Dressmakers

What the women apparel and accessories workers gained between 1910 and 1940, women in the skilled sewing trades lost. Nearly 400,000 women left dressmaking occupations at the same time that nearly 350,000 additional women were becoming apparel and accessories workers.

Women practically had a monopoly in dressmaking jobs. In apparel factories some of the jobs that complete a garment are men's jobs. What happened in those 30 years, then, was that economic forces were pushing women out of a "women's occupation" into one in which both men and women work.

The rate at which women left dressmaking was less at the end of the 30 years, however, than at the beginning, so that conditions seem to be settling.

Tailoresses

Tailoresses are even more highly skilled than dressmakers. The Census classifies them as craftsmen. They work in coat and suit factories, in tailor shops, in clothing and department stores. Like the dressmakers, they lost ground between 1910 and 1940, not at as rapid an average rate, but they were a much smaller group to begin with, and were losing ground faster at the end of the 30 years than at the beginning. The whole tailoring occupation is, as a matter of fact, losing in importance, but the effect is greater on women than on men tailors.

HAT MAKERS

Long ago in this country the straw and felt hat makers were plying their trade in hand-made hats. (The cloth hat makers and milliners are not included here.) In 1789 a young Massachusetts girl discovered how to bleach and braid meadow grass and make it into bonnets. The felt hat industry is even older, dating back to the hand-made beaver hats of very early Colonial days. Not until 1840 were machines evolved for making hats of felt.

By 1870 the hat industry employed almost 5,000 women, who were nearly one-third of all the workers. By 1910 they had reached 14,000, but after that their numbers fell off, leaving them in 1940 at about the same point they had been in 1870.

WOODWORKERS

Offhand, we do not think of women in jobs as woodworkers, though the energy with which they mend and refinish antiques at home should have tipped us off. They were, to be sure, few in 1870, but every 10-year census count thereafter showed their numbers growing—by leaps in 1910

and 1920. World War I, as wars do, fostered women's employment in unexpected occupations and probably accounts in part for the spurt in the years just before 1920.

Over half the 32,000 women who were woodworkers by 1940 were helping make clothespins, matches, baskets, wooden boxes, and other small, light, standardized items that women can handle or pack with fair ease. Furniture and store fixture factories also had a goodly proportion of the women woodworkers—something under two-fifths of them. One-tenth were working in sawmills—not with a saw—for only one-hundredth were actually sawyers.

Although making furniture began to shift from shop to factory in 1840, not until the work became mechanized and specialized did it offer real opportunities for women. By 1940 almost 12,000 had found jobs in furniture and store-fixture factories. Most, but not all, of these jobs were in upholstery departments, in assembling, and in sanding.

HAT MAKER

WOODWORKER

PAPER MAKERS

Paper formerly was made from rags, as better papers still are, and until 1827 was made by hand in the United States. That year the machine was introduced. Forty years later the process of extracting cellulose from wood for use as a paper base was discovered. Machinery and wood pulp together made it possible to put a low-priced product on the market. Paper became much more widely used and for a far greater variety of purposes.

Just before 1900, for example, the paper box branch of the industry showed a great spurt. Before that time, most articles you purchased were handed you in a paper bag. Now some merchants began to put articles in individual boxes. The custom won such favor that a great demand arose for a large supply of boxes, at reasonable cost. The need fathered the necessary machinery for producing paper boxes cheaply, and the industry was off on its way to the important position it still holds.

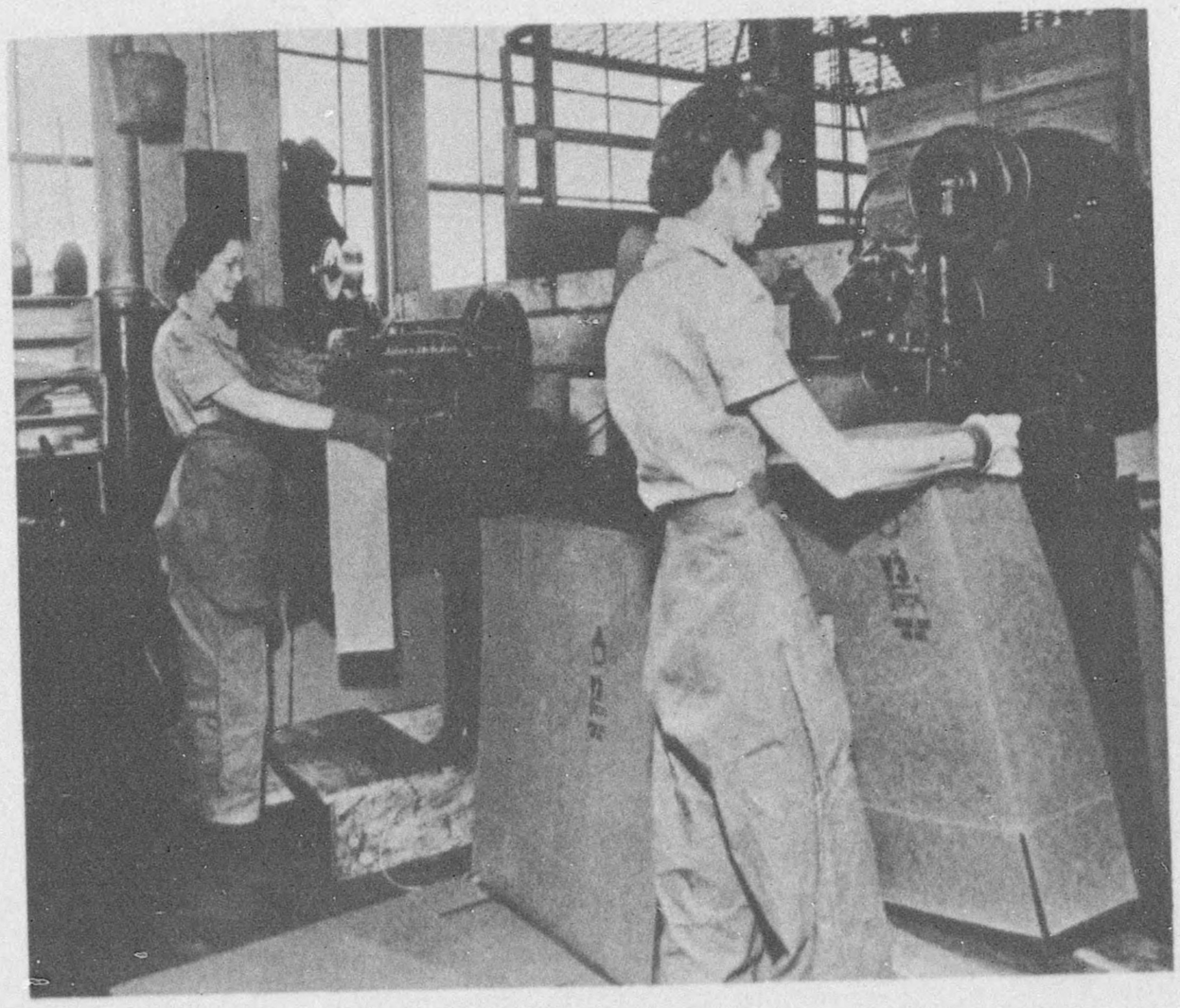
As the paper and paper-box industry flourished, as machinery improved, more women came into this work—an average of 7,000 every 10 years after 1870. From one-third of the workers in 1870, they rose to one-half in 1890 and 1900, and fell back to one-fourth in 1940, although in that time their numbers grew from 6,000 to 56,000. (By 1947 they were estimated to be 90,000.)

The industry really has three branches: The pulp, paper, and paperboard mills are one branch. The factories making paperboard boxes and containers are another. The third is the "miscellaneous pulp and paper products" branch. The first two have usually been the largest fields for women. Not quite so many women have been in the third whose miscellany of products includes envelopes, cards, tags, paper bags, novelties.

PRINTING AND PUBLISHING WORKERS

Forty-three thousand women in 1940 were setting type on linotype and monotype machines in composing rooms; feeding simple presses in press rooms; operating machines and doing most of the table work in

PAPER WORKERS—STITCHING CARTONS



binderies. (By 1947, it was estimated, these 43,000 had become nearly 100,000.)

The compositor and typesetter's job is highly skilled, requiring a 6-year apprenticeship. Nevertheless 8,000 women had served this apprenticeship in 1940 and were composing and setting type. But in 1910 their number had been almost 14,000.

For, in spite of the tremendous volume of printing that is done (so that this is called The Paper Age almost as often as The Machine Age), both men and women compositors, up to 1940 at least, had been becoming fewer, especially women. One in 10 of all the workers in 1910, women were only 1 in 20 in 1940.

Less than a fifth of the women in 1940 were compositors or typesetters. Women pressmen, electrotypers, stereotypers, engravers, photoengravers, or lithographers were far fewer.

The bulk—well over three-fourths of the 43,000 women printing and publishing workers—were "operatives and laborers," chiefly in binderies, in 1940. In fact, except for the journeymen binders who handle complicated machines, most of the workers in binderies are women. They serve a year's apprenticeship, for their work is semiskilled. Some of it is hand work, as in hand folding, hand sewing, pasting in inserts, assembling signatures (sets of pages). Some of the work is done with small machines, as in machine sewing, in gluing fabric reinforcements on signatures, and in feeding machines.

CHEMICAL WORKERS

Women work in a variety of chemical industries. This is nothing new to them. Before the Civil War "the trying kettle, the ash-leach, and the candle-mold continued necessary features of every well-conducted farm." Women had made their own dyes and, when, before 1860, dyes were the most important chemical, a woman played a part by growing and marketing indigo, as we said earlier. A few acids, salts, painters' colors, and medical preparations also were being produced then. The great expansion in the chemical industry did not come until the 20 years before World War I. New processes were discovered then, and byproducts put to use.

From less than 500 of the workers in 1870, women came by 1940 to be 38,000 (and, it is estimated, more than 100,000 by 1947). Most were working in the branch of the chemical industries that make soap, candles, dyes, turpentine, celluloid, fireworks, fuses, cartridges, drugs, and other products too many to list. Many women were also in the branch that turns out products made of rayon and like products. Only a few worked in the paint and varnish, petroleum refining, or petroleum and coal tar products branches. Women's best opportunities have been in the lighter chemical lines, and particularly in finishing and packing jobs.

In the whole chemical industry women were 1 in 10 of all the manual workers in 1940 (but 2 in 10 by 1947).

RUBBER WORKERS

Rubbers and automobile tires brought about the greatest rise in the number of jobs for women in one industry—the rubber products industry—a rise from 2,000 in 1870 to 26,000 in 1940 (and to about an estimated 52,000 in 1947). Rubbers and tires were made possible by Charles Goodyear of New Haven, Conn., and his discovery in 1839, after years of heartaches, headaches, and jeers from his townsmen, of how to heat crude rubber with sulphur (vulcanize it), so that it would keep both shape and elasticity, not melt in hot weather, nor become brittle in cold. The first rubber ever made was the crude rubber invented by Indians of South and Central America, long before Columbus' time, for balls, for shoes, for bottles, for making feathers adhere to the body.

Until the time of the automobile, before about 1910, the chief use made of rubber was for galoshes and other rubber footwear. Before that women had been from one-third to one-half of the workers. Between 1910 and 1920 more women came into the industry than in all the 40 years before.

The speed with which the industry became mechanized after 1920 resulted in still more jobs for women. Many worked in tube building, many in rubber manufacturing. Because of their dexterity they were in demand for making the smaller molded rubber goods items. In all branches of the industry they held jobs in finishing, inspecting, and packing departments.

The opportunities for women seem to be growing, for although men became somewhat fewer after 1920, women made slight gains.

FOOTWEAR WORKERS

Women—and children—became important to the shoe industry in the late 1700's, when shoe uppers were given out to them to be stitched and bound at home. Beginning about 1850, labor saving machines were introduced, the most important of which was the sewing machine. Women then began to come into the factories.

By 1870 the industry had become sizable and employed 10,000 women, though compared to the men they were few—only 1 woman to every 19 men. The women's job was still fitting and stitching shoe uppers. Even after 1900 this was their chief job, though they then began to branch out.

By 1900 shoemaking was no longer a highly skilled handicraft, but a completely mechanized industry. It was in the next 10 years that the greatest number of women came into the shoe factories and repair shops. Their numbers and their proportions have risen steadily since. By 1940 they had reached 102,000 and were 1 in 3 of all the workers.

LEATHER WORKERS

Through 1890 there never had been as many as 300 women workers preparing leather, that is tanning, currying, or finishing it. In the next 10 years, however, the machines in use were improved, and girls and women began to be hired in place of men. Still, it never became a promising field for women. Even in 1940, only 4,500 women were employed in it, and though they had made steady gains, they were then only one-tenth of all the workers (and by 1947, nearly one-eighth).

Women making leather products—pocketbooks, luggage, leather gloves and mittens, for example—in 1940 outnumbered those who worked preparing leather 5 to 1. In fact, women had practically all the many stitching jobs in 1940. Altogether there were nearly 25,000 women making leather products, and they were close to half the workers.

GLASS WORKERS

When one thinks of the early glass industry, the image before one's eyes is that of the glass blower and his skilled, picturesque, hazardous work in the furnace room. He was the symbol of the glass industry until about 1900. His work, like that of the molder and the presser, whose place was also in the furnace rooms, was "man's work." Women's work had remained secondary and chiefly in the finishing, inspecting, and packing rooms, although women had been "painting glass" as early as 1832. Between 1870 and 1900 their numbers rose from 180 to only 2,700.

During World War I a continuous-process method was introduced into the glass industry. That, and the increasing use of machinery, meant that skills like those of the glass blower were no longer very important, and that fewer workers of all kinds were needed. After 1920, in spite of the fact that people used more and more of the three chief types of glass products—containers, windows for buildings and automobiles, and table and kitchen ware—the numbers of both men and women glass workers fell off. The proportion of women increased, however, which meant that women had less of a setback than men. Glassware, like bottles and fruit jars, for example, was made in great quantities, but did not require the individual glass blower's skill. By the new process, automatic equipment blows compressed air into glass molds and moves them on to a conveyor. The conveyor carries them into the lehr (annealing oven) where they are subjected to high heat and slowly cooled. The job of finally taking them off the conveyor, examining, and packing them, is women's work.

After optical and scientific glass began to be made, the opportunities for women grew. When safety glass came in, and particularly after 1930 when nothing but safety glass was permitted in automobiles, women's opportunities became even better, until in 1940 women had 14,000 jobs in the glass industry; and, instead of 1 in 50 of the workers as in 1870, they were now 1 in 5. (By 1947 they were 1 in 4.)

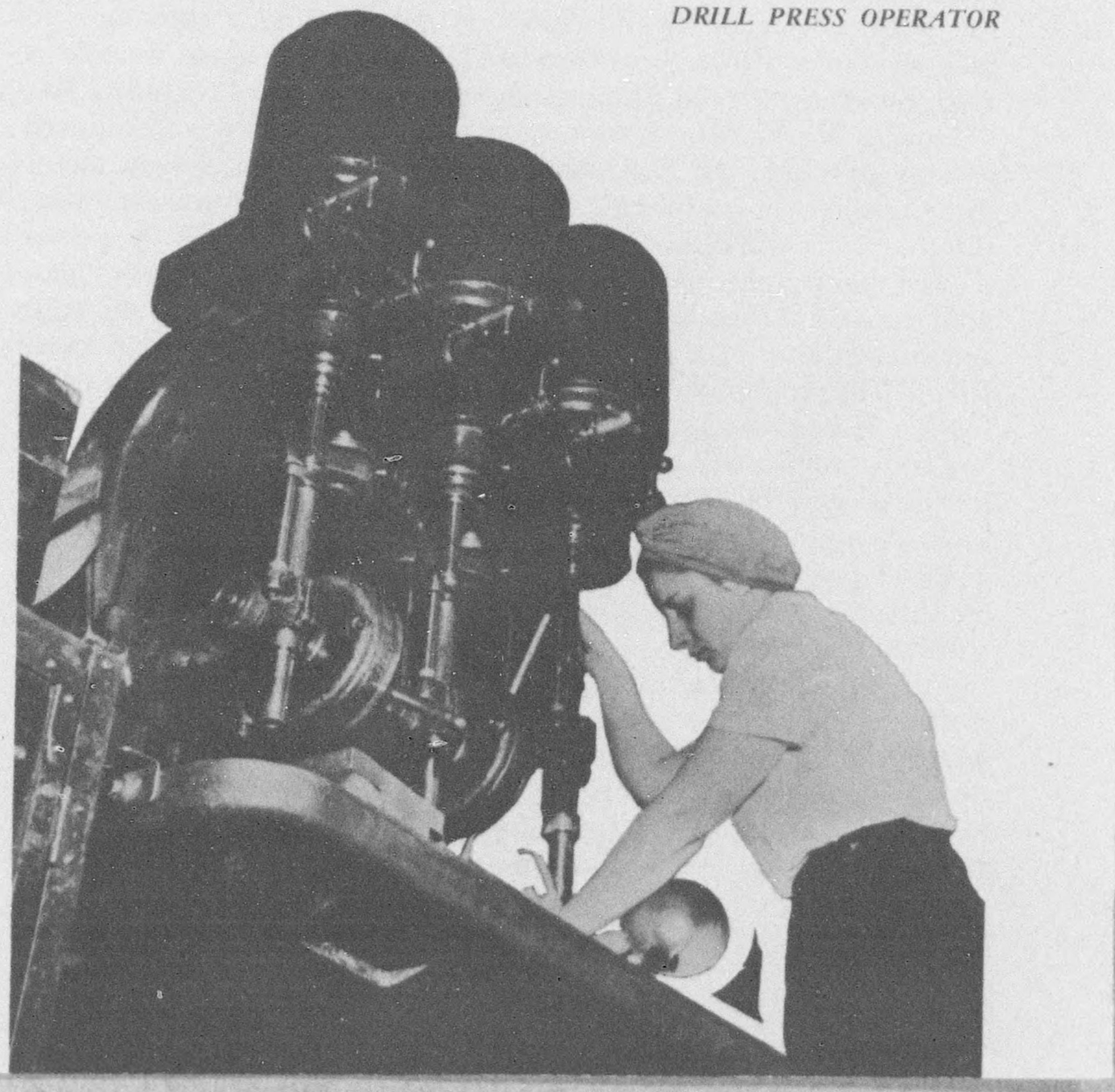
POTTERY WORKERS

These workers make the pottery and porcelain we use in cooking and on our tables, the pottery and porcelain vases and ornaments whose variety has no end. Women were but a handful of the workers in 1870—just over 100, although they had been in the industry many years. By 1940, however, they had reached 10,000.

In general, the heavy, disagreeable, or hazardous industries have not tended to employ many women. Not so pottery, with its dangers from the use of lead in glazes, from breathing in sand particles and contracting silicosis. For by 1940, 10,000 women were working in the industry. However, improvements in working conditions took place during the years women were taking up the work seriously.

In Europe, as well as in this country, women have usually had the finishing jobs—decorating, dipping, grinding, and polishing, though some have done the firing, particularly of small pieces of pottery and porcelain. World War I, which shut us off temporarily from European markets, gave a boost to the home pottery industry. Since then women have "belonged." By 1940 they were almost a third of all the workers. (By 1947, well over a third, in fact, more nearly two-fifths.)

DRILL PRESS OPERATOR



WORKER USING MAGNIFYING GLASS TO MAKE FINAL INSPECTION

STRUCTURAL CLAY WORKERS

These workers, who make brick, tile, and terra cotta, included only 80 women in 1870. Since then, not more than about 2,000 women have ever been in the work at one time. The materials that must be handled are heavy and make it unsuitable for women. At that, they were 1 in 25 of all the workers in 1940.

METAL TRADES WORKERS

Gains made by women during World War I placed 137,000 in the metal trades by 1940. (World War II helped to run the number up to more than 400,000 by 1947, it is estimated.) Many though they were, they still had only a small foothold in this immense industry. Four groups of metal products, in the main, are made with the use of their labor: clocks, jewelry, watches, and silverware; iron and steel products; machinery; automobiles and automobile equipment.

The long-run advances women made (from 5,000 women—1 in 25 of all the workers in 1870, to 2 in 25 of all the workers in 1940) came about, for the most part, through changes inside the industry itself. Special-purpose and combination machine tools were invented; improvements were made in their form and accuracy; oiling became automatic; alloys made cutting edges harder and sharper; assembly jobs were broken

WATCHMAKER

down, so that workers had fewer and simpler operations to carry out; lifting devices made it easier for women to move heavy pieces of work. As a result fewer skilled and more semiskilled workers could be used. It is a pattern of development that usually opens up opportunities for women.

Between 1910 and 1920, over 50,000 more women—the greatest number in any 10 years—came into the metal trades. World War I gave a great spur to the industry. Women were needed, not only to replace men, but for new types of jobs. They went into the machine shops to operate machines, to inspect finished products, and to do various kinds of handwork. They worked in assembly departments.

In the next 10 years, which included the depression years, few more women came into the metal trades, but comparatively few men also, for the proportion of women to men did not change.

Most of the women in 1940—something less than three-fifths of them—had jobs in the group of the metal trades that turn out iron, steel, and other metal products; machinery (other than electrical machinery); and transportation equipment (other than automobiles). Here their work ranged from sorting and inspecting tin plate (heavy work), to jobs on small articles like tin cans, enameled ware, wire, cutlery, and hardware.

Better than one-fifth of the women in 1940 were working in automobile and automobile equipment plants. They were few in the early

days of autos, but when the industry mushroomed between 1910 and 1920, their numbers mushroomed with it. Their work, for the most part, was such typical "women's work" as sewing in upholstery departments, rather than on heavier jobs. During World War II, however, when many auto factories converted to making planes, women were put on "men's jobs," and to some extent at least have stayed in reconverted plants. (In 1947 their number was still over twice what it had been in 1940.)

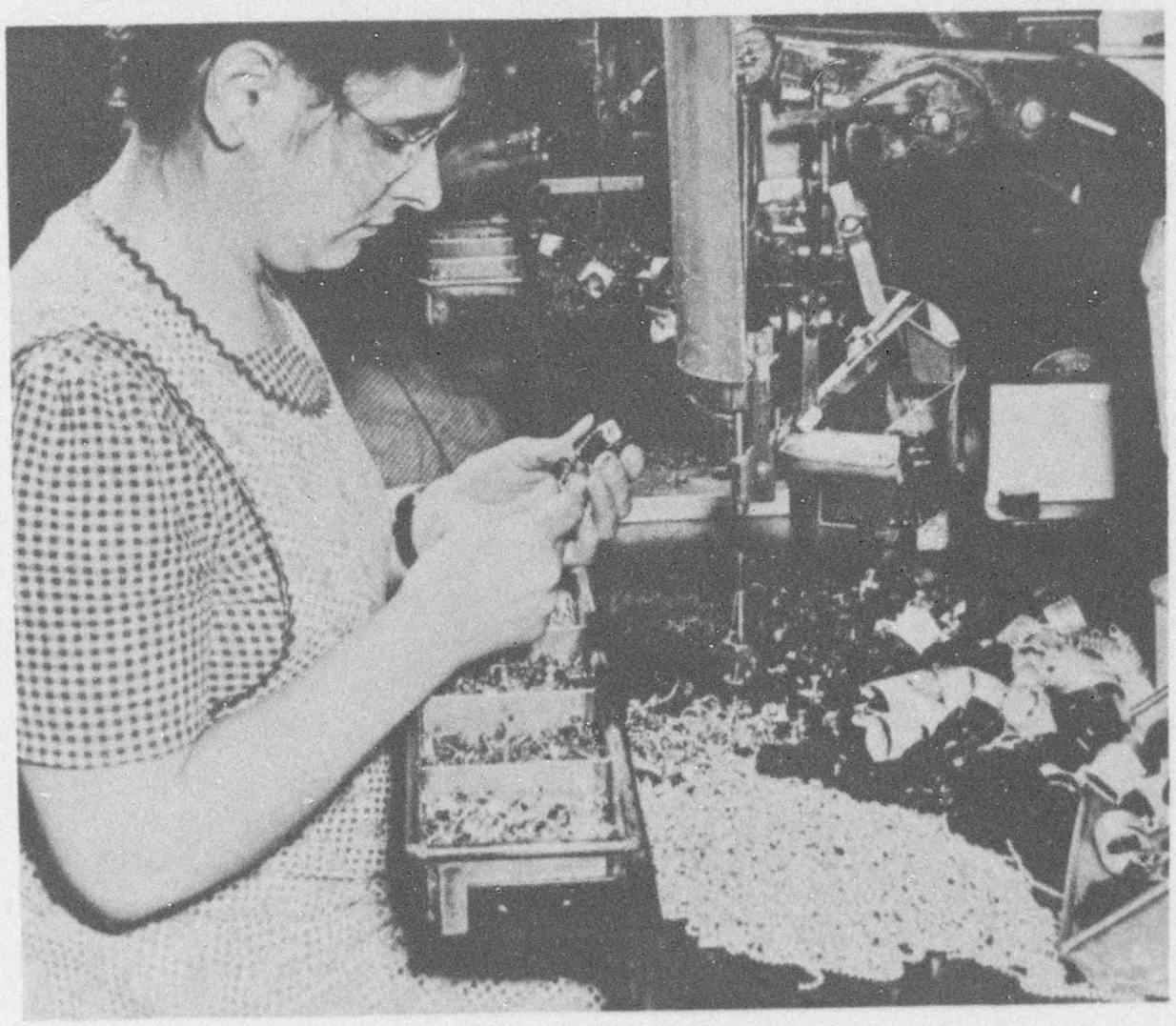
ELECTRICAL WORKER—INSTALLING COIL IN MOTOR

ELECTRICAL WORKERS

The history of the electrical industry illustrates how invention developed a whole new industry, in fact, a whole new way of life. It began with the telegraph in the 1840's. Then, in the 1870's, came the telephone; in the 1870's and 1880's, the dynamo, arc light, and incandescent lamp. After 1900, wireless transmission and the radio. New applications of electricity have followed in an unceasing stream. All require equipment to be made—equipment that ranges from spark plugs through the complicated mechanism of a "mechanical brain" or of a wireless transmission tower. That equipment meant 74,000 jobs for women in 1940 (and, it is estimated, more than 200,000 in 1947).

The use of electricity for light, in particular, opened up many opportunities for women, because the parts to be made are small and need delicacy of handling. When the radio industry began to develop in the 1920's, a great variety of assembling and inspection jobs became available. By 1940, women had two-fifths of all the electrical machinery and equipment jobs, and many of them were highly skilled workers.

ELECTRICAL WORKER–ASSEMBLY



FOOD PACKER–BOXING FOR QUICK FREEZE

FRUIT AND VEGETABLE GRADERS AND PACKERS

There was a time when fresh vegetables were to be had only in the summer and fresh fruits only when they ripened in orchards nearby. Oranges were a rarity and other semitropical fruits curiosities. Now fresh fruits and vegetables come to us all year round, from one area where they have ripened, and then, as the sun moves to another, from that.

Coming long distances, they must be well packed. Because the purses which will pay for them are of different sizes, they must be graded. Quickness and dexterity are needed, and careful handling to avoid spoiling.

Since 1910 a growing number of women have worked as graders and packers. In 1940, there were 15,000 of them—almost three-fifths of all the workers. As the work is seasonal and temporary, these women are for the most part women who live nearby.

CHAPTER FOUR

Women Service Workers

THIS MODERN WORLD in which we live needs not only a vast white-collar army to keep the wheels of business humming, and armies of manual workers to take raw materials and make them into things we can use; it needs people to do for us things that in bygone days were unnecessary or that we did for ourselves but now are far too busy to do.

Our present way of life would go to pieces without these people who take over our tasks at home; give us practical nursing care when we are ill; keep our public buildings, offices, and churches neat and clean; run elevators; clean, cook, and serve us meals in hotels and restaurants, lodging and rooming houses; launder, dry clean, and dye our clothes; groom us in beauty parlors and barber shops; take our tickets and usher us to seats in theaters and other amusement places. These and like things were being done for us by 3,700,000 women in 1940—the largest number in any one group of women workers in 1940.

SERVICE WORKERS IN PRIVATE AND IN PUBLIC HOUSEKEEPING

About three-fourths of all the women service workers in 1940 were carrying on with our housekeeping jobs—in our homes, and in our hotels, restaurants, offices, and other "public" buildings.

However, women have seemed to care less and less for the work. For though almost half of all women workers were in private or public housekeeping jobs in 1870, only about one-fifth were in 1940. World War I drew many of them into work more vital to the war. Between the two World Wars women took "housekeeping" jobs again, but many no doubt because the depression years left them little choice. World War II once more drew them away in great numbers, into jobs that offered better working conditions, better hours, better pay, and an opportunity to serve the country.

Between 1870 and 1940 women were also giving ground to men in "housekeeping" jobs, dropping from 43 in 50 of all the workers to 39 in

50. Also, the number of women in public housekeeping jobs has tended to increase at the expense of the number in private housekeeping jobs—which probably means two things: (1) that women prefer public housekeeping over private housekeeping jobs; and (2) people are depending more on laundries, cleaners, hotels, and restaurants, and less on having services supplied at home by a person hired to do them. It is not strange that the public housekeeping jobs should be preferred because in general working conditions, hours, and pay are somewhat better and the workers have protection under labor, workmen's compensation, and social security laws that workers in private housekeeping jobs generally do not have.

Problems of long hours, low wages, and poor working conditions are particularly serious in private household employment. Women are not eager, when they can find jobs in factories, offices, shops, to go into a field that has low standards of work and wages. The fact that immigrants became fewer also cut down on the number of women willing to enter household employment. Being fewer, household workers could ask and receive somewhat higher wages—in any case, wages higher than many people felt they could afford to pay.

PUBLIC HOUSEKEEPERS—CAFETERIA WORKERS

The demand for household employees has also become less pressing, partly because the work of running a household has become easier. Families have become smaller, and the houses and apartments we live in, too. Machinery and electricity have made household tasks lighter. More and more people eat at least some of their meals out.

Still, the shortage of household employees has been a hardship in many homes. The United States and Canada are making efforts to follow the example of England and particularly of the Scandinavian countries by setting up standards that will take away objections women now have to household jobs. If these efforts succeed, homes which have suffered because they lacked help, particularly homes in which there are small children, will benefit. For many women like housework and, given an even break, would prefer work in a home over a job in a store or office or factory.

LAUNDRY WORKERS

Women laundry workers' jobs felt two contradictory influences in recent years. One tended to add to the number of jobs, the other to make them fewer. Laundering has, on the one hand, gone with other services out of some homes into commercial plants, especially plants that give a high type of service at reasonable prices and that need then to hire more workers. On the other hand, such practical and efficient home washing machines have come on the market that many women, especially those prejudiced against commercial laundries, would rather do the washing themselves at home.

Home washing machines, perhaps with the help of laundromats, have kept ahead in the race. Though the 400,000 women laundry, cleaning, and dyeing workers of 1940 were 7 times as many as there had been in 1870, still they were 200,000 fewer than they had been in 1910. The wars and the depression had the same effects on the laundry workers they had on the public and private housekeeping workers.

Laundresses have been forsaking work in homes, in spite of better washing machines, or perhaps the washing machines were not brought in until the laundresses had left. At any rate, 150,000 fewer laundresses were working for private families in 1940 than in 1930. At the same time, laundresses in commercial laundries increased by about 10,000.

In homes, the service workers who did the laundry were almost always women, but not in the commercial laundries, though women were and still are the great bulk of the workers. Taking all laundry, cleaning, and dyeing workers together, including the laundry workers for private families, women were 9 in 10 of all the workers in 1870, but by 1940 had fallen to 7 in 10. The greatest shift to men workers came after 1920, when the "family-bundle business" grew by leaps and bounds and some of the work in laundries became too heavy for women to handle.

BEAUTICIANS, BARBERS, AND MANICURISTS

The girls who bobbed their hair about 1920 were doing much more for women than they knew. They started a fashion that swept the country and opened up innumerable jobs for women. The barber shops did the first hair cutting and trimming. But then it became important also to have one's hair waved and, gradually, to have all sorts of other "beauty treatments." Beauty parlors sprang up almost like mushrooms after a humid night in spring.

LAUNDRY WORKER

Between 1920 and 1940 some 185,000 more women became beauticians, barbers, and manicurists, making a total of 218,000 serving the need of America's women to be lovely and in style. Of course some of these women were manicurists in men's barber shops, but then some men were barbers and hair stylists in the women's beauty parlors. Men, as a matter of fact, seem to be better served in being made handsome than are women, for just under half of all the barbers, beauticians, and manicurists in 1940 were women—who serve mainly women; over half were men—who serve mainly men. To be more exact, there was 1 man barber, beautician, or manicurist for every 298 boys and men in the United States in 1940, and only 1 woman barber, beautician, or manicurist for every 301 girls and women.

In 1870 the men of the country fared even better, compared to the women, for nine-tenths of the workers in the barber and beautician field were men, few of whom served women. Only one-tenth of the workers—1,500—were women then.

One thing has happened since 1940 that is cutting into the women beauticians' jobs—the inexpensive gadget with which women can give themselves their own "permanents" at home. The cost of the home treatment is a fraction of that in a beauty shop. It is hard to say yet what the effect on jobs will be; many women have stopped using the beauty shops, but many never will.

PRACTICAL NURSES AND MIDWIVES

How many of the 104,000 practical nurses and midwives in 1940 were one or the other, it is not possible to say. Some may have been both. Though more and more babies are born in hospitals or at least under a doctor's care, many regions in the United States are not served by hospitals or doctors, and many people in cities cannot afford either. The midwife is still in great demand and the practical nurse is needed everywhere.

Although there were ten times the number of practical nurses and midwives in 1940 that there had been in 1870, still there were some 37,000 fewer than in 1930. For many more women than before were becoming trained nurses. Seriously ill people were being cared for increasingly by these trained nurses in hospitals and less often by practical nurses in the home.

Whether by practical nurses at home or trained nurses in hospitals, nursing, as always, is almost entirely women's work. During the 70 years between 1870 and 1940, over nine-tenths of all the practical nurses and midwives were women.

It is older women we depend on for the most part for practical nursing and midwifery: considerably over half the practical nurses and midwives were 45 years old or over in 1940; only about an eighth were less than 25 years old.

ELEVATOR OPERATORS

The Census first reported women elevator operators in 1900—30 of them. Ten years later they were 5 fewer. Then came World War I, and women had to take over men's jobs. Even when the war was over, and many men had come back to their jobs, women had been found capable of the work and continued to be hired for it. By 1940, 14,000 women were operating elevators. The job is definitely one of those to which women were introduced during a war and then were able to keep on working in it.

ELEVATOR OPERATORS

JANITORS AND SEXTONS

How much city life, with its numberless apartment houses, its huge office buildings, and many churches, has grown is shown by the fact that there were 378,000 janitors and sextons in 1940, over a tenth of whom were women. At one time, 1910, women were almost a fifth of all the workers. Therefore, although the number of janitors and sextons, including the number who are women, is growing, still, job openings are more and more for men rather than for women.

AMUSEMENT AND RECREATION SERVICE WORKERS

These workers do many kinds of jobs, from setting up pins in bowling alleys to shifting scenes on stages, from caddying on a golf course to ushering in a theater. Not too many women are in the work. Some of the jobs, like the stage hands', are too heavy work for women. Some, like the pin boys' or ushers' are in surroundings not generally thought desirable for young girls. However, the 47 women in the work in 1870 had become 3,600 by 1930. During the next 10 years commercial amusements grew considerably, so that by 1940 almost 12,000 women were in the amusement and recreation services and they were one-seventh of all the workers.

BOARDINGHOUSE AND LODGINGHOUSE KEEPERS

Workers without a family, who must have a home, who cannot afford to pay high prices for it, find their answer in boardinghouses and lodginghouses. Particularly when our cities first began their rapid growth, when construction boomed and factories began to hum, workers often had to leave their homes and go where the work was. At least until they could set up homes of their own again, they needed the services of the boardinghouse and lodginghouse keepers. Again during the wars, when workers were shifted to war manufacturing centers, cheap homes for workers away from home were needed.

In 1870 over 7,000 women boardinghouse and lodginghouse keepers provided such homes; in 1940, almost 101,000. The number in 1940, however, were thousands fewer than in 1910. With the continuing growth of our cities, the "small, intimate, home type" of boardinghouse has been giving way to commercial rooming houses and restaurant service.

The job of running boardinghouses and lodginghouses still has opportunities for women, nevertheless, for many people continue to prefer them over commercial rooming houses and restaurants. And women who were only something over half the boardinghouse and lodginghouse keepers in 1870, by 1940 were over nine-tenths of them.

CHAPTER FIVE

Women Professional Workers

PROFESSIONAL WORKERS do not make things like the manual workers, or take part in selling and distributing things like the white collar workers, but like the workers we talked about in the last chapter, sell their services. The difference is that these services are more highly skilled and were learned through a long period of specialized training.

In 1870 the 94,000 women in professional work had had little choice outside of teaching: nine-tenths were teachers in schools or colleges. Each of the other professions gave jobs to 5,000 or fewer women—mostly fewer. About 1,000 women were nurses, only 1 was an architect, and none was a chemist, engineer, veterinarian, or library assistant (though 43 were librarians).

In teaching and nursing women were doing work that seemed to follow naturally from training children at home and from home-care of sick people. When new kinds of professions came about through our social and economic development, women found some opportunities in these too. The old, established professions, like law, medicine, and theology, were the ones most reluctant to allow women to come in.

Opportunities for higher education began to come to women about 1850. With the years, these opportunities grew, women made the most of them and, by 1940, 1½ million women were in the professions. Over half were still teachers, one-fourth were nurses, but none of the professions now excluded women.

TEACHERS

Teaching is and always has been the occupation in which women have found most of their opportunities for professional work, that is, after they began to be admitted into the professions at all. Women are not the teachers or most of the teachers in all countries. In this country they are. They were not always. In the early days of the Colonies and the young States, what teaching was done was by the "dominie," a man, and parents paid to send their children to him. In the colleges only men

taught, of course. Higher education was then still only for the few, and those few men. Some women, whose families were more broadminded than ordinary, were educated by private tutors.

By the time of the Civil War, however, the idea that the best citizens are informed citizens was becoming accepted, and with it, the belief that since not all parents could afford to pay for their children's schooling, such education should be a public expense. Massachusetts adopted the first compulsory school law in 1852. When Mississippi passed such a law in 1920, Nation-wide compulsory schooling had been achieved.

By the time of the Civil War, too, the high schools, normal schools, and seminaries, which had begun to be established for women some 20 years earlier, were turning out an available supply of women teachers. The 5 years of the Civil War drained the States of men. In both public and private schools, then, women took over, and they made good.

Some people believe that the fact that the Civil War came just when the public school system was developing accounts for the fact that most of our teachers are women. Other causes predate the Civil War: first, the fact that women were finding opportunities to become educated and able to teach. Then, there was a growing belief that women had peculiar gifts for teaching, including superior characters. They were also more likely than men to stay in the work. Above all, it was cheaper to hire them than men.

By 1870 almost 85,000 women were teachers and were two-thirds of all the teachers. Every 10 years thereafter an average of over 100,000 women came into the work, until by 1940 there were over 822,000.

Up until 1920, women took over more and more of the work. At that time, 4 out of 5 teachers were women. But between 1920 and 1930, many men came into the work, and continued to in the next 10 years, so that by 1940 women, instead of 8 in 10 of all the teachers, as in 1920, were only 7 in 10. Between 1930 and 1940 the number of women teachers actually dropped by over 50,000.

While women have nevertheless had a big edge on men in general teaching, this is not so in college teaching. They never were as much as one-third of the "college presidents, professors, and instructors." Since 1930, their proportion also has fallen off. In fact, in 1940 less than 3 in a hundred women teachers had attained this level of teaching.

It seems that women teachers now are older on the average than the group that were teaching 40 years ago, and more of them are married. There was a time when it was thought a woman who married lost some of her qualifications as a teacher, but the idea has begun to grow that perhaps married women make better teachers. At any rate, nearly a fourth of the teachers in 1940 were married.

As everyone knows, there is a great shortage of teachers now. Like other service workers, many left teaching for other work during the war, and found such work preferable. In the meantime the number of school children has grown immensely. It would seem that there will be openings in teaching for some time to come.

NURSE

TRAINED NURSES

How important this profession has become is shown by the difference between the thousand nurses it is thought there were in 1870 and the 363,000 nurses there were in 1940. Before 1900 all nurses, "trained" and "practical," were lumped together with midwives as "nurses and midwives" and listed by the census with the domestic and other personal service workers. This is one of the fields of work that with the years developed into a profession.

Modern standards in nursing grew out of the Civil War. Schools of nursing were opened and both schools and hospitals continued to improve. The training the nurses received and the skills they learned en-

titled them to be classified with the "professional workers." As more and more hospitals and clinics were built and public health services set up by communities, States, and the Federal Government, more and more women found opportunities for work that satisfied their need to be of very direct service to others. Low wages, long hours, and the strain of the work for many years discouraged nurses, but with time, these too improved.

Nurses were very badly needed during World War I. After the war, and during the depression, there was an oversupply of nurses—at least there were more than people could afford to pay for. During World War II there was again a great shortage, and there is still, in hospitals, including veterans' hospitals, in mental institutions, and in the public health services.

Men's contribution to nursing has been very small compared to women's. Men were never as many as 1 in 10 of all the nurses, and from 1920 on nursing has been almost entirely a woman's job.

Nurses for the most part are neither very young nor very old. In 1940, three-fourths of them were between 20 and 44 years old. Only about a fifth of the nurses were married. (Taking all women workers together, a much larger proportion were married—nearly two-fifths.) The fact that many nurses must live at hospitals and that private-duty nurses must also generally be away from home and in addition work long hours make it hard to continue with a nursing career after marriage.

SOCIAL, WELFARE, AND RELIGIOUS WORKERS

Social, welfare, and religious work (except the clergyman's which is talked about later) also belongs mainly to women. For a period it was all considered semiprofessional, but social and welfare work, like nursing, developed into professions. The evil conditions that came with the Industrial Revolution, as when whole large groups of people were thrown out of work by the invention of some labor-saving device, showed the need for trained people to deal with the problems of the workers' families. In large cities people were herded together, yet were farther apart; neighbors did not come in to help in an emergency, the way they do in the country. Such services in large part became the job of social agencies.

In time schools connected with universities and separate social welfare schools were set up, and the trained social worker more often than not has a special degree like any other professional worker. Women in the work are generally more highly trained than men. In 1940 considerably over half the women had had 4 years or more of college training; less than half the men had as much training.

Social and welfare and religious work is still a field of growing opportunities for women. In 1940 women were three-fourths of all the religious workers (except clergymen) and almost two-thirds of all the

social and welfare workers. Together they had grown from 9,000 in 1910 to 74,000 in 1940; and from about half of all the workers—men and women—to over two-thirds.

MUSICIANS AND MUSIC TEACHERS

First men, then women, then men again had the advantage in this field. Music once was taught only privately and teaching provided work for the majority of workers in the music field. In the early days, like other teaching, it was chiefly men's work. But by 1870, 6,000 women were in the field, and they were a third of all the workers. Then, like other teachers, most of the music teachers came to be women. By 1910 women were 84,000 of the musicians and music teachers and were three-fifths of all the workers in the field.

After that, for whatever reason, the number of music teachers dropped off. Much more of our music came to us in movies, in theaters, over the radio. But most of the performers were men. The result was that by 1940, women musicians and music teachers had dropped to 66,000 and they were now only two-fifths of all the workers.

ARTISTS AND ART TEACHERS

Art and teaching art seem to offer even fewer opportunities to women than music and teaching music. From less than 500 in 1870 women artists and art teachers came to be 21,000 by 1940 (less than a third the number of musicians and music teachers), and this was a slight drop from 1930. And though they had risen from one-tenth of all artists and art teachers in 1870 to nearly half in 1890, by 1940 women were only a third. As some women drop out of the work, others will of course take their place. For one thing, teaching art in the schools by teachers who have that as their only responsibility has become customary in many school systems, and more often than not the art teacher is a woman. Art and teaching art do not, however, seem to be growing fields for women.

ENTERTAINERS

Most women entertainers are actresses or in dancing as dancers, dancing teachers, or chorus girls. (A fourth are actresses, two-fifths are in dancing.) Only a tenth of the men are actors or in dancing. For "entertainers" include a number of other types of workers: athletes, showmen, sports instructors and officials, motion-picture projectionists, and the owners, managers, and other officials of theaters, motion-picture houses, and other amusement and recreation places.

In entertaining, too, opportunities for women seem to have been falling off. From 800 in 1870, women came to be 29,000 of the entertainers in 1930, but by 1940 had dropped to 28,000. From a sixth of all the workers, they came to be a fifth, and then a sixth again.

The rate at which opportunities for women entertainers grew was much more rapid before 1900 than after. There was a spurt again during World War I, for during wars people seem to demand more entertainment. The depression probably had much to do with the decline among entertainers, as among musicians and music teachers, artists and art teachers. World War II undoubtedly brought new life to these fields again.

AUTHORS

A fair-sized list of women writers, some of whom are still well known today, could have been made well before 1870. Women had been authors, not only of novels, poetry, and cookbooks, but of religious and philosophical works as well. They contributed to the "great magazines" that date from the 1850's. Nevertheless, the Census listed only 115 women as authors in 1870. Few women, clearly, were earning their living as writers. Even today the writer, unless she is one of the few highly successful ones, usually must snatch the time for writing from her "leisure time," the time left over from jobs like teaching, or journalism, or from household responsibilities.

Few though they were in 1870, women were one-fourth of all the authors. In 1910 they were close to one-half, but by 1940 they had dropped back to one-third, and, their numbers had fallen off from 1930. The depression was bad for the book business as for everything else. Nevertheless, about 5,000 women were authors in 1940, and certainly many of them had won fame. Writing is one of the arts in which women's contribution is unquestioned.

LIBRARIANS

There were not many libraries in 1870 and only 43 women librarians, and they were one-fifth of all librarians. The 35,000 women librarians of 1940 are an indication of the rise in the educational and cultural level of the United States. Free public libraries are rated by some to be nearly as important in their way as the free educational system, for libraries can be used by both young and old. Many people, cut off from a formal education too early, can continue to educate themselves through the libraries. Certainly the public libraries opened up opportunities for the employment of women—opportunities that are still growing.

LIBRARY ASSISTANTS

The work of library assistants is clerical more than it is professional. Up to 1930 it was a small field and in fact smaller in 1930 than in 1910, when 3,000 women had been library assistants or attendants. Between 1930 and 1940 the number jumped from 1,500 to 17,000, largely as a result of the public emergency work programs during the depression.

Both the work of librarians and of library assistants and attendants is mainly women's work. From five-sixths of the workers in 1910, women librarians and library assistants fell to just over half in 1920, then rose again to three-fourths in 1930, and to four-fifths in 1940.

EDITORS AND REPORTERS

An educated population wants an endless number and variety of books, newspapers, magazines. As women took advantage of the opportunities for higher learning available to them after 1850, their training made it possible for more and more of them to take part in the work of turning out these books, newspapers, and magazines.

The same number of women were editors or reporters in 1870 as were librarians—43, but that number grew fast and steadily, to 16,000 in 1940. The opportunities increased for men too, but more rapidly for women; from less than one one-hundredth of the workers in 1870, women came to be one-fourth in 1940.

LIBRARIAN

WOMEN IN THE "LEARNED PROFESSIONS" AND RELATED FIELDS

Theology, law, and medicine are the three old, established professions which have been used as yardsticks to measure newer fields to see whether they may really be called professions. Even in these venerable fields training gradually became possible for women after 1850, though opposition to women working in them was very determined and widespread. Women, however, made considerable headway.

Women now have shown their ability to do professional work, and there is much challenging work beckoning in the "learned professions," but women seem to have a lessening interest in them.

Doctors

A medical diploma was given a woman for the first time in America in 1849. This marked the first step in women's effort to take part in a field of work which had been almost entirely their's in Colonial days—taking care of the sick and serving as midwives. (Doctors were few in those days.) During the last half of the 1800's a number of women made great efforts to get a medical education, then to get a chance to work in hospitals.

By 1870 there were over 500 women physicians and surgeons of various types. By 1940, 8,800 women were physicians, surgeons, or osteopaths. Nearly another 12,000 women were chiropractors, healers, and some other types of medical workers. Taken together all these women were about 200 fewer than they had been in 1930, but from 1 in 100 of all the workers in these fields—men and women—in 1870, they had come to be 1 in 10.

This was a very great advance, of course. In spite of the falling off between 1930 and 1940, the number of women had increased nearly 38 times over 1870. It is particularly interesting that actually women physicians and surgeons gained in number between 1930 and 1940, by almost 900. It was the osteopaths who lost out, by nearly 500 and the chiropractors, healers, and so forth, by over 600.

Dentists

This field too, offers opportunities for women, but the numbers of women in it have been falling off. From 25 in 1870 women dentists rose to almost 2,000 in 1920, and then fell to little over a thousand by 1940.

Ministers

Though the first woman graduated from a theological school completed her course as long ago as 1851, the resistance of both men

ministers and congregations to women's coming into this field has kept their numbers down.

Before 1910 the Census counted ministers with other religious and social and welfare workers. In 1910, however, the Census counted 685 women clergymen. Thereafter an average of about 85 a year were added, so that by 1940 there were 3,300. From 1 in 200 of all ministers they had come to be 5 in 200, but though their numbers had increased, it has been more and more slowly.

More women enter divinity schools than become ministers. In general, they prepare themselves for work as teachers of religious education, or as missionaries or administrators.

Lawyers

It has been particularly hard for women to break down the barriers which will let them actively practice law. Before 1870 legal training was generally obtained by studying or "reading law" in a law office. Few women found law offices willing to take them in. The opening of law schools in the next 30 years, however, made it possible for women to get a legal education in at least some of them.

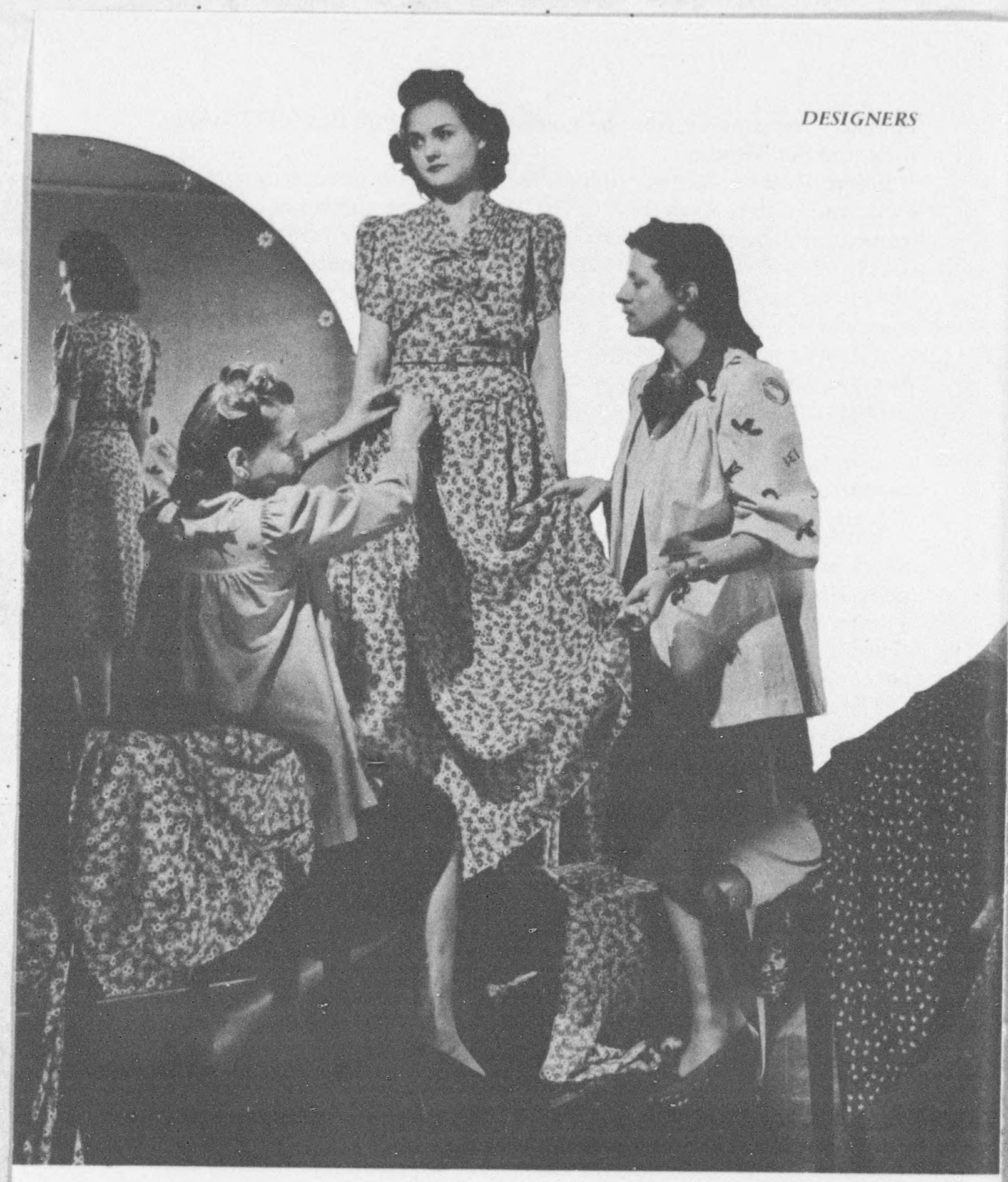
The number of women lawyers and judges has stayed small, growing from about 500 to 4,500. The rate of that growth, however, is quite remarkable.

As in the ministry, many women in the field of law do not practice. They use their legal training in work as editors of legal publications, in business, in government, and in other professions. The figures above do not tell how many women have obtained law degrees, or even how many women have been admitted to the bar.

The proportion women lawyers and judges were of all lawyers and judges is about the same women clergymen were of all clergymen, both in 1910 and in 1940.

WOMEN IN SCIENTIFIC AND INDUSTRIAL PROFESSIONS

Technicians and scientists have become more and more important in industry, for the making of numberless new products we have is based on chemical and physical principles. Chemical and physical tests must be made at various stages in the manufacture of a growing number of these products. The complexity of large scale production also calls for technical services of engineers and the assistance of designers, draftsmen, and technicians. Large scale building needs the services of trained architects, for safe and economic construction, as much as for functional and artistic design. The introduction of scientific methods into agriculture affected the veterinary's profession. To some of these fields women contributed little, to others a good deal.



DESIGNERS

Designers and Draftsmen

Designing clothing, accessories, textiles has opened up work for a number of women—to about 9,000, in fact, in 1940. Women draftsmen have been fewer (about 1,500 in 1940); their chief opportunities came during World Wars I and II, when they took over the work of men draftsmen who had gone into the armed services.

Women designers and draftsmen together had been only 13 in 1870—1 out of every 100 workers. By 1940 they were 9 out of every 100. Their numbers, though not large, have been growing fairly steadily. Interest in design is keen in our modern world. More and more of the articles we use are having design applied to them. It would seem that opportunities will continue to open up for women, many of whom have considerable aptitude for design.

Laboratory Technicians

The fact that there are no earlier census figures for laboratory technicians that can be compared with 1940 figures indicates that this new semiprofession had a meteoric rise. In 1910 and 1920 the work was so like many other kinds that technicians were grouped, under very general headings, with several types of workers.

By 1930, 8,000 women were grouped together as "technicians and laboratory assistants." In 1940 other workers were brought into the group—X-ray technicians; laboratory assistants in electric and steel manufacturing; testers in dairies, in radio, in rayon and silk mills, and in oil refineries; chemists' assistants; and other such workers. We now had a fairly clear-cut new semiprofessional field of work. Women were nearly 23,000 of these technicians and assistants and were one-third of all the workers; also a thousand women were technicians other than laboratory technicians and were one-tenth of all the workers.

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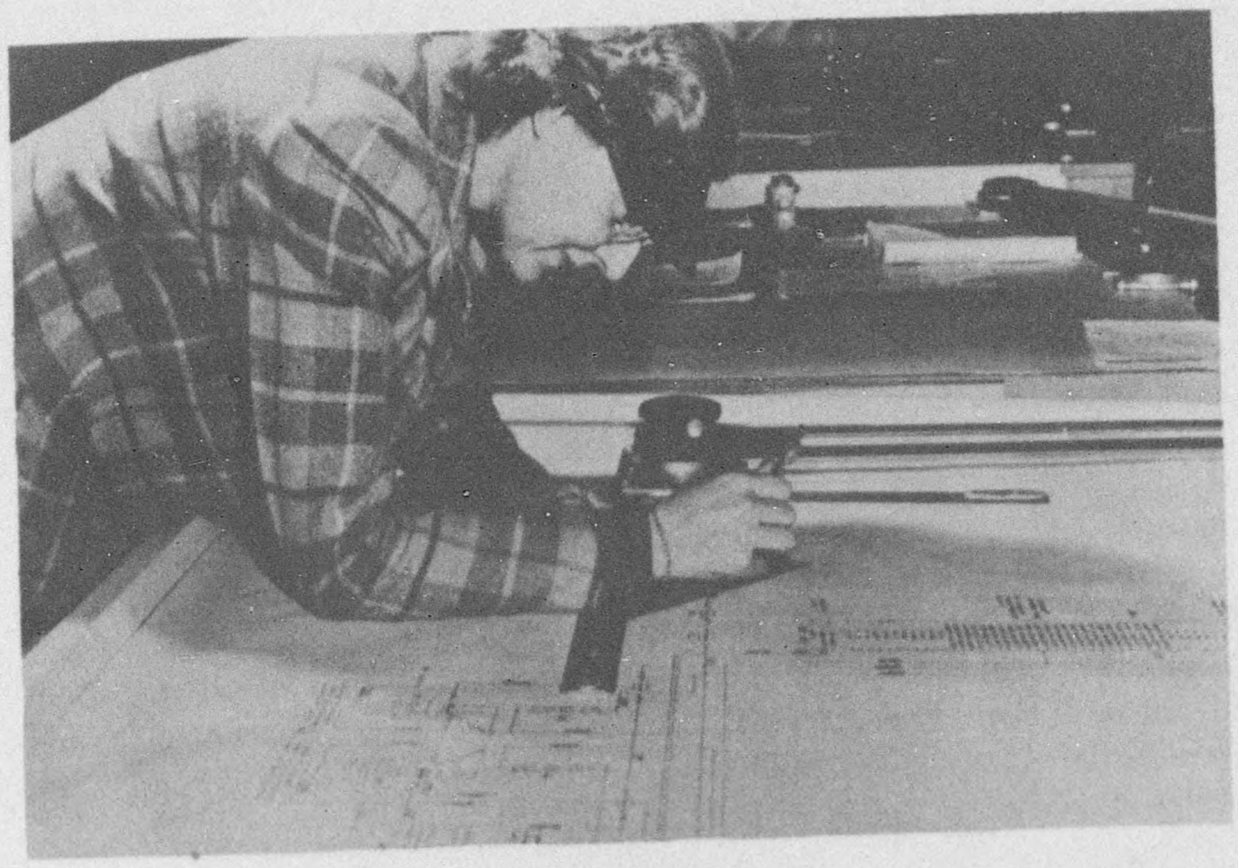

Chemists, Assayers, and Metallurgists

More clearly professional and responsible than the work of the laboratory technicians is that of the chemists, assayers, and metallurgists. Far fewer women have had a part in it—only 1,700 in 1940. They have made strides, however, for in 1870, when a scientific education was practically impossible for women, not a single woman was reported by the Census in this field. By 1880, however, there were 49 women in it. In spite of the advance since, the number of women dropped between 1930 and 1940, as in other professional fields. The proportion women were of all the workers also continued to drop after 1920, when they were 5 in 100 of all the workers. In 1940 they were 3 in 100, back almost to the little over 2 in 100 they had been in 1880.

Technical Engineers

The fact that even a few women have been successful in finding a place in technical engineering is important. Women had not seemed much inclined to challenge the idea that this is exclusively men's work. Of the 278,000 technical engineers of 1940, about a thousand were women—not a great number but a start.

Because of the hard nut this field is to crack, it is interesting to see how the women engineers of 1940 lined up:

Civil engineers	231
Surveyors	101
Electrical engineers	224
Mechanical engineers	228
Industrial engineers	74
Chemical engineers	59
Mining and metallurgical engineers	74

Architects

Women began earlier and made more progress in architecture than in engineering. Architecture needs both artistic and technical ability; women's artistic talents have never been questioned as their technical capacities have been, and these talents gave them an "in." Then, too, a good deal of architecture deals with home-building, some of it with landscaping, and women's interest in and right to contribute to these has also been considered legitimate.

Only 1 woman was an architect in 1870. By 1940, not more than 500 were, but architecture is not in any case a very large field—only about 22,000 workers in all in 1940. Women were not an infinitestimal part of them as of the engineers, but better than 1 in 50 of all architects, and while their proportion has been growing slowly, it has been growing fairly steadily.

Veterinarians

As in most other fields, scientific method was applied also to agriculture. It advanced the profession of the veterinary also. At first his work expanded, when it was seen how much it could do for saving and improving all livestock. When horses, oxen, mules, and donkeys began to be supplanted by farm machinery, however, the veterinarian's services were needed for fewer animals, and the number of all veterinarians began to fall from the all-time high of some 13,000 in 1920. That year only one woman was a veterinarian. But when by 1940 veterinarians had shrunk to an 11,000 total, 100 of them were women, most of whom were probably working in dog and cat hospitals.

CHEMIST IN A PAPER MILL

OTHER PROFESSIONAL WORKERS

Photographers

Photographic work has a number of branches, women have gone into many of them, and in fact have a monopoly of some. In the profession of photographer, however, women are a minority although some of them have done work as outstanding as that of the best men photographers.

Beginning with 137 in 1870, the number of women photographers grew at a fast rate through 1900. Another spurt came between 1910 and 1920, probably because of a demand for them during the First World War. Since 1930 their number has grown more slowly than men's, so that by 1940 there were very few more than in 1930—about 5,000—and though they had grown from 2 out of 100 of the workers in 1870 to 15 out of 100 in 1930, they dropped back to 13 out of 100.

Funeral Directors and Embalmers

Earlier these workers were called "undertakers" and grouped with workers in trades. In 1940 they were placed in the semiprofessional group of workers and called "funeral directors and embalmers." The 20 who were women in 1870 came to be over 2,000 by 1940—a slow but fairly steady increase from 1 in 100 to 5 in 100 of all the workers.

Aviators

In the 1910 census aviators were grouped with showmen, which tells pretty clearly how they were regarded then. The tremendous growth of aviation since has made it a separate occupation. The technical knowledge needed—navigation, meteorology, physics—has made it a profession.

Few women have been reported as aviators—only 8 in 1920, 66 in 1930, and 51 in 1940—never over 1 in 100 of all aviators. These are the numbers of women who went into aviation as paid pilots. Many more hold pilots' licenses.

CHAPTER SIX

Businesswomen

THESE ARE THE WOMEN who own a business and often run it too, and women who run or have a large share of responsibility in running businesses for others. They may be "captains of industry" or milliners who own their own shops and work in them alone. Not many, however, have been captains of industry. Few, even, have had highly important positions running or sharing responsibility for running businesses of others. Those few, though, are an important vanguard.

Actually women were in business well before 1870—in a great variety of businesses, as ads in Colonial newspapers show. A shopkeeper's or tradesman's wife often worked as his partner. Many a woman, after her husband's death, kept going as the owner of such businesses as that of a tanner, printer, tailor, painter, shipwright, silversmith, or gunsmith.

BUSINESSWOMAN–SPECIALTY TRADE

Other women themselves opened a millinery or drygoods store, a pastry shop, a tavern, an inn. Women are known to have run such industrial enterprises as a fulling mill, a grain mill, a distillery. By 1870 there were 8,000 women in selected businesses with which 1940 comparisons could be made; in 70 years their numbers multiplied almost 40 times, to 319,000.

Throughout those 70 years most of the women were in trading businesses, though their proportion of all businesswomen fell off from seven- to six-tenths. The two next largest groups in 1870 were women in restaurant and cafe businesses and women in hotel businesses; first one group was in the lead, then the other, until by 1940 the first were two-tenths of all business women, the second one-tenth. Other groups, though smaller, increased in numbers and proportions over the years: women postmasters and women in mining, construction, manufacturing, transportation, and communications. Newer types of business women, who entered the field after 1870 and whose number in 1940 would raise the count of all business women that year considerably, are included in the discussion of types of business women that follows.

WOMEN IN FOOD BUSINESSES

The businesswomen in food and dairy products stores multiplied over 50 times between 1870 and 1940, from about 1,400 to over 69,000. The great development of chain stores did not stop their progress, for they rose from 1 in 100 to over 10 in 100 of all business people—men and women—in this retail field.

WOMEN IN RESTAURANT AND CAFE BUSINESSES

Many women, suddenly faced with the need to earn a living and untrained except in running a household, have started a boardinghouse. (We talked about them under "Boardinghouse and Lodginghouse Keepers.") Others, with similar problems, specialized somewhat more and opened restaurants or tea rooms.

About 750 women had gone into the business of running a restaurant, tea room, or the like by 1870, and they were only about one-hundredth of all people in this type of business. By 1900, 7,000 women were in the business. Then the custom of "eating out" became more common, particularly after 1900. Women with a talent for organizing restaurants and making them pay found that here was an opportunity for them. By 1940 over 66,000 women were in the business, and they were nearly one-fourth of all people in it.

BUSINESSWOMEN IN SPECIALTIES TRADES

A considerable number of women, for that time, were traders and dealers in certain specialties in 1870—3,500, and they were trading and

dealing in a large variety of goods. Some of the most important were cigars and tobacco; liquors and wines; sewing machines; crockery, china, and stoneware; agricultural implements; books and stationery; iron, tin, and copperware; newspapers and periodicals; gold, silverware, and jewelry; and musical instruments.

Women found trading and dealing a fast growing field of opportunity between 1870 and 1890. For 20 years, then, there was no great change. In the next 10 years, however, 4,000 more women took up this business, then 12,000 more, then 24,000, until by 1940 over 57,000 women were traders and dealers. New types of trading businesses had sprung up. Women now were also in such businesses as limited price variety stores, motor vehicles and accessories retailing, filling stations. From 1 in 50 of all these specialty traders and dealers in 1870, they had come to be 3 in 50 by 1940.

BUSINESSWOMEN IN GENERAL MERCHANDISE, APPAREL, SHOE, AND MILLINERY TRADES

The story of women's trading in these types of goods was somewhat different than the one of their trading in the specialties we just talked about.

The 864 women trading in these types of goods in 1870 had grown to 62,000 and nearly two-thirds of all such traders by 1890. In 20 years more their numbers doubled, but they were losing out to men for at the end of that time they were now only two-fifths of all the traders. The women traders have been falling off ever since—to 55,000 and to one-fourth of all the traders in 1940.

Part of the reason, at least, for the falling off of opportunities for women traders in this field is thought to be that in earlier days many of the goods traded were hand made, by women who both made and sold them; as customers became less interested in hand-made goods, women lost out.

BUSINESSWOMEN IN INDUSTRY

Women in this group may include the owner of a small local bakery, the silent partner in her deceased husband's machine shop, the president of a big coal company, the publisher of a large chain of newspapers. The degree of responsibility varies greatly, as does the amount of money income.

Actually this field includes mining; construction; manufacturing; automobile storage, rental, and repair services; railroads and railroad repair shops; street railways and bus lines; taxicab service; trucking service; other transportation; and communications. Seven-tenths of the women in this field in 1940 were in manufacturing.

From less than 300 in 1870, women rose to 27,000 by 1940 and at the same time from 1 in 200 to 7 in 200 of all business people in industry.

BUSINESSWOMAN IN INDUSTRY—RUNS HER OWN PRINT SHOP

Opportunities for women, though still limited, are growing. The daily papers, if nothing else, tell us of positions of great responsibility, paying high incomes, that some of these women hold.

WOMEN IN HOTEL BUSINESSES

In Chapter IV, Service Workers, we spoke of the women who opened boardinghouses and lodginghouses, to provide inexpensive places to live for other workers away from their own homes, and to provide themselves a means of earning a living. Still other women were encouraged to take up the more pretentious venture of running a hotel, a tourist camp, a motel. About a thousand women had done this in 1870—one thirty-third of all the people in the business. Their numbers grew at a rapid rate through 1910, thereafter not so fast, although by 1940 there were 22,000 of them, and they were a third of all people in the business.

WOMEN GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS AND INSPECTORS

Women have special interests and qualifications in some of the fields into which government has extended, for instance, factory inspection and health work. Following the granting of suffrage to women they have taken a greater part in civic and political life, and this, too, has led to their being considered more and more often for appointment to the general run of official posts. Also, as women's employment in government work generally increased, greater numbers of them have had a chance to get the background and experience necessary for supervisory jobs.

As a result, to the 3,500 women officials and inspectors in Federal, State, and local governments in 1910, 15,000 more were added by 1940. The proportion they were of all government officials and inspectors also rose steadily during that time, from 4 in 100 to 9 in 100.

WOMEN POSTMASTERS

Since the signing of the Articles of Confederation in 1777, running our postal system has been a Federal Government task. Women postmasters came on the scene that same year. About 250 were postmasters by 1870, and they were 3 of every 100 postmasters. Their numbers and the proportion they are of all postmasters has grown steadily, until by 1940 there were nearly 17,000 women postmasters who were 42 of every 100 postmasters.

WOMEN DRUGGISTS AND PHARMACISTS

There was probably not a woman in the Colonies who had not had handed down to her by her mother recipes for salves, for ointments, for various curative herb teas, and other home remedies. Handbooks for women's use in running their households then also included such recipes. Not until 1820 did the National Pharmacopoeia appear, the book which lists and sets up standards for drugs and medicines for the guidance of drug manufacturers, and of the pharmacists who were taking over from the women much of the work of providing remedies for illnesses and ailments. Women all over the country, however, still had their pet tonics and teas and salves for their families until very recent times. Your grandparents, if not your parents, will remember at least "spring tonics," sulphur and molasses, figs and senna leaves. In some parts of the country home remedies are still much in use.

By 1870 compounding medicines and preparing other remedies (other than those a few women still prepared at home) was almost entirely in the hands of men. Only 33 women were druggists or pharmacists, and they were a very small fraction of all druggists and pharmacists.

With the years, the standards for drugs continued to improve, new drugs came on the market, their preparation became far more scientific and complex, and it became necessary to have a specialized education in pharmacy to become a pharmacist dispensing drugs. Pharmacy is therefore now rated as a profession. One who simply owns or operates a drug store is in business as a druggist.

In the early days, the druggist was his own pharmacist. Here pharmacists and druggists have been grouped together, so that we might have figures we could compare with the figures for earlier years.

Women druggists and pharmacists have been a small but steadily growing group. By 1940 they numbered 6,000 and were 3 in every 50 druggists and pharmacists. Almost three-fifths of these women were actually professional pharmacists, two-fifths were in the trading business as druggists.

BUSINESSWOMEN IN BANKING AND FINANCE

Before World War I most women's jobs in banking and other financial houses were routine clerical ones. During the war women replaced men in a number of the more skilled jobs. This accounts in part for the rapid rate of increase, from 2,300 to 5,000, of women owners, managers, officials, and salesmen in banking and other finance between 1910 and 1920.

Their numbers still grew between 1920 and 1930, but then came the depression, which hit banks and other financial institutions particularly hard, so that from almost 9,000 in 1930, women dropped back to less than 7,000 by 1940.

Over the 30 years between 1910 and 1940 women gained a little on men, rising from 3 of 100 business people in banking and finance to 5.

WOMEN OFFICIALS IN ORGANIZATIONS

Since as far back as the early 1850's women's organizations have been increasingly important in American life. The members of some of these clubs were women who wanted to reach out beyond the daily round of their household tasks. Then, as more and more women became paid workers outside the home, women who had similar interests growing out of their work also formed organizations. These organizations, the trade unions, and organizations that were formed for social, civic, and philanthropic purposes offered women small but growing opportunities to become officials, managers, agents, and representatives in such organizations.

From 2,000 in 1910, the number of women who found careers in organizations rose to over 4,000 by 1940, but at the same time their proportion dropped from almost a fourth of all organization officials to well under a fifth.

BUSINESSWOMEN IN INSURANCE

We have already spoken of women insurance agents under "White-Collar Workers." Here we are speaking of women who are owners, managers, or officials of companies in the insurance business. The pattern of their growth in numbers is very like that of the women insurance agents. Few in 1910 (only 140), the rate of growth was rapid through 1930 and then slackened off. Their actual numbers still continued to grow, however, if not so fast, to almost 3,000 in 1940.

Relative to men, insurance businesswomen did somewhat better than women insurance agents. From 1 in 100 of all people in the insurance business, women came to be 7 in 100 by 1940, whereas the women insurance agents became only 5 in 100 of all insurance agents. As greater numbers of women came into the insurance field, more found opportunities for responsible positions. In clerical and other departments, where women's work was nothing new, experience made it possible for women to rise to positions as officers in the business.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Women Agricultural Workers

ONE OF THE MOST important movements that has taken place in American life is the shift of people from the country and farm work to cities and industrial work. Farmers and farm workers of 1870 were over half of all the country's workers. Until 1910 their number grew, but not as fast as the number of industrial workers. After 1910 farmers and farm workers became fewer. The 9 million persons in farm work in 1940 were not much more than one-sixth of all the workers in the country.

The number of very large farms has been growing in recent years, but to a great extent farming is still in the hands of the farmer (owner or tenant) whose acres are no larger than he and his family can handle. Roughly five-eighths of the people in farming in 1940 were farmers or farm managers or foremen, one-eighth were unpaid family workers, and only two-eighths were farm wage workers, which shows that most farms were run without hired farm help.

In this picture women's place, judging by official figures, is small. The census counted only something over one-half million women in farming in 1940. It left out of the count the bulk of farm wives whose work in the household is vital to the success of the farm. Five out of every ten of the women counted were unpaid family workers, 3 were farmers, and 2 were wage workers.

The pioneer farm was self-sufficient. All labor was hand labor and produced almost everything that was necessary to sustain life; little call was made on the outside world. Much less money exchanged hands then than now. The role of the farm wife and other unpaid women workers of the family was much more important then than even now. From Colonial days to the Civil War these women for the most part took care of the dairy, the poultry yard, the garden, in addition to their many other tasks. Some women made an independent living as planters or small farmers. Others hired out to care for the dairy or poultry on the farms of other persons. Although all these women did rather rough work, like cutting wood and milking, they were seldom "put into the ground" or used in the fields.

Shortly after the Civil War came the homestead movement. Farming livened up. Hand labor gave way to horse-drawn machinery. The character of farm work was changing. The number of women farmers, paid and unpaid women farm workers grew fast, almost until World War I, when there were over a million of them. After the war, their numbers shrank more and more until by 1940 there were about half a million. There had been not far from one-half million in 1870.

The women owner and tenant farmers, managers, and foremen grew from 25,000 in 1870 to 312,000 in 1900 and dropped to 154,000 in 1940. The women paid and unpaid farm workers began at 430,000 in 1870, rose to 895,000 in 1910 and dropped to 367,000—less than there had been in 1870.

For women farmers, managers, and foremen, the above figures are fairly accurate, but the figures for the farm workers are rather rough. The difficulty with the figures for the farm workers is that the censuses were taken at different times of the year (in 1870, 1880, 1890, and 1900 in June; in 1910 in April; in 1920 in January; in 1930 in April; in 1940 in March). But the agricultural work is seasonal—greatest at planting and at harvest time. The farmer is on his farm all year round and always has some work to do on it; he will report himself to the census as a farmer at any time. Help is hired, however, only during the busy seasons, and the unpaid family women are apt to report themselves as housewives in off seasons because they do little outdoor work then. Only at planting and at harvest time, then, could the census get a fairly accurate count of the paid and unpaid women farm workers. Even if the census could arrange to take the count the same month each year, the weather, which sometimes hurries and sometimes delays planting and harvest, might throw the count off.

Because of the unpaid work of the farm wife, the farm family has depended somewhat less on actual money income than the city family to reach a given level of living. The wife's work, of course, helps to bring a cash return to the farm, but more than that her kitchen garden, her chickens, ducks, and geese, her canning and preserving add to the family's health and well-being. In addition she often does many other things

FARM WORKERS

which the city family usually pays to have done—things such as making and taking care of clothing, making soap, furniture polish, hand lotions, bedding and mattresses.

The farm wife's household duties have generally kept her from working on the farm's cash crop. A study of cotton farming in Texas, for example, has shown that for the most part it is the unmarried woman on the farm who works in the fields. But counting farm wives who do work in the fields, the other unpaid women of the family who also do, and the women outside the family who are hired, they have not, since 1870 at least, been a very great proportion of all paid and unpaid farm workers—one-eighth in 1870, one-fifth in 1920, and one-tenth by 1940. The fact that farm products were so greatly needed during World War I, when men were being called away from the farms, probably accounts for the fact that 1920 was the peak year for these women's part in farm work.

Women farmers, managers, and foremen were an even smaller part of all farmers, managers, and foremen—less than 1 in 100 in 1870, 5 in 100 in 1900, and 3 in 100 in 1940.

CHAPTER EIGHT

Women in Trades and Crafts

WOMEN IN TRADES and crafts do not include women in the trading business, whom we talked of under "Businesswomen," but women who have a trade or a craft or are foremen. We do not have information on all of them all the way back to 1870, so that we cannot say what shifts took place before they reached a total of 122,000 in 1940.

One fact is fairly clear. The work of the craftsmen is skilled and has a long apprenticeship, often it calls for physical strength, union regulations have held down the number of people who may enter the craft; as a result, throughout these 70 years, right up through 1940, the crafts were not a field of wide opportunities for women.

There is even some doubt about the small numbers of women whom the census reported in specific crafts. A woman who was reported as a blacksmith, say, may simply have been the owner of a blacksmith shop left her by her husband; women reported as machinists, may have in fact been machine operators. Further, some of the gains between 1930 and 1940 may be not real but the result of different methods used by the census those years in counting and checking.

FOREMEN

The work of foremen is of many types, some much less responsible than others. The facts on their numbers are apt to be more correct than those on other craft workers. The 23,000 women in the field in 1910 went up in 1920, down in 1930, and up again, to 38,000, in 1940. Throughout the 30 years the portion they were of all foremen stayed about the same—somewhat under one-tenth.

All but a fourth of the women foremen in 1940 were in manufacturing, and of those in manufacturing, over half were in the textile products and apparel industries. Over a tenth were in food industries, under a tenth in the metal industries, the rest—considerably less than a tenth in each case—were in the other groups of manufacturing industries.

DECORATORS AND WINDOW DRESSERS

Decorating and window dressing have proved a fast growing though small field of opportunities for women, according to figures since 1900. Homemakers who are taking an ever livelier interest in decorating and redecorating their homes consult private decorators and decorators in department stores. Any number of magazines are spurring them on. Stores vie with one another on ever handsomer and more effective window displays (even calling on well-known artists—a Dali—for something really exotic). Both types of work are a "natural" for women, though training in commercial art and decorating schools is usually required before a woman can qualify for a position.

At any rate, from 300 and less than a tenth of all decorators and window dressers in 1900, women came to be 6,500 and over a fourth of all of them by 1930. Then came the depression, and while a few more women came into the work—less than 300—women dropped back to not much over a fifth of all decorators and window dressers.

PAINTERS

Beginning with 96 in 1870, women came to be over 10,000 of the painters in 1940, and rose at the same time from 1 in a thousand painters to 20 in a thousand—not great numbers, but growing ones, that mean new opportunities for women. A third of the women painters in 1940 were working in new buildings or helping maintain old ones. Two-thirds were in factories and shops, where they were 7 out of every 100 painters; their chief opportunities here were in spray painting.

PAPERHANGERS

Offhand, one does not think of paperhanging as likely to attract many women. Nevertheless, a larger proportion of the paperhangers than of the painters have been women—1 in 100 in 1870, rising to 6 in 100 in 1940. The total number of paperhangers is much smaller than the number of painters however, and the number of women paperhangers in 1940 was not very large—1,700.

UPHOLSTERERS

Upholstering is closely related to women's work in the home, and it is a venerable occupation for women, for women have been in the upholstery business since pre-Revolutionary days. However, there were only 141 women upholsterers in 1870, but their numbers rose steadily to just over 2,000 by 1940. Relative to men, their numbers wavered, from 3 in every 100 upholsterers in 1870, to 7 in 100 in 1920, back to 5 in 100 in 1940.

CHAPTER NINE

Women Protective Service Workers

THROUGH THE LONG COURSE of history women have had the role of keepers of the hearth and home and men the role of fighting for and protecting hearth, home, and the community of which they are a part. How much these historical roles have affected men's and women's jobs is shown by men's overwhelming superiority in numbers in the protective services.

Up through the 1940 census no woman had been a fireman, soldier, sailor, coast guardsman, or marine. Women were not accepted in the armed services until World War II.

In other protective services women's part grew with the public's realization of the importance of crime prevention. Women had a growing number of jobs in women's divisions in police departments, as store detectives, and as guards. They never were much more than 1 in 100 of these workers, however, although their actual numbers grew from 20 in 1870 to over 4,000 in 1940.

CHAPTER TEN

Remarks

TO SUM UP, about a fourth—over 11½ million [1]—of the women in the United States who were 14 or more years old were employed in 1940. They were, in round figures:

White-collar workers	3,440,000	
Manual workers	1,970,000	
Service workers	3,723,000	
In public and private housekeeping		2,832,000
In other service work		891,000
Professional workers	1,493,000	
Businesswomen	319,000	
Agricultural workers	522,000	
Workers in trades and crafts	122,000	
Protective service workers	4,000	

To say that another way, in a group of 100 women workers, chances are there were:

30 white-collar workers
17 manual workers
32 service workers (24 in public or private housekeeping, 8 in other service industries)
13 professional workers
3 businesswomen
4 agricultural workers (half of them unpaid workers)
1 worker in trades and crafts

The protective service workers were fewer than 1 in 100.

Earlier chapters have told you something of individual occupations in which women were working and how these jobs developed, to give you a general view of the fields in which women work. If you wish to explore further, there are several publications that will serve you.

[1] Actually there were about 12½ million, including some 981,000 who have not been covered in this account, about 441,000 of them because they did not report their occupations to the census, about 540,000 because there were no groups of workers in earlier years with which to compare them.

First of all, if you wish further detail on the story that has been told here, you will want to refer to the book on which it is based, Janet Hooks' Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades, Bulletin 218 of the Women's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor.

The Women's Bureau has also published two leaflets, Your Job Future After High School, and Your Job Future After College, that have very helpful suggestions for girls planning what they want to do when school work is over.

Then, Marguerite Zapoleon of the Women's Bureau has written two series of booklets that tell a great deal about a number of specific jobs. The first series is The Outlook for Women in Occupations in the Medical and Other Health Services (Bulletin 203). The account of each job is a separate publication:

1. Physical Therapists
2. Occupational Therapists
3. Professional Nurses
4. Medical Laboratory Technicians
5. Practical Nurses and Hospital Attendants
6. Medical Record Librarians
7. Women Physicians
8. X-Ray Technicians
9. Women Dentists
10. Dental Hygienists
11. Physicians' and Dentists' Assistants
12. Trends and Their Effect Upon the Demand for Women Workers

Mrs. Zapoleon's second series is The Outlook for Women in Science, (Bulletin 223):

1. Science (General introduction to the series)
2. Chemistry
3. Biological Sciences
4. Mathematics and Statistics
5. Architecture and Engineering
6. Physics and Astronomy
7. Geology, Geography, and Meteorology
8. Occupations Related to Science

A third series, The Outlook for Women in Social Work, is being written. A byproduct of this series, The Outlook for Women in Police Work, is ready.

A very useful book, Occupational Outlook Handbook—Employment Information on Major Occupations for Use in Guidance, was prepared by the Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics in cooperation with the Veterans Administration.

The United States Employment Service issues helpful occupational guides. The Office of Education of the Federal Security Agency also issues guidance literature, especially on vocational guidance methods and techniques, but publishes also bibliographies of guidance literature. Recently the Office of Education prepared, and the Women's Bureau published, "Occupations for Girls and Women—Selected References."

The Department of Commerce has a number of booklets for people who want to set up a small busines establishment, and the Department of Agriculture has booklets for people who want to take up farm work.

These and other publications you may have by writing the various agencies.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1949 O-F—840888

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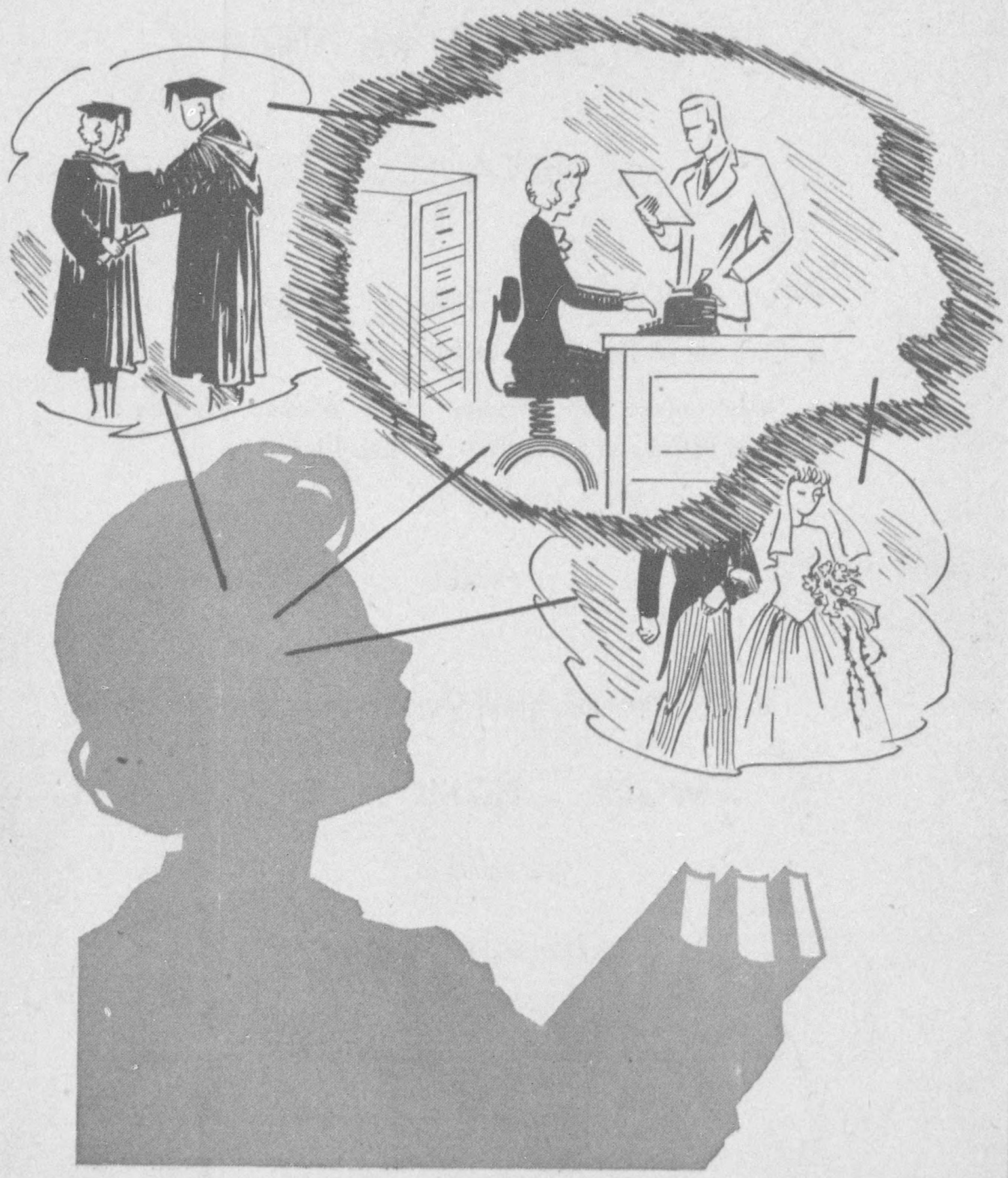
YOUR JOB FUTURE

after High School



DON'T Try to Choose Between Marriage OR Career

BUT

Get Ready for BOTH Home AND Job

BECAUSE

- Four out of Five Women Today Have Married
- One out of Three Women Now Are at Work
- Three out of Four Women Have Worked Outside Their Homes at Some Time in Their Lives

AND

In Your Planning, Work Out a Balance Among

WORK HOME PLAY

and

COMMUNITY SERVICE

No matter what your school or job plans are, are you now using your time

At School, at Home, and Elsewhere, to---

- **Lay the Ground Work for Success in Work and Marriage—**

  Good health habits, thorough work habits.
  Good manners, careful grooming.
  Consideration for others, seeing the other person's point of view, cooperating with others in a common task.
  Practice in doing everything you do as well as you can do it.
  Completion of your high-school course.

- **Learn Skills You Will Need at HOME—**

  Budgeting money and planning your time effectively.
  Buying wisely, judging quality in comparison with price.
  Plain cooking and sewing, housekeeping including care and repair of equipment.
  Caring for children.
  Home care of the sick and first aid.

- **Learn Skills Useful on Many JOBS—**

  Typing, correct use of telephone, keeping simple accounts.
  Speaking clearly, writing plainly, spelling correctly.

- **Find Out What Your School Subjects Mean to You, in—**

  Broadening your interests and understanding.
  Preparing you for further schooling.
  Helping you in your job planning.

- **Learn Enough About Yourself—**

  Know your likes and dislikes, your strong points and weak points.

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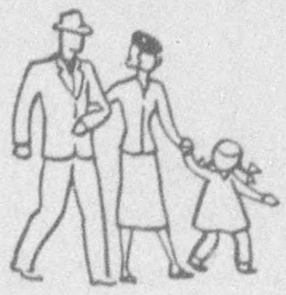
Do You Know What You Are Going To Do Immediately After Graduation?

Are you planning to—

Continue your education full-time? (At business school, professional or technical school, junior college, university.) About a third of the girls who graduate from high school continue their education.

Get a job? More than half the girls 18 and 19 years old are working.



Marry and raise a family, or remain at home for personal reasons? You may later be glad if you have developed or maintained skills useful in hunting a job, and if you have done volunteer work with community groups, should you some day be thrown suddenly on your own resources.

If you expect to take a job after graduation, do you know—

- Most girls 18 and 19 years of age have jobs as:

Household workers
Typists, stenographers, secretaries
Saleswomen
General office workers
Waitresses
Farm workers (mostly for their families)
Bookkeepers, accountants, cashiers and ticket agents

Factory workers in—
- Clothing factories
- Textile mills
- Metals and machinery plants
- Food processing (canning, candy manufacture, etc.)

Beauty operators
Telephone operators

In many communities only a few girls are working in some of these jobs

- Very few girls under 20 find jobs as:

Actresses
Advertising copy writers
Air-line stewardesses
Buyers
Commercial artists
Costume designers
Hostesses
Interior decorators
Models
Personnel workers

Jobs That Have the Same Name May Differ Widely

A clerical job in a big insurance office provides an entirely different environment from a clerical job in a hospital.

Assembly work in an aircraft factory is not the same as assembly work in a toy factory.

A power sewing-machine operator would find her work in a dress factory different from a power sewing job in a tent-and-awning factory.

Wrapping and packing in a candy factory differs from wrapping and packing in a department store.

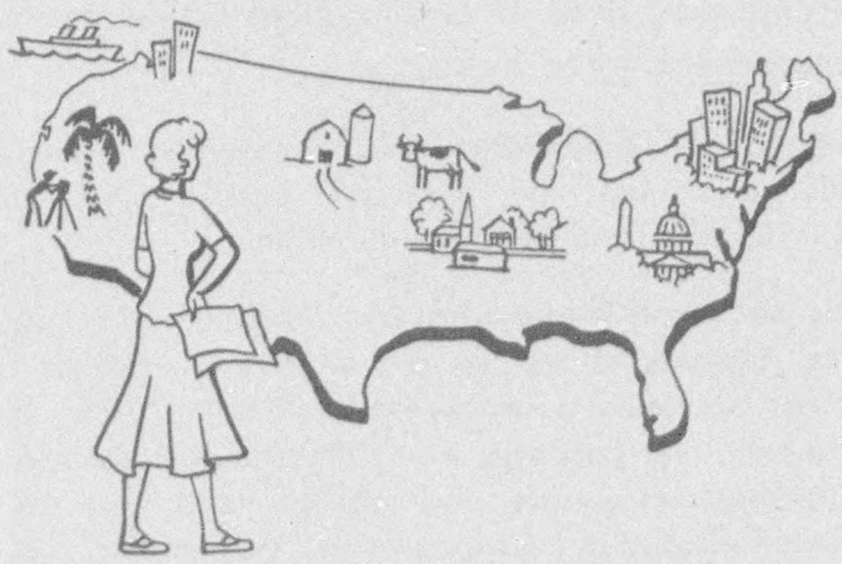
A telephone operator in a movie studio wotks in a different atmosphere compared to that in a large newspaper office.

A waitress job in a large hotel restaurant is different from that in a corner drug store.

A manicurist in the leading department-store beauty salon has a variety of customers as compared with one jn a neighborhood beauty shop.

Find Out Everything You Can About the Job Offered You—

Working conditions, the people you work with, the place in which you work; are important in liking your job, as well as present salary and future opportunities for advancement.



Do You Think That You Can Get the Job You Want Where You Want It?

- Opportunities vary in different parts of the country and in different communities.

  Even in stenography and other clerical work, in which shortages are general, some communities have enough workers; others need more of these workers.

- If you live in a county seat or the capital of your State, you might obtain a government job; if you live in a large industrial city, you may find a wide variety of factory jobs (as well as many office and store jobs).

- If you live in a rural community, your opportunities will be limited usually to farm, small-office, store, or restaurant work.

- If you plan to move to a different locality to take a job, be sure to weigh differences in living costs and living arrangements.

Are You Looking Far Enough Ahead?

- Have you tried to picture yourself 5 or 10 years from now?

  Planning ahead is important no matter what you do, but especially important if you should work a long time, or if you must depend mainly on yourself in emergencies.

- In general you take more of a chance when you choose a rapidly changing field of employment rather than one of the older, more established fields.

  Demand is less predictable for fashion workers, jewelry-store clerks, radio entertainers, and "seasonal" workers in resort hotels and in industries like food canning and millinery.

  Jobs are found in almost every community in occupations where large numbers of women are employed, such as stenography, typing, operating a switchboard, selling in stores, bookkeeping, restaurant and cafeteria work, dressmaking, commercial laundry work, practical nursing, and over the years there has been an increasing number of jobs for girls and women in most of these fields.

Do you know that you qualify for the work you want—

- As to age:

  Check with your school principal or your State labor department to find out if you can lawfully be employed to do the work.

- As to health:

  Is your general health good, and do you have the specific strength that may be required in the work of your choice?

- As to other personal characteristics:

  Do you have the special characteristics for the kind of work you are seeking? Are you relatively free from characteristics that would be a handicap in this kind of work?

- As to specialized training:

  Do you know about the specialized training that may be required for the work you want, or may help you get the job and later in getting promotions?

Well-qualified workers have more opportunity to choose where they would like to work. Develop your talents and abilities to the fullest extent. Continue learning.

Be ready to alter plans as job opportunities and your own interests change.

Before you decide what you are going to do—

TALK OVER YOUR PLANS

with

Your family, friends, pastor, and others who know you well

People in different occupations

Counselors, advisors, and teachers qualified to give vocational guidance

AND USE

Information and counseling services offered FREE to you such as those at your

SCHOOL

PUBLIC LIBRARY

LOCAL EMPLOYMENT OFFICE

Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor. 1949
Washington 25, D. C.

For sale by Superintendent of Documents • Washington 25, D. C. • Price 5 cents

The Women's Bureau

its PURPOSE

its FUNCTIONS

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
Maurice J. Tobin, *Secretary*
WOMEN'S BUREAU
Frieda S. Miller, *Director*

A few facts about the WOMEN'S BUREAU

It is the Government's clearinghouse for information on matters that pertain to women workers.

It was created by the Congress on June 5, 1920, and its functions are prescribed by law.

Its predecessor was the temporary "Woman In Industry Service" of World War I.

Its chief job is to formulate standards and policies to

Promote the welfare of wage-earning women,

Increase their efficiency,

Advance their opportunities for profitable employment.

It publishes its findings in bulletins, reports, leaflets, and other media.

Its program is shaped to meet changing economic conditions, whether caused by war or peacetime adjustments, prosperity or recession.

Its activities are based on the fact that women's employment is bound up with the community's welfare and the Nation's economic and social development.

It is concerned with women in all fields of employment:

Manufacturing
Service and Trade
Household Employment
Farm Work
Business and the Professions

It is equally interested in—the girl on her first job, the older woman, the married woman, the single woman worker.

It works in behalf of women of all races and creeds.

RESEARCH

Continuous research gives the Bureau its facts on women workers. Subjects with which it is concerned—and on which it publishes reports—are:

EMPLOYMENT

Earnings, hours, and conditions of work in industries which employ large numbers of women.

Long-time trends in women's employment—factors that have favored or deterred women's advancement.

The demand for and supply of women workers in established occupations.

The job outlook for women in new fields.

Training—on-the-job, vocational, and other.

Effect of technological changes on women's employment.

LEGISLATION

Labor legislation: Its development, progress, and significance to women workers.

Other legislation: Federal and State provisions that determine women's status under public law, family law, property law, and contract.

OTHER FIELDS OF INTEREST

Obligations of women for self-support and, as in many cases, for family support.

Responsibilities of women who are both workers and homemakers.

The needs of special groups—older women, married women, Negro women.

Participation of women in civic affairs.

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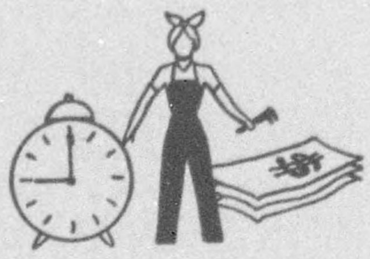
LABOR LAWS *for* WOMEN



The Bureau serves as a resource agency for those who work for better standards through legislation. It administers no laws but—

Makes analyses of existing laws that affect women workers—gives technical aid to State officials on such matters as inspection, enforcement, coverage.

Makes recommendations on proposed laws—helps State officials in the development of standards and language for draft bills when such aid is requested.

Issues current digests of legislation, present and pending.

Assists States in the revision of their cost-of-living budgets—publishes reports on the subject.

The major types of labor laws on which the Bureau works are MINIMUM WAGE, HOURS OF WORK, and EQUAL PAY. Information is available, also, as is consultation, on other standards that make up good working conditions for women —meal periods, sick leave, maternity leave.

CIVIL *and* POLITICAL STATUS

The Bureau is a centralized source of information on Federal and State laws that govern a woman's civil and political status. Its service in this field includes:

1. Basic reports on the laws that determine women's position with reference to—

Nationality . . . Franchise
Public Office . . . Jury Service . . . Domicile
Family Rights and Duties
Power of Contract
Ownership, Use, and Control of Property
Inheritance

2. Current digests of new laws—or of changes in old laws—that affect women's status in relation to *Government, property, family,* and *other individuals.*

3. Consultative service on proposed legislation and informational projects to such groups as:

Women's Organizations
Civic Groups
Educational Institutions
Trade Unions
Federal and State Agencies
Management

4. Technical service in the preparation of supporting materials for proposals of benefit to women on State, national, and international levels.

INTERNATIONAL

As a part of the United States Government's program of international cooperation, the Bureau

Conducts training courses for women labor officials from other countries—helps develop standards for *their* women workers.

Gives consultative service to other technicians and visitors—on labor legislation and working conditions in the United States.

Details Bureau technicians, on request of other governments, for on-the-spot work in their countries.

Maintains an exchange of information and publications with Government departments, private agencies, and interested individuals in many parts of the world.

Prepares technical information on the economic and legal status of women for the use of United States Government representatives in connection with the work of the United Nations and its affiliated agencies, the Inter American Commission of Women, and other international organizations which have an interest in and concern for women workers.

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PUBLICATIONS *and* SPECIAL SERVICES

The dissemination of facts is an important function of the Bureau. Through many kinds of media and in many different ways, the Bureau gets out the facts—and brings about a wide and effective use of its material on women workers.

In the PUBLICATIONS FIELD

TECHNICAL REPORTS

MONTHLY FACT SHEET ON WOMEN WORKERS

PRESS RELEASES

MAGAZINE ARTICLES

RADIO SCRIPTS

LEAFLETS

- TELL *what is happening on the job front*
- REPORT *on new standards and policies that affect working women*
- ANSWER *the needs of the general public and specific groups*
- CREATE *understanding of the problems faced by women workers*

In the SPECIAL SERVICES FIELD

BUREAU STAFF MEMBERS:

serve as technical advisers to groups who request help in the planning of *their* programs to promote the welfare of women workers.

serve as speakers or discussion leaders in workshops and conferences on women's interests.

prepare charts, maps, and other display material for use at conventions and conferences.

The BUREAU GETS ITS FACTS *from*

FIELD SURVEYS This method of investigation gives the Bureau first-hand, up-to-the-minute information. Surveys include not only a thorough examination of plant and personnel records but interviews with management, workers, trade unions, vocational counselors, deans of women, social agencies, women's organizations, and other groups and individuals.

FEDERAL AGENCIES Basic statistical data of other agencies are made available to the Bureau. Analyzed for their relationship to or effect on women workers, these data sometimes form the basis of extensive reports. This interagency cooperation enables the public and interested groups to receive integrated findings on women workers.

STATE AGENCIES Labor administrators inform the Bureau of developments within their States, particularly those that refer to minimum wage, hours of work, equal pay, and other State laws that pertain to women workers.

The CONFERENCE METHOD

The Bureau believes in the efficacy of the conference method and calls meetings when the need is indicated. These particular "Town Halls" in the Nation's Capital explore thoroughly the current issues that affect women—or may affect their future progress. They bring together many who have a deep interest in the welfare of women workers—representative of labor, management, State departments of labor, women's organizations, civic groups, vocational associations, and educational institutions. They inform those who seek information, give those who want to speak an opportunity to be heard, and often help bring about solutions to specific problems faced by women workers.

Reports of Bureau conferences usually are published—and are available upon request, as is the most recent report, *The American Woman: Her Changing Role—Worker, Homemaker, Citizen.* More than 200 pages in length, this bulletin preserves in permanent record all major addresses and discussions of the conference. Additionally, it includes a biographical section on individual women who have advanced the welfare and status of women of the United States.

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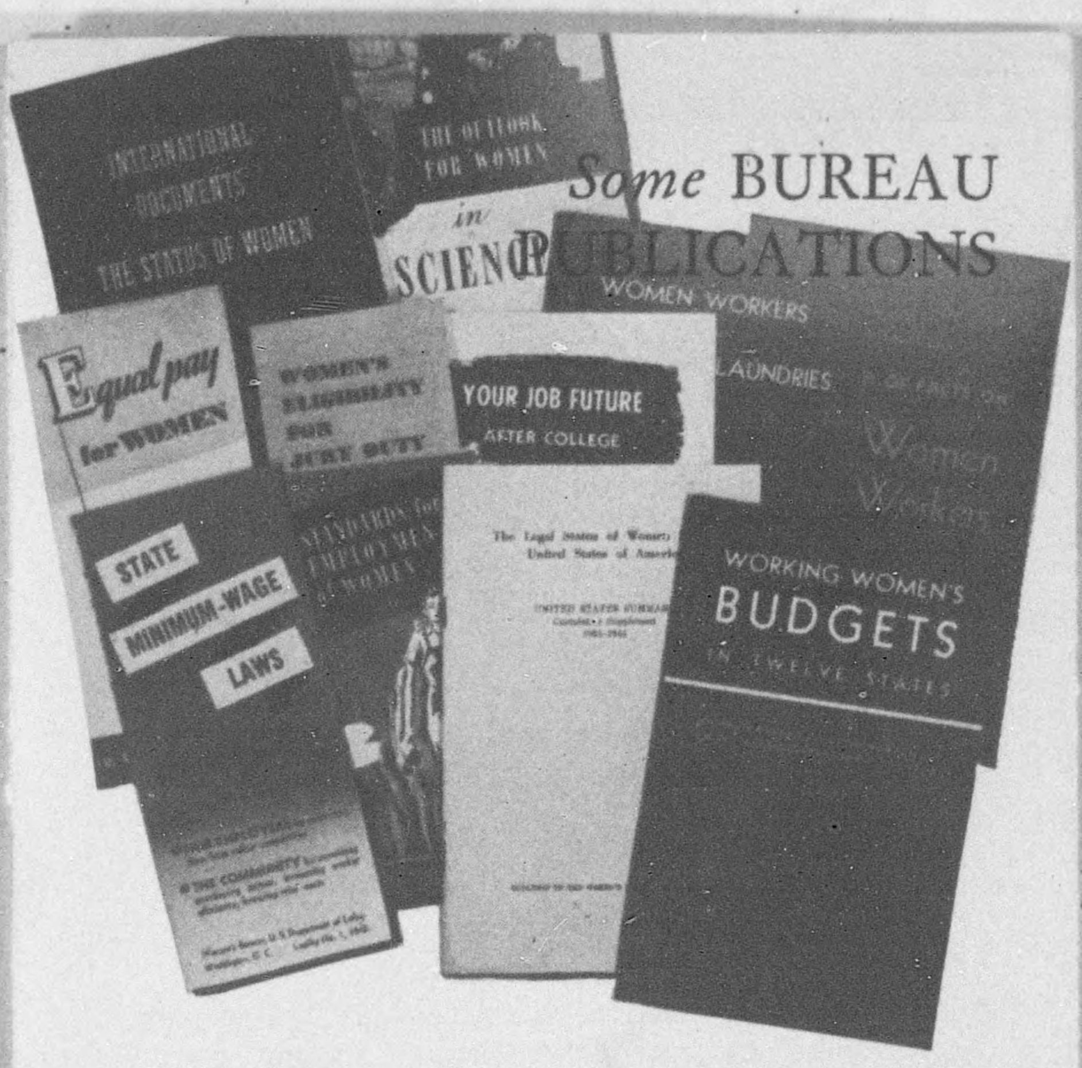

IN PRESS

Women in the Federal Service, Part II.

Women in Higher-Level Positions.

The Legal Status of Women in the United States. (Revision 1948.)

Handbook of Facts on Women Workers.

IN PREPARATION

The Outlook for Women in Social Work (a Series).

The Outlook for Women in Home Economics (a Series).

Cost of Living Surveys for Women Workers: A Proposed Method.

The services of the Bureau, as a function of Government, are without charge. For additional information or for single copies of any publication, write to the—

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
Women's Bureau
Washington 25, D. C.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE 16—61755-1

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Prepared by SMGR CE Section

April 1949

Women in Labor Unions, U. S.

(Asked by women in Ehime)

1 - How many women are in labor unions in the U.S.?

2 - What kinds of labor unions are women in?

3 - What is the average age of women workers?

4 - What proportion are married women? With children?

5 - Are working mothers protected officially? By laws or by some institute?

* * * * * * * * *

1 - No information available now.

2 - No information available now.

3 - No information available now.

4 - In 1900, 15% of women workers were married. In 1940, 35% were married. This proportion has increased, but no figures are available. In 1946, 8% of total women labor force were either wives in normal families where there were both husband and wife or heads of families with children under 6. Women tend not to work when their children are small. Women heads were workers in 34.7% of families with women heads and with children under 6 years, in 50% where there were children 6 to 17 years, and in 44.1% where there were no children.

5 - Working mothers are protected just like any other working women. Definite information will be given as obtained.

* * * * * * * * *

Some Facts on Women Workers

1 - In Jan. 1949, there were 16,000,000 women (14 years and over) in the civilian labor force. This is 28% of the total labor force of 57,000,000.

2 - In Oct. 1948, the following information was compiled about the occupations women held:

a. In order of number of women employed in various occupations.

(1)	Clerical	26%
(2)	Operatives, laborers, craftsmen and foremen	22%
(3)	Farmers and farm workers	11%
(4)	Service workers, except domestic	11%
(5)	Professional and semi-professional	9%
(6)	Domestic service workers	8%
(7)	Saleswomen	8%
(8)	Proprieters, managers and officials (except farm)	5%
		100%

b. Proportion of all employed which are women:

(1) 91% of all domestic service workers were women.
(2) 60% of all clerical and kindred workers
(3) 43% of all service workers except domestics
(4) 40% of all professional and semi-professional
(5) 37% of all salespeople
(6) 22% of all farmers and farm workers
(7) 16% of all operatives, laborers, craftsmen, and foremen
(8) 14% of all proprieters, managers and officials (except farm)

3 - In 1940, of every 9 women employed or seeking employment

a. 3 were clerical, sales or kindred workers

b. 2 were operatives or kindred workers

c. 2 were domestic service workers

d. 1 was a professional worker

e. 1 was a service worker in other than domestic or protective service work

4 - In 1940, four-fifths of all employed women were in 35 of the 451 detailed occupations listed in the census. In 1940, there were only 9 out of the 451 in which there were no women. During the war years women entered all but three - locomotive engineers, locomotive firemen, and firemen in fire departments.

Sources:

Facts on Women Workers - Women's Bureau U.S. Department of Labor
June 30, 1947
November 30, 1948

Facts on Women Workers - Women's Bureau U.S. Department of Labor
February 28, 1949
Life and Labor Bulletin - National Women's Trade Union League of America - No. 100
March, 1949

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FACTS | *on Women Workers*

U. S. Department of Labor
Maurice J. Tobin, *Secretary*

Women's Bureau
Frieda S. Miller, *Director*

WASHINGTON 25, D. C.

December 31, 1950

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN IN NOVEMBER

The number of women employed in nonagricultural industries increased by more than a million from November 1949 to November 1950, according to the Bureau of the Census. Agricultural employment declined and so did unemployment, leaving a net increase in the civilian labor force of about 2/3 million. The number of women nonworkers was practically unchanged.

A decline in women's employment over the month between October and November 1950 resulted from a seasonal decrease in farm employment, partly counteracted by a seasonal rise in other employment reflecting the start of the preholiday upswing in trade and other activities. Unemployment increased, as is normal during this period, when women move out of the "nonworker" group and begin to hunt for Christmas jobs.

	November 1950			
	Number of women	Percent women of all persons	Change since October 1950	Change since November 1949
Population (14 years and over)	56,676,000	51.0	+ 57,000	+ 688,000
Civilian labor force	19,493,000	30.7	+ 57,000	+ 665,000
Employed	18,561,000	30.3	- 107,000	+ 826,000
In agriculture	1,395,000	18.5	- 507,000	- 184,000
In nonagricultural industries	17,167,000	32.0	+ 401,000	+1,011,000
Unemployed	931,000	41.6	+ 163,000	- 162,000
Armed forces	26,000	1.3	+ 2,000	+ 6,000
Nonworkers	37,158,000	81.2	- 2,000	+ 17,000

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

A MILESTONE IN MEDICAL HISTORY

1950 marks the 100th anniversary of the founding of the Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania—the first college in the world organized for the medical education of women. It opened in October 1850 as the "Female Medical College," with 40 students and a faculty of six. The entire cost of the original 2-year course of study was about $150, and board could be obtained for from $1.50 to $3.00 per week.

Ann Preston, a graduate of the school's first class, became the first woman medical professor in the country when in 1852 she took the Chair of Physiology and Hygiene. Another of the school's famous early graduates was Dr. Hannah Longshore, the first woman holding an M.D. degree to "hang out her shingle" for the practice of medicine. The world's first woman medical missionary, Dr. Clara Swain, sailed for India to begin her work there immediately after graduating in 1869.

YOUNGER WOMEN WORKERS

Over 11 percent of all girls in the 14-17 age group were in the civilian labor force in March 1950, according to preliminary statistics from the 1950 Census. These statistics, released by the Census Bureau especially for use at the Mid-century White House Conference on Children and Youth, showed that 485,000 girls 14 to 17 were working or looking for work, and that about 60 percent of these were enrolled in school at the same time. Of the next older age group, 18 to 20 years, almost 1½ million girls were in the civilian labor force—45 percent of all girls in this age group.

For girls 14-17 the most important occupation numerically was saleswork. Over 20 percent of employed girls 14-17 were in this occupational group. Occupational groups next in order of importance were private household workers; clerical and kindred workers; service workers, except private household; craftsmen, foremen, operatives and kindred workers; and farm laborers. The occupational distribution of employed girls 18-20 followed more closely that for the entire woman labor force 14 years of age and over, with the top three occupational groups the same: clerical and kindred workers, first; craftsmen, foremen, operatives and kindred workers, second; and service workers, except private household, third.

"They Work While You Play"—Nearly 200,000 young people under 18—including 37,900 girls—were employed in 1947 in amusement industries—movies, theaters, bowling alleys, skating rinks, swimming pools, golf courses, amusement parks, etc., according to a study just released by the U. S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Standards. This study, "They Work While You Play," besides giving statistics on employment, also discusses the kinds of work young people do in amusement industries, their wages and working conditions, the effect on their health and schooling, and the need for legal regulation of their employment.

WORKING MOTHERS

Recent figures on characteristics of families, also published by the Census Bureau for use at the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth, throw new light on the subject of married women workers and working mothers. In March 1950 there were 7,551,000 husband-wife families in which both the husband and wife were in the labor force. Most (4,212,000) of these families had no children under 18, but among the remaining 3,339,000 families, there were 6,462,000 children under 18. There were in addition 532,000 husband-wife families in which only the wife was in the labor force, and 106,000 of these families had children under 18. The total number of these children was 213,000.

LONG-TERM DISABILITY AMONG WOMEN

Estimates on disability just published by the Social Security Administration show that in February 1949 there were 783,000 disabled women in the civilian noninstitutional population aged 14-64. They include women who for 7 months or more had been unable to do their regular work or other duties because of sickness or disability, and women who had a long-term physical or mental condition that allowed them to work only occasionally or not at all. Analysis of the age distribution of this group reveals that most of the disabled women were 45 or over. About 52.4 percent of all the disabled women were classified as keeping house, 36.3 percent were reported as unable to work, and 8.3 percent were in the labor force. Of all the disabled women, 51 percent had been employed before becoming disabled.

NEGRO WOMEN WORKERS

Progress Notes—A Negro woman gynecologist, Dr. Helen O. Dickens, was recently elected to membership in the American College of Surgeons. Dr. Dickens, a diplomate of the American Board of Obstetrics and Gynecology, becomes the first Negro woman to be so honored....A compilation by the Southern Regional Council has disclosed that 77 cities and towns in 13 southern States now employ 427 Negroes on police forces. Among these are 17 policewomen. Cities employing Negro police invariably report that the practice helps deter crime, increases respect for law and order, and improves race relations.

Statistics—Almost half (48 percent) of the total nonwhite woman population 14 years of age and over was in the labor force in November 1950, according to the Bureau of the Census. In contrast, only 33 percent of the white women 14 years of age and over were in the labor force. About 75 percent of the nonwhite women and 90 percent of white women workers were employed in nonagricultural industries. A much greater percentage of the nonwhite women than of the white women were working in agricultural industries. Unemployment among nonwhite women was heavier than among white women—6.9 percent as compared with 4.5 percent.

The differences in labor force status between white and nonwhite women were slightly less striking in November 1950 than in November 1949. Last year the Census Bureau reported as "in the labor force" 51 percent of the female nonwhites and 32 percent of the whites. Also, 25 percent of the women nonwhites were in agriculture then compared with only 18 percent this year, while the proportion of white women in agriculture remained roughly the same, at about 6 percent. Differences between white and nonwhite women workers in percent unemployed are about the same as last year.

WOMEN COLLEGE GRADUATES

During the school year 1949-50, 103,915 women in the United States received the bachelor's and first professional degrees, according to a report issued by the U. S. Office of Education. In addition, 16,982 women received master's and second professional degrees, and 643 received doctor's degrees.

College graduating classes of 1949-50 were the largest in history, according to the report. Among the bachelor's degree recipients, men outnumbered women by more than 3 to 1. The number of men earning their first degrees was about 25 percent greater than in 1948-49, while the increase in the number of women was slightly over 1 percent. The differences in rate of increase for the advanced degrees was less marked, though.

Most popular field of study among women at all levels in 1949-50 was education: 27,753 women received bachelor's degrees in this field; 7,723, master's; and 142, doctor's. Among women receiving bachelor's degrees, the next most popular subjects were, in order, English (9,023 graduates); home economics (7,885); business and commerce (6,226), sociology, music, psychology, history, nursing and fine arts. Each of these fields had over 3,000 graduates at the bachelor's level. Education and English were also the top two fields for women (142 and 49 respectively) receiving doctor's degrees, and next in importance were psychology (42), chemistry (39), modern languages (33), history (29), and zoology (23).

WOMEN IN GOVERNMENT

The first woman appointed Assistant Secretary of Defense is Mrs. Anna Rosenberg, who will specialize in manpower problems. Mrs. Rosenberg's long, successful career in the labor field includes service as regional director of the NRA (1935), of the Social Security Administration (1936-43), and of the War Manpower Commission (1942-45). She has also worked as a consultant on labor relations to private industry.

The Subversive Activities Control Board, a 5-member board appointed in October by President Truman, includes one woman, Dr. Kathryn McHale, former general director of the American Association of University Women. The Board was set up under the McCarran-Wood Act which requires Communists and Communist organizations to register with the Attorney General.

Miss Mary E. Switzer, recently appointed director of the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Federal Security Administration, will promote the vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise and their return to civil industry. Miss Switzer previously served as assistant to the Federal Security Administrator, with the responsibility for coordinating the health and medical interests of the Federal Security Administration.

Succeeding former Senator Hattie Caraway as a member of the U. S. Department of Labor's Employees Compensation Appeals Board, is Miss Grace McGerr. Miss McGerr has been an attorney with the U. S. Department of Agriculture since 1933.

INTERNATIONAL GRANTS TO WOMEN STUDENTS FROM ABROAD

Denmark, Finland, France, Norway, and 11 other countries in Europe and Asia are represented in a group of 52 women students brought to the United States by the American Association of University Women for advanced study here in 1950-51. From the Netherlands comes Miss Jacqueline Rutgers, head of the legal department of the Board of Government Mediators, The Hague, to study labor problems. Dr. Balbina Borenstein of Brussels, formerly with the Belgium Center for Economic and Social Studies, is here to study economics. Almost every field of advanced study is included among the subjects the AAUW's international students will pursue.

WOMEN IN KOREA

Before the North Korean attack, South Korea had established a Women's Bureau on a national level as part of the Department of Welfare; branches were in all cities. A dozen or so Korean women led the work of getting the women to assemble at the district offices for discussions of public matters, according to a report in the United Nations World recently. From these meetings developed women's business and professional clubs, Girl Scouts, Campfire Girls, Altrusa, and parent-teachers' associations.

"The Western world can hardly comprehend the burden of drudgery a Korean woman must support to keep her family going," says the report's author, who served as welfare adviser to the city of Seoul in 1948-49. Nevertheless, before the current war, women were slowly forging their emancipation. One woman succeeded in getting her name on the ballot for President of South Korea. Another was appointed head of the Department of Commerce by President Syngman Rhee.

(The printing of this publication has been approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget, March 9, 1950)

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FACTS *on Women Workers*

U. S. Department of Labor
Maurice J. Tobin, *Secretary*

Women's Bureau
Frieda S. Miller, *Director*

WASHINGTON 25, D. C.

November 30, 1950

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN IN OCTOBER 1950

Employment of women rose between October 1949 and October 1950 by more than a million, according to monthly reports of the Bureau of the Census. Not far from half of this increase was among agricultural workers, due largely to more favorable weather for harvesting of crops in October 1950 than in October 1949. Unemployment of women fell by nearly 1/4 million and there were fewer women non-workers than a year ago.

More than half a million women entered the labor market between September and October 1950. Large numbers of these were women in agricultural jobs, both wage workers and unpaid family workers. Unemployment declined somewhat.

	October 1950			
	Number of women	Percent women of all persons	Change since September 1950	Change since October 1949
Population (14 years and over)	56,619,000	50.9	+ 62,000	+ 680,000
Civilian labor force	19,436,000	30.5	+ 595,000	+ 848,000
Employed	18,668,000	30.2	+ 686,000	+ 1,093,000
In agriculture	1,902,000	22.4	+ 458,000	+ 494,000
In nonagricultual industries	16,766,000	31.5	+ 228,000	+ 599,000
Unemployed	768,000	39.6	- 91,000	- 245,000
Armed forces	24,000	1.4	No change	+ 4,000
Nonworkers	37,160,000	81.3	- 532,000	- 171,000

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

COST OF LIVING

The cost of commodities and services allowed in the Massachusetts budget for "certain working persons," which reflects the needs of both a working man and a working woman without dependents, was estimated to be $1,527 as of August 1950. This figure, obtained by use of the State retail price index, is $191 higher than the September-October 1946 costs determined by actual pricing. Federal income and social security taxes computed on the most recent commodity and service cost at rates applicable in August 1950 would amount to $181, but these are not included as part of the State's official budget. The State levies no income tax on single persons whose incomes are under $2,000.

MINIMUM WAGE

Ohio's revision of its 1936 minimum-wage order covering hotels and restaurants sets an hourly minimum of 40 cents for service workers in all population classifications and minimums of 55, 53, 51, and 49 cents, according to size of city, for non-service workers. These rates apply to a workweek of over 24 and up to 48 hours. For part-time workers the minimums established are 5 cents higher than those specified above. The order is mandatory, effective December 9, 1950. Deductions for meals are not permitted where meals are regarded as a part of the employee's compensation.

HOURS OF WORK LEGISLATION

In view of the existing National defense situation, California and Connecticut recently amended their hours laws to permit women and minors to be employed for hours longer than the maximums normally in effect. Both Acts became effective on passage. The California Defense Production Act authorizes the Governor, upon application of an employer in accordance with the law, to issue a defense production permit "permitting the employment of female employees at or for such hours, and at such type of work, and under such conditions, as may be helpful in increasing production and furthering the current defense program without unreasonably increasing the risk of impairing the health or safety of said employees." In event of war or other National emergency, Connecticut's labor commissioner, may, after investigation, and with approval of the Governor, increase beyond 8 per year the total number of weeks in which manufacturing and mechanical establishments may lengthen the workday and workweek of women and minors to 10-55 hours.

WOMEN IN UNIONS

The 830 delegates and officers attending the convention of the National Federation of Post Office Clerks, AFL, in August 1950, included 39 women--26 local delegates, 4 State delegates, and 9 member-at-large delegates. ...Of 149 delegates attending the 1950 convention of the International Brotherhood of Bookbinders, AFL, 31, or 21 percent, were women.

The New York Women's Trade Union League opened its 48th season recently with a pledge to continue serving the labor movement, even though the parent organization terminated its activities last June. "Despite the growth and strength of the labor movement there are thousands of working women still outside its ranks," the league's bulletin said. "...the league feels that ... its point of view with regard to the millions of organized and unorganized wage-earning women is still needed inside and outside the labor movement."

Seventeen % (184,325) of the total membership of a group of local unions in California are women, according to a study made by the California State Division of Labor Statistics and Research. Each year this office distributes a questionnaire to union locals in the State and publishes a summary of the returns. Over 2,300 locals returned the 1949 questionnaire. Comparing 1948 and 1949 union membership figures for both men and women, it was found that while there was a net decline in over-all membership, the number of women members rose 1 percent.

MAJOR OCCUPATIONS OF WOMEN, OCTOBER 1950

From October 1949 to October 1950 employment of women increased in all major occupational groups except one--the proprietary and managerial group. Greatest increase, 473,000, occurred among women farm workers, because of more favorable weather conditions in 1950 than the year before. The number of women manual workers (factory operatives and the like) also rose substantially, reflecting to some extent increased demands in defense industries. In each of two other occupation groups, the clerical group and the household worker group, there were significant increases.

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Occupation Group	Women, July 1950			
	Number	Percent distribution	Percent of all workers	Change in number from October 1949
All occupations	18,668,000	100.0	30.2	+ 1,093,000
Clerical and kindred workers	4,695,000	25.1	62.2	+ 122,000
Operatives, laborers (except farm and mine), craftsmen, foremen	3,971,000	21.3	16.2	+ 302,000
Service workers (except domestic)	2,044,000	10.9	44.3	+ 3,000
Professional, technical, and kindred	1,902,000	10.2	39.6	+ 76,000
Farmers and farm workers	1,864,000	10.0	22.4	+ 473,000
Private household workers	1,767,000	9.5	97.9	+ 108,000
Sales workers	1,478,000	7.9	37.7	+ 49,000
Proprietors, managers, and officials (except farm)	946,000	5.1	15.2	- 42,000

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

WOMEN IN FACTORIES, JUNE 1950

Factories in the United States employed 3,710,000 women in the summer of 1950 according to quarterly figures recently released by the U. S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics. Women in factory offices as well as women production workers are included in this figure. There were only 9,300 more women reported in June than in March 1950, but in certain industry groups the changes were considerable. The number of women in durable goods factories rose by nearly 64,000, the gains being greatest in making of electrical goods (17,400), transportation equipment (16,600), and in fabricated metal products (11,200). Employment of women in nondurable goods industries fell by nearly 55,000. There was a seasonal drop in apparel factories of 67,300 and a seasonal gain in food processing of 28,200.

Women constituted 25 percent of all wage and salary workers in factories in June 1950, compared with 26 percent in March 1950. In few industries was the change marked. In general the proportion of women to all workers rises in a busy season and falls in a slack season. Seasonal factors probably account for the rise in the ratio of women to all workers in canning and the fall in ratio in millinery, in the making of fur goods, and in confectionery.

WOMEN IN THE 82ND CONGRESS

There will be 9 women in the 82nd Congress--1 in the Senate and 8 in the House of Representatives. Senator Margaret Chase Smith, Republican of Maine, was not up for re-election this year. Mrs. Helen Gahagan Douglas ran as the Democratic nominee to the Senate from California but was defeated. The following, out of a total of 17 women candidates from the Democratic and Republican parties, were elected to the House:

Mrs. Frances P. Bolton, R., Ohio	(7th term)
Mrs. Reva B. Bosone, D., Utah	(2d term)
Mrs. Marguerite S. Church, R., Ill.	(1st term)
Mrs. Cecil M. Harden, R., Ind.	(2d term)
Mrs. Edna F. Kelly, D., N. Y.	(2d term)
Mrs. Edith Nourse Rogers, R., Mass.	(14th term)
Mrs. Katharine St.George, R., N. Y.	(3rd term)
Miss Ruth Thompson, R., Mich.	(1st term)

The number of women in Congress has remained within the 8 to 10 range since 1929. In the 71st Congress (1929-31) there were 9 women; 72d, 8; 73rd, 8; 74th, 8; 75th, 9; 76th, 9; 77th, 10; 78th, 9; 79th, 10; 80th, 8; 81st, 10.

WOMEN IN THE UNITED NATIONS

Two women are serving as Representatives at the fifth session of the UN General Assembly, now meeting in New York--Miss Minerva Bernardino, Dominican Republic, and Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt, United States of America. Serving as alternates are 12 women from 11 countries--Belgium, Canada, Chile, Denmark, India, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Sweden, United Kingdom, United States. The Netherlands has 2 women alternates. Four of the 9 women advisers at this session come from the United States; the other 5 represent Australia, Denmark, France, Netherlands, and Poland.

"FOOTPRINTS ON THE SANDS OF TIME"

On November 1 Susan B. Anthony, a leader of the woman suffrage movement, was elected to the Hall of Fame at New York University, becoming the eighth woman so named and the first elected since 1920. Names of two other women were also proposed this year, but they were not elected: Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell, nominated by the New York League of Business and Professional Women, and Dorothea Lynde Dix, nominated by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, Inc. Already standing in the Hall of Fame are portrait busts of these women--Mary Lyon, Maria Mitchell, Emma Willard, since 1905; Harriet Beecher Stowe, Frances E. Willard, since 1910; Charlotte S. Cushman, since 1915; and Alice Freeman Palmer, 1920.

HAVE CAREER WOMEN OF AMERICA, 1776-1840, by Elisabeth Anthony Dexter. Marshall Jones Company, Francestown, N. H. 1950.

YOU "The Woman Chemist," by Cornelia T. Snell, in CHEMICAL AND ENGINEERING NEWS, September 11, 1950.

READ WOMEN'S ELIGIBILITY FOR JURY DUTY. U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. Leaflet. 1950. (Revision of earlier edition.)

(The printing of this publication was approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget, March 9, 1950.)

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FACTS | *on Women Workers*

U. S. Department of Labor
Maurice J. Tobin, *Secretary*

Women's Bureau
Frieda S. Miller, *Director*

WASHINGTON 25, D. C.

October 31, 1950

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN IN SEPTEMBER 1950

The number of women in the civilian labor force increased by over 1/3 million from September 1949 to September 1950, according to the U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. The net increase is attributed to over 4/5 million additional women workers in the nonagricultural industries. The increase in non-farm employment was general—including both sexes and all ages—but the greatest relative gains apparently took place among women 35 and over. There were fewer women in agriculture than last year. Unemployment among women dropped by more than 1/4 million over the year. The number of women in the armed forces was 5,000 greater in September 1950 than in September 1949.

Seasonal slow-downs between August and September 1950 caused a decline in women's employment of about 1/4 million. Teen-age girls returned to school and agricultural activities slackened. Reductions also took place in trade and service activities, which ordinarily hire large numbers of summer workers.

	September 1950			
	Number of women	Percent women of all persons	Change since August 1950	Change since September 1949
Population (14 years and over)	56,557,000	50.9	+ 60,000	+ 681,000
Civilian labor force	18,841,000	29.6	- 208,000	+ 397,000
Employed	17,982,000	29.4	- 231,000	+ 656,000
In agriculture	1,444,000	18.5	- 17,000	- 149,000
In nonagricultural industries	16,538,000	31.0	- 214,000	+ 805,000
Unemployed	859,000	36.7	+ 23,000	- 259,000
Armed forces	24,000	1.7	+ 1,000	+ 5,000
Nonworkers	37,692,000	81.9	+ 268,000	+ 280,000

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

MINIMUM WAGE

Kentucky's recent revision of its 1943 minimum-wage order for hotels and restaurants reduces the number of zones in the State from 4 to 3 and sets minimum rates for zones 1, 2, and 3 respectively, at 60 cents, 58 cents, and 56 cents for non-service employees, and 45 cents, 43 cents, and 41 cents for service employees. It also requires premium pay after 48 hours throughout the State. This directory order was to become effective October 1, 1950, but enforcement has been temporarily restrained by court order.

EQUAL PAY

The 81st Congress, before its recess on September 23, 1950, failed to act on equal-pay legislation. The Senate equal-pay bill (S. 706) came up on the consent calendar twice and was twice passed over, resulting in no action. In the House, H.R. 1584 and H.R. 2438 were reported favorably by a subcommittee, but the full Committee on Labor and Education did not act. Copies of reports of both Senate and House Committees are available.

HOUSEHOLD EMPLOYEES NOW OVER THE SOCIAL SECURITY HURDLE

January 1, 1951, will be a big day for household employees. Work they do in a private home may, from then on, count toward monthly insurance payments for them and their families in old age, and for their families when they die. To qualify for social security coverage, a worker must meet two tests: he must make $50 or more in cash wages from one household in a quarter (13 week period), and he must work either full or part time on 24 or more days for this household employer during that quarter or the quarter just before it. If the worker meets these tests for more than one employer he will get credit for work with his other employers also.

Provisions for extending social security to household employees were included in a bill amending the Social Security Act, which President Truman signed in August. Until 1954 the household employee's tax will be 1½ cents on each dollar of his cash wages. The worker's employer deducts this from the wages and adds an equal amount as his own payment.

SALARIES OF OFFICE WORKERS, NEW YORK CITY

Women general stenographers employed in New York City offices averaged $47 a week in February 1950, according to a study made recently by the U. S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics. Of 24 occupational groups studied, general stenographers was the largest. Clerk-typists and clerks doing routine filing work, the second and third largest job groups for women, averaged $40 and $35.50, respectively. In 4 women's jobs—hand bookkeepers, technical stenographers, class A bookkeeping-machine operators, and payroll clerks—average weekly salaries were above $50.00; hand bookkeepers had the highest average ($65.50).

"Salary levels were about the same for men and women employed in routine office jobs;" says the BLS report, "but men's pay generally averaged higher than women's when pay comparisons were made in jobs involving a substantial period of training and thorough knowledge of office procedures or of employer policy. Men payroll clerks and accounting clerks, for example, averaged $10 more a week than did women in these jobs."

Office workers in wholesale trade, in the transportation, communication, and other public utilities group, and in central and administrative offices of firms with operations in many areas generally and higher earnings than workers in other industries studied. A 35-hour, 5-day week was the most common work schedule in all industry divisions, except retail trade, in which a 40-hour week was usual.

EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF RECENT COLLEGE GRADUATES

Slightly over 79 percent of the recent graduates of Hunter College (women in the classes of June 1946 through June 1948) were gainfully employed in 1949, according to a survey reported this year. Almost 11 percent were full-time graduate students. About 8 percent were housewives not otherwise employed, and roughly 2 percent were unemployed. In addition to the full-time graduate students, 15 percent of all the recent alumnae were taking graduate work on a part-time basis while gainfully employed. The employment status of recent graduates as shown in this report did not differ appreciably from that reported in 1947 when a similar survey was made of the classes of January 1940 through June 1946.

In the 1949 survey, teaching held first place among occupations reported for those gainfully employed. Next most frequently reported occupations were secretary-stenographer, social worker, laboratory technician or research assistant, clerk, dietitian or food manager, accountant-bookkeeper, librarian, journalist, personnel worker, statistician or social research worker, or advertising-publicity worker. Median monthly salary reported in 1949 for the classes of June 1946-1948 was $206.

WOMEN BENEFICIARIES OF SOCIAL SECURITY

During 1949 the number of retired women workers who began receiving old-age benefits under the Social Security system was 48,193. Average monthly amount paid them was $22.27. Comparable number of male beneficiaries was 289,080; their average monthly payment was $29.41. Beginning in September 1950, however, benefit payments to all retired workers were increased as provided by the 1950 amendments to the Social Security law.

WOMEN HEADS OF HOUSING AUTHORITIES

Forty-two women are heads of local housing authorities in the United States, according to the National Association of Housing Officials. Chicago, second largest city in the country, has a woman executive head of its housing authority—Miss Elizabeth Wood. Women also administer housing authorities in San Antonio, Texas; Ponce, P.R.; Duluth, Minn.; Pawtucket, R.I.; Hamilton, Ohio, LaCrosse, Wis.; Raleigh, N.C.; and White Plains and Rome, N.Y. California has more women directors of local housing authorities than any other State—seven. Texas runs a close second with six.

WOMEN AND LIFE INSURANCE

Women bought more life insurance in 1949 than any previous year, according to the Institute of Life Insurance. They almost doubled their 1940 purchases. At the end of 1949 nearly $39 billion of life insurance was in force on the lives of women, about one-fifth of the total life insurance in the U. S. About 60 percent of the ordinary insurance bought on women's lives was on working women and about one-third on housewives.

THE CALL TO COLORS

First employee of the large Monsanto Chemical Company to be called to active duty as a direct result of the action in Korea was a woman, according to Monsanto Magazine. A former secretary in the St. Louis office—surrounded by reserve colonels, majors and captains, all male—she is now Pfc. Claire Messimore, U. S. Marine Corps.

UNITED NATIONS REPORTS ON WOMEN'S POLITICAL RIGHTS

Currently 56 countries permit women to vote in all elections on an equal basis with men; 3 countries admit women to all elections, but under different and generally higher qualifications than those applied to men; 5 countries allow women to vote only in local elections; and 16 countries deny women any political rights (3 of these have no electoral rights for men, either). These are findings of a report submitted by the Secretary General to the UN General Assembly at its current meeting in New York City. The report, requested by ECOSOC, covers women's status as of September 1, 1950, under political laws in 80 countries throughout the world.

Progress in women's political status is shown by the fact that 21 countries have extended full or limited political rights to women since the Charter of the United Nations was signed in 1945. This advance has undoubtedly been stimulated by international cooperation, growing out of the systematic reports of conditions among the countries, and by the interchange of information on methods used and results observed in countries where women have already achieved full political status.

NEGRO WOMAN NAMED TO UNITED NATIONS GENERAL ASSEMBLY

Mrs. Edith Sampson, outstanding Negro attorney, has been name by President Truman as an alternate delegate to the UN General Assembly. Mrs. Sampson has been engaged in the private practice of law in Chicago for the past several years. Previously she had served as Probation Officer and Referee of the Juvenile Court of Cook County. She holds law degrees from John Marshall Law School and Loyola University, being the first woman to receive a Master of Laws degree from Loyola. Long active in civic affairs in this country, she traveled last year with the world-touring American Town Hall forum, as chairman of the panel that toured the Far East, visiting India, Pakistan, and other countries.

WOMEN'S CONFERENCE HELD IN GERMANY

"The Individual Responsibility of Women in Meeting the Critical Issues of Today" was the theme of a Women's Conference held in Bad Reichenhall, Bavaria, September 25-30. The Conference was called by the Women's Affairs Branch of HICOG (Office of the High Commissioner for Germany) in cooperation with Women's Affairs Offices of the French and British Zones and a Consultative Committee of German women. Over 100 delegates from 15 different countries attended. Through the lectures and discussions the delegates found new directives for their work and their organizations and many of them established contact with women of other countries from whom they had been shut off for almost 20 years. The delegates came from a wide assortment of professions and represented women's organizations, labor unions, student associations, Catholic and Evangelical associations, press and radio, Red Cross, and Bar associations. Miss Mary Cannon, Chief of the International Division of Women's Bureau, was one of the 4 U.S. representatives at the Conference.

WOMEN MAYORS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Women are occupying high municipal office in several South African cities. The mayor of Durban, one of the principal ports in South Africa, with a population of 370,000, is a woman, and the deputy-mayor is a woman too. Roodepoort, population 74,000; Salisbury, population 84,000; Potchefstroom, with 27,000 population; Pretoria, 242,000; and Springs, 106,000—have women mayors also.

(The printing of this publication was approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget, March 9, 1950.)

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FACTS on Women Workers

U. S. Department of Labor
Maurice J. Tobin, *Secretary*

Women's Bureau
Frieda S. Miller, *Director*

WASHINGTON 25, D. C.

September 30, 1950

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN IN AUGUST 1950

The woman population 14 years old and over rose by two-thirds million between August 1949 and August 1950, according to the Bureau of the Census. During the same period the number of employed women increased by not far from one million, chiefly in nonagricultural industries. The number of unemployed women declined by about one-third million.

In August 1950 there were one-half million more women employed than in July 1950. This increase, striking for a single month's period, was entirely among nonagricultural workers. About half of it represented a decline in the number unemployed, the remainder coming from women not in the labor force in July.

	August 1950			
	Number of women	Percent women of all persons	Change since July 1950	Change since August 1949
Population (14 years and over)	56,497,000	50.9	+ 86,000	+ 676,000
Civilian labor force	19,049,000	29.4	+ 330,000	+ 575,000
Employed	18,213,000	29.2	+ 581,000	+ 910,000
In agriculture	1,461,000	17.9	- 2,000	+ 49,000
In nonagricultural industries	16,752,000	30.9	+ 583,000	+ 860,000
Unemployed	836,000	33.4	- 251,000	- 334,000
Armed Forces	23,000	1.7	No change	+ 5,000
Nonworkers	37,424,000	83.7	- 245,000	+ 95,000

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

MINIMUM WAGE

The revision of Connecticut's 1946 minimum-wage order for mercantile trade, which soon becomes effective, covers women, minors, and men. A minimum hourly rate of 75 cents is set for both full-time and part-time workers. (Present minimums are $22.00 for a 36 to 44 hour week for full-time workers, 55 cents an hour for part-time workers.) The overtime rate is increased from 1¼ to 1½ times the employee's regular rate for hours worked in excess of 44 a week. (Maximum is 48.)

DISABILITY BENEFITS LAW

New York's "disability benefits law," enacted and approved in 1949 and becoming fully effective on July 1, 1950, expressly excludes from its provisions "any period of disability caused by or arising in connection with a pregnancy," unless the worker, having returned to employment with a covered employer following termination of pregnancy, has been employed for a period of 2 consecutive weeks. She is then entitled to receive benefits even if the disability is caused by the pregnancy.

SOCIAL SECURITY

Some of the major changes in the old-age and survivors insurance system which are contained in the Social Security Amendments signed on August 29 by the President are of particular interest to women: (1) Extension of coverage to include a substantial proportion of regularly employed household and agricultural workers with specified wage credits, self-employed persons, employees of nonprofit institutions, public employees in State and local governments electing to obtain coverage if they are not already covered by a retirement system, and Federal workers regularly employed who are not already covered by a retirement system. (2) Provision for payment of benefits to a retired insured worker, for his wife, regardless of her age, if she has in her care a child under 18 who is also entitled to benefits. (Formerly, benefits were paid for her only when she reached 65, but then irrespective of whether she had a dependent child or not.) (3) Provision for benefits for dependent husbands or widowers, age 65 or over. (4) Liberalization of certain requirements as to benefits for children (either natural, adopted, or step children) dependent under the law on insured women. (5) Increase in the scale of benefits to be paid, as well as an increase in the rate of contribution to be paid by both the employer and employee.

LIFE EXPECTANCY

The general health of married women, as reflected by prevailing mortality rates, has improved since 1900 much faster than that of unmarried women, according to statistics prepared by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. The death rate for married women at ages 20 and over has been cut in half, while that among spinsters, widows, and divorcees has been reduced by only two-fifths. At the turn of the century, married women at ages under 35 had a higher death rate than unmarried women, but at present married women have a lower mortality rate at every age. According to the Company's statisticians, progress in safeguarding pregnancy and childbirth has played a major part in lowering mortality rates among married women.

WORKING WOMEN IN THE LAST DECADE

The following facts*/ on working women in 1940 and in 1950 were released by Frieda S. Miller, Director of the U. S. Department of Labor's Women's Bureau, in a statement issued in observance of Labor Day 1950:

1950 - 18 million women workers
1940 - 14 million women workers

1950 - Over half the women workers 35 years old or over
1940 - Three-fifths the women workers under 35

1950 - About half the women workers married, one-third single
1940 - About one-third the women workers married, one-half single

Four Leading Occupations of Women:

1950
- Clerical workers (including telephone operators, etc.)
- Operatives
- Service workers (workers in hotels, restaurants, beauty parlors, etc.)
- Professional and semiprofessional workers (nurses, teachers, doctors, dietitians, etc.)

1940
- Clerical workers
- Operatives
- Domestic service workers
- Professional and semiprofessional workers

*/ U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census figures for April 1940 and April 1950.

EARNINGS OF WOMEN WORKERS

Footwear Manufacturing - Average earnings of women workers in footwear manufacturing in 13 major centers in October 1949 exceeded $1.50 an hour only in Boston, Los Angeles, and New York, according to the U. S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics. Average hourly earnings for men of at least $1.50 were recorded for half or more of the selected occupations in all but 2 of the 13 centers studied—Missouri (except St. Louis) and Southeastern Pennsylvania.

Men's Seamless Hosiery - Women, who are about two-thirds of the workers in the men's seamless hosiery manufacturing industry, averaged 82 cents per hour in October 1949, a study by the U. S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics showed. Men averaged $1.04 per hour. Approximately 40 percent of the women, generally found in the less skilled jobs, and more than 15 percent of the men earned under 75 cents an hour.

The Middle Atlantic States and the Southeast region contain about three-fourths of the workers in the industry, and there was very little difference in wages paid to workers in the two regions. Over-all average hourly earnings in the Middle Atlantic States were 90 cents, as compared with 88 cents in the Southeast. Men averaged $1.06 in the Middle Atlantic region and $1.03 in the Southeast and women 83 cents and 81 cents, respectively.

Women's Coats and Suits, September 1949 - Women workers, who made up over half the labor force in this industry, earned considerably less than men workers, according to a Bureau of Labor Statistics study. Twelve leading garment centers were included in the study, and in 11 of these cities differences between average hourly earnings of men and of women ranged from 52 cents in Baltimore to $1.45 in Los Angeles. Men's earnings averaged at least $2.00 an hour in 9 of the 12 cities studied; average earnings of women were $1.50 or more in 7 cities, but in no city exceeded $1.95 an hour.

Cutting, marking, and pressing, are predominantly "men's occupations" and are among the highest paid in the industry. In cities where enough women were working in these occupations to justify presentation of an average wage for them, this wage was much lower than that for men. In Kansas City, Mo., men cutters and markers averaged $1.74 an hour, while women averaged $0.98 an hour. In San Francisco, women hand pressers averaged $1.68 an hour while men averaged $1.96.

NEGRO WOMEN WORKERS IN SAN FRANCISCO AREA

Comparison of the occupational status of Negro workers in the San Francisco Bay Area in 1948 with their status in 1940 shows considerable improvement, according to a study made recently at the University of California. In 1940 two-thirds of the employed Negro workers were engaged in service occupations, contrasted with less than a third of the workers included in the sample studies made in 1948.

Nearly two-thirds of all employed Negro women in San Francisco and Oakland were domestic servants in 1940; by 1948 the proportion had dropped to a fifth. The proportion of Negro women in clerical occupations increased substantially in the same period. However, only a fifth of the employed Negro women in 1948 were in clerical, proprietary, and managerial, or professional jobs, although these occupations included nearly three-fourths of all employed women in the San Francisco-Oakland district in 1947.

MAJOR OCCUPATIONS OF WOMEN, JULY 1950

Considerable gains in women's employment in the year from July 1949 to July 1950 were reported in the professional and semiprofessional and in the combined service occupations groups. Each of these two groups employed about 1/3 million more women in July 1950 than a year before. Other occupational groups showed smaller gains, except that of agricultural workers, which declined. While July usually is a month of high agricultural employment, the weather in July 1950 was less favorable than in July of the preceding year. More than 1/2 million fewer women were reported working on farms this year than in July 1949.

Occupation group	Women, July 1950			
	Number	Percent distribution	Percent of all workers	Change in number from July 1949
All occupations	17,632,000	100.0	28.8	+ 334,000
Clerical and kindred workers	4,608,000	26.1	59.7	+ 33,000
Operatives, laborers (except farm and mine), craftsmen, foremen	3,523,000	20.0	14.6	+ 89,000
Service workers (except domestic)	2,168,000	12.3	46.7	+ 146,000
Domestic service workers	1,729,000	9.8	89.8	+ 185,000
Professional and semi-professional workers	1,659,000	9.4	39.4	+ 353,000
Farmers and farm workers	1,459,000	8.3	17.7	- 561,000
Sales workers	1,412,000	8.0	37.2	+ 23,000
Proprietors, managers, and officials (except farm)	1,075,000	6.1	16.4	+ 66,000

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

WOMEN IN SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING

Women get a better break in chemistry today than in any other scientific field, in the opinion of Dr. Mildred Rebstock, a chemist with Parke, Davis and Co. Of all women in the principal scientific fields in 1946-47, 42 percent were in chemistry. At Parke, Davis and Co., women are about 40 percent of the technical staff.

In the fall of 1949 there were 763 women among the 219,500 students enrolled in engineering in schools accredited by the Engineers' Council for Professional Development and 39 other colleges. Most (678) of the women were working for bachelor's degrees; 75 for master's, and 10 for doctor's, according to the Journal of Engineering Education.

HAVE YOU READ

THE OUTLOOK FOR WOMEN IN DIETETICS, Home Economics Occupations Series. Bulletin No. 234-1. Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor.

THE OUTLOOK FOR WOMEN IN SOCIAL CASE WORK IN A MEDICAL SETTING. Social Work Series. Bulletin No.235-1.Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor.

WOMEN IN HIGHER-LEVEL POSITIONS. A survey of women in positions of responsibility in selected fields of business and industry and in specified areas. Bulletin No. 236. Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor.

INDUSTRY'S UNFINISHED BUSINESS. By Sara E. Southall. (Harper & Brothers).

EDUCATING OUR DAUGHTERS. By Lynn White, Jr. (Harper and Brothers).

(The printing of this publication has been approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget, March 9, 1950.)

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FACTS on Women Workers

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U. S. Department of Labor
Maurice J. Tobin, *Secretary*

Women's Bureau
Frieda S. Miller, *Director*

WASHINGTON 25, D. C.

July 31, 1950

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN IN JUNE 1950

Nearly 900,000 women were added to the civilian labor force between June 1949 and June 1950, according to monthly reports of the U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Nearly three-fourths of the increase was among women 45 years old and over. The number of girls under 20 in the labor force had declined slightly from June of last year. There were nearly one-fourth million fewer women nonworkers than in 1949.

In June 1950 there were nearly a million more women in the labor force than in May 1950. Some of these represented girls leaving school, there being half a million more girls under 20 in the labor force in June than in May. Girls of this age also added 200,000 to the increase in unemployment of women in the month's time.

	June 1950			
	Number of women	Percent women of all persons	Change since May 1950	Change since June 1949
Population (14 years and over)	56,353,000	50.9	+ 53,000	+ 643,000
Civilian labor force	19,437,000	30.0	+ 965,000	+ 871,000
Employed	18,253,000	29.7	+ 708,000	+ 867,000
In agriculture	2,033,000	22.5	+ 560,000	- 225,000
In nonagricultural industries	16,220,000	30.9	+ 148,000	+1,092,000
Unemployed	1,184,000	35.0	+ 257,000	+ 4,000
Armed forces	22,000	1.7	No change	+ 4,000
Nonworkers	36,894,000	82.9	- 912,000	- 232,000

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

MINIMUM WAGE

Massachusetts has revised its 1947 "clerical, technical, and similar occupations" order, setting the minimum rate for experienced employees at 65 cents an hour (had been 60 cents) and for inexperienced at 60 cents (had been 55 cents). The order, which became mandatory June 16, 1950, covers women, minors, and men.

Washington revised its 1942 order for minors under 18 years of age who are not expressly covered by another minimum-wage order. Agricultural labor, domestic service, or chores in or about a private residence, and employment directly by telephone or telegraph companies are among the occupations excepted by the order. The revision, effective July 10, 1950, fixes the minimum hourly rate for minors at 50 cents (formerly 25 cents).

MINIMUM WAGE

The Senate Committee on the District of Columbia on June 26 reported favorably on a bill to amend the District's minimum-wage law by extending application to male workers 18 years of age and over. The law now covers only women and minors. If passed by Congress, the amendment will prohibit the employment of males in the District of Columbia at a "rate less than or under conditions and standards of employment less favorable than the rates fixed or conditions and standards prescribed for women and minors . . . by an applicable minimum-wage order." Five States in the past 10 years have amended their women's minimum-wage laws to apply to men.

IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION

The Senate Committee on the Judiciary issued in April its findings from a study of immigration and naturalization laws and practices. Recommendations for revision and codification of these laws have been introduced in Congress as S.3455 by Senator McCarran. "One basic principle incorporated in the bill is that which eliminates inequalities between the sexes in all rights and privileges extended to aliens or to citizens from whom such aliens may claim special consideration based on family relationship," says the Report. All of the suggestions the Women's Bureau presented in 1948 for changes in the Immigration laws are included in the McCarran bill.

WOMEN'S ROLE IN AN INTERNATIONAL EMERGENCY

Plans for mobilization in case of emergency would have to include participation by women, according to Miss Frieda S. Miller, Director of the Women's Bureau. "They constitute the only sizeable labor reservoir for industrial production, for essential volunteer work, and they have an established position in the armed services," Miss Miller said.

Those who are responsible for planning "will need to let women know that there is full respect and recognition of their potential contribution and that they are equal partners in the undertaking. Any plan for women's participation in a mobilized economy must recognize and make provision for their other essential contributions to the life of the Nation. Mothers of young children and other women who have full-time family responsibilities must have these basic obligations honored."

The task of disaster work in civilian defense would fall mainly on women, Miss Miller pointed out. Homemakers, with their skills and experience in housekeeping, have invaluable preparation for the provision of feeding, shelter, nursing aid, and other essentials to the maintenance of national morale, she said. "My experience convinces me that American women will rise fully to whatever they might need to do. The big job is to develop channels and an understanding of how they can best prepare and organize themselves for responsible participation."

WOMEN RESERVISTS URGED TO VOLUNTEER

Women reservists in the Navy and Marine Corps have been called to volunteer for active duty. The Navy especially needs women in these grades: teleman, radioman, communications technician, yeoman, personnelman, machine accountant, storekeeper, aerographer, trademan, aviation storekeeper, hospitalman, and dental technician.

EMPLOYMENT OUTLOOK FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

Opportunities for employment in social work are very good for trained men and women, according to an occupational guide, "Social Worker" prepared recently by the New Jersey Department of Labor and Industry. In New Jersey the demand for trained social workers far surpasses the supply, and it is expected that employment opportunities will be exceptionally good for at least the next 10 years. However, persons without graduate training will probably encounter growing competition for jobs.

The U. S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics is making a Nation-wide survey of working conditions and salaries of social workers. Information on current salaries, hours on duty, retirement, vacation, and sick leave benefits, education and experience will be collected for use in preparing a comprehensive report on earnings and working conditions in the social service profession. Federal and private agencies in the field of social service are cooperating in the survey.

The current Women's Bureau study of the employment outlook for women in social work will cover the following: social case work in a medical setting; social case work in a psychiatric setting; social case work with families; social case work with children; social group work; community organization; research, teaching, and administration in social work.

WOMAN HEADS PUBLIC WELFARE ASSOCIATION

Recently named director of the American Public Welfare Association is Miss Loula F. Dunn, former Welfare Commissioner for the State of Alabama. Miss Dunn is the first woman to head the Association, which represents some 5,000 State, local and Federal officials, individuals, and private agencies interested in welfare work.

WOMEN IN THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

Latest figures released by the U. S. Civil Service Commission on employment in the Federal Government show that on March 31, 1950, there were 498,459 women Federal workers in the continental United States. They were 26 percent of the total (1,939,825) employed. In the Washington, D. C. Metropolitan area, 93,649 women were employed—48 percent of all Federal workers there.

At the wartime peak for all Federal employment at home and abroad, there were 1,078,883 women working for the Government in the continental United States; women were 40 percent of total employment. Their numbers, however, dropped below 450,000 during 1947 and 1948.

Women in "Super-Grade" Jobs — In April 400 Government officials were advanced to newly created salary grades ranging from $11,200 to $14,000 yearly. Until these new grades were created, $10,330 had been the ceiling for officials in the classified Federal service. No women were named to the top of the three new grades—GS 18 ($14,000), GS 17 ($12,200 to $13,000), and GS 16 ($11,200 to $12,000). Two women were advanced to GS 17—the Deputy Commissioner of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, and the Director of the Bureau of the Mint, U. S. Department of the Treasury. Four women were named to GS 16—one from the Department of Agriculture, 2 from Federal Security Agency, and one from the Department of the Treasury.

ILO MEETING CONSIDERS EQUAL PAY ISSUE

The 33rd Conference of the International Labor Organization met in Geneva from June 7 to July 1. The Conference considered, for the first time in its history, drafting of international regulations for effecting equal pay for men and women workers. Although this principle has been incorporated in the ILO constitution since its earliest days, the Organization has only now come to consider means of implementing the equal-pay principle. Workers as a group, U. S. employers, and representatives from some Governments expressed their belief that there was experience sufficient to serve as a basis for formulating effective regulations, but there was emphatic objection from other sources. However, a first draft of possible regulations was adopted by the full Conference and will be finally considered--as is the regular ILO procedure--at the succeeding conference in 1951.

At the Governing Body meeting, held concurrently, final action was taken for the establishment of an Expert Committee which will begin a study of the whole area of domestic employment--still one of the largest employers of women and one of vital importance in the world.

WOMEN AROUND THE WORLD

Women in Government - Women's advance into politics continues as a world-wide movement. Recent news items tell of progress on many fronts: Colombia -- Appointed head of the Latin American bureau of the Colombian Foreign Ministry was Miss Maritza de la Vega, a newspaper woman who is well known as a commentator on European affairs in El Siglo. Denmark -- The Danish Parliament has elected a woman as its President, Mrs. Ingeborg Hansen. According to the International Alliance of Women, this is the first time in Parliament's century of history that a woman has been elected. Panama -- Señora María Santa Domingo de Miranda was appointed on June 22 as the first woman Cabinet Minister of the Republic of Panama. She will serve as Minister of Labor, Social Welfare, and Public Health. Thailand -- Thailand now has its first woman member of Parliament, Mrs. Orphin Chayakarn.

Women's Bureau Trainees - Miss Felina Reyes of the Philippines and Miss Lelia Arosemena of Panama recently completed training programs in labor problems at the Women's Bureau and were awarded certificates on June 30 by the Undersecretary of Labor. Miss Marina Prats of the Dominican Republic and Miss Otilia Velasco of Peru, who began their training programs in May, have worked for three weeks in the Rhode Island Department of Labor and are now attending the Kentucky Labor School. They will later work in Milwaukee with the Woman and Child Labor Department, Industrial Commission of Wisconsin.

HAVE YOU READ

WOMEN IN THE FEDERAL SERVICE, PART II: Occupational Information. U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau Bulletin 230-II.

Statement of Frieda S. Miller, Director, Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, before a Subcommittee of the House Committee on Education and Labor on HR 1584 and HR 2438, to Provide Equal Pay for Equal Work for Women. May 19, 1950.

Statement of Frieda S. Miller, Director, Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, before a Subcommittee of the House Committee on the Judiciary, on HR 2051, Regarding Uniform Qualifications for Jurors in Federal Courts. May 17, 1950.

THE WOMEN'S BUREAU: ITS PURPOSE AND FUNCTIONS. (Leaflet) U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. 1950.

(The printing of this publication has been approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget, March 9, 1950.)

FACTS on Women Workers

U. S. Department of Labor
Maurice J. Tobin, *Secretary*

Women's Bureau
Frieda S. Miller, *Director*

WASHINGTON 25, D. C.

June 30, 1950

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN IN MAY 1950

Over the year from May 1949 to May 1950 there was an increase in the population of nearly 2/3 million women 14 years of age and over, according to the U.S. Bureau of the Census. The civilian woman labor force increased by nearly 2/5 million. Nonagricultural employment of women rose; whereas agricultural employment was below that of 1949 because of the less favorable weather conditions.

The increase in numbers of women in the labor force between April and May 1950 was nearly 10 times the increase in the number of women in the population. This is a season when agricultural employment normally advances, and most of those who joined the labor force were girls and women who were helping on family farms. There was no material change in the number of women unemployed.

	May 1950			
	Number of women	Percent women of all persons	Change since April 1950	Change since May 1949
Population (14 years and over)	56,300,000	50.9	+ 43,000	+ 641,000
Civilian labor force	18,472,000	29.4	+ 409,000	+ 375,000
Employed	17,545,000	29.4	+ 369,000	+ 372,000
In agriculture	1,473,000	18.3	+ 550,000	- 392,000
In nonagricultural industries	16,072,000	31.1	- 181,000	+ 763,000
Unemployed	927,000	30.3	+ 40,000	+ 4,000
Armed Forces	22,000	1.7	+ 1,000	+ 4,000
Nonworkers	37,806,000	81.3	- 367,000	+ 261,000

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

EQUAL PAY

Support was given to equal pay for equal work for women by Secretary of Labor Maurice J. Tobin and Director of the Women's Bureau Frieda S. Miller in their testimony on May 19 before a Subcommittee of the House Committee on Education and Labor in behalf of H.R. 1584 and H.R. 2438, bills to provide equal pay for equal work for women.

These bills introduced, respectively, by Congresswomen Woodhouse of Connecticut and Douglas of California, are similar to bills considered by the 79th and 80th Congresses, and they identify as an unfair labor practice the payment of wages to any female employee at a rate less than the rate paid to male employees "for work of comparable character on jobs, the performance of which requires comparable skills, except where such payment is made pursuant to a seniority or merit increase system, which does not discriminate on the basis of sex."

NEW ENGLAND AND MIDDLE ATLANTIC STATES CONFER ON STATE LABOR DEPARTMENT PROGRAMS

Representatives of the labor departments of 11 Northeastern States met in New York City on May 23-25 to discuss their programs relating to labor statistics and to State labor legislation for women. The latter session was presided over by the Director of the Women's Bureau and was devoted to a discussion of the economic and social background of women's labor legislation, review of existing laws, and discussion of problems relating to equal pay legislation.

JURY SERVICE

State — The jury law in Virginia was amended by the 1950 Assembly to include women on trial jury lists. Any woman selected may be released from service upon her written request submitted to the jury commissioners within 15 days after she is notified of her selection. Women are not yet eligible for grand jury duty.

Federal — On May 17 the Women's Bureau Director testified in favor of amending the Federal Judicial Code (H.R. 2051) to permit women to serve on juries in Federal courts in all States, even though they may be barred from serving on juries of State Courts. There now remain only 9 States in which women are barred from jury service in State courts.

PART-TIME WORK

"As women become older they tend to be more and more interested in part-time and even full-time outside jobs," concludes a WOMAN'S HOME COMPANION poll on whether women want employment outside the home. If completely free to choose, the women (who were all COMPANION readers) said their preferences would be as follows:

Full-time job outside home	10 percent
Part-time job outside home	36 percent
Keeping house full time	52 percent
No answer or don't know	2 percent

According to the U. S. Census Bureau's latest figures--for November 1949--3,483,000 women (20 percent of all employed women) were regular part-time workers: 3,029,000 did not prefer or could not accept full-time work; the remaining 454,000 preferred and would have accepted full-time work if available. Only 6 percent of all employed men usually worked part time.

AAUW FELLOWSHIP GRANTS ANNOUNCED

Thirty-two women have been awarded a total of $51,650 in fellowships for advanced research by the American Association of University Women. The projects for which the fellowships were granted show women exploring the intricacies of electricity, the physical sciences and other fields traditionally men's. Only a few are in the conventional feminine subjects--literature, history, and education.

Some typical projects: One woman will do research on a problem in electromagnetic theory and electric circuit analysis. A research paleontologist will survey fossil brains in museums in America, and in 5 European countries, then write a book on paleoneurology. Research basic to an understanding of disturbances in muscular coordination arising in polio will be carried on by another fellow, who goes to Ghent, Belgium, and Stockholm, Sweden, for a study of micro-electrical stimulation and recording techniques as applied to spinal-cord and muscle physiology.

BIRTH RATES AMONG WOMEN COLLEGE GRADUATES

The number of children born to men and women college graduates has steadily increased from the class of 1936 to the class of 1940, according to a survey recently made by the Population Reference Bureau of Washington, D. C. Women graduates of the class of 1940 have families 21 percent larger than women graduates of the class of 1936. The increase in size of family among men graduates for the class of 1940 was 37 percent over the class of 1936.

This study's findings were similar to those of an earlier survey made by the U.S. Census Bureau. Both indicate a very substantial increase in reproduction rates of college graduates during the last ten to fifteen years, although as late as 1947 women with only a grade school education had reproduction rates 48 to 78 percent higher than needed for replacement, while college graduates fell 5 percent short of reproducing themselves.

Ten years after graduation, the Population Bureau's studies of 925 colleges' classes of 1936 through 1940 show an average of 1.09 children per female graduate and 1.29 per male graduate. Birth rates are considerably higher among graduates of co-educational and western colleges. Highest birth rate for women of the class of 1940 was found among Brigham Young University (Utah) graduates, who averaged 2.03 babies each. By contrast, University of Pennsylvania alumnae averaged only .86 of a child apiece, and Mary Washington, Va., only .79.

FERTILITY RATES, ENTIRE POPULATION, BY INCOME GROUP AND LABOR FORCE STATUS OF WOMAN

The first direct data ever published for the U.S. as a whole on variations in fertility by family money income, have been issued by the U.S. Bureau of the Census for April 1949. (In this survey, fertility is measured by number of children under 5 years old, not by actual birth rates.) Even when differences in ages of wives in the various income groups are accounted for, fertility rates consistently fall as income rises. Married couples in the lowest income group—under $1,000 a year—had a rate of children under 5 years old that was roughly two-thirds higher than that among couples in the highest income group—$5,000 and over. The decline with advancing income is especially noticeable above the family income level of $4,000 a year.

Also reported were data on the number of children under 5 years old per 1,000 married women (husband present) of ages 15 to 49, according to labor force status of the woman. There were 216 children under 5 per 1,000 married women in the labor force and 658 children per 1,000 married women not in the labor force. These figures bear out indications of other studies that women with young children tend to remain outside the working force.

WOMEN IN THE ARTS

One of this year's Pulitzer prizes went to a woman. In May, Gwendolyn Brooks, 33-year old Negro poet received the annual Pulitzer poetry prize for her cycle of poems entitled, "Annie Allen," the story of a woman as daughter, wife, and mother.

The New York Drama Critics Circle has chosen as the best American play of the season, "The Member of the Wedding," by Carson McCullers. Mrs. McCullers, 32, had previously won two Guggenheim fellowships.

NATIONAL WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE TERMINATES ACTIVITIES

The National Women's Trade Union League, after 47 years of forwarding organization of women into trade unions, terminated its activities as of June 15. Founded in 1903, at a time when working women and the labor movement had few sympathetic supporters, the League has had a long and proud history of achievement for women workers. It successfully pioneered in labor education for working women, in establishing industrial standards for women through organization and legislation, in industrial hygiene, in interpreting to the public the problems of women wage earners and of the trade union movement, and in support of international cooperation among women and among nations.

Announcing the disbanding, Elisabeth Christman, for 28 years the Secretary-Treasurer of the League, said, "Our task is not done, but much of it has been taken over by the labor movement and by other groups which we have helped to form. In effect we are and should be a self-liquidating organization. There is now an enormous opportunity for women in the trade union movement...to participate directly in the implementation of the program to which the National Women's Trade Union League has been dedicated for so many years."

The League's unusual collection of papers on women in industry have been assigned to various archives, and the Library of Congress accepted all the League's original records.

WOMEN AROUND THE WORLD

United Nations Commission on the Status of Women held its fourth session at Lake Success in May. Representing the United States was Mrs. Olive Remington Goldman of Illinois.

The Commission noted the progress that has been made in women's suffrage, 19 countries having granted women equal franchise since the organization of the United Nations in 1945. The Commission endorsed the principle of independent nationality for married women and requested the Economic and Social Council to arrange for the immediate drafting of a United Nations Convention along this line. It noted the plans of the International Labor Organization to discuss equal pay for women in its conference in June and encouraged United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization to continue its efforts to expand educational opportunities for women, especially in rural and undeveloped areas. It suggested that the Social Commission give attention to discriminations against women in prisons and in its plans for rehabilitation of offenders. It also recommended that more attention be given to obtaining qualified women for higher posts in the United Nations Secretariat and again urged Governments to include more women in their delegations to United Nations meetings.

At the request of the delegate from Greece, the Commission passed a strong resolution in regard to the repatriation of Greek children still detained in Iron Curtain countries. It also urged the Economic and Social Council to ensure that women be given opportunities for service under Technical Assistants Programs wherever these are developed and underlined the need in areas where economic development is taking place of safeguarding women workers against exploitation and promoting equal pay for equal work.

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FACTS on Women Workers

U. S. Department of Labor
Maurice J. Tobin, *Secretary*

Women's Bureau
Frieda S. Miller, *Director*

WASHINGTON 25, D. C.

May 31, 1950

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN IN APRIL 1950

Nearly 900,000 more women were in the civilian labor force in April 1950 than in April 1949, according to monthly reports of the U. S. Bureau of the Census. Non-agricultural employment of women increased by nearly a million, while agricultural employment decreased. There were over a quarter of a million fewer women non-workers in the population in 1950 than in 1949.

From March to April 1950 the number of employed women increased by half a million, about evenly divided between agricultural and nonagricultural workers. Unemployment fell by nearly a quarter of a million.

	April 1950			
	Number of women	Percent women of all persons	Change since March 1950	Change since April 1949
Population (14 years and over)	56,257,000	50.9	+ 53,000	+ 648,000
Civilian labor force	18,063,000	29.0	+ 267,000	+ 896,000
Employed	17,176,000	29.3	+ 502,000	+ 820,000
In agriculture	923,000	12.8	+ 235,000	- 148,000
In nonagricultural industries	16,253,000	31.6	+ 266,000	+ 968,000
Unemployed	887,000	25.2	- 234,000	+ 76,000
Armed forces	21,000	1.6	No change	+ 4,000
Nonworkers	38,173,000	81.2	- 214,000	- 252,000

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

FIFTEENTH ANNUAL MINIMUM WAGE CONFERENCE HELD BY WOMEN'S BUREAU

The Fifteenth Annual Conference of State Minimum Wage Administrators was held by the Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, in Washington April 20-21. Representatives from 19 States attended and reported on their minimum-wage activities for the past year.

The workshop sessions of the Conference discussed preliminary information obtained from Women's Bureau questionnaires sent out in connection with a study on minimum-wage legislation. Points discussed were (1) organization and operation of State minimum wage agencies, i.e., data on budgets and staff, and on current operating methods of handling records and reports and conducting inspections; and (2) enforcement activities, i.e., amounts of wages collected for workers, civil and criminal court actions. Also considered were effects of the new 75-cent Federal minimum wage on State programs.

A significant new development was the unanimous request for increased technical assistance on equal pay, similar to the kind the Bureau now gives on the subject of minimum wage.

MINIMUM WAGE

Rhode Island's revised restaurant and hotel order, effective June 1, 1950, establishes basic hourly minimums of 60 cents for nonservice and 40 cents for service employees having a workweek of over 24 and up to and including 45 hours. For work in excess of 45 hours, time and a half the applicable basic minimum must be paid for every hour of working time. Part-time hourly rates for 24 hours or less in a week are 70 cents an hour for nonservice and 45 cents for service employees.

COST OF LIVING

Estimated living costs at a minimum adequate level as of May 1949 for an employed woman in the District of Columbia show that $1,476 is necessary annually to buy the commodities and services allowed in the District's budget. An additional $207 for taxes and $187 for savings bring the total to $1,870 per year. This represents a small decrease in the annual cost of the budget since the August 1948 estimate; the decrease in the cost of food and clothing more than absorbed increases in other items over the nine-month period.

HOURS OF WORK

An amendment to the labor law relating to hours of employment of women over 21 years of age in mercantile establishments takes effect in New York State on July 1, 1950, for a one-year period. Instead of the present provision which prohibits the employment of women in mercantile establishments after 10 o'clock in the evening, the amendment would allow employment until 12 o'clock midnight.

MARITAL STATUS OF WOMEN WORKERS, 1949

In April 1949, about two-thirds of all the women in the United States were married, one-fifth were single, and a little less than one-seventh were widowed or divorced, according to recent estimates of the U. S. Census Bureau. About 24 percent of all married women were in the labor force, as compared with 17 percent in 1940.

The numbers of married women in the labor force have steadily increased since the 1940 census period and this most recent estimate shows the 1949 proportions of married and single women in the labor force to be the reverse of those reported in 1940. Of the 17 million women in the labor force in April 1949, 51 percent were married, 33 percent were single, and 16 percent widowed or divorced. In 1940 the proportions were: 36.5 percent married, 48.5 percent single, and 15 percent widowed or divorced.

Women 14 Years Old and Over in the Labor Force

	Number (in thousands)		Percent of woman population		Percent distribution	
	April 1949	March 1940	April 1949	March 1940	April 1949	March 1940
Total	17,167	13,840	30.7	27.4	100.0	100.0
Single	5,682	6,710	50.9	48.1	33.1	48.5
Married	8,739	5,040	23.6	16.7	50.9	36.4
Widowed or divorced	2,746	2,090	35.1	32.0	16.0	15.1

MAJOR OCCUPATIONS OF WOMEN, APRIL 1950

Census reports on employment of women in April 1950 show that their number has risen by 5¼ million in the decade since the last regular census. In general the greatest relative increases were among white-collar workers. Women in the managerial group more than doubled, though they still were a very small proportion of the whole. Clerical workers, the largest occupation group both in 1940 and 1950, and sales workers increased by about 80 percent. The gain among professional and semiprofessional workers was much less marked. Manual workers (operatives, etc.) increased by about 45 percent and service workers not in homes by about 60 percent. Only domestic service workers showed a decline.

Occupation group	Women, April 1950			
	Number	Percent distribution	Percent of all workers	Change in number from March 1940
All occupations	17,176,000	100.0	29.3	+ 5,256,000
Clerical and kindred workers	4,539,000	26.4	59.3	+ 2,009,000
Operatives and laborers (except farm and mine), craftsmen and foremen	3,464,000	20.2	15.3	+ 1,064,000
Service workers (except domestic)	2,168,000	12.6	45.4	+ 818,000
Professional and semi-professional workers	1,862,000	10.8	41.8	+ 292,000
Domestic service workers	1,771,000	10.3	92.1	- 329,000
Sales workers	1,516,000	8.8	39.0	+ 686,000
Farmers and farm workers	916,000	5.4	13.0	+ 226,000
Proprietors, managers and officials (except farm)	941,000	5.5	14.8	+ 491,000

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

WOMEN IN AVIATION

A new international altitude record for light airplanes has been set. On March 31, Mrs. Anna Luisa Branger, cultural attaché of the Venezuelan Embassy in Washington, flew her Piper Cub Special at 24,504 feet. The National Bureau of Standards reported the record after calibration of barographs carried on the flight.

The latest talley by the Civil Aeronautics Administration shows that as of May 1, 1949, there were 9,678 women pilots, of whom 8,115 held private pilot certificates, 1,561 held commercial ratings, and 2 had air-line transport pilot ratings. The previous count as of July 1, 1945, showed only 5,122 women holding pilot certificates, of whom 4,166 held private licenses and 956 held commercial ratings.

Other airmen ratings held by women in the 1949 talley included 1,811 air-traffic-control operators, 1,221 ground instructors, 400 parachute technicians, 47 mechanics, 16 glider pilots, and 4 dispatchers. The CAA also noted that women hold approximately 20 percent of all the air-traffic-control operator and parachute technician certificates now on record.

WOMEN IN POLITICS

In a recent poll the American Institute of Public Opinion asked this question: "If the party whose candidate you most often support nominated a woman for President of the U. S., would you vote for her if she seemed qualified for the job?" Forty-eight percent answered "yes"; 48 percent "no"; 4 percent had "no opinion." In a poll on this same question made in 1937, 33 percent had answered yes; 63 percent no; and 4 percent had no opinion. A breakdown of opinion by sex follows:

	Men		Women	
	Today	In 1937	Today	In 1937
	(Percent distribution)			
Yes	45	27	51	40
No	50	69	46	57
No opinion	5	4	3	3

WOMEN AROUND THE WORLD

Arab Countries — Under the trade union laws of the various Arab countries, there is no discrimination against women as members or officers of labor unions, according to a report from the U. S. State Department representative in the Middle East. Recently, however, women have, for the first time it is believed, appeared in the Executive Councils of unions in the Arab world. In March 2 women were elected to the Executive Council of the Union of Shell Company Employees, in Cairo, Egypt. In Lebanon a woman was elected Secretary of the Bank Employees Union. Women have also been active in the leadership of the Union of Workers and Employees of the Regie Company (Syro-Lebanese government tobacco monopoly).This union is the only one of those with women officers which also includes manual workers, among them many women. One of the union's outstanding leaders was a woman worker who was killed in labor riots in the fall of 1947. The union's club house and social center is dominated by a large picture of this woman. Since women in these countries have not had the personal, property, or franchise rights of western women, it is noteworthy that working women first obtained a responsible voice in self-government through the labor union movement.

Iceland — A recently elected woman member of Iceland's Althing (Congress) has introduced 4 bills. The first proposes a luxury tax on home owners who have excess space or unused rooms in their houses, the tax money to be used as a fund from which prospective builders of homes can draw to supplement their costs. Her second bill provides for increased tax exemptions for women who because of outside jobs must have hired help. The third bill calls for separate filing of income tax reports by married couples in place of the joint-return system now in use, and the fourth bill would set up a national corps of household workers to be paid a fixed salary from the government and a smaller sum by their immediate employers.

HAVE YOU READ

A Century of Medical Education for Women, by Louise Pearce, M.D., in INDEPENDENT WOMAN, April 1950.

BOWERY TO BELLEVUE, by Emily Dunning Barringer, M.D. New York, W. W. Norton. 262 pp. $3.00. (Autobiography of the first woman interne in a New York City hospital.)

REPLIES TO THE ECOSOC QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE LEGAL STATUS AND TREATMENT OF WOMEN. Part I - Public Law. Section G, Nationality (Supplemental Replies Requested). December 30, 1949. U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau.

MOVEMENT FOR EQUAL PAY LEGISLATION IN THE UNITED STATES, MAY 1, 1950. (Revision of earlier edition.) U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau.

(The printing of this publication has been approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget, March 9,1950.)

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FACTS on Women Workers

U. S. Department of Labor
Maurice J. Tobin, *Secretary*

Women's Bureau
Frieda S. Miller, *Director*

WASHINGTON 25, D. C.

April 30, 1950

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN IN MARCH 1950

From March 1949 to March 1950, according to Census monthly reports, the increase in the number of women in the civilian labor force was less than the rise in the woman population of working age.

Between February and March 1950 there were declines in the number of women in the civilian labor force and in the number unemployed, accompanied by increases in nonworkers and in women employed in agriculture.

	March 1950			
	Number of women	Percent women of all persons	Change since February 1950	Change since March 1949
Population (14 years and over)	56,204,000	50.9	+ 56,000	+ 644,000
Civilian labor force	17,796,000	28.9	- 72,000	+ 507,000
Employed	16,674,000	29.0	+ 64,000	+ 119,000
In agriculture	688,000	10.3	+ 110,000	- 235,000
In nonagricultural industries	15,987,000	31.4	- 45,000	+ 355,000
Unemployed	1,121,000	27.2	- 137,000	+ 387,000
Armed forces	21,000	1.6	+ 1,000	+ 5,000
Nonworkers	38,387,000	80.9	+ 127,000	+ 132,000

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

MINIMUM WAGE

Connecticut has issued a new minimum-wage order, effective May 15, 1950, applying to women, minors, and men in restaurant occupations. Nonservice employees working a week of 40 to 48 hours must be paid a minimum of $28, and service employees working the same hours a minimum of $18. If a full-time employee in the latter group does not receive at least $10 per week in gratuities, he is not considered to be a service employee.

In addition to the applicable cash wage the order requires that employers furnish meals--one if employee works 5 hours or less on any day, and two if more than 5 hours a day. For each such meal not furnished, 65 cents must be added to the minimum wage.

Rhode Island's restaurant and hotel restaurant order has been revised and approved by the Labor Commissioner. A summary analysis will appear in the next Fact Sheet.

COST OF LIVING

In spite of the recent downward trend in prices as indicated by the consumers' price index of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, the cost of the budget for a single working woman priced in San Francisco by the Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics, University of California, was found to be slightly higher as of September 1949 than it was in September 1948. The total cost in September 1949 was $2,235.70, of which $1,867.56 represents expenditures for goods and services, $280.64 the amount necessary to meet Federal income and social security taxes, and $87.50 the allowance for savings. The costs for food and housing in the Heller budget are based on living in a boarding house where breakfasts and dinners are served six days a week, with Sunday dinners and lunches eaten in restaurants.

INCOME TAX DEDUCTIONS PROPOSED FOR HOUSEKEEPER'S SERVICES FOR DEPENDENTS

Two bills have been introduced into the 81st Congress to allow working persons income tax deductions for expenses of child care and services of a housekeeper for care of a dependent. H.R. 6518 sponsored by Representative Helen Gahagan Douglas (D., Calif.) proposes to allow deductions for expenses for services of a housekeeper required for the care of a dependent of the taxpayer. Upon introducing her bill in October 1949, Mrs. Douglas stated that Federal income tax laws now discriminate against children living in fatherless or motherless homes by not allowing deductions for the expenses of a housekeeper to take care of the children and maintain the home. Further, she stated, "A single person who is the head of a family, or a married couple with both husband and wife working outside the home, must incur expenses for the care of dependent children or adults that place them at a disadvantage for income tax purposes, as compared with a married couple with the wife working in the home."

H.R. 7659, sponsored by Representative Boggs of Delaware and introduced in March 1950, proposes to allow a working parent income tax deductions for wages paid in cash to a housekeeper or nursemaid, or amounts paid to a nursery school for care of children under 16 years of age.

Mrs. Douglas' bill would cover any employed tax-paying person who has incurred housekeeper's expenses for the care of any dependent; while Mr. Boggs' bill would limit such deductions to child care expenses incurred by employed widows, widowers, divorced or separated parents.

In the New York State Legislature two bills—S.588 and A.930—were introduced proposing to allow an employed taxpayer a deduction from taxable income of expenses up to $1,000 for the care of children under 12 years of age. The New York Senate passed its bill, but no further action was taken before the Legislature adjourned.

JOB OUTLOOK FOR COLLEGE GRADUATES

An open letter to college seniors from Secretary of Labor Maurice J. Tobin was sent on April 3 to the editors of college newspapers together with a release on the job outlook for 1950 graduates. This was the first of a series of short releases dealing with current job opportunities for college men and women which will follow during the next few weeks. Deans of women and counselors will be especially interested in this occupational information which can be made available to college students through their own press.

WOMEN WORKERS BY AGE GROUP

From March 1949 to March 1950 the number of women 35 years old and over who were in the labor force rose by nearly 3/4 million, while there were over 1/4 million fewer women workers who were under 35 years of age, according to the U. S. Bureau of the Census. In March 1950, 32 percent of the woman population 14 years of age and over in the United States were in the labor force.

Age	Woman population 14 years and over	Women in labor force				Women not in labor force
		Total		Employed	Unemployed	
		Number	Percent of woman population			
Total	56,183,000	17,796,000	31.7	16,675,000	1,121,000	38,388,000
14-17	4,137,000	631,000	15.3	548,000	83,000	3,504,000
18-19	2,162,000	1,015,000	46.9	897,000	118,000	1,148,000
20-24	5,837,000	2,573,000	44.1	2,411,000	162,000	3,264,000
25-34	12,019,000	4,011,000	33.4	3,743,000	268,000	8,009,000
35-44	10,596,000	3,966,000	37.4	3,749,000	217,000	6,631,000
45-54	8,727,000	3,232,000	37.0	3,072,000	160,000	5,495,000
55-64	6,758,000	1,802,000	26.7	1,715,000	87,000	4,955,000
65 and over	5,947,000	565,000	9.5	538,000	27,000	5,383,000

Increases in Older Women in the Population — Although the total population residing in the United States increased by about 13 percent from 1940 to 1949, the rate of increase in the aged population (men and women 65 years of age and over) amounted to about 26 percent, according to the U. S. Bureau of the Census. An increase in the number of aged females made up about 60 percent of the total increase of 2 1/4 million in the aged population. As a result the number of males per 100 females among the aged dropped from 95.5 to 90.2 in this period.

Length of Life of Women — The average length of life of white women in the United States has reached a new high of 71 years. The average for white men is 65.5 years. These figures were compiled by the Public Health Service, U. S. Federal Security Agency, based on 1948 death rates. Although the average longevity of nonwhites is lower—58.1 years for men and 62.5 for women, the difference in average longevity between whites and nonwhites has decreased from about 15 years in 1900 to about 8 years in 1948. On the other hand, the difference in average length of life between men and women in the United States has steadily increased from less than 3 years in 1900 to 5 1/2 years in 1948.

WOMEN'S INFLUENCE ON FAMILY BUYING

Women make 55 percent of the purchases of goods consumed by American families, according to estimates made recently by the University of Illinois' Bureau of Economic and Business Research. The University's study of family buying habits showed that women's influence in determining purchases is somewhat greater than their actual purchases. Women have 57 percent of the voice, or "say," in determining what is to be bought; men have 35 percent of the influence, and children, 8 percent. Comparison with a similar study made by the University in 1920 showed that the general buying pattern of families is much the same now as then, although, on the whole men are now making a somewhat larger proportion of the family's purchases, women somewhat less, children slightly more, and there seems to be a slight increase in shopping together by husband and wife.

WOMEN IN THE ARMED FORCES

The Navy, in March, ordered its first woman medical officer to sea. Lt. Comdr. Bernice R. Walters, one of 5 women medical officers on active duty in the Navy, was assigned to the hospital ship Consolation. Last December, 4 women Naval officers were assigned to duty, one each in Guam, Egypt, Alaska, and Germany, the first WAVES ever selected for permanent duty in these areas. The first authorized parachute jump by a regular Navy WAVE was made on January 17 by Mary Redfern. She made the jump to qualify for graduation from the Parachute Rigger School at the Naval Air Station in Lakehurst.

Under a new Women's Army Corps Officer Procurement Program, women are, for the first time, to be commissioned direct from civilian life as officers in the WAC. Women college graduates 21-26 without previous military experience were eligible to apply under this program. "With certain exceptions," the Women's Army Corps announced, "a woman's career will resemble closely that of a male officer of the Army."

WOMEN AROUND THE WORLD

Japan — Japanese women, who were virtually without political, legal, or economic status prior to the Occupation, now hold 12 seats in the House of Representatives, 11 in the House of Councillors, 22 in prefectural assemblies, and nearly 800 in city councils or town and village assemblies. In 1946, in the first Diet of which they were a part, women were shunted to one side, forming a women's bloc. Today they sit with their own parties and are members of such Diet Committees as those on labor, welfare, education, justice, and foreign affairs. They are veering away from their first tendencies to concern themselves solely with problems pertaining to women, according to reports from General Headquarters of the Far East Command.

United Nations — Twenty-four women were among the 588 representatives, alternates, and advisers attending the fourth regular session of the General Assembly of the United Nations, according to a report, "Participation of Women in the Work of the United Nations," issued recently by the United Nations Secretariat. In addition to providing information on the extent to which Member Governments have included women among their delegates to meetings of United Nations bodies and to conferences of the specialized agencies, the report also described the type and number of positions held by women in the UN Secretariat.

No women have been representatives on the Security Council. Nor during the last three (eighth, ninth, and tenth) sessions of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), was a woman chief representative of any of the 18 countries of whose representatives the Council was comprised. However there were women among the alternate representatives and advisers: in the Eighth Session, 6 among a total of 96; Ninth Session, 11 among 123; Tenth Session, 9 among 82. ...Only three of the 14 commissions of ECOSOC had women members in 1949. They were the Social Commission, the Commission on Human Rights, and the Commission on the Status of Women.

HAVE YOU READ

Television: Job Opportunities in Programming and Production, Administration, Engineering, Writing. An occupational brief. Western Personnel Institute, 30 No. Raymond Avenue, Pasadena 1, Calif. 1950. $1.00.

Women in the Federal Service, Part I: Trends in Employment, 1923-1947. U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 230-I.

(The printing of this publication has been approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget, March 9,1950.)