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RESOURCE MANUAL ON WOMAN'S ISSUES

Prepared By

The Foundation for the Private Sector

Mr. Donald Sammis, Chairman

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CHAPTER I

BASIC DATA

FACT SHEET

EDUCATION

- * The percentage of bachelor's degrees awarded to women increased from 47.1% in 1978 to 51% in 1982
- * The percentage of doctoral degrees awarded to women increased from 12.6% in 1968 to 31% in 1981
- * Between 1972 and 1980, the percentage of women in medical school rose from 11 to 26%; in law school, from 10% to 35%; in dental school, from 2% to 17%; and in veterinary school, from 12% to 39%
- * From 1975 to 1978, the number of women between the ages of 24-34 in school almost doubled
- * Enrollment of women in four year colleges has increased from 43% of all students in 1972 to 49% in 1979
- * Law school enrollments of women increased 337% between 1972 and 1981
- * The percentage of women receiving master's of science degrees increased from 22% in 1972 to 50% in 1979
- * The percentage of women in traditionally male vocational programs has risen from 5% in 1972 to 11% in 1978
- * In 1980, 70% of elementary school and secondary school teachers were women
- * In 1981, while only 26% of the full-time staff members at universities were women, 49.5% of women received tenure.

EMPLOYMENT

- * 66% of mothers with school-age children are in the labor force
- * 59% of mothers with children of all ages are in the labor force
- * 50% of mothers with preschool age children are in the labor force
- * 42% of mothers with children under the age of three are in the labor force
- * Women accounted for 60% of the increase in the civilian labor force in the last decade
- * About 47 million women were in the labor force in 1981; this compares with 32 million in 1971

- * The average woman worker is as well educated as the average male worker--by 1981 both had completed a median of 12.7 years of schooling
- * The number of working mothers has increased more than tenfold since the period immediately preceding World War II
- * In 1977 the average woman 16 years old could expect to spend 27.7 years of her life in the work force, compared with 38.5 years for men
- * More than $\frac{1}{4}$ (28%) of all women workers held part-time jobs in 1981; a great majority of these (78%) were employed on a voluntary part time basis

ECONOMIC EQUITY

- * 98% of all working women earn \$25,000 per year or less
- * One-third of all women who head households receive some form of public aid
- * 62% of those women who receive public aid do work.
- * In 1981 the average income for female-headed families stood at \$11,000
- * One out of every three women live in poverty
- * For every dollar the average man earns, the average woman earns 59 cents
- * In 1979, 14.8% of families where the wife did not work were poor; but only 3.8% of the families remained impoverished when the woman entered the work force
- * 33% of full-time working mothers earn less than \$7,000
- * 63% of all poor people over the age of 16 are women
- * Only 14% of divorced women are awarded alimony and only 46% of divorced women are awarded child support

AGING

- * Women are 72% of the elderly poor in the United States
- * Since Social Security benefits are calculated on past earnings, women retirees typically receive lower monthly benefits than men
- * 60% of single women over 65 depend on Social Security benefits as their sole source of income
- * Older women are the fastest growing poverty group in the United States

- * There are 250% more poor women over the age of 65 than men in the same age category
- * The median annual income in 1979 for women over the age of 65 was \$3,759
- * In 1981 life expectancy at birth for women was 77.9 years and 70.3 years for men
- * Older men are twice as likely to be married as older women
- * The labor force participation rate for mature men dropped from 87% in 1950 to 71% in 1981; during the same period, the labor force participation rate for mature women rose from 27% to 41.3%
- * Less than four percent of those 65 and older live in institutions; yet, in 1977, 73.9% were women

MILITARY

- * There are currently 162,000 women members of the active military; by 1985 the Department of Defense projects a goal of 245,000 women in all branches of the military
- * Women hold 8% of all the jobs in the U.S. Army; and yet comprise 8.7% of all the commissioned officers
- * Women represent 6.8% of the Navy but are 10.6% of all the Naval officers
- * Women comprise 11.0% of the active duty Air Force and 14.5% of Air Force officer corp
- * Only 3.8% of the Marine Corp are women--yet twice that proportion--7.6% of the Marine Corp officers are women

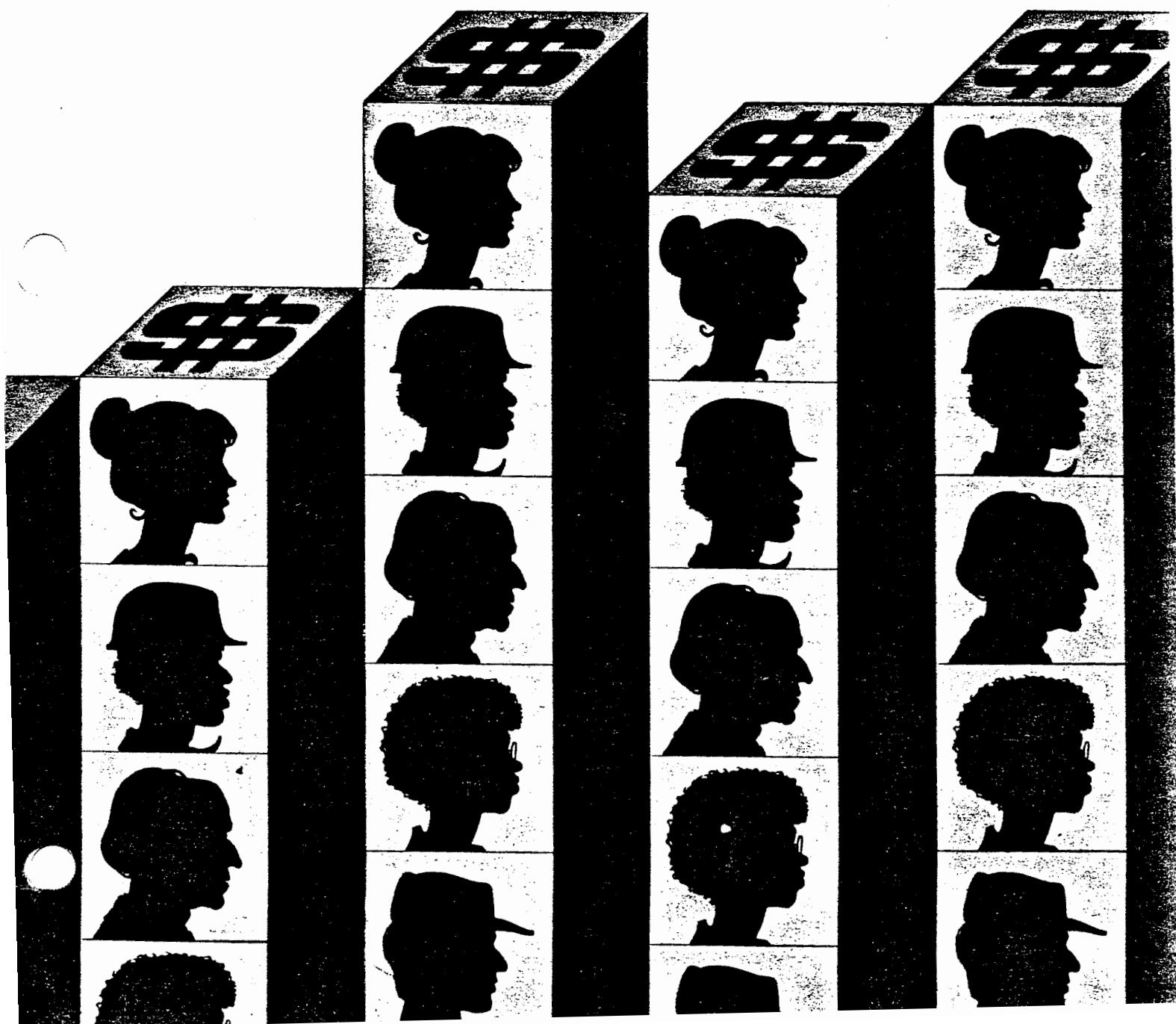


EMPLOYMENT AND EARNINGS

January 1983

U.S. Department of Labor
Bureau of Labor Statistics

In this issue:
1982 annual averages
Revised seasonally adjusted labor force series



HOUSEHOLD DATA ANNUAL AVERAGES

18. Employed persons by detailed occupation, sex, and race

(Numbers in thousands)

Occupation	1982			Occupation	1982		
	Total employed	Percent of total			Total employed	Percent of total	
		Females	Black and other			Females	Black and other
Total, 16 years and over	99,526	43.5	11.7	White-collar workers—Continued			
White-collar workers	53,470	53.8	9.1	Managers and administrators, except farm—Continued			
Professional and technical	16,951	45.1	9.7	Inspectors, except construction and public administration	107	15.0	10.3
Accountants	1,193	38.6	9.2	Managers and superintendents, building	183	52.5	7.7
Architects	94	8.5	9.6	Office managers, n.e.c.	507	72.6	3.2
Computer specialists	751	28.5	10.0	Officials and administrators: public administration n.e.c.	430	29.3	9.3
Computer programmers	434	32.0	10.4	Officials of lodges, societies, and unions	126	28.6	7.9
Computer systems analysts	242	26.4	9.9	Restaurant, cafeteria, and bar managers	768	40.6	11.5
Engineers	1,574	5.7	6.9	Sales managers and department heads, retail trade	353	39.7	7.1
Aeronautical and astronautical engineers	71	4.2	4.2	Sales managers, except retail trade	372	12.9	3.0
Civil engineers	199	2.5	9.0	School administrators, college	130	36.2	13.1
Electrical and electronic engineers	404	4.0	7.7	School administrators, elementary and secondary	293	36.2	13.0
Industrial engineers	260	14.2	6.9	All other managers and administrators	6,727	19.9	4.7
Mechanical engineers	240	2.9	6.7	Sales workers	6,580	45.4	5.5
Foresters and conservationists	61	6.6	4.9	Advertising agents and sales workers	130	46.9	3.8
Lawyers and judges	630	15.4	3.7	Demonstrators	116	94.0	5.2
Lawyers	606	15.5	3.6	Hucksters and peddlers	197	78.2	8.1
Librarians, archivists, and curators	207	80.7	8.7	Insurance agents, brokers, and underwriters	645	26.2	7.1
Librarians	193	83.4	8.8	Newspaper carriers and vendors	116	29.3	9.5
Life and physical scientists	320	20.6	9.4	Real estate agents and brokers	534	50.2	2.4
Biological scientists	63	46.0	6.3	Stock and bond sales agents	197	19.8	6.1
Chemists	133	20.3	15.8	Sales workers and sales clerks, n.e.c.	4,639	46.4	5.5
Operations and systems researchers and analysts	246	31.7	6.9	Sales representatives, manufacturing industries	383	21.4	3.7
Personnel and labor relations workers	423	49.6	11.1	Sales representatives, wholesale trade	1,020	13.9	2.7
Physicians, dentists, and related practitioners	869	14.6	10.7	Sales clerks, retail trade	2,447	70.0	7.2
Dentists	121	3.3	5.8	Sales workers, except clerks, retail trade	522	19.2	4.4
Pharmacists	168	23.8	10.1	Sales workers, services and construction	268	42.5	4.9
Physicians, medical and osteopathic	486	14.8	13.8	Clerical workers	18,446	80.7	11.8
Nurses, dietitians, and therapists	1,736	91.8	12.8	Bank tellers	561	92.0	8.0
Registered nurses	1,415	95.6	8.3	Billing clerks	154	87.7	6.5
Therapists	252	70.6	10.7	Bookkeepers	1,968	91.8	6.6
Health technologists and technicians	657	72.9	13.7	Cashiers	1,683	86.8	12.8
Clinical laboratory technologists and technicians	266	76.7	16.9	Clerical supervisors, n.e.c.	270	72.2	10.7
Radiologic technologists and technicians	108	72.2	10.2	Collectors, bill and account	87	62.1	11.5
Religious workers	347	13.8	6.1	Counter clerks, except food	373	76.4	9.7
Clergy	285	5.3	7.0	Dispatchers and starters, vehicle	110	38.2	7.3
Social scientists	345	38.0	7.5	Enumerators and interviewers	53	83.0	11.3
Economists	200	28.0	7.5	Estimators and investigators, n.e.c.	570	58.4	12.8
Psychologists	120	55.0	7.5	Expeditors and production controllers	257	42.4	8.9
Social and recreation workers	496	65.5	17.9	File clerks	278	84.5	21.2
Social workers	384	66.4	19.0	Insurance adjusters, examiners, and investigators	200	56.5	10.0
Recreation workers	113	61.9	13.3	Library attendants and assistants	150	81.3	16.0
Teachers, college and university	601	35.4	8.5	Mail carriers, post office	264	17.0	14.0
Teachers, except college and university	3,266	70.7	10.3	Mail handlers, except post office	182	47.3	20.9
Adult education teachers	79	40.5	15.2	Messengers and office helpers	115	23.5	19.1
Elementary school teachers	1,434	82.4	11.6	Office machine operators	1,107	74.6	17.7
Prekindergarten and kindergarten teachers	271	98.5	12.9	Bookkeeping and billing machine operators	42	85.7	14.3
Secondary school teachers	1,231	51.9	8.6	Computer and peripheral equipment operators	588	63.3	15.5
Teachers except college and university, n.e.c.	250	76.0	6.8	Keypunch operators	364	94.5	20.3
Engineering and science technicians	1,114	18.3	10.3	Payroll and timekeeping clerks	224	82.1	8.9
Chemical technicians	93	24.7	16.1	Postal clerks	271	35.1	26.9
Drafters	304	18.1	11.2	Receptionists	672	97.5	8.3
Electrical and electronic engineering technicians	314	12.4	11.5	Secretaries	3,847	99.2	7.4
Surveyors	68	1.5	4.4	Secretaries, legal	175	99.4	5.7
Technicians, except health, engineering, and science	214	22.9	7.0	Secretaries, medical	85	100.0	5.9
Airplane pilots	83	3.6	2.4	Secretaries, n.e.c.	3,587	99.2	7.5
Radio operators	65	55.4	7.7	Shipping and receiving clerks	499	24.8	13.8
Vocational and educational counselors	164	51.8	15.2	Statistical clerks	365	81.6	14.0
Writers, artists, and entertainers	1,399	42.9	6.7	Stenographers	66	84.8	13.6
Athletes and kindred workers	136	50.7	5.1	Stock clerks and storekeepers	497	36.8	16.1
Designers	221	32.6	5.4	Teachers' aides, except school monitors	373	92.5	20.1
Editors and reporters	204	51.0	5.9	Telephone operators	283	91.9	17.3
Musicians and composers	149	28.9	10.7	Ticket, station, and express agents	154	47.4	13.0
Painters and sculptors	208	51.9	4.8	Typists	942	96.6	17.4
Photographers	96	22.9	7.3	All other clerical workers	1,871	77.9	13.1
Public relations specialists and publicity writers	134	50.0	4.5	Blue-collar workers	29,597	18.7	13.1
Research workers, not specified	191	35.6	10.5	Craft and kindred workers	12,272	7.0	8.4
All other professional and technical workers	53	47.2	5.7	Carpenters	1,082	1.7	5.9
Managers and administrators, except farm	11,493	28.0	5.7	Brickmasons and stonemasons	145	7	15.9
Bank officials and financial managers	731	37.1	5.1	Cement and concrete finishers	55	—	32.7
Buyers and purchasing agents	474	35.7	4.6	Electricians	628	1.6	8.0
Buyers, wholesale and retail trade	195	43.1	5.1	Excavating, grading, and road machinery operators	399	1.3	10.3
Credit and collection managers	64	48.4	6.3	Painters, construction and maintenance	473	5.5	11.0
Health administrators	228	50.9	5.3				

HOUSEHOLD DATA ANNUAL AVERAGES

23. Employed persons by detailed occupation, sex, and race—Continued

(Numbers in thousands)

		1982					1982		
Occupation	Total employed	Percent of total		Occupation	Total employed	Percent of total			
		Females	Black and other			Females	Black and other		
Blue-collar workers—Continued				Blue-collar workers—Continued					
Craft and kindred workers—Continued				Operatives, except transport—Continued					
Plumbers and pipefitters	482	.8	7.5	Shoemaking machine operatives	72	73.6	11.1		
Structural metal craft workers	81	—	3.7	Furnace tenders and stokers, except metal	67	3.0	16.4		
Roofers and slaters	133	.8	8.3	Textile operatives	270	63.0	26.3		
Blue-collar worker supervisors, n.e.c.	1,688	12.1	7.8	Spinners, twisters, and winders	97	69.1	32.0		
Machinists and job setters	589	3.1	9.7	Welders and flame cutters	602	4.8	11.8		
Job and die setters, metal	74	2.7	9.5	Winding operatives, n.e.c.	50	48.0	20.0		
Machinists	515	3.1	9.7	All other operatives, except transport	2,654	32.1	16.5		
Metal craft workers, excluding mechanics, machinists, and job setters	579	3.8	7.6	Transport equipment operatives	3,377	8.9	14.7		
Millwrights	89	—	3.4	Busdrivers	354	46.6	21.2		
Molders, metal	42	19.0	21.4	Delivery and route workers	574	9.6	8.7		
Sheet-metal workers and tinsmiths	146	3.4	8.9	Forklift and tow motor operatives	326	8.0	19.9		
Tool and die makers	162	2.5	2.5	Railroad switch operators	31	—	3.2		
Mechanics, automobiles	1,236	1.0	9.0	Taxicab drivers and chauffeurs	152	9.9	24.3		
Automobile body repairers	197	1.5	6.6	Truckdrivers	1,841	2.1	13.5		
Automobile mechanics	1,039	.9	9.4	All other transport equipment operatives	99	2.2	17.2		
Mechanics, except automobiles	2,122	2.6	7.8	Nonfarm laborers	4,518	11.7	17.4		
Air-conditioning, heating, and refrigeration mechanics	217	—	6.9	Animal caretakers	101	55.4	4.0		
Aircraft mechanics	130	3.8	10.8	Construction laborers including carpenters' helpers	786	3.2	18.8		
Data processing machine repairers	84	7.1	10.7	Freight and material handlers	696	9.8	18.0		
Farm implement mechanics	56	—	7.1	Garbage collectors	73	2.7	41.1		
Heavy equipment mechanics, including diesel	946	1.5	7.0	Gardeners and grounds keepers, except farm	722	5.0	17.9		
Household appliance and accessory installers and mechanics	150	3.3	7.3	Timber cutting and logging workers	91	1.1	13.2		
Office machine repairers	78	6.4	9.0	Stockhandlers	972	24.5	15.0		
Radio and television repairers	111	5.4	8.1	Vehicle washers and equipment cleaners	183	13.7	21.3		
Railroad and car shop mechanics	45	2.2	15.6	Warehouse laborers, n.e.c.	278	6.8	16.9		
Printing craft workers	454	28.2	7.7	All other nonfarm laborers	616	9.4	17.5		
Compositors and typesetters	192	38.0	8.3	Service workers	13,736	61.9	19.7		
Printing press operators	183	12.6	6.6	Private households	1,042	96.9	29.9		
Bakers	157	47.8	10.2	Child care workers	469	97.4	9.8		
Cabinetmakers	80	6.3	6.3	Cleaners and servants	439	95.9	48.5		
Carpet installers	85	1.2	5.9	Housekeepers	110	98.2	39.1		
Crane, derrick, and hoist operators	120	.8	12.5	Service workers, except private households	12,694	59.0	18.8		
Decorators and window dressers	123	73.2	4.1	Cleaning workers	2,515	38.3	27.5		
Electric power line and cable installers and repairers	110	.9	10.0	Lodging quarters cleaners	184	96.2	37.5		
Inspectors, n.e.c.	136	13.2	10.3	Building interior cleaners, n.e.c.	926	57.9	29.0		
Locomotive engineers	37	2.7	2.7	Janitors and sextons	1,406	17.6	25.2		
Stationary engineers	193	2.1	8.3	Food service workers	4,760	65.7	14.5		
Tailors	23	43.5	8.7	Bartenders	342	50.0	5.0		
Telephone installers and repairers	304	10.9	9.2	Waiters' assistants	231	19.9	13.4		
Telephone line installers and repairers	104	4.8	5.8	Cooks	1,396	49.9	21.0		
Upholsterers	61	23.0	9.8	Dishwashers	272	27.6	18.4		
All other craft workers	593	16.9	10.6	Food counter and fountain workers	463	84.9	12.1		
Operatives, except transport	9,429	40.7	16.6	Waiters	1,496	88.6	7.8		
Assemblers	1,087	53.8	17.7	Food service workers, n.e.c.	560	74.6	23.0		
Bottling and canning operatives	43	46.5	16.3	Health service workers	2,022	89.7	24.7		
Checkers, examiners, and inspectors; manufacturing	729	53.9	16.3	Dental assistants	151	98.0	5.3		
Clothing ironers and pressers	118	76.3	40.7	Health aides, excluding nursing	333	86.2	18.0		
Cutting operatives, n.e.c.	209	35.4	15.8	Nursing aides, orderlies, and attendants	1,136	87.1	31.3		
Dressmakers, except factory	112	96.4	17.9	Practical nurses	400	97.0	19.3		
Drillers, earth	53	—	3.8	Personal service workers	1,850	76.9	14.5		
Dry well installers and lathers	87	1.1	6.9	Attendants	335	54.6	11.9		
Filers, polishers, sanders, and buffers	113	30.1	13.3	Barbers	100	12.0	15.0		
Furnace tenders, smelters, and pourers; metal	51	7.8	23.5	Child care workers	472	96.2	14.2		
Garage workers and gas station attendants	320	5.3	11.6	Hairdressers and cosmetologists	573	89.5	8.9		
Laundry and dry cleaning operatives, n.e.c.	188	66.5	23.4	Housekeepers, excluding private households	182	69.8	23.1		
Meat cutters and butchers, except manufacturing	183	6.6	9.8	Welfare service aides	90	93.3	37.8		
Meat cutters and butchers, manufacturing	93	35.5	17.2	Protective service workers	1,546	10.9	15.1		
Mine operatives, n.e.c.	222	1.4	6.3	Firefighters	218	.5	9.2		
Mixing operatives	78	5.1	21.8	Guards	685	12.7	21.3		
Packers and wrappers, excluding meat and produce	582	60.8	21.0	Police and detectives	505	6.7	10.5		
Painters, manufactured articles	139	15.8	14.4	Sheriffs and bailiffs	77	11.7	13.0		
Photographic process workers	89	48.3	6.7	Farm workers	2,723	17.5	7.2		
Precision machine operatives	275	12.4	8.0	Farmers and farm managers	1,452	11.8	2.1		
Drill press operatives	41	26.8	12.2	Farmers (owners and tenants)	1,415	11.9	2.1		
Grinding machine operatives	102	8.8	8.8	Farm laborers and supervisors	1,271	24.1	13.1		
Lathe and milling machine operatives	83	9.6	6.0	Farm laborers, wage workers	987	15.4	16.1		
Punch and stamping press operatives	96	38.5	15.6	Farm laborers, unpaid family workers	244	61.9	1.2		
Sawyers	112	12.5	13.4						
Sewers and stitchers	735	95.4	21.6						

NOTE: N.E.C. is an abbreviation for "not elsewhere classified" and designates broad categories of occupations which cannot be more specifically identified.

HOUSEHOLD DATA HISTORICAL

1. Employment status of the noninstitutional population, 1929 to date

(Numbers in thousands)

Year	Total noninstitutional population	Total labor force		Civilian labor force						Not in labor force
		Number	Percent of population	Total	Employed			Unemployed		
					Total	Agriculture	Nonagricultural industries	Number	Percent of labor force	
Persons 14 years of age and over										
1929.....	(1)	49,440	(1)	49,180	47,630	10,450	37,180	1,550	3.2	(1)
1930.....	(1)	50,080	(1)	49,820	45,480	10,340	35,140	4,340	8.7	(1)
1931.....	(1)	50,680	(1)	50,420	42,400	10,290	32,110	8,020	15.9	(1)
1932.....	(1)	51,250	(1)	51,000	38,940	10,170	28,770	12,060	23.6	(1)
1933.....	(1)	51,840	(1)	51,590	38,760	10,090	28,670	12,830	24.9	(1)
1934.....	(1)	52,490	(1)	52,230	40,890	9,900	30,990	11,340	21.7	(1)
1935.....	(1)	53,140	(1)	52,870	42,260	10,110	32,150	10,610	20.1	(1)
1936.....	(1)	53,740	(1)	53,440	44,410	10,000	34,410	9,030	16.9	(1)
1937.....	(1)	54,320	(1)	54,000	46,300	9,820	36,480	7,700	14.3	(1)
1938.....	(1)	54,950	(1)	54,610	44,220	9,690	34,530	10,390	19.0	(1)
1939.....	(1)	55,600	(1)	55,230	45,750	9,610	36,140	9,480	17.2	(1)
1940.....	100,380	56,180	56.0	55,640	47,520	9,540	37,980	8,120	14.6	44,200
1941.....	101,520	57,530	56.7	55,910	50,350	9,100	41,250	5,560	9.9	43,990
1942.....	102,610	60,380	58.8	56,410	53,750	9,250	44,500	2,660	4.7	42,230
1943.....	103,660	64,560	62.3	55,540	54,470	9,080	45,390	1,070	1.9	39,100
1944.....	104,630	66,040	63.1	54,630	53,960	8,950	45,010	670	1.2	38,590
1945.....	105,530	65,300	61.9	53,860	52,820	8,580	44,240	1,040	1.9	40,230
1946.....	106,520	60,970	57.2	57,520	55,250	8,320	46,930	2,270	3.9	45,550
1947.....	107,608	61,758	57.4	60,168	57,812	8,256	49,557	2,356	3.9	45,850
Persons 16 years of age and over										
1947.....	103,418	60,941	58.9	59,350	57,038	7,890	49,148	2,311	3.9	42,477
1948.....	104,527	62,080	59.4	60,621	58,343	7,629	50,714	2,276	3.8	42,447
1949.....	105,611	62,903	59.6	61,286	57,651	7,658	49,993	3,637	5.9	42,708
1950.....	106,645	63,858	59.9	62,208	58,918	7,160	51,758	3,288	5.3	42,787
1951.....	107,721	65,117	60.4	62,017	59,961	6,726	53,235	2,055	3.3	42,604
1952.....	108,823	65,730	60.4	62,138	60,250	6,500	53,749	1,883	3.0	43,093
1953 ¹	110,601	66,560	60.2	63,015	61,179	6,260	54,919	1,834	2.9	44,041
1954.....	111,671	66,993	60.0	63,643	60,109	6,205	53,904	3,532	5.5	44,678
1955.....	112,732	68,072	60.4	65,023	62,170	6,450	55,722	2,852	4.4	44,660
1956.....	113,811	69,409	61.0	66,552	63,799	6,283	57,514	2,750	4.1	44,402
1957.....	115,065	69,729	60.6	66,929	64,071	5,947	58,123	2,859	4.3	45,336
1958.....	116,363	70,275	60.4	67,639	63,036	5,586	57,450	4,602	6.8	46,088
1959.....	117,881	70,921	60.2	68,369	64,630	5,565	59,065	3,740	5.5	46,960
1960 ²	119,759	72,142	60.2	69,628	65,778	5,458	60,318	3,852	5.5	47,617
1961.....	121,343	73,031	60.2	70,459	65,746	5,200	60,546	4,714	6.7	48,312
1962 ²	122,981	73,442	59.7	70,614	66,702	4,944	61,759	3,911	5.5	49,539
1963.....	125,154	74,571	59.6	71,833	67,762	4,657	63,076	4,070	5.7	50,583
1964.....	127,224	75,830	59.6	73,091	69,305	4,523	64,782	3,786	5.2	51,394
1965.....	129,236	77,178	59.7	74,455	71,088	4,361	66,726	3,366	4.5	52,058
1966.....	131,180	78,893	60.1	75,770	72,895	3,979	68,915	2,875	3.8	52,288
1967.....	133,319	80,793	60.6	77,347	74,372	3,844	70,527	2,975	3.8	52,527
1968.....	135,562	82,272	60.7	78,737	75,920	3,817	72,103	2,817	3.6	53,291
1969.....	137,841	84,240	61.1	80,734	77,902	3,606	74,296	2,832	3.5	53,602
1970.....	140,272	85,959	61.3	82,771	78,678	3,463	75,215	4,093	4.9	54,315
1971.....	143,033	87,198	61.0	84,382	79,367	3,394	75,972	5,016	5.9	55,834
1972 ²	146,574	89,484	61.1	87,034	82,153	3,484	78,669	4,882	5.6	57,091
1973 ²	149,423	91,756	61.4	89,429	85,064	3,470	81,594	4,365	4.9	57,667
1974.....	152,349	94,179	61.8	91,949	86,794	3,515	83,279	5,156	5.6	58,171
1975.....	155,333	95,955	61.8	93,775	85,846	3,408	82,438	7,929	8.5	59,377
1976.....	158,294	98,302	62.1	96,158	88,752	3,331	85,421	7,406	7.7	59,991
1977.....	161,166	101,142	62.8	99,009	92,017	3,283	88,734	6,991	7.1	60,025
1978 ²	164,027	104,368	63.6	102,251	96,048	3,387	92,661	6,202	6.1	59,659
1979.....	166,951	107,050	64.1	104,962	98,824	3,347	95,477	6,137	5.8	59,900
1980.....	169,848	109,042	64.2	106,940	99,303	3,364	95,938	7,637	7.1	60,806
1981.....	172,272	110,812	64.3	108,670	100,397	3,368	97,030	8,273	7.6	61,460
1982.....	174,451	112,384	64.4	110,204	99,526	3,401	96,125	10,678	9.7	62,067

¹ Not available.

² Not strictly comparable with data for prior years. For an explanation, see "Historic

Comparability" under Household Data section of Explanatory Notes.

HOUSEHOLD DATA HISTORICAL

Employment status of the noninstitutional population 16 years and over by sex, 1947 to date

(Numbers in thousands)

Year	Total noninstitutional population	Total labor force		Civilian labor force						Not in labor force	
		Number	Percent of population	Total	Employed			Unemployed			
					Total	Agriculture	Nonagricultural industries	Number	Percent of labor force		
Males											
1947.....	50,968	44,258	86.8	42,686	40,995	6,643	34,352	1,692	4.0	6,710	
1948.....	51,439	44,729	87.0	43,286	41,725	6,358	35,367	1,559	3.6	6,710	
1949.....	51,922	45,097	86.9	43,498	40,925	6,343	34,583	2,572	5.9	6,825	
1950.....	52,352	45,446	86.8	43,819	41,578	6,002	35,576	2,239	5.1	6,906	
1951.....	52,788	46,063	87.3	43,001	41,780	5,534	36,246	1,221	2.8	6,725	
1952.....	53,248	46,416	87.2	42,869	41,682	5,390	36,293	1,185	2.8	6,832	
1953.....	54,248	47,131	86.9	43,633	42,430	5,253	37,177	1,202	2.8	7,117	
1954.....	54,706	47,275	86.4	43,965	41,619	5,200	36,418	2,344	5.3	7,431	
1955.....	55,122	47,488	86.2	44,475	42,621	5,265	37,356	1,854	4.2	7,634	
1956.....	55,547	47,914	86.3	45,091	43,379	5,040	38,339	1,711	3.8	7,633	
1957.....	56,082	47,964	85.5	45,197	43,357	4,824	38,532	1,841	4.1	8,118	
1958.....	56,640	48,126	85.0	45,521	42,423	4,596	37,827	3,098	6.8	8,514	
1959.....	57,312	48,405	84.5	45,886	43,466	4,532	38,934	2,420	5.2	8,907	
1960.....	58,144	48,870	84.0	46,388	43,904	4,472	39,431	2,486	5.4	9,274	
1961.....	58,826	49,193	83.6	46,653	43,656	4,298	39,359	2,997	6.4	9,633	
1962.....	59,626	49,395	82.8	46,600	44,177	4,069	40,108	2,423	5.2	10,231	
1963.....	60,627	49,835	82.2	47,129	44,657	3,809	40,849	2,472	5.2	10,792	
1964.....	61,556	50,387	81.9	47,679	45,474	3,691	41,782	2,205	4.6	11,169	
1965.....	62,473	50,946	81.5	48,255	46,340	3,547	42,792	1,914	4.0	11,527	
1966.....	63,351	51,560	81.4	48,471	46,919	3,243	43,675	1,551	3.2	11,792	
1967.....	64,316	52,398	81.5	48,987	47,479	3,164	44,315	1,508	3.1	11,919	
1968.....	65,345	53,030	81.2	49,533	48,114	3,157	44,957	1,419	2.9	12,315	
1969.....	66,365	53,688	80.9	50,221	48,818	2,963	45,855	1,403	2.8	12,677	
1970.....	67,452	54,376	80.6	51,228	48,990	2,862	46,128	2,238	4.4	13,076	
1971.....	68,718	54,956	80.0	52,180	49,390	2,795	46,595	2,789	5.3	13,762	
1972.....	70,241	55,961	79.7	53,555	50,896	2,849	48,047	2,659	5.0	14,280	
1973.....	71,567	56,900	79.5	54,624	52,349	2,847	49,502	2,275	4.2	14,667	
1974.....	72,971	57,902	79.3	55,739	53,024	2,919	50,105	2,714	4.9	15,069	
1975.....	74,383	58,390	78.5	56,299	51,857	2,824	49,032	4,442	7.9	15,993	
1976.....	75,798	59,212	78.1	57,174	53,138	2,744	50,394	4,036	7.1	16,585	
1977.....	77,211	60,414	78.2	58,396	54,728	2,671	52,057	3,667	6.3	16,797	
1978.....	78,569	61,613	78.4	59,620	56,479	2,718	53,761	3,142	5.3	16,956	
1979.....	79,968	62,676	78.4	60,726	57,607	2,686	54,921	3,120	5.1	17,293	
1980.....	81,341	63,396	77.9	61,453	57,186	2,709	54,477	4,267	6.9	17,945	
1981.....	82,476	63,939	77.5	61,974	57,397	2,700	54,697	4,577	7.4	18,537	
1982.....	83,514	64,440	77.2	62,450	56,271	2,736	53,534	6,179	9.9	19,073	
Females											
1947.....	52,450	16,683	31.8	16,664	16,045	1,248	14,797	619	3.7	35,767	
1948.....	53,088	17,351	32.7	17,335	16,617	1,271	15,346	717	4.1	35,737	
1949.....	53,689	17,806	33.2	17,788	16,723	1,315	15,409	1,065	6.0	35,883	
1950.....	54,293	18,412	33.9	18,389	17,340	1,159	16,181	1,049	5.7	35,881	
1951.....	54,933	19,054	34.7	19,016	18,181	1,193	16,988	834	4.4	35,879	
1952.....	55,575	19,314	34.8	19,269	18,568	1,111	17,458	698	3.6	36,261	
1953.....	56,353	19,429	34.5	19,382	18,749	1,006	17,743	632	3.3	36,924	
1954.....	56,965	19,718	34.6	19,678	18,490	1,006	17,486	1,188	6.0	37,247	
1955.....	57,610	20,584	35.7	20,548	19,551	1,184	18,366	998	4.9	37,026	
1956.....	58,264	21,495	36.9	21,461	20,419	1,244	19,175	1,039	4.8	36,769	
1957.....	58,983	21,765	36.9	21,732	20,714	1,123	19,591	1,018	4.7	37,218	
1958.....	59,723	22,149	37.1	22,118	20,613	990	19,623	1,504	6.8	37,574	
1959.....	60,569	22,516	37.2	22,483	21,164	1,033	20,131	1,320	5.9	38,053	
1960.....	61,615	23,272	37.8	23,240	21,874	986	20,887	1,366	5.9	38,343	
1961.....	62,517	23,838	38.1	23,806	22,090	902	21,187	1,717	7.2	38,679	
1962.....	63,355	24,047	38.0	24,014	22,525	875	21,651	1,488	6.2	39,308	
1963.....	64,527	24,736	38.3	24,704	23,105	878	22,227	1,598	6.5	39,791	
1964.....	65,668	25,443	38.7	25,412	23,831	832	23,000	1,581	6.2	40,225	
1965.....	66,763	26,232	39.3	26,200	24,748	814	23,934	1,452	5.5	40,531	
1966.....	67,829	27,333	40.3	27,299	25,976	736	25,240	1,324	4.8	40,496	
1967.....	69,003	28,395	41.2	28,360	26,893	680	26,212	1,468	5.2	40,608	
1968.....	70,217	29,242	41.6	29,204	27,807	660	27,147	1,397	4.8	40,976	
1969.....	71,476	30,551	42.7	30,513	29,084	643	28,441	1,429	4.7	40,924	
1970.....	72,822	31,583	43.4	31,543	29,688	601	29,087	1,855	5.9	41,239	
1971.....	74,315	32,243	43.4	32,202	29,976	599	29,377	2,227	6.9	42,072	
1972.....	76,333	33,522	43.9	33,479	31,257	635	30,622	2,222	6.6	42,811	
1973.....	77,855	34,855	44.8	34,804	32,715	622	32,093	2,089	6.0	43,000	
1974.....	79,379	36,278	45.7	36,211	33,769	596	33,173	2,441	6.7	43,101	
1975.....	80,949	37,565	46.4	37,475	33,989	584	33,404	3,486	9.3	43,386	
1976.....	82,496	39,089	47.4	39,083	35,615	588	35,027	3,369	8.6	43,406	
1977.....	83,955	40,728	48.5	40,613	37,289	612	36,677	3,324	8.2	43,227	
1978.....	85,459	42,755	50.0	42,631	39,569	669	38,900	3,061	7.2	42,703	
1979.....	86,983	44,375	51.0	44,235	41,217	661	40,556	3,018	6.8	42,608	
1980.....	88,507	45,646	51.6	45,487	42,117	656	41,461	3,370	7.4	42,861	
1981.....	89,796	46,873	52.2	46,696	43,000	667	42,333	3,696	7.9	42,922	
1982.....	90,937	47,944	52.7	47,755	43,256	665	42,591	4,499	9.4	42,993	

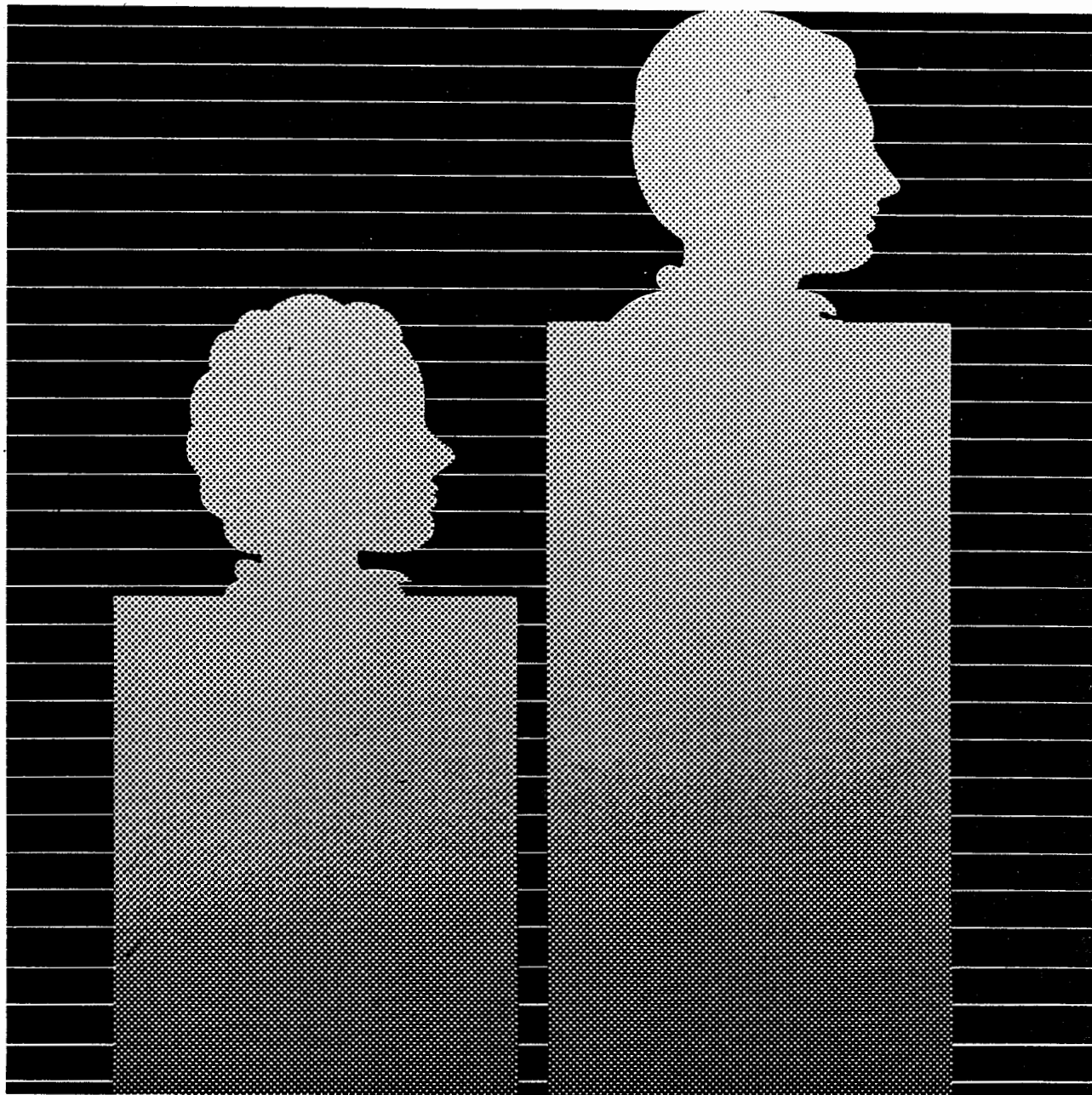
1 Not strictly comparable with data for prior years. For an explanation see "Historic Comparability" under Household Data section of Explanatory Notes.

The Female-Male Earnings Gap: A Review of Employment and Earnings Issues



U.S. Department of Labor
Bureau of Labor Statistics
September 1982

Report 673



The Female-Male Earnings Gap: A Review of Employment and Earnings Issues



U.S. Department of Labor
Raymond J. Donovan, Secretary
Bureau of Labor Statistics
Janet L. Norwood, Commissioner
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The Female-Male Earnings Gap: A Review of Employment and Earnings Issues

Janet L. Norwood

In the last 20 years, a profound change has occurred in the labor force participation of women. The unprecedented entry of large numbers of women into the Nation's work force and the sustained commitment to gainful employment have brought about a revolution in male-female relationships in the workplace. In 1960, only a little more than 23 million women (38 percent of the population) were in the labor force. Today, that number is more than twice that level and the labor force participation rate has risen to 53 percent (table 1).

Along with this increase in the number of working women have come far-reaching social changes, as well as structural changes in the very nature of work itself. Over the past two decades, the work force has become younger, marital patterns have changed, fertility rates have dropped, and women have increasingly sought higher education. In addition, landmark equal pay and antidiscrimination requirements have been enacted into law, tax legislation has provided for some deductions for child-care expenses, and the employment shift from goods-producing to service-producing industries has accelerated.

It is important to recognize that young women (25 to 34 years old) accounted for almost half (47 percent) of the increase in the number of female workers between 1970 and 1980. Today, 53 percent of the female work force is under age 35, compared with 38 percent in 1960.

Increasingly, women are obtaining the education to qualify them for a broader range of jobs, especially those requiring training past the high school level. In 1970, only 28 percent of working women ages 25 to 34—the most active group in the labor market in the last 10 years—had completed at least 1 year of college. By 1980, that figure had grown to 46 percent.

Family status

The change in marital and family patterns has been an even greater departure from the past, when it was

generally expected that young women would marry and devote most of their lives to raising a family. Many young people are postponing marriage, families have become smaller, and many young mothers are continuing to work. Thus a much larger proportion of young women are gaining more years of work experience than in the past, and fewer young women are interrupting their worklives.

Since 1960, the participation of wives in the labor force has increased dramatically. By March of this year, 51 percent of all wives were working or looking for work. This compares to 41 percent in 1970 and 31 percent in 1960 (table 2). Contributing strongly to this trend has been the astounding growth in the labor force activity of mothers with young children. Nearly 8-1/2 million children under age 6 now have working mothers. Altogether, some 32 million children under age 18—55 percent of all children these ages—have mothers in the labor force.

As the number of wives in the labor force has increased, the multiearner family has become a prominent feature of American life. Approximately two-thirds of the wives in these dual-earner families work all or most of the year, and most of them work full time. Median income for families in which both husband and wife were the only earners was \$27,969 in 1981, nearly 30 percent greater than the income for families where the husband was the only earner.

In addition to these developments in married-couple families, the number of women maintaining families on their own—with no spouse present—has more than doubled over the past two decades (from 4.5 million in 1960 to 9.7 million in 1982). Today, 1 of every 6 of the 61.4 million families in the Nation is maintained by a woman. In fact, of every 8 women in the labor force, 1 is a woman who maintains her own family (table 3).

Despite their increased labor force participation, the economic status of many families maintained by women falls far below that of other families. Their overall median family income in 1981 (\$10,802) was only 43 percent of that for all married couples. And working did not bring their family incomes close to parity with other families. Even when female householders were employed, their families were nearly 4 times as likely as other families with employed householders to have annual incomes below the officially estimated poverty

Janet L. Norwood is the Commissioner of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor. This statement was presented at The Pay Equity Hearings before the Committee on Post Office and Civil Service, Subcommittees on Human Resources, Civil Service, and Compensation and Employee Benefits, United States House of Representatives, September 16, 1982. Special acknowledgment should be made to Elizabeth Waldman and B. K. Atrostic for their contribution to the preparation of this report.

threshold. Consistently, about one-third of all families maintained by women have incomes below the poverty level.

Industry and occupation

During the period of women's rapid labor force growth, the rising number of jobs in the service-producing sector has become increasingly important. By 1980, service-producing industries accounted for 7 out of 10 jobs in the American economy. Most of the job gains have occurred in retail trade, State and local governments, and such other service industries as health, business, legal, social, protective, educational, and recreational services. These are, of course, the very industries which women have entered in large numbers. Of the 11.9-million increase in the number of women on nonagricultural payrolls between 1970 and 1980, three-quarters occurred in these industries.

While women have made some inroads into the semiskilled and skilled blue-collar jobs of the goods-producing industries, their employment in this sector has grown very slowly—by only 10 percent since 1970. And employment of women—as well as men—in many of these industries has been sharply reduced by the current economic recession. Since the prerecession employment peak in July of last year, the overall unemployment rates of both adult men and adult women have risen sharply—to 8.9 and 8.2 percent, respectively.

Most women continue to work in the country's lowest paying industries. A broad list of industries, ranked from high to low by the percentage of female employees, shows a high inverse relationship with a similar ranking of the same industries by level of average hourly earnings; that is, those industries with a high percentage of female employees tend to have low average hourly earnings.

A ranking of 52 industries from the July data in the BLS monthly establishment survey (table 4) shows that the apparel and other textile products industry has the highest percentage of women employees (81.9 percent). It ranks 1st in female employment but 50th in average hourly earnings. The bituminous coal and lignite mining industry, on the other hand, ranks 52nd in percentage of women employees (only 5.1 percent) but is 1st in average hourly earnings.

These data show the concentration of working women in particular industries. And women today, in spite of some changes in occupational distribution, continue to be concentrated in certain occupations. For example, over the last decade, the largest number of job increases in the professional occupations occurred among nurses, accountants, engineers, and computer specialists (table 5). In 1981, women accounted for almost 97 percent of all registered nurses, little changed from 1970; 39 percent of all accountants, up from 25 percent; close to 5 percent of all engineers, up from 2

percent; and 27 percent of all computer specialists, up from 20 percent.

The nonprofessional occupations with the greatest job gains were white-collar secretaries and cashiers; service workers who were cooks; and, in the operative field, truckdrivers. Nearly all secretaries were women in 1981 (99 percent) just as they had been in 1970, and 86 percent of all cashiers were women, little different from 1970. The proportion of women who were cooks, however, declined from 63 percent in 1970 to 52 percent in 1981, while the proportion who were truckdrivers rose to 3 percent, almost double the 1970 figure.

Earnings

Some of the major changes just mentioned in the female labor force and in the concentration of women in particular occupations and industries have a profound effect upon the earnings they receive.

The most comprehensive data on earnings by sex comes from the Current Population Survey (CPS)—the monthly household survey. The CPS provides a rich body of data which can be used to evaluate overall pay equity. The CPS data today—as they have for many years—show a wide disparity in the median earnings of women and men, and a basic ratio of women's to men's earnings that has not changed much. In 1939, median earnings for women who worked year round, full time in the experienced labor force were 58 percent of the median earnings for men. Similar figures for 1981, the latest period for which earnings over an entire year are available, show women's earnings at 59 percent of the median for men (table 6). Over the long term, the ratio has remained relatively unchanged.

The CPS data on weekly earnings show a similar ratio. The most recent figures for the second quarter of this year show median weekly earnings for full-time wage and salary workers were \$370 for men and \$240 for women, or 65 percent of men's earnings. Comparable figures 10 years ago were \$168 for men and \$106 for women, a 63-percent ratio (table 7).

These aggregate data can be examined in more detail. For example, for women as well as men, more years of schooling usually translate to higher annual earnings. Median earnings for women college graduates who worked all year at full-time jobs were 45 percent more than for women whose formal education terminated with high school graduation and 80 percent more than for those who had not completed high school. For men, the proportions were similar. However, at every level of educational achievement, women's median earnings continued to lag far behind men's earnings. The \$15,325 which women college graduates earned was only about 63 percent of the amount earned by male graduates. On average, therefore, whether college graduates or high school dropouts, women earned about 60 cents for every dollar their male counterparts were paid.

This 60-percent ratio in the national aggregate data shows a female-male wage gap or differential of about 40 percent. A more detailed analysis of the CPS underlying microdata can, however, provide greater insight into the reasons for this disparity. We can compare the contributions to the female-male gap made by a number of economic and demographic characteristics. We can use such other characteristics as occupation, marital status, education, work experience, family size, weekly hours worked—factors which affect productivity and wage determination—to get a better understanding of the earnings of women. This “human-capital” approach estimates the importance of each personal factor in explaining female-male wage differentials. For example, we know that the distribution of men and women differs among occupations, and that male and female workers frequently differ in education and job experience. Using the CPS microdata (appropriately masked so as to retain our pledge of confidentiality regarding survey responses), we can compare the female-male earnings differential based on aggregate data with differentials derived from the microdata for which many (although not usually all) of the important variables can be held constant.

A large body of “human-capital” research is available. Many of these studies focus on characteristics of individual workers such as age, years of schooling, labor force experience, etc. A review of this research by a recent National Academy of Sciences panel shows that in the studies reviewed, worker characteristics account for at most 44 percent of the female-male earnings gap.¹

These estimates are somewhat sensitive, of course, to the accuracy with which the characteristics are measured. In particular, years of labor force experience are usually approximated by calculating experience as the number of years since the completion of schooling. For persons with interruptions in their work experience—which includes more women than men—experience estimated in this way will be overstated. The measurement of this factor alone has been the subject of a number of studies (not all of which agree with each other) in the past 10 years.

My purpose here is not to resolve a research debate, but rather to demonstrate the complexity of the analytical task before us. For example, two BLS economists, Wesley Mellow and B. K. Atrostic, have found that, when a different measure more nearly approximating actual work experience is used, while holding unchanged other characteristics, the estimated female-male wage gap is reduced by about 7 percentage points.

¹ *Women, Work, and Wages: Equal Pay for Jobs of Equal Value* (National Academy of Sciences, 1981).

A fairly consistent finding from many studies of microdata is that the estimated female wage gap is reduced—but not eliminated—as more economic and demographic factors are introduced into the analysis. Another recent study by Mellow,² for example, estimates the female-male wage gap at 27 percent when the following variables are held constant: Area, occupation, industry, union, part-time status, and estimated labor force experience.

In addition to the “human capital” that individual workers bring to their job situations, it is quite evident that earnings are highly correlated with the occupation and the industry in which a worker is employed. And we know that working women are far more concentrated in generally low-paying occupations in low-paying industries. Here again, we can start with aggregate data on earnings by occupation from the household survey and then gain more insight by looking at some limited samples of data from BLS establishment surveys.

Recent CPS median earnings data (for the second quarter of 1982) show that in the female-intensive clerical field, women working full time earned \$236 a week, compared with \$337 for men. At 70 percent, the current ratio of women’s to men’s median earnings was practically the same as it was 10 years ago. But women clerical workers are far more likely to be in lower paying groups of the occupations, such as secretaries, typists, cashiers, and bookkeepers.

The same sort of pattern emerges when we look at both ends of the pay spectrum for men and women. A recent study by BLS demographer Nancy Rytina examines wage and salary earnings in 250 occupations.³ Seven of the twenty lowest paying occupation groups were the same for both men and women: Farm laborers, food service workers, cashiers, waiters and waitresses, cooks, nurses’ aides and orderlies, and bartenders. The female-male earnings ratios in these occupations ranged from a low of 72 percent for waiters and waitresses to a high of 92 percent for cashiers. With the exception of farm laborers and bartenders, all of these occupations were both female intensive and relatively low paying. For example, 85 percent of cashiers were women, as were 85 percent of the waiters and waitresses. Even among bartenders, nearly half (45 percent) were women.

When we compare median earnings for the high-paying wage and salary occupations which men and women hold in common, we find that median earnings of women are substantially less than for men. There are eight of these occupations: Lawyers, computer systems analysts, health administrators, engineers, physicians

² Wesley Mellow, “Employer Size, Unionism, and Wages” in *Research in Labor Economics* (JAI Press, forthcoming).

³ Nancy F. Rytina, “Earnings of Men and Women: A Look at Specific Occupations,” *Monthly Labor Review*, April 1982.

and dentists, elementary and secondary school administrators, personnel and labor relations workers, and operations and systems analysts. Unlike the low-paying occupations, however, these jobs are male intensive. Only about 22 percent of the wage and salary lawyers are women, as are 32 percent of elementary and secondary school administrators and only 5 percent of engineers.

The pay differences between men and women in these occupations tend to be somewhat greater than among men and women in the low-paying jobs. The median earnings ratios ranged from 64 percent for those who were personnel and labor relations workers (the greatest difference) to 82 percent among operations and systems analysts (the smallest difference).

Obviously, many factors may influence the female-male pay ratios within a specific occupation group. Seniority, level of responsibility, quality of performance, and geographic location are only a few of such factors. While it is true that some of these factors can be isolated at the microdata level, it is difficult to use household survey data to obtain a complete picture of pay situations in specific occupations and specific types of firms within specific industries.

Information from the BLS establishment wage surveys provides more area and industry detail than the CPS data discussed previously. On the other hand, the data are limited to only a few occupations and industries and, therefore, may not be representative of the total. In addition, the data are averages which include firms with different employment and pay structures. The averages, therefore, mask female-male differences in individual firms.

A sample of wage data for a limited number of occupations from BLS Area Wage Surveys for 1981 shows that women working as computer programmers, a relatively new and high-paying occupation, earn almost as much as men in that occupation. Data from recent Industry Wage Surveys show that in the men's footwear industry, the female-male wage gap is 15 percent for cement process sole attachers and 6 percent for fancy stitchers using automatic machines. In woodworking mills, the differential ranges from 31 percent for mortising-machine operators to 2 percent for hand sanders.

Although wage and employment data for men and women are available for only some occupations and industries, detailed information from Industry Wage Surveys shows that even those women employed as production workers in high-paying manufacturing industries typically receive wages below the average for that industry. For example, the glass container, motor vehicle parts, and prepared meat products industries all paid average earnings for production workers that exceed the all-manufacturing average earnings rate. In only one of these industries did as many as 30 percent of

the women employed have earnings above the industry average, while in all three industries at least 48 percent of the men received earnings above the industry average.

The available data suggest that these differences in female-male earnings stem more from differences in occupational employment than from differences in earnings for the same job. Consider one of these high-paying manufacturing industries, motor vehicle parts, and two production occupations within it, assemblers (classes A-C) and machine-tool operators (classes A-C). Within each class, female earnings are 74 to 92 percent of male earnings. However, women constitute only 4 percent of employment of class A assemblers (the highest paid) but 70 percent of employment of class C assemblers (the lowest paid). The respective numbers for machine-tool operators, 2 and 35 percent, are in the same vein (table 8).

The Bureau of Labor Statistics is the national statistical agency with responsibility for the development and analysis of wage and earnings data. We have seen that aggregate as well as detailed data are available from BLS to study—in many different ways—the existence and the size of the earnings gap. It would, of course, be useful to have more industry and occupational detail covering all sectors of the economy and for individual jobs in individual establishments. But development of such data could result in increased respondent burden.

For more than half a century, the Bureau has conducted wage surveys by occupation with separate detail for men and women. The surveys—based on data gathered from establishment payrolls—rely heavily on voluntary cooperation from the Nation's business community. I am extremely pleased at the cooperation BLS receives from the business community—response rates on these wage surveys typically exceed 90 percent.

We have noticed, however, that in recent years it has become more difficult to collect separate wage information by sex. Increasingly, identification of the sex of employees has been eliminated from payroll records—perhaps as a result of interpretation of regulations under equal pay laws or because employers now believe such information is not pertinent to pay-setting decisions. Since BLS wage surveys depend on company payroll records, the task of collecting pay data by sex has become much more difficult.

Conclusion

This review of the earnings gap provides some evidence of the complexity of the Nation's wage structure, and I hope sheds some light on the issue of pay equity by sex. Use of median earnings data demonstrates that a sizable gap exists between the earnings of men and women. The use of "human-capital"

variables helps to explain only a portion of the earnings gap. Even when detailed occupational and industry wage survey data are used, the differential is reduced but not eliminated. In short, every approach to analyzing differences in the earnings of men and women with which I am familiar agrees on the same basic fact: Earnings of women are generally lower than earnings of men.

Some elements of structural change in the American economy have begun which, over the long run, could have some effect on the earnings gap. Several of the Nation's important high-wage, durable manufacturing industries which have "male-dominated" work forces have been going through an extensive period of dislocation. Some of the people previously employed in industries like steel and auto manufacturing may not be employed in these industries again even when recovery from the current recession is vigorously underway. At the same time, some of today's jobs requiring little training and skill at the low end of the pay scale are being displaced by new technology. The combination of these two developments at opposite ends of the pay scale

could result in some reduction of the overall pay gap.

There are, of course, many alternative approaches to the pay equity issue that are important in understanding the female-male earnings disparity. We have seen from the data that are available that a substantial part of the earnings gap results from an employment distribution that is highly different by sex. We do not know exactly why women continue to work more in jobs that have traditionally been female intensive rather than in other jobs. We do not know how much of their occupational choice may result from the demands of family responsibilities; how much may still reflect discrimination in promotion, hiring, or recruiting practices; or how much may reflect other factors.

What we do know is that a great many factors, often interrelated, play different roles in occupational choice at different periods in women's lives, as well as in the history of our country. And we also know that women in general earn less than men today and that much of the difference is because the jobs that women hold are generally paid at lower rates than the jobs held by men.

Table 1. Women in the population and labor force, annual averages, selected years, 1960-82
(Numbers in thousands)

Year	Civilian noninstitutional population	Labor force	
		Number	As percent of population (rate)
1960	61,582	23,240	37.7
1965	66,731	26,200	39.3
1970	72,782	31,543	43.3
1975	80,860	37,475	46.3
1980	88,348	45,487	51.5
1981	89,618	46,696	52.1
1982 (second quarter)	90,621	47,707	52.6

Table 2. Labor force participation rates of married women, husband present, by presence and age of own children, 1960-82

Year ¹	Participation rate (percent of population in labor force)				
	Total	With no children under 18 years	With children under 18 years		
			Total	6 to 17 years, none younger	Under 6 years
1960	30.5	34.7	27.6	39.0	18.6
1961	32.7	37.3	29.6	41.7	20.0
1962	32.7	36.1	30.3	41.8	21.3
1963	33.7	37.4	31.2	41.5	22.5
1964	34.4	37.8	32.0	43.0	22.7
1965	34.7	38.3	32.2	42.7	23.3
1966	35.4	38.4	33.2	43.7	24.2
1967	36.8	38.9	35.3	45.0	26.5
1968	38.3	40.1	36.9	46.9	27.6
1969	39.6	41.0	38.6	48.6	28.5
1970	40.8	42.2	39.7	49.2	30.3
1971	40.8	42.1	39.7	49.4	29.6
1972	41.5	42.7	40.5	50.2	30.1
1973	42.2	42.8	41.7	50.1	32.7
1974	43.0	43.0	43.1	51.2	34.4
1975	44.4	43.9	44.9	52.3	36.6
1976	45.0	43.8	46.1	53.7	37.4
1977	46.6	44.9	48.2	55.6	39.3
1978	47.6	44.7	50.2	57.2	41.6
1979	49.4	46.7	51.9	59.1	43.2
1980	50.1	46.0	54.1	61.7	45.1
1981	51.0	46.3	55.7	62.5	47.8
1982	51.2	46.2	56.3	63.2	48.7

¹ Data were collected in March of each year.

NOTE: Children are defined as "own" children of the women and include never-married sons and daughters,

step children, and adopted children. Excluded are other related children such as grandchildren, nieces, nephews, and cousins, and unrelated children.

Table 3. Families by type, selected years, 1940-82

(Numbers in thousands)

Year ¹	All families	Married- couple families ²	Other families ³		
			Maintained by men ²	Maintained by women	
				Total	As percent of all families
1940	32,166	26,971	1,579	3,616	11.2
1947	35,794	31,211	1,186	3,397	9.5
1950	39,303	34,440	1,184	3,679	9.4
1955	41,951	36,378	1,339	4,234	10.1
1960	45,062	39,293	1,275	4,494	10.0
1965	47,836	41,649	1,181	5,006	10.5
1970	51,227	44,415	1,239	5,573	10.9
1971	51,947	44,735	1,262	5,950	11.5
1972	53,280	45,743	1,353	6,184	11.6
1973	54,361	46,308	1,453	6,600	12.1
1974	55,041	46,810	1,433	6,798	12.4
1975	55,699	47,069	1,400	7,230	13.0
1976	56,244	47,318	1,444	7,482	13.3
1977	56,709	47,497	1,499	7,713	13.6
1978	57,215	47,385	1,594	8,236	14.4
1979	57,804	47,692	1,654	8,458	14.6
1980	58,729	48,169	1,740	8,819	15.0
1981	60,702	49,316	1,969	9,416	15.5
1982	61,391	49,669	2,009	9,712	15.8

¹ Data were collected in April of 1940, 1947, and 1955 and March of all other years.

² Includes men in Armed Forces living off post or with their families on post.

³ Never-married, widowed, divorced, or separated persons.

Table 4. Employment and average hourly earnings by industry, ranked by proportion of women workers from highest to lowest, July 1982

1972 SIC Code	Industry	All employees (in thousands)	Women workers (in thousands)	Percent of women workers	Rank of proportion of women workers	Average hourly earnings ¹	Rank of average hourly earnings
23	Apparel and other textile products	1,095.9	897.9	81.9	1	\$5.18	50
80	Health services	5,820.8	4,732.9	81.3	2	7.01	36
60	Banking	1,667.8	1,180.6	70.8	3	5.80	46
56	Apparel and accessory stores	948.9	664.1	70.0	4	4.85	51
61	Credit agencies other than banks	587.7	409.7	69.7	5	5.99	43
81	Legal services	583.6	404.7	69.3	6	8.75	21
53	General merchandise stores	2,193.8	1,447.9	66.0	7	5.40	47
63	Insurance carriers	1,230.5	745.9	60.6	8	7.70	30
31	Leather and leather products	195.7	117.8	60.2	9	5.31	49
58	Eating and drinking places	4,883.2	2,746.9	56.3	10	4.06	52
59	Miscellaneous retail	1,950.1	1,058.6	54.3	11	5.36	48
22	Textile mill products	727.0	349.0	48.0	12	5.81	45
39	Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	378.4	171.4	45.3	13	6.40	38
48	Communication	1,397.8	627.8	44.9	14	10.01	14
54	Food stores	2,463.2	1,072.7	43.5	15	7.25	34
73	Business services	3,304.1	1,436.7	43.5	16	7.03	35
36	Electric and electronic equipment	2,004.7	852.3	42.5	17	8.18	25
38	Instruments and related products	708.3	299.8	42.3	18	8.30	23
79	Amusement and recreation services	976.3	402.1	41.2	19	5.87	44
78	Motion pictures	227.6	92.5	40.6	20	8.22	24
27	Printing and publishing	1,262.4	511.2	40.5	21	8.72	22
21	Tobacco manufacturing	60.8	22.0	36.2	22	10.32	11
30	Rubber and miscellaneous plastics products	689.8	240.5	34.9	23	7.67	31
57	Furniture and home furnishings stores	586.5	200.3	34.2	24	6.20	41
89	Miscellaneous services	1,069.0	363.0	34.0	25	10.22	13
25	Furniture and fixtures	429.1	129.1	30.1	26	6.33	39
20	Food and kindred products	1,672.9	492.0	29.4	27	7.87	29
51	Wholesale trade—nondurable goods	2,188.0	625.0	28.6	28	8.17	26
28	Chemicals and allied products	1,075.0	280.7	26.1	29	10.01	15
52	Building materials and garden supplies	598.6	155.0	25.9	30	6.02	42
41	Local and interurban passenger transit	230.0	57.4	25.0	31	7.43	33
50	Wholesale trade—durable goods	3,126.0	766.0	24.5	32	7.99	28
26	Paper and allied products	659.4	149.1	22.6	33	9.40	16
35	Machinery, except electrical	2,262.3	476.0	21.0	34	9.31	17
34	Fabricated metal products	1,426.9	299.8	21.0	35	8.85	20
49	Electric, gas, and sanitary services	881.3	174.7	19.8	36	10.70	8
76	Miscellaneous repair services	296.3	58.7	19.8	37	8.00	27
32	Stone, clay, and glass products	598.1	114.1	19.4	38	8.93	19
55	Automotive dealers and service stations	1,659.8	319.8	19.3	39	6.28	40
75	Auto repair, services, and garages	582.0	100.6	17.3	40	6.68	37
37	Transportation equipment	1,738.6	285.5	16.4	41	11.26	7
13	Oil and gas extraction	710.6	112.7	15.9	42	10.43	9
29	Petroleum and coal products	209.3	32.0	15.3	43	12.40	2
24	Lumber and wood products	630.8	91.3	14.5	44	7.63	32
42	Trucking and warehousing	1,209.6	153.8	12.7	45	10.26	12
15	General building contractors	1,039.5	122.1	11.7	46	10.41	10
33	Primary metal industries	909.1	105.8	11.6	47	11.38	6
10	Metal mining	64.8	6.3	9.7	48	12.24	3
17	Special trade contractors	2,195.4	199.0	9.1	49	12.08	4
14	Nonmetallic minerals, except fuels	118.1	9.5	8.0	50	8.94	18
16	Heavy construction contracting	913.8	66.2	7.2	51	11.47	5
12	Bituminous coal and lignite mining	229.5	11.7	5.1	52	13.05	1

¹ Average hourly earnings are for all production and nonsupervisory workers.

Table 5. Women employed in selected occupations, 1970 and 1981

(Numbers in thousands)

Occupation	Number		Women as percent of all workers in occupation	
	1970	1981	1970	1981
Professional-technical	4,576	7,173	40.0	44.7
Accountants	180	422	25.3	38.5
Computer specialists	52	170	19.6	27.1
Engineers	20	65	1.6	4.3
Lawyers-judges	13	80	4.7	14.0
Physicians-osteopaths	25	60	8.9	13.8
Registered nurses	814	1,271	97.4	96.8
Teachers, except college and university	1,937	2,219	70.4	70.6
Teachers, college and university	139	202	28.3	35.3
Managerial-administrative, except farm	1,061	3,098	16.6	27.4
Bank officials-financial managers	55	254	17.6	37.4
Buyers-purchasing agents	75	164	20.8	35.0
Food service workers	109	286	33.7	40.5
Sales managers-department heads; retail trade	51	136	24.1	40.4
Sales workers	2,143	2,856	39.4	45.4
Sales clerks, retail	1,465	1,696	64.8	71.3
Clerical	10,150	14,645	73.6	80.5
Bank tellers	216	523	86.1	93.7
Bookkeepers	1,274	1,752	82.1	91.2
Cashiers	692	1,400	84.0	86.4
Office machine operators	414	696	73.5	73.7
Secretaries-typists	3,686	4,788	96.6	98.6
Shipping-receiving clerks	59	116	14.3	22.5
Craft	518	786	4.9	6.3
Carpenters	11	20	1.3	1.9
Mechanics, including automotive	49	62	2.0	1.9
Printing	58	99	14.8	25.0
Operatives, except transport	4,036	4,101	38.4	39.8
Assemblers	459	599	48.7	52.3
Laundry and dry cleaning operatives	105	125	62.9	66.1
Sewers and stitchers	816	749	93.8	96.0
Transport equipment operatives	134	304	4.5	8.9
Bus drivers	68	168	28.5	47.3
Truckdrivers	22	51	1.5	2.7
Service workers	5,944	8,184	60.5	62.2
Private household	1,132	988	96.9	96.5
Food service	1,913	3,044	68.8	66.5
Cooks	546	723	62.5	51.9
Health service	1,047	1,752	88.0	89.3
Personal service	778	1,314	66.5	76.1
Protective service	59	145	6.2	10.1

Table 6. Median annual earnings of year-round full-time workers 14 years and over by sex, 1960-81

Year	Annual earnings		Women's earnings as percent of men's
	Women	Men	
1960	\$3,293	\$5,417	60.8
1961	3,351	5,644	59.4
1962	3,446	5,794	59.5
1963	3,561	5,978	59.6
1964	3,690	6,195	59.6
1965	3,823	6,375	60.0
1966	3,973	6,848	58.0
1967	4,150	7,182	57.8
1968	4,457	7,664	58.2
1969	4,977	8,227	60.5
1970	5,323	8,966	59.4
1971	5,593	9,399	59.5
1972	5,903	10,202	57.9
1973	6,335	11,186	56.6
1974	6,970	11,889	58.6
1975	7,504	12,758	58.8
1976	8,099	13,455	60.2
1977	8,618	14,626	58.9
1978	9,350	15,730	59.4
1979	10,151	17,014	59.7
1980	11,197	18,612	60.2
1981	12,001	20,260	59.2

NOTE: Data for 1960 to 1966 are for wage and salary workers only and exclude self-employed workers. Data for 1979 to 1981 are for persons 15 years and over.

Table 7. Median usual weekly earnings of full-time wage and salary workers by sex, May, 1967-78, and second quarter, 1979-82

Year	Usual weekly earnings (current dollars)		Women's earnings as percent of men's
	Women	Men	
May of:			
1967	\$ 78	\$125	62
1969	86	142	61
1970	94	151	62
1971	100	162	62
1972	106	168	63
1973	116	188	62
1974	124	204	61
1975	137	221	62
1976	145	234	62
1977	156	253	62
1978	166	272	61
Second quarter: ¹			
1979	183	295	62
1980	200	317	63
1981	221	343	64
1982	240	370	65

¹ Data not strictly comparable with previous years.

Table 8. Female-male earnings ratios and females and percentage of employment for selected occupations in the motor vehicle parts industry, 1973-74

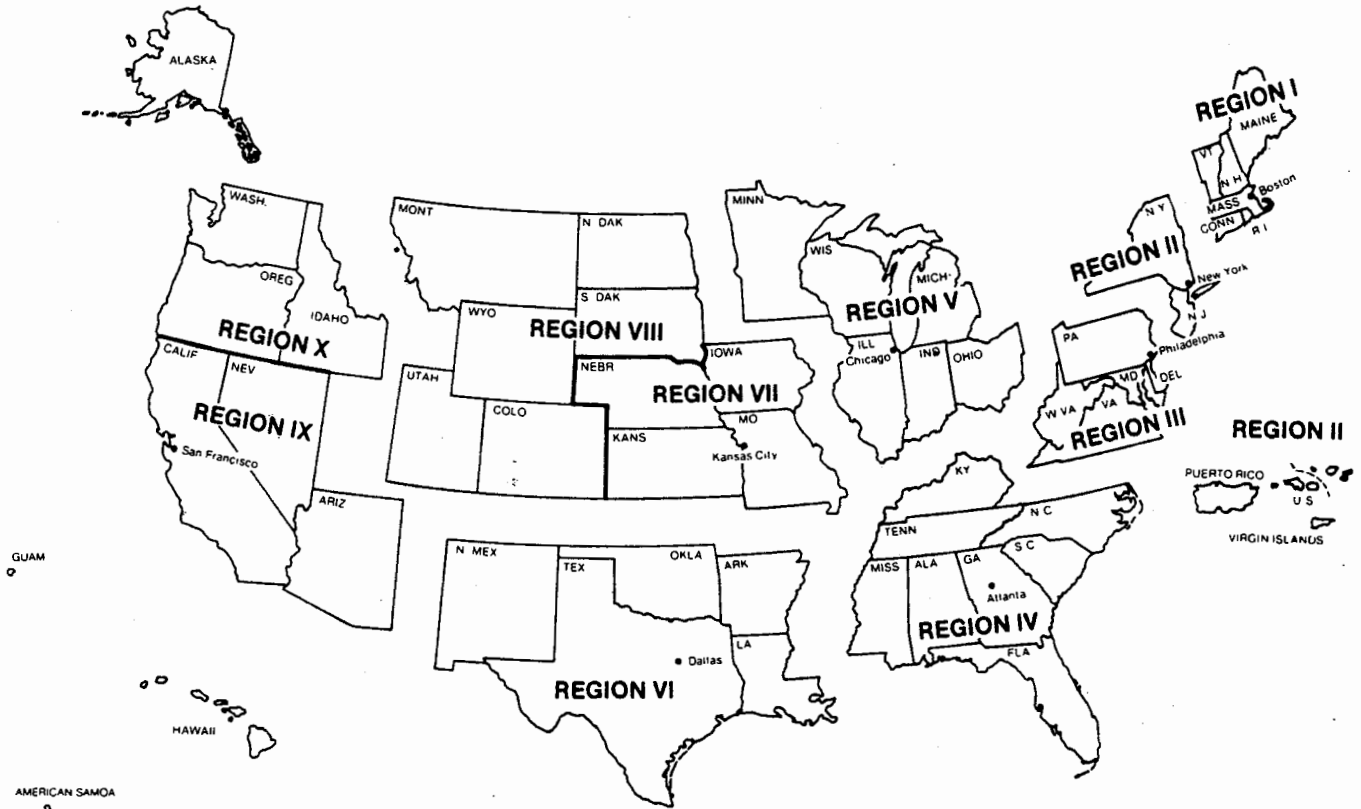
Occupation	Total employment	Percent of females in the occupation	Female-male earnings ratio
Assemblers:			
Class A	'1,626	4.4	0.77
Class B	'15,992	49.5	.74
Class C	23,134	70.0	.83
Machine-tool operators, production:			
Class A	10,424	1.6	.92
Class B	'14,575	4.1	.84
Class C	'12,212	34.7	.86

¹ Employment by sex was not reported by all establishments in the survey.

NOTE: The motor vehicle parts industry, last surveyed in 1973-74, is scheduled to be resurveyed in 1983.

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Economic Responsibilities of Working Women



U.S. Department of Labor
Office of the Secretary
Women's Bureau

Throughout 1981, women continued to join the work force in increasing numbers, in spite of the economic recession that officially began in July of that year. An average of 47 million women were in the labor force (working or looking for work) in 1981. Of this number, about 43 million were employed either part time or full time. During the decade 1971 to 1981, some 21 million additional persons were employed in new or expanded industries. These new jobs provided employment opportunities for more than 13 million women and about 8 million men.

Women work for the same reasons men do--most importantly, to provide for the welfare of themselves, their families, or others. About 45 percent of the women in the labor force in March 1982 had never married, or were widowed, divorced, or separated. Most of the 11.8 million women workers who were never married were working to support themselves, and some had to support others as well. Nearly all of the 9.5 million women workers who were widowed, divorced, or separated from their husbands--particularly the women with children--were working for compelling economic reasons. In addition, the 3.3 million married women workers whose husbands had incomes below \$7,000 almost certainly worked because of economic need. Moreover, about 6.4 million women would be added if we take into account those women whose husbands had incomes between \$7,000 and \$15,000.^{1/} In all, about two-thirds of the women in the labor force in 1982 worked to support themselves and their families, or to supplement low family incomes. Of course, all women in the paid labor force or those working at home contribute to the well-being of themselves and their families.

There were 6.5 million women of minority races ^{2/} who were in the labor force in March 1982. More than 1 out of 8 (13 percent) was a wife whose husband's 1981 income was below \$10,000. Nearly three-fourths of these women workers had never married, or were widowed, divorced, or separated, or had husbands whose income was \$10,000 or less. An additional 9.2 percent had husbands who earned between \$10,000 and \$15,000 in 1981.

^{1/} The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimate for a low budget for an urban family of four was \$15,323 in autumn 1981.

^{2/} In this publication, minority races include black and "other" races. The population is divided into three groups on the basis of race: white, black, and "other races." The latter category includes American Indians, Alaskan Natives, Japanese, Chinese, and any other races except white and black. Spanish-origin persons may be of any racial group.

The marital status of women workers in March 1982 was as follows:

Marital status	All women		Women of minority races	
	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution
Total	47,095,000	100.0	6,541,000	100.0
Never married	11,801,000	25.1	1,973,000	30.2
Married (husband present)	25,756,000	54.7	2,800,000	42.8
Husband's 1981 income:				
Under \$7,000	3,263,000	6.9	546,000	8.3
\$7,000 to \$9,999	2,026,000	4.3	314,000	4.8
\$10,000 to \$12,999	2,738,000	5.8	384,000	5.9
\$13,000 to \$14,999	1,683,000	3.6	219,000	3.3
\$15,000 to \$19,999	4,526,000	9.6	477,000	7.3
\$20,000 and over	11,519,000	24.5	860,000	13.1
Other marital status	9,538,000	20.3	1,768,000	27.0
Married (husband absent)	2,087,000	4.4	688,000	10.5
Widowed	2,287,000	4.9	344,000	5.3
Divorced	5,164,000	11.0	736,000	11.3

Women who maintain families.--Of the 61.0 million families in March 1982, women maintained or were solely responsible for 9.7 million, or 16 percent. About 5.7 million, or 61 percent, of the women family heads were in the labor force, and more than three-fourths of them were the only earners in their families. About 1 out of 5 women in the labor force was maintaining a family. Among the 2.8 million minority women maintaining families in March 1982, 56 percent were in the labor force. More than 2 out of 5 minority women workers were solely responsible for a family. Thirty-six percent (2.8 million) of all minority families were maintained by women.

Women who maintain families are responsible for about the same size family as in any other family structure. The average size of their families is 3.04 persons compared with 3.27 persons in all families. The average number of children in all families (1.90) and in families maintained by women (1.83) is nearly the same.

The median age of females maintaining families in March 1981 was 41.6 years, compared with 34.2 years for all women workers. The youngest group of women (29.3 years) were single and had never married, and the group with the highest average age (61.7 years) was the divorced women maintaining families.

When we look at the educational attainment of these women, we find the majority (61 percent) were at least high school graduates or had completed 1 or more years of college. The remaining 39 percent had attained only 8 years of schooling (20 percent) or less than 8 years (19 percent).

Women who maintain families often are employed in some of the more traditional and less well paying jobs. One-third (33 percent) of these women were employed as clerical workers, followed by service workers (25 percent). These two occupations were held by nearly three-fifths of all employed women maintaining families in March 1982.

About one-third of the families maintained by women had incomes below the poverty level in 1981.^{3/} This was true for more than half of all minority families headed by women. Poor families maintained by women represented 47 percent of all poor families. For those families where the women worked during 1981, however, about 1 out of 5 (1 out of 3 minority families) had an income below the poverty level. Among families where women worked year round in full-time jobs, 7 percent (13 percent of minority families) were poor.

In 1981, 1.4 million families maintained by women had an experience with unemployment. Only 39 percent of these families had at least one person employed full time and nearly 51 percent had no employed person. Among those families with children under 18 years of age, 58 percent had no employed member in 1981.

Mothers with husbands present.—Of the 25.8 million married women (husband present) who were in the labor force in March 1982, 14.0 million had children under 18 years of age, 5.7 million had children under 6, and 3.3 million had children under 3. About 9.7 million mothers were working to supplement low family incomes. Included were 3.3 million mothers whose spouses had 1981 incomes below \$7,000 and 6.4 million whose spouses had incomes between \$7,000 and \$15,000.

^{3/} The low-income or poverty level is based on the Bureau of the Census definition of poverty, adjusted annually in accordance with changes in the Department of Labor's Consumer Price Index. Classified as poor in 1981 were those households where total money income was less than \$4,620 for an unrelated individual; \$5,917 for a couple; and \$9,287 for a family of four.

Among all wives who worked during 1981, the median contribution was more than one-fourth of the total family income; among those who worked year round full time, it was nearly two-fifths. About 3.8 million wives, or 14 percent of all wives who worked, contributed half or more of the family income. For minority wives who worked, 573,000, or 19 percent, contributed half or more of the family income.

Among the 2.8 million minority women who were working wives and mothers in March 1982, about 31 percent had husbands whose 1981 incomes were below \$10,000 and an additional 22 percent had husbands whose incomes were between \$10,000 and \$15,000. Of these mothers, 546,000 had spouses with incomes below \$7,000 and 917,000 had spouses with incomes from \$7,000 to \$15,000.

Wives whose husbands are unemployed or unable to work.--In the 49.7 million husband-wife families, there were 2.4 million husbands (some 339,000 minority husbands) who were unemployed in March 1982, although they were in the labor force and actively looking for work; 10.0 million husbands (992,000 minority husbands) were not in the labor force. Some 1.2 million wives of unemployed husbands and 2.0 million wives whose husbands were not in the labor force were working or seeking work. Many of these women were the sole support of their families.

Women whose husbands are employed in low-wage occupations.--In March 1982 there were 617,000 married working women whose husbands were farm workers; another 813,000 had husbands who were nonfarm laborers; and 1.4 million had husbands employed in service occupations. The median wage or salary income of men in these occupations was low in 1981--\$8,977 for farm laborers and supervisors; \$5,077 for farmers and farm managers; \$14,730 for nonfarm laborers; and \$14,116 for service workers (except private household).

Many wives were employed in the same low-wage occupations. There were 235,000 wives employed as nonfarm laborers, with a median wage or salary income of \$10,647 in 1981, and 3.6 million employed as service workers (except private household), with a median wage or salary income which was much less than that of men, at \$8,563. There were 366,000 wives employed as private household workers, with a median earned income of \$5,242.

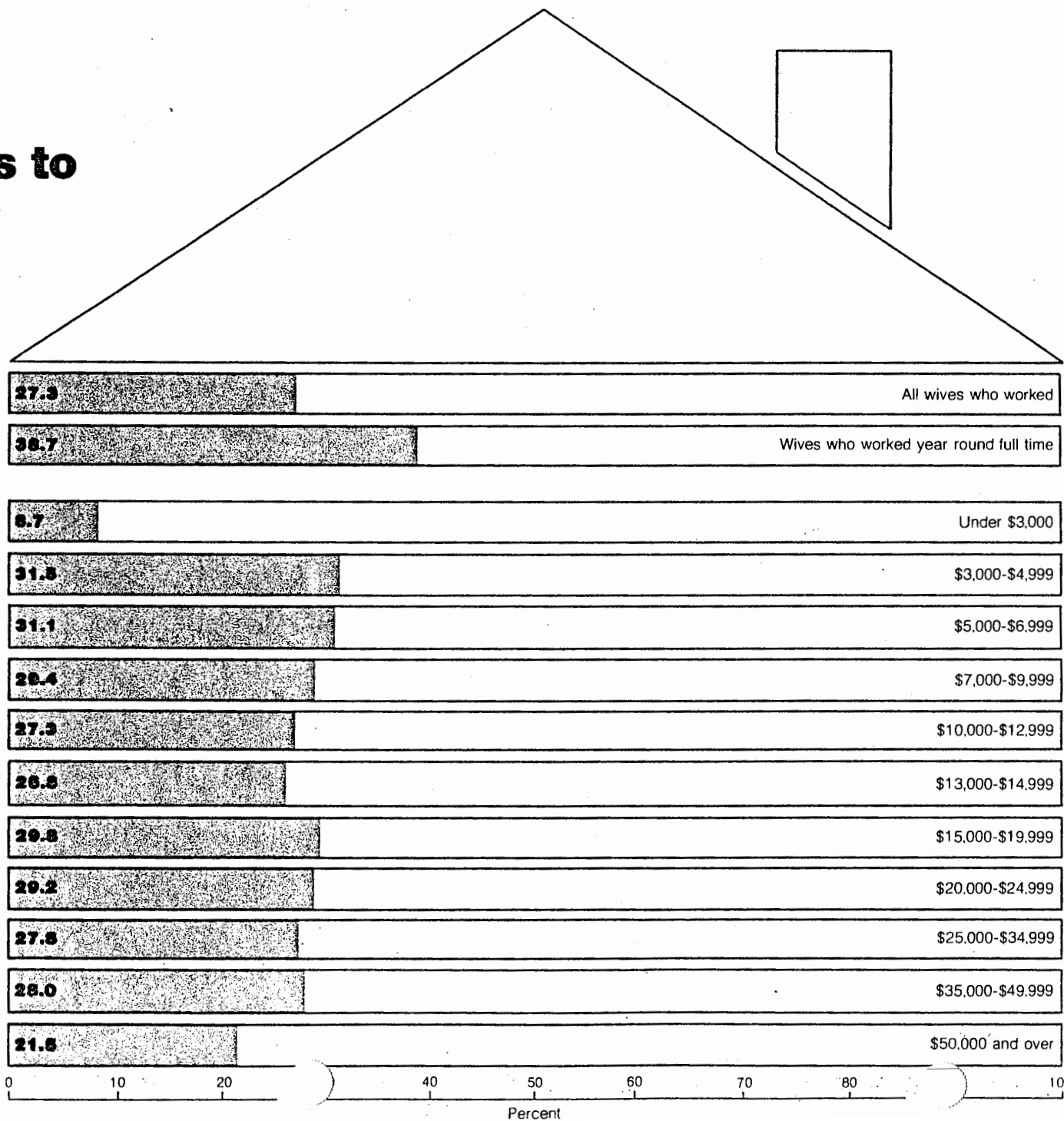
Working wives' contribution to family income.--The money contribution of working wives is of crucial importance when it raises family income above the low-income level. About 6 percent of all husband-wife families had incomes below \$10,000 in 1980 when the wife was a worker; 21 percent, when she was not. There is a similar impact of wives' earnings among families with incomes below \$15,000. When the wife was in the labor force, about 15 percent of all husband-wife families had incomes below \$15,000, but when she was not, about 2½ times as many families (38 percent) had incomes below this amount.

Wives' Contribution to Family Income, by Race and
by Work Experience, March 1981

Work experience	Number	Median percent contri- bution	Number contrib- uting half or more	Percent contrib- uting half or more
<u>Total wives</u>	<u>27,915,000</u>	27.3	<u>3,800,000</u>	13.6
Worked full time:				
50 to 52 weeks	12,721,000	38.7	2,958,000	23.3
27 to 49 weeks	3,476,000	29.9	461,000	13.3
1 to 26 weeks <u>or</u> 1 to 52 weeks part time	11,717,000	12.0	381,000	3.3
<u>White wives</u>	<u>24,955,000</u>	26.4	<u>3,226,000</u>	12.9
Worked full time:				
50 to 52 weeks	11,115,000	38.4	2,523,000	22.7
27 to 49 weeks	3,056,000	29.4	387,000	12.7
1 to 26 weeks <u>or</u> 1 to 52 weeks part time	10,783,000	11.7	316,000	2.9
<u>Minority wives</u>	<u>2,960,000</u>	34.1	<u>573,000</u>	19.4
Worked full time:				
50 to 52 weeks	1,606,000	41.2	436,000	27.1
27 to 49 weeks	420,000	33.5	73,000	17.4
1 to 26 weeks <u>or</u> 1 to 52 weeks part time	934,000	16.2	65,000	7.0

Source: Prepared by the Women's Bureau from data published by the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, and U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Contribution of Wives' Earnings to Family Income



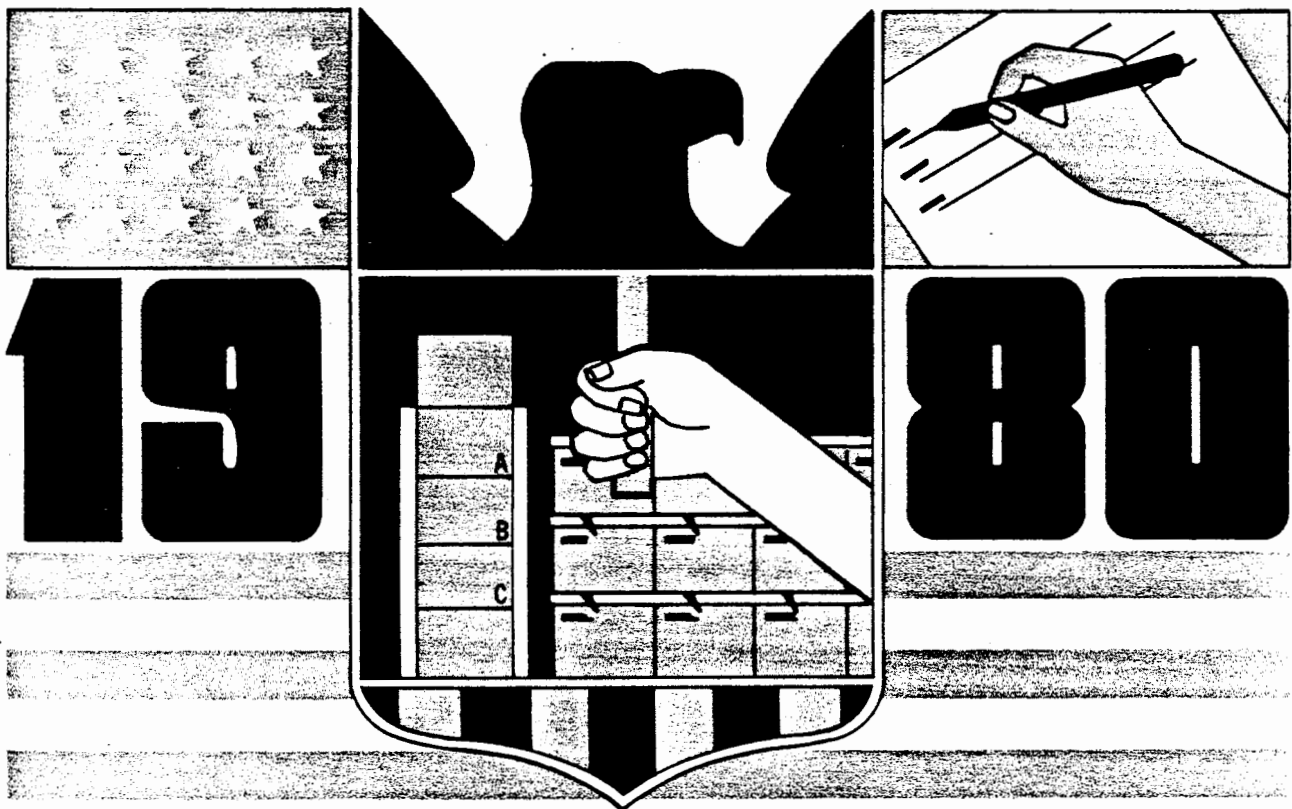
Harper/Gileyard

CURRENT POPULATION REPORTS

Population Characteristics

Series P-20, No. 370

Voting and Registration in the Election of November 1980



U.S. Department of Commerce
BUREAU OF THE CENSUS

Voting and Registration in the Election of November 1980

According to official counts, 86.5 million Americans voted in the November 1980 Presidential election. This is the largest number of votes ever cast in a general election in the United States, exceeding by 4.9 million the number of votes cast for President in 1976. Despite this numerical increase, only 54 percent of the voting age population (18 years old and over) voted in the 1980 Presidential election, the same proportion as voted in 1976.

Results from the November 1980 Current Population Survey (CPS) indicated a reported voter turnout rate of 59 percent both in 1980 and 1976.¹ Thus, both official ballot counts and survey results indicate that the increase in the total number of voters between 1976 and 1980 was due to the increase in the size of the voting age population between the two election dates and not to an increase in voter participation. An exception to this trend was evident in a slight increase in the Black voter participation rate from 49 percent in 1976 to 51 percent in 1980.²

Most of the findings in this report are based on answers to a series of questions asked of persons of voting age in the Current Population Survey approximately 2 weeks after the election of November 4, 1980. The data in this report relate to the civilian noninstitutional population 18 years old and over. The CPS supplement on voting and registration is designed primarily to facilitate comparisons of voter turnout among different population groups and is the principal source of such data for the Nation. Data from the November 1980 CPS indicate that 93.1 million persons reported voting in the November 1980 election, some 6.6 million more than actually voted for President in 1980, according to official returns. Some of the factors accounting for differences between official election returns and the CPS results are discussed in the section of this report entitled "Evaluation of the Accuracy of the Data."

For successive Presidential elections between 1964 and 1976 and successive Congressional elections between 1966 and 1974, the voter participation rate declined (table A). Results from the Congressional elections of 1978 and the Presidential election of 1980, however, indicate a possible stabilization in the rate. With the anticipated general aging

of the electorate in the next decade, an increase in the number of people voting might occur due to the changing age composition of the electorate and the relatively high voter participation rates among the middle-age and older population.

HIGHLIGHTS

- Voter participation rates are higher among Whites (61 percent) than among Blacks (51 percent) or persons of Spanish origin (30 percent). The very low voter participation rate for the Hispanic population is due principally to the large proportion of this population who reported that they were not citizens (32 percent) and therefore were not eligible to vote.
- Voter participation was found to be relatively higher among white-collar (71 percent) than blue-collar (48 percent) workers, among college graduates (80 percent) than high school graduates (59 percent), and among homeowners (68 percent) than among renters (45 percent).
- Of the 37.2 million people reporting that they had not registered to vote, 47 percent said that they had not done so because they did not prefer any of the likely candidates or that they were not interested in the election. The same reasons were given by 27 percent of the 12.0 million people who registered to vote but did not go to the polls. In all, lack of interest in either the candidates or the election accounted for approximately 21 million people not voting in the November 1980 election.
- In 1980, for the first time since the Bureau of the Census began collecting data on voting in 1964, no difference was found between voter turnout rates for men and women (59 percent). Previous surveys have shown that men report slightly higher rates than women.

CHARACTERISTICS OF VOTERS

Voter participation rates are highly related to the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the electorate. As shown in table B, voter turnout is higher among the White population (61 percent) than either the Black or Hispanic

¹ Data from the November 1980 CPS show that 93.1 million persons reported voting in the November 1980 election, up from 86.7 million as reported in the November 1976 CPS.

² Throughout this report, the phrases "voter participation rate" and "voter turnout rate" are used interchangeably. They both refer to the percent of the voting age population that reported to have voted in the specified election.

Table A. Percent Reported Voting, by Region, Race, and Spanish Origin: November 1964 to 1980

(Numbers in thousands. Civilian noninstitutional population)

Region, race, and Spanish Origin	Presidential elections					Congressional elections			
	1980	1976	1972	1968	1964	1978	1974	1970	1966
UNITED STATES									
Total, voting age.....	157,085	146,548	136,203	116,535	110,604	151,646	141,299	120,701	112,800
Percent voted.....	59.2	59.2	63.0	67.8	69.3	45.9	44.7	54.6	55.4
White.....	60.9	60.9	64.5	69.1	70.7	47.3	46.3	56.0	57.0
Black.....	50.5	48.7	52.1	57.6	58.5	37.2	33.8	43.5	41.7
Spanish origin ¹	29.9	31.8	37.5	(NA)	(NA)	23.5	22.9	(NA)	(NA)
NORTH AND WEST									
Total, voting age.....	106,524	99,403	93,653	81,594	78,174	102,894	96,505	83,515	78,355
Percent voted.....	61.0	61.2	66.4	71.0	74.6	48.9	48.8	59.0	60.9
White.....	62.4	62.6	67.5	71.8	74.7	50.0	50.0	59.8	61.7
Black.....	52.8	52.2	56.7	64.8	² 72.0	41.3	37.9	51.4	52.1
SOUTH									
Total, voting age.....	50,561	47,145	42,550	34,941	32,429	48,752	44,794	37,186	34,445
Percent voted.....	55.6	54.9	55.4	60.1	56.7	39.6	36.0	44.7	43.0
White.....	57.4	57.1	57.0	61.9	59.5	41.1	37.4	46.4	45.1
Black.....	48.2	45.7	47.8	51.6	² 44.0	33.5	30.0	36.8	32.9

NA Not available.

¹Persons of Spanish origin may be of any race.²Black and other races in 1964.

populations (51 and 30 percent, respectively),³ higher among middleaged persons 45 to 64 years old (69 percent) than older or younger age groups shown in the table; and highest among residents of the North Central States (66 percent).

Education is one of the most important socioeconomic characteristics related to voting since it affects not only the person's occupation and related economic characteristics but may also influence the individual's commitment to the political process. In 1980, college graduates were nearly twice as likely to have voted (80 percent) as persons who had attended only elementary school (43 percent); persons with 4 years of high school had an intermediate voter participation rate of 59 percent. Overall, persons with at least 4 years of college constituted only 15 percent of the total voting age population 18 years old and over, but they made up 21 percent of the persons who reported to have voted (table 10 and figure 1).

Whether or not a person is employed is an important indicator of the person's probability of voting in an election. In the November 1980 election, 62 percent of employed persons reported to have voted compared to only 41 percent of unemployed persons. Among employed persons in non-agricultural industries, government workers (federal, state, and local) reported voting at a significantly higher level (77

percent) than either wage or salary workers in private industry (58 percent) or self-employed workers (67 percent). Persons not in the labor force, a group which includes many retired persons, reported a voter participation rate of 57 percent, which was slightly less than the 60 percent reported by all persons in the labor force (employed and unemployed combined). Persons who were in white-collar occupations were also more likely to vote (71 percent) than persons in blue-collar occupations (48 percent).

Data shown in table B also indicate that the relatively wealthier, more established segments of the population participate to a greater extent in the electoral process than other population groups. Almost three-fourths of the voting age population living in families whose family income was \$25,000 or more voted in the election, compared with only 39 percent for those persons with a family income of less than \$5,000. Altogether, one-third of the persons who voted in the November 1980 election had family incomes in excess of \$25,000 (figure 1).

Persons who had more established residences, as measured by homeownership and duration of residence in the community, voted to a greater extent than persons who rented housing or recently moved into their homes. Sixty-eight percent of homeowners reported to have voted, compared with 45 percent of persons who rented housing. Similarly, persons who had lived in the same house for 6 or more years had a higher voter participation rate (73 percent) than persons who had lived at their current residence for shorter durations of time.

³ The voter participation rate for the Spanish origin population is very low due to the large proportion (32 percent) of this population who are not citizens and, therefore, cannot vote. See the section of this report on "Reasons for Not Voting or Registering" for a discussion of this issue.

Table B. Characteristics of the Voting Age Population Reported Registered or Voting: November 1980

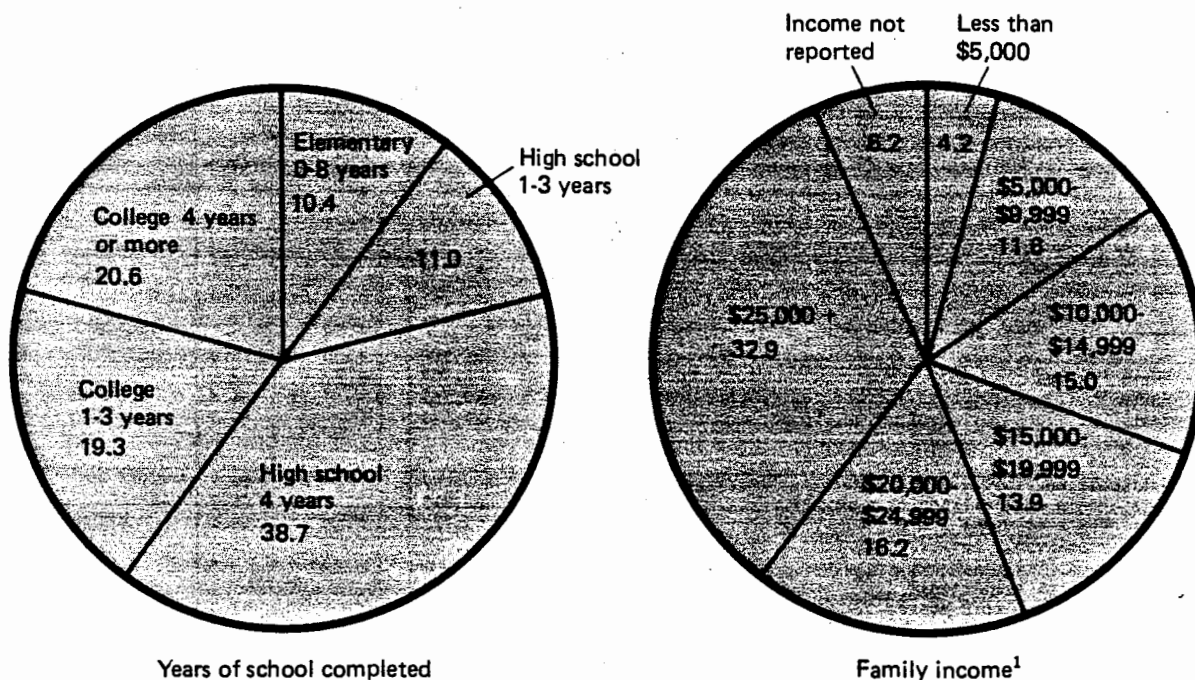
(Numbers in thousands)

Characteristics	Number of persons	Percent registered	Percent voted
Total, 18 years and over.....	157,085	66.9	59.2
Race and Spanish origin:			
White.....	137,676	68.4	60.9
Black.....	16,423	60.0	50.5
Spanish origin ¹	8,210	36.3	29.9
Sex:			
Male.....	74,082	66.6	59.1
Female.....	83,003	67.1	59.4
Age:			
18 to 24 years.....	28,138	49.2	39.9
25 to 44 years.....	61,285	65.6	58.7
45 to 64 years.....	43,569	75.8	69.3
65 years and over.....	24,094	74.6	65.1
Region:			
Northeast.....	35,500	64.8	58.5
North Central.....	41,542	73.8	65.8
South.....	50,561	64.8	55.6
West.....	29,483	63.3	57.2
Residence:			
Metropolitan.....	106,627	65.8	58.8
In SMSA's of 1 million or more.....	60,895	65.2	58.6
In SMSA's of under 1 million.....	45,731	66.4	59.0
Nonmetropolitan.....	50,459	69.2	60.2
Years of school completed:			
Elementary: 0 to 8 years.....	22,656	53.0	42.6
High school: 1 to 3 years.....	22,477	54.6	45.6
4 years.....	61,165	66.4	58.9
College: 1 to 3 years.....	26,747	74.4	67.2
4 years or more.....	24,040	84.3	79.9
Labor force status and class of worker:			
In civilian labor force.....	101,934	67.4	60.4
Employed.....	95,041	68.7	61.8
Agriculture.....	3,015	68.1	60.0
Nonagricultural industries.....	92,026	68.7	61.9
Private wage and salary workers.....	69,161	65.1	57.9
Government workers.....	15,801	82.0	77.0
Self-employed workers ²	7,063	73.7	67.0
Unemployed.....	6,893	50.3	41.2
Not in labor force.....	55,151	65.8	57.0
Occupation ³ :			
White-collar workers.....	52,772	76.5	70.9
Blue-collar workers.....	33,382	56.6	48.0
Service workers.....	12,713	59.4	51.3
Farm workers.....	2,579	68.0	59.9
No previous full-time work experience.....	488	34.4	28.0
Family income ⁴ :			
Under \$5,000.....	8,567	50.4	39.4
\$5,000 to \$9,999.....	18,873	58.4	48.8
\$10,000 to \$14,999.....	21,746	63.6	54.8
\$15,000 to \$19,999.....	18,359	66.8	60.3
\$20,000 to \$24,999.....	19,100	73.5	67.2
\$25,000 and over.....	35,427	79.2	73.8
Tenure ⁵ :			
Owner occupied.....	98,362	75.3	68.3
Renter occupied.....	25,494	53.8	44.6
Duration of residence ⁵ :			
Less than 1 year.....	16,005	54.4	45.1
1 to 2 years.....	18,366	66.3	58.8
3 to 5 years.....	21,063	73.6	66.4
6 years or more.....	64,178	80.3	72.6

¹Persons of Spanish origin may be of any race.²Includes unpaid family workers.³Includes all persons in the civilian labor force.⁴Restricted to members of primary families.⁵Restricted to members of primary families. Excludes noncitizens.

Sources: Tables 2, 3, 10, 11, 12.

Percent Distribution of Voters in the November 1980 Election, by Years of School Completed and Family Income



¹ Restricted to persons living in primary families.

² Source: Tables 10 and 13 of this report.

VOTING RATES FOR MEN AND WOMEN

For the first time since 1964 when the Census Bureau first began collecting data on voting behavior, no significant difference was observed between the reported voter participation rates for men and women, each reporting a voter turnout rate of 59 percent (table C). This is in contrast to the November 1964 election when voter participation for men (72 percent) was 5 percentage points higher than the rate for women (67 percent).

The trend toward equality in the overall voter participation rate occurred in a period of a general decline in voter turnout for both men and women. Two trends appear to be largely responsible for eliminating the voter turnout differences between men and women in 1980: changes in the voting rates of persons under 45 years of age and changes in the age structure of the electorate.

With the enfranchisement of all 18 to 20 year olds in 1972, voter participation rates for women 18 to 44 years old (59 percent) approximated those of men while in the previous two Presidential elections voter participation rates among men under 45 years old had been greater than those reported by women. By 1980, the voter participation rate for women 18 to 44 years old was 54 percent, some 3 percentage points higher than that reported by men in the same age group. In addition, among persons 45 years old and over, the difference in voter participation between men and

women has declined from 8 percentage points higher for men than for women in 1964 to a difference of 4 percentage points in 1980.

Secondly, between 1964 and 1980, the proportion of the voting age population under 45 years old increased from 50 percent to 57 percent.⁴ Thus, the higher voter turnout rate among younger women than men, a decrease in the sex differential in voter turnout for persons 45 years and over, and an increase in the proportion of the voting age population under 45 years old resulted in eliminating, by the November 1980 election, differences in the overall turnout rate between men and women.

REASONS FOR NOT VOTING OR REGISTERING

Differences in voter participation rates among population groups are closely related to the proportion of the population that registers to vote. For all population groups, especially those persons of Spanish origin, not being a citizen presents the principal barrier to registration. Originally, citizenship status had not been asked directly in the CPS supplement on voting and registration. Instead, noncitizens were identified by their response of "not a U.S. citizen" to the question on reason for not registering to vote. Beginning

⁴ For a discussion of the effects of changes in the age distribution on voter turnout, see Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 322, *Voting and Registration in the Election of November 1972*.

Table C. Percent Reported Voted in the Presidential Election, by Age and Sex: November 1964 to 1980

(Numbers in thousands)

Year	18 years old and over		18 to 44 years old		45 years old and over	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
1980						
Number.....	74,082	83,003	43,326	46,097	30,757	36,906
Percent voted.....	59.1	59.4	51.3	54.2	70.0	66.0
1976						
Number.....	68,957	77,591	39,259	41,995	29,699	35,596
Percent voted.....	59.6	58.8	52.3	54.1	69.2	64.3
1972						
Number.....	63,833	72,370	35,395	38,390	28,439	33,979
Percent voted.....	64.1	62.0	57.9	58.7	71.7	65.7
1968 ¹						
Number.....	54,464	62,071	27,284	30,420	27,180	31,651
Percent voted.....	69.8	66.0	64.0	62.8	75.6	69.0
1964 ¹						
Number.....	52,123	58,482	26,144	29,070	25,977	29,413
Percent voted.....	71.9	67.0	66.8	64.8	77.1	69.2

¹Data are for persons of voting age, usually 21 years old and over in most States prior to 1972.

Source: Current Population Reports, Series P-20, Nos. 143, 192, 253, 322, and table 2 of this report.

Table D. Percent Reported Registered and Reported Voted, by Citizenship Status: November 1980

Race, Spanish origin, and age	Percent reported registered		Percent reported voted	
	All persons	All persons, excluding noncitizens ¹	All persons	All persons, excluding noncitizens ¹
Total.....	66.9	69.7	59.2	61.7
RACE				
White.....	68.4	70.8	60.9	63.1
Black.....	60.0	61.7	50.5	52.0
Spanish origin ²	36.3	53.6	29.9	44.1
AGE				
18 to 24 years.....	49.2	51.8	39.9	41.9
25 to 44 years.....	65.6	69.0	58.7	61.7
45 to 64 years.....	75.8	78.2	69.3	71.5
65 years and over.....	74.6	76.4	65.1	66.7

¹Includes a relatively small percentage of persons (3 percent) with no report on citizenship status.²Persons of Spanish origin may be of any race.

Source: Derived from table 2 of this report.

in 1978, a question was first asked of all respondents "Is (this person) a citizen of the United States?" as an introduction to the questions on voting and registration. The exclusion of persons identified as noncitizens (6.3 million) from the denominator in the computation of voting and registration rates, slightly raises for the nation as a whole the registration rate from 67 to 70 percent and the voter

participation rate from 59 to 62 percent (table D). For persons of Spanish origin, the registration rate increased from 36 percent to 54 percent and the voter participation rate increased from 30 to 44 percent when the reported number of noncitizens (2.6 million) are removed from the denominator before calculating the voting rate. Voter participation rates based on total population statistics are of

sociological and political importance since they indicate the degree to which different population groups play a role in the electoral process.

It is evident from the survey data that once people make the effort to register to vote, they vote the vast majority of time. For example, difference in the percentage of the total population of voting age that voted ranges from a high of 67 percent for the White population to 51 percent for the Black population to 30 percent for the Spanish-origin population. However, among those who registered to vote, 89 percent of the White, 84 percent of the Black, and 82 percent of the Spanish-origin population reported to have voted (table E).⁵

Table E. Percent of Persons Registered to Vote Who Reported to Have Voted, by Race, Spanish Origin, and Age: November 1980

(Numbers in thousands)

Race, Spanish origin, and age	Reported registered	Reported voted	Percent of those registered who voted
Total.....	105,035	93,066	88.6
RACE			
White.....	94,112	83,855	89.1
Black.....	9,849	8,287	84.1
Spanish origin ¹ .	2,984	2,453	82.2
AGE			
18 to 24 years..	13,852	11,225	81.0
25 to 44 years..	40,187	35,958	89.5
45 to 64 years..	33,029	30,205	91.4
65 years and over.....	17,968	15,677	87.2

¹Spanish origin may be of any race.

Source: Table 2 of this report.

Overall, about 4 out of every 10 persons of voting age (64 million persons) did not vote in 1980. Among the nonvoting respondents who had registered to vote (12 million) 16 percent stated that they did not prefer any of the candidates, and 11 percent stated that they were not interested in voting (table F). Another 17 percent stated that sickness or a family emergency prevented them from voting.

Expressions of lack of interest in voting by persons who had previously registered but who did not vote showed no statistical difference between Whites (11 percent) and Blacks (10 percent). However, the reason "did not prefer any candidates" was reported more frequently among White nonvoters (17 percent) than among Black nonvoters (12 percent) who had registered but did not vote. These differences should be

interpreted with caution since a higher proportion of Blacks (20 percent) than Whites (13 percent) did not give any reason for not voting or did not respond to the question.

Sickness or family emergencies were the predominant reasons for not voting among the population 65 years old and over (43 percent), while only 4 percent of the youngest age group gave similar reasons. Among younger respondents, being away from home or out of town on election day constituted the principal specified reason for not voting (21 percent, table 17). Lack of preference for any candidate was reported by 19 to 20 percent of the age groups 25 to 44 and 45 to 64 years old while the youngest and oldest age groups gave this reason in only 11 to 12 percent of the cases.

Lack of interest is a much more frequent reason given for not registering to vote than for not voting. Of those respondents who reported that they had not registered to vote (37 million persons), 9 percent had not done so because they did not prefer any of the likely candidates while another 39 percent had not registered because they had no interest in the election (table 19). These two categories combined accounted for slightly less than one-half of the responses for not registering to vote compared to only 27 percent given as reasons for not voting among persons who actually registered to vote. That these two reasons combined explain a greater portion of nonregistration than nonvoting behavior is understandable since persons who are generally motivated enough to register will probably follow-up the process by actually voting.

In all, about one-third of the persons who did not vote in the November 1980 election (21 million persons) stated that they lacked sufficient interest in the electoral process or in the candidates to register or, if registered previously, to vote in that specific election.

EVALUATION OF THE ACCURACY OF THE DATA

In the November 1980 Current Population Survey supplement on voting, 93.1 million of the 157.1 million persons of voting age in the civilian noninstitutional population were reported (by themselves or by members of their households) as having voted in the November 1980 election. Official counts showed 86.5 million votes cast, or a difference of 6.6 million votes between the two sources. This difference is greater than can be accounted for by sampling variability (table G). Moreover, the population covered in the survey excluded members of the Armed Forces and institutional inmates.⁶ Since the proportion of voters in these population groups is somewhat lower than in the rest of the population, their omission leads to a minor understatement of the size of the difference.

⁶ In the November 1974 Congressional election, the Department of Defense total voting rate for Armed Forces was 18.0 percent as compared with 44.7 percent for the civilian noninstitutional population; in the 1972 Presidential election, the corresponding voting rate for the Armed Forces was 47.6 as compared with 63.0 percent for the civilian noninstitutional population. Department of Defense, Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense (Manpower and Research Affairs). "The Federal Voting Assistance Program," Tenth Report, 1975, and Ninth Report, 1973.

⁵ The difference, now, between the Black and Spanish-origin populations in voter turnout is not statistically significant.

Table F. Reported Reason for Not Voting, for Persons Who Reported Registering But Not Voting, by Race, Spanish Origin, and Age: November 1980

(Numbers in thousands)

Race, Spanish origin, and age	Total reported registered but not voting	Reported reason for not voting						
		Percent of total	Sick or family emergency	Other reason unable to vote ¹	Did not prefer any of the candidates	Not interested, don't care, etc.	All other reasons not specified	Don't know reason not reported
Total.....	11,969	100.0	17.1	24.4	16.0	11.2	17.2	14.1
RACE								
White.....	10,257	100.0	17.1	24.8	16.7	11.3	17.0	13.1
Black.....	1,562	100.0	17.7	21.3	11.6	10.2	19.2	20.0
Spanish origin ²	531	100.0	15.1	26.7	13.1	10.6	23.6	10.7
AGE								
18 to 24 years.....	2,627	100.0	4.2	31.7	11.2	12.7	19.3	21.0
25 to 44 years.....	4,229	100.0	10.1	25.8	19.1	11.7	20.4	12.9
45 to 64 years.....	2,824	100.0	18.4	21.6	19.5	12.6	14.6	13.5
65 years and over....	2,290	100.0	43.2	16.9	11.7	6.8	12.3	9.0

¹This category includes the responses "no way to get to polls," "could not take time off from work," and "out of town or away from home."

²Persons of Spanish origin may be of any race.

Source: Table 17 of this report.

This bias has been noted in other surveys of voting behavior but both the methods of measuring it and estimates of its size have varied considerably.⁷ On balance, the overstatement varies between 5 and 15 percent of the total number of persons reported as having voted.⁸ Possible reasons for the differences follow.

1. *Understatement of total votes cast.* The only uniform count of the total number of voters available on a nationwide basis is the number of votes cast for President. This number is smaller than the total number of persons who voted because (a) a number of ballots are invalidated in the counting and (b) there are a number of valid ballots for which there was no vote cast for President. Precise estimates of the size of these sources of error are not available. Although the office of the President usually attracts the largest number of votes, not everyone who goes to the polls casts a vote for President. Some persons may, for example, vote for a U.S. Senator or member of the U.S. Congress but not for President. A tally of the data from the States which report information on the total number of votes cast shows that for

1976, there were about 2 percent fewer votes cast for President than the total number voting in the election. In 1980, the difference was less than 1 percent.

2. *Overreporting of voting in the survey.* Some persons who actually did not vote were reluctant to so report, perhaps because they felt it was a "lapse in civic responsibility," and some respondents reporting on the voting behavior of other members of their household assumed the person in question had voted when, in fact, he or she had not. This latter problem may be especially relevant to reported voting of 18- to 20-year-olds, inasmuch as only about a quarter of this age group reported for themselves. Those away at college were almost certainly reported for by their parents. In addition, since men are more likely to be employed and at their jobs when the enumerator visits their home, another household member, usually the wife, is likely to report for them.

As a check on the work of the interviewer, a subsample of the households in the 1964 survey was reinterviewed by the supervisory staff. This reinterview showed no net error in reporting on voting. However, since the reinterviewer usually talked with the same household respondent (or respondents) as originally interviewed the previous week, it is likely that an original reporting error of this type would go undetected during a reinterview.

A test was conducted in conjunction with the December 1972 Current Population Survey to examine another facet of the overreporting problem. The hypothesis was that by asking the presumably less sensitive question on registration first, the tendency to overreport on voting might be lessened. The results of this test were somewhat confounded by a nonreporting rate in December that was twice as high as that in

⁷ Hugh J. Parry and Helen M. Crossley, "Validity of Responses to Survey Questions," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, XIV (1950), pp. 61-80; Mungo Miller, "The Waukegan Study of Voter Turnout Prediction," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, XVI (Fall 1952), pp. 381-398; and Helen Dinerman, "1948 Votes in the Making—A Preview," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, XII (Winter 1948-49), pp. 585-598. For a more complete listing of similar studies, see David Adamany and Philip Dubois, "The 'Forgetful' Voter and the Underreported Vote," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, (Summer 1975), pp. 227-231.

⁸ For a comprehensive discussion of the problem, including a comparison of the 1964 Bureau of the Census survey with that conducted by the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan, see Aage R. Clausen, "Response Validity: Vote Report," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, Vol. XXXII, No. 4, Winter 1968-69, pp. 588-606.

Table G. Comparisons of CPS Voting Estimates and Official Counts of Votes Cast: November 1964 to 1980

(Numbers in millions)

Year	CPS vote for President	Official vote for President ¹	Percent difference
1980.....	93.1	86.5	7.6
1976.....	85.9	81.7	5.1
1972.....	84.6	77.6	9.0
1968.....	78.5	73.0	7.5
1964.....	² 76.7	70.6	8.6

Year	CPS vote for U.S. Representative	Official vote for U.S. Representative or highest office ¹	Percent difference
1978.....	² 69.6	³ 59.4	17.0
1974.....	² 63.2	³ 56.0	12.9
1970.....	² 65.9	³ 58.0	13.6
1966.....	57.6	³ 52.9	8.9

¹U.S. Congress, Clerk of the House, Statistics of the Presidential and Congressional Election.

²CPS estimate of total votes cast.

³The "official vote" was obtained by summing the number of votes cast for U.S. Senator, U.S. Representative, or Governor in each State, depending on which office received the highest number of votes.

ember, 4.2 percent compared with 1.9 percent. However, when the comparison was restricted to those who reported on voting, the study indicated that reversing the question order does not reduce the proportion of persons who report that they had voted.

3. CPS estimating procedure. A part of the difference between the official count of votes for President and the CPS estimate could be due to the estimation procedures in the CPS which essentially attribute the characteristics of interviewed persons to persons in noninterviewed households of similar types—about 4 percent of the total. This procedure may have a substantial effect on the results of a survey of voting if the noninterviewed households have a higher proportion of nonvoting members than interviewed households.

4. CPS coverage. An additional factor that increases the estimate of voters derives from the coverage of the CPS sample. There is evidence that the sample is less successful in representing certain groups in the population in which nonvoting may be expected to be high, for example, Black-and-other-races males 21 to 24 years of age. In addition, the CPS results are adjusted to independent population estimates based on the decennial census. Insofar as the census was also subject to net undercounts in selected age groups, this source of error will be reflected in estimates from the CPS.

5. Household respondent. A portion of the difference between the official count and the survey results might be

attributable to the use of a household respondent to report on the registration and voting of all eligible household members. An experiment was conducted in conjunction with the November 1974 CPS to assess the effects of proxy respondents on the voting rate. In approximately one-eighth of the sample households, interviewers were instructed to obtain the voting supplement information from each individual directly. For the entire sample, 57 percent of all interviewed persons reported for themselves, as compared with about 76 percent for the test group. The differences between groups reporting for themselves or someone else were not significant. Thus, there is no evidence that obtaining voting and registration information for all household members from one respondent rather than from self-respondents only accounts for any part of the overestimates of voters obtained in household surveys.

6. Nonreports on voting. In 1966 a "do not know" category in each question of the voting survey was introduced (and retained in all subsequent surveys) on the theory that forcing people into a "yes-no" alternative might have been responsible for increasing the number of persons reported as voting. The introduction of the "do not know" category increased the overall proportion of those for whom a report on voting was not obtained from 1 percent in 1964 to 3 percent in 1966. Among Blacks the figure rose to almost 6 percent. The lower nonresponse figure from the 1964 report may have resulted in part from the fact that the "yes-no" alternative forced respondents to give answers which more properly should have been classified as "do not know."

Although there is no evidence that answers by proxy respondents account for the overreporting on voting, the value of asking people about their own behavior on such matters as voting and registering to vote can be shown by comparing the effect of self reports and reports by others on the "do not know" rate for whether voted in the election and whether registered to vote. For self-respondents, the "do not know" categories were almost nonexistent (0.1 percent of all reports). At the other extreme, 3 percent of respondents who reported on the voting behavior of other household members could not answer whether or not the other persons had voted (table 22).

Voting in previous elections. Failure to remember is not considered to be a problem in the voting survey for a current election, since the data in each survey are collected during the week containing the 19th day of November, which is generally about 2 weeks after the election. However, since 1968, questions have also been asked in each survey about whether respondents had voted in the previous Presidential election. Asking retrospective questions of this kind introduces possible memory biases into the data, and the net effect would be expected to be a further overstatement of voter participation.

This effect seems minimal in the data presented in this report for the 1976 retrospective question. Table 16 indi-

cates that 88.4 million people 22 years old and over in 1980 reported to have voted in the 1976 Presidential election. Data from the November 1976 CPS voting supplement indicated that 86.7 million persons 18 years old and over voted in the 1976 election. Some of the apparent differences result from the effect of sampling differences in the two surveys and changes in the respondent universe because of deaths, movement into and out of the Armed Forces or institutions, and international migration.

RELATED REPORTS

Current Population Reports. Advance data on reported voter participation and registration of the population of voting age, by race and sex, for the United States and regions in the November 1980 election are contained in the report Series P-20, No. 359.

Data on voter participation by social and economic characteristics of the population of voting age in the 1964, 1968, 1972, and 1976 Presidential elections and in the 1966, 1970,

1974, and 1978 Congressional elections were published in the reports Series P-20, Nos. 143, 192, 253, 322, 174, 228, 293, and 344, respectively.

Data on the social and economic characteristics of persons 18 to 24 years old who became eligible to vote on the basis of age in 1972 were published in Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 230.

Projections of the population of voting age for the United States, regions, divisions, and States for November 1, 1980 were published in Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 879.

Data on the social and economic characteristics by reported voter participation of the population of voting age in the 1966 and 1964 elections and estimates of the population of voting age for the United States, regions, divisions, and States, as of November 1, 1968, were published in a composite report Series P-20, No. 172.

The number of persons of voting age in 1960 and the votes cast for President in the elections of 1964 and 1960 for the United States, by States and counties, are contained in the report Series P-23, No. 14.

Table 1. Reported Voting and Registration, by Single Years of Age and Sex

(November 1980. Numbers in thousands. For meaning of symbols, see text)

Sex and age	All persons	Reported registered		Reported voted		Reported that they did not vote ¹				
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Total	Registered	Not registered		
								Total ²	Not a U.S. citizen	Do not know and not reported on registration
BOTH SEXES										
Total, 18 years and over.....	157,085	105,035	66.9	93,066	59.2	64,020	11,969	52,050	6,343	8,497
18 and 19 years.....	8,148	3,504	43.0	2,788	34.2	5,360	716	4,645	414	656
18 years.....	4,077	1,574	38.6	1,263	31.0	2,815	312	2,503	231	320
19 years.....	4,071	1,929	47.4	1,525	37.5	2,546	404	2,142	183	327
20 to 24 years.....	19,990	10,348	51.8	8,438	42.2	11,552	1,911	9,641	962	1,434
20 years.....	4,125	1,981	48.0	1,599	38.8	2,526	382	2,144	207	357
21 years.....	3,990	1,956	49.0	1,535	38.5	2,456	421	2,035	197	334
22 years.....	3,966	2,093	52.8	1,696	42.8	2,270	397	1,873	184	268
23 years.....	3,974	2,166	54.5	1,766	44.4	2,208	400	1,807	157	257
24 years.....	3,934	2,152	54.7	1,842	46.8	2,092	310	1,782	217	219
25 to 29 years.....	18,524	10,979	59.3	9,493	51.2	9,032	1,487	7,545	980	807
25 years.....	3,779	2,073	54.8	1,747	46.2	2,032	325	1,706	215	194
26 years.....	3,739	2,189	58.6	1,863	49.8	1,876	326	1,550	194	183
27 years.....	3,774	2,228	59.0	1,928	51.1	1,846	300	1,546	183	165
28 years.....	3,628	2,245	61.9	1,959	54.0	1,669	286	1,383	205	141
29 years.....	3,605	2,245	62.3	1,996	55.4	1,609	249	1,360	183	123
30 to 34 years.....	17,208	11,176	64.9	10,005	58.1	7,203	1,171	6,032	837	714
30 years.....	3,629	2,256	62.2	2,016	55.6	1,612	239	1,373	180	180
31 years.....	3,453	2,165	62.7	1,890	54.7	1,563	275	1,288	165	152
32 years.....	3,462	2,290	66.1	2,059	59.5	1,403	230	1,173	160	128
33 years.....	3,575	2,352	65.8	2,136	59.8	1,439	216	1,223	174	135
34 years.....	3,090	2,113	68.4	1,904	61.6	1,186	210	976	158	119
35 to 44 years.....	25,552	18,031	70.6	16,460	64.4	9,092	1,571	7,521	1,227	1,298
35 years.....	2,769	1,874	67.7	1,702	61.5	1,067	172	895	151	153
36 years.....	2,767	1,923	69.5	1,752	63.3	1,015	171	844	118	138
37 years.....	3,001	2,134	71.1	1,942	64.7	1,058	192	866	144	130
38 years.....	2,833	1,957	69.1	1,805	63.7	1,029	152	876	141	110
39 years.....	2,526	1,768	70.0	1,627	64.4	899	141	758	103	155
40 years.....	2,519	1,747	69.4	1,616	64.2	903	131	772	125	138
41 years.....	2,345	1,696	72.3	1,545	65.9	800	151	649	111	129
42 years.....	2,303	1,682	73.0	1,549	67.2	755	133	622	111	123
43 years.....	2,323	1,667	71.8	1,502	64.7	821	165	656	127	117
44 years.....	2,166	1,582	73.0	1,420	65.5	747	162	585	97	103
45 to 54 years.....	22,495	16,653	74.0	15,174	67.5	7,321	1,478	5,843	846	1,182
45 years.....	2,256	1,605	71.1	1,468	65.1	788	137	651	116	130
46 years.....	2,285	1,660	72.7	1,507	66.0	778	153	625	90	85
47 years.....	2,081	1,525	73.3	1,406	67.6	675	120	555	76	111
48 years.....	2,161	1,567	72.5	1,449	67.0	712	118	594	101	121
49 years.....	2,159	1,618	74.9	1,474	68.3	685	143	541	76	114
50 years.....	2,419	1,770	73.2	1,549	64.0	870	221	649	85	151
51 years.....	2,223	1,679	75.5	1,532	68.9	691	147	544	70	98
52 years.....	2,316	1,733	74.9	1,594	68.9	721	139	582	74	134
53 years.....	2,364	1,782	75.4	1,651	69.8	713	131	582	87	110
54 years.....	2,233	1,713	76.7	1,545	69.2	688	168	520	71	129
55 to 64 years.....	21,074	16,376	77.7	15,031	71.3	6,043	1,346	4,698	499	1,030
55 years.....	2,350	1,750	74.5	1,622	69.0	727	128	600	76	140
56 years.....	2,256	1,737	77.0	1,586	70.3	670	151	519	47	124
57 years.....	2,317	1,774	76.5	1,628	70.3	689	145	543	75	88
58 years.....	2,174	1,708	78.6	1,575	72.5	599	133	466	55	91
59 years.....	2,192	1,687	77.0	1,555	71.0	637	131	505	51	116
60 years.....	2,219	1,704	76.8	1,561	70.4	658	143	515	58	112
61 years.....	1,984	1,545	77.9	1,406	70.9	577	139	438	37	102
62 years.....	2,007	1,591	79.3	1,451	72.3	556	140	415	28	86
63 years.....	1,882	1,508	80.1	1,384	73.5	498	124	374	40	87
64 years.....	1,694	1,371	80.9	1,261	74.4	433	110	323	33	84
65 to 74 years.....	15,324	11,835	77.2	10,622	69.3	4,702	1,213	3,488	340	832
65 years.....	1,929	1,488	77.1	1,357	70.3	572	131	441	47	115
66 years.....	1,832	1,418	77.4	1,322	72.1	510	97	414	34	94
67 years.....	1,760	1,364	77.5	1,256	71.4	504	108	396	44	96
68 years.....	1,662	1,297	78.1	1,181	71.1	481	116	365	34	85
69 years.....	1,431	1,084	75.7	984	68.7	447	100	347	28	74
70 years.....	1,551	1,179	76.0	1,046	67.5	504	132	372	46	101
71 years.....	1,360	1,044	76.8	918	67.5	441	126	316	29	74
72 years.....	1,388	1,117	80.4	965	69.5	423	151	271	20	64
73 years.....	1,268	994	78.4	864	68.2	404	130	274	22	64
74 years.....	1,144	850	74.4	729	63.8	415	121	293	36	66
75 years and over.....	8,769	6,132	69.9	5,056	57.7	3,715	1,078	2,637	240	543

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 1. Reported Voting and Registration, by Single Years of Age and Sex—Continued

(November 1980. Numbers in thousands. For meaning of symbols, see text)

Sex and age	All persons	Reported registered		Reported voted		Reported that they did not vote ¹				
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Total	Registered	Not registered		
								Total ²	Not a U.S. citizen	Do not know and not reported on registration
MALE										
Total, 18 years and over.....	74,082	49,344	66.6	43,753	59.1	30,329	5,591	24,738	2,942	4,336
18 and 19 years.....	3,987	1,683	42.2	1,351	33.9	2,636	332	2,304	213	383
18 years.....	2,030	779	38.4	630	31.0	1,400	149	1,251	122	181
19 years.....	1,957	905	46.2	721	36.8	1,236	183	1,053	91	202
20 to 24 years.....	9,670	4,871	50.4	3,909	40.4	5,761	963	4,799	507	810
20 years.....	2,023	950	47.0	730	36.1	1,292	219	1,073	120	193
21 years.....	1,909	898	47.0	715	37.4	1,194	183	1,011	99	180
22 years.....	1,934	990	51.2	781	40.4	1,153	208	945	96	167
23 years.....	1,933	1,036	53.6	834	43.2	1,099	201	897	80	164
24 years.....	1,871	998	53.3	847	45.3	1,023	150	873	112	125
25 to 29 years.....	9,009	5,243	58.2	4,509	50.0	4,500	734	3,767	486	490
25 years.....	1,841	981	53.3	815	44.3	1,025	165	860	101	121
26 years.....	1,856	1,080	58.2	919	49.5	937	161	776	94	118
27 years.....	1,812	1,013	55.9	898	49.5	914	116	799	98	92
28 years.....	1,796	1,109	61.7	942	52.4	855	167	687	106	82
29 years.....	1,704	1,060	62.2	935	54.9	769	124	644	87	76
30 to 34 years.....	8,368	5,321	63.6	4,741	56.7	3,627	580	3,047	398	367
30 years.....	1,729	1,045	60.4	928	53.6	802	117	685	79	94
31 years.....	1,698	1,045	61.6	894	52.6	804	152	653	73	79
32 years.....	1,656	1,102	66.6	992	59.9	664	110	554	85	58
33 years.....	1,746	1,115	63.9	1,021	58.5	725	94	631	82	74
34 years.....	1,539	1,014	65.9	907	58.9	632	107	525	79	61
35 to 44 years.....	12,292	8,503	69.2	7,705	62.7	4,586	798	3,789	561	680
35 years.....	1,262	821	65.0	730	57.8	532	90	442	68	78
36 years.....	1,287	890	69.2	798	62.0	489	92	397	57	66
37 years.....	1,487	1,015	68.2	918	61.7	569	97	472	74	75
38 years.....	1,421	959	67.5	873	61.4	549	87	462	61	61
39 years.....	1,224	837	68.4	767	62.6	458	71	387	46	76
40 years.....	1,255	839	66.9	771	61.5	483	68	416	61	91
41 years.....	1,112	787	70.8	711	64.0	401	75	325	51	68
42 years.....	1,102	798	72.4	740	67.2	362	58	304	46	67
43 years.....	1,106	792	71.6	706	63.8	400	87	314	58	43
44 years.....	1,035	765	73.9	691	66.8	344	74	270	39	55
45 to 54 years.....	10,886	8,034	73.8	7,327	67.3	3,559	706	2,852	393	597
45 years.....	1,072	756	70.5	682	63.6	390	74	317	47	66
46 years.....	1,108	827	74.6	746	67.3	363	81	282	33	43
47 years.....	1,014	720	70.9	662	65.2	353	58	295	41	62
48 years.....	1,043	753	72.2	694	66.5	349	59	290	45	69
49 years.....	1,069	799	74.7	731	68.4	338	68	270	33	53
50 years.....	1,185	862	72.7	752	63.5	433	110	323	35	79
51 years.....	1,060	809	76.3	745	70.2	316	64	252	32	42
52 years.....	1,097	827	75.4	750	68.4	347	77	270	37	63
53 years.....	1,176	879	74.7	831	70.7	345	48	297	53	52
54 years.....	1,061	803	75.7	735	69.3	326	68	258	38	69
55 to 64 years.....	9,951	7,869	79.1	7,227	72.6	2,724	642	2,082	199	482
55 years.....	1,137	873	76.8	808	71.1	329	65	263	34	60
56 years.....	1,036	808	78.0	732	70.7	304	76	228	15	42
57 years.....	1,124	862	76.7	783	69.7	340	79	262	37	56
58 years.....	1,009	819	81.2	751	74.4	258	68	190	20	43
59 years.....	1,068	847	79.3	779	73.0	289	68	221	22	51
60 years.....	1,009	789	78.2	734	72.7	275	55	220	25	50
61 years.....	977	771	78.9	697	71.4	280	74	206	15	51
62 years.....	905	713	78.8	654	72.3	250	59	192	8	50
63 years.....	919	768	83.5	713	77.6	206	54	151	13	37
64 years.....	768	619	80.6	574	74.8	193	44	149	8	42
65 to 74 years.....	6,676	5,343	80.0	4,852	72.7	1,823	490	1,333	110	356
65 years.....	888	710	79.9	645	72.6	243	64	179	12	47
66 years.....	821	648	78.9	604	73.5	218	45	173	12	48
67 years.....	740	609	82.3	576	77.9	164	33	131	8	42
68 years.....	735	593	80.7	550	74.8	185	43	142	13	32
69 years.....	651	506	77.8	470	72.2	181	37	145	13	25
70 years.....	677	541	79.9	486	71.8	191	55	136	18	43
71 years.....	555	427	76.9	384	69.1	171	43	128	4	37
72 years.....	593	497	83.9	436	73.5	157	62	96	12	25
73 years.....	559	437	78.2	370	66.3	189	67	122	13	35
74 years.....	457	375	82.2	332	72.8	124	43	81	5	22
75 years and over.....	3,243	2,478	76.4	2,132	65.7	1,112	346	766	75	170

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 1. Reported Voting and Registration, by Single Years of Age and Sex—Continued

(November 1980. Numbers in thousands. For meaning of symbols, see text)

Sex and age	All persons	Reported registered		Reported voted		Reported that they did not vote ¹				
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Total	Registered	Not registered		
								Total ²	Not a U.S. citizen	Do not know and not reported on registration
FEMALE										
Total, 18 years and over.....	83,003	55,691	67.1	49,312	59.4	33,691	6,378	27,312	3,402	4,162
18 and 19 years.....	4,161	1,820	43.7	1,437	34.5	2,725	384	2,341	201	273
18 years.....	2,048	796	38.9	633	30.9	1,415	163	1,252	109	148
19 years.....	2,114	1,024	48.5	804	38.0	1,310	221	1,089	93	125
20 to 24 years.....	10,320	5,477	53.1	4,529	43.9	5,791	948	4,842	456	625
20 years.....	2,103	1,032	49.1	869	41.3	1,234	163	1,071	88	164
21 years.....	2,081	1,058	50.8	820	39.4	1,262	238	1,024	99	154
22 years.....	2,032	1,103	54.3	914	45.0	1,117	189	928	88	120
23 years.....	2,040	1,130	55.4	932	45.7	1,109	199	910	77	93
24 years.....	2,063	1,155	56.0	994	48.2	1,069	160	909	104	94
25 to 29 years.....	9,515	5,737	60.3	4,984	52.4	4,531	753	3,778	494	317
25 years.....	1,938	1,092	56.3	932	48.1	1,006	160	846	114	74
26 years.....	1,883	1,109	58.9	944	50.1	939	165	774	100	65
27 years.....	1,962	1,215	61.9	1,030	52.5	932	184	747	85	73
28 years.....	1,832	1,136	62.0	1,018	55.6	814	119	696	99	59
29 years.....	1,901	1,185	62.3	1,060	55.8	840	124	716	97	47
30 to 34 years.....	8,840	5,855	66.2	5,264	59.6	3,576	591	2,985	439	348
30 years.....	1,899	1,211	63.7	1,088	57.3	811	122	688	101	86
31 years.....	1,755	1,120	63.8	996	56.8	759	124	635	93	72
32 years.....	1,807	1,188	65.7	1,067	59.1	739	120	619	75	70
33 years.....	1,829	1,237	67.6	1,115	61.0	713	122	592	92	61
34 years.....	1,551	1,100	70.9	997	64.3	554	103	451	78	57
35 to 44 years.....	13,260	9,528	71.9	8,754	66.0	4,506	773	3,732	665	618
35 years.....	1,506	1,053	69.9	972	64.5	535	81	453	82	75
36 years.....	1,480	1,033	69.8	954	64.5	526	79	447	61	72
37 years.....	1,514	1,120	74.0	1,024	67.7	489	95	394	70	55
38 years.....	1,412	998	70.7	932	66.0	480	66	414	80	50
39 years.....	1,301	930	71.5	860	66.1	441	70	371	57	79
40 years.....	1,264	908	71.8	845	66.8	419	63	356	64	47
41 years.....	1,233	910	73.8	834	67.6	400	76	324	60	61
42 years.....	1,201	883	73.5	808	67.3	393	75	318	64	56
43 years.....	1,217	875	71.9	797	65.5	420	79	342	69	74
44 years.....	1,131	817	72.2	728	64.4	403	88	314	58	48
45 to 54 years.....	11,609	8,619	74.2	7,847	67.6	3,762	772	2,990	452	585
45 years.....	1,184	849	71.7	786	66.4	398	64	334	69	64
46 years.....	1,176	833	70.8	761	64.7	415	72	343	58	43
47 years.....	1,066	806	75.6	744	69.8	322	62	260	36	49
48 years.....	1,117	814	72.8	755	67.5	363	59	304	56	52
49 years.....	1,090	818	75.1	743	68.2	346	75	271	43	61
50 years.....	1,235	908	73.6	797	64.6	438	111	326	50	72
51 years.....	1,163	870	74.8	787	67.7	376	83	292	37	56
52 years.....	1,219	907	74.4	845	69.3	375	62	312	37	71
53 years.....	1,188	903	76.0	819	69.0	368	84	285	34	58
54 years.....	1,172	910	77.7	810	69.1	362	100	262	34	59
55 to 64 years.....	11,123	8,507	76.5	7,804	70.2	3,319	703	2,616	300	548
55 years.....	1,213	876	72.3	814	67.1	399	62	336	42	80
56 years.....	1,220	929	76.2	854	70.0	366	75	291	31	82
57 years.....	1,193	912	76.4	845	70.8	348	67	282	38	32
58 years.....	1,165	889	76.3	825	70.8	341	65	276	35	48
59 years.....	1,124	840	74.7	776	69.1	348	64	284	29	65
60 years.....	1,210	915	75.6	827	68.4	383	88	295	32	62
61 years.....	1,007	774	76.9	709	70.4	297	65	232	22	51
62 years.....	1,102	878	79.7	797	72.3	305	82	224	20	36
63 years.....	963	741	76.9	671	69.7	292	70	222	26	51
64 years.....	927	752	81.2	687	74.1	240	66	174	24	42
65 to 74 years.....	8,648	6,493	75.1	5,770	66.7	2,878	723	2,155	230	476
65 years.....	1,041	779	74.8	712	68.4	329	67	262	36	68
66 years.....	1,011	770	76.2	718	71.0	293	52	241	21	46
67 years.....	1,020	755	74.0	680	66.7	340	75	265	36	53
68 years.....	927	705	76.0	631	68.1	296	73	223	21	52
69 years.....	780	578	74.0	514	65.9	266	63	203	15	49
70 years.....	874	638	73.0	560	64.2	313	78	236	28	59
71 years.....	805	617	76.7	535	66.4	270	83	187	26	37
72 years.....	796	619	77.9	529	66.6	266	90	176	8	39
73 years.....	709	557	78.6	494	69.7	215	63	152	8	29
74 years.....	687	475	69.2	397	57.7	290	78	212	31	44
75 years and over.....	5,526	3,655	66.1	2,923	52.9	2,603	731	1,872	164	372

¹Includes persons recorded as "did not vote," "do not know," and "not reported" on voting.²In addition to those reported as "not registered," total includes those "not a U.S. citizen," and "do not know" and "not reported" on registration.

Equal Employment Opportunity for Women: U.S. Policies



United States Report for the
Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)
Working Party Number 6 on the Role of Women in the Economy
Paris, France

U.S. Department of Labor
Raymond J. Donovan, Secretary

Women's Bureau
Lenora Cole-Alexander, Director

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FOREWORD

The Women's Bureau is pleased to share the information in this report which describes U.S. policies to promote equality of employment opportunity for women. The report was presented at the meeting of the Manpower and Social Affairs Committee's Working Party Number 6 on the Role of Women in the Economy, sponsored by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), June 1982 in Paris, France.

The Bureau had a significant role in that meeting, which was part of a continuing series focusing on women's employment in the 24 OECD-member countries. These international meetings provide an opportunity to discuss issues and exchange information about developments taking place to promote the status of women in our respective countries. They also stimulate further action and contribute toward mutual understanding of the concerns we share.

This report describes the U.S. legal machinery that promotes women's equality in employment, and points to issues still affecting the full utilization of women in the work force. It also summarizes outreach efforts to population groups with special needs. An appendix contains a number of tables providing statistical data on the labor force activity of women, as well as on the occupations, earnings, and educational attainment of women workers.

We want to emphasize that this report does not intend to cover all of the wide-ranging developments and actions occurring as a result of the efforts of government and nongovernmental groups. We hope, however, that the information presented here leads to a better understanding of the policies impacting on women's employment and the current status of U.S. women workers.



Lenora Cole-Alexander
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INTRODUCTION

The equality of individual rights and opportunity has long been a national commitment of the United States and continues to have the firm support of the President. In addition to the basic guarantees and protection embodied in the Constitution, the commitment is expressed in more than 100 Federal statutes which address such areas as employment, housing, voting, education, public accommodations, access to credit, and jury service. Those laws affecting the employment opportunities and economic interest of women remain basically as they were described in the United States report for the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) High Level Conference on the Employment of Women, April 1980, Paris, France. They set the standard for equal opportunity in public and private employment, training programs, and federally assisted education programs. They also prohibit discrimination based on race, color, religion, national origin, age, or sex in pay, opportunities for promotion, and all terms, conditions, and privileges of employment.

Much of the progress made in realizing the national commitment has been the result of both Government enforcement and the voluntary efforts of individuals, private businesses, and institutions. At present more emphasis is being placed on voluntary compliance, a reduction in regulatory requirements and paperwork, and technical assistance. Business leaders are becoming more involved in identifying skill shortages in the labor market and in planning training programs geared to jobs in the private sector. The private sector initiatives are encouraged with a view toward strengthening the economy and providing employment and training opportunities to all segments of the population.

Specific initiatives which the U.S. Government is undertaking to improve equal opportunity programs include:

- greater involvement of State and local governments in assuring equality of opportunity, 1/
- incentives for voluntary compliance,
- increased technical assistance,
- new leadership and improved management.

1/ Special Analysis J, "Civil Rights Activities," The Budget of the United States Government, 1983, Office of Management and Budget, Executive Office of the President, February 1982.

The objective of this report to the OECD is to discuss past and present U.S. initiatives for promoting equal employment opportunity and wage equality for women, and to examine methods of measuring their effectiveness, such as monitoring changes in the employment situation of working women.

I. THE LEGAL MACHINERY TO PROMOTE EQUALITY OF EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY

The system used to achieve growth in equal employment opportunities for minorities and women covers many issues which affect these groups when they are seeking employment, while they are employed, and when they retire. From the U.S. Employment Service, which assists people looking for jobs, to the Social Security Administration, which administers retirement funds, the United States Government forbids discrimination in hiring and requires equal employment opportunities to ensure the full participation of women and minorities in the nation's economic life.

The U.S. Government is examining all Federal programs designed to provide equality of opportunity, and, as a result, there has been renewed emphasis on protecting rights guaranteed individuals by the Constitution, and on avoiding discrimination by the Government itself. This reexamination and renewal of Federal equality of opportunity has not been without controversy, since not every program or regulation has been found to justify its cost or the burdens it imposes. Not every policy has been found to promote the broader equities it seeks or the consensus it requires for success. But this ongoing review has not strayed from its intent to pursue and strengthen the national commitment to overcome discrimination. 2/

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) is the Federal agency created in 1965 to administer and enforce Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act. EEOC has rendered most employment discrimination illegal on a nationwide basis. It receives and investigates job discrimination complaints which may be filed by an employee, a group of employees, job applicants, or organizations on behalf of aggrieved individuals. In addition, the 5 commissioners, who are appointed by the President, may, and do, initiate charges. A part of the EEOC complaint resolution process includes deferral to States which have equal opportunity laws comparable to Title VII. As of 1975, 36 States, including the District of Columbia, and 14 local fair employment practice agencies had the authority to grant or seek relief from discrimination prohibited by the Civil Rights Act, as amended; by 1981 the number had risen to 69. The complaints filed with these agencies provide information to the EEOC on the types of discrimination experienced by women and minorities and the remedies needed to ensure equal opportunity. The deferral of authority to State and local agencies has also provided for greater coverage for the affected classes, defined under Title VII as sex, race, color, religion, or national origin.

2/ Ibid.

EEOC monitors employer activities in the area of equal opportunity through the annual reports required of the larger private employers (100 or more employees). These reports set forth the makeup of the work force under 9 major occupational categories for each of 4 minority groups--Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaskan Native. Data in the reports are the only source of comprehensive (annual) employment statistics by occupational categories for minorities and women in private industry, and are presented for the nation as a whole, each State, Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas, and smaller geographic areas, such as counties. These data have been used by EEOC to target employers for investigation of systemic discrimination; decisions to investigate systemic issues are made by EEOC commissioners.

The EEOC also enforces the Equal Pay Act of 1963 and the Age Discrimination in Employment Act. The Equal Pay Act prohibits employers from paying different wages, because of sex, to women and men doing substantially equal (not necessarily identical) work in the same establishment. Employers also are prohibited by the Equal Pay Act from reducing wages of either sex to comply with the law, and labor organizations are forbidden to cause employers to violate the act. The Age Discrimination in Employment Act prohibits employers, employment agencies, and unions from employment practices discriminating against persons 40-70 years of age. (There is no upper age limit with respect to employment by the Federal Government.) This protection under the law can be particularly important to women reentering the work force after an extended period of full-time family responsibility.

The Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs (OFCCP) in the Department of Labor monitors and enforces the compliance of Federal contractors under Executive Order (E.O.) 11246, as amended. The order, issued by the President in 1965, prohibits discrimination in employment and requires most Federal contractors to take affirmative action to overcome special barriers to employment for minorities and women. Separate laws administered by OFCCP require affirmative action by Federal contractors to employ handicapped workers and veterans. Affirmative action usually involves self-evaluation and steps to correct past practices having a discriminatory effect. Through its 10 regional and 59 area offices, OFCCP reviews Federal contractors' employment policies in an effort to assure that firms profiting from Government business do, in fact, provide equal access to employment opportunities for women and minorities. The Federal Government uses its procurement power to further equal employment opportunity. Failure to carry out the mandate of E.O. 11246 can result in contract cancellation and debarment from consideration for future Federal contracts. Since a significantly large proportion of U.S. industrial employers are Government contractors, the Executive order is viewed as a powerful instrument for change.

Equal opportunity in education. Three legislative initiatives that seek to promote equality of opportunity for women are administered by the Department of Education: Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, the Women's Educational Equity Act of the Education Amendments of 1974 (reauthorized in 1978), and the Vocational Education Act as amended by the Education Amendments of 1976. The passage of these acts was the result of effective programs developed and carried out by women's groups during the 1970's. Highlights follow.

- Title IX prohibits sex discrimination in all federally assisted education programs, including elementary and secondary school, college and university, and vocational education programs. The law is far-reaching in its application and covers employment and all types of education, counseling, facilities, and extracurricular activities, including athletic programs.
- The Women's Educational Equity Act provides grants, contracts, and technical assistance for the development of materials and model programs that are designed to achieve educational equity for girls and women of various racial, ethnic, age, regional, and socioeconomic groups. Under the reauthorized Act, the program also provides grants for projects of local significance to help school districts and other institutions meet the requirements of Title IX. In addition, the Act established a National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs, which makes policy recommendations to the Federal Government on educational equity for women and girls. Its mandate addresses all Federal policies and programs affecting women's education.
- The Vocational Education Act mandates activities to eliminate sex bias, stereotyping and discrimination in federally funded vocational education programs and requires each State to employ a full-time sex equity coordinator to ensure the elimination of bias and occupational segregation in vocational programs.

The Department of Education and those Federal agencies that disburse funds for education and training programs are responsible for issuing regulations governing their grants. Overall, the Department of Justice is responsible for coordinating the implementation of Title IX.

Equal opportunity in the Federal service. In March 1972, Public Law 92-261, the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, brought Federal employees and agencies under the equal employment opportunity provision of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and gave the Civil Service Commission (now the Office of Personnel Management) additional enforcement powers to insure that all personnel actions in Government are free from discrimination. The Office of Personnel Management regulations implementing the law require that Federal agencies designate a Federal Women's Program Manager to advise the Director of Equal Employment Opportunity on matters affecting the advancement of women employed by the U.S. Government. This law, along with a series of Executive orders and the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978, requires each Federal agency to take affirmative action in recruiting, hiring, and promoting women and minorities, as well as to provide training and educational opportunities to its employees through "in-house training," local schools, and universities. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission is responsible for overseeing Federal affirmative action efforts and for resolving discrimination complaints in the Federal Government.

The White House Office of Intergovernmental Affairs has undertaken a new initiative to encourage State Governors to review the language of all State laws and have any aspects of discrimination removed. A mechanism has been established, coordinated by White House staff, to work with Governors of each of the States and their designated staff toward this end. In 1981 representatives from the States met with the President to discuss the process and returned

to their States with plans to participate. The Women's Bureau has provided staff assistance to this effort by producing a Working Paper on Studies on Sex Discrimination in State Codes.

The Women's Bureau in the Department of Labor advances the economic and legal status of women. The Bureau's Congressional mandate, set out in the Act establishing the Bureau in 1920, is "to formulate standards and policies which shall promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment." Through its 10 regional offices, the Bureau provides a communication exchange for self-help efforts devised by women with employment-related problems, voluntary solutions by employers, and policy advice to State and local officials. The Bureau fosters a dialogue between women in the local communities and policy-making officials through conferences and meetings sponsored by regional and national offices of the Bureau. Since 1978, the Bureau has contracted with community-based organizations to carry out model demonstration projects on effective techniques for recruiting and placing women in higher paying jobs. Through technical assistance provided by the Bureau, successful models are being utilized by employers and State and local officials to enhance opportunities for women workers.

Evaluation and coordination of Federal agency programs. Statutory and regulatory provisions, and the policies and programs for implementing them, are regularly reviewed and assessed by the President and Cabinet officers, Congress, and members of the public. Additional steps are being instituted to reduce the burden on employers.

In a major initiative to minimize regulatory duplication and conflict, and to insure well-reasoned Government regulations, the Reagan Administration established a Presidential Task Force on Regulatory Relief. This initiative gave the Office of Management and Budget (OMB), in the Executive Office of the President, broad regulatory review authority, including the authority to identify duplicative, overlapping, and conflicting rules and to require inter-agency consultation to minimize overlap and conflict. In addition, procedures were established to assess the need for, and consequences of, proposed Government action and to estimate the benefits and costs of agency regulations. As a regular part of its mission, OMB during the budget planning cycle reviews the work of the agencies involved in equal opportunity.

In the past, policies that evolved out of separate contexts sometimes resulted in inconsistencies in enforcement practices among the various Federal agencies. Consequently, lead agencies were identified and given the authority to coordinate activities. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission was given responsibility in the area of equal employment, while the Department of Justice (Attorney General) was given responsibility for laws prohibiting discrimination in Federal programs and programs receiving Federal financial assistance.

The General Accounting Office, as an independent agency in the Executive Branch, assists Congress in its oversight functions by providing legal and auditing services and by recommending more effective administration and

coordination of the laws. The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, an independent, bipartisan agency established in 1957, regularly studies developments related to equal protection under the Constitution and appraises Federal laws and policies with respect to discrimination because of race, color, religion, sex, age, handicap, or national origin. It submits findings of hearings or special studies to the President, Congress, and the public. Specialized bodies such as the National Commission for Employment Policy and the Federal Unemployment Insurance Advisory Council evaluate the effectiveness of Federal programs in their areas of responsibility and make recommendations to the Secretary of Labor. Frequently representatives of Federal agencies and of private sector groups, such as trade unions, business associations, and nonprofit voluntary organizations, are appointed to such bodies; the private sector groups often issue their own evaluative reports as well. ^{3/}

II. ISSUES AFFECTING THE FULL UTILIZATION OF WOMEN IN THE WORK FORCE

Protective labor legislation for women was enacted by the individual States in the early part of this century to protect women from severe hardship at a time when strong labor standards for men and women had not gained support in either Congress or the courts. As Federal labor laws for men and women evolved, such as rights related to wages, unions, and safety and health, the view changed toward sex-specific labor protections. Hour limitations posed problems for women who did not want restrictions to exclude them from overtime work, night work, and certain higher paying occupations, including supervisory positions. In the years following enactment of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, State protective laws for women were generally superseded by the equal opportunity requirements of the Federal law. States generally repealed limitations on weight lifting and prohibitions against working in mines or other occupations once thought inappropriate for women. In other instances, court decisions or administrative practice made such laws inoperable. To the extent that some employers still believe that such laws are in effect, the former laws and the practices they engendered may limit employment opportunities for some women.

Inequities in education. Although public schools in the United States have been coeducational for more than a century, the structures, behaviors, and policies that reinforce traditional sex roles and limit the opportunities and aspirations of girls and women still prevail throughout the educational system--from preschool to graduate school, in vocational education, and in adult education programs. Schools frequently have discouraged girls and women from considering courses and careers in nontraditional fields, particularly in mathematics, science, and vocational education. Curriculums and textbooks also have perpetuated sex biases. Progress has been made toward the goal of Title IX which prohibits sex discrimination in all federally assisted education programs, but problems still remain.

^{3/} Ibid. The Special Analysis J, "Civil Rights Activities," presents a review of the enforcement of equal employment opportunity laws for 1980-1981.

Women continue to have limited access to higher education at the graduate and professional school level and in vocational education. And when access is granted, women are still concentrated in traditional fields of study. Few schools encourage or provide funds for women in athletics (interscholastic sports) including sports scholarships. While women dominate the field of education, they account for only a small proportion of the employees in policy-making and management positions--school principals, chairpersons of academic departments, presidents of colleges and universities, and district superintendents. Moreover, women's tenure, promotions, and salary increases lag behind men, and their relative earnings have been declining in recent years, according to a report of the National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs: Title IX: The Half Full, Half Empty Glass, a 1981 publication.

Lack of adequate child care remains a significant problem for working women even though the need for such support services is steadily increasing. In 1978, the Women's Bureau cosponsored a conference on Community Solutions for Child Care with the National Manpower Institute which led to a renewed nationwide awareness of the need for and the economic viability of affordable child care. Business and industry are being encouraged to support and become involved in issues relating to the dual responsibility of work and families, particularly the need for child care. The White House Conference on Families in 1980 highlighted the concern for child care. A number of community-sponsored conferences have been held on employers' options in providing child care services and the exploration of child care as an employment-related benefit program.

The Economic Recovery Tax Act of 1981 provides an increase in the tax credit allowed for child and dependent care expenses related to the earnings of taxpayers after December 31, 1981. The new law provides a sliding scale allowing low-income taxpayers to take a tax credit for a higher percentage of their child and dependent care expenses than high-income taxpayers. In addition, when the employer provides child care, the cost will not be included in the employee's gross income.

Lack of adequate alternative work patterns. Part-time work, flexible work schedules, and shared jobs are important to many women who have both work and home responsibilities such as child care. As yet the use of alternative work schedules is not widespread, although a number of major U.S. firms have adopted or are experimenting with some aspect of these different approaches. A 1979 survey for the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (since then renamed the Department of Health and Human Services) showed that 17 percent of the responding firms, which employed 212,256 workers, had adopted part-time options policies. A study, New Work Schedules for a Changing Society, published in 1981 by the Work in America Institute, Inc., found 9.5 million full-time workers on flexible work schedules and compressed work weeks. An additional 11.8 million workers hold voluntary, permanent part-time jobs. Thus, nearly one-fifth of the labor force now functions under some alternative work pattern.

Data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicate that, for the nation as a whole, flexitime was somewhat less prevalent among female than male workers in May 1980. Among full-time, nonfarm wage and salary workers, 10 percent of the women (compared with 13 percent of the men) had this alternative available

to them. Women continue to account for about 70 percent of all workers on voluntary part-time work schedules.

Scope of unemployment. The 1981 annual average unemployment rate was 7.9 percent among women compared with 7.4 percent among men. Men have accounted for most (nearly 70 percent) of the rise in unemployment since 1979, when unemployment was at its most recent low. The unemployment rate for women has historically been higher than that of men. However, during periods of economic downturn the gap narrows, reflecting employment cutbacks in the more cyclically sensitive goods-producing industries in which men are more likely to work than women. The number of unemployed women reached 3.7 million in 1981 compared with 4.6 million men, up from the prerecession low of about 3 million for each group.

Involuntary part-time employment. Although there is no official measure of underemployment, involuntary part-time work serves as an indication of some of the workers in such a group. Persons working part-time for economic reasons include those working less than full-time because of slack work, material shortages, repairs to plant or equipment, start or termination of a job during the survey week, and inability to find full-time work. In 1981, about 6 percent of all employed women were working part-time for economic reasons compared with 4 percent of all working men. By the first quarter of 1982, the number of workers on part-time for economic reasons stood at 5.4 million (not seasonally adjusted)--2.9 million women and 2.6 million men--a record since the statistical series began in 1970.

Nonparticipants in the labor force. Statistics are collected, analyzed, and published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics on persons not in the labor force, nonparticipants. Among the 61.5 million nonparticipants in 1981, about 5.8 million--3.9 million women and 1.9 million men--reported that they would like a job "now." Most cited school attendance, ill health, or home responsibilities as the reason which prevented them from looking for work.

"Discouraged" workers make up an even smaller, but significant, proportion of nonparticipants in general, and of those who want a job "now" in particular. Over 1 million nonparticipants--700,000 women and 400,000 men--wanted a job now but were not looking for work because they felt they would be unable to find a job. These discouraged workers are not classified as unemployed because they do not meet the labor market test of having searched for work during the month prior to the survey interview. Typically, about a third of all "discouraged" workers cite personal problems--factors such as age or lack of education--as the reason they feel they would not be able to find a job; the remainder cite job market factors. The size of the latter group tends to respond to cyclical pressures, while the former usually shows little cyclical movement.

Limited unemployment assistance. In the United States, many employers rely on the seniority system advocated by unions and workers as a fair system for deciding who is to be on layoff in periods of economic downturn. At the same time, the United States has a Federal-State cooperative system of unemployment compensation for covered workers who are laid off. Nevertheless, seniority systems are viewed as having a greater adverse impact on women who are more likely to have fewer years of uninterrupted employment than men.