	5, 496	1. 3	21. 5
$5,985–$6,885	9	13, 825	3. 3	13. 7
$6,505–$7,405	10	1, 494	. 4	10. 6
$7,030–$8,230	11	5, 974	1. 4	7. 3
$8,330–$9,530	12	2, 634	. 6	4. 4
$9,890–$11,090	13	1, 158	. 3	2. 9
$11,355–$12,555	14	351	. 1	2. 0
$12,770–$13,970	15	90	(2)	1. 1
$14,190–$15,150	16	9	(2)	. 8
$15,375–$16,335	17	7	(2)	1. 4
$17,500	18	2	(2)	1. 1

[1] Effective July 1960, salary rates for classified workers were raised about 7.5 percent. In October 1962 a two-part increase averaging 9. 6 percent was approved, with part effective in October 1962 and the remainder in January 1964.

[2] Less than 0.05 percent.

Source: U.S. Civil Service Commission: "Occupations and Salaries of Women in the Federal Service, October 31, 1959." Pamphlet 62. 1962.

of service was 13.8 years for men and 9.9 years for women. Employees with less than 5 years of service included 28 percent of the women but only 11 percent of the men. About two-thirds of the men and almost one-half of the women had at least 10 years of service.

By occupation, average yearly salaries of women (in occupational series with at least 100 women) ranged from $3,426 for messengers to $9,722 for women engaged in social administration. Clerk-typists, the largest single occupational group, included 63,546 women, who averaged $3,768 in 1959. In other numerically important clerical occupations 46,269 clerk-stenographers earned $4,060 on the average, and 30,981 secretaries earned $4,602. The 34,758 women performing professional work for the Federal Government averaged $6,007 a year in

1959. Women's average earnings in significant professional and other occupations are shown in table 23.

Table 23.—Women's Average Salaries in Selected Occupations in Federal Service, 1959

C.S.C. occupational series	*Number of women employees* [1]	*Average annual salary* [2]	*Percent women are of series*
Social administration	163	$9,722	49
Medical officer	520	9,191	5
General attorney	423	8,974	5
Physics	121	8,185	3
Statistics	483	7,764	21
Business economics	114	7,631	33
Position-classification	760	7,201	33
Mathematics	578	6,962	27
Adjudicating	242	6,793	12
Chemistry	814	6,687	14
Bacteriology	256	6,678	28
Budget administration	1,276	6,501	28
Public health nurse	141	6,481	99
Dietitian	1,042	6,396	95
Librarian	2,077	6,307	72
Digital computer programming	483	6,219	20
Medical technologist	345	5,496	72
Nurse	19,532	5,447	97
Information and editorial	3,401	5,439	51
Secretary	30,981	4,602	99
Clerk-stenographer and reporter	46,269	4,060	98
Postmaster and assistant postmaster	15,064	3,882	37
Nursing assistant	9,216	3,833	27
Clerk-typist	63,546	3,768	93

[1] Covers only those working in the United States.

[2] Salaries refer to all women white-collar workers, including citizens working abroad.

Source: U.S. Civil Service Commission.

Retirement Income

Fully 70 percent of the 9.4 million women 65 years of age and over in the population are estimated to have received income in 1961 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. 59). Also, 1,510,000 women (December 1960) were covered by retirement programs for public employees and railroad workers or by pension and compensation programs for veterans.

Some women are known to receive retirement income from more than one source, and others receive some employment income as well as retirement benefits. Among women 65 and over, about 942,000 (April 1962) were receiving income from their own employment, and 890,000 (December 1960) were nonworking wives of employed men. Another 1.5 million women 65 years of age and over (September 1960) received old-age assistance under State programs financed by State and Federal funds.

It was not known how many elderly women had income derived from other sources, including private pension plans, personal funds, and local relief, or had no money income and were being supported by relatives or others.

59. Women Benefiting From Old-Age, Survivors, and Disability Insurance

About 7.4 million women 62 years of age and over were receiving benefits under the old-age, survivors, and disability insurance programs in June 1962, according to the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Male beneficiaries aged 62 and over were somewhat fewer in number (6.2 million). Among the 13.6 million adults receiving some type of benefit, women accounted for 54 percent of the total.

Old-age, survivors, and disability insurance programs provide for partial replacement of lost income when employment is cut off because of old age, disability, or death. Originally, the old-age insurance program was established by the Social Security Act of 1935. The current programs cover almost all types of workers; Federal employees and self-employed physicians are the principal exceptions. By the beginning of 1962, almost 110 million workers now living, including about 49 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 and disabled 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. Now disabled workers who have been covered under the program for a sufficient length of time are eligible for disability benefits for themselves and their families.

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 1962 ranged from $32 a month to $125 a month for a retired worker and from $47 to $187.50 a month for a married couple, depending on a worker's average monthly earnings. At the end of June 1962, old-age benefits averaging $62.40 a month were paid to 3,318,000 retired women workers. The average for 6,029,000 retired men workers was $83.50 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 receiving disability insurance benefits in June 1962 included 154,000 women and 526,000 men. The average monthly benefit was $78.10 for the women and $93.10 for the men. In addition, 132,000 women received average monthly benefits of $32.60 as dependents of disabled workers.

About 435,000 young widows with child beneficiaries in their care were receiving old-age and survivors insurance benefits in June 1962. Survivor families composed of a mother and two children received benefits averaging $191 a month in early 1962.

Beneficiaries under 72 years of age may receive payments for every month of the year if they earn less than $1,200 a year. If a beneficiary earns more than $1,200 a year, he may receive some of his benefits under certain conditions. At age 72 and over, benefits are paid without regard to current earnings.

Investment Income

60. *Women as Stockholders*

Women's participation in stockownership is another indicator of their economic status. The 8,291,000 women estimated to have 1 or more shares of stock in publicly owned corporations in early 1962 equaled 51 percent of 17,010,000 individual shareowners, according to a study made by the New York Stock Exchange.[8] The fact that women stockholders outnumbered men, as first noted in a 1955 study,

[8] "1962 Census of Shareowners in America," New York Stock Exchange. 1962.

is believed to be related to the 1954 tax law under which a husband and wife are each allowed a $50 dividend tax exemption.

About one of every six 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 19 percent of the total, about 5 percent less than owned individually by men. The remaining shares (57 percent) were held by institutions, brokers and dealers, persons with joint accounts, nominees (who hold shares for others), and foreign owners.

An earlier study by The Brookings Institution estimated 3,230,000 women owned stock in 1951–52 and represented slightly less than half of all individual shareowners.[9] 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 shareholding.

Income and Expenditures

61. Women as Consumers

The Survey of Consumer Expenditures made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1950 provides a picture of the spending patterns of single women consumers. The study is confined to actual expenditures for goods and services and does not imply in any way that these are the minimum required to maintain their health and welfare. (See ch. 1, sec. 30 for other references to the SCE.)

Of the approximately 4 million women who were single consumers in 1950, about 70 percent had established their own households and the remainder were lodgers or resident employees of households, roominghouses, or hotels. Average money income of these women was $1,780 before taxes and $1,644 after taxes. The fact that one-third had spendable incomes of less than $1,000, and another third had incomes between $1,000 and $2,000 was related to their relatively high median age (58 years). Fully one-third of the women did not engage in paid employment any time during 1950, probably because many were retired or unable to work. One-fifth of the women received between $2,000 and $3,000 income and only about one-tenth received $3,000 or more (table 24).

[9] "Share Ownership in the United States," The Brookings Institution, Washington, D.C. 1952.

Table 24.—Expenditures and Incomes of Single Women Consumers in Urban Areas, by Income Group, 1950

Item	Total money income minus taxes							
	Total	Under $1,000	$1,000 and under $2,000	$2,000 and under $3,000	$3,000 and under $4,000	$4,000 and under $5,000	$5,000 and under $6,000	$6,000 and over
Percent of single women consumers	100	34	35	21	8	2	1	1
Money income:								
Before taxes	$1,780	$612	$1,556	$2,684	$3,699	$4,725	$5,887	$10,794
After taxes	1,644	607	1,480	2,426	3,387	4,291	5,460	7,897
Expenditures for current consumption	1,661	946	1,525	2,236	2,954	3,357	4,764	4,935
	Percent distribution							
All types of expenditures	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Food and beverages	30	35	31	29	24	24	24	22
Housing	21	24	21	18	20	19	21	21
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	5	9	6	3	2	3	1	4
Household operation	6	6	6	5	6	8	7	7
Furnishings and equipment	5	3	5	6	8	6	3	9
Clothing	11	6	11	14	14	16	14	13
Automobile transportation	5	3	3	6	9	4	16	12
Other transportation	3	2	3	4	4	4	2	3
Medical care	5	7	5	5	4	6	4	2
Personal care	3	2	3	3	3	4	4	3
Recreation	3	2	2	3	3	3	1	3
Tobacco	1	[1]	1	1	1	[1]	1	[1]
Reading	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1
Miscellaneous	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1

[1] Less than 1 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Monthly Labor Review," February 1959.

As the average amount that single women consumers spent for current consumption ($1,661) exceeded their average income after taxes, they had an average financial deficit—which either necessitated withdrawal of some of their assets or put them in debt. Over three-fifths of their expenditures were for three major items: Food and beverages (30 percent), housing (21 percent), and clothing (11 percent). For all income groups, the same order of importance was given to these three categories of expenditures. However, in the higher income groups, the proportions spent for food and housing tended to decrease and that for clothing, to increase.

Among other expenditure items (which are listed in table 24), those generally increasing with higher income were: Automobile transportation, recreation, personal care, and furnishings and equipment. On the other hand, the higher income women spent relatively less of their money for medical care.

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 23 million girls and women, or slightly over half this country's female population 5 to 34 years of age, were attending school in the fall of 1961, according to the Bureau of the Census. The proportionate numbers of women who were students varied considerably by age group. 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 53 percent in 1961 (table 1).

Of the almost 23 million American girls and women enrolled in schools and colleges in the fall of 1961, about 16 million (70 percent) were attending kindergarten or elementary school. Another 5.4 million (24 percent) were high school students and about 1.4 million women (6 percent) were in colleges or professional schools. These

Table 1.—School Enrollment of Population Under 35 Years of Age, 1961 and 1950

Age	Number of girls in school 1961[1]	Percent of population in school[1]			
		Female		Male	
		1961	1950	1961	1950
Total, 5 to 34 years	22, 764, 000	53	41	60	48
5 and 6 years	3, 236, 000	81	75	82	74
7 to 13 years	12, 634, 000	99	99	99	99
14 to 17 years	5, 458, 000	91	82	92	84
18 and 19 years	782, 000	29	24	49	35
20 to 24 years	479, 000	8	5	20	14
25 to 29 years	105, 000	2	(2)	7	6
30 to 34 years	70, 000	1	(2)	3	2

[1] Refers to enrollment as of October 1961 and 1950 in both public and private schools and colleges.
[2] Less than 0.5 percent were in school.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Current Population Reports," P-20, No. 117.

three groups of students were all enrolled in what is generally called the "regular school system," which covers both public and private schools (table 2). The figures include enrollments in public vocational courses (see sec. 74).

About 579,000 women and girl students under 35 years of age were enrolled in private trade schools and business colleges outside the "regular school system" in October 1961. Over half of these women students were from 18 to 24 years old. Courses offered included those in art, business, fashion design, photography, and cosmetology. No figures are available on women who obtained employment training by

Table 2.—Type of School Attended by Students Under 35 Years of Age, October 1961

Type of school	Girls and women		Boys and men	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
All types	22, 764, 000	100	24, 944, 000	100
Elementary and kindergarten	15, 943, 000	70	17, 074, 000	68
High school	5, 446, 000	24	5, 513, 000	22
College or professional school	1, 375, 000	6	2, 356, 000	9

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Current Population Reports," P-20, No. 117.

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

The rise in school enrollment rates has been accompanied in the past decade by a marked increase in the proportion of students in the labor force. As more young people have remained in school for a longer time, student representation from lower income families has expanded and resulted in larger numbers of students who need to earn money while still in school.

In October 1961, about 1¼ million girls and women under 25 years of age were both attending school and holding a job.[1] They included about one-seventh of the female students aged 14 to 17 years and almost one-third of those aged 18 to 24 years. Many of the younger female students were probably babysitters, since about one-third of this group were working in private households. The majority of the older women students (18 to 24 years) held clerical or professional jobs.

63. *Types of Colleges in Which Women Are Enrolled*

College enrollments for women have increased proportionately more than for men during the past 6 years. As a result, the percentage of women among all college students has moved steadily up from 34.6 percent in 1956 to 37.7 percent in 1961 and is approaching the 40.2 percent recorded in 1939. Numerically, the groups of both men and women students have grown steadily since World War II, except for the period 1949–52, when the numbers of men students dropped and those of women students remained relatively stable. The 1,467,243 women reported by the U.S. Office of Education to be attending college in 1961 were more than twice the number in 1950—although the number of girls aged 18 to 21 in the population was only 12 percent higher in 1961.

The Office of Education study of fall 1961 enrollment in institutions of higher learning shows that about 35 percent of the college women were in universities, 34 percent in liberal-arts colleges, about 14 percent in teachers' colleges, and another 14 percent in junior colleges.[2] Most of the remaining college women were in theological, technological, or art 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 1951, women have equaled over one-third of the students in all types of colleges combined. In

[1] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 22.

[2] U.S. Office of Education: "Opening College Enrollment, Fall 1961," in January-February 1962 issue of Higher Education.

teachers' colleges, however, women represented slightly over half the students in the fall of 1961; in art schools, exactly half; in liberal-arts colleges, about 45 percent; in junior colleges, about 38 percent; and in universities, 32 percent. In contrast, women were only 8 percent of the students in technological schools and 21 percent in theological schools.

It is also interesting to note that one-eighth of the women enrolled in college during October 1961 were married and living with their husbands. Among students 20 to 34 years old, those who were married equaled 25 percent of the college women and 35 percent of the college men. By comparison, 76 percent of the 20- to 34-year old group not in college were married.

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 12.2 years of schooling in 1959, as compared with 11 years in 1940, according to the latest educational attainment survey made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The amount of formal education they received was slightly higher than that of men workers, who averaged 11.7 years of schooling in 1959 and 7.7 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 1959 than prevailed in 1940 stems largely from the fact that the 1959 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 1959 averaged one-half year more schooling than all women in the population, for whom the average was

11.7 years of formal education (table 3). Those who had attended college equaled 18 percent of the women workers, but only 14 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.

Table 3.—Educational Attainment of Population and of Workers, 1959
(Persons 18 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	Population		Labor force	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Number (in thousands)	57,684	51,952	21,556	44,286
	Percent distribution			
	100	100	100	100
College:				
5 years or more	1	4	2	4
4 years	4	5	6	6
Less than 4 years	9	9	10	9
High school:				
4 years	33	25	38	27
Less than 4 years	19	19	19	20
Elementary school:				
8 years	15	16	13	16
5 to 7 years	11	12	8	11
Less than 5 years	6	8	3	6
No report	1	2	1	2
Median school years completed	11.7	11.1	12.2	11.5

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 1.

Almost 12 million of the approximately 22 million women workers 18 years of age and over in March 1959 had obtained at least a high school education. Of these, 1.7 million were college graduates and 2.1 million had 1 to 3 years of college. Slightly more than 2.5 million women workers had not finished elementary school (chart J).

In 1959, nonwhite women workers had completed an average (median) of 9.4 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, non-

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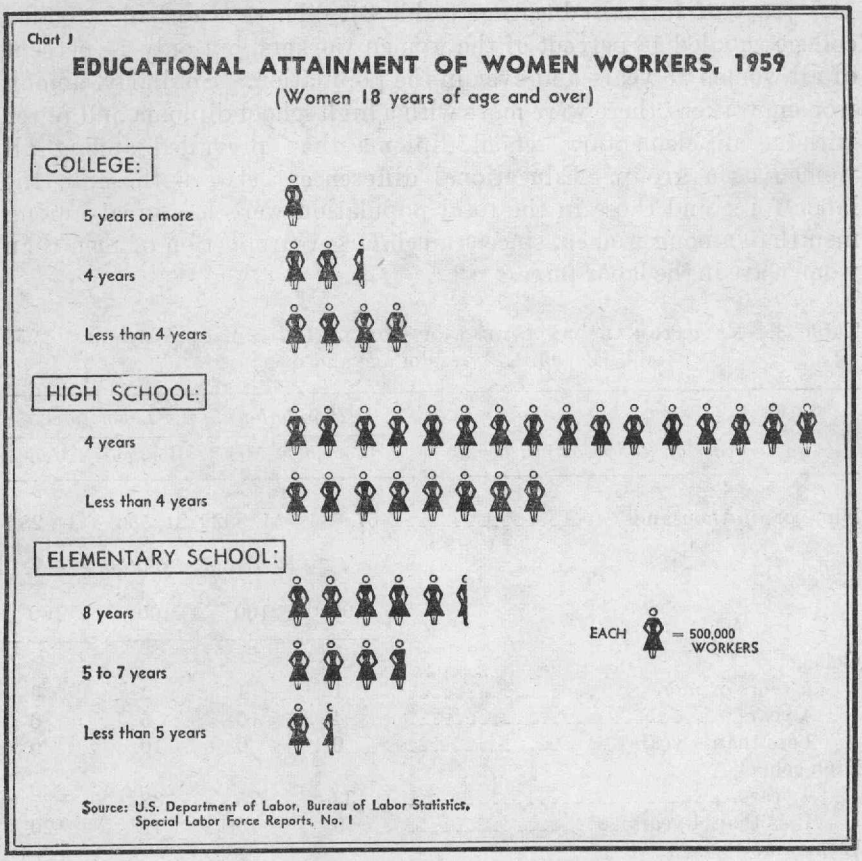


Table 4.—Years of School Completed by White and Nonwhite Women and Men, 1959

Group	*Median school years completed by—*	
	Women	*Men*
White:		
In labor force	12.2	11.9
Not in labor force	11.2	8.6
Nonwhite:		
In labor force	9.4	8.3
Not in labor force	8.5	5.8

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 1.

white women in 1959 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 1959, 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: 43 percent of the college graduates, 34 percent of the high school graduates, 28 percent of the elementary school graduates, and 18 percent of those with less than 5 years' schooling. Among single women, percentages of workers varied from 83 percent of those with the most education to 27 percent of those with the least (table 5).

Table 5.—Percent of Women in the Labor Force by Educational Attainment and Marital Status, 1959

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	*Percent of women in labor force*			
	Total	*Single*	*Married*[1]	*Other*
Total	37	67	31	42
College:				
4 years or more	53	83	43	59
Less than 4 years	40	58	32	53
High school:				
4 years	43	80	34	60
Less than 4 years	37	56	31	50
Elementary school:				
8 years	32	53	28	35
5 to 7 years	29	42	25	34
Less than 5 years	21	27	18	24

[1] With husband present.

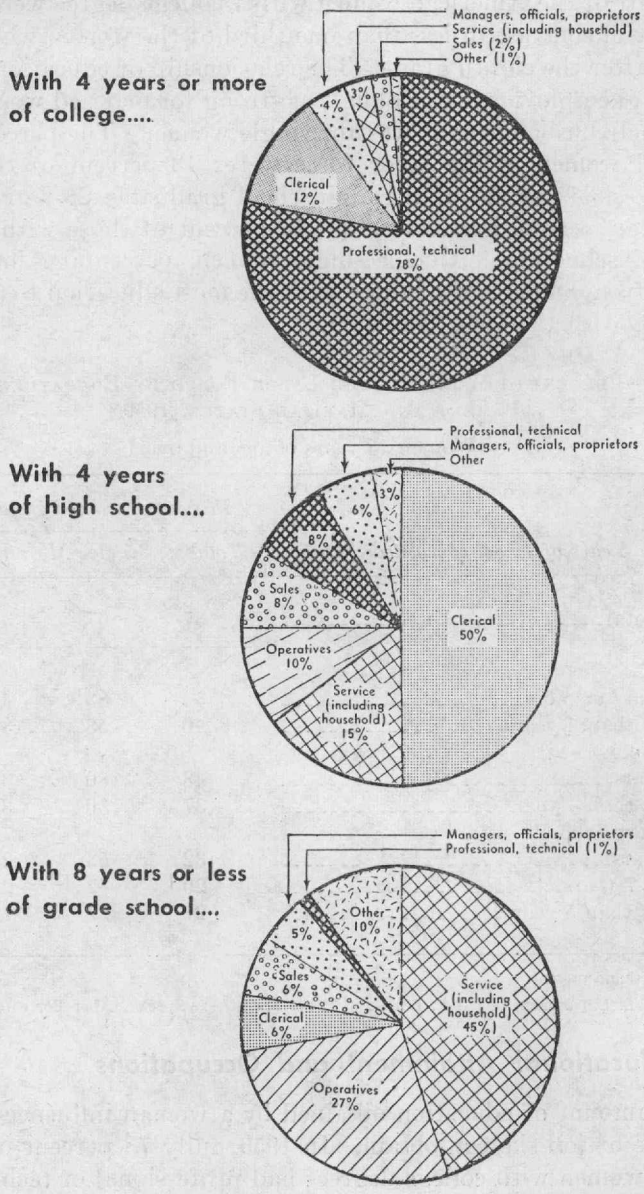
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 1.

66. Educational Attainment and Occupations

The amount of education obtained by a woman influences strongly the type of job she can obtain. In 1959, fully 78 percent of the employed women with college degrees had professional or technical jobs and another 12 percent were clerical workers (chart K). Of the remaining women, almost half were included in the broad group of managers, officials, and proprietors—who range from high-level

Chart K

OCCUPATIONS OF WOMEN WITH SPECIFIED YEARS OF SCHOOLING, 1959



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P-20, No. 99

executives to part owners of small businesses. Of the women workers who had 1 to 3 years of college training, 32 percent had professional or technical jobs in 1959, and 41 percent had clerical jobs (table 6).

Table 6.—Occupational Groups of Women by Educational Attainment, 1959
(Women 18 years of age and over)

Selected occupational group	Total	Educational attainment				
		College		High school		8th grade or less
		4 years or more	1–3 years	4 years	1–3 years	
Number (in thousands)	[1] 20,260	1,696	1,993	7,717	3,676	4,879
Percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Professional workers	13	78	32	8	2	1
Managers, officials, proprietors	6	4	7	6	5	5
Clerical workers	30	12	41	50	21	6
Sales workers	7	2	7	8	9	6
Service workers	24	3	9	15	33	45
Operatives	16	1	3	10	26	27
Other	5	1	2	3	4	10

[1] Includes a few for whom education was not reported.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Current Population Reports," P-20, No. 99.

For women workers who had finished high school but had not attended college, the greatest employment opportunities were in the clerical field. Five of every 10 women in this group were clerical workers in 1959; more than 1 out of 10 were service workers, such as waitresses, practical nurses, and hotel workers; and another 1 out of 10 were operatives employed primarily in apparel factories, laundries, textile mills, and food companies.

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

Table 7.—Educational Attainment of Women Workers in Selected Occupational Groups, 1959

(Women 18 years of age and over)

Selected occupational group	Total		Educational attainment				
			College		High school		8th grade or less
	Number (in thousands)	Percent	4 years or more	1–3 years	4 years	1–3 years	
Total	[1] 20,260	100	8	10	38	18	24
Professional workers	2,698	100	49	24	22	3	2
Managers, officials, proprietors	1,112	100	6	12	40	17	23
Clerical workers	6,024	100	3	13	65	13	5
Sales workers	1,479	100	3	10	43	22	20
Service workers (except household)	3,038	100	1	4	29	28	35
Operatives	3,142	100	[2]	2	24	31	42
Private-household workers	1,836	100	1	2	14	19	61
Others [3]	844	100	1	4	26	17	51

[1] Includes women employed as "laborers, except farm," although separate information was not released for this group. Also includes a few women for whom education was not reported.

[2] Less than 1 percent.

[3] Covers "craftsmen" and "farmers and farm laborers."

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 1.

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. Concern about human waste has prompted several studies about causal factors and related implications of student withdrawals. Studies by the Office of Education, which have included estimates of the proportions of school dropouts, have been directed toward determining factors that encourage students to stay in school until graduation. The

Bureau of Labor Statistics has emphasized in its studies the early work experiences of young people after leaving school, comparing the experiences of graduates and nongraduates.

High school students.—One class of high school students was surveyed by the Office of Education in 14 large cities throughout 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 (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," Bull. 1957, No. 15. 1957.

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 survey aimed at learning "some of the major factors in the whole complex of youth's adjustment to work," information was obtained in seven widely diverse communities, 1952–57, about boys and girls who had graduated or dropped out of high school.[3] Among the reasons given for leaving school, 32 percent of the girls named adverse school experience; 27 percent, marriage; 12 percent, going to work; and 29 percent, miscellaneous reasons. Although a majority of both the graduates and dropouts had received some vocational education, the graduates had taken a larger number of vocational courses. For example, two-thirds of the girl graduates had completed four or more commercial courses, as compared with only 15 percent of the girl dropouts.

Work experiences reported by those who dropped out of school were much less favorable than those of graduates. The survey youth

[3] "School and Early Employment Experience of Youth—A Report on Seven Communities, 1952–57," U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Bull. No. 1277. 1960.

whose first regular jobs were unskilled included 55 percent of girl dropouts but only 12 percent of girl graduates. On the other hand, the more skilled occupation of officeworker was reported as the first regular job of just 11 percent of the dropouts but 60 percent of the graduates. In the case of both girls and boys, salaries were higher and unemployment lower for those who completed their school program than for those who did not.

College students.—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 study by the Office of Education.[4] 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, which was attributed partly to the larger enrollment of 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.

68. Followup of High School Graduates

The postgraduate activities of those who were graduated from high school in June 1961 were analyzed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from data provided by the monthly labor force survey in October 1961.[5] In the total group of 1¾ million young graduates (16 to 24 years of age), the majority—973,000—were girls.

[4] "Retention and Withdrawal of College Students," U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. Bull. 1958, No. 1. 1957.

[5] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Special Labor Force Report," No. 21.

About two-fifths (41 percent) of recent girl graduates were college students in the fall of 1961. This was considerably smaller than the proportion of boys (56 percent) who went on to college. The 1961 combined average of 48 college entrants out of every 100 high school graduates shows a marked rise over the 1950 average of 32 out of 100, as reported by the Office of Education (see sec. 67).

An additional group of girls, about 9 percent of all girls graduating from high school in June 1961, were attending noncollegiate schools such as those for nurses, secretaries, or other vocations. A small group (about 5 percent) were neither attending school nor working. Included were some nonworking wives, some girls about to be married, and others helping out at home.

The 433,000 girls who were part of the labor force when surveyed 4 months after graduation constituted about 45 percent of the girls in the June 1961 high school class. Fully 82 percent of this group were employed and 18 percent were looking for work. By comparison 81 percent of the male graduates in the labor force were employed and 19 percent unemployed. Unemployment rates reported for both groups were higher than in the labor force as a whole—not an uncommon situation for young inexperienced workers.

Over three-fifths of the employed girls obtained clerical jobs; one-seventh, service jobs; one-tenth, operative jobs; and one-eighth, miscellaneous.

Additional information obtained on the activities of young people who left high school before graduation supported the findings of other studies comparing graduates and nongraduates. Again, the graduates were found to have secured better jobs and to have experienced less unemployment than the school dropouts.

Women Earning Degrees

69. *Numbers and Types of Degrees*

Institutions of higher learning conferred 163,973 earned degrees on women during the school year 1959–60, according to the latest report available from the Office of Education. This was 7 percent more than in the previous year and approximately 87 percent more than in 1940. Women's degrees in 1959–60 included 139,385 bachelor's and other first-level degrees (85 percent), 23,560 master's and other second-level degrees (14 percent), and 1,028 doctorates (1 percent) (table 9).

The proportion of women among all degree recipients has changed considerably over the years. In 1890, when the first official report was issued, women received less than one-fifth of all college degrees. Subsequently, their representation expanded—equaling about two-fifths

Table 9.—Degrees Earned by Women in Higher Educational Institutions

School year ending [1]	Number of women receiving degrees [2]	Percent of total degrees conferred
1960	163, 973	34
First level	139, 385	35
Second level	23, 560	32
Doctorate	1, 028	10
1959	153, 448	33
1955	124, 089	35
1950	121, 540	24
1946	87, 621	56
1940	87, 606	40
1930	55, 266	40
1920	18, 029	34
1910	9, 039	23
1900	5, 563	19
1890	2, 682	16

[1] Figures from 1950 to 1960 cover total United States, from 1890 to 1946 only continental United States.
[2] First level includes bachelor's and other first-professional degrees; second level includes the master's and other second-professional degrees.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions."

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. Thereafter, women's percentage of the total number of degrees earned again rose—to 27 percent in 1951 and 31 percent in 1952. Each year since 1952–53, women have earned about one-third of the first- and second-level degrees and about one-tenth of the doctorates.

70. Major Subjects Studied by Women

Women who earned bachelor's (first level) degrees in the school year 1959–60 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—are long-time favorites of college women and were the majors of 17 percent of the women who were graduated in 1959–60. 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).

Table 10.—Subjects in Which Degrees Were Earned, 1959–60

Subject	1st-level degrees		2d-level degrees	
	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution
	WOMEN			
Total	139, 385	100	23, 560	100
Education	64, 001	46	15, 386	65
Social sciences	16, 001	11	1, 233	5
English and journalism	13, 455	10	1, 522	6
Health professions	9, 387	7	797	3
Fine and applied arts	7, 025	5	1, 129	5
Home economics	4, 390	3	473	2
Biological sciences	3, 962	3	486	2
Business and commerce	3, 893	3	167	1
Foreign languages and literature	3, 400	2	541	2
Psychology	3, 326	2	425	2
Mathematical subjects	3, 125	2	337	1
Physical sciences	2, 016	1	327	1
Library science	1, 471	1	235	1
Religion	1, 439	1	207	1
Other subjects	2, 494	2	295	1
	MEN			
Total	255, 504	100	50, 937	100
Business and commerce	47, 629	19	4, 476	9
Engineering	37, 663	15	7, 133	14
Social sciences	35, 801	14	4, 765	9
Education	26, 178	10	18, 126	36
Health professions (including M.D.)	15, 170	6	1, 075	2
Physical sciences	14, 041	5	3, 060	6
Biological sciences	11, 693	5	1, 668	3
Law (LL.B.; J.D., or higher degrees)	9, 073	4	496	1
English and journalism	9, 001	4	1, 670	3
Mathematical subjects	8, 312	3	1, 428	3
Religion	7, 563	3	1, 124	2
Fine and applied arts	6, 141	2	1, 763	3
Agriculture	4, 805	2	984	2
Other subjects	22, 434	9	3, 169	6

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions."

Among women who earned graduate degrees in 1959–60, education was also the principal subject of study—being reported by 65 percent of the women receiving master's (second-level) degrees and 30 percent of those receiving doctorates. Other fields with significant numbers of women receiving master's degrees were English and journalism, the social sciences, and fine and applied arts. Of the relatively few women receiving doctorates, slightly over one-tenth had specialized in the social sciences and the biological sciences, and almost one-tenth in psychology and 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 (15 percent), and social sciences (14 percent). Men specializing in education equaled 10 percent of the men receiving bachelor's degrees and 36 percent of those receiving master's.

Women predominated in several fields of study, receiving almost all the degrees in home economics and nursing, about three-fourths of those in library science and a majority of those in education, English and journalism, and foreign languages. Men, by contrast, received at least nine-tenths of the degrees in engineering, agriculture, law, medicine, and business and commerce; almost nine-tenths in the physical sciences and pharmacy; and about three-fourths in the biological sciences and mathematics.

71. 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 postwar 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 1959–60, 49 percent (table 11). Small decreases occurred between 1947–48 and 1959–60 in the percentages of college women earning degrees in each of the following subjects: Home economics, business and commerce, fine and applied arts, social sciences, psychology, English and journalism, biological sciences, foreign languages, and physical sciences. There has been a slight rise, however, in the proportion of women preparing for the health professions, including nursing.

Table 11.—Trend of Degree Subjects for Women: 1960, 1955, 1948

Degree subject	Women receiving degrees on all levels					
	1959–60		1954–55		1947–48	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	163, 973	100	124, 089	100	110, 168	100
Education	79, 696	49	51, 144	41	29, 003	26
Social sciences	17, 354	11	12, 861	10	14, 829	13
English and journalism	15, 061	9	9, 715	8	10, 645	10
Health professions	10, 192	6	8, 060	6	5, 443	5
Fine and applied arts	8, 208	5	9, 781	8	8, 798	8
Home economics	4, 897	3	7, 903	6	7, 776	7
Biological sciences	4, 567	3	3, 015	2	4, 456	4
Business and commerce	4, 062	2	6, 349	5	6, 467	6
Foreign languages and literature	4, 004	2	2, 558	2	3, 481	3
Psychology	3, 848	2	3, 024	2	4, 149	4
Mathematical subjects	3, 480	2	1, 469	1	1, 805	2
Physical sciences	2, 405	1	1, 641	1	2, 696	2
Library science	1, 708	1	1, 376	1	1, 285	1
Religion	1, 675	1	1, 522	1	1, 318	1
Other subjects	2, 834	2	3, 671	3	8, 017	7

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions."

72. 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 1957 women college graduates made by the Women's Bureau in cooperation with the National Vocational Guidance Association. About 6 months after graduation, 76 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 7 percent were not in the labor market. Over one-third of the graduates were married, either before leaving college or soon after, and nearly three-fourths of these were working wives.

Five specific occupations accounted for over three-fourths of the 71,000 employed graduates represented in the survey. Teachers—traditionally the largest group among college women—led the list (59 percent), followed by nurses (7 percent), secretaries and stenographers (7 percent), biological technicians (3 percent), and social and welfare workers (2 percent). The remaining graduates (22 percent) were performing a wide variety of work and held such rather unusual jobs for women as stock and portfolio analyst, seismograph computer, pharmacist, radio repairman in the Armed Forces, and probation officer. (See also, ch. 2, table 20).

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

Table 12.—Undergraduate Major and First Job of June 1957 Women Graduates

(Selected groups)

Undergraduate major	*Percent of employed women graduates in—*	*Related occupations*
Biological sciences	48	Biological technicians.
	26	Teachers.
Business and commerce	39	Secretaries, stenographers.
Education	94	Teachers.
English	60	Do.
Health fields (excluding nursing)	51	Biological technicians.
	16	Therapists.
Home economics	51	Teachers.
	17	Dietitians.
	15	Home economists.
Journalism	44	Editors, copywriters, reporters.
Mathematics	42	Mathematicians, statisticians.
	42	Teachers.
Nursing	98	Nurses.
Physical sciences (including chemistry)	43	Chemists.
	15	Biological technicians.
Sociology, social work	28	Teachers.
	27	Social and welfare workers.

Source: "First Jobs of College Women: Report on Women Graduates, Class of 1957." Women's Bureau Bull. No. 268. 1959.

shows the principal groups of employed graduates in occupations related to their undergraduate majors.

73. College Alumnae—15 Years Later

To gain a better understanding of the interests and needs of mature educated women, the Women's Bureau cooperated with the Alumnae Advisory Center in an exploratory survey of a small group of women alumnae of the class of 1945. Information was obtained during the winter of 1960–61 from 500 graduates and 80 non-graduates of the 674 alumnae (class of 1945) of four liberal arts colleges. Women who had been out of college for about 15 years were surveyed on the assumption that many were at an age when they were thinking about changing their pattern of living.

When asked whether they might be interested in paid employment sometime in the future, the women graduates giving affirmative answers ranged from 46 percent in one college to 63 percent in another (table 13). The percentages of graduates already employed ranged from 16 to 45 percent in the four colleges. Only 8 to 20 percent reported no interest in future employment.

Large proportions of the college women reported that they felt the need of additional training or education to obtain the type of

Table 13.—Employment Status and Plans of Alumnae, Class of 1945, of Four Colleges

(Winter 1960–61)

Item	Alumnae			Graduates			
	Total	Non-graduates	Graduates	College A	College B	College C	College D
Total respondents:							
Number	580	80	500	223	111	82	84
Percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Currently employed	32	25	33	33	36	16	45
Full time	19	16	19	19	20	7	30
Part time	13	9	14	14	16	9	15
Seeking a position	2	1	2	2	2	1	-----
Interested in future position	53	49	53	54	50	63	46
Within 1 year	4	9	3	4	2	----	2
About 2 to 5 years	15	4	17	21	20	13	8
Perhaps later	34	36	33	29	28	50	36
Not interested in future position	14	25	12	11	12	20	8

Source: "Fifteen Years After College—A Study of Alumnae, Class of 1945." Women's Bureau Bull. 283. 1962.

position they would like. This was true of a majority of the women alumnae of all the four survey colleges. The proportions were highest among those not employed at the time of survey. A majority of the survey alumnae were housewives not working outside of the home. Their greatest interest was in further academic education or university courses. Significant numbers wanted to take courses leading toward teacher certification; a few reported interest in business and commercial courses. There was also some interest, particularly among the alumnae who were not employed, in obtaining assistance to choose a suitable field of work.

Vocational Training

74. Women in Public Vocational Courses

About 1.9 million women and girls were enrolled in federally aided vocational courses in 1960–61, according to provisional figures of the Office of Education (table 14). 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

Table 14.—Women and Girls in Public Vocational Courses, 1960–61

Program	Women and girls			Part-time and evening classes	
	Number enrolled [1]	Percent distribution	Percent of program enrollment	Number of women	Percent of women in program
Total	1,869,701	100	61	832,677	45
Home economics	1,567,888	84	97	609,392	39
Distributive education	145,627	8	48	145,627	100
Trade and industrial:					
Trades and industries classes	99,625	5	11	50,178	50
General continuation	5,803	(2)	37	5,803	100
Practical nursing	46,098	2	98	17,490	38
NDEA courses [3]	4,660	(2)	4	4,187	90

[1] Provisional figures subject to audit. Only 5 programs are included because enrollment of women in agricultural classes is negligible.

[2] Less than 0.5 percent.

[3] Refers to courses financed under title VIII of the National Defense Education Act.

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

program is to advance national welfare by helping students to develop 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 sec. 75).

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, shall 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.

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 U.S. Department of Labor under the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act.

About 1½ million women and girls, 84 percent of those receiving federally aided vocational training in 1960–61, 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 three-fifths of the homemaking students were enrolled in all-day classes.

The 145,627 women and girls participating in the distributive education program during the 1960–61 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.

Of the 99,625 women and girls enrolled in trades and industries courses in 1960–61, the majority were full-time day students. Over half the women (52,555) were preparing for a craft or industrial occupation; about two-fifths (37,874) for a service trade; and most (7,405) of the others, for a semiprofessional or technical occupation (table 15).

Outside the home economics and distributive education fields, public vocational courses offering training in practical nursing had the largest number of female students in 1960–61. Some of these students

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Table 15.—Women Enrolled in Vocational Trades and Industry Classes, by Occupation, 1960–61

Occupation	Number	Percent distribution	Percent of total students
Total	99, 625	100	11
Craft and operative:			
Building trades workers	202	(1)	(1)
Dressmakers, machine operators (needle trades)	27, 167	27	83
Electricians	1, 785	2	2
Fishery workers	362	(1)	16
Food trades workers	10, 799	11	48
Foremen, supervisors, managers	6, 550	7	9
Launderers, dry cleaners, pressers	468	(1)	22
Mechanics or repairmen:			
Airplane	541	1	4
Radio and television	764	1	4
Shoe	584	1	21
Others	871	1	1
Printers, stereotypers, lithographers, photoengravers	574	1	2
Textile workers	1, 296	1	14
Upholsterers	281	(1)	11
Others	311	(1)	(1)
Service:			
Beauty operators	20, 924	21	88
Domestic workers	2, 179	2	85
Drivers (commercial)	1, 388	1	7
Hospital aides or attendants	6, 621	7	92
Janitors	809	1	6
Nurses (practical)	5, 166	5	98
Policewomen	687	1	4
Others	100	(1)	(1)
Semiprofessional and technical:			
Artists (commercial)	1, 953	2	34
Dental technicians	1, 142	1	81
Design technicians	434	(1)	34
Draftsmen	691	1	3
Laboratory technicians	308	(1)	34
Medical technicians	945	1	89
Photographers	559	1	22
Technicians, others	1, 373	1	4
Miscellaneous	1, 791	2	30

[1] Less than 0.5 percent.

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

(5,166) received their training under trades and industries funds, but most (46,098) 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 to help ease the nursing shortage.

There were 4,660 women enrolled in area vocational education programs in 1960–61 under title VIII of the National Defense Education Act of 1958, which amended the George-Barden Act by adding a new title III to that act. As specified by the law, students in these programs receive training "for useful employment as highly skilled technicians in recognized occupations requiring scientific knowledge . . . in fields necessary for the national defense." Examples of pertinent courses include drafting and design, electronics, industrial chemistry, business data processing, computer programming, and related technical subjects. To qualify for these courses, students must have finished the ninth grade or be at least 16 years of age and have good backgrounds in science and mathematics.

Vocational courses for other health workers besides practical nurses also have expanded noticeably in recent years. So many new classes recently have been established for training hospital aides and attendants that they were the fourth largest group (6,621) of women students. The 1960–61 number of women students preparing to become dental technicians was 1,142, and medical technicians 945.

Among nonmedical courses, those for technicians included a significant number of women (2,115). As relatively few women or girls had been reported in these classes as recently as four years ago, their current enrollment figures show a marked response to the growing demand for technical workers. Specializations of the female students in technical classes include electronics, design, laboratory work, electrical work, instrumentation, aircraft, and chemistry. Also growing in numerical importance for women are courses for textile workers, commercial drivers, and domestic workers.

Several trades and industries courses long popular with women continued to attract relatively large numbers in 1960–61. These were courses offering training for dressmakers and machine operators in the needle trades industry (27,167), for beauty operators (20,924), and for food trades workers (10,799).

As might be expected, the classes preparing students for major woman-employing occupations had very large percentages of women among the total students. In fact, women and girls comprised more than four-fifths of the student enrollment in 5 of the 7 major courses

for women. In the order of the percentage of women among total students, these courses covered the following occupations: Practical nurse (98 percent), hospital aide (92 percent), beauty operator (88 percent), domestic worker (85 percent), and dressmaker and machine operator (83 percent).

From one-third to one-half the students were women in two other courses with numerical importance for women: Food trades (48 percent) and commercial art (34 percent). Classes in which women had relatively large numbers but small representation were those for: Textile worker (14 percent); foreman, supervisor, and manager (9 percent); commercial driver (7 percent); miscellaneous technician (4 percent); and electrician (2 percent).

A Women's Bureau study of formal training programs and courses currently offered in this country indicates that numerous training opportunities are available to women and girls seeking employment, although the amount and accessibility of some types of training are still quite inadequate.[6] In the fairly small number of occupations with large numbers of women workers—such as secretary, nurse, or beauty operator—formal training courses are available in virtually all cities and most towns. However, in the wide array of occupations with relatively small numbers of women—such as laboratory assistant, factory production worker, electronics equipment operator, or institutional housekeeper—formal training courses are much less prevalent.

Apprenticeship Training

75. 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 seven States in 1954 indicated that less than 1 percent of the group were women. Likewise, very few women were believed to be among the 155,649 registered apprentices reported to the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training at the end of 1961.

Principal reason for the small number of women apprentices is that few trades recognized as "apprenticeable" in this country employ

[6] "Training Opportunities for Women and Girls," Women's Bureau Bull. No. 274. 1960.

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—33 States, District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have minimum-wage laws applying to women; of these, 16 apply also to men.

Equal pay—22 States have equal-pay laws.

Hours of work—43 States and District of Columbia regulate daily and/or weekly working hours for women; 24 States and the District of Columbia set maximum hours of 8 a day, or 48 or less a week, or both.

Nightwork—21 States and Puerto Rico prohibit and/or regulate the employment of adult women at night.

Industrial homework—19 States and Puerto Rico have industrial homework laws or regulations.

Employment before and after childbirth—Six States and Puerto Rico prohibit the employment of women immediately before and/or after childbirth.

Occupational limitations—25 States prohibit the employment of adult women in specified occupations or industries or under certain working conditions considered hazardous or injurious to health.

Jury duty—47 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico, permit women to serve on all juries. Alabama, Mississippi, and South Carolina bar women from State juries. Women are eligible for Federal jury service in all jurisdictions by virtue of the 1957 Federal Civil Rights Law.

Marriage laws—45 States require a premarital health examination for both applicants for a marriage license.

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 four of the eight community-property States, the wife's earnings are under the complete control of the husband.

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.

76. 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 health.

77. 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.

An outline follows of 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

78. 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:

a. A minimum wage adequate to maintain the health and well-being of the worker.

b. The principle of equal pay—wage rate based on the job, and not on the sex of the worker.

c. 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.

d. 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.

79. 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:

a. A workweek of 8 hours a day and 40 hours a week with worktime over 8 or 40 to be paid at time and a half the worker's regular rate of pay.

b. At least 1 day of rest in 7; preferably 2 consecutive days in 7.

c. Meal periods of at least 30 minutes; no work period of more than 5 hours without a break for meal and rest.

d. 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.

e. Vacation with pay after 6 months on the job; longer vacation after longer service.

f. Time off with pay on legal holidays.

g. 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.

h. Nightwork, except in continuous-process industries and essential services, kept to a minimum; observance of the International Labor Organization standard; that is, a guarantee of an uninterrupted rest period of 11 consecutive hours, including a rest period of at least 7 consecutive hours between 10 p.m. 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:

80. *Health Standards*

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

b. 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.

c. Medical services in the plant commensurate with needs of the workers.

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

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

f. 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.

81. *Safety Standards*

a. Equipment and machinery in good working condition, with adequate guards against injury.

b. Safety equipment and clothing—such as goggles, safety shoes, protective gloves—as needed, maintained in good condition.

c. Safe and uncrowded workspace; stairways, floors, halls, rooms, and passageways kept in good condition and adequately lighted.

d. A continuing safety program and training in safety on the job for all workers.

Other Standards

82. *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 October 1, 1962

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 50 States, the District of Columbia, 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 weightlifting limitations. Legislation in one or more of these fields has been enacted in all of the States, and the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico, but 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 October 1, 1962, are shown in this summary. Laws relating to minors are mentioned only if they apply also to women.

Minimum Wage

A total of 33 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have minimum-wage laws. These laws apply to men as well as women in 15 States and Puerto Rico. In 18 States and the District of Columbia minimum-wage laws apply only to women or to women and minors.

In general, these laws are applicable to all industries and occupations except domestic service and agriculture, which are specifically exempt in most States.[1] Since enactment of the Federal Fair Labor

[1] Minimum-wage laws in only 7 States—California, Colorado, Kansas, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wisconsin—do not specifically exempt from coverage women and minors employed in both domestic service and agriculture or labor on a farm. Oklahoma exempts agriculture but not domestic service; the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and Hawaii exempt domestic service but not agriculture, except Hawaii exempts agricultural workers in any workweek when an employer has fewer than 20 employees. Minimum-wage rates for agricultural employment have been set by wage orders for women and minors in California and Wisconsin; for minors in Oregon; and for men and women in Puerto Rico. A Wisconsin wage order sets minimum-wage rates for women and minors in domestic service.

Standards Act in 1938, as amended, establishing a basic hourly rate for both men and women engaged in or producing goods for interstate commerce, and employees of some retail firms and other specified establishment, the benefits of State minimum-wage legislation apply chiefly to workers in local trade and service industries.

83. *Historical Record*

The history of minimum-wage legislation began in 1912 with the passage of a minimum-wage law in Massachusetts. 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 FFLSA), and trade and service industries. Between 1912 and 1923, laws were enacted in 15 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.

From 1941 through 1954, no State enacted a minimum-wage law. 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 1955–59, the following actions occurred:

5 States—Idaho, New Mexico, North Carolina, Vermont, and Wyoming—enacted minimum-wage laws for the first time.

3 States—Maine, Rhode Island, and Washington—and Puerto Rico amended their laws to establish a statutory rate, and two of these amendments, Maine and Washington, extended coverage also to men.

[2] One of these laws was repealed in 1919 (Nebraska); another in 1921 (Texas).

9 States—Alaska, Connecticut, Hawaii, Massachusetts, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Rhode Island, and Vermont—amended existing laws to raise statutory rates.

Other amendments in several States increased the effectiveness of existing minimum-wage laws.

Since 1959:

2 States—New York and Pennsylvania—with wage-board laws enacted statutory-rate laws retaining the wage-board provisions, and the Pennsylvania enactment extended coverage also to men.

6 States—Alaska, Connecticut, Massachusetts, New York, Rhode Island, and Washington—amended their laws to increase the statutory rates.

1 State—Massachusetts—amended the minimum-wage law to require the payment of not less than one and one-half times the employee's regular rate for hours worked in excess of 40 a week, exempting a number of occupations and industries from the overtime provision.

Other amendments in 8 States affected coverage of the law; clarified specific provisions or otherwise strengthened the minimum-wage laws.

84. Roster of Minimum-Wage States

The 35 jurisdictions having minimum-wage legislation are as follows—

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

Ten States have statutory minimum-wage rates only, that is, the rate is set by the legislature. Another 8 States and Puerto Rico have statutory rates and also provide for the establishment of occupation or industry rates based on recommendations of wage boards. Fifteen 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 35 jurisdictions the type of law and employee coverage by sex:

a. Statutory rates and wage-board rates for—

Men, women, and minors

Connecticut
Massachusetts
New Hampshire
New York
Pennsylvania
Puerto Rico
Rhode Island
Vermont
Washington

b. Wage-board rates only for—

Women and minors

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

Females

Louisiana
Oklahoma (16 years and over)

c. Statutory rates only for—

Men, women, and minors

Alaska
Hawaii
Idaho
Maine
New Mexico
North Carolina (16 to 65 years of age)

Men and women (18 years and over)

Wyoming

Females

Arkansas
Nevada
South Dakota

Equal Pay

Twenty-two States 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.

85. 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, organizations, and the general public were concerned with the removal of wage differentials as a means of furthering the war effort.

During the period 1943–45, equal-pay 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; also in 1949, Alaska passed a similar law.

New Jersey enacted its equal-pay law in 1952; Arkansas, Colorado, and Oregon by passing such legislation in 1955 increased the number of equal-pay laws to 17.

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. Hawaii, Ohio, and Wyoming passed equal-pay laws in 1959.

The number of States with such laws was increased to 21 in 1961 when Wisconsin amended its Fair Employment Practices Act to prohibit discrimination because of sex and to provide that a differential in pay between employees when based in good faith on any factor other than sex, is not prohibited.[3]

In 1962, Arizona became the 22d State with an equal-pay law and Michigan amended its law to extend coverage to any employer of labor employing both males and females (previously only manufacture or production of any article was covered by the law).

86. *Roster of Equal-Pay States*

The 22 States with equal-pay laws are—

Alaska	Maine	Ohio
Arizona	Massachusetts	Oregon
Arkansas	Michigan	Pennsylvania
California	Montana	Rhode Island
Colorado	New Hampshire	Washington
Connecticut	New Jersey	Wisconsin
Hawaii	New York	Wyoming
Illinois		

Equal-pay laws in Colorado and Montana are applicable to public as well as private employment. In 19 States the laws apply to most types of private employment and in general exclude agricultural labor and domestic service; the Illinois law applies only to manufacturing.

[3] Act now prohibits discrimination because of age, race, color, sex, creed, national origin, or ancestry.

Hours of Work

The first enforceable law which regulated the hours of employment of women became effective in Massachusetts in 1879. Today 46 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have established standards governing at least one aspect of women's hours of employment; that is, 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.

87. 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. Seven States—Alabama, Alaska, Florida, Hawaii, Indiana, Iowa, West Virginia—and Puerto Rico do not have such laws; but laws of Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico require the payment of premium rates for time worked over hours specified.

Twenty-four States and the District of Columbia have set maximum hours of 8 a day, 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. (Michigan has an average 9-hour day, maximum 10-hour.)

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 hours a week.

The highest standard (the fewest maximum hours)—for each of the 43 States 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.

	Maximum hours			*Maximum hours*	
	Daily	*Weekly*		*Daily*	*Weekly*
Arizona	8	48	Kentucky	10	60
Arkansas	8	(1)	Louisiana	8	48
California	8	48	Maine	9	50
Colorado	8	48	Maryland	10	60
Connecticut	8	48	Massachusetts	9	48
Delaware	10	55	Michigan	9	54
District of Columbia	8	48	Minnesota	—	54
Georgia	10	60	Mississippi	10	60
Idaho	9	—	Missouri	9	54
Illinois	8	48	Montana	8	48
Kansas	8	48	Nebraska	9	54

[1] 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.

	Maximum hours	
	Daily	Weekly
Nevada	8	48
New Hampshire	10	48
New Jersey	10	54
New Mexico	8	48
New York	8	48
North Carolina	9	48
North Dakota	8½	48
Ohio	8	48
Oklahoma	9	54
Oregon	8	44
Pennsylvania	10	48
Rhode Island	9	48
South Carolina	10	55
South Dakota	10	54
Tennessee	10	50
Texas	9	54
Utah	8	48
Vermont	9	50
Virginia	9	48
Washington	8	—
Wisconsin	9	50
Wyoming	([2])	48

[2] A 1959 amendment to the hour law permits hours over 8 a day, provided time and one-half is paid for each hour worked over 8 a day in a 12-hour period.

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—

	Daily hours	Weekly hours
Connecticut	9	48
Kansas	9	49½
Montana	8	----
Ohio	9	48

88. Day of Rest

Twenty-three 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
Arkansas
California (men and women)
Colorado
Connecticut[1]
Delaware
District of Columbia
Illinois (men and women)
Kansas
Louisiana
Massachusetts (men and women)
Nevada
New Hampshire (men and women)
New Jersey
New York (men and women)
North Carolina
North Dakota
Ohio
Oregon
Pennsylvania
South Carolina
Utah
Washington
Wisconsin (men and women)

[1] 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.)

In the 28 jurisdictions with no 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.

In Montana, Sunday is a legal holiday by law. Three additional jurisdictions—Rhode Island, Kentucky, and Puerto Rico—have laws which require the payment of overtime rates to both men and women for work on the seventh day or on Sunday, thus, in effect, encouraging a 6-day workweek. The Rhode Island statute, under the jurisdiction of the State 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 the 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.

89. Meal Period

Half of the States, 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. The length of the meal period is provided for by statute, orders, or regulations in 27 jurisdictions—

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

Combining rest-period and meal-period provisions, Kentucky [4] requires that before and after the regularly scheduled lunch period (duration not specified) rest periods shall be granted females; and in Wyoming, females employed in specified establishments who are required to be on their feet continuously must have two paid rest periods, one before and one after the lunch hour.

90. Rest Period

Twelve States have provided for specific rest periods (as distinct from a meal period) for women workers, 6 by statute and 6 by wage order. The statutes in Alaska, Kentucky,[4] Nevada, and Wyoming cover a variety of industries (in Alaska and 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.

In addition to the 12 States, manufacturing establishments operating on a 24-hour schedule in Arkansas may, when necessary, be exempt from the meal-period provision if females are granted 10 minutes for each of two paid rest periods and provision is made for them to eat at their work.

91. Nightwork

In 21 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	South Carolina
Kansas	New York	Utah
Massachusetts	North Dakota	Washington
Nebraska (except by permit)	Ohio	Wisconsin
	Puerto Rico	

In North Dakota and Washington, the prohibition applies only to elevator operators; in Ohio, only to taxicab drivers. In Utah employers may not require women employees to work on a split shift between midnight and 6 a.m.

In 9 other States, as well as in several of the States and Puerto Rico which prohibit nightwork in specified industries or occupations,

[4] A 1958 Kentucky statute, requiring rest periods for employed females, replaced the lunch-period provisions of mandatory wage orders.

the employment of adult women at night is regulated either by maximum-hour provisions or by specified standards of working conditions:

California	Maryland	Oregon
Delaware	New Hampshire	Pennsylvania
Illinois	New Mexico	Rhode Island

Arizona 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

92. *Industrial Homework*

Nineteen States and Puerto Rico have industrial homework laws or regulations—

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

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

In addition, the Washington Minimum-Wage and Hour Act authorizes the Director of Labor and Industries to issue rules and regulations restricting or prohibiting industrial homework where necessary to safeguard the minimum-wage rate prescribed in the act.

93. *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. 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
Puerto Rico	4 weeks before and 4 weeks after childbirth
Vermont	2 weeks before and 4 weeks after childbirth
Washington [1]	4 months before and 6 weeks after childbirth 4 weeks before and 4 weeks after childbirth

[1] Standards established by minimum-wage orders vary according to industry covered.

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.

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

In New Jersey, the Temporary Disability Benefits Act provides that women workers, to whom the act applies, are entitled to cash payments for disability existing during the 4 weeks before and 4 weeks following childbirth.

94. 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, because they are 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—

Mines		*Establishments serving alcoholic beverages*
Alabama	Ohio	Alaska
Arizona	Oklahoma	California
Arkansas	Pennsylvania	Connecticut
Colorado	Utah	Illinois [1]
Illinois	Virginia	Indiana
Indiana	Washington	Kentucky
Maryland	Wisconsin	Ohio
Missouri	Wyoming	Pennsylvania
New York		Wyoming

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

Eleven States prohibit their 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, except with approval of the 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—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 shoeshining 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; by means of handtrucks, trucking and handling 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, 10 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.

95. Seating and Weightlifting

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 weightlifting. Only the seating and weightlifting 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. Hawaii, Illinois, Maryland, Mississippi, and North Dakota have no seating laws.

Weightlifting.—Twelve States have statutes, rules, regulations, or wage orders which specify the maximum weight women employees are permitted to lift, carry, or lift and carry. Following are the highest standards established for weightlifting and carrying in the 12 States:

Any occupation: 15 pounds in Utah; 25 in Alaska and Ohio; 30 in Georgia; 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.

6

POLITICAL AND CIVIL STATUS OF WOMEN

as of July 1, 1962

More than one hundred years ago the first Married Women's Property Acts were enacted in several States, thereby initiating the emancipation of the married woman from her husband's control over her property and property rights. Approximately 42 years ago the adoption of the 19th Amendment to the Constitution gave women of the United States, both married and single, the opportunity to participate in the political life of the Nation by giving them the right to vote. Since that time women have continued to make tremendous gains in the economic, social, and political life of the United States.

The status of women is continually improved by the revision of family and property laws, and the removal of prohibitions against service by women on juries. Particularly significant is the inclusion in Federal legislation of specific provisions recognizing the problems of women, as for example the child-care deduction included in income tax law.

The President's Commission on the Status of Women, established by Executive Order 10980 on December 14, 1961, is of prime importance to women in the United States for it may ultimately have far reaching results which improve their overall economic, social, and political position. The Commission is to review the progress which women have made, evaluate remaining inequities, and make recommendations as needed for constructive action in the fields of employment and employment practices in private and Federal employment and on Government contracts, Federal social insurance and tax laws, Federal and State labor laws, political and civil rights and family relations, new and expanded services for women including education, counseling, training, home services, and day-care arrangements.

Political Status

96. 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 naturalization. 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. When a woman citizen marries an alien, she retains her citizenship until she renounces it by declaring allegiance to another government.

97. 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 Federal Government officials and on proposals for change in the Federal Constitution.

Likewise, any woman who meets the established qualifications for official positions in the Federal 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 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 government 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. On June 4, 1962 the Attorney General reversed a 1934 interpretation of an 1870 Federal hiring statute which permitted Federal appointing officials, at their discretion, to specify sex in filling appointments in the Federal Civil Service. This was followed by a Presidential Directive on July 23, 1962 requiring agency heads to fill Federal positions without reference to sex of the applicant where experience and physical requirements are met. Some States by statute specify the sex of appointees for certain positions, such as superintendents, wardens, matrons, or attendants in institutions. In the District of Columbia, three of the nine members of the Board of Education in which control of the public schools is vested must be women.

Courts—jury service.—The Civil Rights Act of 1957 [1] had the effect of removing the disqualification of women for service on Federal juries in all States. Formerly women were not permitted to serve on Federal juries in the three States: Alabama, Mississippi, and South Carolina, 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. Women are eligible by law to serve on State juries in 47 States and the District of Columbia.

Twenty States [2] and 19 of the 23 counties of Maryland have statutes which provide that qualifications, disqualifications and permissible exemptions for jury service shall be the same for women as for men. In 27 States and the District of Columbia women may claim exemptions not available to men. Of these, 15 States,[3] the District of Columbia, and the remaining 4 counties in Maryland permit a woman to be excused solely on the basis of her sex. An additional 8 States [4] permit women to claim an exemption on the basis of having child-care or family responsibilities. Nebraska and Rhode Island further provide that women shall be included for jury service only when the courthouse facilities permit. Florida, Louisiana, and New Hampshire permit women to serve only if they first register for jury service.

98. 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, interest, and rights are recognized in such cases.

Public domicile.—Most States establish the same marital domicile for husband and wife 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 a separate domicile for personal-property taxes.

[1] Public Law 85–315, 85th Cong., Sept. 9, 1957, Sec. 152, amending 28 U.S.C. 1861.

[2] Arizona, California, Colorado, Delaware, Hawaii, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Maine, Michigan, Montana, New Jersey, New Mexico, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Vermont, West Virginia.

[3] Alaska, Arkansas, Georgia, Idaho, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nevada, New York, North Dakota, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Virginia, Washington, Wisconsin.

[4] Connecticut, Massachusetts, Nebraska, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Texas, Utah, Wyoming.

Civil Status—Family Relations

99. Marriage

The laws of the various States governing marriage requirements generally do not differentiate between the sexes, except in establishing minimum ages. Most States set lower minimums for women than for men. When the consent of the parents is not required, the minimum age for women is 18 years in 35 States and the District of Columbia; 20 or 21 in the remaining jurisdictions. With the consent of the parents, the usual minimum for girls is 16 in 38 States and the District of Columbia; 15 in 8 States [5] and 14 in 4 States—Alabama, South Carolina, Texas, and Utah. All but 5 States [6] and the District of Columbia require a premarital health examination for both applicants for a marriage license. In those 5 States it is not required for either applicant.

100. 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 and at least 14 States permit a man to seek a divorce on the basis of his wife's pregnancy by another man at the time of their marriage. 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, imprisonment, and commission of an infamous crime.

When divorce is granted, 49 States and the District of Columbia have statutes which provide permanent alimony to the wife in the discretion of the court. Texas does not provide for alimony after the final decree. Eleven States [7] allow alimony to either spouse and in addition Massachusetts and New Hampshire allow the husband a portion of the wife's estate in the nature of alimony. Of the 34 States [8] which provide alimony for the wife only, at least 8 States [9] may allow

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[5] Idaho, Mississippi, Missouri, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Washington.

[6] Maryland, Minnesota, Nevada, South Carolina, Washington.

[7] Alaska, California, Illinois, Iowa, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Utah, West Virginia.

[8] Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Hawaii, Idaho, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Vermont, Washington, Wisconsin, Wyoming.

[9] Connecticut, Delaware, Georgia, Kansas, Mississippi, Nebraska, Pennsylvania, Wyoming.

alimony or continue the wife liable for support of the husband in case of divorce on the basis of his mental illness. The statutes of Colorado and Virginia are broad enough to apply to either spouse, but in actual practice alimony may be limited to the wife since there does not appear to be a judicial determination in either State permitting alimony to the husband.

101. Parent and Child

Under the common law, the father was the preferred natural guardian of the person of the minor child and as such had the care, custody, control, and responsibility for the education of his minor child. This rule has been abrogated by statute and court decision in the majority of States, to provide that natural guardianship of the minor child is vested jointly in both parents. However, 6 States [10] specifically provide by statute that the father is the preferred natural guardian of the minor child. In addition, 5 States [11] specify by statute that the father be preferred when it is necessary to appoint a guardian of the estate of the minor. If the marriage is broken by divorce or legal separation, generally 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 custody. However, if there is contest between the parents regarding custody or guardianship of minor children, at least 8 States [12] have provisions to the effect that all other things being equal, the mother has a preferred right if the child is of tender years, and the father has a preferred right if the child is of an age to require education and preparation for labor or business.

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.

102. 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

[10] Alaska, Georgia, Louisiana, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Texas.
[11] Alabama, Louisiana, Montana, New Mexico, Texas.
[12] Arizona, California, Michigan, Montana, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Utah.

responsibility devolves on the wife and mother. In the 8 States [13] having community-property laws of ownership between husband and wife, the common estate of husband and wife is liable for family support; in the remaining States and the District of Columbia the property of the husband is primarily liable for family necessaries.

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 Act.—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. The prime purpose of this legislation is to make 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 lightened the burden of welfare agencies to a large extent, and has 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

103. Power to Make Contracts

All States with a common-law background recognize a married woman's legal capacity to contract her personal services in employment outside her home and to be entitled to earnings from such work without the formal consent of her husband.

The eight community-property States [13] 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 the majority of States a married woman may contract with respect to her separate property, but in 27 States and the District of Columbia there are restrictions—either directly or indirectly imposed by law—on her right to alienate her separate real estate. In 24 of

[13] Arizona, California, Idaho, Louisiana, Nevada, New Mexico, Texas, Washington.

these States [14] and the District of Columbia where both the husband and wife have either curtesy, dower or a statutory interest in the nature of dower in the other spouse's property, it is necessary that either spouse join in the conveyance of the real estate belonging to the other spouse in order to bar this interest. The laws in Alabama and North Carolina (included in the cited 24 States) plus 3 additional States [15] which do not give a husband a curtesy or statutory dower interest in the wife's property specifically state that a husband must join in the conveyance of a wife's real property. On the other hand it should be pointed out that 6 States [16] provide a dower interest for the wife without giving the husband a similar interest in the wife's property, thereby making it necessary for the wife to join in a husband's conveyance of his realty without subjecting her real estate to similar restriction.

104. 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 States [17] 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. In addition, Massachusetts requires a married woman or her husband to file a certificate with the city or town clerk's office in order to prevent the personal property of her business from being liable for her husband's debts. Four of the community-property States [18] provide that the wife may control her earnings. In Washington the right is absolute, in the other three the right is qualified.

Property acquired by joint efforts after marriage.—In the eight States which have the community-property system[13] the husband has superior right to control of the property acquired by joint efforts while the spouses live together.

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[14] Alabama, Delaware, Hawaii, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin. (Also Missouri for all estates vested as of 1955 when the statutory dower law of 1939 was repealed.)

[15] Florida, Indiana, Texas.

[16] Alaska, Arkansas, Michigan, Montana, South Carolina, Utah (in Utah joinder of wife to bar dower is necessary only if wife is a resident of Utah).

[17] California, Florida, Nevada, Pennsylvania, Texas.

[18] California, Idaho, Louisiana, Washington.

In the District of Columbia and the 42 States that are not community-property States, the personal 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. In these same jurisdictions, the control of the real estate depends upon the type of co-ownership under which the real estate is held.

Under the common law, real estate conveyed or devised to husband and wife created an estate in entirety held by them as one person with the husband entitled to all the rents, profits, and enjoyment thereof. Although the common-law estate by the entireties may still be created in the District of Columbia and in the majority of the 42 States that are not community-property States, it is also generally possible for married persons to own real estate by some other form of co-ownership under which each party is entitled to one-half of the rents, profits, and enjoyment thereof.

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, the majority of States provide that a widow or widower inherits a similar portion from the deceased spouse. The surviving spouse's share of the estate generally depends on whether there are surviving issue, parents, or next of kin.

Practically all States require maintenance for the widow from the husband's estate during the settlement period. At least one-third of them provide support during this period for either the widow or widower.

Part III

President's Commission on the Status of Women

663094°—63——11

EXECUTIVE ORDER 10980

Establishing

THE PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN

WHEREAS prejudices and outmoded customs act as barriers to the full realization of women's basic rights which should be respected and fostered as part of our Nation's commitment to human dignity, freedom, and democracy; and

WHEREAS measures that contribute to family security and strengthen home life will advance the general welfare; and

WHEREAS it is in the national interest to promote the economy, security, and national defense through the most efficient and effective utilization of the skills of all persons; and

WHEREAS in every period of national emergency women have served with distinction in widely varied capacities but thereafter have been subject to treatment as a marginal group whose skills have been inadequately utilized; and

WHEREAS women should be assured the opportunity to develop their capacities and fulfill their aspirations on a continuing basis irrespective of national exigencies; and

WHEREAS a Governmental Commission should be charged with the responsibility for developing recommendations for overcoming discriminations in government and private employment on the basis of sex and for developing recommendations for services which will enable women to continue their role as wives and mothers while making a maximum contribution to the world around them:

NOW, THEREFORE, by virtue of the authority vested in me as President of the United States by the Constitution and statutes of the United States, it is ordered as follows:

Part I—ESTABLISHMENT OF THE PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN

SEC. 101. There is hereby established the President's Commission on the Status of Women, referred to herein as the "Commission". The Commission shall terminate not later than October 1, 1963.

SEC. 102. The Commission shall be composed of twenty members appointed by the President from among persons with a competency

in the area of public affairs and women's activities. In addition, the Secretary of Labor, the Attorney General, the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, the Secretary of Commerce, the Secretary of Agriculture, and the Chairman of the Civil Service Commission shall also serve as members of the Commission. The President shall designate from among the membership a Chairman, a Vice-Chairman, and an Executive Vice-Chairman.

SEC. 103. In conformity with the act of May 3, 1945 (59 Stat. 134, 31 U.S.C. 691), necessary facilitating assistance, including the provision of suitable office space by the Department of Labor, shall be furnished the Commission by the Federal agencies whose chief officials are members thereof. An Executive Secretary shall be detailed by the Secretary of Labor to serve the Commission.

SEC. 104. The Commission shall meet at the call of the Chairman.

SEC. 105. The Commission is authorized to use the services of consultants and experts as may be found necessary and as may be otherwise authorized by law.

Part II—DUTIES OF THE PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN

SEC. 201. The Commission shall review progress and make recommendations as needed for constructive action in the following areas:

(a) Employment policies and practices, including those on wages, under Federal contracts.

(b) Federal social insurance and tax laws as they affect the net earnings and other income of women.

(c) Federal and State labor laws dealing with such matters as hours, nightwork, and wages, to determine whether they are accomplishing the purposes for which they were established and whether they should be adapted to changing technological, economic, and social conditions.

(d) Differences in legal treatment of men and women in regard to political and civil rights, property rights, and family relations.

(e) New and expanded services that may be required for women as wives, mothers, and workers, including education, counseling, training, home services, and arrangements for care of children during the working day.

(f) The employment policies and practices of the Government of the United States, with reference to additional affirmative steps which should be taken through legislation, executive or administrative action to assure nondiscrimination on the basis of sex and to enhance constructive employment opportunities for women.

SEC. 202. The Commission shall submit a final report of its recommendations to the President by October 1, 1963.

SEC. 203. All executive departments and agencies of the Federal Government are directed to cooperate with the Commission in the performance of its duties.

Part III—REMUNERATION AND EXPENSES

SEC. 301. Members of the Commission, except those receiving other compensation from the United States, shall receive such compensation as the President shall hereafter fix in a manner to be hereafter determined.

JOHN F. KENNEDY.

THE WHITE HOUSE, *December 14, 1961.*

(Editor's note: Since the establishment of the Commission, seven committees have been formed to study specific aspects of women's status and to report their findings and recommendations to the Commission. A committee was set up for each of the six areas of responsibility listed in Part II of the Executive Order and a committee on education was added because of its underlying importance to women's status.

Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt, Commission Chairman, died on November 7, 1962. Subsequently, President Kennedy stated, "It is my judgment that there can be no adequate replacement for Mrs. Roosevelt. I have therefore decided not to appoint a new chairman. I have accordingly asked Dr. Richard Lester, Vice-Chairman, and Mrs. Esther Peterson, Executive Vice-Chairman, to continue to guide the Commission along the course chartered by Mrs. Roosevelt.")

Part IV

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 when 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 pages 176, 177.)

Social, Civic, and Religious Organizations

American Women's Voluntary Services, Inc., 125 East 65th Street, New York 21, N.Y. Founded 1940. Its purposes 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 201 Junior Leagues in the United States, Canada, and Mexico, with total membership of 83,500 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., 65 Worth Street, New York 13, 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 activties. Membership: 600,000.

General Federation of Women's Clubs, 1734 N Street NW., Washington 6, D.C. Established 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 million through combined membership with affiliated groups in 58 countries, territories, and possessions (862,740 per capita paying members).

Girls Clubs of America, Inc., 22 East 38th Street, New York 16, N.Y. Founded 1945. National, nonprofit youth organization. Its goal is training girls to be responsible citizens and homemakers. The organization provides daily out-of-

school programs in permanent clubhouses for girls from 6 years of age through their teens. The program is available to all girls, regardless of race, creed, or national origin, at flexible membership fees for their economic convenience. Membership: 50,000 girls, 95 clubs throughout the Nation.

Girl Scouts of the United States of America, 830 Third Avenue, New York 22, N.Y. Founded 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: 2,685,000 girls, 769,000 adults.

Hadassah, The Women's Zionist Organization of America, Inc., 65 East 52d Street, New York 22, N.Y. Its purpose is to participate in efforts that help safeguard the democratic way of life here and that work toward peace and security throughout the world; provide basic Jewish education as background for intelligent and creative Jewish living in America and help interpret Israel to the American people. Through affiliation with Hadassah in Israel, support medical institutions, teaching, research and public health networks, and child welfare and vocational educational projects. Through *Junior Hadassah*, it fosters a program of Jewish education, encourages participation in American civic affairs, and provides fellowships and other grants for travel and study in Israel.

League of Women Voters of the United States, 1026 17th Street NW., Washington 6, D.C. Founded 1920. Its purpose is to promote political responsibility through informed and active participation of citizens in government. Membership: 132,000 in over 1,120 local Leagues organized in 50 States and the District of Columbia.

Lucy Stone League, Inc., The, Suite 1902, 247 Park 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 to prepare women for complete community participation by raising the standards of homelife, and by providing better health, educational, and economic opportunities. Membership: 100,000 in 42 States.

National Consumers League for Fair Labor Standards, 1029 Vermont Avenue NW., Washington, D.C. Established 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 consumer protection, 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 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 World Union of Catholic Women's Organizations. Membership: Over 9 million women through more than 14,000 national, State, diocesan, and local affiliated groups.

National Council of Jewish Women, Inc., 1 West 47th Street, New York 36, N.Y. Established 1893. An educational and service organization which leads and

educates women for constructive action in the community. Through 329 affiliated local units it maintains over 1,000 community services to the aging, to children and youth, in mental health, and for the foreign born. A major emphasis in recent years has been development of programs to meet the needs of out-of-school out-of-work youth. It also conducts an adult education and social action program concerned with major national and international issues. Its Overseas Program extends these services to Jewish communities abroad by sponsoring studies in U.S. graduate schools for educators and social welfare specialists, and by direct financial aid to educational institutions. Membership: 123,000.

National Council of Negro Women, Inc., 1318 Vermont Avenue NW., Washington 5, D.C. Organized 1935. The Council seeks the cooperation and membership of all races and works for the integration of Negroes into the economic, social, cultural, civic, and political life of every community. There are 20 national organizations and 95 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. Founded 1888. Serves as information center and clearinghouse for 24 affiliated women's organizations; conducts pilot projects and sponsors conferences on national and international problems and matters of concern to women, sharing results with affiliated groups; provides exchange of news and ideas among the women of the free world. Membership: Approximately 4 million (individual and through affiliates).

National Jewish Welfare Board, 145 East 32d Street, New York 16, N.Y. Founded 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 morale 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 serves as central national planning body through which specialized interests in social welfare—government and voluntary, national and local, lay and professional—come to grips with the needs of people. Membership: 225 individuals from 71 affiliate national organizations and 4 associate groups, and members-at-large. About one-third are women.

National Woman's Christian Temperance Union, 1730 Chicago Avenue, Evanston, Ill. Established 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 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, 475 Riverside Drive, New York 27, N.Y. Organized 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

churchwomen 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: 12 million and 2,300 local councils of churchwomen.

Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, Administrative Headquarters U.S. Section, Jane Addams House, 2006 Walnut Street, Philadelphia 3, Pa.; legislative office, 120 Maryland Avenue, NE., Washington 2, D.C. Established 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 by nonviolent means for the 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 1858, in London 1855. Organized to advance the physical, mental, social, and spiritual well-being of women and girls and to build a fellowship of women and girls devoted to the task of realizing in our common life those ideals of personal and social living to which we are committed by our faith as Christians. Affiliated with the World YWCA. Approximately 2,000 units in the United States.

Professional and Business Organizations

International Association of Personnel Women, c/o Mrs. Agnes A. Milhoan, State Compensation Insurance Fund, 648 Capitol Annex, Denver 2, Colo. Founded 1951. Its objectives are to encourage, promote, and extend women's memberships in associations devoted to a better understanding of employer-employee relationships; to encourage and assist women to prepare for careers in the fields of personnel and industrial relations; to stimulate the organization of local groups for study, research, and exchange of information and ideas; to promote scientific study of personnel and industrial relations work by collecting and publishing such information, organizing conferences and discussion groups, and publishing and distributing conference proceedings and other books, periodicals, and reports that will help accomplish their purposes and objectives. Membership: 1,000.

National Association of Negro Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc., c/o Mrs. Florence Allen Holmes, President, 160 Clock Boulevard, Massapequa, N.Y. Founded 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: 10,000.

National Association of Railway Business Women, Inc., 50 E. Broad St., Room 714, Columbus, Ohio. Organized 1918; incorporated 1941. Its purpose is to stimulate interest in the railroad industry; to foster cooperation and better understanding within the railroad industry and its affiliates; to create good public relations for the railroad industry; to further the educational, social, and professional interests of its members; to undertake charitable, benevolent, and social welfare projects; to establish, provide, and operate a residence or residences to be used as living quarters for members of this association after their retirement. First residence for retired members was established in Boca Raton, Fla. National welfare project is providing

model electric trains to schools and hospitals for handicapped children. Membership: Approximately 7,000 active in 60 chapters located in 33 States. Associate membership available.

National Association of Women in Construction, 1516 West 10th Street, Little Rock, Ark. Organized 1953; received national charter 1955. Objectives: To unite for their mutual benefit women who are actively engaged in various phases of the construction industry; to encourage cooperation and better understanding among women in the industry; to promote fellowship and good will among members of the organization. Membership is open to all women who are employed in or who own businesses in the construction or allied fields. NAWIC is nonprofit, nonsectarian, and nonpartisan; not affiliated with any religious, fraternal, or labor group. There are 71 chapters in various cities throughout the United States. Membership: Over 3,500.

National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc., The, 2012 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Established 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 International Federation of Business and Professional Women. Membership: 174,000 in 3,550 Clubs in the United States, Puerto Rico, and Virgin Islands.

National Secretaries Association (International), 1103 Grand Avenue, Kansas City 6, Mo. Organized 1942. Its purpose is to elevate the standards of the secretarial profession by uniting for their mutual benefit by means of educational and professional activities women who are or have been engaged in secretarial work. 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: 23,000 in 522 chapters.

Accountancy

American Society of Women Accountants, 327 South LaSalle Street, Chicago 4, Ill. Founded 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: 3,400.

American Woman's Society of Certified Public Accountants, 327 South LaSalle Street, Chicago 4, Ill. Founded 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: 525.

Banking

National Association of Bank Women, 60 East 42d Street, New York 17, N.Y. Founded 1921. Its purpose is to bring together women executives engaged in the profession of banking for exchange of ideas and experiences for 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: 4,000.

Engineering

Society of Women Engineers, United Engineering Center, 3d Floor, 345 East 47th Street, New York 17, N.Y. Established 1950. Its purpose is to inform the public of qualifications, abilities, and achievements of women engineers, to bring about the better utilization of engineering talent for the economic and social benefit of humanity; to encourage young women with suitable aptitudes and interests to enter the engineering profession and to guide them in their educational programs. Membership: 700.

Fashion

The Fashion Group, Inc., 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N.Y. Founded 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: 4,000 members with 28 regional groups in the United States, plus 2 regional groups in Canada, 1 in Melbourne, Australia, and an allied group in Paris.

Finance

Federation of Women Shareholders in American Business, Inc., 527 Lexington Avenue, New York 17, New York. Its purpose is (a) to educate women concerning the importance of using their vote as stockholders (including the goal of a secret ballot for all shareholders—especially employee-shareholders—in corporate elections); (b) to delineate their responsibilities as employers of management and labor; and (c) to provide financial education for women because they own, although they do not control, 70 percent of the privately owned wealth. It supports equal pay for equal work, equal mandatory retirement age, and equal training and opportunity in business.

Geography

The Society of Women Geographers, 1216 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Founded 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: 400.

Health Services

American Association of Industrial Nurses, Inc., 170 East 61st Street, New York 21, N.Y. Founded 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 better 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: 5,163.

American Association of Medical Record Librarians, 840 North Lake Shore Drive, Chicago 11, Ill. Founded 1928. Its purpose is to improve the quality and efficiency of medical records in hospitals, clinics, and other health

and mental 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: 4,760. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Association of Nurse Anesthetists, Suite 3010 Prudential Plaza, Chicago 1, Ill. Founded 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: 10,890.

American Dental Assistants Association, Inc., 410 First National Bank Building, LaPorte, Ind. Established 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: 12,000.

American Dental Hygienists' Association, 100 East Ohio Street, Chicago 11, Ill. Established 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 4,000. Student membership: 2,200.

American Medical Women's Association, Inc., 1790 Broadway, New York 19, N.Y. Founded 1915. Purposes: To further the art and science of medicine; to promote interests common to women physicians and the public; to aid and encourage premedical, medical, and postgraduate medical students; to foster medical relief projects; and to cooperate with other organizations having comparable interests. Affiliated with the Medical Women's International Association.

American Nurses' Association, Inc., 10 Columbus Circle, New York 19, N.Y. Organized 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: 170,000.

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: 5,352. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Physical Therapy Association, 1790 Broadway, New York 19, N.Y. Founded 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: 9,142. Approximately 75 percent are women. In addition there are 903 student members.

American Society of Medical Technologists, c/o Rose Matthaei, Executive Secretary, Suite 25, Hermann Professional Building, Houston 25, Tex. Founded 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: 9,000. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Society of X-Ray Technicians, c/o Genevieve J. Eilert, Executive Secretary, 16 14th Street, Fond du Lac, Wis. Founded 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: 10,533. (Not restricted to women, but membership about 70 percent women.)

American Speech and Hearing Association, 1001 Connecticut Avenue NW., Washington 6, D.C. Founded 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: 8,200. (Not restricted to women.)

Association of American Women Dentists, c/o Dr. Virginia B. Englett, President, 312 Baptist Professional Building, Atlanta 12, Ga. Founded 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 and Service, Inc., 475 Riverside Drive, New York 27, N.Y. Organized 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: 1,844 individual and sustaining members; 21,909 State associations (per capita); 37 group members; and 2,009 students enrolled as future members. (Not restricted to women, but membership primarily women.)

National Association of Social Workers, 95 Madison Avenue, New York 16, N.Y. Established October 1, 1955. (Successor to American Association of Group Workers, American Association of Social Workers, American Association of Medical Social Workers, American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers, National Association of School Social Workers, and Social Work Research Group.) Purpose: To improve the quality of social work practice, advance the profession and represent it on social welfare issues. Membership: 34,500. Chapters: 160, in all 50 States and in Puerto Rico. (Membership includes both men and women.)

National Federation of Licensed Practical Nurses, Inc., 250 West 57th Street, New York 19, N.Y. Organized 1949. Its major objectives are to associate all licensed practical nurses and to protect their welfare; to further the high-

est 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, 10 Columbus Circle, New York 19, N.Y. Organized 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: 23,531 individuals and 1,226 member agencies.

Home Economics

American Dietetic Association, 620 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago 11, Ill. Founded 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: 15,560. (Not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women.)

American Home Economics Association, 1600 20th Street NW., Washington 9, D.C. Established 1909. Its purpose is to provide opportunities for professional home economists and other association members from related fields to cooperate in the attainment of the well-being of individuals and of families, the improvement of homes, and the preservation of values significant in homelife. Membership: 28,017 individual members; 463 affiliated college clubs with 20,000 members; 211 groups of homemakers whose members meet the association's requirements for individual membership. Five 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 330–E, 823 South Detroit Avenue, Tulsa 19, 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 14,000 in 270 affiliated clubs.

Women Underwriters, The National Association of Life Underwriters, c/o Mrs. Laura M. Benham, Chairman Committee of Life Underwriters, Prudential Insurance Co., of America, 4498 Lower River Road, Lewiston, N.Y. 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: 1,500.

Law

National Association of Women Lawyers, American Bar Center, 1155 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, Ill. Founded 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 1876. Its objective is to promote library service and librarianship. Membership: Approximately 25,000. (Not restricted to women, but personal membership is predominantly women.)

Special Libraries Association, 31 East 10th Street, New York 3, N.Y. Organized 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: 5,550. (Not restricted to women.)

Music

National Federation of Music Clubs, Suite 1215, 600 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago 5, Ill. Founded 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., 75 East 55th Street, New York 22, New York. Established 1951. The objectives of this professional organization of women working as broadcasters, executives, administrators, and in a creative capacity in radio, television, broadcast-advertising and closely allied fields, are to provide a medium for communication and exchange of ideas; to encourage cooperation within the allied fields of the industry; and to augment the value of members to their employers, their industry, their community, and their country. Membership: 1,600.

Real Estate

Women's Council of the National Association of Real Estate Boards, 36 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago 3, Ill. Established 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: 3,100.

Teaching

See Educational Organizations.

Writing

American Newspaper Women's Club, Inc., 1607 22d Street NW., Washington 8, D.C. Founded 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: 260 professional, 105 associate members.

National League of American Pen Women, Inc., 1300 17th Street NW., Washington 6, D.C. Founded 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 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: 450.

General Service Organizations of Business and Professional Women

Altrusa International, Inc., 332 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago 4, Ill. Established 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 who are 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: 16,000 in 500 clubs in 7 countries.

Pilot Club International, Persons Building, Macon, Ga. Organized 1921. A classified service club for executive business and professional women. 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 tends to improve the civic, social, industrial, and commercial welfare of the community. Membership: More than 13,000 in 450 clubs which are located in the United States, Canada, England, France, Bermuda, and Japan.

Quota International, Inc., 1145 19th Street NW., Washington 6, D.C. Established 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 international fellowships. Membership: 11,000 in 365 clubs in 4 countries.

Soroptimist International Association, Soroptimist Federation of the Americas, Inc., 1616 Walnut Street, Philadelphia 3, Pa. Founded 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 op-

portunity to serve society. Membership in International Association: 40,000 in 1,400 clubs in 33 countries.

Zonta International, 59 East Van Buren Street, Chicago 5, Ill. Established 1919. Its main objectives are the encouragement of high ethical standards in business and professions; the improvement of the legal, political, economic, and professional status of women; and the advancement of international understanding, goodwill, and peace through a world fellowship of executive women. Membership: 16,000 in 445 clubs in 19 countries.

Educational Organizations

Adult Education Association of the United States of America. Administration, Publications, and Membership, 743 North Wabash Avenue, Chicago 11, Ill. Founded May 14, 1951. Its purpose is to further the concept of education as a process continuing throughout life, by 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: 5,000. (Not restricted to women.)

American Association of University Women, 2401 Virginia Avenue, N.W., Washington 7, D.C. Founded 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 145,000.

American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, NW., Washington 6, D.C. Established 1918. Serves as a center of coordination and cooperation in higher education; conducts inquiries and investigations into specific educational problems and seeks 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; 145 educational associations, 1,079 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 and practical arts education and to improve the quality of instruction in these phases of education, 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. Also, the association promotes training of adult workers in vocational education to update them in their occupations and to train them for new ones. Membership: 30,000, approximately 9,000 of whom are women.

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National Association of College Women, 1501 11th Street, NW., Washington, D.C. Founded 1923. Its purpose is to promote 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, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Established 1916. Its purpose is to increase the professional effectiveness of its members and to advance personnel work in schools and colleges. It is especially interested in education as it relates to women's changing roles in society and in the implications of these changes for counseling. It is a department of the National Education Association. Membership: 2,000.

National Congress of Colored Parents and Teachers, 123 South Queen Street, Dover, Del. Founded May 7, 1926. Its purpose is to promote the welfare of children and youth in home, school, church, and community; to raise the standards of homelife; 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 can secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, social, and spiritual education. Membership: 250,000. (Not restricted to women.)

National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 700 North Rush Street, Chicago 11, Ill. Founded 1897. Its purpose is to promote the welfare of children and youth in home, school, church, and community; to raise the standards of homelife; 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 can secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, social, and spiritual education. The theme of the current administration (1962–65) is "New Adventures in P.T.A. Leadership and Responsibility." Membership: 12,107,507. (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 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 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: 810,000 individual personal memberships and approximately 1,250,000 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, 1730 K Street, NW., Washington 6, D.C. Established 1953, to replace the previous Women's Division and Women's Bureau, dating back to 1916. Purpose: To encourage more women to participate in Democratic political organizations, provide them with information and techniques to make it possible for them to work as equals with men at all political levels. Functions include preparing and distributing political techniques materials, assisting in building political organizations, aiding and encouraging women to seek both public and party office.

National Federation of Republican Women, 1625 I Street, NW., Washington 6, D.C. Founded 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 50 States, the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia.

National Woman's Party, 144 Constitution Avenue, NE., Washington 2, D.C. Established 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 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 in seeking public office as candidates; 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 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: 1,155.

Patriotic Organizations

American Legion Auxiliary, 777 North Meridian Street, Indianapolis 7, Ind. Established 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 those hostilities. The veteran, if living, must be a member of The American Legion. Membership: Approximately 1 million.

Daughters of the American Revolution, 1776 D Street, NW., Washington 6, D.C. Established 1890. Objectives of society are patriotic, historical, and educational. Membership: 185,808 in 2,859 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: 20,000. (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 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 1914. Its objects are fraternal, patriotic, and educational. Major programs include volunteer work in the Veterans Administration and other hospitals, and welfare activities for veterans and their dependents. Membership: 350,000.

United Daughters of the Confederacy, U.D.C. Memorial Building, 328 North Boulevard, Richmond 20, Va. Established 1894. Purpose is historical, benevolent, educational, and social. Membership: Approximately 36,000. (Membership restricted to women who are descendents 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: 1,600,994.

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 representatives of 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 million.

National Home Demonstration Council, c/o Mrs. Homer A. Greene, President, Tutwiler, Miss. Founded 1936. Its purpose is to strengthen and develop adult education in home economics through the cooperative Extension Service of the U.S. 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 million.

Woman's National Farm and Garden Association, Inc., c/o Miss Elizabeth Miller, President, 201 Iola Street, Glenshaw, Pa. Founded 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 U.S. Department of Labor, in its "Directory of National and International Labor Unions in the United States, 1961," includes a table listing of the unions that report membership by sex. (See table 32, page 63 of this 1962 Handbook, for list of unions reporting 25,000 or more women members.)

American Federation of Labor—Congress of Industrial Organizations Auxiliaries, c/o Mrs. Marcella S. Beatty, Executive Director, 815 16th Street, NW., Washington 6, D.C. Established 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 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 benefits workers and their families; and to promote social and cultural activities. Membership: 50,000.

Alphabetical List of Organizations

Part V

Bibliography on American Women Workers

BIBLIOGRAPHY ON AMERICAN WOMEN WORKERS

This bibliography covers principally publications of both current and historic interest concerning women as workers and citizens. It was prepared in response to numerous requests for reference materials pertaining to women's increased participation in employment and other activities outside the home. Since it is based on materials utilized in the course of research work and is not the result of a complete review of the literature, the bibliography is of necessity limited. It includes references with varying conclusions and opinions, and listing does not constitute endorsement of a certain point of view.

The references have been classified according to their primary subject matter, wherever possible. Those which are not specialized are shown at the beginning of the listing under "Comprehensive." Those which describe women's life in the past rather than the present are grouped in the section titled "Historical Developments." Thus, the topical sections of the bibliography are:

Comprehensive
Education and training for employment
Employment and occupations
Family status and responsibilities
Health, physical welfare, and conditions of work
Historical developments
Union organization
Wages and equal pay
Women as citizens

No attempt has been made to include publications with limited or no references to women. In addition, the listing does not contain works devoted primarily to educational theory, occupational or career guidance, the study of a particular occupation or industry; or instruction in home management or nutrition. Because the listing is concerned with women's economic, civil, and political status and activities, it does not include sociological, anthropological, or psychological analyses of women's life. Nor does it cover women in countries other than the United States. However, an occasional foreign reference has been included because the analysis has general application.

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