TABLE 2.—*Distribution of employment and injuries by sex in 10,665 nonmanufacturing establishments, classified by industry, 1945*

Industry	Number of establishments reporting	Employment			Injuries						Percent women are of all workers	Percent injuries to women are of all injuries
		Total	Number of women	Number of men	Number of injuries to—			Injury frequency rate for—				
					Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men		
Retail trade:												
Apparel	836	36,452	23,169	13,283	233	136	97	3.2	3.0	3.6	63.6	58.4
Automotive dealers	1,077	20,128	2,113	18,015	798	14	784	17.4	3.3	18.8	10.5	1.8
Building and household supplies and equipment	550	7,203	1,697	5,506	172	9	163	11.0	2.6	13.4	23.6	5.2
Department and general merchandise stores	414	67,252	49,893	17,359	938	533	405	7.0	5.4	11.4	74.2	56.8
Drug stores	352	11,120	6,461	4,659	373	247	126	15.5	17.8	12.3	58.1	66.3
Dairy products	117	12,340	2,017	10,323	796	22	774	26.9	4.9	30.8	16.4	2.8
Grocery, meat, and vegetable stores—Chain	52	13,966	4,765	9,201	684	212	472	24.5	22.5	25.6	34.1	31.0
Grocery, meat, and vegetable stores—Independent	445	6,340	2,207	4,133	232	57	175	18.3	13.7	20.5	34.8	24.5
Fuel and ice dealers	391	9,306	1,029	8,277	762	0	762	38.6	0	43.1	11.1	0
Furniture stores	510	11,318	3,556	7,762	231	20	211	9.1	2.6	12.0	31.4	8.7
Lumber and building materials, not metal	424	7,330	828	6,502	399	3	396	25.7	1.8	28.6	11.3	.7
Mail-order houses	5	3,605	2,891	714	31	14	17	4.5	2.5	12.5	80.2	45.1
Variety, limited-price stores	63	5,100	4,248	852	161	101	60	18.1	13.7	38.9	83.3	62.7
Other	909	19,565	8,484	11,081	346	72	274	9.1	4.6	12.4	43.4	20.8
Wholesale trade:												
Automotive	191	5,578	1,461	4,117	156	16	140	12.2	4.9	14.7	26.2	10.3
Chemical, drugs and related products	143	5,575	2,187	3,388	81	28	53	7.2	6.4	7.7	39.3	34.6
Dry goods and apparel	362	8,111	2,994	5,117	57	11	46	3.6	1.9	4.6	37.0	19.3
Farm products and supplies	363	12,932	3,592	9,340	573	50	523	25.2	11.4	28.5	27.8	8.7
Groceries and food specialties	623	16,902	3,517	13,385	752	39	713	20.5	5.6	24.0	20.8	5.2
Industrial and household building material, equipment, and supplies	644	21,144	6,150	14,994	545	46	499	12.1	3.6	15.5	29.1	8.4
Paper and paper products	174	5,058	1,648	3,410	114	7	107	10.8	2.1	14.8	32.6	6.1
Other	519	12,866	3,620	9,246	600	51	549	21.7	6.8	27.1	28.1	8.5
Other nonmanufacturing industries:												
Laundries, power	244	20,912	14,089	6,823	365	172	193	8.2	5.7	13.4	67.4	47.1
Cleaning and dyeing	178	6,166	4,013	2,153	94	45	49	7.1	5.3	10.4	65.1	47.9
Hotels, year-round	648	56,817	29,495	27,322	1,602	674	928	12.9	10.5	15.3	51.9	42.1
Banks and brokerage	319	7,988	2,874	5,114	29	11	18	1.8	2.0	1.7	35.9	37.9
Electric light and power	39	18,956	3,333	15,623	473	18	455	11.6	2.5	13.6	17.6	3.8
Manufactured gas production and distribution	42	4,025	855	3,170	212	5	207	23.7	2.8	28.9	21.3	2.4
Natural gas distribution	31	10,827	1,986	8,841	286	8	278	12.3	1.9	14.6	18.3	2.8

The stamped and pressed metal products industries show a high rate for both men and women, indicating special need for a program to improve the record. Other industries also call for special attention—slaughtering and meat packing, furniture and lumber products, and lumber mills, where rates are less comparable but still very high for both men and women; and those industries in which, though women's rates are low, men's rates are seriously high.

In all these industries particular efforts are needed to develop a program that will reduce the material and personal losses incurred through industrial injury.

V

Standards for Employment of Women

NEED FOR STANDARDS FOR WOMEN WORKERS

The great changes in women's work that were speeded up by the war have been developing for a little more than a century as the result of transferring industry from the home to the factory. In gradually increasing numbers, women have become wage workers outside their homes, either manufacturing goods or performing services for the public—working in factories, offices, stores, hotels, restaurants, and laundries. They are a large and important part of the labor force in the country. Many thousands of women also are employed by the Federal, State, and local governments, and other thousands work in private households.

Working conditions vary widely as to adequacy, even where legal regulations exist. Collective bargaining in many instances has established high standards for working conditions, wages, and hours. In other instances, employers themselves have set up good working conditions. But when standards depend wholly on voluntary action, they often do not apply to all workers and vary in their adequacy. For this reason, minimum standards should be established by law. The Nation's best interests demand good labor standards for women, many of whom are mothers and homemakers as well as wage earners.

DEVELOPMENT OF STANDARDS

What are adequate standards for women workers? How are these developed?

Labor standards are not stationary but are influenced by continuously changing conditions. Minimum wage standards are adjusted as prices rise and as new items come into the accepted minimum standard of living. Historically, hours of work have been reduced as factory processes have been mechanized and also as fatigue has come to be recognized as a major factor in the worker's health and efficiency. The development of industrial hygiene has provided a basis for regulating the use of industrial materials or processes that endanger the

health of workers. Thus standards change as a result of advancing scientific knowledge and as a result of growing recognition by both workers and employers of the need for good working conditions.

Good labor standards should be maintained for all workers without discrimination. Certain standards, such as those relating to plant equipment and plant environment, affect men and women equally and obviously are not subject to discriminatory application. With respect to such matters as hours of work, rest periods and lunch periods, and seating, labor legislation in many States is responsible for the existence, in many industries, of better standards for women than for men. However, discrimination against women sometimes exists in regard to promotion, seniority, training, and particularly in regard to wages. Women frequently are hired for beginning jobs on an equal basis with men but do not get equal consideration for promotion. They are often not given the same training opportunities and, even if trained, are not given a chance at the better jobs. Equality in maintaining the right to a job through seniority, and in payment for work done, is too often lacking.

Labor standards are developed through many channels—employers, unions, governmental and private agencies. The following pages present standards which refer mainly to *industrial* and *office* workers. (Somewhat different standards are essential to safeguard women workers in various other fields, such as household employment, agriculture, technical and scientific work, but these standards require special consideration.) Outlined here are the broad basic recommendations for any program concerned with the health and efficiency of women employees. These recommendations do not attempt to deal with details, but they indicate the direction in which the development of good standards should move.

STANDARDS ON WORKING TIME

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

1. Not more than 8 hours of work a day, and not more than 48 a week; work time over 40 hours to be paid for at time and one-half the worker's regular rate.
2. At least 1 day of rest in 7.
3. Meal periods of at least 30 minutes. No work period of more than 5 hours without a break for meal or rest.
4. A rest period of at least 10 minutes in the middle of each half-day work period, to be given in addition to the lunch period and without lengthening the workday.
5. Some vacation with pay after 6 months on the job; a longer vacation after longer service.
6. Sick leave and maternity leave without loss of job or seniority rights. Maternity leave should cover a minimum of 6 weeks before and 2 months after confinement; with extension of either period on advice of the worker's physician.
7. Time off with pay on chief legal holidays.

During the war the need for full production (especially of war materials) expanded the use of night work in manufacturing and

elsewhere contrary to past practices generally regarded as basic for health and social reasons. Now that the war demand is no longer overriding, there should be a return to the sounder policy of the pre-war years and night work kept to a minimum except in continuous-process industries and in essential services.

STANDARDS ON WAGES

Workers' standards of living are determined by their earnings. The least they should be assured is a minimum rate of pay adequate to meet the cost of living. But there must also be the assurance that this wage will continue throughout the year. The standard of living depends primarily on an adequate wage rate, plus the guarantee of an adequate annual wage. Such earnings are essential, not only because they maintain a secure and healthy level of living for individual workers, but also because they sustain the Nation's economic stability. To aid in accomplishing these objectives, Federal and State Governments to some extent are providing by law for a floor to wages as well as a ceiling to hours. Wage standards should include the following:

1. The principle of "equal pay": Wage rates based on the job, and not on the sex of the worker or other factors not related to ability to perform the job.
2. Minimum wage rates established through legislation; tips not considered as wages.
3. All protective clothing and other safety equipment, and all uniforms required, furnished and cared for by the employer as part of the cost of production; no worker required to contribute, directly or indirectly, to the cost of supplying or maintaining such clothing or equipment; if the worker does contribute, she is to be reimbursed for any such necessary expenditure by the employer.
4. Wages paid regularly and in full, on a weekly or semimonthly basis, and on a fixed day.

STANDARDS ON OTHER CONDITIONS

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

For Health

1. Working environment: Adequate ventilation, lighting, and heating, to preserve health and reduce strain and fatigue.
2. Plant facilities: Washroom, toilets, rest rooms and dressing rooms, drinking facilities, and lunchrooms where nourishing food is available at reasonable prices. These facilities should meet the needs of the workers and conform to high standards of health and sanitation.
3. Medical services in the plant commensurate with needs of the workers.
4. A program of industrial hygiene to discover and protect against occupational hazards arising from the use of dangerous substances or processes.

5. Lifting heavy weights and other undue physical strain to be eliminated from job requirements to the fullest extent possible.

6. Suitable seats, in adequate numbers, and freedom for workers to use them while working—at all times if the nature of the job permits, and in any event during periods when not actively engaged in performance of duties that require a standing position.

For Safety

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

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

3. Safe and uncrowded work space; stairways, floors, halls, rooms, and passageways kept in good condition and adequately lighted.

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

INDUSTRIAL HOME WORK

Efforts should be made to abolish the industrial home-work system, with its long and irregular hours, low earnings, and child labor. In nonindustrial States, legislation should prohibit home work. In industrial States where it is now extensive there should be strict regulation of hours of work and wages until prohibitory laws can be passed. Employers who use the labor of home workers can produce in direct competition with factory employers who have higher standards of hours, wages, and working conditions. Home work tends to undermine such standards.

VI

State Labor Laws for Women

Basic standards as of June 1, 1948

DAILY AND WEEKLY HOURS

Forty-three States and the District of Columbia have laws limiting the daily and weekly hours of employment in one or more industries.

Five States—Alabama, Florida, Indiana, Iowa and West Virginia—do not have such laws.

One-half of the States (24) and the District of Columbia have set 8 hours a day and/or 48 hours a week or less as the maximum time a woman may be employed in 1 or more industries.[1] In 23 of the 24 States (Kansas is the exception) manufacturing establishments are covered by such standards. South Carolina's statute, however, covers only 1 branch of manufacturing—textile mills. In Connecticut the maximum workweek is 48 hours for several industries but daily hours may not exceed 8 in mercantile establishments nor 9 in manufacturing plants. The 8–48 hours law in Kansas applies to public-housekeeping occupations and telephone exchanges; in manufacturing establishments, the maximum is 9 hours a day, 49½ hours a week.

Arizona	8–48	New York	8–48
California	8–48	North Carolina	9–48
Colorado	8	North Dakota	8½–48
Connecticut	8–48	Ohio	8–48
	9–48		9–45
District of Columbia	8–48	Oregon	8–44
Illinois	8–48	Pennsylvania	10–48
Kansas	8–48	Rhode Island	9–48
Louisiana	8–48	South Carolina (men and women)	8–40
Massachusetts	9–48	Utah	8–48
Montana	8	Virginia	9–48
Nevada	8–48	Washington	8
New Hampshire	10–48	Wyoming	8–48
New Mexico	8–48		

Ten States have set a maximum 9-hour day for women, and the weekly maximum in all but one of these (Idaho) is 50 or 54 hours. Arkansas has no weekly hours specified in its statute but it has a 6-day-week provision, which in effect makes a 54-hour maximum week.

[1] For States with different legal maximum-hour standards for different industries, the law establishing the lowest maximum hours was selected for this summary.

Arkansas	9–6 days	Nebraska	9–54
Idaho	9	Oklahoma	9–54
Maine	9–54	Texas	9–54
Michigan	9–54	Vermont	9–50
Missouri	9–54	Wisconsin	9–50

Eight States have set a maximum day of 10 hours and a week of from 54 to 60 hours. In 2 of these—Georgia and South Carolina—the law applies to one type of manufacturing plants only—cotton and woolen mills.

Delaware	10–55	New Jersey	10–54
Georgia (men and women)	10–60	South Carolina (men and women)	10–55
Kentucky	10–60	South Dakota	10–54
Maryland	10–60		
Mississippi (men and women)	10–60		

In one State—Tennessee— the maximum is 10½ hours a day, 57 hours a week. This applies to manufacturing and other industries.

Minnesota has fixed no daily limit in its statute, having only a 54-hour weekly limitation for manufacturing establishments and several other industries.

DAY OF REST [2]

About half the States (23) and the District of Columbia prohibit employment of women for more than 6 days a week in some or all industries. In 2 of these States—Colorado and Utah—the law does not apply to manufacturing establishments.

Arizona
Arkansas
California (men and women)
Colorado
Connecticut (men and women)
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)

MEAL PERIODS

Well over half the States (27) and the District of Columbia have provided that meal periods varying from ⅓ to 1 hour must be allowed to women in some or all industries. This provision applies to manufacturing establishments in all but 4 of these States—Colorado, Illinois, North Carolina, and Washington. The States are as follows:

Arkansas
California
Colorado
Delaware
District of Columbia
Illinois
Indiana (men and women)
Kansas
Kentucky
Louisiana
Maine
Maryland
Massachusetts
Nebraska (men and women)
Nevada
New Jersey (men and women)
New Mexico
New York (men and women)

[2] Rhode Island in its 1945 reenactment of an earlier law covering employment on certain holidays includes Sunday in the list of days when employment not absolutely necessary is prohibited. The law, however, does not establish a 6-day week.

North Carolina
North Dakota
Ohio
Oregon
Pennsylvania
Rhode Island
Utah
Washington
West Virginia
Wisconsin

REST PERIODS

Rest periods of 10 minutes after a work period of 4 consecutive hours or during each half day are provided for in the laws of California, Colorado, Nevada, Oregon, and Utah.

NIGHT WORK

Twenty-two States and the District of Columbia place some limitation on the hours of employment of women or persons between 18 and 21 at night.

The following 13 States prohibit night work for adult women in certain industries or occupations:

California
Connecticut
Delaware
Indiana
Kansas
Massachusetts
Nebraska
New Jersey
New York
North Dakota
South Carolina
Washington
Wisconsin

In 3 additional States—Arizona, Kentucky, Rhode Island—a night-work prohibition applies only to persons under 21 years of age in messenger service. In 1 other—Virginia—and the District of Columbia similar limitations apply only to girl messengers.

In 5 additional States—Maryland, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Pennsylvania, and Utah—the laws do not prohibit the employment of adult women at night but regulate such employment either by limiting the number of hours that may be worked at night or by setting specific working-conditions standards which must be complied with.

SEATING

Forty-six States and the District of Columbia have seating laws. All but 1 of them apply exclusively to women. Florida's law applies to both males and females.

Illinois and Mississippi have no seating laws.

OCCUPATIONAL LIMITATION

Twenty-nine States have occupational limitation laws for women and minors; 17 of the States prohibit employment in mines, 13 in manufacture or sale of intoxicating liquors. (Asterisk indicates that law applies only to persons under 21 years of age.)

Alabama: Labor in or about a coal mine.
Arizona: Work in or about a mine, quarry, or coal breaker.
Arkansas: Entrance into any mine to work therein.
California: Mixing alcoholic beverages containing distilled spirits on premises used for the sale of alcoholic beverages unless the licensee or wife of any such licensee.
*Employment of person under 21 on portion of premises used for sale and service of alcoholic beverages for consumption on premises.
Colorado: Employment in or about a coal mine or coke oven except in a clerical capacity.
*Selling or dispensing spirituous liquor by persons under 21.

Connecticut: Employment in any tavern, unless employee is the wife or daughter of proprietor.

Delaware: *Employment of person under 21 in room where intoxicating liquors are sold or dispensed, unless the establishment sells for medical or scientific purposes.

Florida: *Employment of person under 21 in poolroom, billiard room, or place where intoxicating liquors are manufactured or sold. *Exemptions:* Professional entertainers; drug or grocery stores licensed to sell beer and wine for consumption off premises; hotel workers if work is apart from place where alcoholic beverages are sold.

Illinois: Manual labor, in or about a mine.

Municipal authorities are empowered to prohibit by ordinance employment of women (other than a licensee or wife of licensee) as dispensers in retail liquor establishments.

Indiana: Employment within a coal mine.

*Employment of person under 21 in any public pool or billiard room.

Kentucky: Employment by retail liquor licensee for duties other than as waitress, cashier, or usher.

Louisiana: Employment as dispenser or seller of spirituous liquors, wines, or malt in any concert hall or saloon where such liquors are sold.

Maryland: Employment, other than office work, in connection with any mine.

*Employment of person under 21 in or in connection with any place where intoxicating liquors are sold.

Massachusetts: *Employment of person under 21 in, about, or in connection with a saloon or barroom where alcoholic liquors are sold.

Minnesota: *Employment of girl under 21 as messenger for telegraph or messenger company.

Missouri: Employment within any mine.

Montana: *Employment of person under 21 to serve liquor, beer, or wine.

New Jersey: Employment in the manufacture of nitro and amido compounds. *Exemptions:* Office, works hospital, or welfare room or building.

New Mexico: *Employment of girl under 21 as messenger for telegraph, telephone, or messenger company.

New York: Employment in or in connection with a mine or quarry.

*Employment of females under 21 as conductors or guards on any type of railroad.

*Employment of females under 21 as messenger for telegraph or messenger company.

Ohio: Employment as bellhop, crossing watchman, express driver, taxi driver,[3] jitney driver, meter reader (gas or electric), metal molder, or section hand, or in the following occupations or places:

Baggage handling.

Barrooms and saloons or public drinking places which cater to male customers only and in which substitutes for intoxicating liquors are sold.

Blast furnaces; mines; quarries; or smelters; (except in offices).

Bowling alleys, as pin setters.

Delivery service on wagons or automobiles.

Freight handling.

Operating freight or baggage elevators.

Poolrooms.

Shoe-shining parlors.

*Employment of girls under 21 in the personal delivery of messages.

Oklahoma: Employment underground in the operation of a mine or in any quarry. *Exemption:* Office work, if on top of the ground.

Pennsylvania: Employment in or about a mine. (Except in office or clerical work.)

Mixing or serving alcoholic liquors behind the bar of any hotel, tavern, saloon, eating house, or other place where liquors are legally sold, uniess the wife of proprietor or agent. Waitresses regularly taking orders for food may serve food and liquor at tables.

Employment in any occupation dangerous to life or limb or injurious to health or morals as determined by the Industrial Board.

---

[3] The prohibition of taxicab driving was declared unconstitutional by a county court of Ohio in 1928, but the prohibition has remained continuously on the statute books and was repeated in the 1947 amendment to the law.

South Carolina: *Employment of person under 21 in a retail, wholesale, or manufacturing liquor business.
Utah: Employment in a mine or smelter.
Virginia: Employment in or around a mine or quarry.
*Employment of person under 21 to sell, serve, or dispense alcoholic beverages for on-premises consumption.
Washington: Employment in or about a mine. (Except in clerical or messenger duty about the surface workings.)
Employment as a bellhop.
Wisconsin: Employment in or about a mine or quarry.
Employment in place established by court order as a disorderly house or employment to work for any person convicted as keeper of a disorderly house.
*Employment of girl under 21 as bellhop in hotel.
*Employment of girl under 21 as caddy on golf course.
Wyoming: Employment in or about a coal or iron mine or other dangerous underground place. (Except in office or clerical work.)

WEIGHT LIFTING

Nine States have some regulation regarding the lifting or carrying of heavy weights by women. These States are:

California
Massachusetts
Michigan
Minnesota
New York
Ohio
Oregon
Utah
Washington

EQUAL PAY

Nine States have enacted statutes which prohibit discrimination in rate of pay because of sex. Two of these laws—Illinois and Michigan—apply to manufacture only.

Illinois
Massachusetts
Michigan
Montana
New Hampshire
New York
Pennsylvania
Rhode Island
Washington

MINIMUM WAGE

Twenty-six States and the District of Columbia have minimum-wage laws on their statute books. These laws are broad in their coverage of industries, most of them being all-inclusive with a few listed exemptions, usually domestic service and agriculture. The Maine law is the only one of limited scope; it applies to one industry only—fish packing. Most of these laws apply to women and minors, the exceptions being noted in the following list of States:

Arizona
Arkansas (women and girls)
California
Colorado
Connecticut (all persons)
District of Columbia
Illinois
Kansas
Kentucky
Louisiana (women and girls)
Maine
Massachusetts (all persons)
Minnesota
Nevada (women and girls)
New Hampshire
New Jersey
New York (all persons)
North Dakota
Ohio
Oklahoma (women)
Oregon
Pennsylvania
Rhode Island (all persons)
South Dakota (women and girls)
Utah
Washington
Wisconsin

INDUSTRIAL HOME WORK

Twenty States and the District of Columbia have industrial home-work laws or regulations. In all but 3—Colorado, Oregon, and Utah—and the District of Columbia the law applies to persons; in these 4 jurisdictions the law applies to women and minors only. The States are:

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

EMPLOYMENT BEFORE AND AFTER CHILDBIRTH

Six States have laws prohibiting the employment of women immediately before and after childbirth. These States and the periods during which women may not be required to work are:

Connecticut: 4 weeks before and 4 weeks after
Massachusetts: 4 weeks before and 4 weeks after
Missouri: 3 weeks before and 3 weeks after
New York: 4 weeks after
Vermont: 2 weeks before and 4 weeks after
Washington: 4 months before and 6 weeks after

VII

Legislation Affecting Household Employees

(As of May 15, 1948)

COVERAGE OF DOMESTIC WORKERS BY STATE LABOR LAWS FOR WOMEN

Maximum-Hour Laws:

State maximum-hour laws of general coverage in effect in 43 States do not cover domestic workers. However, the State of Washington and Alaska have maximum-hour laws applicable to domestic workers only:

1. *Washington* has a special maximum-hour law for domestic workers:

Covers both male and female employees.
Prohibits their employment over 60 hours a week, including all time the employee is on call and not free to follow own pursuits.
Provides that in cases of emergency such employees may be employed longer than 60 hours.
Violation of the law is a misdemeanor.

2. The *Alaska* law establishes a 60-hour maximum workweek for female household or domestic workers.

Minimum-Wage Laws:

1. State minimum-wage laws that do not expressly exclude domestic workers are in effect in 8 States and 1 territory, as follows:

California	Oklahoma	Washington
Colorado	Oregon	Wisconsin
Kansas	Utah	Alaska

2. *Wisconsin* is the only State that has minimum-wage rates now in effect for domestic workers. Its minimum wage order, effective February 10, 1947, provides for adult women and minors employed in domestic service in private homes the following:

The minimum wage for 45 hours or more a week:
In cities and villages with a population of 3,500 or more:
If board only is furnished, $12 a week.
If board and lodging are furnished, $8 a week.
In cities and villages with a population between 1,000 and 3,500:
If board only is furnished, $10.75 a week.
If board and lodging are furnished, $7.25 a week.
Elsewhere in the State:
If board only is furnished, $10.25 a week.
If board and lodging are furnished, $7 a week.

The minimum wage for less than 45 hours a week:
In cities and villages with a population of 3,500 or more: 45 cents a hour.
In cities and villages with a population of between 1,000 and 3,500: 40 cents an hour.
Elsewhere in the State: 38 cents an hour.

Allowance for board and lodging:
Where board and lodging are furnished by the employer as part payment of wages, an allowance may be made therefor as follows:
In cities and villages with a population of 3,500 or more:
Of not more than $8.25 a week for board.
Of not more than $4 a week for lodging.
In cities and villages with a population between 1,000 and 3,500:
Of not more than $7.25 a week for board.
Of not more than $3.50 a week for lodging.
Elsewhere in the State:
Of not more than $6.75 a week for board.
Of not more than $3.25 a week for lodging.

COVERAGE OF DOMESTIC WORKERS BY STATE WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION LAWS

States in Which Coverage Is Compulsory

California: Compulsory for domestic workers employed over 52 hours a week by one employer; voluntary for others.

New York: After a 10-year campaign, the Condon bill was approved March 30, 1946, and became effective January 1, 1947. The bill amends the law by including among the hazardous occupations and employments, for which workmen's compensation is mandatory, certain domestic workers. The household employees who come under the amendment are all those who work for the same employer 48 or more hours per week and are employed in cities or villages of at least 40,000 population. (Domestic workers on farms are excepted.) The law extends to full-time regularly employed domestic workers the same protection, medical care, and compensation in the event of an accidental injury while at work which the law gives to other industrial workers. The penal provisions of the Workmen's Compensation law were made inapplicable to household employers. However, should the household employer who is required by law to carry workmen's compensation insurance fail to provide such insurance, the employer becomes personally responsible and liable to pay any award that may be rendered in favor of the employee. This award can be entered in the Supreme Court as a regular judgment. Furthermore, the employer can be subjected to a civil suit for negligence, in which action the defenses of "contributory negligence" or "risks of the job" cannot be urged by the employer, thus rendering the domestic worker's chance for recovery of damages extremely favorable.

Ohio: Compulsory for employers of 3 or more employees; voluntary for less than 3.

States in Which Coverage Is Elective [1]

Connecticut: Employers are presumed to come under the act if they regularly employ 5 or more employees unless a written stipulation to the contrary is made; law is voluntary for those employing less than 5.

New Jersey: If the employer or employee does not accept the act he must give written notice to that effect to the opposite party, with the result that common-law defenses are abrogated.

States in Which Coverage Is Voluntary [2]

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

States Which Exclude Domestic Workers

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

COVERAGE OF DOMESTIC WORKERS BY WAGE PAYMENT LAWS

State Having Laws That Specifically Cover Domestic Workers

California (if boarded and lodged by employer).

States and Territory Having Laws of Broad General Coverage Applicable to Domestic Workers

Georgia
Idaho*
Illinois*
Indiana
Louisiana*
Massachusetts
Minnesota*
Montana
Nevada
New Jersey
New York
Pennsylvania
Rhode Island
West Virginia
Wyoming*
Alaska

*Provision of the law relates only to payment of wage in case of employee's discharge.

---

[1] *Elective coverage* means that the employer has the option of either accepting or rejecting the act, but if he rejects it and the worker brings a suit for damages the employer cannot claim the traditional common law defenses, i. e., that the worker assumed the risk of the employment, that the injury was due to negligence of a fellow servant, or that the worker himself was guilty of contributory negligence.

[2] *Voluntary coverage* means that the employer may come under the act voluntarily but failure to do so does not result in a loss of the common-law defenses.

COVERAGE OF DOMESTIC WORKERS BY SOCIAL SECURITY LEGISLATION NOW IN EFFECT

Unemployment Compensation

1. The Social Security Act exempts employers of domestic workers from payment of the tax but it does not prohibit States from covering such workers under State legislation.

2. Domestic service in a private home is specifically excluded in all State unemployment compensation laws except New York.

New York includes such service if the employer employs 4 or more domestic workers in his home for 15 days in a calendar year.

Old-Age Insurance

The Federal old-age and survivors' insurance law does not cover domestic workers.

VIII

The Political and Civil Status of Women

Including principal sex distinctions as of January 1, 1948

POLITICAL STATUS

Nationality

Citizenship in the United States is acquired in the same way by men and women; that is, by birth within the domain, by birth abroad of a parent who is a citizen, or by being naturalized. Mothers, as well as fathers, confer citizenship on their minor children. A married woman's citizenship does not automatically follow that of her husband. An alien wife may become a citizen whether or not her alien husband desires or qualifies for that privilege. If a woman citizen marries an alien, she retains her citizenship until she renounces it by declaring allegiance to another government.

Voting and Public Office

Federal.—Any woman who has the qualifications required for voting in the State of her residence has full right of suffrage in the election of National Government officials and on proposals for change in the Federal Constitution, that is, in the basic law.

Likewise, any woman who meets the established qualifications for official positions in the National Government is eligible either for election or appointment to posts in the executive and legislative branches or for appointment to the judiciary, including the Supreme Court of the United States.

State.—Any woman who meets the general qualifications established for voting in the State in which she has legal residence has full right of suffrage in the election of State and local officials and in determination of public issues within the State, such as amendment of the State constitution, legislative proposals where the referendum procedure is operative, and on local matters such as special tax assessments for public improvements, school administration, and the like.

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

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

Courts—Jury Service.—Women are entitled by law to serve on juries in 35 States and the District of Columbia; by this fact they are eligible also for Federal duty in these jurisdictions.

Nineteen States[1] require compulsory duty of qualified women; 16 States[2] and the District of Columbia permit optional service from women.

Thirteen States[3] have not yet removed the ancient English common-law "defect of sex" which bars women from all jury duty in these jurisdictions. (It should be noted in this connection that in England women now are eligible generally for jury duty, by virtue of the law reforms of the present century, particularly the Sex Disqualification Removal Act of 1919.)

Domicile

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

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

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

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

Five States permit separate domicile for eligibility to public office:

Maine	Nevada	New York
Michigan	New Jersey	

At least four States permit separate domicile for jury service qualification:

Maine	Nevada
Michigan	New Jersey

Three States (Nevada, New Jersey, Virginia) recognize separate domicile for the personal property tax obligation of a married woman.

---

[1] Calif., Colo., Conn., Del., Ill., Ind., Iowa, Maine, Md., Mich., Mont., Nebr., N. J., N. C., Ohio, Oreg., Pa., S. Dak., Vt.
[2] Ariz., Ark., Idaho, Kans., Ky., La., Minn., Mo., Nev., N. H., N. Y., N. Dak., R. I., Utah, Wash., Wis.
[3] Ala, Fla., Ga., Mass., Miss., N. Mex., Okla., S. C., Tenn., Tex., Va., W. Va., Wyo.

CIVIL STATUS—FAMILY RELATIONS

Marriage

The marriage laws of the various States generally do not distinguish between the sexes, except in establishing minimum ages. Most States set a lower age for females. The same minimum age applies to both sexes in 8 States [4] when parental consent is required, and in 16 States [5] when parental consent is not required. Other legal distinctions found are of minor importance, both as to number and character; for example, 2 States (Louisiana, Texas) require pre-marital health tests of male applicants only. One State (Louisiana) bars remarriage of a woman for a 10-month period after dissolution of her marriage.

Divorce

Sixteen States [6] may grant a divorce to the husband on grounds that are exclusive to him. The principal ground in this group is the wife's undisclosed pregnancy by another at the time of marriage. Twenty-one States [7] may grant a divorce to the wife on grounds that are exclusive to her, generally the husband's desertion or nonsupport.

Parent and Child

Thirty-four States [8] give both parents the same rights of natural guardianship. Fourteen States [9] and the District of Columbia prefer the father as natural guardian during the marriage, giving him the first right to custody of his minor child's person, services, and earnings. If the marriage is broken by divorce or legal separation, neither parent has any legal advantage over the other as to custody of the minor children. The best interests of the child guide the court's disposition of its custody.

Six States [10] and the District of Columbia by statute prefer the father when a guardian of property is to be appointed for his child.

Nine States [11] authorize the father to appoint a guardian, by deed or last will, to have charge of the person of his minor child after the father's death, subject, however, in each of these States, to the mother's right to succeed the father as natural guardian of their minor children if she is the survivor. No State permits a father to will his child to a stranger without the mother's valid consent.

Seven [12] of the thirteen [13] States that authorize the surviving parent to appoint a testamentary guardian for a minor child's property provide that during the marriage the father may make the appointment with the mother's written consent.

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

---

[4] Colo., Conn., Maine, Mo., N. J., N. C., Pa., Tenn.
[5] Conn., Fla., Ga., Idaho, Ky., La., Nebr., N. C., Ohio, Pa., R. I., S. C., Tenn., Va., W. Va., Wyo.
[6] Ala., Ariz., Ga., Iowa, Kans., Ky., Miss., Mo., N. H., N. Mex., N. C., Okla., Tenn., Va., Wis., Wyo.
[7] Ala., Ariz., Colo., Del., Ind., Ky., Maine, Mass., Mich., Mo., Mont., Nebr., Nev., N. H., N. Mex., R. I., Tenn., Vt., Wash., Wis., Wyo.
[8] Ariz., Calif., Conn., Del., Fla., Idaho, Ill., Ind., Kans., Ky., La., Maine, Md., Miss., Mo., Mont., Nebr., Nev., N. H., N. J., N. Mex., N. Dak., Ohio, Oreg., Pa., R. I., S. C., S. Dak., Tenn., Tex., Utah, Wash., W. Va., Wis.
[9] Ala., Ark., Colo., Ga., Iowa, Mass., Mich., Minn., N. Y., N. C., Okla., Vt., Va., Wyo.
[10] Ala., Colo., La., Mont., Oreg., Tex.
[11] Ariz., Idaho, Mont., N. Dak., Okla., Oreg., S. Dak., Utah, Vt.
[12] Ariz., Idaho, Mont., N. Dak., Okla., S. Dak., Utah.
[13] Ariz., Calif., Del., Idaho, La., Mont., Nev., N. Y., N. Dak., Okla., Pa., S. Dak., Utah.

guardian according to the law of the State only if he legally acknowledges his relationship to the child.

Inheritance by Parents From Children.—No distinction exists between the rights of the father and mother to inherit from legitimate children. Most States allow the unmarried mother to inherit from her child. Nine [14] States permit the unmarried father to share the inheritance when he has legally acknowledged or adopted the child.

Family Support

Generally, the States under community-property law (see Footnote 28) make the common estate of husband and wife liable for family support, without relieving the husband as head of the family from his liability for its proper care. The remaining States and the District of Columbia, under common-law rule in this respect, hold the husband and his property primarily liable for family support. In 21 of these States [15] the wife and her property are declared liable also for family necessaries, but without changing the husband's primary obligation.

Ten States [16] require the wife to support her husband out of her separate property when he has no property and because of infirmity is unable to support himself.

Unmarried Parents.—In general, the mother is primarily liable for support of the child. Most States have legal procedure for establishing paternity if satisfactory proof is submitted. Until the paternity is established or voluntarily assumed, the father has no legal obligation to support the child, or to contribute to the expenses of the mother at childbirth. Four States [17] have no statutory provision of this type.

CIVIL STATUS—CONTRACT AND PROPERTY LAW

Power To Make Contracts

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

Four States [18] have limitations on the power of a married woman of legal age to make enforceable contracts with third persons that do not concern her separate property or the common property of herself and husband.

Eight [19] of the community property States do not ordinarily empower a wife to contract alone concerning the common marital property, though the husband has extensive powers of sole contract, particularly over the personal property owned in common.

Five States [20] forbid a wife to obligate herself as surety for her husband.

---

[14] Idaho, Kans., La., Mont., Nev., N. Mex., N. Dak., Okla., S. Dak.
[15] Ariz., Ark., Calif., Colo., Conn., Idaho, Ill., Iowa, La., Mass., Minn., Mo., Mont., N. Dak., Oreg., Pa., S. Dak., Utah, Wash., W. Va., Wyo.
[16] Calif., Idaho, Mont., Nev., N. Mex., N. Dak., Ohio, Okla., S. Dak., Wis.
[17] Idaho, Mo., Tex., Va.
[18] La., Nebr., N. C., Tex.
[19] Ariz., Calif., Idaho, La., Nev., N. Mex., Tex., Wash.
[20] Ala., Ga., Idaho, Ky., N. H.

Five States [21] limit to some extent because of sex the appointment of a woman to positions of trust, such as executor or administrator.

Six States [22] may impose special restrictions on a woman who marries while serving in these offices of trust.

Ownership, Control, and Use of Property

Separate Property.—In property management and control, inheritance, and freedom of enjoyment of earnings, unmarried women and unmarried men stand equal under the law. Married women in most States have the same degree of control over their separate property that married men have over their separate property. Personal earnings of married women are made their separate property by specific statute in most of the States not under the community property regime. In the 15 States [23] without such specific law, general statutes are interpreted to have the same effect.

Five States [24] still require the husband's signature, as a matter of form, to give validity to the wife's deed conveying her own land; only Texas still requires a special form of acknowledgment for the married woman's deed or mortgage of her lands; only three States [25] deny a wife full individual status in the courts, requiring her husband to be made a party to certain actions which involve the wife.

Three States [26] and the District of Columbia retain the form of property ownership called at common law "estate by the entirety," applicable only to husband and wife. Under it, the wife has only a contingent interest in the property unless she survives her husband, no matter what amount she has contributed to the estate. The husband controls the property and receives the income during the marriage.

Five States [27] still have the so-called Free-Trader statutes, under which court sanction, and in some cases the husband's consent, is required for a wife's legal venture into an independent business, if she is to keep the profits for her own account.

Community or Communal Property.—Twelve States [28] have the community system of ownership between husband and wife applied to property acquired by their joint efforts during the marriage. Eight [29] of these give the husband principal control of most of the communal property while the spouses live together. Six of the community property States [30] give the wife control over her earnings, even as part of the communal estate.

Four States (Michigan, Nebraska, Oklahoma, Oregon) have adopted the community system within recent years, principally for the purpose of dividing the burden of taxation between husband and wife. These States permit the wife to control her personal earnings and any other community property to which she holds the record title. Other community property is under the husband's control.

---

[21] Idaho, Nev., Okla., Oreg., S. Dak.
[22] Del., Nev., N. H., N. C., S. C., Utah.
[23] Del., Ky., Md., Mass., Miss., Mont., N. Y., N. Dak., Ohio, Okla., Oreg., S. Dak., Tenn., Vt., Va.
[24] Ala., Fla., Ind., N. C., Tex.
[25] Fla., N. C., Tex.
[26] Mass., Mich., N. C.
[27] Calif., Fla., Nev., Pa., Tex.
[28] Ariz., Calif., Idaho, La., Mich., Nebr., Nev., N. Mex., Okla., Oreg., Tex., Wash.
[29] Ariz., Calif., Idaho, La., Nev., N. Mex., Tex., Wash.
[30] Idaho, Mich., Nebr., Nev., Okla., Oreg.

In the 36 States [31] and the District of Columbia where the common-law background exists as distinguished from the civil-law tradition, the property accumulated during the marriage by the cooperative efforts of both husband and wife belongs to the husband and is under his control, except as the effect of this rule is overcome by private settlement. This is accomplished through voluntary agreement or other arrangement, such as joint ownership of lands, joint bank accounts, prenuptial agreements, and the like. But in the absence of a valid private adjustment of this sort, or a valid will, the law governs. However, in most of these States by express provision of law, and in others by interpretation, policy, and practice, the wife's earnings in outside employment are her separate property. The husband's earnings are primarily liable for support of his family, as those of the wife are not (nor any of her separate property) unless she voluntarily makes them so by her personal contract.

Wills.—Married women dispose of their separate property by will as freely as married men dispose of their separate property. As to the communal property, ordinarily 2 [32] of the 12 community-system States deny a wife full testamentary rights.

Inheritance Between Spouses.—A widow or surviving husband inherits similar portions from the deceased spouse in most of the States. In a few States, the advantage is sometimes with the wife, sometimes with the husband, according to circumstances incident to the case, such as the surviving number of children, election under the will of the deceased spouse, and the like.

Two States (Nevada and New Mexico) favor the husband over the wife in the division of community property after the death of one spouse.

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

---

[31] Ala., Ark., Colo., Conn., Del., Fla., Ga., Ill., Ind., Iowa, Kans., Ky., Maine, Md., Mass., Minn., Miss., Mo., Mont., N. H., N. J., N. Y., N. C., N. Dak., Ohio, Pa., R. I., S. C., S. Dak., Tenn., Utah, Vt., Va., W. Va., Wis., Wyo.

[32] Nev., N. Mex.

IX

Women's Education and Vocational Training

STUDENT ENROLLMENTS IN AND GRADUATES OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Type of school and school year	Enrollments			Graduates		
	Number		Percent females are of total	Number		Percent females are of total
	Total	Females		Total	Females	
Elementary schools:						
1943–44	19,891,631	9,709,264	48.9	(1)	(1)	(1)
1947–48 (estimated numbers)	22,620,000	(2)	(2)			
Secondary schools:						
1943–44	6,030,617	3,263,282	54.1	1,019,233	595,262	[3] 58.4
1947–48 (estimated numbers)	6,330,000	(2)	(2)	[4] 1,080,000	613,107	56.8
1945–46 (estimated numbers)						
Institutions of higher education:						
1943–44	1,155,272	[5] 568,603	49.2	125,875	69,999	[3] 55.6
1947–48 (estimated numbers)	2,338,226	678,977	29.0			
1945–46 (estimated numbers)				131,000	(2)	(3)

[1] Not reported because of differences in elementary school organization.
[2] Data not available.
[3] The last prewar percentages for the year 1940–41 were 53.1 percent for secondary schools and 42.5 percent for institutions of higher education.
[4] The estimate of this total for 1946–47 is 1,100,000.
[5] Full-time, regular session students only included in these statistics.

SOURCE: U. S. Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education. Latest year for which complete figures are available is 1943–44.

WOMEN ENROLLED IN VOCATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMS

Federally aided all-day trade and industrial programs in which women were enrolled for the school year ending June 30, 1947 [1]

	Enrollment of women
Total	30,297
Garment and textile trades	15,539
Dressmaking	10,443
Power sewing-machine operation	2,456
Millinery	1,028
Men's tailoring	269
Laundering, cleaning, dyeing, and pressing	151
Textiles	44
Upholstering	11
Garment and textile trades, other	1,137
Domestic and personal service trades	8,839
Cosmetology	7,812
Nursing	380
Household service and management	359
Interior decoration	149
Barbering	9
Domestic and personal service trades, other	130
Printing and publishing trades	2,443
Commercial art	1,847
Photography	386
Printing	146
Bookbinding	41
Printing, other	23
Food trades	2,228
Food service	689
Cooking	436
Baking	103
Meat cutting	35
Food trades, other	965
Electrical trades	154
Telegraphy and telephony	131
Radio	21
Electric wiring	2
Metal trades	113
Machine shop	23
Sheet metal	21
Welding	21
Metal trades, other	48
Mechanical service and hand trades	102
Dental mechanics	50
Jewelry and watchmaking	17
Auto mechanics	4
Patternmaking	1
Mechanical service and hand trades, other	30
Building and construction trades	17
Carpentry and woodworking	16
Painting and decorating	1

See footnotes at end of table, p. 64.

WOMEN ENROLLED IN VOCATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMS—Continued

Federally aided all-day trade and industrial programs in which women were enrolled for the school year ending June 30, 1947 [1]—Continued

	Enrollment of women
Aircraft manufacturing and maintenance trades	12
Aircraft mechanics	8
Aircraft engine and propellor mechanics	2
Aircraft sheet metal	2
Miscellaneous trades	850
Public service	214
Drafting	199
Gardening and landscaping	5
Miscellaneous trades	432

[1] Provisional figures.

SOURCE: (U. S.) Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education.

WOMEN SERVED BY REHABILITATION PROGRAMS

The number of women rehabilitated under Federal and State rehabilitation agencies in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1947, was 11,867 or 27 percent of the total number of men and women rehabilitated under these agencies.

SOURCE: (U. S.) Federal Security Agency, Statistical Division of the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation.

X

American Women

A selected bibliography of basic sources of current and historic interest

This brief bibliography lists, under the headings included, the more outstanding basic sources, as well as data that have appeared most recently in print. This list does not include works devoted to educational theory; to community organization; to instruction on home management, nutrition, etc.; to occupational or career guidance; to study of a particular industry or occupation; or to the situation of women in countries other than the United States. A number of the books listed (including both early and some later Women's Bureau bulletins) are available only in libraries.

GENERAL

American Academy of Political and Social Science—Annals. Philadelphia:
May 1947. Women's Opportunities and Responsibilities. Ed. by Louise M. Young. *See* article by Taeuber, Irene B., and Eldridge, Hope T. Some Demographic Aspects of the Changing Role of Women.
May 1929. Women in the Modern World. Ed. by Viva B. Boothe.

American Association of University Women:
Beard, Mary R. A. Changing Political Economy as It Affects Women. Washington. 1934. A study outline, with questions for investigation and discussion, and an extensive bibliography.
Summaries of Studies on the Economic Status of Women. Women's Bureau Bull. 134. 1935. Lists studies up to 1935 that deal with college women, business and professional women, women in industry, women in all occupations.

American Women. The standard biographical dictionary of notable women. Vol. 3, 1939–40. Ed. by Durward Howes. Los Angeles. American Publications, Inc. 1939.

Benson, Mary Sumner. Women in 18th Century America; a study of opinion and social usage. New York. Columbia University Press. 1935.

Gilman, Charlotte Perkins. Women and Economics. Boston. Small, Maynard. 1900. This work still raises challenging questions as to women's status.

Groves, Ernest R. The American Woman. The Feminine Side of a Masculine Civilization. New York. Emerson Books, Inc. Revised ed. 1944. An important and basic work that considers many aspects of the changing status of woman, from colonial times to our modern society, and gives an informed and sympathetic discussion.

Mead, Margaret, and Stern, Bernhard J. Woman, Position in Society. *In* Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences. Vol. 15. New York. Macmillan. 1935.

New York Public Library—Women in the Making of America. 1941. A bibliography that lists books dealing with women in political life, in the community, in letters, in education, in business and professions, including biographies of pioneer women and other books about their work.

Women's Bureau Bulletin:

Women's Bureau Conference 1948—The American Woman, Her Changing Role—Worker, Homemaker, Citizen. Bull. 224. *See especially:*

Kyrk, Hazel. Family Responsibilities of Earning Women.

Tead, Ordway. Social Patterns for Women, The Present and The Prospects.

Thompson, C. Mildred. Women's Status, Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow.

WOMEN AS CITIZENS

Annals of the American Academy (cited under General):

May 1947:

Allen, Florence E. Participation of Women in Government.

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

Fisher, Marguerite J. Women in Political Parties.

Stone, Kathryn H. Women as Citizens.

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

November 1914: Women in Public Life.

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

Beard, Mary R.:

America Through Women's Eyes. New York. Macmillan. 1934. A collection of documents and quotations from women themselves in various periods of American history.

Woman as Force in History. A Study in Traditions and Realities. New York. Macmillan. 1946.

Woman's Work in Municipalities. New York. Appleton. 1915.

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

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

Catt, Carrie Chapman, with collaboration of Shuler, Nettie R. Woman Suffrage and Politics. New York. Scribner's. 1923.

History of Woman Suffrage (Vols. I to VI): *Vol. I* (1848–61) was published in 1881. This and *Vols. II and III* were written by Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony, with collaboration of Matilda Joslyn Gage, later joined by Mrs. Stanton's daughter Harriot. *Vol. IV* was prepared by Mrs. Ida Husted Harper working with Susan B. Anthony. *Vols. V* and *VI* were written by Mrs. Harper. First 4 vols. published by Fowler and Wells. New York.

Irwin, Inez H. Angels and Amazons. A Hundred Years of American Women. New York. Doubleday, Doran. 1933.

Lutz, Alma. Created Equal. A biography of Elizabeth Cady Stanton, 1815–1902. New York. John Day Co. 1940. This deals with the early history of the woman suffrage movement, and is a fascinating human story of the pioneer women leaders of the mid- and late-nineteenth century.

Paxton,, Annabel. Women in Congress. Richmond. The Dietz Press, Inc. 1945.

Peck, Mary Gray. Carrie Chapman Catt. New York. H. H. Wilson Co. 1944. This is written in several sections, which deal with early life and development of leadership, work for women's international organizations (earlier and later periods), the Federal Amendment campaign, and later work for peace and disarmament.

Shaw, Dr. Anna Howard, with collaboration of Jordan, Elizabeth. The Story of a Pioneer. New York. Harper and Bros. 1915. Written in the vigorous and scintillating style of Dr. Shaw's speech, this is a fitting companion volume to Elizabeth Cady Stanton's biography.

Thurston, Lucy M. Mistress Brent; A Story of Lord Baltimore's Colony in 1638. 1901. The earliest colonial advocate of woman's right to vote. (This book will be found in few libraries.)

Whitney, Janet. Abigail Adams. Boston. Little, Brown and Co. 1947.

Women's Bureau Bulletin:
Buchanan, Sara Louise. The Legal Status of Women in the United States of America, 1938. Bull. 157. 1941. Also cumulative supplement through 1945; separate bulletin for each State and chart for each State.

WOMEN AS WORKERS

Employment and Occupations

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

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

Annals of the American Academy (cited under General):
May 1947:
Kyrk, Hazel. Who Works and Why.
Miller, Frieda S. Women in the Labor Force.
Zapoleon, Marguerite Wykoff. Education and Employment Opportunities for Women.

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

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

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

International Labor Office. The War and Women's Employment. Part II. United States. See esp. Ch. I, II, IV. Montreal. 1946.

Larcom, Lucy (1824–1893). A New England Girlhood; outline from memory. New York. Houghton Mifflin. Reprint, 1924. A vivid picture of the young woman cotton mill worker in New England.

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

Monthly Labor Review:
Pidgeon, Mary Elizabeth. Women Workers and Recent Economic Change. December 1947.
Robinson, Mary V. Woman Workers in Two Wars. October 1943.

Spruill, Julia Cherry. Women's Life and Work in the Southern Colonies. Chapel Hill. University of North Carolina Press. 1938.

Tryon, Rolla. Household Manufactures in the United States, 1640–1860. A Study in Industrial History. Chicago. University of Chicago Press. 1917.

Van Kleeck, Mary. Women in Industry. *In* Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences. Vol. 15. New York. Macmillan. 1935.

Women's Bureau Bulletins:
Benham, Elisabeth D. The Woman Wage Earner. Bull. 172. 1939. *Part II, Women's Place in Industry.*
Dempsey, Mary V. The Occupational Progress of Women, 1910–30. Bull. 104. 1933.
Hooks, Janet M. Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades (1870–1940). Bull. 218. (In press.)
Kingsbury, Susan M. The Economic Status of University Women in the U. S. A. Bull. 170. 1939. Report of Committee on Economic and Legal Status, American Association of University Women, in cooperation with the Women's Bureau.
Pidgeon, Mary Elizabeth:
Employment of Women in the Early Postwar Period. Bull. 211. 1946.
Changes in Women's Employment During the War. Sp. Bull. 20. 1944.
Women in the Economy of the United States. Bull. 155. 1937. *Part I. Ch. 1. The Trend in the Occupations of Women.*

Zapoleon, Marguerite Wykoff:
The Outlook for Women in Occupations in the Medical and Other Health Services. Bull. 203, Nos. 1–12.
The Outlook for Women in Science, Bull. 223, Nos. 1–8.

Wages

Annals of the American Academy (cited under General). *May 1947.* Brady, Dorothy S. Equal Pay for Women Workers.
International Labor Office. The War and Women's Employment. Part II. United States. *Wages in Wartime. In* Ch. II, Women in Industry. Montreal. 1946.
Monthly Labor Review:
Angus, Alice, and Sullivan, Loretta. Progress of State Minimum Wage Legislation, 1946. June 1947.
——— Progress of State Minimum Wage Legislation, 1943–45. May 1946.
U. S. Senate. 79th Congress. Hearings on S. 1178. (Bill providing equal pay). Before a Subcommittee of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor. October 29, 30, and 31, 1945. *Testimony* of Frieda S. Miller and exhibits A to F, prepared in the Women's Bureau; and of various representatives of labor unions and women's organizations.
Webb, Beatrice (Mrs. Sidney). Minority Report. *Of the* British War Cabinet Committee on Women in Industry [World War I]. London. His Majesty's Stationery Office. Cmd. 135. 1919. Includes the classic pioneer discussion of the various problems surrounding the entire subject of equal pay for women.
Women's Bureau Bulletins:
Equal Pay for Women. Leaflet No. 2, 1947. (Rev. 1948.)
Pidgeon, Mary Elizabeth:
Earnings of Women in Selected Manufacturing Industries, 1946. Bull. 219. 1948.
Equal Pay for Women in War Industries. Bull. 196. 1942.
Women in the Economy of the United States. Bull. 155. 1937. *Part I. Ch. 3. Compensation of Women.*
Smith, Florence P. State Minimum Wage Laws and Orders, 1942. Bull. 191, with mimeographed supplements through 1947.
Bulletins on Family Responsibility:
Peterson, Agnes L. What the Woman Wage Earner Contributes to Family Support. Bull. 75. 1929. A Summary of 22 studies.
Pidgeon, Mary Elizabeth and Mettert, Margaret Thompson. Employed Women and Family Support. Bull. 168. 1939.
Smaltz, Rebecca. Women Workers in Their Family Environment. Bull. 183. 1941.
Weissbrodt, Sylvia R. Women Workers in Ten War Production Areas. Bull. 209. 1946.
Women in the Economy of the United States (cited). *Part I. Ch. 4. Responsibility of Employed Women for the Support of Others.* Bull. 155. 1937.

Health and Physical Welfare

Baetjer, Dr. Anna M. Women in Industry, Their Health and Efficiency. Philadelphia and London. W. B. Saunders Co. 1946.
Brandeis, Elizabeth. Labor Legislation. *Vol. IV of* History of Labor in the United States 1896–1932. New York. Macmillan. 1935.
Hamilton, Dr. Alice:
Exploring the Dangerous Trades. Boston. Little, Brown and Co. 1943. Autobiography of the great Harvard pioneer in the field of industrial medicine and hygiene.
Women Workers and Industrial Poisons. Washington. 1926.
Industrial Poisons in the United States. New York. Macmillan. 1925.
International Labor Office. The War and Women's Employment. Part II. United States. *Conditions of Work,* and *Health and Welfare Problems. In* Ch. II, Women in Industry. Montreal. 1946.
Webb, Beatrice (Mrs. Sidney). (Work cited under Wages.)

Woman and Child Wage Earners in the United States. Report of the comprehensive pioneer national investigation of this subject ordered by Act of Congress in 1907, to be conducted by the Secretary of Commerce and Labor. Published in 19 volumes.

Women's Bureau Bulletins (see full list of publications including studies of conditions in particular industries and special problems such as lost time and labor turn-over, irregular employment, piecework, etc.):

Anderson, Margaret K. Women's Wartime Hours of Work; The Effect on Their Factory Performance and Home Life. Bull. 208. 1947. A study of 13 war-production plants.

Effective Industrial Use of Women. Sp. Bull. 1. 1940. A brief summary of current knowledge as to the work women do best, effective hour and wage standards, industrial poisons and other hazards. *See also* other bulletins in the wartime series, especially Nos. 2 to 7.

Industrial Injuries to Women:

(1) Series, presenting and interpreting State data. (1920–34). Bulls. 81, 102, 129, 160.

(2) Special Studies. Bulls. 60 (1927); 151 (1938); 212 (1945).

Mohr, Jennie. The Industrial Nurse and the Woman Worker. Sp. Bull. 19. 1944.

Occupational Diseases of Women. Series, presenting and interpreting State data (1920 to 1938). Bulls. 114; 147; 181.

Proceedings of the Women's Industrial Conference. Bull. 33. 1923. Addresses by Florence Kelley, Mrs. Raymond Robins, Maud Swartz, Mary McDowell, and others.

Standards for Employment of Women, Leaflet No. 1. 1946. (Rev. 1948.) Latest revision of the Bureau's earliest advices on standards, first published in 1918.

State Labor Laws for Women. Bull. 191 (cited under Wages), and Bull. 202, and mimeographed supplements bringing data through 1947. Various earlier bulletins deal with historic developments.

Organization Into Unions

Abbott, Edith. Women in Industry (cited under Employment and Occupations). Gives interesting incidents of early activities of women in unions.

Annals of the American Academy (cited under General):

May 1947: Dickason, Gladys. Women in Labor Unions.

September 1904: Yudelson, Sophie. Woman's Place in Industry and Labor Organizations.

Boone, Gladys. The Women's Trade Union League in Great Britain and the United States of America. New York. Columbia University Press. 1942.

Glück, Elsie. Women in Industry: Problems of Organization. *In* Encyclopaedia of Social Science. Vol. 15. New York. Macmillan. 1935.

Henry, Alice:

The Trade Union Woman. New York and London, Appleton. 1915.

Women and the Labor Movement. Workers' Bookshelf. Vol. IV. New York. Macmillan. 1927.

Wolfson, Theresa. The Woman Worker and the Trade Unions. New York. International Publishers. 1926.

Women's Bureau Bulletin:

Benham, Elisabeth D. The Woman Wage Earner. Bull. 172, 1939. *Part IV—Women's Participation in Labor Organizations.*

WOMEN AS HOMEMAKERS

Annals of the American Academy (cited under General):

May 1947:

Daggett, Harriet S. Reflections on the Law of the Family.

Gruenberg, Sidonie Matsner. Changing Conceptions of the Family.

Reid, Margaret G. The Economic Contribution of Homemakers.

March 1932: Boothe, Viva. Gainfully Employed Women in the Family.

Bonde, Ruth L. Management in Daily Living. 1944. New York. Macmillan.

Brown, Harriet Connor. Grandmother Brown's Hundred Years (1827–1927). New York. Little, Brown and Co. 1929.

Gross, Irma Hannah, and Crandall, E. W. Home Management in Theory and Practice. New York. Crofts & Co. 1947.

Consult especially the Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture, for information on various phases of home economics such as nutrition, meal planning and food budgets, textiles and clothing, housing and household equipment.

Consult the Women's Bureau on subjects relating to household employment and conditions of work for household employees.

See also certain items already listed:

Groves (work cited under General).

Pidgeon, Women in the Economy of the United States (cited under Wages). Section on *Women as Homemakers.*

Women's Bureau Bulletins on responsibility of women for the support of others (cited under Wages).

Women's Bureau Bulletin:

Pidgeon, Mary Elizabeth. The Employed Woman Homemaker. Bull 148. 1936.

XI

Women's National Organizations

(List as of January 1947)

The following list is of national organizations that have active State or local branches and regular meetings of the membership. They are grouped according to fields of interest. Membership is noted if recent figures are available. Individual national and international unions, collegiate and collegiate alumnae associations, and women's organizations affiliated with fraternal orders have been omitted.

ORGANIZATIONS HAVING SOCIAL, CIVIC, OR RELIGIOUS PURPOSES

Association of Junior Leagues of America, Waldorf-Astoria Hotel, 305 Park Avenue, New York 22, N. Y. It is concerned with the support of philanthropic and civic activities.

Congress of American Women, 55 West Forty-second Street, Room 209, New York 18, N. Y. It is affiliated with the Women's International Democratic Federation. Its purpose is to work for equal rights for women, for protective and beneficial legislation, for improved child care, and for peace and democracy.

General Federation of Women's Clubs, 1734 N Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1890 in New York. Its object is to unite women's clubs and like organizations throughout the world for the purpose of mutual benefit and for the promotion of their common interest in education, philanthrophy, public welfare, moral values, civics, and fine arts. Membership consists of some 17,500 clubs located in all the States, the District of Columbia, Alaska, and 31 foreign countries.

National Association of Colored Women, Inc., 1114 O Street NW., Washington 5, D. C. Established in 1896 in Washington, D. C. Founded for purpose of raising to the highest plane the home life, moral standards, and civil life of the race.

National Consumers League for Fair Labor Standards (not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women), 348 Engineers Building, Cleveland 14, Ohio. Established in New York in 1899. The League's purpose is "to awaken consumers' interest in their responsibility for conditions under which goods are made and distributed." Membership in 1946: 10,000.

National Council of Catholic Women, 1312 Massachusetts Avenue NW., Washington 5, D. C. Established in 1920. Its purpose is to federate existing organizations of Catholic women in order that they may speak and act as a unit when the welfare of the church or of the country demands such expression.

National Council of Jewish Women, 1819 Broadway, New York 23, N. Y. Established in 1893 in Chicago, Ill. Its purpose is to organize Jewish women interested in a program of social betterment through activities in the fields of religion, social service, education, and social legislation, both local and national.

National Council of Negro Women, 1318 Vermont Avenue NW., Washington 5, D. C. Organized in 1935. The Council seeks the cooperation and membership of all races and works for the integration of Negroes into the economic, social, cultural, civic and political life of every community. It is made up of 20 national organizations of Negro women and has 50 local councils in 23 States.

National Jewish Welfare Board, 145 East Thirty-second Street, New York 16, N. Y. The Board is the National organization for Young Women's Hebrew Associations throughout the United States and Canada.

National Women's Christian Temperance Union, 1730 Chicago Avenue, Evanston, Ill. Established in 1874. Its purpose is to unite the Christian women of the United States for the education of public sentiment to the standard of total abstinence from the use of all alcoholic liquors and the abolition of the liquor traffic; to train the young in habits of sobriety and total abstinence; and to promote good citizenship, peace, and the general welfare.

United Council of Church Women (Protestant),[1] 156 Fifth Avenue, New York 10, N. Y. Organized in December 1941 in Atlantic City, N. J. Its purpose is "to unite church women in their allegiance to their Lord and Saviour, Jesus Christ, through a program looking to their integration in the total life and work of the church and to the building of a world community." Membership in 1946: 39 State councils and about 1,100 local groups.

Young Women's Christian Association, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York 22, N. Y. Established in 1906 in New York. It works to advance the physical, social, intellectual, moral, and spiritual interest of young women. It is affiliated with the World's YWCA. Its national membership in the United States is about 3 million.

PROFESSIONAL AND BUSINESS ORGANIZATIONS

The purpose of the following professional organizations is to provide a medium for contact between women carrying on these professions; to encourage girls to choose these careers; to promote professional advancement; to maintain high standards in practice.

National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc., 1819 Broadway, New York 23, N. Y. Established in 1919 in St. Louis, Mo. Its purpose is to raise standards for women in business and the professions; to promote the interests of business and professional women; to extend opportunities for business and professional women; to bring about a spirit of cooperation among business and professional women of the United States. It is affiliated with the International Federation of Business and Professional Women.

Accountancy

American Woman's Society of Certified Public Accountants, 67 Broad Street, New York 4, N. Y.

Art

National Association of Women Artists, 42 West Fifty-seventh Street, New York 19, N. Y.

Banking

Association of Bank Women, 56 East Forty-second Street, New York 17, N. Y. Established in 1921 in New York.

[1] Most of the separate Protestant denominations have established a women's section in their national organization.

Home Economics

American Home Economics Association, 620 Mills Building, Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1908 in Washington, D. C. Its purpose is to promote standards of home living beneficial to the individual and to society.

Law

National Association of Women Lawyers, c/o Charlotte E. Gauer, President, 1100 North Dearborn Street, Chicago 10, Ill.

Medical Services

American Dental Hygienists' Association, c/o Mrs. Sophie G. Booth, R. D. H., President, 2420 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington 9, D. C. Established in 1923 in Cleveland, Ohio.

American Medical Women's Association, Inc., 50 West Fiftieth Street, New York 20, N. Y. Established in 1915 in Chicago, Ill. It is affiliated with the Medical Women's International Association.

American Nurses Association, 1790 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y. Organized in 1896 near New York City and first known as the Nurses' Associated Alumnae of the United States and Canada. Membership in 1946: 176,393.

American Occupational Therapy Association (not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women), 33 West Forty-second Street, New York 18, N. Y. Membership: 2,700.

American Physiotherapy Association (not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women), 1790 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y.

Association of American Women Dentists, c/o Dr. Muriel K. G. Robinson, President, 4906 Walnut Street, Philadelphia 9, Pa. Established in 1921 in Los Angeles, Calif.

National Association for Practical Nurse Education, 654 Madison Avenue, New York 21, N. Y.

National Organization for Public Health Nursing, Inc., 1790 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y.

Music

National Federation of Music Clubs (not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women), c/o Mrs. Guy Patterson Gannett, President, Press-Herald Building, Portland, Maine.

Radio

Association of Women Broadcasters, National Association of Broadcasters, 535 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y.

Real Estate

Women's Council, National Association of Real Estate Boards, 22 West Monroe Street, Chicago 3, Ill.

Teaching

See Educational Organizations.

Writing

American Newspaper Women's Club, 1604 Twentieth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1932 in Washington, D. C. Membership in 1946: 200.

National League of American Pen Women, Suite 409, Willard Hotel, Washington 4, D. C. Established in 1897.

Women's National Press Club, National Press Building, Washington 4, D. C. Established in 1919 in Washington, D. C.

General Service Organizations of Business and Professional Women

Altrusa International, 540 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago 11, Ill. Established in 1917 in Nashville, Tenn. The first service club for professional and executive women.

American Federation of Soroptimist Clubs, 1530 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia, Pa. Established in 1921 in Oakland, Calif. It is affiliated with the International Federation of Soroptimist Clubs.

Pilot Club International, 1001 Persons Building, Macon, Ga. Organized in 1921 in Macon, Ga. Membership in 1946: 6,000.

Quota Club International, Inc., 1719 I Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1919 in Buffalo, N. Y.

Zonta International, 59 East Van Buren Street, Chicago 5, Ill. Established in 1919 in Buffalo, N. Y.

EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

American Association of University Women, 1635 I Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1882 in Boston. Its purpose is to enhance the role of education in American life, particularly to help college women to make vital use of their education. It promotes international understanding through study and action and through affiliation with the International Federation of University Women. Membership in October 1946: 86,537.

National Association of Deans of Women, 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1916 in New York. Its purpose is to strengthen the professional spirit of deans of women, to formulate criteria for their professional training, and to encourage the critical study of changing trends in education, especially as they relate to women.

National Congress of Parents and Teachers (not restricted to women, but membership is largely women), 600 South Michigan Boulevard, Chicago 5, Ill. Founded in 1897. Its objects are to promote the welfare of children and youth in home, school, church, and community, to raise the standards of home life, to secure adequate laws for the care and protection of children and youth, to bring into closer relation the home and the school, that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child. Membership in 1946: 3,910,106.

National Education Association (not restricted to women, but membership is primarily women), 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C.

POLITICAL AND LEGISLATIVE ORGANIZATIONS

Democratic National Committee, Women's Division, Mayflower Hotel, Washington 6, D. C.

League of Women Voters of the United States, 726 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C. Established in 1920 in Chicago, Ill. The purpose of the League is to promote political responsibility through informed and active participation of citizens in government. It is affiliated with the International Alliance of Women (Equal Rights, Equal Responsibilities).

National Federation of Women's Republican Clubs, 1337 Connecticut Avenue NW., Washington 6, D. C.

National Woman's Party, 144 B Street NE., Washington 3, D. C. Established in 1913 in Washington, D. C., 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 the Equal Rights Treaty. It is affiliated with the World Woman's Party.

Republican National Committee, Women's Division, 1337 Connecticut Avenue NW., Washington 6, D. C.

Women's National Democratic Club, 1526 New Hampshire Avenue NW., Washington 6, D. C.

PATRIOTIC ORGANIZATIONS

American Legion Auxiliary, 777 North Meridian Street, Indianapolis, Ind. Established in 1921 in Kansas City, Mo. (Composed of women from families of men who belong to the American Legion. The Legion is made up of men veterans of World Wars I and II.)

American Women's Voluntary Services, 345 Madison Avenue, New York 17, N. Y. The organization provides services to veterans, to the community, to youth and teen-age groups, and to the blind. It assists local and foreign relief agencies and cooperates with medical research groups.

Daughters of the American Revolution, 17th and D Streets NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1890 in Washington, D. C.

Daughters of Union Veterans of the Civil War 1861–65, 1326 Eighteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Organized in Massilon, Ohio, in 1885. (Membership restricted to women whose ancestors sided with the North in the Civil War.)

Ladies' Auxiliary to the Veterans of Foreign Wars, Porter Building, Kansas City, Mo.

United Daughters of the Confederacy, 5330 Pershing Avenue, St. Louis, Mo. Established in 1894 in Nashville, Tenn. (Membership restricted to women whose ancestors sided with the South in the Civil War.)

Women's Overseas Service League, 1026 Fifteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in 1921 in Philadelphia, Pa. Its purpose is to maintain the ties of comradeship born of service overseas in World War I and World War II.

ORGANIZATIONS WORKING FOR WORLD PEACE

Women's Action Committee for Lasting Peace, 1 East Fifty-seventh Street, New York 22, N. Y. Incorporated April 1943 in New York. Its purpose is to unite American women to work for full participation by the United States in the United Nations. Membership in 1946: 20,000 individual members; 14 national women's organizations; 200 local women's groups.

Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, Administrative headquarters of the United States Section, 2006 Walnut Street, Philadelphia 3, Pa., Washington headquarters, 1734 F Street NW. Established in 1915 in The Hague. Its purpose is to unite those in all countries who are opposed to every kind of war, exploitation, and oppression, and who want to work for the peaceful solution of conflicts by establishment of justice for all, without distinction as to sex, race, class, or creed.

FARM AND RURAL ORGANIZATIONS

Associated Country Women of the World. In care of Mrs. Raymond Sayre, President, Ackworth, Iowa. Its objectives are to: Promote and maintain friendly and helpful relations between country women's and homemakers' organizations of all nations and help in their development in the economic, social, and cultural sphere; further their common interests; encourage the formation of similar new organizations, especially in countries where the need has not been met; stimulate interest in the international aspects of rural life and development; work together for the betterment of rural homes and communities through study and action in the spheres of homemaking, housing, health, education, and particularly all aspects of food and agriculture; further international relations in every way consistent with these aims.

Associated Women of the American Farm Bureau Federation, 58 East Washington Street, Chicago 2, Ill.

Women's National Farm and Garden Association, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N. Y. Established in 1913 in Philadelphia, Pa. Its purpose is to stimulate an interest in and a love of country life; to cooperate with government agencies for the improvement of rural conditions; to help women, through scholarship and expert advice, to the best training in agriculture and horticulture; and to study the subject of direct marketing.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS

American Federation of Women's Auxiliaries of Labor, A. F. L. Building, 901 Massachusetts Avenue NW., Washington 6, D. C. Established in Cincinnati, Ohio, in May 1938. Composed of women from families of men who are in a trade union affiliated with the A. F. L.

Congress of Women's Auxiliaries (affiliated with Congress of Industrial Organizations), 1308 Public Square Building, Cleveland 13, Ohio. Established in Detroit in November 1941. Composed of women from families of men who are in a trade union affiliated with the CIO. Membership in 1946: 100,000.

National Women's Trade Union League, 307 Machinists Building, Washington, D. C. Established in 1903 in Boston, Mass. Its purpose is to organize women wage workers into trade unions and to develop leadership among union women.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS OF THE WOMEN'S BUREAU

FACTS ON WOMEN WORKERS—issued monthly. 4 pages. (Latest statistics on employment of women; earnings; labor laws affecting women; news items of interest to women workers; women in the international scene.)

HANDBOOK ON WOMEN WORKERS

Bull. 225. (Instant publication.)

EMPLOYMENT OUTLOOK AND TRAINING FOR WOMEN

The Outlook for women in Occupations in the Medical and Other Health Services, Bull. 203:

1. Physical Therapists. 14 pp. 1945. 10¢.
2. Occupational Therapists. 15 pp. 1945. 10¢.
3. Professional Nurses. 66 pp. 1946. 15¢.
4. Medical Laboratory Technicians. 10 pp. 1945. 10¢.
5. Practical Nurses and Hospital Attendants. 20 pp. 1945. 10¢.
6. Medical Record Librarians. 9 pp. 1945. 10¢.
7. Women Physicians. 28 pp. 1945. 10¢.
8. X-Ray Technicians. 14 pp. 1945. 10¢.
9. Women Dentists. 21 pp. 1945. 10¢.
10. Dental Hygienists. 17 pp. 1945. 10¢.
11. Physicians' and Dentists' Assistants. 15 pp. 1945. 10¢.
12. Trends and Their Effect upon the Demand for Women Workers. 55 pp. 1946. 15¢.

The Outlook for Women in Science. Bull. 223:

1. Science. [General introduction to the series.] (In press.)
2. Chemistry. 65 pp. 1948. 20¢.
3. Biological Sciences. 87 pp. 1948. 25¢.
4. Mathematics and Statistics. 21 pp. 1948. 10¢.
5. Architecture and Engineering. (In press.)
6. Physics and Astronomy. 32 pp. 1948. 15¢.
7. Geology, Geography, and Meteorology. (In press.)
8. Occupations Related to Science. 33 pp. 1948. 15¢.

Your Job Future After College. Leaflet. 1947. (Rev. 1948.)

Training for Jobs—for Women and Girls. [Under public funds available for vocational training purposes.] Leaflet 1. 1947.

EARNINGS

Earnings of Women in Selected Manufacturing Industries, 1946. Bull. 219. 14 pp. 1948. 10¢.

EMPLOYMENT

Employment of Women in the Early Postwar Period, with Background of Prewar and War Data. Bull. 211. 14 pp. 1946. 10¢.

Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades. Bull. 218. (In press.)

Women Workers After VJ-Day in One Community—Bridgeport, Conn. Bull. 216. 37 pp. 1947. 15¢.

INDUSTRY

Women Workers in Power Laundries. Bull. 215. 71 pp. 1947. 20¢.

The Woman Telephone Worker [1944]. Bull. 207. 28 pp. 1946. 10¢.

Typical Women's Jobs in the Telephone Industry [1944]. Bull. 207-A. 52 pp. 1947. 15¢.

Women in Radio. Bull. 222. 30 pp. 1948. 15¢.

COST OF LIVING BUDGETS

Working Women's Budgets in Twelve States. Bull. 226. (In press.)

LABOR LAWS

Summary of State Labor Laws for Women. 7 pp. 1947. Mimeo.

Minimum Wage

State Minimum-Wage Laws and Orders, 1942: An Analysis. Bull. 191. 52 pp. 1942. 20¢. Supplements through 1947. Mimeo.
State Minimum-Wage Laws. Leaflet 1. 1948.
Map showing States having minimum-wage laws. (Desk size; wall size.)

Equal Pay

Equal Pay for Women. Leaflet 2. 1947. (Rev. 1948.)
Chart analyzing State equal-pay laws and Model Bill. Mimeo. Also complete text of State laws (separates). Mimeo.
Selected References on Equal Pay for Women. 9 pp. 1947. Mimeo.

Hours of Work and Other Labor Laws

State Labor Laws for Women, with Wartime Modifications, Dec. 15, 1944. Bull. 202. (Supplements through 1947. Mimeo.)
I. Analysis of Hour Laws. 110 pp. 1945. 15¢.
II. Analysis of Plant Facilities Laws. 43 pp. 1945. 10¢.
III. Analysis of Regulatory Laws, Prohibitory Laws, Maternity Laws. 12 pp. 1945. 5¢.
IV. Analysis of Industrial Home-Work Laws. 26 pp. 1945. 10¢.
V. Explanation and Appraisal. 66 pp. 1946. 15¢.
Map of United States showing State hour laws. (Desk size; wall size.)

LEGAL STATUS OF WOMEN

International Documents on the Status of Women. Bull. 217. 116 pp. 1947. 25¢.
Legal Status of Women in the United States of America.
United States Summary, January 1938. Bull. 157. 89 pp. 1941. 15¢.
Cumulative Supplement 1938–45. Bull. 157–A. 31 pp. 1946. 10¢.
Pamphlet for each State and District of Columbia (separates). 5¢ ea.
Women's Eligibility for Jury Duty. Leaflet. 1947.

WOMEN IN LATIN AMERICA

Women Workers in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay. Bull. 195. 15 pp. 1942. 5¢.
Women Workers in Brazil. Bull. 206. 42 pp. 1946. 10¢.
Women Workers in Paraguay. Bull. 210. 16 pp. 1946. 10¢.
Women Workers in Peru. Bull. 213. 41 pp. 1947. 10¢.
Social and Labor Problems of Peru and Uruguay. 1944. Mimeo.
Women in Latin America: Legal Rights and Restrictions. (Address before the National Association of Women Lawyers.)

RECOMMENDED STANDARDS for women's working conditions, safety and health:

Standards of Employment for Women. Leaflet 1. 1946. 5¢ ea. or $2 per 100.
When You Hire Women. Sp. Bull. 14. 16 pp. 1944. 10¢.
The Industrial Nurse and the Woman Worker. Sp. Bull. 19. 47 pp. 1944. 10¢.
Women's Effective War Work Requires Good Posture. Sp. Bull. 10. 6 pp. 1943. 5¢.
Washing and Toilet Facilities for Women in Industry. Sp. Bull. 4. 11 pp. 1942. 5¢.
Lifting and Carrying Weights by Women in Industry. Sp. Bull. 2. Rev. 1942. 12 pp. 5¢.
Safety Clothing for Women in Industry. Sp. Bull. 3. 11 pp. 1941. 10¢.
Supplements; Safety Caps; Safety Shoes. 4 pp. ea. 1944. 5¢ ea.
Night Work: Bibliography. 39 pp. 1946. Multilith.

WOMEN UNDER UNION CONTRACTS

Maternity-Benefits under Union-Contract Health Insurance Plans. Bull. 214. 19 pp. 1947. 10¢.

HOUSEHOLD EMPLOYMENT

Old-Age Insurance for Household Employees. Bull. 220. 20 pp. 1947. 10¢.
Community Household Employment Programs. Bull. 221. 70 pp. 1948. 20¢.

REPORTS OF WOMEN IN WARTIME

16 reports on women's employment in wartime industries; part-time employment; equal pay; community services; recreation and housing for women war workers; and the following:

Changes in Women's Employment During the War. Sp. Bull. 20. 29 pp. 1944. 10¢.
Women's Wartime Hours of Work—The Effect on Their Factory Performance and Home Life. Bull. 208. 187 pp. 1947. 35¢.
Women Workers in Ten War Production Areas and Their Postwar Employment Plans. Bull. 209. 56 pp. 1946. 15¢.
Negro Women War Workers. Bull. 205. 23 pp. 1945. 10¢.
Employment Opportunities in Characteristic Industrial Occupations of Women. Bull. 201. 50 pp. 1944. 10¢.
Employment and Housing Problems of Migratory Workers in New York and New Jersey Canning Industries, 1943. Bull. 198. 35 pp. 1944. 10¢.
Industrial Injuries to Women [1945]. Bull. 212. 25 pp. 1947. 10¢.

REPORTS ON WOMEN WORKERS IN PREWAR YEARS: Women at work (a century of industrial change); women's economic status as compared to men's; women workers in their family environment (Cleveland, and Utah); women's employment in certain industries (clothing, canneries, laundries, offices, government service); State-wide survey of women's employment in various States; economic status of university women.

THE WOMEN'S BUREAU—Its Purpose and Functions. Leaflet. 1946.

Women's Bureau Conference. 1948. Bull. 224. 210 pp. 1948.

Write the Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington 25, D. C., for complete list of publications available for distribution.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1948

587

OUR PROGRAM

"FOUR FREEDOMS"
FOR
WOMEN WORKERS

★
★ ★
★

IN A CHANGING WORLD women's work has changed. Great-grandmother was busy in the home making candles, weaving cloth, churning butter, preserving food—while grand-dad plowed the south quarter. Work was a duty, and not to work was indolence. Women didn't choose to leave the home for the factory. It was a natural transition. Industrialization shifted weaving to the textile mill, churning butter to the dairy, and preserving food to the cannery. Women didn't choose to work in steam laundries. They needed the money. Men went to war and women began "pinch-hitting." Food, child care, more women workers, safety on the home front became problems deeply concerning women. And so women helped. They learned by doing as men do. Women can't be chased back home now. They are part of the permanent labor force, part of the 60 million who want, need and must have jobs. They cannot be denied the right to work, the right to equal pay, the right to seniority, the right to legal safeguards on the job. These are basic rights of working women, and a fundamental part of the American way of life. The Women's Trade Union League dedicates itself to the attainment of these rights. Our program is to make them common, everyday practices.

The Right to Work

IN DAYS of almost full employment, no one questions the basic right of any woman to work. On the contrary, they are pressured to take jobs. However, in times of unemployment—when plans are being made to provide work for as many as possible, in particular for the neediest —the basic right of women to hold jobs becomes confused with separate questions such as "advisability" of mothers with young children and household responsibilities to take on additional outside work. People begin to question whether women have the general **right to work.** We hold it is the right of any woman who so desires to be gainfully employed without prior determination of her "means" or her "need to work,"—just as it is the right of any man, irrespective of his means, to have gainful employment. Large numbers of women must earn a living. Many need jobs not only to support themselves but also dependents. The present supply of trained womanpower is a challenge to American labor, industry and Government—not to discourage employment after the war but to provide jobs for them in the transition period when their skills can be used to reconstruct a better world. To develop a high standard of living for all our people this country needs full employment for both men and women.

The Right to Equal Pay

IN ACCORDANCE with the principle of equal pay for equal work, there must be one wage structure for all workers in a plant. Women must not be paid less because they are women. Where men and women are engaged in work that is substantially the same, there is no justification for paying one less than the other. The war has brought about gains on the equal pay front. Government, industry and labor have helped to extend this principle. But there is still a long way to go before sex differentials in pay are uprooted and equal pay made common practice. Six states have passed an equal pay law aimed to do away with the dual wage system which is against the interests of both men and women, because it weakens the whole wage structure.

The Right to Uniform Seniority

SENIORITY means security on the job. It is the method through which employment is safeguarded. It should be fair and just for men and women alike. Seniority should depend primarily on length of service. In war time it is right to protect the seniority of men gone from the plant into the Armed Forces. Women do not expect nor want to hold jobs of men who were called into service.

But women as well as men must work to live,—and they should have the same seniority standing with men generally, based on a rule that is uniform and equal for all workers.

The Right to Legal Safeguards

THE OVER-ALL EMERGENCY necessitating the relaxation of industrial laws no longer exists. All legal safeguards should be immediately restored. Laws and regulations authorizing such relaxations should be terminated. Many millions of women wage earners do not have the protection of union contracts. Many more millions of women in the service industries and in intra-state employment do not come under the Federal Wage and Hour Law. These millions of wage earners should be guaranteed minimum working standards through improvement in State labor laws and full enforcement of such legislation.

★ ★ ★

Purposes and Functions

THE PURPOSES of the Women's Trade Union League are to serve the interests of wage-earning women through organization of workers into trade unions, collective bargaining agreements between trade unions and employers, legislation for the workers' economic and social good, workers' education, and interpretation of labor problems to the public.

The League deals with all problems affecting wage-earning women. It provides a common meeting ground for women of all groups who endorse the principles of democracy and wish to see them applied to industry, and it develops leadership among women workers, inspiring them with a sense of personal responsibility for the conditions under which they work.

Local Branches

Birmingham, Ala.
Bloomington-Normal, Ill.
Boston, Mass.
Chicago, Ill.
Fort Frances, Ont., Canada
Illinois
Kansas City, Mo.
Kelso-Longview, Wash.
Kenosha, Wis.
New York City
Racine, Wis.
St. Louis, Mo.
Seattle, Wash.
Toledo, Ohio
Washington, D. C.
Worcester, Mass.

National Women's Trade Union League of America
317-18 Machinists' Building
Washington 1, D. C.

The

Women's Bureau

Its Purpose and Functions

United States Department of Labor
Women's Bureau

Frieda S. Miller, *Director*

June 1946

"Today the main business of the

Women's Bureau

is to assist those who are concerned with the transition of women called into a war economy to a responsible and satisfactory place in a civilian economy."

—Frieda S. Miller, Director

Its Beginning

The Women's Bureau was created by Act of Congress (1920)[1] and its functions are prescribed by law. It is authorized to formulate standards and policies to promote the welfare of wage earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment. It investigates and reports to the Secretary of Labor upon all matters pertaining to women workers. Its program is constantly shaped in accordance with changing economic conditions, whether caused by war or peace, prosperous conditions or depressions. Its activities are based also on the fact that women's employment situation is inextricably bound up with the community's welfare and the Nation's forward development. The bureau carries out its duties through three main divisions:

- **Research**
- **Legislation**
- **Information**

The Inter-American activities of the Bureau are part of the State Department's program of cooperation with the other American Republics.

[1] It was an outgrowth of the temporary wartime Woman in Industry Service set up in the U. S. Department of Labor, July 1918.

Its Scope

The Bureau is concerned with all women at work, or seeking work, irrespective of race, creed, or marital status; with women in all fields of employment—manufacturing, service trades, household employment, farm work, business, and the professions; with the girl on her first job and the older woman worker; and with women who are both homemakers and wage earners.

Research

Continuous research of various types is carried on by the Bureau's technical experts to help it formulate policies and programs. Some studies aim particularly to give information on the demand for and supply of women workers in selected occupations; others are concerned with wages and conditions of work in individual industries. Surveys on health questions concerning women workers, job analysis, methods of determining wages, the financial responsibility of women for family support, and their participation in unions are also undertaken. Information on which reports are based is collected from various official sources; from places of employment, such as factories, offices, stores, laundries; and through home interviews with women workers. Another important phase of the work is the compilation and analysis of statistical data on women workers from Federal agencies like the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bureau of the Census, and the U. S. Employment Service, and from State labor departments.

Legislation

The Bureau does not administer any laws. It does, however, make thorough studies of existing laws and administrative procedures, and of the legislative needs for improving both labor standards for women and their civil and political status. To help extend good labor legislation applying to women and to promote better administration of such laws, the Bureau's technical staff advises with State labor department officials, unions, women's organizations, and Federal authorities. It makes analyses of and recommendations on existing and proposed labor laws and regulations covering women. The major types of legislation on which the Bureau compiles data and gives assistance are equal pay, minimum wage, hours of work, and laws related to the political and civil status of women.

16—48678-1

Information

The Bureau, as the Government agency responsible for studying, safeguarding, and promoting the interests of women in all their various fields of employment, gives out information in many forms and for many purposes. It furnishes technical advice on the economic and legal status of women to all concerned with such questions—public agencies, women's organizations, unions, employers, and the general public. It is also consulted in regard to women's employment trends and status by international organizations. It supplies facts and features to the press and radio. Its published reports on its research studies, labor laws for women, and legal status of women are circulated through special mailing lists.

Inter-American Activities

The Inter-American Division of the Women's Bureau cooperates with Government agencies in the other American Republics as well as with women's and other civic organizations concerned with improving working conditions for employed women. This work is carried on through an exchange of information and publications, through training courses for women labor department officials, and through assistance to visitors from the various American Republics.

For information regarding the work and publications of the Women's Bureau, or the location of its regional offices, address

Women's Bureau
U. S. Department of Labor
Washington 25, D. C.

S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE 16—48678-1

587

National Women's Trade Union League of America

Endorsed by the American Federation of Labor and the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada

Headquarters—307 Machinists Building

WASHINGTON, D. C.

THE National Women's Trade Union League of America is a federation of trade unions with women members, with an individual membership of those accepting its platform. For thirty years the women trade unionists have made of it a clearing house for their problems and have found it an effective instrument for collective action. The soundness of its policies and the permanent character of its work have won for it the steady support of a large group of men and women outside of the trade union movement, as well as within its ranks.

Platform

We believe that the natural resources and productive capacity of this country, democratically administered, provide a full and satisfying life for all our people. But political democracy must be accompanied by industrial democracy. To that end we establish the following platform:

1. Organization of workers into trade unions.
2. The shorter workweek in order to spread employment and increase the individual worker's leisure.

3. A standard of living commensurate with the nation's productive capacity.
4. Equal pay for equal work regardless of sex or race.
5. Cooperation with trade union women of other countries.
6. International cooperation to abolish war.

Purposes and Functions

THE purposes of the National Women's Trade Union League of America are to serve the interests of wage-earning women through organization of workers into trade unions, collective agreements between trade unions and employers, legislation for the workers' economic and social good, workers' education, and interpretation of labor problems to the public.

The League deals with national aspects of problems affecting wage-earning women, it develops local and state trade union leagues and committees and assists such state and local groups in the performance of their functions.

In carrying out its purposes, the aim of the National Women's Trade Union League is:

To provide a common meeting ground for women of all groups who indorse the principles of democracy and wish to see them applied to industry.

To develop leadership among women workers, inspiring them with a sense of personal responsibility for the conditions under which they work.

To secure for girls and women equal opportunity with boys and men in trades and technical training.

To secure the representation of women on industrial tribunals and public boards and commissions.

Activities

Organization: The fundamental principle upon which the Women's Trade Union League bases its work is the organization of women workers into trade unions. Never before has the need for organizing work been greater than it is today, with the tremendous economic and industrial adjustments that are under way. There are nearly eleven million wage-earning women in the United States. Not more than 2½ per cent of them are within the labor movement. The unorganized woman worker is the most tragic underbidder in the labor market. Unable to bargain for herself she is overworked and underpaid and the standards of her employment debase the standards of all other workers.

Education: The League has been a pioneer in developing educational programs for women trade unionists. Classes are conducted in all leagues to equip workers for leadership and for meeting, as good citizens, their daily work problems.

The League also supplies its members with reports from time to time giving information on labor conditions and activities so that a fuller understanding of labor's problems may be developed. The headquarters of the National League in Washington is constantly engaged through individual contacts and correspondence in interpreting current labor issues to its membership.

Legislation: Another part of the League's work is to further its program by securing the enactment of appropriate Federal and State legislation.

A legislative representative in Washington keeps in close contact with Federal legislative measures, and through

the co-ordinated effort of the local leagues, the wishes and necessities of the working women of the country can be communicated to their representatives in Congress. The League also works with other national women's organizations in supporting social and industrial legislation that will supplement its program, and in opposing undesirable measures.

Officers and Executive Board

ROSE SCHNEIDERMAN, *President* (United Hatters, Cap & Millinery Workers' Union)

MARY E. DREIER, *Vice President* (New York Women's Trade Union League)

ELISABETH CHRISTMAN, *Secretary-Treasurer* (Glove Workers' Union)

MARION BURNS (Stenographers' Union)

MOLLIE DOWD (Retail Clerks' Union)

AGNES NESTOR (Glove Workers' Union)

PAULINE M. NEWMAN (Ladies Garment Workers' Union)

MRS. RAYMOND ROBINS (Chicago Women's Trade Union League)

MARY N. WINSLOW (Washington Committee, National Women's Trade Union League)

Local Branches

Beaver Dam, Wis.
Birmingham, Ala.
Boston
Chicago
Clinton, Iowa
Huntsville, Ala.
Illinois
Kansas City, Mo.
Kelso-Longview, Wn.
Milwaukee
New Bedford, Mass.
New Jersey
New York
Racine, Wis.
St. Louis, Mo.
Toledo
Washington, D. C.
Waukesha, Wis.
Worcester, Mass.

WOMEN'S JOBS

Advance and Growth

BULLETIN OF THE WOMEN'S BUREAU · NO. 232

Women's Jobs

Advance and Growth

United States
Department of Labor

MAURICE J. TOBIN, Secretary

Women's Bureau
FRIEDA S. MILLER, Director

United States
Government Printing Office
Washington : 1949

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

Letter of Transmittal

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR,
WOMEN'S BUREAU,
Washington, June 6, 1949.

SIR: I have the honor to transmit to you the popularized version of the Bureau's technical bulletin, issued last December, Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades. This simpler, briefer account is intended to serve young women who are trying to decide what job they want to do. It will serve counselors, high school classes studying the U. S. economy, and agencies and organizations that habitually seek such material from us and find it more serviceable in this than in technical form.

This version was prepared by Sylva S. Beyer, editor, with the cooperation of Elisabeth D. Benham, assistant economist, of the Bureau's staff.

Respectfully submitted.

FRIEDA S. MILLER, *Director.*

Hon. MAURICE J. TOBIN,
Secretary of Labor.

Foreword

WITHIN THE NEXT FEW YEARS most of you, if you have not already, will be choosing the job you want to do. For now it is as customary for young women as for young men to work, at least until the young women marry. Some work after marriage, until their children are born. Some women, for various reasons, work even while they are raising families, or after their children are grown. There are few women in the United States who do not, at some time in their lives, hold a job.

If you had been living in 1836, you would, according to Harriet Martineau of England who came to visit us then, have had "before the opening of the factories . . . but three resources—teaching, needlework and keeping boarding houses or hotels. Now," she said, "there are the mills; and women are employed in printing offices as compositors as well as folders and stitchers." She also spoke elsewhere of women in domestic service and shoe binding. (Actually some other types of occupations provided jobs for women then, but probably not for many.)

Today, instead of from Harriet Martineau's brief list, you may choose from among 442 types of jobs out of the 451 there are.

If you are interested in what happened in our country to bring this about, what the jobs are, and which are chosen by the greatest number of women, you will find the story here. It is taken, for the most part, from the reports of the United States Census Bureau.[1] These, like many other books that seem incredibly dull, do, when one has caught on to their way of saying things, tell dramatic facts about ourselves. WE are the record. All the important events in our lives are or will be in it—our birth, our schooling, where we live, our marriage, our children, our job.

The story told here had its beginnings, of course, in the early days of this country. The year we take it up in some detail, however, is 1870, shortly after the close of the Civil War. For that is the year the Bureau of the Census first counted women separately from men in each of the jobs they were doing. For the moment, the story ends in 1940, when the last 10-year census was taken. It will be continued in the report of the 1950 count. What will you be in that report? a student? a secretary? operating a machine in a factory? a housewife? a farmer? a saleswoman? a telephone operator?

We hope this book, by telling you about jobs women have done and are doing, may be of help to you in making your own choice.

[1] Actually, the story here is a shorter and simpler form of the story told by Janet Hooks in her Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades, which you may have by writing the Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor. In writing her story, Miss Hooks grouped workers somewhat differently than the Census Bureau does, in order that she might compare them with groups of workers of 70 years earlier. Her report had the full approval of the Census Bureau.

Contents

PAGE

Foreword IV

CHAPTER ONE

The Change in Women's Jobs

The change in our economy that brought about a change in women's jobs 1
The change in customs and standards of living 3
Changes in family living 4
Changes in public attitudes toward women as paid workers 5
The effect of wars 6
The effect of immigration 7
Changes in education of women 8
Population changes 9

CHAPTER TWO

The Advance of Women White Collar Workers

Office workers 12
Bookkeepers, accountants, and cashiers 14
Telephone and telegraph operators 15
Attendants in doctors' and dentists' offices 17
Agents and collectors 18
Messengers and errand and office girls 19
Mail carriers 19
Workers in sales jobs 20
Hucksters and peddlers 21
Insurance agents and brokers 22
Real estate agents 22
Newsboys 22

CHAPTER THREE

Women Manual Workers

	PAGE
Food workers	24
Canners and preservers	24
Confectionery workers	26
Meat packers	27
Baked foods workers	27
Dairy workers	28
Grain mill and other food workers	28
Beverage workers	28
Tobacco workers	28
Textile workers	30
Cotton workers	31
Knit goods workers	33
Wool and worsted workers	33
Silk and rayon workers	34
Carpet and rug makers	34
Dyers and textile finishers	34
Clothing workers	35
Apparel workers	36
Dressmakers	37
Tailoresses	37
Hat makers	37
Woodworkers	37
Paper makers	39
Printing and publishing workers	40
Chemical workers	41
Rubber workers	42
Footwear workers	42
Leather workers	43
Glass workers	43
Pottery workers	44
Structural clay workers	45
Metal trades workers	45
Electrical workers	48
Fruit and vegetable graders and packers	49

CHAPTER FOUR

Women Service Workers

Service workers in private and in public housekeeping	51
Laundry workers	53
Beauticians, barbers, and manicurists	54
Practical nurses and midwives	55

PAGE

Elevator operators 56
Janitors and sextons 57
Amusement and recreation service workers 57
Boardinghouse and lodginghouse keepers 57

CHAPTER FIVE

Women Professional Workers

Teachers 59
Trained nurses 61
Social, welfare, and religious workers 62
Musicians and music teachers 63
Artists and art teachers 63
Entertainers 63
Authors 64
Librarians 64
Library assistants 64
Editors and reporters 65
Women in the "learned professions" and related fields 66
Doctors 66
Dentists 66
Ministers. 66
Lawyers 67
Women in scientific and industrial professions 67
Designers and draftsmen 68
Laboratory technicians 69
Chemists, assayers, and metallurgists 70
Technical engineers 70
Architects 70
Veterinarians 71
Other professional workers 72
Photographers 72
Funeral directors and embalmers 72
Aviators 72

CHAPTER SIX

Businesswomen

Women in food businesses 74
Women in restaurant and cafe businesses. 74
Businesswomen in specialties trades 74
Businesswomen in general merchandise, apparel, shoe, and millinery trades 75
Businesswomen in industry. 75

PAGE

Women in hotel businesses 76
Women government officials and inspectors 76
Women postmasters 77
Women druggists and pharmacists 77
Businesswomen in banking and finance 78
Women officials in organizations 78
Businesswomen in insurance 78

CHAPTER SEVEN

Women Agricultural Workers 79

CHAPTER EIGHT

Women in Trades and Crafts

Foremen 83
Decorators and window dressers 84
Painters 84
Paperhangers 84
Upholsterers 84

CHAPTER NINE

Women Protective Service Workers 85

CHAPTER TEN

Remarks 86

CHAPTER ONE

The Change in Women's Jobs

WE IN THE UNITED STATES use machines to produce goods more than does any other country in the world. We buy and sell more things than any other country. Our transportation system is the greatest and most complex. And in buying and selling—both goods and our services, or the work we do—we make use of money more than any other country. We live under an industrial economy. We are the most industrialized nation in the world.

THE CHANGE IN OUR ECONOMY THAT BROUGHT ABOUT A CHANGE IN WOMEN'S JOBS

If we had been living when this country was very young, we would have lived under an agricultural economy. Most of us would have been living on farms and doing work connected with farming. Most of the things we needed we and the men in our families would have grown ourselves and made at home. Tools, wagons and plows, cloth and clothing, shoes, furniture, and bedding were made at home. For some of the things we needed we would have exchanged, not money, but our services or things we had made and others needed. When we were about to be married, our neighbors came to help us build our house; we did not pay contractors, carpenters, bricklayers. We helped our neighbors bring in and thresh their wheat, and they helped us with our crop. Our job, as women of the family, was to cook for the many reapers and threshers. We prepared all the food in the home, spun and wove cloth, made clothing, cared for the sick and aged, trained the children. When children were born, often a midwife, more often simply a neighbor came to help. There were few doctors and no trained nurses. There were few teachers; fewer of us would have been going to school.

This very young country had immense natural resources—rich soil, valuable coal and iron beds, immense reaches of forest land, deep and broad rivers that provided both easy transportation and power, fine harbors in which ships could ride safely at anchor. More than anything, this country had tremendous drive and inventive genius.

840888 O - 50 - 2

This drive and this genius, making use of these tremendous natural resources, in less than a hundred years converted our agricultural economy into the most fully developed industrial economy in the world. It is in the process of that change that women have taken on such a great variety of jobs.

One can speak of two major advances in our evolution from an agricultural to an industrial economy, each of which provided new types of jobs for women. First came the development of machines and the building of factories, railroads, ships. From the point of view of jobs for women, the sewing machine was one of the most important of the machines. Clothing that had at first been made entirely at home, later in part by dressmakers, mantua makers, tailors, and tailoresses, came to be made almost entirely in factories, particularly after sewing machines came to be power machines, driven by electricity.

The second advancement in job opportunities for women came with the great expansion of commerce as rail and water ways webbed the country, ships and harbors were built. It came with the development of communications that followed the invention of the typewriter, telegraph, telephone, and the expanding of our postal system. The typewriter, in particular, opened up a whole new field of white-collar jobs for which women were said to be particularly well adapted.

The bustling activities engendered by commerce and communications themselves brought about whole new series of other activities in their train. People traveled; men left, in advance of their families, for jobs in other towns. They needed hotels and restaurants in which to sleep and eat away from home; they needed laundries to take care of their clothes. Then the people living at home also found these institutions great conveniences. Machines processed more and more of the foods that had been prepared at home and made more and more of the clothing; wholesale houses grew up to store and bring the food and clothing when needed to the retail stores—to the corner butcher, baker, and grocer, clothing stores, and hat shops—that sprang up in cities, towns, and villages.

"Sales techniques" developed: the merchants found better and better ways of hawking their goods, of bringing them to the attention of people and of stimulating people to buy. Finally the merchants turned that job over to experts, and the whole new field of modern advertising developed which has as its sole purpose the creation of "consumer demand."

All these developments opened up jobs for women.

Manufacturing and commerce could not be carried on effectively in rural areas. Factory workers could not live too far from their jobs. The factory itself had to be as close as possible to the receiving point for its raw materials, to the near markets for its products, and to shipping points for distant markets.[1] As manufacturing developed and commerce

[1] Now that many cities have become overcrowded and congested, there is a movement to build factories in country areas, made possible by the rapid train, truck, and plane transportation we now have.

grew, people tended more and more to leave the farm country to go where the job opportunities were, to live close together, to build up cities and towns where none had been before.

And living together in cities and towns in its turn created new types of jobs. Streetcars, busses, ferries became necessary, and gas, light, and water works—the great public utilities. More banks were needed. Theaters and other amusement places grew up. Newspapers and books became a daily necessity. All these brought about a variety of jobs, many of which were filled by women.

Twice then the doors of industry were opened wide to welcome women and little children in. First, when, although agriculture still occupied most of the people, the system of making things in the home began to give way to making them outside the home; then the infant factory production system had to find workers—many more workers—if it was to grow up and realize itself. And again, toward the end of the nineteenth century, when mass production was in full swing, then too, large-scale business organizations and distribution systems were in vital need of a new supply of workers, to carry on the interlocking activities of the great business networks. And here too women and children were an important source on which to draw for the needed help. As the whole economy of the country was going through its often stirring and dramatic changes, so was the economy of the individual family, particularly of the women in the family.

In the pioneer period the women in the home—mothers, daughters, and the kin who had no other home—produced goods and performed services for the family group that were of important economic value. Then spinning and weaving, preserving, baking, making cloth, clothing, and bedding, laundering and many other personal services began to be done commercially. Agencies outside the family came more and more to take on much of the care of the old and the sick. Much of the child training and many of the recreational activities which had been carried on in the family circle came more and more to be carried on outside the home.

All these shifts meant that the economic contribution of the women in the household became smaller and smaller. It meant that the family had increasing need for money income with which to pay for goods and services. It meant that in many households several members, including its women, had to work outside the home to help supply that money.

THE CHANGE IN CUSTOMS AND STANDARDS OF LIVING

The self-sufficiency of the pioneer family has disappeared. Today the family, particularly in towns and cities, generally lives in a rented dwelling; buys its clothing, its baked goods, other prepared foods, household furnishings and equipment; pays for much of its recreation. And not only that, but the sparse furnishings of the pioneer cabins have been replaced by countless modern day comforts and conveniences.

We became choosier in our tastes for the material things of daily life. New industries and services put their products at the command, not only of the few of us who are most well-to-do, but of the bulk of us who are "the average citizen." The living standards of the modern family are way and above those of a hundred, or fifty years ago. This modern "standard of living" is the very basis of the present industrial mass-production system. For wide and varied markets—people who will buy the products—are essential to that system. (And the well-being of the family, in turn, depends more and more on its money income.)

All these things have influenced the need of industry to employ women, and of women to take jobs. It has become commonplace, when jobs are not available in their home towns, for young women to go where jobs are to be found, although they continue to do this less than men.

Inventiveness and the mass-production system together turn out so great a number and variety of material comforts that they can meet any specific need in a variety of ways. Together with our system of advertising, this has created still further needs, the need, for example, to have what is in style, to do what is in fashion. The importance of styles and fashions in all sorts of commodities has grown tremendously—commodities ranging from dozens of types of hair curlers, through different glasses for an infinite variety of drinks, to clothing and automobiles.

Style and fashion also have a great effect on job trends. Flourishing new industries met the demand that arose when cosmetics were no longer disapproved and beauticians' services became a necessity. The spread of the cigarette smoking habit provided employment for great numbers of women. New job opportunities grew out of the everyday use of silk, rayon, then nylon stockings.

CHANGES IN FAMILY LIVING

In pioneer days, a large family was far more common than nowadays. Children, like a wife, were an economic asset to the farmer, usually an economic necessity. A farm, particularly in the days before the tractors and milking machines, took many hands to run it, many hands to feed and clothe the workers.

In the early days of the industrial economy, a wife and sons and daughters were still an economic asset, though a lesser one. For the children, often the wife, joined the father in the factories, in order that the family might be able to pay for the necessities that had become less expensive to buy than to produce at home.

Today the time of most children is spent at school. Relatively few contribute to the family income before they are grown. Today, in an era of apartment house living, it is difficult even to provide space for a large family.

In pioneer days, most girls married at what we consider a very early age. How many stories of these days have we not read in which an unmarried girl of 20 was considered an old maid? Nowadays the age at which girls commonly marry in the United States is between 21 and 22. Usually the girl's husband is a little less than three years older than she is. About 3 in 20 of the young couples have no children. The typical mother has three children. The first is usually born a year after marriage, the last when the mother is 28. When her youngest child is 18, the average mother is 45. Her children are married and have left home, usually when the mother is 50 or 53, and the family then consists again of only husband and wife.

Many women in the United States work for a wage or salary even while they have children who are under school age, particularly if there are school-age children to help take care of the young ones while the mother is away. More women work when all their children are of school age and a still greater number when their children are over 18.[2]

With the changes in our customs and standards of living, with so much that was formerly carried on within the family group now being done by businesses and community agencies, much more of the time of every member of the family is spent outside the immediate family circle, in playgrounds, at school, at work, at clubs for young and for old, in civic activities, at movies and theaters. The members of the family are less dependent on one another and more dependent on the community.

CHANGES IN PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN AS PAID WORKERS

Changes in styles and fashion are rapid and frequent. Social changes take place much more slowly. In spite of industry's need for workers, in spite of families' need for increased income, people did not readily accept the idea that women should work outside the home. The idea that "women's place is in the home" and nowhere else is still met with here and there. However, under the compulsion of an economy that is still changing, that is increasingly a money economy, that idea is waning.

When social changes do take place, it is likely that the new development will be built on old foundations. When factories and businesses began to take over many home activities, it seemed natural, and therefore more acceptable, that women should continue, in the new surroundings, with the work they had been doing for their own families. Under both our agricultural and our industrial economy, producing cloth and clothing, preparing food, caring for the sick, training children, have been

[2] There are (April 1948) 4 million mothers in paid employment, 3 million of whom are living with their husbands, 1 million of whom are living apart or who are widowed or divorced. The children of over 800,000 of these mothers are all under school age (under 6). Over three-fourths million have children of both school age (6–18 years) and of preschool age.

women's work. But they have been carried on, in the two periods, in very different surroundings and by widely different methods.

Some public attitudes become crystalized and are then translated into laws and government programs. Such laws and programs have created many job opportunities for women. When laws made schooling compulsory, for example, more teachers were required. Public health programs required more nurses. Welfare programs brought more opportunities for social workers and for clerks and stenographers.

The attitude of some of the public and some employers, on the other hand, that certain types of work are not appropriate for women has limited women's job opportunities. There are people, for instance, who believe that even though women have the necessary qualifications, it is more suitable for a man to work on a job which requires dealing with the public, or one in which considerable traveling is necessary, or one that calls for supervising groups of men workers. Prejudices are strongest against married women workers, owing to survivals of the "women's place is in the home" idea and to failure to understand the economic problems which face married women and their families.

Opportunities in some fields are limited by the standards set up by those who are already working in the field, for example, in craftsmen's occupations like printing and carpentering. Many of these require a long apprenticeship before a worker is regarded as a full-fledged craftsman entitled to a craftsman's pay. Established craftsmen, moreover, and some employers limit the number who may become apprentices to some crafts. Such restrictions limit the number of women who may find a job in these fields.

Women are excluded from many jobs in manual work of all degrees of skill because such jobs require greater physical strength than the average woman has. On the other hand, inventions have lightened the physical effort required on a number of these jobs, and women have become eligible and have been hired for them.

There is no physical barrier to the employment of women in the professional occupations. Here the long and expensive training that is needed and the difficulty of becoming established have affected both men and women. But the public attitude, and particularly the attitude of men already in professional occupations, formerly barred women almost completely and during recent years have tended to keep the number of women small.

THE EFFECT OF WARS

There is one thing that will cause custom and the traditional way of doing things to change fast, and that is war. Men are called up for military duty; industries that supply the armed forces and industries that fill civilian needs are short of manpower; and women are called on to replace men and to do jobs for which they had formerly been considered

inadequate or unsuited. When peace comes, there is always a tendency to go back to prewar custom and tradition, but this never succeeds completely. Inevitably the range of occupations in which women hold jobs has been widened.

The Civil War brought women into schoolrooms, to replace men as teachers. It caused many women to take up nursing. It gathered groups of women together in "sewing rooms" to make clothing and other articles needed by men in the armies.

World War I added greatly to the variety of jobs women did in all types of factories, particularly in metal and machinery and other plants making war implements. It gave women a chance at more skilled work than they had previously been allowed to do. Many dropped out of these jobs after the end of the war, but some women continued to work in a large number of them.

World War I showed up women's special aptitude for assembly and inspection operations. In industries which were then developing, like the manufacture of electrical equipment and appliances, this aptitude assured women a permanent place. From some new types of jobs, like driving streetcars, they were dropped almost completely, but on other jobs, like that of elevator operator, a great many were kept on.

World War II again increased the scope of women's jobs. Necessity overcame the reluctance of employers, and women for the first time replaced men welders and riveters in sizable number; they worked in shipyards, even on railroads. Particularly in aircraft plants did they prove their worth. Here where, for example, some jobs had to be carried on in a confined space in a plane's interior, women's smaller size worked to advantage. It is still somewhat too soon to say what the long-time effects of World War II on women's employment will be, but it seems ever more certain that women have a permanent place in the aircraft industry, in the armed forces, in the plastic industries, to mention only a few.

THE EFFECT OF IMMIGRATION

The English, Dutch, Swedish immigrations which resulted in the first settlements in this country were only forerunners of great waves of immigration that later poured into the United States from many countries: Ireland, Germany, Italy, Scandinavia, Poland, Greece. Such immigrations affected occupational trends among women in several ways.

Over many years immigrant women provided a steady supply of recruits for household service occupations.

For the newly arrived woman immigrant who was handicapped by not being able to speak our language, who had had no occupational training or experience, household service for a long time offered the best chances for a job. When, later, fewer immigrants were admitted to the country, this source of household workers disappeared, in part for the

reason that as industry grew it had jobs for even the inexperienced unable as yet to speak English.

At times the influx of foreign-born women turned native-born women workers into new fields. In the early days of the cotton textile industry, for example, workers in many of the New England mills were native-born girls, chiefly from farm families. Later great numbers of Irish and French Canadians came into New England, and both their women and their men went to work in the cotton mills. The native young girls at the same time began to look for and find jobs as teachers, nurses, and white-collar workers for whom there was a rising demand.

In the clothing industry, too, immigration brought about a shift to the employment of growing proportions of men. The immigrations of the 1880's brought groups of people who did not speak English and who for that reason tended to crowd into occupations in which family members and friends, who had come to the United States before them, were already working. It became customary for employers or go-betweens to make contracts with the family head or leader for the work of whole family groups. Working conditions under this contract system were very bad indeed. This and other factors resulted in relatively more men and fewer women coming into the clothing industry after 1890, although women always remained in the majority. After 1930 their proportions rose again. The industry is now one of the most important for women.

CHANGES IN EDUCATION OF WOMEN

The changes in education are among the most important that have taken place under our changing economy. In pioneer days, those who received any education outside the home were relatively few, and those who received a university education fewer still. Our compulsory education laws have done a great deal to help young women to obtain jobs in a great variety of fields.

American women are becoming better educated each year. In 1940 the number of women high school graduates was 11 times as great as in 1900, and the number of women with a university or college bachelor's degree was almost 10 times as great as in 1900. And this was not because the number of women in the United States had increased 10 or 11 times. For the number of women in the country in 1940 who were 14 to 24 years old was only 1⅔ times their number in 1900.

The number of girls who graduated from high school in the United States has always been greater than the number of boys who graduated. Not so in regard to universities and colleges, for these have always graduated more men than women. However, though only 1 out of every 3 college or university graduates was a woman in 1900, 2 out of every 5 were women in 1940.

Higher education, of course, means greater opportunities for women in the professions. But chances of going to a college or university came

In any case, it is likely that the tendency of doctors to specialize more and more, and their consequent need to keep more elaborate records, means more assistants will be hired in a period when doctors and dentists can afford them. Many doctors and dentists, who had had no assistant before the war, became used to assistants' service in the Army or Navy, and were not inclined to do without it on returning to civilian life. Because of the great shortage of doctors, too, many have hired assistants in order to be free themselves to take care of as many patients as possible.

The attendant's job is one that is related to the stenographer's, typist's, and secretary's job, to which women were found to be particularly adapted, and it is related also to the job of caring for the sick in the home, which has always been a woman's job. So it is not strange that in 1910 you would have found that 4 out of 5 attendants were girls or women, and that, in 1940, 19 out of 20 were—almost 30,000 women in all in 1940.

AGENTS AND COLLECTORS

Seventeen women agents, collectors, or credit "men" were counted by the census in 1870. In 1940 it counted almost 23,500, but by then the group included agents, credit men, purchasing agents and buyers, county agents and farm demonstrators, and bill and account collectors. For as new types of jobs develop, the people in them must be counted in *some* group, at least until there are enough of them so that the Census feels the time has come to set up a separate classification for them, as it did in 1910 for doctors' and dentists' office attendants.

County agent and farm demonstrator jobs, for instance, developed fairly recently, after farming and home economics came to be regarded as practical sciences and to be taught in universities. The job of the agents and demonstrators, who are frequently graduates of farm and home economics courses, is to see that information and instruction on improved methods of farming and running a farm home get to the people in rural areas. The agents give practical demonstrations of equipment and tools or of new, improved ways of doing things. They talk these things over with the farmer and his wife. Sometimes they get groups of farmers and farm women together, to talk to them, or to get them to discuss a problem together. They often organize clubs for young people, to get them started in the right direction on farm, farm home, and community work.

A considerable number of these county agent and demonstrator jobs are held by women—29 out of every 100 in 1930, and 43 out of every 100 in 1940. Here again the work is related to the work women did in pioneer days in or around the home.

But these county agents and demonstrators are only a small portion of the agents, credit men, purchasing agents and buyers, bill and account collectors. Taking all these workers together—only 8 in 100 were women in 1930; in 1940, 11 in 100.

But during the depression of the 1930's, following the 1929 stock market crash, the number of telephone customers dropped off. To cut down expenses, the telephone companies introduced still further labor-saving devices and employed fewer workers. Even in 1940, after business conditions had improved, there were fewer telephone operators than there had been in 1930.

The dial system is already in use, in a few cities, for long distance telephoning. It will be extended to other cities. And this will mean a still further cut in the number of operators needed. However, an occupation that offers jobs to nearly 200,000 women is an important one to consider.

The development of the telegraph dates back to the 1840's. It, too, opened up new fields for men and women. The opportunities for women telegraph operators, however, were not nearly so great as for telephone operators, and between 1930 and 1940 their numbers fell off at an even greater rate than those of telephone operators.

The radio industry did not really get under way until the 1920's, and women have not been a sizable group among the radio operators.

Taking all operators together—telegraph, telephone, and radio—the number of women among them grew from about 300 in 1870 to about 246,600 in 1930 and dropped to 205,600 in 1940. Whatever the 1950 census tells us of a rise or fall in their numbers since then, it is certain that the number of jobs women hold in this field will continue to be significant.

ATTENDANTS IN DOCTORS' AND DENTISTS' OFFICES

Nowadays the girl who is a doctor's or dentist's assistant does some of the things he used to do for himself. She sterilizes and lays out the instruments he is going to use, prepares the patient for examination or treatment, prepares the materials and equipment the doctor calls for during the treatment, keeps the patient comfortable, and may help in the laboratory work. These are the duties which make her job different from that of other types of office assistants. But like the other assistants, she also keeps the records and books, handles the telephone, makes appointments.

We do not know how many girls were doctors' or dentists' attendants before 1910, for that was the first year the census made a count of them separate from girls in somewhat similar kinds of work. That year the census counted 5,000. By 1920 there were twice as many, and by 1930 twice as many again.

Between 1930 and 1940 the number of attendants did not increase at nearly so fast a rate—only by a little over one-fifth. This may have been because, during the depression years, doctors and dentists were less able to afford the services of an assistant. It is also true, though, that those attendants who were nurses may that year have been counted by the census with trained nurses rather than with the other attendants.

840888 O - 50 - 4

CORRECTION

THIS DOCUMENT

HAS BEEN REPHOTOGRAPHED

TO ASSURE LEGIBILITY

inadequate or unsuited. When peace comes, there is always a tendency to go back to prewar custom and tradition, but this never succeeds completely. Inevitably the range of occupations in which women hold jobs has been widened.

The Civil War brought women into schoolrooms, to replace men as teachers. It caused many women to take up nursing. It gathered groups of women together in "sewing rooms" to make clothing and other articles needed by men in the armies.

World War I added greatly to the variety of jobs women did in all types of factories, particularly in metal and machinery and other plants making war implements. It gave women a chance at more skilled work than they had previously been allowed to do. Many dropped out of these jobs after the end of the war, but some women continued to work in a large number of them.

World War I showed up women's special aptitude for assembly and inspection operations. In industries which were then developing, like the manufacture of electrical equipment and appliances, this aptitude assured women a permanent place. From some new types of jobs, like driving streetcars, they were dropped almost completely, but on other jobs, like that of elevator operator, a great many were kept on.

World War II again increased the scope of women's jobs. Necessity overcame the reluctance of employers, and women for the first time replaced men welders and riveters in sizable number; they worked in shipyards, even on railroads. Particularly in aircraft plants did they prove their worth. Here where, for example, some jobs had to be carried on in a confined space in a plane's interior, women's smaller size worked to advantage. It is still somewhat too soon to say what the long-time effects of World War II on women's employment will be, but it seems ever more certain that women have a permanent place in the aircraft industry, in the armed forces, in the plastic industries, to mention only a few.

THE EFFECT OF IMMIGRATION

The English, Dutch, Swedish immigrations which resulted in the first settlements in this country were only forerunners of great waves of immigration that later poured into the United States from many countries: Ireland, Germany, Italy, Scandinavia, Poland, Greece. Such immigrations affected occupational trends among women in several ways.

Over many years immigrant women provided a steady supply of recruits for household service occupations.

For the newly arrived woman immigrant who was handicapped by not being able to speak our language, who had had no occupational training or experience, household service for a long time offered the best chances for a job. When, later, fewer immigrants were admitted to the country, this source of household workers disappeared, in part for the

reason that as industry grew it had jobs for even the inexperienced unable as yet to speak English.

At times the influx of foreign-born women turned native-born women workers into new fields. In the early days of the cotton textile industry, for example, workers in many of the New England mills were native-born girls, chiefly from farm families. Later great numbers of Irish and French Canadians came into New England, and both their women and their men went to work in the cotton mills. The native young girls at the same time began to look for and find jobs as teachers, nurses, and white-collar workers for whom there was a rising demand.

In the clothing industry, too, immigration brought about a shift to the employment of growing proportions of men. The immigrations of the 1880's brought groups of people who did not speak English and who for that reason tended to crowd into occupations in which family members and friends, who had come to the United States before them, were already working. It became customary for employers or go-betweens to make contracts with the family head or leader for the work of whole family groups. Working conditions under this contract system were very bad indeed. This and other factors resulted in relatively more men and fewer women coming into the clothing industry after 1890, although women always remained in the majority. After 1930 their proportions rose again. The industry is now one of the most important for women.

CHANGES IN EDUCATION OF WOMEN

The changes in education are among the most important that have taken place under our changing economy. In pioneer days, those who received any education outside the home were relatively few, and those who received a university education fewer still. Our compulsory education laws have done a great deal to help young women to obtain jobs in a great variety of fields.

American women are becoming better educated each year. In 1940 the number of women high school graduates was 11 times as great as in 1900, and the number of women with a university or college bachelor's degree was almost 10 times as great as in 1900. And this was not because the number of women in the United States had increased 10 or 11 times. For the number of women in the country in 1940 who were 14 to 24 years old was only 1⅔ times their number in 1900.

The number of girls who graduated from high school in the United States has always been greater than the number of boys who graduated. Not so in regard to universities and colleges, for these have always graduated more men than women. However, though only 1 out of every 3 college or university graduates was a woman in 1900, 2 out of every 5 were women in 1940.

Higher education, of course, means greater opportunities for women in the professions. But chances of going to a college or university came

to women slowly and were at first very few. Before 1830 there were hardly any places at all where women could go for more than a high school education. In the 1830's people became conscious of and concerned about this and began to do something about it. Oberlin College, which opened its doors in 1833, was coeducational from the beginning. In that same decade a number of seminaries for women were also opened. These were possibly not of full college rank, but they did provide a better education for women than had been available before. One of these schools was Wesleyan, at Macon, Ga.; another Mount Holyoke, in South Hadley, Mass. Two were in New York State, in Troy and Elmira. Step in advance though they were, they still were a long way from providing women opportunities for education equal to the best then available to their brothers.

It was not until 1865 and the opening of Vassar, that a college with a rich course of studies, adequately equipped and endowed, and with the highest standards, comparable to those of the best colleges for men, was available to women.

So successful was this venture that the pattern was followed in the next 10 years and after by the founding of other similar colleges—Smith, Wellesley, Bryn Mawr, Radcliffe, and Barnard.

Today there are many separate colleges for women, with standards equal to the best provided for men. The universities of the country also admit women to study, not only as undergraduates but in most of the professional and graduate schools as well. Still it cannot be said that there is equality of educational opportunity. Some law schools, some medical schools, still exclude women. Others admit them under more restricted terms than those men are admitted under. In the libraries of a great university, according to the New York Times, women have only limited privileges. In one to which they were admitted for the first time during the war, they must sit behind pillars at one end of the room; to another, they are admitted only on Saturday afternoons. And it was not so long ago, that a young woman who wished to take a course in constitutional law, at a leading university which excluded women from its law school, was told she might attend if in a corner of the room a curtain could be rigged up for her to sit behind.

However, women have come far, and are going further. They are now being admitted as students, and even a few as teachers, to some of the universities that have been most hide-bound toward admitting them heretofore.

POPULATION CHANGES

One other set of changes must be mentioned, those that take place in the numbers of people in this country, in the numbers of those in various age groups, in the numbers who attend school, are married, etc., because these changes are also closely related to the employment of women.

We have already spoken of the smaller size of families now than in pioneer days. This fact is important in that it cuts down the number of years the care of small children prevents women from taking jobs. Some women of course have no choice but to take jobs, to provide or help provide the necessities of life, whether or not small children at home need them.

The number of women workers in 1940 was 13 million—just about the same number as of all workers—both men and women—who were working in 1870. Of course, the total of all women in the country was three times as great in 1940 as in 1870, but the number of women who were workers was *seven* times greater.

To some extent the increase in the number of women workers is due to the fact that "the population is aging," which is only saying that fewer children die in infancy, more live to adulthood, and moreover, live to a ripe old age. This is particularly true of women. In 1870 the median age of women was 20 years (that is, half the women in the country were younger than 20, half were older). In 1940 their median age was 29. This of course means that there are more women, proportionately, of the ages during which women work than there were in 1870. In 1940 it was more common for women aged 20 to 24 to be in the labor force than for those in any other age group.

In the early days of our becoming an industrial economy, it was common for even very young children to work, long hours, on heavy and often hazardous jobs. There still are regions and particular industries in which young children are not adequately protected by child labor and education laws, but it is true that the great majority of children are safeguarded. The proportion of not only children but of young people—all those under 20—in the labor force has been steadily decreasing.

CHAPTER TWO

The Advance of Women White Collar Workers

PROBABLY MOST GIRLS in high school who are thinking about a job have a white-collar job in mind. Certainly the white-collar workers were an important group in 1940, if only by virtue of their sheer numbers—about 3½ million. The only group who outnumbered them were women in the service occupations, by about one-fourth million. What started the white-collar workers off to such a flourishing growth was the typewriter.

The first practical typewriter was put on the market in the 1870's. It was operated by women from the very first. Other types of office machines were invented later, but these too were run largely by women. These machines, and particularly the typewriter, in the operation of which women showed so much adaptability and skill, began the custom of at least one woman in practically every office. By 1940 about three-fourths of the women white-collar workers were in offices.

For "white collar" does not mean only office work. "White collar" is in fact a rather vague term. We mean by it here what the Census calls "clerical, sales, and kindred workers." We do not include, as is sometimes done, professional and semiprofessional workers, for we talk about them later.

The number of women white-collar workers in 1870 was a very mere fraction of those in 1940—1/257; in round numbers, 13,500 as against 3½ million. (By 1949 there were nearly 6 million.)

If you had met 20 women white-collar workers in 1870, the chances are that 14 would have been in saleswork; 3 would have been office workers; 2, hucksters or peddlers; and 1, a telegraph operator. If you had met 20 in 1940, however, the chances are that only 5 would have been in sales work, 14 would have been office workers and 1, a telegraph, telephone, radio, or wireless operator.

There were women mail carriers in both 1870 and 1940, and women hucksters and peddlers in 1940, but so few compared to other women white-collar workers that it is unlikely you would have met them in an average group of 20.

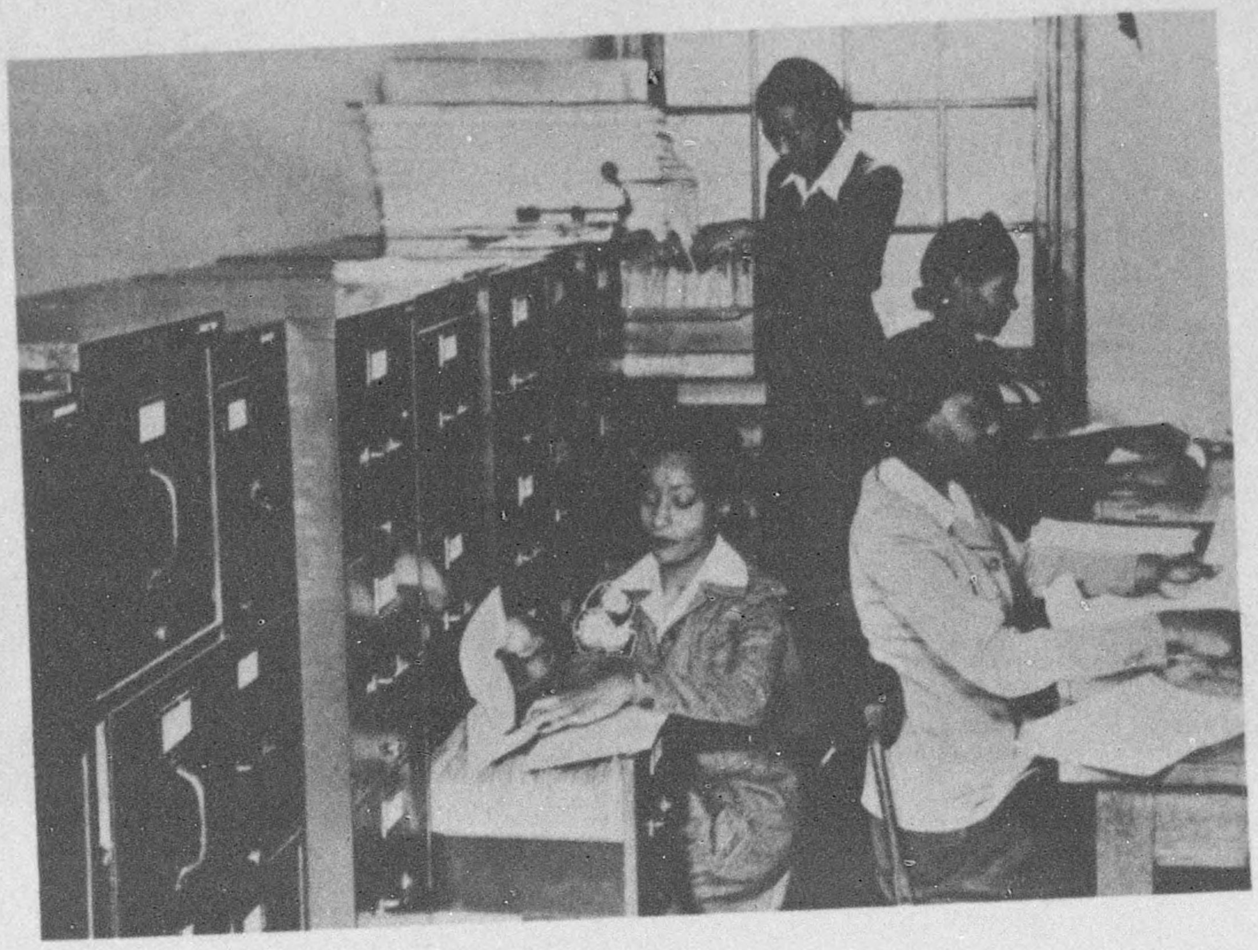
OFFICE WORKERS

When someone mentions "office worker," you usually think: "Stenographer, typist, or clerk, probably a woman." That is not the image you would have evoked in 1870. For in that year women stenographers, typists, and secretaries; shipping and receiving clerks; and other clerical and allied works—these three groups together added up to less than 1,000, whereas men in these three fields added up to nearly 29,000.

In 10 years the women's numbers more than doubled. In another 10, they multiplied 20 times—a tribute to the typewriter and to women's skill in using it. By 1900 they had doubled again, and there was now a fourth group of workers, the women who operated the adding and billing machines and the like—machines that were now beginning to come into their own.

In the next 10 years the number of women office workers more than tripled. In the next, between 1910 and 1920, they did not quite triple, but the greatest number of women ever in any 10-year period elected office work—nearly 652,000. This was the period in which war brought about a great expansion in all employment of women.

CLERK IN A PERSONNEL DEPARTMENT



FILE CLERKS

Since 1920 the *rate* of increase has slackened considerably. In 1940 there were less than four-fifths again as many women office workers as in 1920. But when one is talking in millions, that is still a great number.

The over 1,860,000 women office workers (stenographers, typists, secretaries; office machine operators; shipping and receiving clerks; other office clerks and allied workers) in 1940 meant that there was one of these women workers for every 71 people in the country. (In 1870 there was only one to every 42,800 people.) What this signifies is the still growing importance of women in the vast network of business and distributing activities.

In taking on office work, women did not replace men. They found entirely new opportunities for themselves. As we said, they were the typists from the beginning, and in general the first operators of other office machines. From 3 in 100 of all of the office workers in 1870, women came to be well over half in 1940. The way men and women lined up in these jobs in 1940 was roughly this:

Of every 25 shipping and receiving clerks: 1 was a woman; 24 were men.
Of every 25 other office clerical and allied workers: 9 were women; 16 were men.
Of every 25 office machine operators: 21 were women; 4 were men.
Of every 25 stenographers, typists, and secretaries: 24 were women; 1 was a man.

OFFICE MACHINE OPERATORS

Which of the four fields of office work did most of the 1,860,000 women choose? Roughly—

59 out of every 100 chose to be a stenographer, typist, or secretary.
1 out of every 200 chose to be a shipping or receiving clerk.
38 out of every 100 chose other office clerical and allied work.
3 out of every 100 chose to be office machine operators.

Office worker jobs have attracted a great many women because such jobs have been held to carry relatively high social status, partly because they were felt to require more mental effort than, say, jobs at a machine in a factory. However, the rapid increase in the use of office machines, and the fact that more and more work done with them is being broken down into specialized, repetitive jobs, is beginning to make it doubtful that they require much mental agility.

And what of women office workers and marriage? It appears that the tendency not to hire married women, and to dismiss those who do marry, limits married women's opportunities in office work. At any rate, women office workers do not have as large a representation of married women as do all women workers taken together. But, as among all women workers, married women's representation among office workers is growing.

BOOKKEEPERS, ACCOUNTANTS, AND CASHIERS

Bookkeepers, accountants, and cashiers were long among the elite of the white-collar workers. Few among them were women in 1870—only about 900. Men were 40 times as numerous. But after 1880 the propor-

tion who were women increased fast, until by 1930 and 1940 a little better than half were women, but by then, women numbered close to half a million.

What was responsible for this increase? The ever larger units into which businesses were organized, the ever growing day-to-day financial transactions and need for recording and analyzing them, the need for accurate knowledge of costs and profits, the need to supply government authorities with figures for income tax and other purposes. And these made it necessary to introduce machines into general accounting. For, the cost of doing by hand all the work required would have been prohibitive. Here, too, machines were among the factors which opened up a field of considerable opportunity for women.

In 1870 there had been 1 woman bookkeeper, accountant, or cashier to every 45,000 people in the country; by 1940 there was 1 to every 277.

TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH OPERATORS

Boys were the first telephone operators. The industry, developed in the early 1870's, was a completely new one, unrelated to any that had been carried on in the home. There was no connection in the public mind between the telephone operator's work and any work women had done before, to make it seem appropriate work for women.

ACCOUNTANT

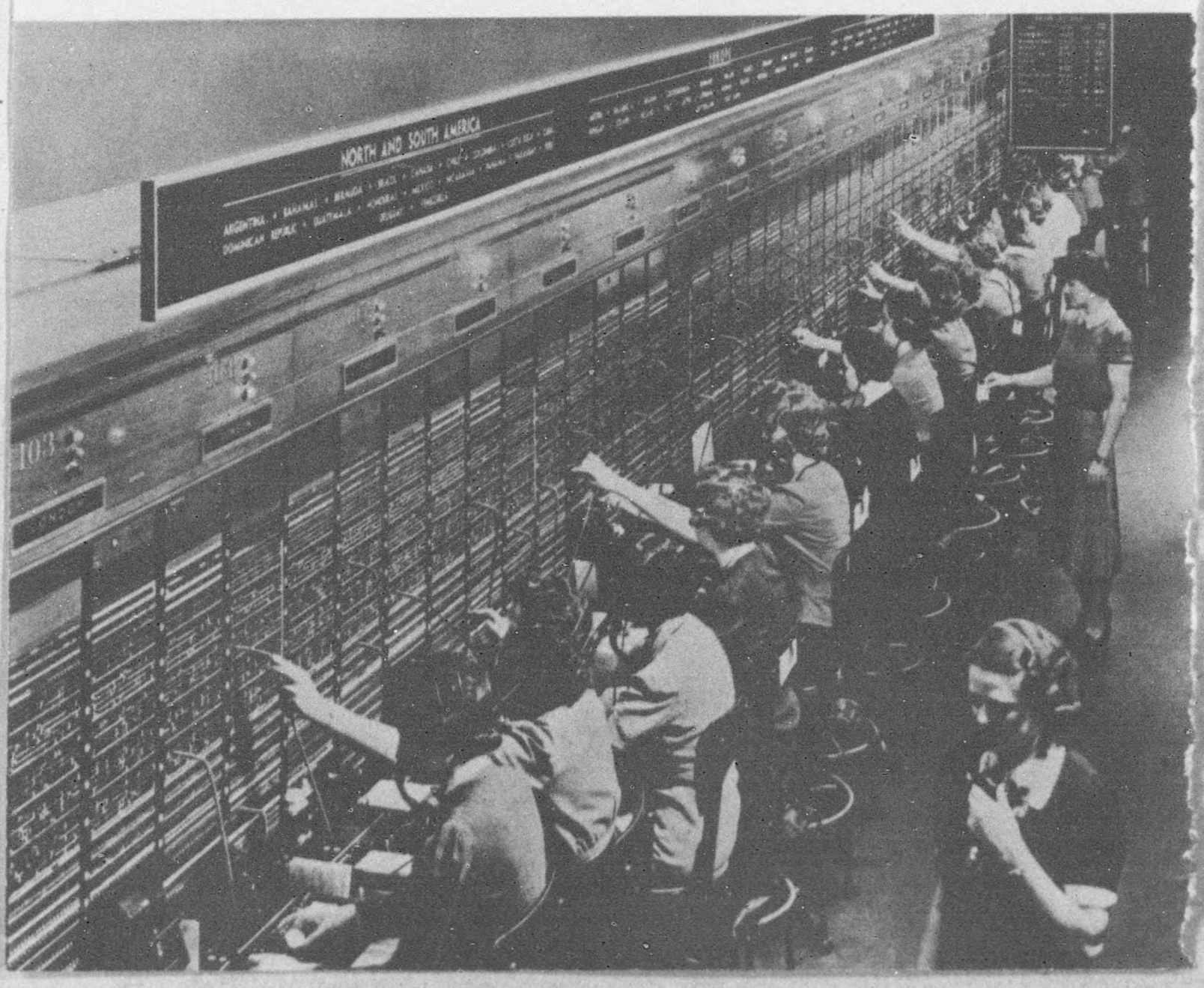
But the boys would "answer back" to the telephone service subscribers. They were even known to hunt up a cranky customer after work and fight it out.

After about 2½ years of this, girl operators were hired, with satisfaction to both subscribers and the company. Before long, girls had practically supplanted the boy operators. By 1900 women were 80 percent of the operators; by 1940, 95 percent.

The common battery switchboard was introduced into the telephone industry around 1900. It cut down considerably the time it took an operator to put through individual calls. But more and more people had telephones installed in their homes. Even more important, businesses adopted the telephone to speed up their lively, expanding activities. So that, in spite of the greater number of calls each operator could handle, more operators had to be hired to take care of the work.

The high *rates* of increase in the number of telephone operators came before 1920. From 1920 to 1930 the rate of increase slackened. The dial system for local calls and other technological improvements were installed, still further increasing the number of calls one girl could handle. But more and more telephones were put into use, and the actual number of operators continued to grow, if somewhat more slowly.

TELEPHONE OPERATORS–OVERSEAS SWITCHBOARD



But during the depression of the 1930's, following the 1929 stock market crash, the number of telephone customers dropped off. To cut down expenses, the telephone companies introduced still further labor-saving devices and employed fewer workers. Even in 1940, after business conditions had improved, there were fewer telephone operators than there had been in 1930.

The dial system is already in use, in a few cities, for long distance telephoning. It will be extended to other cities. And this will mean a still further cut in the number of operators needed. However, an occupation that offers jobs to nearly 200,000 women is an important one to consider.

The development of the telegraph dates back to the 1840's. It, too, opened up new fields for men and women. The opportunities for women telegraph operators, however, were not nearly so great as for telephone operators, and between 1930 and 1940 their numbers fell off at an even greater rate than those of telephone operators.

The radio industry did not really get under way until the 1920's, and women have not been a sizable group among the radio operators.

Taking all operators together—telegraph, telephone, and radio—the number of women among them grew from about 300 in 1870 to about 246,600 in 1930 and dropped to 205,600 in 1940. Whatever the 1950 census tells us of a rise or fall in their numbers since then, it is certain that the number of jobs women hold in this field will continue to be significant.

ATTENDANTS IN DOCTORS' AND DENTISTS' OFFICES

Nowadays the girl who is a doctor's or dentist's assistant does some of the things he used to do for himself. She sterilizes and lays out the instruments he is going to use, prepares the patient for examination or treatment, prepares the materials and equipment the doctor calls for during the treatment, keeps the patient comfortable, and may help in the laboratory work. These are the duties which make her job different from that of other types of office assistants. But like the other assistants, she also keeps the records and books, handles the telephone, makes appointments.

We do not know how many girls were doctors' or dentists' attendants before 1910, for that was the first year the census made a count of them separate from girls in somewhat similar kinds of work. That year the census counted 5,000. By 1920 there were twice as many, and by 1930 twice as many again.

Between 1930 and 1940 the number of attendants did not increase at nearly so fast a rate—only by a little over one-fifth. This may have been because, during the depression years, doctors and dentists were less able to afford the services of an assistant. It is also true, though, that those attendants who were nurses may that year have been counted by the census with trained nurses rather than with the other attendants.

840888 O - 50 - 4

In any case, it is likely that the tendency of doctors to specialize more and more, and their consequent need to keep more elaborate records, means more assistants will be hired in a period when doctors and dentists can afford them. Many doctors and dentists, who had had no assistant before the war, became used to assistants' service in the Army or Navy, and were not inclined to do without it on returning to civilian life. Because of the great shortage of doctors, too, many have hired assistants in order to be free themselves to take care of as many patients as possible.

The attendant's job is one that is related to the stenographer's, typist's, and secretary's job, to which women were found to be particularly adapted, and it is related also to the job of caring for the sick in the home, which has always been a woman's job. So it is not strange that in 1910 you would have found that 4 out of 5 attendants were girls or women, and that, in 1940, 19 out of 20 were—almost 30,000 women in all in 1940.

AGENTS AND COLLECTORS

Seventeen women agents, collectors, or credit "men" were counted by the census in 1870. In 1940 it counted almost 23,500, but by then the group included agents, credit men, purchasing agents and buyers, county agents and farm demonstrators, and bill and account collectors. For as new types of jobs develop, the people in them must be counted in *some* group, at least until there are enough of them so that the Census feels the time has come to set up a separate classification for them, as it did in 1910 for doctors' and dentists' office attendants.

County agent and farm demonstrator jobs, for instance, developed fairly recently, after farming and home economics came to be regarded as practical sciences and to be taught in universities. The job of the agents and demonstrators, who are frequently graduates of farm and home economics courses, is to see that information and instruction on improved methods of farming and running a farm home get to the people in rural areas. The agents give practical demonstrations of equipment and tools or of new, improved ways of doing things. They talk these things over with the farmer and his wife. Sometimes they get groups of farmers and farm women together, to talk to them, or to get them to discuss a problem together. They often organize clubs for young people, to get them started in the right direction on farm, farm home, and community work.

A considerable number of these county agent and demonstrator jobs are held by women—29 out of every 100 in 1930, and 43 out of every 100 in 1940. Here again the work is related to the work women did in pioneer days in or around the home.

But these county agents and demonstrators are only a small portion of the agents, credit men, purchasing agents and buyers, bill and account collectors. Taking all these workers together—only 8 in 100 were women in 1930; in 1940, 11 in 100.

MESSENGERS AND ERRAND AND OFFICE GIRLS

Workers called "messengers and errand and office boys and girls" never included many girls—only 46 in 1870; and only 8,500, the largest number ever counted, in 1920. By 1940, 5,000 fewer were counted, in part, perhaps, because girls less than 14 years old were not included. (The census up to that time had been counting all workers 10 years of age or over, but that year began to count only those 14 years old or over.) At any rate, only 1 out of every 25 messengers and errand and office "boys" was a girl in 1940.

The number of girls among telegraph messengers was especially small—less than 1 in 50 in 1940. Some States do not permit girls under 21 to work delivering telegrams or personal messages. The undesirability of the work for young girls has without doubt limited the number who are now in it.

MAIL CARRIERS

Only 1 in every 100 mail carriers in 1940 was a woman. Altogether we had 1,500 women mail carriers then. In 1870, when the postal system of course was an infant compared to the giant it is now, only 5 women were mail carriers. It is likely that most women mail carriers are working in rural districts, where there are not nearly so many kinds of jobs to choose among as in towns and cities. Also, the rural mail carrier's job has an advantage over the city mail carrier's: mail is delivered by car, instead of on foot in a heavy pouch slung over the back.

MESSENGERS

WORKERS IN SALES JOBS

The age we are living in is called many things, among them "The Distribution Age." It is called that because of the tremendous number of businesses, kinds of jobs, and people involved in getting goods from the point where they are grown or made into the hands of the people who eat or use them. Nearly 3 million people were needed for the job in 1940, to work as salesmen and saleswomen, buyers, sales agents, canvassers, garage and filling station attendants, clerks in stores. Seventy years earlier, fewer than a quarter of a million (of whom 9,000 were women) had handled it. In the 70 years between 1870 and 1940 women grew in number to over 850,000. From 1 for every 4,411 persons in the United States in 1870 women in selling jobs came by 1940 to be 1 for every 154 persons.

New and varied ways of distributing goods began to develop shortly after the Civil War. Department stores came into being, mail order houses, dry goods and grocery chain stores. All provided various kinds of selling jobs for women. The most flourishing period—the one in which the greatest number of women took up the work—was 1920 to 1930. The depression years that followed slowed them up.

SALESGIRLS

Out of all the various types of selling jobs they might have chosen, 9 out of 10 women who had such jobs in 1940 had picked the saleswoman or the store clerk job. Only about 5 out of 10 men in selling jobs made this choice, preferring other kinds of selling jobs.

Before 1900 the producers had sold their products to wholesalers and jobbers, "middlemen," who in turn sold the products to the stores in which people bought the food and goods. After 1900 still another way of distributing goods developed, and new sales "techniques." The producers hired their own traveling salesmen and sales agents, to sell the products directly to the stores or "outlets." The men did very well for themselves in these selling jobs; only 1 in 50 of the jobs was held by a woman.

Some sales techniques may be fairly new, but not the demonstrators'. They were using their's in 1870, explaining the usefulness and value of the product to possible buyers and showing how to operate it. And this field belonged primarily to women. From not quite 3 in 5 in 1870 they came to be over 4 in 5 of all demonstrators in 1940. In numbers they grew from about 500 to 8,700.

Taking all the people in all the selling jobs together—salesmen, saleswomen, buyers, sales agents, canvassers, garage and filling station attendants, clerks in stores—

4 in 100 were women in 1870
8 in 100 were women in 1880
15 in 100 were women in 1890
21 in 100 were women in 1900
25 in 100 were women in 1910
30 in 100 were women in 1920
27 in 100 were women in 1930
29 in 100 were women in 1940

Older women—women of 45 or more—fare well in the store clerks', saleswomen's, and demonstrators' jobs, better than, for instance, in office white-collar jobs. Married women fare even better—about two-fifths of the women store clerks, saleswomen, and demonstrators in 1940 were married.

HUCKSTERS AND PEDDLERS

In pioneer days it was mainly the hucksters and peddlers who distributed goods. We see and hear them less and less (except the Good Humor man, of course). They are no longer very significant to our economy. But there were still almost 57,000 of them—men and women—in 1940, about the same number there had been in 1880. About 2,500 of them were women in 1940 (as in 1880) and about 1,500 were in 1870. Women were always only about 3 or 4 of every 100 hucksters and peddlers.

INSURANCE AGENTS AND BROKERS

Selling insurance has provided a fairly small but a growing number of jobs for women. As our population has increased, naturally the opportunities for selling life insurance has. Another factor that has led more and more men and women to insure their lives is the insecurity of their dependents under a money economy. The farm homes that in earlier days always could make room for another relative, particularly one who could help out with the work, have become fewer and fewer. A man or woman's survivors are now dependent on a money income. Life insurance is a type of saving and to a large number of people has become more attractive than some other kinds of saving.

But it is only one type of insurance, although it has taken various forms and has been put to various uses. Also growing fields are automobile, fire, health, and accident insurance.

Women have definitely proved their ability to sell insurance. Decade by decade since 1910 the proportion they are of all insurance agents has been growing. It would seem that they would do particularly well if they specialized in selling to business and professional women, say to teachers, and to other women who are earning their own living.

Maturity is an advantage in the work, and older women therefore find opportunities good in this field. The median age of women insurance agents was 44½ years in 1940 (half were under, half over 44½ years old).

The first year the Census counted insurance agents as workers distinct from other groups was 1910, and that year it found fewer than 2,500 women. In 1940 it found over 13,000.

REAL ESTATE AGENTS

In selling and managing real estate women have done even better than in selling insurance, for there were 43,000 in the field in 1940, as agents, or managers, or building superintendents—14 times as many as in 1910. Enterprising women of maturity and judgment seem to be particularly likely to succeed, for the median age of women selling real estate in 1940 was 49.

Women, what is more, are becoming a larger proportion of all workers in the field. Only 2 in 100 in 1910, they came, 10 years later, to be 6 in 100; 13 in 100 after 10 years more; and finally 20 in 100 in 1940.

NEWSBOYS

Before 1940 there were never as many as 500 girls working as newsboys, and in 1940 only 1,600—a little over 1 in 50 of all newsboys. The fact that the work, like that of telegraph messengers, is not considered desirable for girls, has probably kept their numbers low.

CHAPTER THREE

Women Manual Workers

THE MANUAL WORKERS are the people we depend on to bake our bread, to can, preserve, and pack our fruits and vegetables, meats and fish, to make our candy and cigarettes, to weave and dye the cloth we wear or use in our homes, to sew our clothes, draperies, linens, to make the paper we use for writing and printing, for wrapping and boxes, to make our books, magazines, and newspapers, our shoes, leather, glass, pottery, chemicals, electrical machinery and appliances, clocks, watches, jewelry, our automobiles and railway cars—the million-and-one things that are necessities, the thousand-and-one that are luxuries. Almost 2 million of these people, who are indispensable to our daily and hourly living, were women in 1940. They helped build planes and ships and guns during the war, as well as civilian goods that had been made by men who had gone to war. (In 1947, the latest date for which we have figures for women in factories, they were estimated to be over 3 million.)

These manual workers use all degrees of skill, they have all degrees of responsibility. The jobs of many call for only a few simple motions repeated endlessly. Other jobs, like those of the riveter and welder, the engine lathe operator, the precision inspector who makes use of very fine measuring tools, the operator of a screw, milling, or grinding machine—all jobs in which women distinguished themselves during the war and in which women still work—these require great skill. The model maker uses ingenuity and initiative in the materials and methods she chooses in constructing a model. The watchmaker must undergo an apprentice-ship and take an examination before she can qualify. The variety of skilled and semiskilled manual jobs is endless. They cannot all be listed.

So skilled are some of the manual jobs, and so mechanical are some of the white-collar jobs becoming, that the once popular idea that office jobs take brains and factory jobs take none no longer holds water.

In 1870 three-fourths of the women manual workers had jobs as tailors, dressmakers, and seamstresses outside of factories; making clothes and accessories in factories; or working in cotton mills. By 1940 only less than half were in those jobs. The rest were working on all the many

other types of manufacturing jobs, and some on construction work, others as chauffeurs and taxi drivers, some on subways, streetcars, and railroads, a few helping maintain telephone and telegraph lines, even a few in lumbering. One of the most interesting developments was that though only 1 in 50 of the women manual workers had worked in the "durable goods industries" in 1870—the industries that turn out iron, steel, and other metal products, finished lumber and furniture, and glass, clay, pottery, and stone products—by 1940, 1 in 10 of the women were here (and in 1947, 1 in 4).

FOOD WORKERS

Cooking, baking, and preserving were major activities in every household in the 1870's. Most of the food on family tables the country over appeared there as the result of unpaid work—the work of men who grew it, the work of women who prepared it. But both men and women also prepared food in factories for pay. A few made cheese, a few candy, some refined sugar, some others packed meat. Most, however, were millers and bakers. For the millers and bakers had had a head start—in the local grist mills of pre-Revolutionary days, in merchant flour mills, and in bakeries that made hardtack for ships' crews. (The shells of grist mills built by George Washington still stand in the vicinity of the Capital.)

During the 1870's the roller process and other improvements were adopted in flour mills, and in the seventies and eighties people also learned how to refrigerate, preserve, and can meat. These new methods of preparing and keeping food gave a tremendous push to commercial food production. At the same time more and more people were leaving the country for the cities. As they did, the need for factory-produced foods grew. And the fact that such foods were to be had made it easier for women to take up paid work outside the home.

The result of all this was that the number of women workers in food production grew from 2,500 in 1870 to over 150,000 in 1940 (and to over 250,000 in 1947).

Women were continuing customary household activities when they followed food preparation into the factories. In 1870 only 3 in 100 of the workers were women, but by 1940 (and 1947), 24 in 100. Clearly, however, men are taking a greater part in preparing food these days than they did before the work moved from the kitchen into the factory.

Meeting an average group of 25 women food workers in 1940, you would have found that, roughly, 6 worked in fruit, vegetable, and sea food canneries, 6 in candy factories, 6 in bakeries, 4 in meat packing houses, 2 in grain mills and other food factories, 1 in a dairy.

Canners and Preservers

The food industries tend to be seasonal, that is, are not apt to supply work the whole year round. This is particularly true of canning and

CANNERS—MAKING TOMATO JUICE

preserving fruits, vegetables, and sea food. They can be handled only when they are in season, and only near where they grow. Women who come into the factories in the canning season are mainly women living nearby.

Preserving fish and oysters was the industry's main activity before the Civil War. It was not then a very large industry. But by 1870 some of the fish packing houses had made efforts to keep going the better part of the year—packing fish in the winter and preserving fruits and vegetables in the summer. The industry was helped to grow by machinery for getting the fish, fruits, and vegetables ready, by using better ways of handling them during cooking and preserving, and by machinery for sealing the cans.

After 1900 came more changes that affected women's work. The sanitary, sterilized can was introduced. Machines were invented for vining and shelling peas, for husking, cutting, and silking corn, and for grading fruit and vegetables for size. The conveyor-belt system was adopted. These changes meant that 5 women, say, could get out 1,000 cans of

840888 O - 50 - 5

peas or corn, peaches or plums, when before it had taken 10. But so great did the industry grow that more, not fewer, women had to be hired. Where 5,500 women had been needed in 1910, 37,500 were needed in 1940. Quick freezing, a fairly new process that has put almost garden fresh fruits and vegetables on our tables, has given even greater impetus to the industry.

Confectionery Workers

Making candy and confections is also a seasonal industry. It employs many women the year round but the greatest number in the fall, before the big Christmas demand for candy. Women are particularly good at many of the candy-making jobs, some of which take great skill.

There is the hand dipper, for instance, employed only on expensive, hand-dipped chocolates, who must be quick, deft, and knowledgeable. She works with the candy centers and a small vat of melted chocolate or other icing material. Sometimes she herself prepares the chocolate. She must regulate its temperature, by a switch or valve attached to the vat, to keep the chocolate at the exactly right degree of fluidity. She drops the candy center into the vat of chocolate and then—the really tricky part of her work—with her fingers lifts it swiftly out of the chocolate,

CRACKER PACKERS

deftly twists or twirls it to give it a smooth, uniform coating, and strokes on it a decorative, identifying mark that tells what the center is made of. She may put a nut, cherry, or other garnish on top. Sometimes she uses a fork to lift the candy center out of the melted chocolate and to finish the surface, but then she is called a "fork dipper."

The hand decorator—sometimes called "ornamentor," or simply, "decorator"—also has a job requiring a certain amount of skill. Girls who have decorated cakes at home may know the equipment she uses—a bag, with a small nozzle, from which she squeezes the decorating material. On her deftness and art in moving the bag depends her success in decorating the candy—and, in part, its price.

The corder, who is also called "hand decorator," "streaker," "stringer," or "stroker," finishes the tops of candies that have already been coated in an enrobing machine. She takes a small amount of melted chocolate or other coating material between her fingers and, as the candies emerge from the enrober on a conveyor belt, strokes a mark on them, usually a diagonal or curved line, so that the candies can be identified and will look as though they had been hand-dipped.

Other skilled jobs in the candy industry, as well as less skilled ones, provide work for many women. The Census counted a little over 20,000 in the industry in 1910, and about 35,000 in 1940. It found that women were about three-fifths of all the workers in 1910, 1920, 1930, and 1940. (In 1947, they still were.)

Meat Packers

Not many women have worked at slaughtering and dressing meat—once the chief activity of the meat products industry. Jobs for women came in fairly recent times with the development of meat byproducts and specialties. They worked for the most part in the processing departments, where they did such jobs as trim meat, tie sausages, weigh and pack meat products, package lard. Particularly as higher standards of purity were adopted for meat products, and consumers began to feel safe in using them, jobs for women increased—from about 4,000 in 1910 to 24,000 in 1940. From 3 in 50 of all the workers, women came in those 30 years to be 9 in 50. (By 1947 they were 10 in 50.)

Baked Foods Workers

Bread, except that for ships' crews and travelers, all used to be made at home by women. Now it is almost all made commercially, chiefly by men, who also make most of the cakes and pies. The work is heavy and much of it is done at night. Women's share in this work is apt to be on the lighter jobs of finishing, packing, and wrapping.

Many women work with cookies, biscuits, and crackers. These were made at first by hand, but after 1840 by machinery. The first great boost

to the industry came through the demand for hardtack during the Civil War. Then, about 1900, a number of factories were merged into one. It made greater use of machinery, turned out a greater variety of cookies, crackers, and biscuits, and began to put them up in packages. Later companies followed suit.

Packing, wrapping, and labeling opened up new jobs for women. In 1910 about 7,000 women manual workers had jobs in the bakery industry; in 1940, three times as many. But their proportion to all manual workers—men and women—in baked products did not change much, for, 8 in 20 in 1910, they had increased only to 9 in 20 of these workers by 1940.

Dairy Workers

During the last half of the 1800's creameries, condenseries, and cheese factories began to take over the dairy farmer's job of processing milk and cream and of converting them into butter, cheese, condensed milk, and, still later, into ice cream. These new types of dairies had jobs for about 600 women in 1910, for about 6,500 in 1940—not a great number but a fast increasing one. These women were about 1 in 25 of all the workers in 1910 and about 3 in 25 in 1940.

Grain Mill and Other Food Workers

The food these workers produce include flour and sugar, cereals and breakfast foods, baking powder, macaroni, and the like. In 1910, 6,250 of the workers were women; in 1940, 14,600. Among every 100 workers—men and women—13 were women in 1910, 16 were women in 1940.

BEVERAGE WORKERS

The most spectacular thing that happened to women beverage workers was the Prohibition Act. Not a great many women had worked in the field—only 19 in 1870, and only 2,300 more by 1910.

Prohibition went into effect in January 1920, the year the next census was taken, and the number of women workers dropped to 900. By 1930, the number had gone up again, but by less than 70.

In 1933 the Prohibition Act was repealed, and the soft drink had come into great favor. By 1940, the number of women needed in the beverage industry had increased almost 8 times, to not quite 7,600. Still not a great number, but from one in a thousand of all the workers, women had come to be 11 in 100.

TOBACCO WORKERS

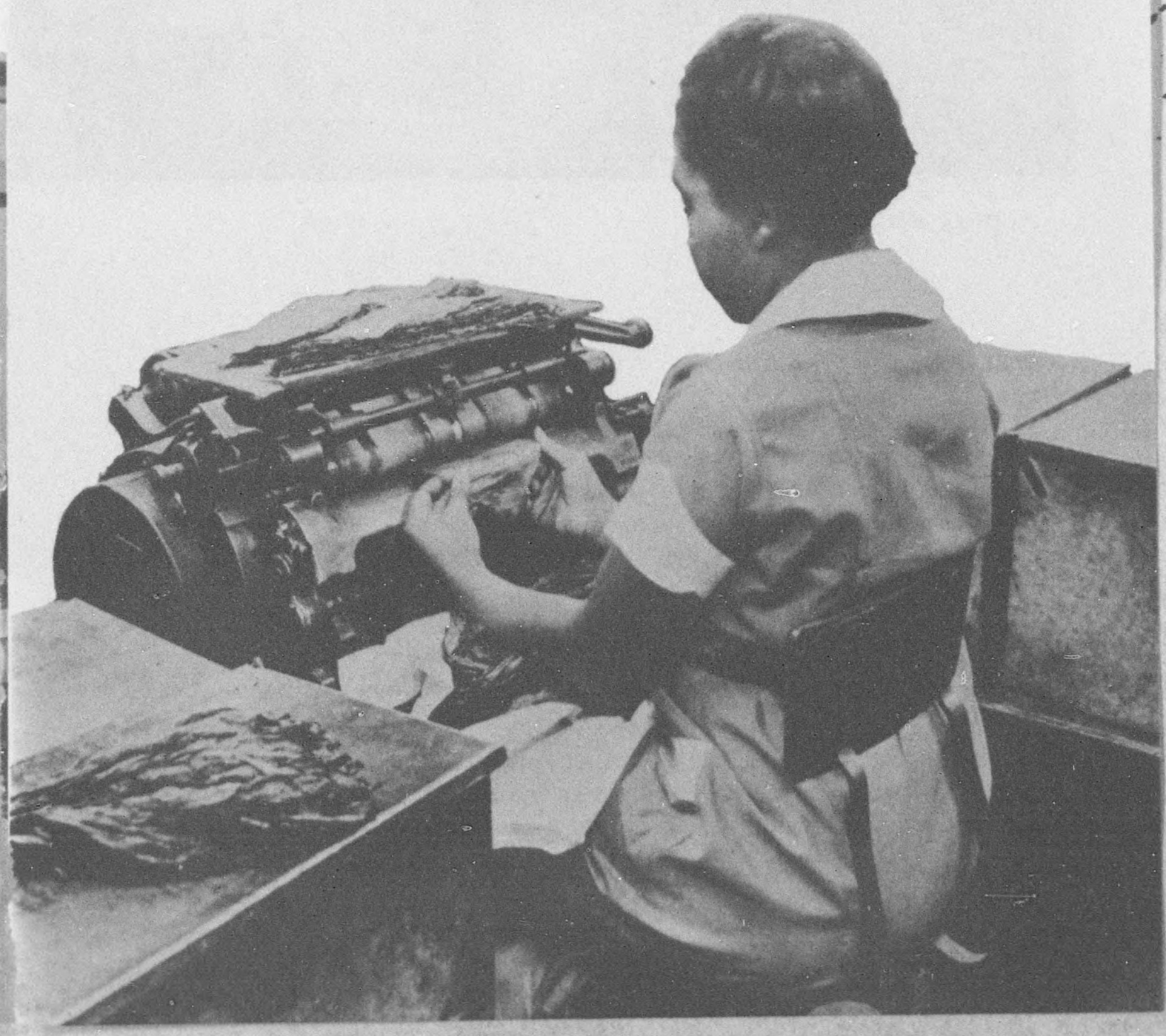
The discriminating smoker in 1910 had to have an "all-hand-made, long-filler cigar." Today a machine-made cigar gives him the same contentment. Cigarettes, hand rolled until 1880, now are the product of

completely automatic machines. (The machines themselves of course must be tended.)

Tobacco's shift to machinery, which at first deprived large numbers of workers of their jobs, helped eventually to bring about the hiring of many more women tobacco workers. For one thing, women were considered able to handle the machines. For another, men's unions resisted the coming in of machinery, and women who were not organized were hired instead.

The 4,300 women who were tobacco workers in 1870 were one-tenth of all tobacco workers then. By 1920 they had almost reached the 99,000 mark and were a good bit over half the workers. Men's growing preference for cigarettes as well as the fact that women became cigarette smokers helped the tobacco industry grow. But machinery also continued to improve, and with it the individual worker's output. After 1920 the number of women in the industry fell to 61,000 by 1940, but they were now more than three-fifths of all the workers (as they were in 1947).

WORKER MACHINE-STRIPPING TOBACCO



CIGAR PACKERS

TEXTILE WORKERS

The typewriter opened the doors of offices to women. Spinning machinery and the power loom threw wide the doors of cotton mills. They welcomed, not only women, but little children in. The general public, and particularly the employers, approved, for the women and children would be kept from idleness; their work would add to the wealth of the country.

By 1870 over 104,000 women and girls had entered textile mills; by 1940, nearly half a million (by 1947, well over half a million). They had fanned out from the cotton and woolen mills into silk and rayon mills, knit good factories, factories that dye and finish textiles, factories that make carpets and rugs and still other factories that make textile products such as lace, oilcloth, rope, and twine. Women were consistently between 4 and 5 out of every 10 of all textile manual workers.

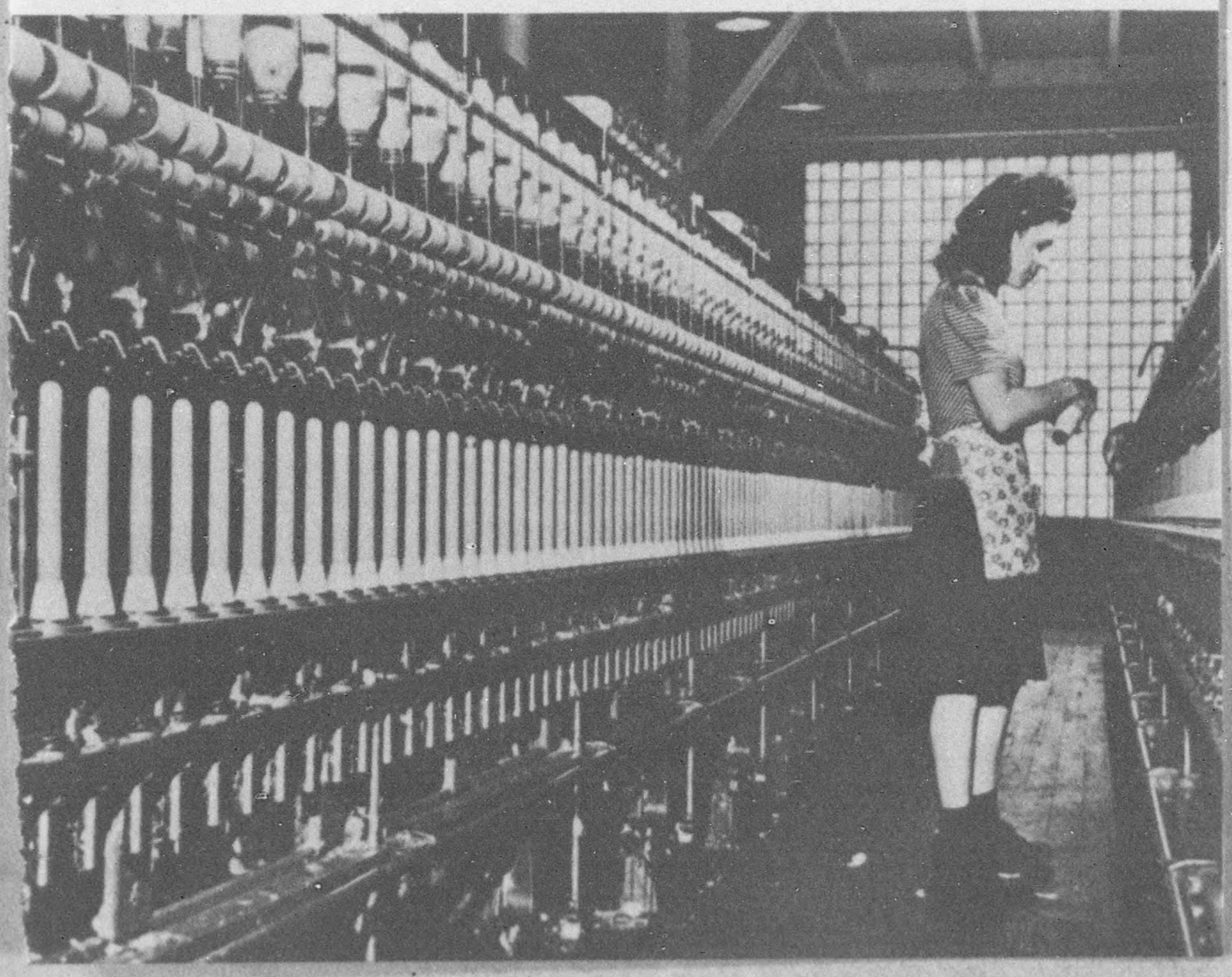
Cotton Workers

Spinning wheels beside the fireplace, long our symbol of home, were relegated to the attic when ring spinners in factories became the tools by which the carded fibers were spun into thread, ultimately to be woven into cloth. The spinning wheel had been run by women; so were the bulk of the ring spinners in the first cotton mills. After the 1840's men began to replace women as spinners, although ring spinning still gives employment to great many women.

Weaving, on the other hand, began as a man's job in the first mills. When power-driven looms came in to make the work lighter, however, when spinning machinery was producing more yarn than there were weavers to weave it, women were drawn into the work. During the 1850's weaving was considered a woman's job. Then, however, weaving machinery became constantly heavier and was run at greater and greater speeds. This, and the fact that many male immigrants were looking for jobs, led to women weavers being replaced by men again. From about 6 in 10 of all cotton workers in 1870, women came to be about 4 in 10 in 1940 (as they still were in 1947).

Children worked in the mills almost from the first days cotton milling machines were invented and installed. The children's learning how to

SPINNER IN A COTTON THREAD MILL



SEAMLESS HOSIERY LOOPER

run them was thought good for the community. Children less than 10 years old were working in southern mills as late as the 1900's, both as "helpers" and as regular workers on the pay rolls.

As people began to realize that work in the cotton mills was not good for either the health or the welfare of children, the industry decided to rely less heavily on their labor. Several things helped in bringing the industry to this decision. Foremost were child labor and compulsory education laws. Then changes in the machines made it difficult to use children to run them. Finally, minimum-wage laws made it illegal to employ anyone at wage rates below the minimum set by the laws, and it no longer paid to employ children when adults could be hired for the same money.

The first children to be helped were the youngest. In 1910, 5,130 girl workers 10 to 13 years old worked in the mills; in 1930, 107. Gradually older children were helped too. The 30,000 girls under 18 in the mills in 1910 had by 1940 come to be less than 2,500, and not many of these were under 16.

On the other hand, since 1920, women 20 to 44 years old in the mills have increased greatly in number and in the proportion they are of all the women in the mills. The proportion of those over 45 has increased too.

The proportion who are married women is also very great—two-thirds—in part, no doubt, a survival from the earliest days of cotton milling, when whole families worked in the mills.

Knit Goods Workers

Long after making cotton cloth had been turned over to the factories, knitting stockings was still a home industry (except in Pennsylvania). It was still chiefly women's work when factory-made stockings took the place of home-made ones. Women also worked in mills that knitted underwear, sweaters, caps, gloves, dresses.

After the Civil War people began to want to use factory-knit goods much more than they had before. Improvements in knitting machinery made it possible to meet their demands. The industry flourished, particularly after full-fashioned hosiery machinery was introduced in the eighties. More and more women were employed.

Women totaled 2,000 (better than half of all the workers) in 1870. By 1900 they had multiplied 17 times and were three-fourths of the workers. Then they began to give ground to men, particularly after 1920; in 1930 and 1940 they were only about two-thirds of all the workers.

It was after 1920 that full-fashioned hosiery began to be made and bought in great quantity. Women probably began to lose some of their lead because men were given most of the skilled jobs in this section of the industry. So great was the production of full-fashioned hosiery, however, that, even so, more women had come to work in the knit goods industry—125,000 by 1940.

Men do not have all the skilled jobs in the full-fashioned hosiery mills. The topper, for instance, who transfers the legs of stockings to foot-knitting machinery, has a highly skilled job, and is usually a woman. So is the looper, whose job of joining the two parts of the toe and the lower parts of the heel is equally skilled.

Wool and Worsted Workers

Newer types of textiles have to some extent taken the place of woolen and worsted materials. This had a serious effect on women working in such mills. Between 1920 and 1930 their number dropped from 64,000 to 49,000. "Modernization" of the industry, which made fewer workers necessary for a given amount of output, was in part the cause, even though modernization brought about some new kinds of jobs. (An example is the drop-wire girl's job, not a very skilled one. She places a drop wire on each warp thread, by hand, at the back of the loom, so that when a thread breaks the drop wire will fall and stop the machine.)

Exact figures for woolen and worsted workers separately from other workers are available only from 1910 on. Since then, women have become fewer relative to men, but were still more than 2 out of every 5 workers in 1940 (and in 1947) and had again passed the 61,000 mark.

840888 O - 50 - 6

Silk and Rayon Workers

Silk and rayon have become more and more important as wool and cotton, once the only fabrics in general use, have become less so.

Before 1910 the silk and rayon industry was almost entirely a silk industry. Rayon, rather poor material when first put on the market in about 1900, through great improvements made after 1920 won deserved popularity. By 1940 so many silk and cotton mills had shifted to rayon and so many new rayon mills had been built that it was now "the silk and rayon industry."

Women were the mainstay of the silk culture and weaving industry in colonial times. Bounties paid then, to stimulate the silk industry, were often paid to women. However, silk culture never became a highly important industry. Silk spinning and weaving did, and employed many women.

Just as in the cotton industry, developments in the silk industry brought about shifts of jobs from men to women and from women to men. Hand looms for weaving broad silk in 1870 were operated by men. Then power looms came in, and women took over in large numbers. Warping in 1870, on the other hand, was completely woman's work, but the horizontal warping mill came to replace the earlier type, and by 1910 men were almost exclusively the warpers. On ribbon weaving, it was the other way around again: men had customarily run the ribbon looms, but when, about 1900, high-speed looms came in, women took over most of the work.

From the low level of 2,300 workers in 1870, women came to be 75,700 in 1930, but dropped back to 48,200 by 1940. From seven-tenths of the workers in 1870, they came in 1940 to be only half the workers (and were still only a half in 1947).

Carpet and Rug Makers

The rapid rise in the standards of living in the United States was aptly illustrated by the clamor for carpets and rugs. The industry complied. Between 1870 and 1910, it boomed, helped by technical improvements in carpet making and by the fact that hand weaving in this country was taken over completely by machines.

From 6,000, women came in the same period to be 22,000 of the workers. Then, however, they dropped—to 12,000 in the next 10 years, and since have had their ups and downs. They had pulled up a couple thousand by 1930, but by 1940 had fallen back again to 13,000. Less than a third of the workers in 1870, almost half in 1900, they were nearly two-fifths of all workers in 1940.

Dyers and Textile Finishers

Textile finishing, as a factory industry, dates back to the colonies. Even at that early time, "every community boasted three mills—one for lumber, another for flour, and a third for finishing wool cloth."

Much of the home-produced cloth, just the same, was also dyed at home by the women. They gathered berries, nuts, and oak bark, grew Dyer's Broom and woad in their gardens, and made their own dyes. A woman, in fact—Eliza Lucas Pinckney—manager of her father's South Carolina plantation, introduced indigo as a crop to this country.

Colors and patterns, lovely though some of them were, were limited when dyeing was a home industry. As textiles came to be made in factories, almost every hue and pattern under the sun became possible, and fashion and style now rule here also.

Dyeing, printing, bleaching, and other textile finishing work was a well-established commercial industry by 1870. It employed 1,300 women, who were about one-seventh of all the workers. Both their number and the proportion they were of all workers see-sawed after that. By 1940 they reached the highest number ever—just under 7,000, but they were only one-eighth of all the workers.

CLOTHING WORKERS

One of the most important tasks women and girls had in Revolutionary days was making clothes for all the members of the family. Three-quarters of a million women carried on the work in 1940, but in a factory. (By 1947 they were four-fifths of a million.)

What brought on the change was the invention of the sewing machine in 1846 and the fact that standard sizes were developed when uniforms had to be made for the soldiers of the Civil War.

From an industry limited before 1830 to making clothes for sailors in port, the men's clothing industry had grown by 1870 to a point where "the mass of the male population of the United States was clad in ready-made clothing."

The cloak, usually made by a mantua maker in the Colonies, was the only woman's garment manufactured in any quantity by factories in 1870. By 1900, however, women's suits, lingerie, shirtwaists, had gone into the factory too.

More than any other manual work, making clothes still belongs to women. The three-quarter million women clothing workers in 1940 were the largest group of women in all manufacturing. They outnumbered the men 3 to 1—as they had, in fact, on an average, since 1870. At times they outnumbered the men 4 to 1. At others, men encroached on their 3 to 1 lead, as when such jobs as cutting, pressing, and basting were assigned to men, and as when various waves of immigration made both experienced and highly skilled male workers available. However, men in general do not have women's deftness and skill in placing and moving a garment about on the machine—work that is more important than the actual stitching. Women, it seems safe to say, will always do most of the work of clothing all the members of the country's families.

Apparel Workers

Actually there are three subgroups among the women clothing workers: the apparel and accessories workers, the dressmakers, and the tailoresses.

Taking the apparel and accessories workers alone from 1910 on—their numbers increased at an ever faster rate. The proportion they were of all the workers—men and women—also grew, from three-fifths in 1910, to four-fifths in 1940, when they numbered about 550,000. (By 1947, they had reached 800,000.)

APPAREL MAKER–INSPECTING NAVY WHITES