

**WOMEN'S WORK, ECONOMIC TRENDS,
AND POLICY ISSUES**

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Technical and Salaried Women**

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I. ECONOMIC AUTONOMY FOR WOMEN

To better analyze the issues likely to confront professional, technical, and salaried women workers in the coming years, it is useful to form an understanding of the experience of women workers in the past several decades.

The most important aspect of women's labor market experience over the past several decades has been their tremendous increase in numbers. Women's labor force participation rose from less than 35 percent in 1950 to more than 55 percent in 1985. In recent years mothers of young children have entered and remained in the labor market in record numbers, so that during the peak childbearing years for women--in their 20's--no dip in labor force participation is observable. Women no longer drop out of the labor force to have children. Working for wages is now the majority of experience for mothers and wives. (Of all married couples in 1986, 55.3 percent of the wives worked in the labor market, while 44.7 percent did not.)

The average woman is more likely to work as she ages, and each new cohort of women is more likely to work than the one before. Better educated women and professional women have always been more likely to work in paid employment than other women (although it is also true that women with high earning husbands are less likely to work in the labor market).

Why has this dramatic change occurred? The reasons are several, including perhaps most importantly, in the post World-War-II-period, a tremendous increase in demand for workers in sectors that women were already identified with: education, health care, and office work. The shift to a service economy has created opportunities for women. Other important factors include the availability of women with the required education and skills, and in the past 15-20 years, stagnation in family incomes and declining real wages for men, the increase in divorce and single parenthood for women, and the spread of the women's movement into cultural, political, and social aspects of U.S. life. These factors are of course all interrelated and it's difficult to say which caused which.

But, together, they add up, I believe to a central trend, increased economic autonomy for women. Women have wanted more economic control of their lives and they have gone out and gotten it, by getting jobs in a wage economy. Women are today probably more able to support themselves financially, with or without men, than at any other point in human history. Whether women have willingly sought status as "breadwinners" or whether they feel forced to work against their desires, most women today do work out of economic necessity.

Of all the women in the labor force in 1986, nearly half were not living with men. Of married women, more than 1/3 have husbands who earn less than \$15,000 per year; nearly 1/2 have husbands who earn less than \$20,000 per year. The lower the husband's income, the higher the proportion of family income that is provided by the wife. Therefore about 2/3 of women can be regarded as primary or equal family wage earners.

Women now expect to work most of their adult lifetimes. A female born in 1980 is likely to spend 29.4 years in the labor force (compared to 39.4 years for a male). Women's worklife expectancy as a percent of men's is now at 76 percent, up from 32 percent in 1940. Women are also more likely to live without men for substantial parts of their adulthood, because of later marriage and increased divorce (as well as because of women's longer life expectancy).

What this means is that women want--and need--the same economic rights as men--they want access to the better paying jobs, they want better pay in the jobs they're in, they want a family wage, a wage on which they can support themselves and their dependents. Women workers must be thought of as breadwinners. They worry equally about paying the rent or mortgage, the car payments, health insurance and life insurance, and childcare and education for their children. They worry equally about helping their parents out financially and personally if it should become necessary. The economic responsibilities of women today cannot be overemphasized. Public policy, and labor union strategy, must be changed to accommodate this reality.

II. THE ECONOMY HAS BEEN RELATIVELY GOOD TO WOMEN

The shift of the economy to services has been relatively good for women workers. Even in the past decade or so of generally sluggish growth, marred in the early 80's by the worst recession since the 1930's, women have fared well compared to men.

Bennett Harrison and Barry Bluestone have popularized the concepts of the declining middle, the growth of low wage jobs and the disappearance of many of the high wage jobs that formed the solid income base for the middle class. But even their data show that women fared well relative to men. Since 1973, when their analysis begins, women--both white and nonwhite women--have decreased their share of low wage jobs and increased their share of middle and high wage jobs. Men, in contrast, increased their share of the low wage jobs and lost high wage jobs. (Of course men still held many fewer low wage jobs and more high wage jobs than women at the end of this period, because they started out this sluggish growth period from a vastly superior position.)

During this period, women's wages relative to men rose and sex segregation in the labor market fell. In particular women increased their share of professional and management jobs. Women increased their representation in professional occupations by 16 percentage points and in management jobs by 12 percentage points between 1970-71 and 1980-81. Overall the index of sex segregation fell by nearly 10 percent in the decade of the 70's. Young women, especially, are increasing their participation in male dominated occupations, but the biggest job growth for women--in terms of numbers of jobs--in the 70's was in such traditionally female occupations as nursing, teaching, secretarial work, childcare, and certain factory jobs. Of nontraditional jobs for women, only management provided sizeable numbers of jobs.

Women's wages improved relative to men's somewhat during the late 70's and 80's, but the gains have been small. For year round full-time workers, annual earnings for women increased from 59 percent to 64 percent of men's between 1970 and 1986. Weekly earnings for full-time workers increased from 62 percent (in 1978) to 70 percent in 1987. (Approximately 1/4 of the reduction in the wage gap between women and men during this period was due to a decline in men's real wages; the rest was due to an increase in women's real wages.) Although the wage gap does not decrease much as women's education increases--that is the wage gap is large even among the better educated and within the professions and management--the decreases in the gap that occurred occurred at virtually all educational levels.

What is truly remarkable about this period, is that women made these gains--some quite large, some more modest--despite a negative public policy climate. During the decades of women's rapid labor force entry, and still today, major aspects of public policy actually discourage women's paid work. The income tax system and the social security insurance system treat wage working wives unfavorably, for example. And in the Reagan years, equal employment opportunity enforcement lagged and social welfare expenditures fell. This phenomenon--progress for women despite public policy--points to the strong economic, social and cultural factors at play. These factors are likely to continue to be influential.

III. WE FACE CONTINUED SLUGGISH GROWTH, CONSIDERABLE ECONOMIC UNCERTAINTY, AND A CHANGING LABOR FORCE--BUT OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROFESSIONALS AND FOR WOMEN SHOULD BE FAVORABLE

What we are likely to experience in the near future--to the year 2000--is similar to what we have been experiencing, but with one major set of differences. The demographics of the labor force are changing:

Labor force growth is slowing. The baby boom has already entered the labor force. As they age the labor force will age. Although there is a small baby boom echo (as the baby boom has children themselves)--a boomlet--these workers will not enter the labor force for sometime. There will be a dearth of new, young labor market entrants. Women's rate of labor force entry is also likely to slow down.

More of the labor force will be people of color and immigrants. Fully 40 percent of the labor force will be people of color or immigrants by the year 2000.

More of the workforce will be female by the year 2000, approaching 50 percent.

Of all new entrants between now and the year 2000, 85 percent will be women, people of color, and/or immigrants.

In terms of economic change, we can expect continued or increasing international economic competition and a continuing shift to services. International economic competition will be critical for the overall health of the U.S. economy and our ability to maintain and improve our standard of living. Thus increasing US competitiveness is crucial. For this long term investment strategies in productivity-enhancing endeavors are important--public investment banks for capital investment and education and training for human capital investment are important. Perhaps most important of all is reducing US military expenditures, which are relatively unproductive investments themselves and stand in the way of more productive investments.

Provided growth continues at a modest level, labor shortages are expected by the year 2000. Demand for women workers is likely to be particularly strong.

The continuing shift to services is likely to continue to increase opportunities for women workers. Most of the industries and occupations that will provide the largest numbers of jobs between now and the year 2000 are not high tech or high-skilled, but higher level jobs will have faster growth rates than others. Women are already slightly overrepresented in the occupations that are faster growing, but minorities are overrepresented in those that are slower growing.

The growth of low-tech, low wage jobs raises concerns about whether there will be enough good quality jobs, with decent wages and fringe benefits, job security, and upward mobility.

IV. PEOPLE ARE WORKING HARDER AND FEELING MORE ECONOMICALLY VULNERABLE

In the face of an uncertain economic future, businesses appear to be adopting a labor strategy of minimizing costs and maximizing flexibility, at least in the short run. Part-time and temporary jobs are proliferating, the "contingent" workforce--one without firm attachment to particular employers--is growing.

These private business policies may not maximize flexibility (or reduce costs) in the long run, but they may do so in the short run. In the long run, a better trained, more secure workforce is likely to be better able to adapt to change.

What may be happening currently is that employers may be over working their existing, permanent staff, while resisting higher new staff (except for part-timers and temporaries), so that the labor force is bifurcating. This means everyone has to work harder. Those in the permanent labor force are working harder (absences are down, hours are up slightly). Those in the contingent jobs often work 2 jobs to make ends meet. About 6 million people are now moonlighting; they work an average of 51 hours per week.

The expansion of contingent work could undercut the working conditions of permanent workers further. Both for this reason, and for the reason that contingent workers need more job rights and benefits, improving the conditions of contingent work is essential.

Despite a very long (by historical standards) period of continuous economic growth, Americans seem to be feeling increasingly economically vulnerable. Family incomes have failed to rise in real terms, despite the fact that families are working harder (more family members are working, including women and teenagers). People are truly worried about their economic future.

V. WOMEN'S SHARE OF THE UNIONIZED WORKFORCE HAS GROWN. WOMEN'S ATTITUDES TOWARDS UNIONS ARE FAVORABLE. WOMEN FAVOR A MORE ACTIVE GOVERNMENT. WOMEN ARE MORE PROGRESSIVE THAN MEN.

The proportion of the workforce that is unionized has fallen in the post World-War II period, but women's share of union membership has increased. Women have increased their share of union membership from 18.5 percent in 1956 to 35.7 percent in 1984. The proportion of all women workers who are unionized appears to have remained about the same (15 percent), whereas the proportion of all men workers who are unionized has fallen (from 31 percent to 24 percent). (These data may differ from other figures used because they come from recent research--see Leonard and Freeman in Gender in the Workplace, ed. by Brown and Pechman, Brookings Institution, 1987.)

Women's increased unionization is largely the result of their increased unionization in white collar-public sector employment. Women are now 61 percent of white collar union members, and 49 percent of public sector union members. Women still lag considerably behind men in unionization in blue collar jobs and in the private sector.

Although women express more preference to be unionized than men (41 percent vs 27 percent said they would vote for a union in a 1977 survey), this is largely an artifact of the fact they are less unionized than men--in other words they want to catch up to men's rate of unionization.

However, among nonunionized, public sector employees, women do have stronger preferences for unions than men (according to the 1984 Harris poll for the AFL-CIO). Also union elections have been more successful in units where women were more than 75 percent of the workforce. Women are heavily represented in those areas where unionization is growing, eg. health and the public sector.

(It's important to note that recent data on unionization includes membership in professional associations that negotiate on behalf of their members, eg. the NEA, Nurses Associations, and the American Association of University Professors.)

Polling data also show women to be generally more progressive than men, in terms of social welfare spending, reduction in military spending, arms control, abortion rights, etc. Women favor a more active public sector, perhaps because they are more closely allied with it. They are more likely to work in the public sector, providing services (such as education and health), and they are more likely to come into contact with public services. Thus the health of the public sector probably matters more to women than to men.

VI. LABOR UNION STRATEGIES MUST DEAL WITH A CHANGING ECONOMIC STRUCTURE, CHANGING FAMILY STRUCTURE, AND A CHANGING LABOR FORCE.

Given the economic uncertainty faced by business, and their short term strategy of increased exploitation (both of permanent workers and through hiring more contingent workers), workers, all workers must become more concerned with maintaining basic rights on the job. In the past, professional jobs have been characterized by autonomy. (Autonomy is practically the definition of a professional job--one of the reasons professional standards and behavior are inculcated in professional training, is that once on the job, the professional worker has a lot of discretion. This is also true of many technical and other white

collar jobs as well.) The autonomy of professional jobs is also being attacked as employers look for new ways to cut costs.

Given the change in family structure, and women's increased economic role in virtually all family types, policies that help all workers combine work and family obligations are critical. More and more men will need parental and dependent care leave, as they will not have wives at home to take care of family problems. Child care is obviously a critical need. Since professionals are more likely to work full-time (and to earn high enough salaries to afford day care centers), they use more day care centers than other parents. One often overlooked policy that would address both family needs and the deterioration in working conditions on the job is reducing the working day. Calling for a six-hour day represents a far-sighted strategy, one that would enhance workers' abilities to deal with family needs, and one that would reduce differences between contingent workers and permanent workers. A six hour day would reduce overwork of those with jobs, spread the work around to others, and reduce difference between the contingent workers and the permanent workers.

The changing labor force will be more female, more minority, more immigrant, and older. Chances are these changes too will require a more active public policy. If we do not incorporate women, minorities, and immigrants on an equal footing into the labor force, US competitiveness will suffer. Now more than ever the US cannot afford to discriminate.

For these reasons:

UNIONS MUST ENGAGE PUBLIC POLICY ISSUES IN ORDER TO DEAL WITH THESE CHANGES AND TO SERVE PRESENT AND POTENTIAL WOMEN UNION MEMBERS.

WHILE ALOT CAN BE DONE ON THE JOB VIS A VIS THE EMPLOYER, ISSUES ESPECIALLY IMPORTANT TO WOMEN ALSO REQUIRE STRONG PUBLIC POLICY ACTION:

ECONOMIC JUSTICE/WORKER RIGHTS

PAY EQUITY--Among the more important pay equity issues for women is pay increases over the career. Women's age-earnings profiles, unlike men's are virtually flat. Women's occupations, even professional ones, are simply not structured to provide sufficient gains to experience and seniority.

EEO/AA

PARENTAL LEAVE

CHILDCARE

THE SERVICE ECONOMY AND THE PUBLIC SECTOR--HEALTH OF THESE TWO SECTORS CRITICAL FOR WOMEN (if an industrial policy is developed, it should not leave out the service sector; strengthening the public

sector should be seen as a priority for women workers)

Because women so often serve the public and other workers (even in private sector jobs) the quality of their service to the public is of critical concern to them. They want to be able to deliver good quality service (for one thing they must deal with the complaints of those who get poor quality service). For another, their professional standards support the importance of the quality of the service they provide. Women health workers often have responsibility for life and death, and they sometimes see management practices as a real risk to their patients. Teachers feel the responsibility to educate the next generation--they are painfully aware not only of the importance of the quality of their service but also of the future uncertainty these children face. Therefore:

THE QUALITY OF THE SERVICE WOMEN PROVIDE IS IMPORTANT. PUBLIC AND COMMUNITY SUPPORT AND PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS CAN ENHANCE A UNIONIZING STRATEGY BASED ON MAINTAINING THE QUALITY OF SERVICE. Because women so often serve the public, strong public support for women workers can often be built.

VII. WE NEED CREATIVE SOCIAL INVENTION.

The period of the 1930's was a period of social invention--social security, unemployment insurance, the minimum wage, the right to organize, among others. The current period requires similar social creativity. The economy has changed. Our personal lives have changed. We cannot return to an earlier, simpler time--policies and strategies devised then are no longer adequate. In the past, labor unions have often been at the forefront of confronting and responding to change. They must be so again. To do that they must recognize the fundamentally changed role of women--and its widespread implications--and they must become much more active participants in the public policy process.

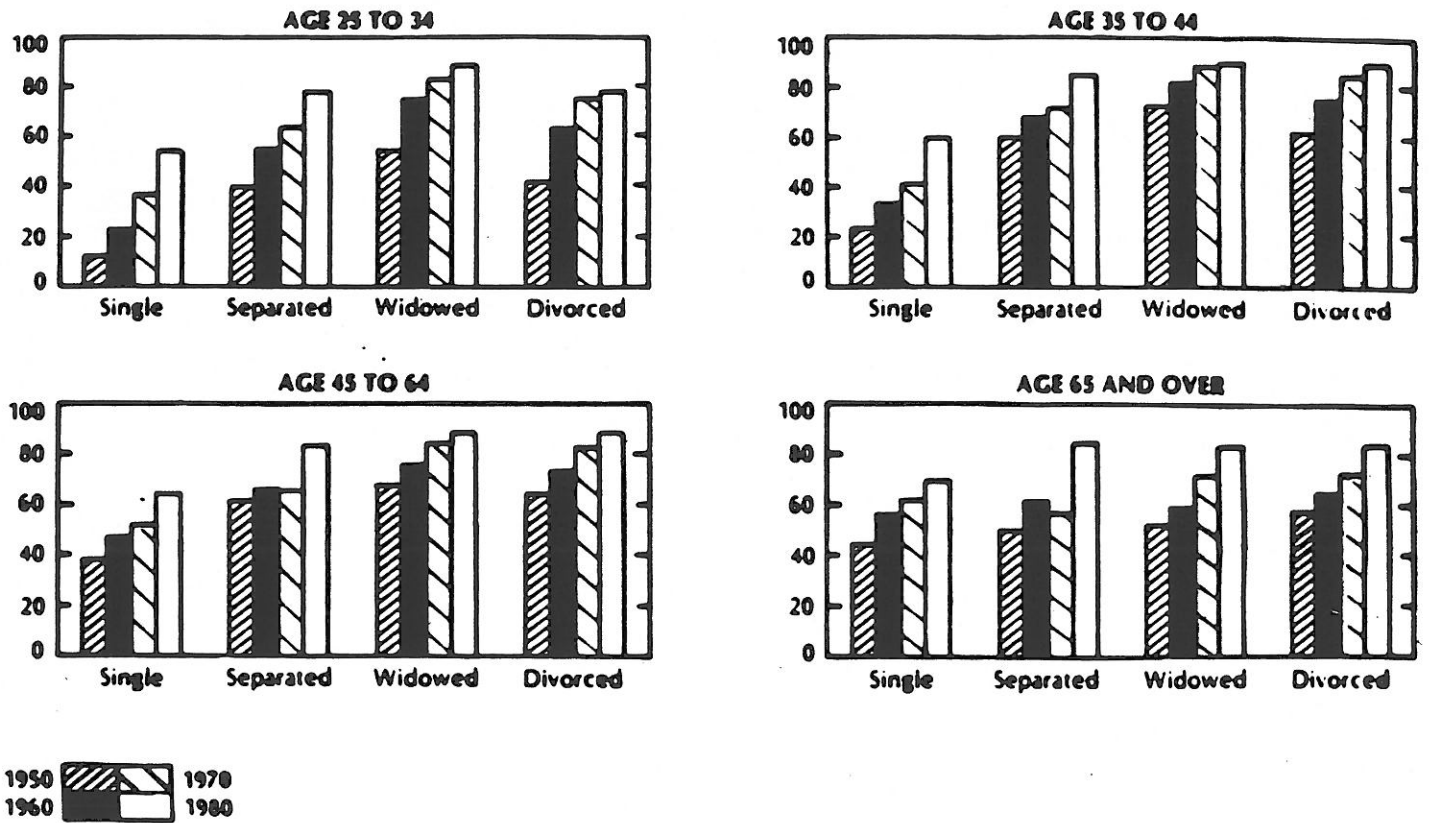
Table 1: Labor Force Participation Rates of Women, 20 years and over, by Age, Annual Averages, Selected Years, 1955-79.

Year	Age Group										
	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	65-69	70+
	<u>Women</u>										
1955	46.0	35.3	34.7	39.2	44.1	45.9	41.5	35.6	29.0	17.8	6.4
1960	46.2	35.7	36.3	40.8	46.8	50.7	48.8	42.2	31.4	17.6	6.8
1965	50.0	38.9	38.2	43.6	48.5	51.7	50.1	47.1	34.0	17.4	6.1
1970	57.8	45.2	44.7	49.2	52.9	55.0	53.8	49.0	36.1	17.3	5.7
1975	64.1	57.0	51.7	54.9	56.8	55.9	53.3	47.9	33.3	14.5	4.8
1980	69.2	66.8	64.1	64.9	66.1	62.1	57.8	48.6	33.3	14.7	4.6
1985	71.8	71.4	70.3	71.7	71.9	67.8	60.8	50.3	33.4	15.1	4.3

Sources for 1955-1975: Perspectives on Working Women: A Data Book. U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. October 1980. Bulletin 2080. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Sources for 1980 and 1985: Employment and Earnings, January 1981 (Annual Data Table #3). Employment and Earnings, January 1986 (Annual Data Table #3).

Figure 1: Percentage of Women Maintaining Households: 1950-1980



Source: Bianchi and Spain, 1984: Figure 2.

Table 3

**EMPLOYMENT LEVELS AND EMPLOYMENT SHARES
BY GENDER AND RACE (000's)**

	NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES			EARNINGS SHARES			SHARES OF NET NEW EMPLOYMENT	
	1973	1979	1984	1973	1979	1984	'73-79	'79-84
WHITE MEN								
LOW STRATUM	9466	10244	12195	19.6%	19.8%	22.7%	23.4%	96.7%
MIDDLE STRATUM	25034	26372	27503	51.8	51.1	51.3	40.3	56.
HIGH STRATUM	13805	15008	13944	28.6	29.1	26.0	36.2	-52.7
TOTAL	48305	51624	53642	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
WHITE WOMEN								
LOW STRATUM	16073	17478	19125	47.3%	42.5%	42.7%	19.8%	44.4%
MIDDLE STRATUM	16997	22332	23887	50.0	54.4	53.3	75.1	41.9
HIGH STRATUM	911	1273	1783	2.7	3.1	4.0	5.1	13.7
TOTAL	33981	41083	44795	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
NON-WHITE MEN								
LOW STRATUM	1574	1756	2367	26.7%	27.0%	31.7%	29.1%	64.5%
MIDDLE STRATUM	3691	3874	4150	62.7	59.5	55.6	29.2	29.1
HIGH STRATUM	622	883	944	10.6	13.6	12.7	41.7	6.4
TOTAL	5887	6513	7461	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
NON-WHITE WOMEN								
LOW STRATUM	2535	2586	3064	50.5%	42.2%	40.7%	4.6%	34.1%
MIDDLE STRATUM	2383	3330	4204	47.5	54.4	55.8	85.8	62.3
HIGH STRATUM	104	210	261	2.1	3.4	3.5	9.6	3.6
TOTAL	5022	6126	7529	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Calculations from Uniform CPS (Marx-Winship) Data Files.

From: Barry Bluestone and Bennett Harrison, "The Great American Job Machine: the proliferation of low wage employment in the U.S. economy," a study prepared for the Joint Economic Committee, December 1986, p. 23.

TABLE 2-5 Percentage Female in Detailed Occupational Groups by Age, Twelve-Month Annual Averages, December 1981

Occupation	All Workers	Ages 20-24	Ages 25-34
Total	43 (100,397)	47 (14,122)	42 (28,180)
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	45 (16,419)	53 (1,687)	47 (5,906)
Engineers	4 (1,537)	13 (132)	6 (447)
Physicians, dentists, and related practitioners	14 (828)	52 (23)	21 (240)
Other health professions	86 (2,297)	83 (336)	84 (911)
Teachers, except college and university	70 (3,197)	78 (226)	71 (1,176)
Engineering and science technicians	15 (1,141)	23 (226)	18 (427)
Other salaried professionals	36 (6,665)	47 (713)	39 (2,482)
Other professional and self-employed workers	27 (751)	40 (32)	27 (223)
Managers and administrators, except farm	27 (11,540)	42 (754)	29 (3,051)
Manufacturing, salaried	15 (1,566)	36 (58)	20 (374)
Other industries, salaried	30 (8,011)	44 (640)	32 (2,292)
Retail, self-employed	35 (870)	29 (24)	31 (154)
Other independently self-employed	16 (1,093)	15 (32)	15 (231)
Sales	45 (6,425)	51 (854)	39 (1,626)
Retail	63 (3,262)	57 (583)	56 (667)
Other	26 (3,162)	39 (271)	27 (958)
Clerical	80 (18,564)	82 (3,352)	80 (5,212)
Bookkeepers	91 (1,961)	89 (251)	92 (515)
Office machine operators	73 (966)	74 (231)	73 (349)
Stenographers, typists, secretaries	98 (5,022)	98 (928)	99 (1,463)
Other clerical	70 (10,615)	74 (1,942)	70 (2,885)
Craft and kindred workers	6 (12,662)	6 (1,656)	6 (3,879)
Carpenters	1 (1,122)	3 (177)	2 (395)
Other construction crafts	1 (2,593)	2 (376)	2 (808)
Foremen, not elsewhere classified	11 (1,816)	15 (115)	11 (471)
Machinists and job setters	4 (668)	4 (97)	5 (199)
Other metal	4 (626)	4 (65)	6 (180)
Mechanics, auto	0.6 (1,249)	0.4 (243)	0.7 (408)
Other mechanic	3 (2,159)	3 (266)	3 (692)
Other craft	17 (2,430)	20 (317)	17 (726)
Operatives, except transport	40 (10,540)	33 (1,841)	35 (3,002)
Mine workers	2 (357)	2 (90)	2 (134)
Motor vehicle equipment	19 (452)	17 (52)	19 (148)
Other durable goods	36 (4,153)	30 (736)	33 (1,233)
Nondurable goods	58 (3,339)	52 (543)	52 (928)
All other	30 (2,240)	22 (419)	26 (560)
Transport equipment operatives	9 (3,476)	6 (480)	9 (1,029)
Drivers, delivery	10 (2,966)	7 (382)	10 (862)
All others	5 (511)	5 (98)	4 (166)
Nonfarm laborers	11 (4,583)	10 (1,037)	12 (1,035)
Construction	2 (797)	1 (203)	3 (203)
Manufacturing	15 (986)	13 (230)	13 (254)
All other	13 (2,800)	12 (605)	15 (577)
Private household workers	96 (1,047)	93 (87)	97 (152)
Service workers, except private household	59 (12,391)	59 (2,054)	60 (2,776)
Cleaning	39 (2,489)	30 (320)	37 (441)
Food	66 (4,682)	62 (926)	68 (840)
Health	89 (1,995)	86 (385)	86 (561)
Personal	76 (1,766)	78 (252)	81 (476)
Protective	10 (1,459)	13 (171)	10 (459)
Farmers, farm manager	11 (1,485)	7 (81)	11 (252)
Farm laborers, foremen	25 (1,264)	15 (239)	25 (261)
Paid labor	16 (1,010)	14 (211)	16 (223)
Unpaid family members	65 (254)	29 (28)	84 (38)

NOTE: Numbers in parentheses are numbers of workers; they represent actual sample sizes and include both men and women.

SOURCE: Unpublished data, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (1981).

Source: Reubin & Hartman: Women's Work, Men's Work, Nat'l Acad. Press, 1985

TABLE 2-6 Sources of Employment Growth for Women, 1970-1980

Panel A Occupations in Which the Percentage Female Increased 20 Points or More, 1970-1980

Occupation	Number of New Female Jobs	Percentage Female 1970	Percentage Female 1980
Executive, administrative, and managerial occupations			
Management-related occupations, N. E. C.	12,006	20.1	53.5
Professional and specialty occupations			
Inhalation therapists	24,963	28.6	56.5
Foreign language teachers	2,432	34.2	59.4
Recreation workers	6,308	45.4	67.6
Public relations specialists	37,199	26.6	48.8
Technicians and related support occupations			
Broadcast equipment operators	24,040	22.1	44.0
Sales occupations			
Advertising and related sales occupations	33,526	20.5	41.6
Sales occupations, other business services	126,439	8.4	37.4
Administrative support occupations, including clerical			
Computer operators	192,037	33.9	59.1
Production coordinators	85,479	20.2	44.4
Samplers	449	20.4	44.8
Insurance adjusters, examiners, and investigators	70,483	29.6	60.0
Protective service occupations	12,238	22.2	42.3
Service occupations, except protective and household			
Bartenders	95,480	21.2	44.3
Food counter, fountain, and related occupations	88,063	56.8	81.1
Guides	13,676	32.9	57.2
Farming, forestry, and fishing occupations			
Animal caretakers, except farm	26,781	30.7	59.0
Graders and sorters, agricultural products	3,246	52.0	78.6
Precision production, craft, and repair occupations			
Engravers, metal	4,074	15.7	38.1
Machine operators, assemblers, and inspectors			
Typesetters and compositors	24,779	16.8	55.7
Miscellaneous printing machine operators	17,903	23.8	52.9
Total, experienced civilian labor force 16 years and over	13,957,618	38.0	42.6

TABLE 2-6 Sources of Employment Growth for Women, 1970-1980 (continued)

Panel B Ten Detailed Occupations Providing Largest Number of New Jobs for Women, 1970-1980

Occupation	Number of New Female Jobs	Percentage Female 1970	Percentage Female 1980
Secretaries	1,145,033	97.8	98.8
Managers and administrators, N. E. C., salaried	900,306	15.6	26.9
General office clerks	800,124	75.3	82.1
Cashiers	756,132	84.2	83.5
Registered nurses	491,031	97.3	95.9
Teachers, elementary school	482,892	83.9	75.4
Assemblers	418,955	45.7	49.5
Child care workers, except private household	405,284	92.5	93.2
Nursing aides	382,383	87.0	87.8
Machine operators, not specified	332,929	35.6	33.5

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census (1984a).

Table 1
Changes in Ratio of Women's Earnings to Men's
Among Full-Time Workers

	Median Annual Earnings (Year-Round)	Median Weekly Earnings (Usual)	Mean Hourly Earnings
1955	63.9		
1960	60.7		
1965	59.9		
1970	59.4	62.3	
1975	58.8	62.0	
1976	60.2	62.2	
1977	58.9	61.9	
1978	59.4	61.3	
1979	59.7	62.5	
1980	60.2	64.4	
1981	59.2	64.6	
1982	61.7	65.4	
1983	63.6	66.7	
1984	63.7	67.8	69.5*
1985	64.6	68.2	
1986	64.3	69.2	

Source: Data through 1983 are from Francine D. Blau and Marianne A. Ferber, The Economics of Women, Men, and Work (Prentice-Hall, 1986). Annual data for 1984, 1985, and 1986 are from the Census Bureau, U.S. Department of Commerce, Current Population Reports, Consumer Income, Series P-60, nos. 150, 154, and 157. Weekly data for 1984 and 1985 are from the Census Bureau, U.S. Department of Commerce, Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1987, Table 680; 1986 data are from the Bureau of Labor Statistics, unpublished.

*Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP) data from "Male-Female Differences" report, Census Bureau, U.S. Department of Commerce, Current Population Reports, Household Economic Studies, Series P-70, no. 10. Hourly earnings by sex are not generally available.

Table 2
Annual Earnings of Men and Women in Current and Constant Dollars
Full-Time Year-Round Workers

	current dollars			constant (1986) dollars		
	women	men	ratio	women	men	ratio
1979	10,169	17,045	59.7	15,361	25,748	59.7
1984	14,780	23,218	63.7	15,607	24,517	63.7
1985	15,624	24,195	64.6	15,926	24,664	64.6
1986	16,232	25,256	64.3	16,232	25,256	64.3

Source: Same as Table 1. Constant 1986 dollars calculated by adjusting current dollars by the CPI.

SOURCE: NCPE-IWPR WAGE GAP BRIEFING PAPER

Industries Projected to Generate
Largest Number of Wage and Salary Jobs, 1986-2000
(Numbers in thousands)

Industry	1986 Employment	New Jobs
Eating and drinking places	5,879	2,471
Offices of health practitioners	1,672	1,375
New and repair construction	4,904	890
Nursing and personal care facilities	1,250	852
Personnel supply services	1,017	832
State and local government education	7,058	784
Machinery and equipment wholesalers	1,445	614
Computer and data processing services	591	613
Grocery stores	2,523	598
Hotels and other lodging places	1,401	574

Table 5. Occupations with the largest job growth, 1986-2000, moderate alternative
(Numbers in thousands)

Occupation	Employment		Change in employment, 1986-2000		Percent of total job growth, 1986-2000
	1986	Projected, 2000	Number	Percent	
Salespersons, retail	3,579	4,780	1,201	33.5	5.6
Waiters and waitresses	1,702	2,454	752	44.2	3.5
Registered nurses	1,406	2,018	612	43.6	2.9
Janitors and cleaners, including maids and housekeeping cleaners	2,676	3,280	604	22.6	2.8
General managers and top executives	2,383	2,965	582	24.4	2.7
Cashiers	2,165	2,740	575	26.5	2.7
Truck drivers, light and heavy	2,211	2,736	525	23.8	2.5
General office clerks	2,361	2,824	462	19.6	2.2
Food counter, fountain, and related workers	1,500	1,949	449	29.9	2.1
Nursing aides, orderlies, and attendants	1,224	1,658	433	35.4	2.0
Secretaries	3,234	3,658	424	13.1	2.0
Guards	794	1,177	383	48.3	1.8
Accountants and auditors	945	1,322	376	39.8	1.8
Computer programmers	479	813	335	69.9	1.6
Food preparation workers	949	1,273	324	34.2	1.5
Teachers, kindergarten and elementary	1,527	1,826	299	19.6	1.4
Receptionists and information clerks	682	964	282	41.4	1.3
Computer systems analysts, electronic data processing	331	582	251	75.6	1.2
Cooks, restaurant	520	759	240	46.2	1.1
Licensed practical nurses	631	869	238	37.7	1.1
Gardeners and groundskeepers, except farm	767	1,005	238	31.1	1.1
Maintenance repairers, general utility	1,039	1,270	232	22.3	1.1
Stock clerks, sales floor	1,087	1,312	225	20.7	1.0
First-line supervisors and managers	956	1,161	205	21.4	1.0
Dining room and cafeteria attendants and barroom helpers	433	631	197	45.6	.9
Electrical and electronics engineers	401	592	192	47.8	.9
Lawyers	527	718	191	36.3	.9

Table 4. Fastest growing occupations, 1986-2000, moderate alternative
(Numbers in thousands)

Occupation	Employment		Change in employment, 1986-2000		Percent of total job growth, 1986-2000
	1986	Projected, 2000	Number	Percent	
Paralegal personnel	61	125	64	103.7	.3
Medical assistants	132	251	119	90.4	.6
Physical therapists	61	115	53	87.5	.2
Physical and corrective therapy assistants and aides	36	65	29	81.6	.1
Data processing equipment repairers	69	125	56	80.4	.3
Home health aides	138	249	111	80.1	.5
Podiatrists	13	23	10	77.2	0
Computer systems analysts, electronic data processing	331	582	251	75.6	1.2
Medical records technicians	40	70	30	75.0	.1
Employment interviewers, private or public employment service	75	129	54	71.2	.3
Computer programmers	479	813	335	69.9	1.6
Radiologic technologists and technicians	115	190	75	64.7	.3
Dental hygienists	87	141	54	62.6	.3
Dental assistants	155	244	88	57.0	.4
Physician assistants	26	41	15	56.7	.1
Operators and systems researchers	38	59	21	54.1	.1
Occupational therapists	29	45	15	52.2	.1
Peripheral electronic data processing equipment operators	46	70	24	50.8	.1
Data entry keyers, composing	29	43	15	50.8	.1
Optometrists	37	55	18	49.2	.1

Table 1. Employment by broad occupational group, 1986 and projected to 2000 moderate alternative, and percent change in employment for selected periods
[Numbers in thousands]

Occupation	1986		Projected, 2000		Percent change			
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	1972-79	1979-86	1972-86	1986-2000
Total employment	111,623	100.0	133,030	100.0	20.3	10.9	33.4	19.2
Executive, administrative, and managerial workers	10,583	9.5	13,616	10.2	34.9	28.7	73.7	28.7
Professional workers	13,538	12.1	17,192	12.9	29.8	21.4	57.5	27.0
Technicians and related support workers	3,726	3.3	5,151	3.9	39.9	24.7	74.5	38.2
Salesworkers	12,606	11.3	16,334	12.3	24.3	24.4	54.6	29.6
Administrative support workers, including clerical	19,851	17.8	22,109	16.6	23.5	9.5	35.2	11.4
Private household workers	981	9	955	7	-23.0	-11.5	-31.9	-2.7
Service workers, except private household workers	16,555	14.8	21,962	16.5	25.7	16.0	45.9	32.7
Precision production, craft, and repair workers	13,924	12.5	15,590	11.7	21.7	6.5	29.6	12.0
Operators, fabricators, and laborers	16,300	14.6	16,724	12.6	8.7	-9.2	-1.3	2.6
Farming, forestry, and fishing workers	3,556	3.2	3,393	2.6	-5.1	-5.6	-10.4	-4.6

NOTE: Estimates of 1986 employment, the base year for the 2000 projections, were derived primarily from data collected in the Occupational Employment Statistics surveys. The 1972-79,

1979-86, and 1972-86 rates of change were derived from the Current Population Survey data because comparable Occupational Employment Statistics survey data were not available for 1972 and 1979.

Table 8. Employment in broad occupational clusters by level of educational attainment, 1986 and projected to 2000, moderate alternative

[In percent]

Occupation	1986	2000
Total, all groups	100.0	100.0
Group I, total	25.1	27.3
Management and management-related occupations	9.5	10.2
Engineers, architects, and surveyors	1.4	1.5
Natural scientists and computer specialists	7	8
Teachers, librarians, and counselors	4.4	4.3
Health diagnosing and treating	2.3	2.8
Other professional specialists	3.5	3.7
Technicians	3.3	4.0
Group II, total	40.8	40.0
Salesworkers	11.3	12.3
Administrative support, including clerical	17.8	16.7
Blue-collar worker supervisors	1.6	1.5
Construction trades and extractive workers	3.4	3.3
Mechanics and repairers	4.2	4.0
Precision production and plant systems workers	2.5	2.2
Group III, total	34.0	32.7
Service workers	15.7	17.2
Agriculture, forestry, and fishing workers	3.3	2.6
Machine setters and operators	4.5	3.6
Hand workers	2.4	1.9
Transportation and material moving workers	4.3	4.0
Helpers and laborers	3.8	3.4

Table 9. Projected 1986-2000 growth rate and percent of total employment in 1986 accounted for by blacks, Hispanics, and women, moderate alternative¹

Occupation	Projected percent change, 1986-2000	Percent of total employment in 1986		
		Black	Hispanic	Women
Total, all occupations	19	10	7	44
Natural scientists and computer specialists	46	6	3	31
Health diagnosing and treating occupations	42	6	3	67
Technicians	38	8	4	47
Engineers, architects, and surveyors	32	4	3	7
Service workers	31	17	9	61
Marketing and salesworkers	30	6	5	48
Managerial and management-related workers	29	6	4	43
Other professional workers	26	7	4	43
Construction trades and extractive workers	18	7	8	2
Teachers, librarians, and counselors	16	9	3	68
Mechanics and repairers	15	7	7	3
Administrative, support, including clerical	11	11	6	80
Transportation and material moving workers	10	14	8	9
Helpers and laborers	6	17	11	16
Precision production and plant systems occupations	4	9	9	23
Machine setters and operators	-4	16	13	42
Assemblers and other handwork occupations	-4	13	11	38
Agriculture, forestry, and fishing workers	-5	7	10	16

¹ Does not include supervisors in construction trades and extractive workers; mechanics and repairers; precision production and plant system occupations; or assemblers and other handwork occupations.