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Hearing on the Feminization of Poverty - Written Testimony

Assembly Human Services Committee

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ASSEMBLY HUMAN SERVICES COMMITTEE

HEARING ON THE

FEMINIZATION OF POVERTY

APRIL 8, 1983

BOARD OF SUPERVISORS CHAMBERS

SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA

WRITTEN TESTIMONY



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STATEMENT OF
LIEUTENANT GOVERNOR LEO T. MCCARTHY
BEFORE THE
SPECIAL HEARING OF THE ASSEMBLY HUMAN SERVICES COMMITTEE
ON THE
FEMINIZATION OF POVERTY

SAN FRANCISCO

APRIL 8, 1983

WE HAVEN'T WON THE WAR ON POVERTY.

NATIONWIDE, THE PERCENTAGE OF THE POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY
BARELY BUDGED FROM 12 PERCENT IN 1969 TO 11.6 PERCENT IN 1979.

AND THE OVERWHELMING MAJORITY OF THE CASUALTIES IN THAT WAR
HAVE BEEN INNOCENT BYSTANDERS. TODAY, THREE-QUARTERS OF
AMERICA'S POOR ARE WOMEN AND CHILDREN. TWO-THIRDS OF THE
NATION'S IMPOVERISHED ADULTS ARE WOMEN.

THE 1981 NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMISSION ON ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY
UNCOVERED A STARTLING TREND. IT MARKED A SHARP RISE IN THE
PERCENTAGE OF POOR FAMILIES HEADED BY FEMALES -- AND NOTED
THAT IF THAT RATE OF INCREASE WERE TO CONTINUE, BY THE YEAR
2000 THE NATION'S POVERTY POPULATION WOULD CONSIST OF WOMEN
AND CHILDREN EXCLUSIVELY.

THE MAJOR SOURCES OF THIS "FEMINIZATION OF POVERTY" ARE
CHANGING FAMILY STRUCTURES, PERPETUATION OF INEQUITABLE
TREATMENT IN THE JOB MARKET -- AND IN THE SCHOOLS -- AND
INADEQUATE SOCIAL SUPPORTS AND SOCIAL POLICIES.

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TODAY, TWO OUT OF FIVE MARRIAGES END IN DIVORCE.

JUST BETWEEN 1970 AND 1978, THE PROPORTION OF SINGLE-PARENT HOUSEHOLDS ALMOST DOUBLED; AND 90 PERCENT OF THESE FAMILIES ARE HEADED BY WOMEN.

WHEN FAMILIES BREAK UP, MOST OFTEN THE WOMEN ARE LEFT WITH MOST OR ALL OF THE FINANCIAL, PHYSICAL, AND EMOTIONAL RESPONSIBILITY FOR THEIR CHILDREN -- AND ARE USUALLY AT A TREMENDOUS DISADVANTAGE IN THEIR ABILITY TO PROVIDE THESE RESOURCES.

RAISING A CHILD TODAY IS EXPENSIVE. CURRENT ESTIMATES RANGE FROM \$58,000 TO \$135,000.

YET ONLY ONE OF EVERY FOUR WOMEN ELIGIBLE FOR CHILD SUPPORT RECEIVES IT. AND OF THOSE, 60 PERCENT RECEIVE LESS THAN \$1,500 PER YEAR. AND LESS THAN TEN PERCENT OF THE AWARDS INCLUDE INFLATION ADJUSTMENTS.

THIS LEAVES MANY WOMEN ON THEIR OWN IN PROVIDING FOR THEIR CHILDREN. BUT LOW-PAYING JOBS AND INADEQUATE AND COSTLY CHILD CARE SEVERELY HANDICAP THEM IN THEIR EFFORTS.

WORKING WOMEN TODAY RECEIVE ONLY 59 CENTS FOR EVERY DOLLAR PAID TO MEN. SOME PEOPLE MAY BELIEVE THE SITUATION IS IMPROVING. WRONG: THIS FIGURE HAS ACTUALLY DECLINED FROM THE 64-CENTS-PER-DOLLAR LEVEL OF 1957 ... 26 YEARS AGO.

WHY? A MAJOR REASON IS WHAT ECONOMISTS CALL "OCCUPATIONAL CROWDING." FOUR OUT OF FIVE WORKING WOMEN ARE EMPLOYED IN ONLY 20 OUT OF 420 OCCUPATIONS.

IN FACT, BECAUSE SO MANY WOMEN ENTERED TRADITIONAL "WOMEN'S JOBS" DURING THE 1960s AND 1970s, OCCUPATIONAL CROWDING HAS ACTUALLY WORSENERED. THE PERCENTAGE OF WORKING WOMEN EMPLOYED AS CLERICAL AND SALES WORKERS, WAITRESSES, AND HAIRDRESSERS SURGED FROM 52 PERCENT IN 1957 TO 68 PERCENT IN 1982.

WITH SO MANY PEOPLE CROWDED INTO SO FEW OCCUPATIONS, THEIR WAGES ARE TYPICALLY VERY LOW.

BUT CROWDING IS ONLY PART OF THE PROBLEM. WOMEN ENTERING OCCUPATIONS WHERE MEN HAVE DOMINATED ARE PAID LESS THAN THEIR MALE COUNTERPARTS. FOR EXAMPLE, A 1981 LABOR DEPARTMENT STUDY FOUND THAT WOMEN LAWYERS WERE PAID ABOUT 21 THOUSAND DOLLARS ON AN ANNUAL BASIS WHILE THE MEN RECEIVED ALMOST 30 THOUSAND.

THIS KIND OF DIFFERENTIAL IS FOUND ACROSS THE OCCUPATIONAL SPECTRUM. THE SAME STUDY FOUND THAT MALE SALES WORKERS WERE PAID ALMOST DOUBLE WHAT THE WOMEN IN SALES RECEIVED; AMONG COOKS, THE MEN WERE PAID OVER A THIRD AGAIN AS MUCH; AND MEN IN SERVICE WORK, TWO-FIFTHS AGAIN AS MUCH.

THE DAMAGE THAT THIS INEQUALITY DOES CAN BE MEASURED.

ACCORDING TO A RECENT STUDY, IF WORKING WIVES AND FEMALE HEADS OF HOUSEHOLD WERE PAID AS WELL AS SIMILARLY QUALIFIED MEN, ABOUT HALF THE FAMILIES NOW LIVING IN POVERTY WOULD NOT BE POOR.

HOWEVER, ENDING OCCUPATIONAL SEGREGATION AND INEQUITABLE PAY, AS VITAL AS THESE EFFORTS ARE, WILL NOT BE ENOUGH. A FURTHER PROBLEM LOOMING AHEAD OF US IS THAT MANY OF THE JOBS NOW HELD BY WOMEN MAY BE DECIMATED DURING THE 1980s AND 1990s AS PRODUCTION JOBS ARE LOST TO OVERSEAS COMPETITORS AND WORKPLACES ARE REVOLUTIONIZED BY AUTOMATION.

I AM SORRY TO SAY THAT OUR SCHOOLS ARE NOT DOING ALL THAT THEY SHOULD TO PREPARE WOMEN FOR GOOD CAREERS TODAY AND TOMORROW.

IT IS VERY DISTURBING TO HEAR THAT FEWER THAN ONE-THIRD OF THE STUDENTS IN A RECENT SURVEY OF COMPUTER CLASSES WERE GIRLS, WHEN GIRLS WERE OVER HALF OF THE SURVEYED SCHOOLS' STUDENT BODIES. AND AMONG OUR GRADUATE STUDENTS OF ENGINEERING, FEWER THAN ONE OUT OF TEN IS A WOMAN.

WE CANNOT AFFORD TO SHUT THE WOMEN OF TOMORROW OFF FROM THE SKILLS THAT MAY ALLOW THEM TO PARTICIPATE FULLY AND REWARDINGLY IN THE EMERGING ECONOMY.

FINALLY, WE SIMPLY MUST PROVIDE MORE ADEQUATE AND AFFORDABLE CHILD CARE.

ASSEMBLYMAN BATES' STAFF HAS ESTIMATED THAT ONE MILLION CHILDREN IN CALIFORNIA, IN FAMILIES AT ALL INCOME LEVELS, ~~HAVE WORKING MOTHERS AND ARE NOT OLD ENOUGH TO CARE FOR~~ THEMSELVES PROPERLY. YET LESS THAN ONE-THIRD OF THESE CHILDREN FIND CARE IN LICENSED, AFFORDABLE CHILD CARE HOMES OR CENTERS.

MOREOVER, MANY OTHER WOMEN WHO NEED THE INCOME DO NOT WORK OR MUST TAKE LOW-PAYING PART-TIME JOBS BECAUSE THEY CANNOT FIND ADEQUATE CHILD CARE FOR THEIR CHILDREN.

THE PROBLEM IS ESPECIALLY ACUTE AMONG FAMILIES RECEIVING AID TO FAMILIES WITH DEPENDENT CHILDREN. ABOUT ONE MILLION CHILDREN LIVE IN SUCH FAMILIES IN CALIFORNIA, YET THE STATE PROVIDES ONLY ABOUT 143,000 SUBSIDIZED CHILD CARE SLOTS -- AND THESE ARE NOT RESERVED FOR WELFARE FAMILIES, SINCE THE DEMAND FROM OTHER LOW-INCOME FAMILIES IS SO GREAT.

AS A RESULT OF ALL THESE FACTORS -- DIVORCE AND SEPARATION, ABYSMALLY INSUFFICIENT CHILD SUPPORT, LOW-PAYING JOBS, AND WOEFULLY INADEQUATE CHILD CARE -- ONE OUT OF FOUR FAMILIES HEADED BY A WOMAN LIVES IN POVERTY, AS COMPARED WITH ONE OUT OF TWENTY AMONG FAMILIES HAVING THE FATHER PRESENT.

UNTIL VASTLY MORE AND BETTER CHILD CARE IS AVAILABLE, UNTIL PARENTS SHARE MORE EQUALLY IN THE FINANCIAL SUPPORT OF THEIR CHILDREN, AND UNTIL WOMEN GAIN A MORE EQUAL ROLE IN THE LABOR MARKET, MILLIONS OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN WILL HAVE TO GO ON WAGING THE WAR ON POVERTY -- WITH OR WITHOUT THE GOVERNMENT.

I BELIEVE THAT IT WOULD BE IMMORAL AND SELF-DEFEATING FOR GOVERNMENT TO ABANDON THEM. I ALSO BELIEVE THAT, WITH AN APPROPRIATE SHIFT OF POLICIES AND PROGRAMS, GOVERNMENT CAN

HELP REDUCE BOTH POVERTY -- AND ITS INCREASING FEMINIZATION.

I SAID AT THE OUTSET THAT THE WAR ON POVERTY HAD NOT BEEN WON. BUT WE DID WIN SOME VICTORIES -- AT LEAST UNTIL THIS CURRENT RECESSION -- AND I THINK IT IS INSTRUCTIVE TO CONSIDER THE NATURE OF THOSE VICTORIES.

FROM THE MID-1960s THROUGH THE MID-1970s, THE NUMBER OF POOR MEN ACTUALLY DECLINED AT THE SAME TIME AS THE NUMBER OF IMPOVERISHED HOUSEHOLDS HEADED BY WOMEN WAS GROWING AT A RATE OF 100,000 PER YEAR. OUR NATIONAL WAR ON POVERTY DESERVES A MAJOR PORTION OF THE CREDIT FOR THIS DECLINE AMONG MEN, AND I AGREE WITH THOSE WHO ATTRIBUTE THIS "SUCCESS" TO THE FACT THAT THE PROGRAMS OF THE WAR ON POVERTY WERE LARGELY DEVISED BY MEN AND GEARED TO MAKE THE CHANGES MOST BENEFICIAL TO IMPOVERISHED MEN.

NOW WE NEED TO DEVELOP AND IMPLEMENT A STRATEGY FORMULATED BY WOMEN AND TARGETED TO WOMEN.

FOR THIS PURPOSE I AM NOW IN THE PROCESS OF COMMUNICATING WITH WOMEN'S LEADERS AROUND THE STATE, AND PARTICULARLY WITH THOSE EXPERIENCED IN DEALING WITH IMPOVERISHED WOMEN AND THEIR PROBLEMS. WITH THE GUIDANCE OF THESE WOMEN, I WILL BE FORMING A TASK FORCE TO SET PRIORITIES AMONG THE PROGRAMS AND POLICIES THAT MOST SIGNIFICANTLY AFFECT WOMEN, AND TO ASSIST OTHER WOMEN'S GROUPS IN DEVELOPING STRATEGIES TO ~~REMOVE WOMEN FROM POVERTY AND TO ATTACK POLICIES AND PRACTICES THAT~~ PERPETUATE THE IMPOVERISHMENT OF WOMEN.

I WILL USE MY OFFICE AS LIEUTENANT GOVERNOR, AND ALSO MY POSITIONS AS CHAIRMAN OF CALIFORNIA'S ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT COMMISSION, AS A REGENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, AND AS A TRUSTEE OF THE CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGES, TO SEE THAT THE RECOMMENDATIONS OF THIS TASK FORCE ARE HEARD, CONSIDERED, AND -- HOPEFULLY -- IMPLEMENTED TO BRING AN END TO THIS ONE-SIDED WAR IN WHICH THE WOMEN IN OUR SOCIETY HAVE PAID A TERRIBLE TOLL IN PAIN, POVERTY, AND WASTED LIVES.

Art Agnew

FEMINIZATION OF POVERTY

San Francisco
April 8, 1983

Of all of the domestic problems we have in this country, I am sure that the feminization of poverty is the single most significant issue in terms of the future of our way of life.

But, the term "feminization of poverty" is not a true description of the problem. The most impoverished group in this country is in fact our children.

That's because their economic status

is a function of their dependency on women.

The disintegration of the nuclear family, or two-parents in the household, means that children wind up with one parent most of the time, usually the mother.

Far too much of the time this means that the women and children wind up on welfare.

Let's look at a few powerful facts:

- One out of every two children born today will live with just one parent before they reach 18.
-

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- 90 percent of the custodial parents after divorce are women.
- 75 percent of the poor are women and children.

Why?.....A few more facts:

- Women earn 59¢ on the dollar compared to men.
 - One-third of the women on welfare at any given time are working but can't earn enough to support themselves; another one-third have very young children, most of the remainder can't find jobs!
-

- Only about one-fourth of the children of divorce in California receive any financial support from their absent fathers....one-half of the fathers who do pay contribute under 10 percent of their income.
 - 70 percent of the children on welfare in California are legal products of a marriage. They are products of separation, abandonment, or divorce.
-

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- If children and their mothers had to live on the child support ordered by the courts, 90 percent would be eligible for welfare.
 - The benevolent attitude of judges towards minority families in divorce is devastating. While 74 percent of white children are awarded support, only 44 percent of hispanic children and 29 percent of black children receive any court-ordered financial support from their legal fathers.
-

I could go on but I think you are beginning to get the message.

Welfare reform is one of these knee-jerk phrases that politicians have used over the years -- usually for the purpose of depriving those in need of something they are currently getting.

Like many one dimensional phrases, a "welfare reform" debate rarely ever centers on the human beings involved.

After three years chairing the Assembly Ways and Means Subcommittee on Health and Welfare, as well as during my past year on the State Commission on the Status of Women, I have formed some opinions about welfare reform.

Welfare reform will happen when:

- We make fathers contribute to the support of their children.
 - When we pay women comparable wages for the work they perform.
-

- When we take seriously the need for reasonably priced quality child care programs -- not just for pre-schoolers but for the hundreds of thousands of "latch key" kids slipping further away from you and I into emotional abandonment as each day goes by; and
 - When we finally and for the first time address the job training needs and employment conditions desired for women in their unique role in our society.
-

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Make no mistake. I don't assume a woman's fundamental role is as a mother, wife and only then as a person.

But the reality of the numbers tempers my assumptions and philosophy about where women belong.

I must begin from where women are in order to figure out what we need to do to help women get to where they want to be.

I would support women's economic equality in an of itself. But, what makes the phenomenon of women in poverty so acute is that in or out of the home, women are economically responsible for our future generations.

This is wrong and we must change it!

If men have trouble dealing with the ego problem of women in professional competition, I for one would argue that there can be no justification whatsoever for the status quo.

I have introduced 4 bills this session to address the outrageous lack of protection of the economic security of children after divorce in our child support system.

I am fully committed to pursuing changes in the law to address the incredible economic imbalance that exists between men and women.

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As we learned from Martin Luther King in the civil rights movement, economic injustice is the single most difficult change to execute.

But, I am prepared to spend however many years it takes to get it done.

I applaud your decision to hold this hearing and am delighted that you came to San Francisco to do it. This city is certainly a living example of many of the issues to be discussed.

Thank you for allowing me the opportunity to present my views.

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TESTIMONY ON THE FEMINIZATION OF POVERTY

Presented to the California Legislature
Assembly Permanent Committee on Human Services

San Francisco, California

Friday, April 8, 1983

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Testimony on Feminization of Poverty

The testimony here today tells a grim, but not hopeless, story. What we have heard so far boils down, in my view, to three basic ways in which women in our society are impoverished. We are, on the whole,

pay poor,
time poor,
and rights poor.

Each of these constitutes distinct forms of poverty among women and all are interrelated. I'd like to address each in turn.

First, women in this state are "pay poor." It cannot be said too many times, in my view, that our progress on the wage and income front has been abysmal. Despite more than fifteen years of equal pay law, the average income of a full-time working woman remains 59% that of men. The income gap between the races has diminished, but that between all women--white, black and other minorities--and all men, has, if anything become slightly worse since the mid-1950s.

According to a recent study by the National Academy of Sciences, the poverty of women's pay is a product of three ~~types of discrimination.~~ First, women receive poorer on-the-job training than men, and this and related differences in productivity do account for between 20% and 40% of the wage gap. Second, outright discrimination in hiring, sex-

linked pay grades, and so on account for another 20% to 40% of the pay gap. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, occupational segregation--the deliberate channeling of men and women into different job categories--accounts for between 30% and 45% of the pay gap.

Clearly, all three of these sources of pay bias call for specific state responses. First, productivity differences must be countered by better and more militant affirmative-action efforts in education, training, hiring, and promotion programs. Second, we need strong, more effective monitoring and prosecution of employer discrimination, including sexual harassment, at the workplace. And we need to reward managers who do produce results on the affirmative action front. Third, we must undertake a major restructuring of job categories and pay schedules to eliminate the "gender gap" in wages paid to people with equivalent skills, responsibility, and job stress. Active efforts to integrate individual occupations are a necessary component of such a "comparable worth strategy." State manpower training programs must mandate the training of both women and men for their respective "nontraditional" jobs. We must scrutinize so-called job programs for the target workforces whom they address.

We could begin to eliminate the pay gap with a pioneer program in the public sector. We can change the rigidities and practices of the current State Civil Service system. I

commend to you a comparable-worth project, which would serve as a model for our private-sector employers. The City of San José has already pioneered the comparable-worth strategy. I am reminded of the great leadership of the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) in racial integration of the Southern workforce in the 1930s. Using these strategies to end the pay gap would eliminate 50% of women's poverty, which underscores the extent to which women really are the working poor.

Second, all women in this state are time poor. Although women are spending increasing proportions of their adult years in paid labor, their household responsibilities have not diminished correspondingly. Studies show that men have not been assuming an equitable share of housework and childrearing, nor do most women's wages permit us to send the laundry out, hire a housekeeper, or purchase restaurant meals. According to separate research projects by economists Heidi Hartmann and Claire Brown, a full-time housewife works about four hours a week more than her husband. If she also works for wages, she works sixteen hours more than he does, and you can add another half day to that total for each child in her family. In other words, a working mother with two children works about twenty hours more per week in ~~combined housework and wage work~~ than her husband does. And, if she is a single parent, while she may escape the extra work of cleaning and laundering for a partner, she has sole responsibility for all household work, an even heavier

load.

The most important policy issues here concern child care. We need more, much more, good child care. We need it in our neighborhoods and workplaces. For instance, instead of closing down schoolrooms, as we are now doing in Berkeley and Oakland, we should dedicate a number of classrooms in every neighborhood public school to child care.

In addition, child care stipends must be included in job training programs, because it is simply not possible for mothers to cover the cost of child care while they are learning a skill or apprenticing to a craft. Indeed, a study I did of nonsubsidized child care in Berkeley last year showed that only a family with two professional-level incomes could afford to have more than one child in preschool care. I might add that state support of child care is perhaps the best new investment we can make in our state's economic future. Television, the most widely employed alternative to child care, is not educating our children to be productive members of the society.

The receipt by divorced mothers of child-support payments must also be assured. Only one in four mothers eligible for support actually receive it, and half of all fathers who do pay contribute less than 10% of the family's income. Two sociologists, Carol Brown and Janet Kohen, contend that if all men paid their child support, it would just about wipe out welfare. If the state is willing, as it now is, to

garnishee wages for delinquent taxes, it should consider doing so for court-awarded child-support payments.

But we need more than just money for alleviating women's poverty of time. We need to encourage men to share in the household workload. The state should immediately eliminate practices that discriminate against men in this sphere. For starters, the denial of paternity leave to men who have newborn children seems to me to be a violation of equal rights as well as reinforcing the presumed primary responsibility of women for childrearing. Similarly, the reluctance of most employers to offer "sabbaticals," part-time, or flex-time jobs, and to end involuntary overtime, stifles efforts by women to shift the unequal household workload toward men.

We should also eliminate the rules that deny tax deduction and spousal benefits to lesbian women and gay men and other new family forms. There is no reason why these households should forfeit their rights to benefits and tax breaks normally accorded a family unit. As Diana Pierce stated this morning, no child deserves to be penalized for the marital status of her parents. I would add, nor do the adults in the household deserve such treatment.

A final legislative arena for alleviating time poverty will be the revaluation of many transportation, housing, economic development, and other community programs for their bias in making household work less efficient and more time-

consuming. The current suburban sprawl of our cities and the tendency for severe spatial segregation of land uses greatly increases the travel time of women in getting to work, to the grocery store, to children's extra-curricular activities, and so on. For poor women, who are being increasingly pushed out of central cities by "gentrification," the hassles in coping with sprawling suburbs are compounded by the almost complete absence of decent mass transit. We need to encourage community development policies to preserve and reintegrate home, stores, workplaces, schools, and so forth, rather than the current patterns of huge residential tracts miles from the shopping mall and the industrial park.

Women are rights poor. By that I mean that women's basic right to a decent standard of living and to control over one's major life decisions are abridged by contemporary economic and social conditions. Even if we raise women's pay levels to match men's, we will still have unacceptably high levels of poverty among women. Even if we provide more child care services, and reward men for taking on more housework so that more women could be educated and work, we will still have a severe problem, for several reasons.

First, many poor women are retired and cannot therefore rely on paid employment to counteract their poverty. Second, many poor women are minorities or lesbians and encounter double, or triple, discrimination in seeking employment, housing, and other basic needs. Third, many poor women are

disabled. Finally, many poor women are unemployed because of the widespread malfunctioning and mismanagement of the economy, not because they are unwilling or unable to work. There is no substitute for the right to a decent level of social services for these women. The efforts by the Reagan and Deukmejian administrations to solve budget problems by chipping away at these rights are truly appalling. We must preserve the cost-of-living adjustment in the AFDC formula, because women who rely on AFDC have a right to a stable income and must not be forced to carry the burden of the fiscal crisis alone. We must protect and extend existing levels of medical care, food stamps, and housing programs; they are inadequate at present but the further erosion of these rights would be unconscionable.

It is not only the rights of women to freedom from severe economic straits that is of concern to us, but social rights as well. Women must have the right to determine the timing and spacing of children in their lives, since children are major contributions to both time and pay poverty. We need guarantees of reproductive rights, including Medical funding of abortions. We need maternity leaves. We need assurance that the environmental conditions within which we live and work are healthy, for both our own sakes and our children's.

The three types of poverty are interrelated. If you don't possess reproductive rights, you cannot keep a decent

job, afford child care, or plan your economic future. If you don't have good child care and help with the housework, you can't get or keep a good job or organize to improve your working conditions. If you don't have a job with decent pay, you can't afford child care or that restful MacDonald's supper with your family.

These are great challenges. Clearly, they can be accomplished if we have the will to do so. The "gender gap" emerging in voting patterns suggests that the political will is there. These are not cheap proposals. No historic change has taken place without a commitment of resources. The public sector commitments to make these changes can be financed from progressive taxes and from military budgets. In the eyes of California women, quality child care, decent social services, and affirmative action programs are greatly preferable to yet more tax breaks to industries or another suburb-creating highway interchange. We are asking you today to take seriously the persistent, extraordinary, and growing poverty of women by launching a legislative initiative with this package of women's programs.

TESTIMONY ON COMPARABLE WORTH, EMPLOYMENT TRAINING AND
PROBLEMS OF JOB STRUCTURE AS THEY AFFECT WOMEN IN POVERTY
PANEL, FEMINIZATION OF POVERTY HEARINGS April 8, 1983

*Christine
Curtis*

I am Christine Curtis, Chair of the California Legislative Roundtable which is an umbrella group of women's groups concerned with women's issues before the Legislature. I am also testifying on behalf of California Women Lawyers as its First Vice President. I also am a commissioner on the Marin Commission on the Status of Women, which has been undertaking a needs assessment, financed by a Buck Trust grant through the San Francisco Foundation, of the economic needs of women. I make these remarks based on my experience as the former attorney for the California Legislature's Joint Committee for Legal Equality created to redress sex-based discrimination and as an attorney having worked on sex discrimination issues for twelve years, including comparable worth--for example, serving as a hearing officer in the nine days of State hearings on comparable worth held by the California Commission on the Status of Women and other State agencies.

We have already heard the problems and statistics from prior speakers--women now earn 57¢ or 59¢ on the dollar compared to men. That pay gap is widening, as it was 63¢ or 64¢ several years ago. The gap is larger for minority women or for older women. The pay for minority women is in the 40¢ bracket. Thus, some women are doubly or triply discriminated against--sex plus minority status plus age. For the record, please note these statistics from the U.S. Department of Labor on the earnings gap between men and women.

This pay disparity starts very young--for example, a young girl who gets paid \$1 an hour to babysit compared to a young boy who gets paid \$2 an hour to mow the lawn in the same amount of time. These are basically sex-segregated jobs and they are compensated at a different rate.

To place this pay disparity in context in the Western World, most Western nations also have a 57% to the dollar pay disparity ratio. There are two notable exceptions--Sweden's gap is only 86% to the dollar and Australia's gap is only 77% to the dollar. In Sweden, this is attributable to the fact that 70% of the work force is unionized. In Australia, this is attributable to the fact that they use a prevailing wage system to establish wages for jobs and the government unilaterally raised the wages of women's job classifications to male job classifications from a 57% to a 77% ratio.

There is an obvious pay inequity. As just noted in the Examiner yesterday, the new U.S. Bureau of Census figures are out about the poverty level. The article notes that:

"About half of all families below poverty level were maintained by a woman with no husband present". (and also notes that the number of children in poverty has risen).

Based on my years of experience in sex-based discrimination law and especially in employment-related law, I have concluded that this sex disparate pay issue is primarily based on marital status discrimination. Employers think of women as the secondary breadwinner, earning luxury money for vacations or college education for their children. They think of women moving in and out of the workforce to bear and rear children. Women are not perceived yet as being permanent members of the workforce.

Jobs predominately female, such as nursing, teaching, and child care, are thus given high social value but not correspondingly high economic value. Employers have not focused on the societal fact that our family structure is startlingly changing--only 7% of the United States population now fits the old concept of a family where the husband works, the wife does not work, and there are dependent children. Women are in the workforce because they need to work and an increasing number of women are single heads of households. They thus have not only the work responsibility but the child care and home maintenance responsibility without the necessary earnings for their efforts. They are working for survival.

This pay disparity based on marital status discrimination is exemplified by the male high school teacher who appeared at the Commission comparable worth hearings. In the 1920's, when he entered the highschool teaching profession that had been predominately female, he was paid more than women; he said that it was common for men to be paid more, as a marital status adjustment as they had a family to support. Also, a male legal secretary told me that he was always paid more than female legal secretaries with whom he worked but was told by his bosses not to tell. These two examples illustrate that some employers intentionally discriminate between the sexes in pay and illustrate the concept that women workers are not viewed as the sole or co-equal breadwinner.

The fact that there are many single heads of households who are now working women with children and who are not earning much can no longer be ignored. The current family structure necessitates that sex and marital status discrimination

in pay be redressed.

The problem of lower pay for women's work in the work force is thus present and widening. The disparate pay between male and female workers is obviously inequitable. Redress must come through higher pay for those sex-segregated jobs. The pay problem cannot disappear that easily by transferring women into male-dominated jobs, as currently 80% of the female workforce is in jobs predominately female such as clerks, service workers, teachers, or nurses. Also, because of the sex segregation of jobs, it is unlikely that the equal pay laws which provide for equal pay for equal work based upon equal skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions can be effective--for what male jobs can a woman compare her job with? Such equal pay laws have been on the books since 1949 in California and since 1963 on the federal level but the pay problem has increased instead of decreased; also Title VII and the 1964 Civil Rights Act, as amended, and its counterpart, the State Fair Employment Practices Act, have not until now provided redress for comparable worth inequities.

The job classifications, and thus the pay disparities accorded to those different job classifications filled either predominately by men or by women, emanate from an industrially-based work force in the 40's war effort. The U.S. War Labor Board classified the predominately male job positions in the 40's

so that wages could be frozen during the war and so that there would be "objective" criteria by which they could resolve disagreements. These male-oriented criteria emphasize male characteristics, such as physical effort and physically-difficult

or uncomfortable working conditions, and thus favor men; they also emphasize responsibility and skill which, given past discrimination against women entering into certain job classifications, again would favor men. The courts have interpreted the equal pay statutes to mean jobs substantially equal in skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions. Courts thus have given greater weight to male characteristics and thus have found such jobs unequal: 1) a male orderly because he rotated patients more--using more physical effort--than a female nurse's aide; 2) a male custodian because he pushed a 3-pound wet mop down the hall-- using more physical effort--than a female custodian who pushed a 1/2 pound dry mop around desks; and 3) a male steak cook--who thus had more economic responsibility--than a female cook of less expensive items. An example in the current work force of state personnel is a stock boy who receives supplies at a landing dock--as he is in open weather under adverse working conditions for part of his job--than a female clerk who takes inventory of the stock supplies and who has to work with xerox machines and with the physical effort and stress of typing in one position.

Nurses in Denver decided that there was no other equal male job with which to compare themselves--as, for example, female nurses' aides compared themselves to male orderlies. Also, the nurses decided not to compare their salaries with the salaries of other nurses in the community--the prevailing wage

concept which has long been used to maintain the lower wages of women in sex-segregated jobs. Instead, nurses looked for comparison to what other job of comparable value was performed for

the same employer hospital. They argued that tree trimmers for the hospital should not be paid more than its nurses, or rather that nurses should be paid as much as tree trimmers, as nurses provide direct care for patients--the economic purpose of the hospital. Therefore, nurses have more, or at least equal, value to the employer. The court denied their claim. However, the U.S. Supreme Court in the case of Gunther v. Washington has since decided that cases such as this can be heard under the federal employment anti-discrimination law, Title VII as that that federal law is not limited to equal pay cases only. Similarly, the California Department of Fair Employment and Housing and the Fair Employment and Housing Commission have heard and determined a comparable worth case at the state level. Thus, there currently is some judicial comparable worth redress for pay inequity. However, this judicial law must still be developed and applied to concrete cases.

As this is a legislative hearing, however, I will turn to what the California Legislature can do about this problem and, more specifically, what it can do this year. First, the Legislature can maintain the budgets of several relevant State agencies. The budgets of the State Department of Fair Employment and Housing and the Fair Employment and Housing Commission, the policy and enforcing agencies of the State's employment discrimination laws, are subject to cuts--thus, maintenance of their current budget is essential. The State Department of Industrial Relation's Division of Labor Standards Enforcement enforces the State equal pay act; its budget also should be protected at its current level. The California Commission on the Status of women,

which helped sponsor this informational hearing, which was the lead government agency in the statewide comparable worth hearings and which is the information collection center for this comparable worth and feminization of poverty data, also has a budgetary problem this year and should be protected at its current level. A further commission task to spearhead a comparable worth task force is being considered, which could add to its budget. At this point, I'd like to suggest an addition of a wage negotiator to that bill creating a comparable worth task force. The proposed Task Force is based on the Canadian federal government model which has a negotiator who goes into a particular employer's workplace, upon the invitation of the employer and the female employees who feel they are being discriminated against, to negotiate the wage adjustment. Finally, in terms of the budget, the Legislature should review the status of compensation for State employees in implementing Senator Bill Lockyer's legislation to permit comparable worth for State employees, and the Legislature should insist upon those upward wage adjustments for female State employees in sex-segregated jobs. These are concrete budgetary concerns pertaining to pay issues concerning women before the Legislature this year.

Other concerns before the California Legislature this year are other policy bills related to pay disparity and comparable worth: A bill to clarify that the anti-discrimination employment laws include the concept of comparable worth (Assemblymember Tanner); a bill to prevent an employer from inquiring into the past wage history of an employee or prospective employee and thus breaking the chain of low wages for women

based on past sex-based wage discrimination (Assemblymember Young); a bill to permit/require consideration of comparable worth for local government employees by removing any statute or ordinance requiring use of prevailing wages (Assemblymember Klehs); a bill to include employees of the State University system under the State comparable worth policy (Senator Lockyer); a bill to increase the penalties for equal pay violations (Assemblymember Molina); a bill to provide tax deductions for employers who provide child care at a place of employment (Assemblymember Molina); and, as mentioned, a resolution establishing the task force on comparable worth (Assemblymember Tanner). Thus, the California Legislature now has before it several bills clarifying and/or increasing the legal remedies for equal pay for equal work and for comparable worth.

In the future, the Legislature should examine marital status discrimination; the use of supplemental income pay substitutes such as child care at the place of employment and transportation and housing subsidies; better child support enforcement; the use of prevailing wages, as in Australia, as a means of increasing wages for women rather than as the current practice of maintaining lower discriminatory wages for women; the use of tax incentives, as in Sweden, to employers who make comparable worth adjustments; and effective job training programs.

~~Of course, activity must continue outside of the~~
legislative arena, such as unionization, self-awareness of this issue by women, employer efforts to correct problems, and use of the media to inform the public--such as the effective media illustration of the comparative worth issue when capitol

secretaries called a news conference and washed legislators' cars to demonstrate that they could earn more money washing the legislators' cars than by typing their work.

As an addendum, in response to the question of the Chair of the California Commission on the Status of Women as to what unions are doing about this issue, I note that John Henning, head of the AFL-CIO, appeared at the Commission comparable worth hearing and pledged union support; he suggested the comparable worth task force--which concept is now before the Legislature in Assemblymember Tanner's resolution. Mr. Henning should certainly be asked to sit on that task force.

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CALIFORNIA NOW, INC.

National Organization for Women

543 N. Fairfax Los Angeles, California 90036 (213) 651-1241

The Need for C.O.L.A.s

(Feminization of Poverty Hearing)

April 8, 1983

Good afternoon Mr Chairman, and members of the Human Services Committee. My name is Kay Tsenin, I am the Acting Coordinator of California National Organization for Women, California's largest feminist organization, with over 40,000 members

The condition of women in poverty has long been a priority issue for NOW. It was identified by the founders of NOW in 1966 as one of our 5 major issues on which to take action.

The causes of women's poverty are different from those of men's poverty. For most men the primary cause of poverty is unemployment, for women it is likely to mean being single. For example, after a divorce, mothers must often bear the economic as well as emotional responsibility of child-rearing, a burden that often impoverishes the family. For older women, who generally out live their husbands, becoming a widow often means not only the loss of life long companion but also the loss of their primary means of support. U.S. welfare policies do not work for women because they have been based on the "male pauper" model of poverty and do not take account of the special nature of women's poverty.

In this country 3 out of 4 people living on incomes defined as below the poverty line are women and children. For a woman under 25

without a highschool education , with pre-school aged children there is a 98% probability that she will be relying on AFDC for support. While men with an eighth grade education will be earning more, on the average than women with college degrees. These are staggering statistics, but only slightly more alarming than the fact that 64% of all families headed by women depend on AFDC to survive. Many of those receiving AFDC were middle class families before their marriages ended. Because of earning discrepancies throughout their lifetime, older women are much more likely to live below the poverty line than men are and therefore depend more heavily on SSI/SSP payments. Of the 14% of the elderly who live in poverty, 2/3 are women. In 1978 38% of single women aged 65 or over lived below the poverty line.

I am here today to specifically address the needs of both AFDC and SSI/SSP recipients to receive a full cost of living adjustment. Many would ask, why should California increase our payments to these women, when our grant payments are already the highest in the country. Our grant payments are not the highest in the country and when adjusted to reflect the actual costs of living, the purchasing power of an AFDC recipient (including food stamps) is far below the level of need. California, when adjusted to the cost of living, ranks seventh in the Nation. Rhode Island, Wisconsin, Vermont, New York, Minnesota and Michigan all rank above us in terms of the actual purchasing power of their grants.

Historically AFDC was designed to assist mothers in caring for their dependant children. With inadequate child care available for working mothers and the huge costs involved in placing a child particularly an infant, into child care it is almost impossible for a working mother to both care for her children and work to support them at a low paying job. We saw a tragic example of this just last month. A woman in Orange County, who was on the waiting list for several subsidized child care programs, was forced to leave her 5 year old son home alone, and he was shot and killed by a police officer who mistook the child's toy pistol for a real gun.

There is a common misconception that AFDC recipients remain on welfare indefinitely, depending on state support throughout their lives. In fact, the actual average stay on AFDC is under 2 years. It is a program which should be helping women to make often difficult transitions into the workforce. With the elimination of the working mother's budget and other reductions from the federal Omnibus Reconciliation Act not only have grants been reduced and the number of people eligible to receive aide gone down, but the incentives and assistance to reasonably get off of AFDC have sharply declined. When leaving these recipients in such precarious positions, it is even more critical that the grant levels attempt to keep pace with ever increasing inflation.

Think for a moment what it would mean to try to raise 2 children by yourself with an income of only \$506 a month plus \$72 in food stamps. In this city it is virtually impossible to find an apartment for 3 people for less than \$350. a month. The cheapest 1 bedroom apartment listed in yesterdays Chronicle was \$395.00. Only 10% of AFDC recipients receive housing subsidies.. The \$72 in food stamps translates to about \$18.00 per week for groceries. That hardly provides for any kind of nutritional diet. The lower the cost of a person's rent the higher the utility bills are likely to be , due to inadequate insulation and other factors. Even with Medi-Cal coverage there are certian medical expenses which are unavoidable with young children which would not be covered , like vitamins, bandaids and an increasing number of prescription drugs. Even

a bare bones budget must include some annual allotment for clothing, particularly for growing children, some personal care items such as soap, toothpase, etc. household items like laundry soap, brooms, light bulbs, etc., furniture needs to be replaced occasionally or often bought for the first time, a person needs a certain number of household furnishings such as sheets, towels and cooking utensils.

If you are attempting to get off off of AFDC, costs must be allocated for transportation to work or job interviews, telephone, often the costs of training programs to help gain job skills and child care for when young children must be left alone. Less than 3% of AFDC recipients have access to subsidized child care. It is virtually impossible to keep up with these and any other costs at the current grant levels, and without a cost of living adjustment this year these recipients will fall even further behind. The cuts that will be required in their personal budgets will make it harder and far less likely for them to escape from the welfare roles.

The medical needs of the elderly and disabled are inherently high, and increasing. With the increased cost of share payments now required of all Medi-Cal recipients, a greater portion of the grants of SSI/SSP must now be spent on medical care. C.O.L.A.s for these people must not be traded away.

Given the minimal levels at which both AFDC and SSI/SSP recipients are currently subsisting, any further cutbacks (and no adjustment for the cost of living must be considered a cutback) is most likely to result in an actual increase in state costs. SSI/SSP recipients are likely to require increased institutionalization, at an increased cost to the state. At the same time the health and stress problems of AFDC recipients are bound to rise. Already, research has shown that single parent mothers experience a level of stress significantly higher than that experienced by other groups. Their lives contain violent and emotionally exhausting events, the lack of money takes the greatest toll on their mental health. Depression levels were highest in women living in high density, high crime urban areas, where most AFDC recipients are forced to live. This will create even a higher expenditure of Medi-Cal dollars, as well as increasing the length of stay on AFDC, and ~~prolonging the state's responsibility~~ for their support.

I strongly urge you to support a full cost of living adjustment for both AFDC and SSI/SSP recipients.

April 8, 1983

State Assembly Human Services Committee
Board of Supervisor's Chambers
City Hall
San Francisco, Ca

Dear Committee Members:

I am sorry I am unable to be with you today to personally express my feelings and concerns on the "Feminization of Poverty." I did want, however, to include my experiences in your report in the hope of helping to improve the circumstances in which many women do and will find themselves, so I am sending this letter.

The "Feminization of Poverty" is, unfortunately, a very real and devastating national disaster; one that infuriates, horrifies, and frustrates me and most of the women with whom I have talked. It gives a feeling of hopelessness, a deep seated realization that we, the women of America -- the workers, wives, mothers -- have been abandoned by the society to which we have given and do give our lives, our energies, our hopes, and our dreams.

Sadly, we come to the realization that rather than reward for our contributions, we have been consumed and absorbed by a hungry society who takes our gifts and discards us when the juices dry. The truth is that the women bear most of the responsibilities for the society, children, family, hearth, and have access to few of the resources.

Is this fair? Is it even healthy for the nation? I think not! Who has cared for the children, the aged, the sick, the poor, and the executive? The women have. For this care, they have been paid little, or nothing; their contributions barely acknowledged, except with lip service. It is a deplorable situation, and must be addressed.

My own tale: Long ago, I said to a young husband, "Dear, don't you think you ought to go to college?" "Oh," said he, "good idea, much better than working in a gas station." And so he entered UC Berkeley to become a professional man. Like most of the dutiful wives of the day, I bore the children, changed the diapers, washed the dishes, fed four on \$10 a week, typed the papers he could write, and wrote the papers he could not. We divorced when he finished; a mutual idea.

So, I raised the children (He did provide some money.), worked as a secretary because the children took most of my energy (I wanted to do a good job.), almost got fired once by a male boss when I asked for a raise, went to school nights, and the children grew. Finally, they were grown; fine kids. I was looking forward to taking care of myself. Except, a young man, drunk and careless, sped down a City street, and hit the car my nineteen year old son was riding in. My son was thrown from the car, has serious brain injury, and I am back in the nest again. Permanently, it seems, this time.

I did manage to finish college, work on a Master's, and at age 52 I work for a large public institution in a mediocre, boring job for a mediocre salary that just covers expenses if I struggle. My future, unless I can earn more money, soon -- "A little old lady in a housing project in Vallejo."

And where is "Daddy?" Why he is just fine, thank you. Living quite comfortable in the Bay Area on "MY" college education. He has contributed neither time nor money to our son's care, nor does he intend to. The responsibility is all mine.

Certainly my situation is unusual and dramatic. Nonetheless, there are thousands of women out there, like me, who bore and bear the family responsibilities, but share only in a paucity of ^{the} rewards, and have damn few opportunities.

Economics is the key (More mature husbands and fathers would also help.). But, even in 1983, women are not welcome in the marketplace. There is a subtle war underfoot between men and women that is seriously affecting women's economic security. It is an age old war; it is time to move on.

In 1953, women were not expected, encouraged, or even allowed to hone the skills and talents that would place bread upon the table. The women of my generation have paid dearly for this "ceiling on ability." I am horrified daily at all of the things I was not given the opportunity to learn. To learn them now is very nearly too late. We are expected to care for ourselves in 1983, but only if we do it discreetly, someplace else, and don't get in the way of business. The skill most in demand in the public institution where I work is "handmaidenship," "Office wifeship," and the like -- making the boss (man) feel good, look good and think he is good, whether he is or not. Certainly this is part of many men's business experience, but it is the exception rather than the rule for men. It is the rule in many, if not most places for women. So we are held back from learning top level skills en masse. Treated like "women," expected to behave like "women," and once again losing some important opportunities to learn really good business skills, so we can take care of ourselves, as well as the good salaries.

It is a complicated subject, with many cultural and sociologic aspects that could take weeks to discuss. Since I find myself beginning to ramble, I want to simply say, that women are paying too ~~much~~ ^{many} of the economic prices, far more than their share, far more than most of them deserve, and something must be done -- today; tomorrow will be too late for too many of us.

Thank you for your attention,

Sincerely,


Joan Kisbey-Houston

19 Acacia Road
Fairfax, California 94930

2258 1/2 N. Beachwood Drive
Hollywood, CA 90068
April 5, 1983

Dion Aroner
Room 2188, State Capitol
Sacramento, CA 95814

Re: Hearing on April 8, 1983 in San Francisco on "Feminization of Poverty"

Dear Sir or Ms:

I was asked to attend the above hearing to provide the perspective of the Democratic Socialists of America local Feminist Committee on the proposed budget cuts as they affect women. Due to other commitments, I am unable to attend the hearing, but wished to send you a statement as well as to include materials you might find helpful.

My background is in social work and poverty law. As a result of my work with low income persons in California and Florida, I have learned a lot about the effect of both state and federal budget cutbacks on poor women. As I'm sure you are aware, three out of every five persons with incomes below the poverty level are women. Of particular concern to me, having worked in a program devoted to the legal problems of senior citizens, is the fact that two out of three senior citizens living in poverty are female. I have included a rather detailed packet on legal problems of older women which has statistics defining the extent of the problems facing older women living in poverty.

As feminist-socialists, our DSA group is vitally concerned with the way women are treated in our society. We see further budget cuts as a continued attack on the lives of women and children. The programs which are most important to poor women and their children, such as AFDC, food stamps, Medi-Cal, and programs for abused and neglected children and abused spouses are some of the programs hardest hit by the cutbacks. Not only are we condemning adult women to remaining in the cycle of poverty, we are assuring that their children continue to repeat the process. By failing to eliminate sex discrimination in employment opportunities, education, and equitable wage structures, we are also assuring that women will live in poverty as they grow older.

We support the rights of all women, regardless of their employment status, to a decent income and the ability to provide a decent life for their children. Because of inequities in social security and pensions, older women have fewer resources than do older men to support themselves in their older years. Our society has failed to recognize that each person, regardless of gender, should be able to be a productive citizen and to live in dignity. There are many programs which could expand opportunities for young and older women which should be supported to help to eliminate the injustices that force women into a lifelong cycle of poverty and dependency.

There should be reforms in the tax structure to eliminate the unfair tax breaks for corporations and businesses brought about by Proposition 13. The split roll tax initiative is one example which would provide additional funding for social programs.

Medi-Cal needs to be expanded, at least to cover the classifications who were eliminated from the program last year. The majority of persons called "medically indigent adults" who were eliminated from Medi-Cal coverage last year are women who have worked at low paying jobs, and who now must try to obtain inadequate medical care through overburdened county facilities. The bureaucracy, the waiting, the rudeness of hospital and clinic personnel has been often documented. Many people would rather forego the care they need that go through the ordeal of trying to obtain it through a county facility. As a result, they wait until it is necessary that they be admitted as an emergency patient, which costs the state much more.

Rather than adopting the punitive attitude often displayed by welfare officials and workers, the state should address itself to providing expanded job opportunities for single mothers in jobs that are not dead-end, such as the traditional nurse's aide training. Day care needs to be made available at free or low cost to working parents so that women can take advantage of greater educational and employment opportunities, without worrying that their children will be injured if left unattended.

While we are not optimistic about your ability to bring about some of the changes suggested above in the present climate of our society, we are willing to work with you to accomplish as many of these goals as possible. We appreciate your hard work in bringing the tragic situation of poor women to the public attention. We believe that poverty is used as a tool by those controlling our country to insure that a pool of low cost labor is available, when needed. We also believe that the current backlash against women, particularly poor women, is a last ditch effort to "keep women in line," to make women feel that they are "just a man away from welfare." When the social services system is inadequate and punitive, many women will stay in deplorable marriages or other living situations because the alternatives are so terrible. We urge you to continue your examination of the "feminization of poverty" to uncover the causes in our economic, social, and political system and to remedy them.

Very truly yours,



Marie Janiewski

WOMEN IN POVERTY

Editor's Note: This article is reprinted with permission from the July/September 1981 issue of the Economic Development and Law Center Report which excerpted it from the Final Report of the National Advisory Council on Economic Opportunity, *The American Promise: Equal Justice and Economic Opportunity*. Copies of the full report are available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 20402.

As women head into the 1980s, many are traveling into a world of poverty and dependency. Two out of three poor adults are women,¹ government statistics reveal.² And families headed by women show a steady decline in economic status.

Why are we experiencing this "feminization of poverty"? What is the role of social welfare programs and policies, and what could be the impact of policy on the poverty faced by women? These questions will be addressed in a discussion focusing on the following themes:

- The decade of the Seventies was characterized by a double trend: more of the poor were women, and more women, especially those heading families with minor children, became poor.
- The unusual amount of stress poor women experience exacts a toll on their physical and emotional health. Informal support systems are inadequate substitutes for tangible resources. Sufficient income is essential for improved well-being.
- The causes of women's poverty are different from those of men's poverty. For example, after a divorce, mothers must often bear the economic as well as emotional responsibility of childrearing, a burden that often impoverishes the family. U.S. welfare policies do not work for women because they have been based on the "male pauper" model of poverty and do not take account of the distinct nature of women's poverty.
- Social welfare efforts to reduce welfare dependency and poverty among women are blunted by societal ambivalence toward economic and social freedom of women, as well as by concerns about maintaining marital stability.

- Inappropriate theories of the causes of poverty and inconsistent policies and goals designed to alleviate it have led to the development of a dual welfare system divided according to gender and race. This process combines with the dual labor market to reinforce economic inequality. Those in the secondary sphere of the labor market, who are increasingly and disproportionately women and minorities, find themselves committed to a combination of welfare and marginal work that can be best characterized as a "workhouse without walls."³
- To alleviate women's poverty, social welfare policy must focus on two crucial areas: (1) the services, particularly quality day care, that are essential for wage-earning mothers; and (2) the structures and practices that bar women from jobs now held by men with similar education, skills and experience in the labor force.⁴

American society can reverse the trend toward increased impoverishment of women only by building a social welfare policy that takes into account the distinct nature of women's poverty.

THE FEMINIZATION OF POVERTY

Although the number of poor families changed little between 1969 and 1978, its composition shifted dramatically.

The number of families with male heads (a group that includes families with a husband and wife as well as male-only families) dropped from 3.2 to 2.6 million, while the number headed by women increased by one-third, from 1.8 to 2.7 million.⁵ Today, more than half of the total number of poor families are maintained by women.⁶

3. *Ibid.*, p. 35.

4. Providing essential support services, particularly day care, for women in the paid labor force may enlarge the pool of jobs. But breaking down artificial barriers of gender, as well as race, may simply alter the composition of the poor. That is, if poverty were "de-sexed" and racially integrated, it might then become apparent that unemployment and poverty are structural problems, and not ones associated with particular groups or individuals (e.g., that there are simply not enough jobs to go around). But the current trend is just the opposite towards a concentration of poverty among women and minorities. The structure of the American economy may well have taken a very different form by the time poverty is distributed equally between men and women and between whites and minorities.

5. *Characteristics of the Population Below the Poverty Level: 1978*, in *Current Population Reports*, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census), Series P-60, No. 124, July 1980.

6. *Ibid.*

This article was written by the National Advisory Council on Economic Opportunity.

1. A Statistical Portrait of Women in the U.S., in *Current Population Reports, Special Study*, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census), Series P-23, No. 56, 1976.

2. Diana Pearce, "The Feminization of Poverty: Women, Work and Welfare," *Urban and Social Change Review*, Feb. 1978.

The Seventies saw an even greater shift among black families, as the decrease in poor households headed by black males—from 630,000 to 410,000—was far exceeded by the increase in poor families headed by black females, from 740,000 to 1.2 million. Among families of Spanish origin, about 12 percent of the male-headed and over 50 percent of the female-headed families were poor (see Table 1).⁷

Families with female heads have a poverty rate six times that of male-headed families (see Table 1). When race is taken into account, the poverty rate also increases so that minority families supported by women have even higher rates. More than half live in poverty and currently 40 percent of all black children are poor.

The most recently reported median income for white families nationwide was \$18,370; for Hispanic families, \$12,570; and for black families, \$10,880.⁸ The median income of single mothers was much lower than that of two-parent families.

White mothers had a median income that was only 38 percent of the median income of the two-parent white families; Hispanic mothers, 38 percent of Hispanic family income; and black mothers, 40 percent of black family income.

White mothers had a median income that was only 38 percent of the median income of the two-parent white families; Hispanic mothers, 38 percent of Hispanic family income; and black mothers, 40 percent of black family income.⁹

Some of the trends within groups shown by Table 1 may appear to be contradictory. For example, though income of individual blacks has increased, black family income has decreased relative to that of non-blacks.¹⁰ This is because there are fewer black families with multiple earners, and a rising proportion of black families are headed by women. The number of black families with multiple earners fell by 15 percent, while that of Hispanic families increased by 4 percent, and that of white families increased by 13 percent. At the same time, white families with only one earner declined by 25 percent.¹¹

The largest change, however, is in the category of families with no earners. While the proportions of Hispanic and white families without an adult earner jumped by 29 percent and 34 percent respectively, the proportion of black families in this category increased by 50 percent during the decade of the Seventies.¹² While there has been a marked decline in the proportion of poor families in all groups, the recent recession and the present economic uncertainty have forced many more families into poverty.

If wives and female heads of households were paid the wages that similarly qualified men earn, about half the families now living in poverty would not be poor.¹³ These women workers are handicapped by higher unemployment, more involuntary part-time and seasonal work, fewer increases in income over one's lifetime, and an earnings gap (between male and female) that is widening.

The unemployment rates of women are only slightly higher than those of men. However, unemployment rates are misleading for they count only those who are consistently looking for employment. Those who wish to work but are not actively seek work are termed "discouraged workers." Millions of Hispanics, blacks and women have given up permanently and entered this "underclass."

Many believe the incomes of women workers are low because they choose part-time or seasonal work. Yet of those women who headed households and worked fewer than fifty

weeks in the previous year, one-third stated that they did so because they were unable to find work.¹⁴ An important addition to the incomes of many workers is lucrative overtime work. While approximately one-quarter of men workers work overtime, half that number of women workers do, with comparable effects on income.¹⁵

Union membership further handicaps women employees. One study calculated the value of union membership in the mid-Seventies as an increment of approximately \$650 in annual income.¹⁶ The proportion of women workers who are union members has been declining since 1950, from approximately 15 percent to 11 percent in the late Seventies.¹⁷ Also important, particularly for those who provide the major earnings of their households, are the fringe benefits of union membership.

The 2,380,000 women who are year-round, full-time workers account for approximately one-third of the paid labor force, but they account for 53 percent of those who earn less than \$5,000 per year. (Figures are for 1977, at which time an annual salary at the minimum wage was about \$4,800.) In contrast, of full-time, year round workers who earn \$15,000 or more, only 9 percent are women.¹⁸

7. *Ibid.*

8. *The Status of Children, Youth and Families, 1979*, (Washington D.C.: Department of Health and Human Services, Administration of Children, Youth and Families) 1980.

9. *Ibid.*

10. Reynolds Farley, "Trends in Racial Inequalities: Have the Gains of the 1960's Disappeared in the 1970's?", *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 43, No. —, 1978.

11. *The Status of Children, Youth and Families, 1979*, *Op. Cit.*

12. *Ibid.*

13. Patricia C. Sexton, *Women and Work* (R & D Monograph No. 46), (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration) 1977.

14. *Characteristics of the Population Below the Poverty Level: 1978*, *Op. Cit.*

15. *The Earning Gap Between Women and Men*, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau) 1979.

16. Sally Hillsman Baker, "Women in Blue-Collar and Service Occupations," in A. Stromber and B. Harkess, eds., *Women Working*, (Palo Alto, California: Mayfield Publishing Co.) 1977.

17. Linda H. LeGrande, "Women in Labor Organizations: Their Ranks are Increasing," *Monthly Labor Review*, August 1978.

18. *The Earning Gap*, *Op. Cit.*

One effect of these handicaps and low earnings is that the presence of earners in households headed by women does not necessarily eliminate poverty. In fact, 21 percent of female-headed households with income from earnings are poor.¹⁹

Gender and minority status constitute especially acute problems for teenagers. Teenage mothers enjoy little economic mobility; many do not increase their earnings after age 16.

At the same time, earning curves for men continue to rise during their early and middle years.²⁰

Young adults born in the "baby boom" after World War II were impacted by overcrowded schools and a depressed economy. Their sheer numbers have trapped them into a permanent disadvantaged status. These young people entered a shrinking labor market, and their rate of entry into the job market was six times that of the previous generation.

Young adults (even members of the traditionally privileged class) face a bleak future. The minority teenager has become a permanent member of the underclass whose prospects are worse now than they were for any group during the Great Depression.²¹

FEMALE-HEADED FAMILIES

Between 1960 and 1978, the percentage of female-headed households with children younger than 18 increased from 57 percent to 69 percent of all female-headed households. Among minority female-headed households the percentage with children is 81 percent.²²

Two out of every five marriages in the United States end in divorce and the figures are higher for teenage marriages. The most recent data indicate that 50 percent of all children can expect to live in one-parent homes for a significant part of their lives.²³

The proportion of white families dependent on women increased from 8 to 12 percent between 1970 and 1978; black female-headed families from 31 to 37 percent.²⁴

The number of single parents who were never married has soared 109 percent chiefly because of teenage pregnancy.

Those whose spouses were absent (military, jobs, illness, jail) increased by 24 percent, and those who were separated increased by 29 percent. The number of widows increased by 15 percent.²⁵

Table 2 indicates a wide variation in the incidence of poverty by marital status, which reflects both class differences (desertion is often the "divorce" of the poor) and the different source of support each marital status group receives.

19. *Characteristics of the Population Below the Poverty Level: 1978, Op. Cit.*

20. U.S. Civil Rights Commission, quoted in *Washington Post*, August 2, 1980, p. A2.

21. L. Jones, *American and the Baby Boom Generation*, (New York: Coward Books) 1980.

22. *Characteristics of the Population, Op. Cit.*

23. *The Status of Children, Youth and Families, 1979, Op. Cit.*

24. Beverly L. Johnson, "Women Who Head Families, 1970-1977: Their Number Rose, Income Lagged," *Monthly Labor Review*, February 1978; and *Characteristics of the Population, Op. Cit.*

25. *The Status of Children, Youth and Families, 1978, Op. Cit.*

TABLE 1

Percentage of Families in Poverty*
In 1978, by Sex of Head, Race, Age, and Presence of Children

	All Families	Families with Male Head	Families with Female Head
All Families:	9.1%	5.3%	31.4%
White Families	6.9%	4.7%	23.5%
Head < 25 years old	13.2%	6.4%	53.6%
With related children < 18 years old	9.3%	4.7%	33.5%
Black Families	27.5%	11.8%	50.6%
With head < 25 yrs. old	49.0%	20.4%	69.5%
With related children < 18 years old	34.4%	11.8%	58.8%
Spanish origin	20.0%	12.4%	53.1%
Head < 25 years old	30.6%	—	—
With related children < 18 years old	24.1%	—	(69.9)**

*Poverty status is defined as having a money income below the poverty threshold which is approximately three times the cost of an "emergency" minimal diet, varied by farm/nonfarm status and size of family (see Source for further details). For a nonfarm family of four in 1978, the figure was \$6662.

**Figure is for persons, rather than families (the latter was not given), and is therefore probably several points higher than the family figure would be.

Source: Bureau of the Census, *Characteristics of the Population Below the Poverty Level: 1978, Series P-60, No. 124*, (U.S. G.P.O., Washington, D.C., 1980).

TABLE 2

1978 Poverty Rates of Female-Headed
Families, by Marital Status

Marital Status of Household Head	Percent in Poverty (1978)
Widowed	15.1%
Divorced	16.1%
Single (never married)	46.2%
Married, husband absent	50.5%

Source: *Characteristics of the Population Below the Poverty Level: 1978, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C., Series P-60, No. 124, 1980.*

TABLE 3

Average Monthly AFDC Payments
Per Person
June, 1979

State	Average Payment
Mississippi	\$26
Alabama	\$38
Texas	\$36
Illinois	\$84
Indiana	\$65
District of Columbia	\$83
New York	\$119
Maine	\$77
North Dakota	\$92
Arizona	\$92
California	\$53
Washington	\$115
Virginia	\$74

3 Source: Sar Levitan, *Programs in Aid of the Poor for the 1980s* (Baltimore, The Johns Hopkins Press, 1980), p. 31.

Marital breakup in a family with children typically leaves the man alone, while the woman becomes a single parent. Unlike widows whose economic loss has been made less devastating by Social Security including Supplemental Security Income (SSI) and Old Age Survivor Disability Insurance (OASDI), other groups of single parents rarely find private and public transfers sufficient to make up the deficit.

A national survey in 1975 found only 25 percent of those eligible actually received child support, and 60 percent of those who did received less than \$1,500.²⁶ Half the fathers who did pay support contributed less than 10 percent of their income.

In the group of single families that results from divorce, black women fared worst in terms of child-support payments. Child support payments were awarded by the court to 71 percent of the white women, 44 percent of the Hispanic women, and 29 percent of the black women. The level of support payments showed the same pattern: The white mother was awarded \$2,800; the Hispanic mother, \$1,320; and the black mother, \$1,290.

26. Joanne Schulman, "Poor Women and Family Law," *Clearinghouse Review*, February 1981.

Poorly educated women are less likely to receive alimony, child support or maintenance payments.²⁷ Less than half of the 12 million divorced women received property following divorce, but in 1979 the median value of property received was only \$4,650.²⁸

For the 1.4 million mothers who have never been married, the situation is extremely bleak. Only 8 percent were slated to receive support, and only 5 percent were ever paid.²⁹

Women who rely on public transfer payments fare dismally. Depending on the state, welfare payments range from 49 to 96 percent of the poverty level.³⁰ The average family payment in 1977 was \$241 per month (the average size of a family on welfare is approximately three persons).³¹ The real value of the average welfare payment, accounting for inflation and the declining size of recipient households, has decreased by approximately 20 percent in the last decade.³²

Table 3 shows welfare payment levels of some states. Female-headed families maintained on non-earned income averaged \$5,314 in 1978, while all female-headed families averaged \$10,689.

These amounts stand in stark contrast to the average income for families headed by men (including husband-wife families), which was \$21,703.³³

Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) originally grew out of concern about the damage the loss of a father would be to the family, yet today there is virtually no sanction, either legal or informal, against the father who contributes little or nothing for the support of his offspring.

And where fathers cannot or will not pay, the attempt to ameliorate the poverty of the mothers and children is inadequate.

STRESS, POVERTY AND THE SINGLE MOTHER

The most vulnerable aspect of the female-headed home is finances. All families of all races experienced a loss of real income between 1973 and 1978.³⁴

The lower income of black families, and specifically black female-headed families, placed many at or below the poverty level (see Table 1).

Research has shown that single-parent mothers experience a level of stress significantly higher than that experienced by other groups.

Within the single-parent mother population those who have never been married experience even greater strain. Several authors have detailed the unfavorable physical, emotional and

27. Child Support and Alimony, *Special Study*. (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census), Series P-23, No. 106, 1978.

28. "Divorced Women: The Myth of Alimony, Property Settlements and Child Support," *Marriage and Divorce Today*, November 24, 1980.

29. *Ibid.*

30. Sar A. Levitan, *Programs in Aid of the Poor for the 1980's*, Fourth Edition, (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press) 1980.

31. Dorothy T. Lang, "Poor Women and Health Care," *Clearinghouse Review*, February 1981.

32. HHS Memo, February 1981.

33. *Characteristics of the Population*, Op. Cit.

34. *The Status of Children, Youth and Families*, 1979.

social impact of the teenage pregnancy.³⁵

Despite the cultural preference for meeting crises and family needs within the extended kin-help network and through friends, families may often experience a level of stress and lowered personal satisfaction that forces them to seek assistance from the wider community.

Even when they were well above the poverty level, single mothers in one study experienced significantly more tension than those who were married.³⁶

On a checklist of 91 life events requiring change and readjustment, most community surveys have shown that individuals experience an average of two such events a year.³⁷ In contrast, mothers in a Boston study of 43 black and white low-income women reported an average of 14 such events during the past two years.³⁸ Though their lives included violent and emotionally exhausting events, the lack of money took greatest toll on their mental health. Depression levels were high in these women living in high-density, high-crime urban areas.

A later study showed that working-class single mothers who were supporting themselves but still earned salaries that placed them just above the poverty level, were under extreme stress caused by finances, housing concerns and problems at work, in that order.³⁹

Safe, dependable day care was needed. Mothers tended to be particularly bothered by the conflicting demands of motherhood, employment, and their social and private lives. Many felt they were underpaid but wanted to work because, as one woman stated, she had once been on welfare and that was "the worst experience in my life."

One of the strongest ethnic-minority cultural patterns is extensive help systems.

The family's effective environment is composed of a network of relatives, friends and neighbors that provides emotional support and economic supplements and, most important, protects the family's integrity from assault by external forces.

Viewing the higher proportion of one-parent families as unstable ignores the extended family adaptation bonds.⁴⁰ Many groups maintain a strong extended family system despite mobility.⁴¹

Only recently have researchers begun to recognize similar patterns in black families. The black extended family has demonstrated a source of strength and a protection against isolation in the larger society.⁴²

The degree of kin interaction is often overlooked in research studies that focus only on structural features. There is a need to determine the norms and values of family interaction and to examine how the process relates to the forces shaping it.⁴³

The kinship network is more than an extension of family relationships.⁴⁴ It can be considered a system of social relationships pertaining to an individual's place in society. The major activity of the kin network is the exchange of material and nonmaterial help.

The use of social networks has been shown to be important to the functioning of successful single parents.⁴⁵ In one study, the support systems and proven coping patterns of single Puerto Rican mothers were found to be most important to maintaining their stability. Their support structures were composed of relatives (usually mothers and sisters), boyfriends or former husbands, neighbors, and religious beliefs.

Not all mothers live near relatives or desire to be totally dependent upon kin. The ties they form with other mothers and close friends increase their ability to cope with the stress of their multiple roles.

The "friend-network" can be considered a kind of community, a social world outside the single parent's home.⁴⁶

While often emotionally supportive, the extended family can provide only limited financial help to a family in poverty. These kin and family support systems contrast sharply to public welfare programs and policies which sometimes undermine the positive effects of support systems and increase the stress experienced by single-parent families.

CAUSES AND CURES FOR POVERTY: MEN vs. WOMEN

Women are poor for different reasons than men are poor. This is not to say that needy women and men do not ever share poverty-causing characteristics; in fact, many women experience poverty because their husbands are poor. But many women are in poverty "in their own right."

One way to view the nature of poverty among women is to study the various factors and causes of poverty by gender. These factors can be schematically arranged to modify a method of categorizing theories of racial inequality.⁴⁷ Various theories

35. W. Hambridge, "Teen Clinics," *Obstetrics and Gynecology*, Vol. 43, No. 3, 1974; M. Lane, "Contraception for Adolescents," *Family Planning Perspectives*, Vol. 5, No. 1, Winter, 1973; J. Dravits and S. Smith, "The Acceptance of a Family Clinic by recently Delivered Teenagers," *Southern Medical Journal*, Vol. 67, No. 7, July 1974.

36. H. McAdoo, "Factors Related to Stability in Upwardly Mobile Black Families," *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, Vol. 40, No. 4, 1978.

37. B. Dohrenwend, "Social Status and Stressful Life Events," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 28, 1973, pp. 225-235.

38. B. Bell, et al., "Depression and Low-Income Female-Headed Families," *Families Today*, Vol. 1, NIMH Science Monograph, (Rockville, Md.: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services) 1979.

39. H. McAdoo, "Role of Black Women in Maintaining Stability and Mobility in Black Families," L. Rose (Ed.), *The Black Woman: Current Research and Theory*, (Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications) May 1980.

40. C. Hamilton, "Just How Unstable is the Black Family?" *New York Times*, August 1, 1971.

41. M. Sussman, *Sourcebook in Marriage and the Family*, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin) 1974.

42. R. Hill, *The Strengths of Black Families*, (New York: Emerson Hall) 1971.

43. R. Staples, *The Black Women in America*, (Chicago: Nelson Hall Publishing) 1973.

44. E. Farber, *Kinship and Class*, (New York: Basic Books) 1971.

45. A. Barry, "A Research Project on Successful Single-Parent Families," *American Journal of Family Therapy*, Vol. 7, No. 3, Fall 1979, pp. 65-73.

46. R. Weiss, *Going it Alone, the Family Life and Social Situation of the Single Parent*, (New York: Basic Books) 1979.

47. Mark Chesler, "Contemporary Sociological Theories of Racism," in Phillis A. Katz, ed., *Towards the Elimination of Racism*, (New York: Pergamon Press) 1976.

designate a wide range of causes of poverty originating within the victims themselves at one extreme, and originating outside the victim group at the other.

Women, especially minority women, may be poor for some of the same reasons as men, but few men become poor because of "female" causes. Men generally do not become poor because of divorce, sex-role socialization, sexism, or, of course, pregnancy.

Distinct reasons for the poverty among women can be traced back to two sources.

First, in American culture women continue to carry the major burden of childrearing. This sex-role socialization has many ramifications. For example, women tend to interrupt their participation in the labor force to bear children and a woman is the parent who wins child custody in the overwhelming majority of cases.⁴⁸

The second major source of poverty among women is the kind of limited opportunities available to women in the labor market. Occupational segregation, sex discrimination and sexual harassment combine to limit both income and mobility for women workers.⁴⁹ The interaction of these two sources is illustrated by society's view of child care and child-care workers. It is virtually only women who do child-care work.

Since it is women who pay for child care, either because they have custody or because it is viewed as an expense incurred because the wife is working, and because so many women earn substantially less than men, child-care workers earn very low wages.

Thus the two fundamental sources of female poverty combine to keep women in an economic "ghetto." When these factors interact with minority status, youth, or old age, there is an even greater likelihood of being poor.

Poverty among men, by contrast, is often seen as the consequence of joblessness, and therefore it is concluded that the cure for poverty is a job. Only the theories as to what causes joblessness have varied.

When the primary cause was considered alcoholism, then alcohol treatment was emphasized. When it was thought to be laziness, workhouses and poorhouses were set up. When it was believed to be racial discrimination, equal opportunity programs and affirmative action requirements were instituted.

In each case, however, the program's goal was to put poor to work. It was assumed that once employed, people would no longer be poor.

For most poor men, the crucial issue is overcoming barriers to employment. Most men who work can support themselves and their families. In one study, less than five percent of families with children and a male wage-earner were poor.⁵⁰

But many women cannot, by themselves, support themselves and their families. Women who work full-time, year-round, earn only 59 percent of what men earn.⁵¹

Particularly for poor women, who are generally lower-than-average in skills and education, getting a job is not a panacea. The woman with a college education earns less on the average than a man with an eighth-grade education, and the opportunity for a woman with an eighth-grade education to earn a "living wage" is considerably limited.⁵²

Poverty among hundreds of thousands of women already working underlines the failure of the "job" solution.

Of the working mothers who headed households with children less than 18 years old in 1978, more than one-quarter had incomes below the poverty level.⁵³ Even among those currently on welfare, a substantial portion are also in the labor force (about 24 percent), while of those who are long-term recipients of AFDC, one-half have worked within the past year.⁵⁴

In other words, even a full-time job does not provide a route out of poverty for women with the same certainty that it does for many men who are poor.

Occupational segregation confines women to job "ghettoes" where pay is little or nonexistent.

Why does the "job" solution not work for women? First, occupational segregation confines women to job "ghettoes" where pay is low and mobility is little or nonexistent.

The concentration of women in a handful of jobs is extreme: 60 percent of all women are found in 10 occupations including nursing and elementary teaching.⁵⁵ Almost all of the "new" jobs for women that have emerged, particularly in the Seventies, have been in traditionally female-dominated areas such as retail sales, and are occupations that tend to be low wage and dead end. The latest data suggest that this concentration and segregation does not seem to be declining.⁵⁶

Second, those women who manage to avoid gender-restricted jobs encounter sex discrimination in salary, promotions, benefits and/or sexual harassment. Breaching admission barriers of previously male-dominated (often, white male-dominated) occupations and professions does not bring immediate and full equal opportunity.

These difficulties are exacerbated if the women involved are minority as well. The experience of women who have sought jobs outside traditionally female occupations recalls that situation with the small number of black children who attended schools in the South under "freedom of choice." In both instances, the newcomers encountered harassment, social isolation.

52. *The Earnings Gap*, Op. Cit.

53. *Characteristics of the Population Below the Poverty Level: 1978*, Op. Cit.

54. "Long-term" refers to those who received public assistance for four or more consecutive years out of the last seven; see Martin Rein and Lee Rainwater, "Patterns of Welfare Use" *Social Service Review*, December, 1978.

55. Stromberg and Harkness.

56. Francine D. Blau and Wallace E. Hendricks, "Occupational Segregation by Sex: Trends and Prospects," *The Journal of Human Resources*, Vol. 14, No. 2.

48. Allyson S. Grossman, "Divorced and Separated Women in the Labor Force—an Update," *Monthly Labor Review*, October, 1978.

49. M. Blaxall and B. Reagan, *Women and the Workplace: The Implications of Occupational Segregation*, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press) 1976.

50. *Characteristics of the Population Below the Poverty Level: 1978*, Op. Cit.

51. *Ibid.*

tion, and threats to integrity and motivation.

Given that a job often does not alleviate poverty for women, nor even enable them to do without welfare payments, what has been the response of the welfare system? In brief, it has been to continue its stress on the "work incentive," and to develop programs that deal with barriers to employment often experienced by men—lack of job-search skills, experience in the labor force, or job training—while ignoring the special problems women face, such as segregation, sex discrimination, and sexual harassment.

The welfare system continues to push the recipient—who is almost always a woman—to go to work, even if employment neither lifts her from poverty nor frees her from the need for welfare money.

Welfare programs force women into the labor market and reinforce their economic disadvantages in a number of ways.

In the decade of the Seventies, several programs, most notably the Work Incentive Program (WIN), were transformed to decrease their effectiveness for women. These changes included deemphasizing vocational and on-the-job training in favor of direct job placement, particularly in jobs created by the Comprehensive Employment Training Act (CETA). In addition, some services, particularly child care and transportation, were decreased.

Although men represented only 26 percent of the WIN registrants, they accounted for over one-third of those who secured unsubsidized jobs. Many women who were potentially eligible for the WIN program were exempted because they had a child under six years old, were needed in the home as a caretaker, or were aged, ill or disabled.

If they do not fit the "male pauper" model, then they do not fit the program.⁵⁷

Although 90 percent of the women in CETA programs have children, these programs also fail to provide child care.

CETA programs, although not usually targeted as "welfare" programs, were designed not only to serve women equally, but also to overcome "sex-stereotyping" in occupational assignment. However, women did not always overcome inequality and sex-stereotyping.

In one case, a women CETA participant sued her program because she had been offered the choice of secretarial or cooking class. When she sought to transfer to a computer repair class, she was refused. At the same time, a male student in the secretarial class was allowed to transfer.⁵⁸

Several evaluations of CETA and WIN have indicated that women, minorities, and youth have been underserved both in comparison to their proportion in the population and in proportion to their registration in the program.⁵⁹ Particularly where the training programs have been in occupations traditionally

dominated by males, few women have participated.⁶⁰

Sometimes women and men receive different forms of training. Women receive small stipends or "work experience" at the minimum wage, while men receive public service jobs which are full time and pay \$8,000 per year and up.⁶¹

The structure of CETA and poor monitoring procedures of CETA also make it difficult to determine exactly how well women are being served, but it is clear that gender-related differences do occur.

In terms of income, programs such as WIN and CETA not only provide employment opportunities for disproportionately more men, but they also increase the earnings of men more than of women.

In 1978, WIN placed women in jobs whose average entry wage was \$2.97 per hour. Fewer than five percent were paid more than \$5.00 per hour. In contrast, the man placed through WIN averaged \$4.01 per hour, and more than 20 percent entered jobs paying \$5.00 per hour or more.⁶²

AMBIVALENT SOCIAL WELFARE POLICIES

Inconsistencies in social welfare policy may simply reflect the general ambivalence in American society about the role and status of women. Enabling women to become "primary" earners is not yet a societal goal.

While it has become increasingly acceptable and even expected that a woman will work, it is also expected that her job will be secondary both to her husband's job (the husband still being the "primary" earner) and to her home and family responsibilities. The stability of the marriage is often considered to be endangered if the woman earns more than her spouse. Yet more and more women are becoming displaced homemakers and/or heads of their own households. For these women, the social role of "secondary" earner is dysfunctional.

While it is clear that the American family structure is undergoing major transition, it is also clear that there is not a consensus on the question of whether women should be equal and/or independent heads of households. Social welfare policies reflect this uncertainty as they steer between the dual objectives of making women independent enough to leave welfare, but not too independent.

"Female independence" has two components: social independence, that is, heading one's own household; and economic independence, being economically self-sufficient.

"Social independence" policymakers have long worried that welfare programs generally, as well as some welfare policies specifically, may inadvertently cause marriages to break up and/or may encourage the formation of single-parent households.

For example, the development of Aid to Families with Dependent Children-Unemployed Parent (AFDC-UP) programs in many states was based on the conviction that eligibility for

57. Department of Health and Human Services Memo, February 1981.

58. Deborah Bachrach, "Women in Employment," *Clearinghouse Review*, February, 1981.

59. Donald C. Baumer, C. Van Horn and M. Marvel, "Explaining Benefit Distribution in CETA Programs," *The Journal of Human Resources*, Vol. 14, No. 2.

60. "Need to Ensure Non-Discrimination in CETA Programs," *Publication*, (Washington, D.C.: Office of the Comptroller General), June 17, 1980.

61. *Ibid.*

62. *Ibid.*

welfare should not be predicated on the unemployed father leaving the home. Much concern has also been expressed about the finding that families in the Negative Income Experiment (who receive high and guaranteed incomes compared to similar families using regular programs) had significantly higher divorce rates than did their counterparts.⁶³

Certainly, social welfare programs should not cause families to break up, nor should they exacerbate the poverty that women and children frequently experience as a result of such break-ups. But there is strong evidence that the role social welfare programs play in family break-ups is not primary.

First, the rate of divorce has been rising steadily but dramatically at all income levels. It would be difficult to argue that middle-class families that break up do so for such reasons as incompatibility and unfaithfulness, but poor families do so in order to become eligible for welfare, especially since many of those receiving AFDC were middle-class families before their marriages ended.⁶⁴

Second, one should at least ask what kind of marriage and family life previously existed in the families such as those in the Negative Income Experiment for whom a relatively small increment of guaranteed income apparently led to divorce. An increase in divorce is a fact upon which social welfare policies can have relatively little impact.

This trend should be assumed, at least by public agencies. To treat it otherwise is to develop, *de facto*, two sets of rules, one for the poor and one for the non-poor. While the nonpoor are permitted to choose freely among life-styles, the poor are presented with the choice of marriage or poverty (at least for the women and children). Contemporary welfare policy may be forcing such a choice.

Social welfare efforts to make poor women self-supporting have frequently enabled them to enter the labor force only as marginal workers. For increasing numbers of women, the presence of even a few dependent children has required combining work and welfare, concurrently or alternately.⁶⁵

DUAL WELFARE SYSTEMS, DUAL LABOR MARKETS, AND GENDER INEQUALITY

The concept of the dual labor market has been developed elsewhere.⁶⁶ This concept divides the labor market into two spheres, the primary and the secondary. Relatively few workers move between the two.

The *primary sector* is characterized by high wages, job security, fringe benefits, a high degree of unionization, and due process in terms of job rights.

The *secondary sector* is characterized by low wages, low security, part-time and seasonal work, few fringe benefits, little protection from arbitrary employer actions, and a low rate of unionization.

The duality in the welfare system complements and supports the inequality in the labor market itself. Over all, the *primary sector* of welfare seeks to minimize the costs to the individual when the system fails, as when there is high unemployment in a geographically concentrated industry. It seeks to enable workers to move from job to job without impoverishing them or their families.

The *secondary welfare sector*, on the other hand, seeks to provide only the most minimal support to meet basic needs. It also seeks to subsidize low-wage workers (and through them, low-wage industries) by providing some of the support services, such as health care through Medicaid, found in the fringe benefits of the primary sector.⁶⁷

These very different goals and patterns of services create two worlds differentiated by poverty rates, gender, and race. In neither the labor market nor the welfare system are the two groups entirely identifiable by gender. Men, especially white men, comprise the primary sector, while women and minorities make up the secondary sector. This division forces people to circulate between employment and unemployment within either the primary or the secondary sectors, but not between sectors, thus making the inequality of opportunity and achievement between the two worlds permanent.

In the primary sector, workers enjoy jobs with high pay and good fringe benefits, and if they do lose their jobs they are compensated relatively generously through unemployment compensation and/or union supplementary benefits.

AFDC functions as the poor woman's unemployment compensation.

In contrast, in the secondary sector workers find themselves at relatively low-wage jobs with little job security and few fringe benefits. Should they lose their jobs—which happens relatively more frequently than in the primary sector—they may have to turn to public assistance. Indeed, AFDC functions as the poor woman's unemployment compensation.⁶⁸

Because such benefits as health care and child care are available only to those secondary workers through being "on welfare," many in this sector participate in both the labor market and the welfare system. This is especially true for women, and even more so for minority women. Although

63. John Bishop, *The Journal of Human Resources*.

64. Nancy R. Mudrick, *The Use of AFDC by Previously High- and Low-Income Households*, *Social Service Review*, March 1978.

65. Rein and Rainwater, *Op. Cit.*

66. David M. Gordon, *Theories of Poverty and Underemployment: Orthodox, Radical and Dual Labor Market Perspectives*, (Lexington, Mass.: Heath & Co.) 1972.

67. There is an incentive for the employer to reinforce this dual welfare/labor market. By hiring mostly women, and paying them low wages and/or firing them in ways so that they use AFDC as unemployment compensation or as a wage supplement, the employer knows they will be minimally supported. But if the employer's former employees utilize unemployment compensation, under most state systems his contribution to the unemployment compensation system is increased. Thus the employer that "uses" AFDC instead of unemployment compensation can pay both low wages and save on the unemployment compensation taxes.

68. AFDC disproportionately "benefits" women, many of whom are unemployed. But whether unemployment compensation, in terms of numbers and dollars, disproportionately benefits men cannot be determined with the statistics available as of this writing.

theoretically one could work one's way into the primary sector, in reality the secondary welfare and work sectors reinforce each other in a vicious circle, keeping workers in the secondary sector.⁶⁹

An example of the preferred treatment primary workers receive is the Trade Readjustment Act. Under its provisions workers who are laid off or lose their jobs because of competitive imports receive up to 70 percent of their wages for up to 52 weeks. Eighty-seven percent of union members in the auto industry, for example, hard hit by imports, are men.

By contrast, for the increasing number of women workers who have lost their jobs as homemakers through divorce, there is no provision allowing a year-long search for a job, much less one at such highly remunerative rates.

One evaluation of training programs for AFDC mothers focused on those who received their training in New York City and who were thus eligible for unemployment compensation if they did not find work. (In many locales, training programs are not counted as employment, even if they provide wage-level stipends.)

The evaluation showed that women who receive unemployment compensation remained unemployed longer than those who did not receive it. While admitting that unemployment compensation might have made possible a longer job search resulting in a better job, the evaluators described it as having decreased the recipients' "work effort."⁷⁰

The disparity in treatment between the primary and secondary sectors is more than a matter of remuneration or eligibility. It derives from a fundamentally different conception of men workers and women workers: Men disadvantaged by factors such as imports and recessions should be compensated in a way that will facilitate their readjustment via training, relocation and further education, that is, they have a "right" to the opportunity of good, self-supporting jobs.

In contrast, women disadvantaged because of divorce, poor vocational training or preparation, or low education, should be helped—or forced—to take any job and any childcare as quickly as possible, even if the job does not provide them with sufficient income to support themselves.

TOWARD A NEW UNDERSTANDING OF WOMEN IN POVERTY

Women in poverty are workers. As workers they face specific gender-related barriers to full and equal participation in the labor force, and they require specific services to support that participation. If one considers homemaking and childrearing

as unpaid work, nearly all "able-bodied" women are workers for most of their adult lives. As workers, women suffer a number of disadvantages that must be addressed if they are to achieve equal status and economic independence.

These disadvantages begin with a socialization process which through nonverbal pictures as well as the written and spoken word set forth limited goals and constrained opportunities for girls growing up.⁷¹

Two general themes pervade the message about vocational choices for girls. The future home and family are the first and primary occupation, and most women should enter occupations that are predominantly female and low in authority, status and pay (in contrast to equivalent male occupations, e.g., nurse vs. doctor).

These messages continue unchanged. A mid-Seventies study sought to find ten secondary schools that were "pacesetters" in placing female students into nontraditional vocational tracks. It found none.⁷² In 1980, in eight of the nine traditional areas of vocational education, 75 to 90 percent of the students were men. (The exception is "distributive education," having to do with sales and distribution.)⁷³

Even within a particular area of vocational education, women are disadvantaged. A study of a garment-industry vocational high school in New York City found that whites and males were disproportionately found in the highest of four tracks in terms of pay and status, while women and minorities were over-represented in the lowest.⁷⁴

Moreover, after graduation, the latter groups were less successful in getting good paying jobs than those in the top track. Ironically, members in the top track often leave the field, ignoring their skills and getting jobs outside of the low-wage garment industry.⁷⁵

When women choose to leave paid work to become full-time homemakers and/or mothers, their disadvantages begin to multiply.

This interruption of work experience is worsened because it usually occurs when earnings would be peaking, and in many occupations it permanently sidetracks a woman from an upwardly-mobile career ladder.

If a woman is disabled while out of the paid labor force, she is not eligible for disability insurance.

If a woman becomes a "displaced homemaker," as the increasing rates of divorce make more likely, she finds that her years of unpaid work, including volunteer work outside the home, are given no value as "work experience" and are also held against her, particularly if her absence from the labor force has been quite long.

Finally, displaced homemakers and mothers attempting to re-enter the job market are often ineligible for unemployment compensation because they are not classified as "workers."

69. The federal government reinforces the secondary status of women workers. In the program "While Actually Employed" (WAE), which has the ostensible purpose of helping to ease the transition of women returning to the work world, women are "allowed" to work fewer than eight hours per day and to set their own hours. In return, they are paid the minimum wage (though many have college degrees), are not paid on federal holidays, have no vacation, no lunch hour, no health or other "fringe" benefits and no promotional opportunities, and can be fired with one day's notice.

70. *Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation, Summary and Findings of the National Supported Work Demonstration*, (Cambridge, Mass.: Ballinger Publishing Co.) 1980.

71. *Women on Words and Images, Dick and Jane as Victims: Sex Stereotyping in Children's Readers*, (Princeton, N.J.): 1975.

72. Kathleen B. Boundy, "Sex Inequities in Education," *Clearing-house Review*.

73. *Ibid.*

74. Baker, *Op. Cit.*

75. *Ibid.*

Quality child care is essential. Without the knowledge that one's children are being taken care of by responsible and loving people, it is impossible, logistically and psychologically, to work self-sufficiently. Yet social welfare programs frustrate that objective by nonexistent or inconsistent support of day-care service.

Although relatives often provide the most trusted and preferred care, it is difficult or impossible to obtain reimbursement for such care. Publicly-funded child-care opportunities address only a small proportion of the need and may become scarce in the future. It is difficult to understand the lack of concern about adequate child-care opportunities. Children are society's future, and investment in them benefits society as a whole, as well as their mothers.

Occupational segregation locks many women into jobs and careers holding no potential for economic self-sufficiency. Designing and implementing programs that enable women, particularly those with low skills, minority status, and other disadvantages, to enter male-dominated occupations requires much effort and perseverance. But almost two decades of experimentation and research have indicated that it can be done. The wall between the primary and secondary sector is not easily breached, but the alternative is to perpetuate the present system, a cruel hoax under which women are pushed to work yet are not allowed to achieve independence.

CONCLUSIONS

We live in a time of transition. More and more women are in charge of households and support their children alone or virtually alone.

But even as their numbers increase, their economic status does not improve, leaving most poor. This is true regardless of income source.

In spite of increased participation in the labor force, occupational segregation and discrimination have prevented improvement in women's earnings compared to men. Child support, which becomes more important as rates of divorce and

illegitimacy increase, is so minimal that even the one- or two-child family runs a high risk of becoming poor if the father leaves. And welfare, though it supports a large percentage of the eligible population, does so at an even more penurious level than in the past.

The welfare system makes many women poor not only because its levels of payments are low, but also because it institutionalizes poverty for women. The pauperization processes of welfare unite and perpetuate inequality in the labor market, and women become locked into the secondary sectors of both the welfare system and the labor market. Such a system oppresses all women and endangers their economic well-being. The work incentives that encourage women on welfare to work at poverty-level wages are also the means of subsidizing a low-wage labor force which enables entire industries to pay poverty-level wages. Welfare programs that train and place poor women in traditionally female low-wage jobs not only impoverish these women, but reinforce the barriers to primary-sector jobs for all women.

If it is understood that the poverty women experience is fundamentally different from that experienced by men, it is possible to reorient policy and restructure programs. Clearly, women do not lack work incentive. Rather, they encounter numerous disadvantages in the labor market and structural barriers to full and free participation.

Appropriate programs must address these disadvantages at the individual level (e.g., encouraging women to enter non-traditional occupations) and at the institutional level (attacking sex discrimination, sex segregation, and sexual harassment in organizations and industries).

Ways must be found to dismantle the dual welfare system and the dual labor market which together force women into permanent secondary status.

Penurious welfare policies and institutionalized labor-force marginality are trapping many women in a life of poverty.

Unless we change our social welfare policies, we will continue to build a "workhouse without walls" for increasing numbers of women.

CLEARINGHOUSE SEEKS ARTICLES

The Clearinghouse continually seeks and encourages authors to submit for publication in the *Review* articles of interest to legal services and public interest lawyers and paralegals. Articles should address any of the wide range of topics involved in poverty law or delivery of legal services and should be up-to-date in research (or the author should be willing to update them for publication). We formerly obtained many articles from the Research Institute, which is no longer in existence. We will thus be more dependent on individually submitted articles.

Articles are reviewed by an editorial committee and authors will receive prompt responses.

Articles need not be lengthy, and in fact, articles explaining "how to do" various kinds of poverty law or public interest law are welcomed along with articles on a more theoretical level.

Articles should be submitted to the Editor, National Clearinghouse for Legal Services, Inc., 500 N. Michigan Ave., Suite 1940, Chicago, IL 60611, and should be typed, double-spaced, with footnotes (also double-spaced) at the end of the article. Suggested length is under 40 pages, including footnotes. An editorial style sheet to assist authors in article preparation is available upon request. If you have any questions, please write or call Karen Blasingame, Lucy Moss or Eva Williams at (312) 670-3656.

May 10, 1983

*Gerardo J. Smith
7670 4th St
Union City, CA 94580*

I am an unwed mother. No, I was never promiscuous. I was engaged to be married. My fiancé disagreed violently with my decision to have sex only after marriage. I was beaten and raped — by my fiancé. I broke the engagement.

Six weeks later I found out that I was pregnant. Although many, including clergy, urged me to have an abortion, that was and still is against my beliefs. I carried my son to term. Eric Matthew Smith was born on July 26, 1976.

I ^{have} ~~was~~ never regretted, for one moment, having him. Even the violent act that brought him into being is almost forgotten. Eric is a wonderful, delightful child and I adore him. I would not for an instant endure the indignities and trials I've experienced except for Eric's sake.

I ^{have} received AFDC, food stamps, and Medi-Cal from April of 1976 till the present.

From birth on Eric had health problems. I brought him home from the hospital on July 31, 1976. On August 2nd Eric ~~choked~~ and stopped breathing. We rushed him back to the hospital. They found no obstruction, but were able to get him breathing again. He was kept overnight for observation. I was able to bring him home the next day. But one day later, again, Eric became cyanotic. We were referred to Children's Hospital this time. This problem eventually was resolved, but during Eric's first eight months of life he was a pretty sick little boy.

When he was nine months old, I wanted to go back to work. The doctor felt that Eric was well enough, so I got a grandma type babysitter and looked for a job.

I was hired as an Orthodontic Assistant. Although I had no experience, the dentist felt I had enough enthusiasm and could learn easily. He was correct. I even went on to take the State Board exam and became a Registered Dental Assistant. Between the date I was hired and February of 1978 I was absent a minimum of 21 days due to Eric's illnesses. Dr. Baccelli dismissed me at the end of February for excessive ~~absenteeism~~ *absence*.

When a person who is working receives supplemental AFDC the grant is ~~adjusted each month to the income. Since the grant amount is~~ always computed from the previous month's income, the amount I received when I was out of work was so small that I could not pay rent, utilities, and buy food for Eric and I. Eric ate well I lost 5 pounds. This same thing happened several other times since then, because I've always tried to work, *and yet still be there when Eric needed me.*

In April of 1978, I got a job with another orthodontist. He was very impressed with my skills and helped me add a coronal polish certificate to my license. I became his Head Assistant. But

again, because of Eric's health I missed 34 days of work. The office could not function smoothly if the Head Assistant ~~was~~ V absent so much of the time. Although I was the best assistant and was able to perform many functions for him ~~that made me~~ C nearly indispensable, I was dismissed again. That was August of 1979. Was

Again, I had trouble with my AFDC grant meeting my needs financially for the next month. I lost more weight and became ill myself. If the date of age change that is being considered now had been in effect then, I probably would have even had to lose my apartment.

In October of 1979, I was hired as a part-time receptionist for yet another orthodontist. My license as a Registered Dental Assistant had lapsed because I couldn't afford the \$50.00 renewal fee. Even then, on a part-time job I missed too many days. Eric had to have surgery during that period, so again I was dismissed in January of 1980.

Due to the encouragement of my eligibility worker at that time, Ms. Gewelene Randall, I took a nursing assistant course in March of 1980. I found that I loved nursing, and not only passed the course (in spite of many absences) but took the entrance exam to LVN school. My dream was and is to be financially independent of State Aid. I was accepted for the class that started in September of 1980. With the WIN program and help from a friend I could afford to go. But true to form Eric became ill and I missed more than the allowed ^{number of} days. I had to drop out.

Eric remained ill off and on for so long that I wasn't able to look for work until August 1981.

I began work at a company that makes silicon chips. I enjoyed the work because it was so different from anything I'd ever done. But in November of 1981 I was dismissed for being absent so much. Eric was ill with headaches and we couldn't find the cause.

I applied, again, to the LVN program because there was a class beginning in March of 1982. But when I found that there was no help from WIN and I would have to pay tuition, books, uniforms, child-care and transportation I withdrew my application. This really was a big disappointment to me.

Eric is healthy now. He has his share of cuts and bumps as do all little boys, but other than his allergies he's normal and well.

I now work approximately 20 hours per week or as my employer needs me. I earn between \$270-\$320. per month. My AFDC grant fluctuates but since I've been working for four months now it will be reduced drastically. Right now I receive an average of \$300 per month from AFDC. I have housing assistant in the form of a Section 8. I pay \$150. a month rent. My utilities have yet to drop below \$60.00 and my phone averages \$30.00 per month. In 1980, I filed a Bankruptcy Repayment Plan, Chapter 13, and I pay \$135. to that each month.

most of
the 130's
on several
occasions.

Rest of the

My Father always worked hard and supported us well. He used to say that I had a lot of "moxie", I finally found out what that meant. Courage, guts and nerve. I guess I must have it because I don't think I would ever have made it this far otherwise.

But what happens to those who aren't strong. Will we be seeing more abused, neglected and abandoned children?

There is only one answer. Please keep AFDC available and make sure it's enough to survive on. *allow mothers to raise their children, to be there when their child needs them most,* We don't want a hand out, we want a hand-up - to independence.

There is only one answer. Please keep AFDC available and make sure it's enough to survive on. *Allow mothers to raise their children, to be there when their child needs them most.* We don't want a hand out, we want a hand-up - to independence.

~~Linda L. Smith~~

ERIC MATTHEW SMITH
General Health History

Birth: July 26, 1976

Breathing problems when born by cersarian section:

07/31/76 - Eric came home from the hospital with me.

08/02/76 - Eric rushed into Emergency Room because he stopped breathing and was turning blue. He was admitted and several tests were run. Released on 8/3/76.

08/04/76 - Dr. Close checked him in his office for cyanosis and/or gastrointestinal or resperatory disfunctions. We were refered to Children's Hopsital in Oakland.

08/05/76 - Rush back to emergency - Eric was cyanotic again.

08/06/76 - Eric checked at Children's Hospital by Dr. Clarke. He said it was undiagnosable and should resolve itself, but Eric was floppy and unresponsive to stimuli such as pain and tickling, poking etc...Eric would not cry.

08/10/76 - Well-check still floppy-unresponsive to certain stimuli. Eric did not cry to any stimuli

11/12/76 - Upper respiratory infection - antibiotics given.

11/20/76 - Upper respiratory infection

11/29/76 - Well check - Eric's fontanel was abnormal. X-Rays taken.

12/03/76 - Upper respiratory infection - previous skull x-ray read that Eric would be okay without surgery.

12/04/76 - Left otitis media (ear infection)

12/20/76 - Upper respiratory infection

1977

01/04/77 - Viral dermatitis

02/05/77 - Oral herpes

02/07/77 - Upper respiratory infection - suspected chicken pox

02/12/77 - Chicken pox confirmed with upper respiratory infection

complication

03/23/77 - Right otitis media

03/30/77 - Left otitis media

05/03/77 - Well check - testes still undescended

05/31/77 - Bilateral otitis media

06/04/77 - Right otitis media

06/08/77 - Right otitis media re-check

06/15/77 - Right purulent otitis media

06/27/77 - Pharyngitis

07/05/77 - Upper respiratory infection

08/13/77 - Tonsillitis

09/18/77 - Viral exanthum (rash)

09/20/77 - Viral exanthum re-check antibiotics prescribed

10/05/77 - Functional gastro intestinal disfunction - Diet changed

11/05/77 - Viral exanthum - antibiotics given

11/16/77 - Gastroenteritis

12/05/77 - Impetigo

1978

01/10/78 - Obstructive fecal impaction

01/18/78 - Well check - refer to urologist for undescended testes

01/23/78 - Urologist concurs undescended testes - wait and see if they descend

01/28/78 - Gastroenteritis

02/01/78 - gastroenteritis re-check no change severe diarrhea

02/17/78 - Bilateral otitis media

02/24/78 - Upper respiratory infection with adenopathy (swollen glands)

03/02/78 - Tonsillitis with purulent drainage

03/22/78 - Pronation (Eric's feet turned out, he was prescribed

corrective shoes)

05/24/78 - Check corrective shoes

06/10/78 - Viral pneumonia

08/10/78 - Allergic dermatitis

08/30/78 - Gastroenteritis

11/06/78 - Gastroenteritis

11/11/78 - Bronchitis, right otitis media

12/05/78 - Check undescended testes with urologist

12/20/78 - Severe rhinitis

1979

01/02/79 - Begin series of gonadatropin injections to cause testes to descend

(2,000 units twice a week, injection given)

01/05/79 - 2,000 units of Gonadotropin injected

01/09/79 - 2,000 units of Gonadotropin injected

01/10/79 - Contact dermatitis

01/12/79 - Final 2,000 units of Gonadotropin given

01/23/79 - Visit to Urologist - decided to do orchiopexy (surgery to bring his testes down)

02/26/79 - Eric went into the hospital for surgery which was to be on 02/27/79, but due to a fever stayed overnight and was released without surgery being performed.

03/04/79 - Right otitis media and pharangitis

03/29/79 - Left otitis media

04/07/79 - Left otitis media purulent drainage

04/11/79 - Left otitis media purulent resolving

04/15/79 - Emergency injury to face

05/06/79 - Enter St. Rose Hopsital for right and left orchropexy.

05/07/79 - Surgery on left testes completed. Eric is discovered to have hyperthermia under certain anesthetics. (temperature rises to degrees above 105). 4 day hospital stay.

05/14/79 - Post operative check of testes

05/17/79 - Hyperhydrosis on feet

06/09/79 - Purulent otitis

06/19/79 - Undiagnosed fever

06/29/79 - Idiopathic Thrombocytopenia (undiagnosed internal or subdural bleeding) Were sent for test coagulation, liver scan, C.B.C. and blood culture.

07/02/79 - Re-check on Idiopathic Thrombocytopenia

07/13/79 - Urethritis - Gantrisin prescribed

07/23/79 - Hayfever - Rhinitis

08/06/79 - Gastroenteritis

08/21/79 - Left otitis media, purulent

08/23/79 - Re-check left otitis media

09/13/79 - Gastroenteritis - diet change

09/26/79 - Tonsilectomy, Adenoidectomy and lance ears - 2 day hospital stay

10/02/79 - Cautery of throat - hemorrhage of blood vessels in throat

11/20/79 - Gastroenteritis

12/04/79 - Pharyngitis purulent drainage

1980

01/02/80 - Right pupil dilated, sent to Children's Hospital the same day

01/03/80 - EEG with CBC and culture done at Children Hospital

01/07/80 - Idiopathic in nature - eyes okay referred to Dr. Booth

02/01/80 - Viral exanthem

02/12/80 - Idiopathic thrombocytopenia tests run again

04/30/80 - Severe allergic rhinitis

05/08/80 - Right testes needs surgery - surgery scheduled for 6/16/80

06/09/80 - Right foot hyperhydrosis - Caldecort

06/12/80 - Visit urologist schedule surgery for 06/16/80 go ahead.

06/15/80 - Admitted to St. rose for surgery of undescended right testicle.

06/19/80 - Surgery completed, he was in St. Rose recovering for three days.

07/21/80 - Viral pneumonia

09/29/80 - Allergic rhinitis

10/07/80 - Allergic dermatitis

11/01/80 - Left Otitis Media

11/07/80 - Pharyngitis

11/18/80 - Impetigo

12/09/80 - Sprained right knee

1981

01/21/81 - Anal fissure

03/02/81 - Seborrhea

03/31/81 - Severe allergic rhinitis

05/04/81 - Allergic rhinitis

07/30/81 - Idiopathic headaches

08/16/81 - Accident outside - severe abrasions and contusions

10/06/81 - Bilateral otitis media and pharyngitis

11/16/81 - Idiopathic headaches - Again went to see Dr. Korobkin at Children's hospital the same day

11/17/81 - CT Scan done at Eden Hospital Same night severe reaction to the dye used for CT Scan seen again in emergency IV given and then released.

11/25/81 - consult with Dr. Korobkin regarding headaches EKG and liver culture CBC and EEG done.

12/02/81 - Gastroenteritis severe diarrhea

1982

01/25/82 - Emergency visit cut lip loosened front teeth

03/16/82 - Ideopathic thrombocytopenia

04/20/82 - Allergic dermatitis

05/18/82 - Contusion to left leg X-ray taken Eric limped badly, complained of pain

05/21/82 - Re-check left leg, X-ray

05/24/82 - Re-check left leg - X-ray CBC blood culture

05/27/82 - Re-check left leg no improvement re-X-Ray.

06/02/82 - Re-check leg fractured fibula healing showed up in X-Ray taken.

06/14/82 - Normal X-Ray taken for comparison (and for records)

08/18/82 - Fungal infection on leg

10/20/82 - Allergic rhinitis

1983

01/27/83 - Upper respiratory infection

03/21/83 - Severe flu and chest pain

04/07/83 - Cut leg stitches taken

04/14/83 - stitches removed

Eric has worn glasses since he was 3 years old. I changed ophthalmologist in January of 1980 because the first one would not communicate with Eric or me regarding his eyes.

We've seen Dr. Booth since January 1980. The following dates are eye exams:

01/20/80 Full eye exam

07/17/81 Regular Eye exam

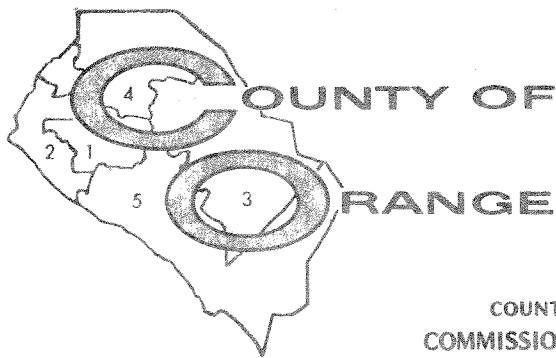
09/18/81 Eye Infection

11/16/81 Eye Infection

01/18/82 Eye Infection

11/29/82 Regular Eye Exam

04/21/82 Regular Eye Exam



Juliana file testimony

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Testimony submitted by the Orange County Commission on the Status of Women to the Assembly Human Services Committee on the Feminization of Poverty.

It is both tragic and ironic that a State Assembly Committee hearing on the Feminization of Poverty had been scheduled a few weeks after the shooting death of an unattended 5-year-old boy in Orange County. Included in the testimony is a newspaper account of the tragedy, as well as the Commission's response to these turn of events.

Figures from the 1980 Census reveal that, in Orange County, almost one-half of the mothers with pre-school aged children are in the labor force. Of those mothers with school-aged children, 64.3%, or almost two out of three are in the labor force. These figures correspond with the national statistics on working mothers.

In a County of over 2,000,000 people, the second largest in the State, there is a definite lack of child care facilities, and an extreme shortage of programs for low-income families.

- . Out of 450 licensed child care centers, only 25 of these offer after-school care for ages 5 through 12.
 - . There is only one child care center that is open on a 24-hour basis.
 - . There are only 20 centers that serve children from birth to two years of age. Of these, eight programs serve only low-income families.
 - . An extensive survey of child care facilities in the County, conducted in August, 1979, revealed over 3,800 unduplicated names on waiting lists for child care.
 - . Center directors reported over 70% of the parents using their facilities did so to enable all adults in the family to work or attend school full time.
-
- . Of those families on waiting lists for subsidized care, over 80% were single parents; over 60% were presently employed, approximately 20% were actively seeking employment, and nearly 18% were in training.
 - . More than 30% of the total list awaiting subsidized care required spaces for children under the age of two.

While the availability of quality, affordable child care is central to the issue of women and employment, the problem is not limited to employed mothers. When children are not cared for adequately, the entire community pays for it,

through both increased pressure on public services, as well as the expense of human tragedy. In addition to the story of Patrick Mason, the following are true stories of what can happen when mothers cannot find care for their children.

- . A mother of a four-year-old and a seven-year-old lost the services of a neighbor who had been watching the children while she worked. She was unable to find another. The seven-year-old was left in charge of the four-year-old, and the children were told to go to the local boys' club. This entailed crossing the main line Santa Fe railroad tracks. The seven-year-old was often absent from school while he cared for the younger child. Neighbors reported the children generally ran loose in the neighborhood. The home was found to be unkempt and filthy. Eventually, the children were removed from the home.
- . A mother had to pick up her paycheck. She left her six-year-old in charge of the two toddlers, ages 2 and 3, locked the house and left with instructions to the six-year-old not to open the door until she returned. Neighbors heard the children bickering and crying and called the police. The police had to break in the front door as the six-year-old was too frightened to open the door. The police located a relative to stay with the children until the mother returned.
- . Neighbors called the police because they suspected that children were not being properly cared for. When the police arrived they found a seven-year-old in charge of two toddlers, with responsibility for feeding and caring for them until their father arrived home from work. This was not happening to the satisfaction of the police. The mother had to leave for work early each day and had assumed the seven-year-old could handle the two younger ones until the father arrived. The police could not locate the parents or relatives, so they took the children into protective custody and delivered them to the County's Albert Sitton Home for emergency shelter care.

For these reasons, it is not only just but prudent for public entities to make a commitment to low-cost, quality care for children. Among the current literature on the subject, several solutions have been offered:

- . Encourage and support the State Department of Education - Office of Child Development and the State Department of Social Services in the simplification of child care funding mechanisms for purposes of (1) reducing the administrative costs of the delivery of child care services, (2) increasing the availability of child care services to consumers, and (3) making the best and most equitable use of the child care dollars.
-
- . Increase tax incentives for employers sponsoring child care centers.
 - . Work with employers, child care consumers and providers to recommend and implement solutions to the problems faced by the community when there is a lack of affordable child care.
 - . Analyse results of 1980 Census data, when available, to focus on trends in demand by location, and to make this analysis available to planners and

and private providers.

- . Encourage private funding sources and national foundations to contribute to the provision of child care services.

With the purpose of educating local employers to the problems in the workplace due to lack of child care, the Orange County Commission on the Status of Women co-sponsored a symposium on Employer-Related Child Care in May of 1982. Attendance at the symposium was over 200, with 38 of the County's largest employers represented. Speakers from throughout the nation contributed expert and first-hand knowledge of both the benefits and potential problems for employers involved in child care. The Children's Home Society and the Orange County United Way N/S, Office of Community Services, Orange County Central Labor Council AFL-CIO contributed to the success of the symposium. It is an excellent example of how the public and private sectors can work together to alleviate the problems of child care and benefit the entire community.



**CAMPAIGN
FOR ECONOMIC
DEMOCRACY**

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(213) 393-3701

TESTIMONY TO THE ASSEMBLY HUMAN SERVICES COMMITTEE
HEARING ON THE FEMINIZATION OF POVERTY
APRIL 8, 1983

I AM DOLORES PRESS, TESTIFYING ON BEHALF OF THE CALIFORNIA CAMPAIGN FOR ECONOMIC DEMOCRACY. I AM A MEMBER OF THE SANTA MONICA CITY COUNCIL, AND I WORK FOR THE RETAIL CLERKS UNION, LOCAL 1442.

CED IS HERE TODAY BECAUSE WE HAVE MADE THE ECONOMY OUR PRIORITY ISSUE FOR 1983, AND WE ARE PARTICULARLY INTERESTED IN DEVELOPING AN APPROACH THAT WILL BE USEFUL IN TAILORING AN ECONOMIC PROGRAM THAT MEETS THE NEEDS OF WOMEN. IN A TIME WHEN WOMEN STILL MAKE ONLY 59¢ FOR EACH DOLLAR EARNED BY A MAN, ANY JOBS PROGRAM MUST SPECIFICALLY ADDRESS EMPLOYMENT FOR WOMEN. PLANT CLOSURES, LAYOFFS, AND BUSINESS FAILURE AFFECT WOMEN WORKERS DISPROPORTIONATELY. FOR EXAMPLE, AT THE VAN NUYS GENERAL MOTORS PLANT, WHICH IS SLATED FOR CLOSURE SOON, 90% OF THE WOMEN WHO WORKED THERE HAVE BEEN LAID OFF. HARD WON GAINS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION ARE WIPED OUT WHEN THE LAST HIRED ARE THE FIRST FIRED.

AS THE REPUBLICAN ADMINISTRATIONS IN WASHINGTON AND SACRAMENTO GRUDGINGLY ACKNOWLEDGE THAT THERE MUST BE A GOVERNMENTAL RESPONSE TO MASS UNEMPLOYMENT, THERE IS LITTLE TO INDICATE HOW IT WILL HELP POOR WOMEN.

IF ECONOMIC RECOVERY IS SIMPLY A MATTER OF BRINGING THE UNEMPLOYMENT STATISTICS DOWN TO "ACCEPTABLE" LEVELS OF 4 TO 6 PERCENT, PUTTING

THE UNEMPLOYED MEN BACK TO WORK WOULD ACHIEVE THE GOAL. WOULD IT THEN ALSO BE "ACCEPTABLE" FOR MILLIONS OF WOMEN -- AND THEIR CHILDREN -- TO REMAIN POOR?

IT IS INTERESTING TO NOTE THAT THE REAGAN JOBS BILL RECENTLY APPROVED BY CONGRESS BEGAN AS A BILL TO EASE MALE UNEMPLOYMENT. "REBUILDING OUR INFRASTRUCTURE" MEANS CONSTRUCTION JOBS, WHICH WILL BE FILLED EXCLUSIVELY BY MEN UNLESS TRAINING PROGRAMS AND RIGID AFFIRMATIVE ACTION STANDARDS ARE INCLUDED. IT IS RIDICULOUS TO THINK THAT SUCH A PROGRAM COULD MAKE A DENT IN WOMEN'S UNEMPLOYMENT. A COALITION OF WOMEN'S GROUPS AND LABOR UNIONS WITH MANY WOMEN MEMBERS FOUGHT SUCCESSFULLY FOR INCLUSION OF PUBLIC SERVICE JOBS IN HEALTH CARE, CHILD CARE, AND SOCIAL SERVICES. HOW MUCH LONGER WILL WE PERSIST IN THINKING OF THE TYPICAL AMERICAN WORKER AS A MAN WITH A HARD HAT? THE TYPICAL AMERICAN WORKER TODAY IS A WOMAN BEHIND A TYPEWRITER, AND YET PROGRAMS TO COUNTER UNEMPLOYMENT CONTINUE TO FOCUS ON THE NEEDS OF MEN.

GOV. DEUKMEJIAN LAST WEEK UNVEILED AN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND JOB PROGRAM THAT IS RIGHT OUT OF THE REAGAN MOLD. IT SEEKS TO PROMOTE CONSTRUCTION OF HOUSING BY RELAXING ENVIRONMENTAL STANDARDS. "ENTERPRISE ZONES" WOULD BE CREATED TO PROVIDE TAX AND REGULATORY RELIEF. WHEN ENTERPRISE ZONES ARE PROPOSED, THE REGULATIONS TO BE RELIEVED ARE OFTEN WORKER HEALTH AND SAFETY, AND MINIMUM WAGE REGULATIONS. ~~THE BUSINESSES THAT DEVELOP IN THESE ZONES ARE GENERALLY~~ NON-UNION. DEUKMEJIAN ALSO WANTS TO PROMOTE TOURISM, WHICH WOULD PROVIDE MORE JOBS FOR THE LARGELY UNORGANIZED WAITRESSES AND HOUSE-KEEPERS. IT WOULD BE MUCH BETTER IF WE COULD BUILD ON THE SUCCESSES

OF THE CWETA PROGRAM, WHICH MIXED PUBLIC AND PRIVATE FUNDS TO PROVIDE TRAINING FOR PEOPLE TO FILL PRIVATE SECTOR JOBS THAT WERE UNFILLED. WE MUST NOT PERMIT POLICYMAKERS TO CREATE JOBS THAT PERPETUATE WOMEN'S POVERTY. THESE PROGRAMS MUST NOT UNDERMINE THE SUCCESSES OF ORGANIZED LABOR IN INCREASING WAGES FOR WOMEN WORKERS.

REAGAN SET AN EXAMPLE OF HOW TO BUST A UNION WHEN HE THREW OUT THE AIR TRAFFIC CONTROLLERS SHORTLY AFTER TAKING OFFICE. THE MOST RECENT EXAMPLE OF UNION-BUSTING IN CALIFORNIA IS THE SALE OF THE BANKRUPT FEDMART STORES, WHICH WERE UNION, TO TARGET STORES, WHICH ARE REFUSING TO HIRE OUR RETAIL CLERKS WHO WERE LAID OFF WHEN FEDMART WENT BROKE. TARGET IS HELPING TO PERPETUATE THE PINK GHETTO OF LOW PAID WOMEN WORKERS. I'D LIKE TO ASK YOU TO JOIN WITH THE RETAIL CLERKS UNION IN BOYCOTTING TARGET STORES.

REAGAN ALSO UNDERMINED THE ABILITY OF WOMEN TO GET OFF WELFARE AND ON TO ECONOMIC SELF-SUFFICIENCY BY ELIMINATING PARTIAL WELFARE PAYMENTS FOR WORKING WOMEN. WOMEN ARE PAID SO POORLY IN MANY JOBS THAT EVEN THE MEASLEY AFDC GRANT OFTEN PAYS MORE THAN THE BEST JOB A WOMAN CAN GET, PARTICULARLY SINCE MANY NON-UNION JOBS DO NOT PROVIDE BENEFITS, SUCH AS HEALTH INSURANCE, THAT A WORKING MOTHER CANNOT SURVIVE WITHOUT.

HIGH TECHNOLOGY IS OFTEN CITED AS THE BEST HOPE FOR CREATING JOBS IN THE '80s AND '90s, BUT NEW TECHNOLOGIES DO NOT NECESSARILY PROMISE A NEW AWARENESS OR RESPECT FOR WOMEN WORKERS. ONLY 28 PERCENT OF COMPUTER PROGRAMMERS ARE WOMEN AND THEY ARE PAID, ON THE AVERAGE, \$329 PER WEEK TO MALE PROGRAMMERS' \$447 A WEEK. OF ENGINEERING AND SCIENCE TECHNICIANS, 17.8 PERCENT ARE WOMEN AND THEIR PAY IS \$279 A WEEK AS COMPARED TO \$370 FOR MEN. FOR WOMEN IN TRADITIONAL JOBS --

SECRETARIES, BOOKKEEPERS, RETAIL CLERKS OR TELEPHONE OPERATORS -- COMPUTERIZATION HAS OFTEN MEANT THAT THEY CAN DO MORE WORK AT THEIR SAME JOB LEVEL. DEAD-END JOBS AND CONTINUING BARRIERS TO ACCESS FOR WOMEN WILL ONLY KEEP THEM IN THE POVERTY CYCLE.

IN SANTA MONICA WE'VE HAD A FEW YEARS TO TRY OUT SOME ECONOMIC DEMOCRATIC APPROACHES TO RUNNING A CITY, AND I'D LIKE TO DISCUSS SOME OF THE THINGS WE'VE DONE AS A MUNICIPAL EMPLOYER TO IMPROVE EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES AND WORKING CONDITIONS FOR WOMEN.

MANY OF OUR BEST MANAGERS IN THE CITY ARE WOMEN, AND MANY OF THEM CAME IN THROUGH THE CETA PROGRAM. JOB TRAINING MONEY IS CRITICAL TO THE SUCCESS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION, AND PUBLIC AGENCIES NEED IT MORE THAN EVER NOW THAT OUR OWN REVENUE SOURCES ARE LIMITED BY JARVIS AND GANN. FUNDING FOR JOB TRAINING MUST BE AN IMPORTANT PART OF A WOMEN'S ECONOMIC AGENDA IN ORDER TO COMBAT THE FEMINIZATION OF POVERTY.

WE TAKE AFFIRMATIVE ACTION VERY SERIOUSLY IN OUR CITY, AND WE ARE TRYING VERY HARD TO MOVE WOMEN INTO MANAGEMENT AND ESPECIALLY INTO NON-TRADITIONAL JOBS. WE ARE ATTRACTING MORE WOMEN IN OUR TRADES CATEGORIES BY PROVIDING A THREE-YEAR APPRENTICESHIP PROGRAM IN CARPENTRY, PAINTING, PLUMBING, AND ELECTRICIAN. IN OUR PUBLIC SAFETY POSITIONS WE HAVE FOUND IT DIFFICULT TO RECRUIT WOMEN WHO CAN SUCCEED IN THE PHYSICAL FEATS REQUIRED OF FIREFIGHTERS IN PARTICULAR, SO WE ARE DEVELOPING A PRE-SERVICE TRAINING FOR WOMEN APPLICANTS THAT WILL ~~HELP THEM DEVELOP THE UPPER BODY STRENGTH NEEDED FOR THE JOB.~~ IN THESE NON-TRADITIONAL AREAS, WE FIND THAT THE ALL-MALE ATMOSPHERE ON THE JOB CAN BREAK THE WILL OF EVEN THE MOST COMMITTED WOMEN, SO WE TRIED TO FIND AN INCENTIVE TO ENCOURAGE MANAGERS TO ACT AS LEADERS IN BREAKING DOWN THE MACHO ENVIRONMENT IN THE WORKPLACE. WE CAME UP WITH

THE IDEA OF RECOGNIZING THIS LEADERSHIP IN AWARDING MERIT INCREASES TO SUPERVISING MANAGEMENT LEVEL EMPLOYEES. THE MANAGER'S SUCCESS IN ACHIEVING THE AMBITIOUS AFFIRMATIVE ACTION GOALS SET BY THE CITY COUNCIL ARE TAKEN INTO CONSIDERATION DURING MERIT RAISE NEGOTIATIONS. WE THINK WE'VE FOUND ONE OF THE WAYS TO REWARD OUR MANAGERS FOR IMPLEMENTING AFFIRMATIVE ACTION.

WE ALSO HAVE A JOB SHARING POLICY THAT ENCOURAGES MANAGERS TO LOOK FOR POSITIONS THAT ARE SUITABLE FOR JOB SHARING, AND TO ACTIVELY SEEK CANDIDATES WHO WANT TO SHARE A JOB. THE CITY PICKS UP THE EXTRA COST OF PAYING FOR BENEFITS FOR TWO EMPLOYEES, AND WE FIND THAT THE MINOR ADDED EXPENSE IS WELL WORTH IT.

CED SEES CHILD CARE AS AN ISSUE WHOSE TIME HAS COME. UNIONS SUCH AS THE ONE I WORK FOR ARE BEGINNING TO SEE THAT IT WILL SOON BECOME AN ISSUE AT THE BARGAINING TABLE.

IN THE CITY OF SANTA MONICA WE ARE LOOKING AT ONSITE CHILD CARE, AND WILL PROBABLY HAVE TO DEVELOP AN INFANT CARE PROGRAM SINCE CITY HALL SEEMS TO BE EXPERIENCING A BABY BOOM. WE ONLY WISH WE WERE NOT LIMITED BY THE PROP. 13 RESTRICTIONS ON GOVERNMENT SPENDING.

THE FEMINIZATION OF POVERTY REQUIRES WOMEN TO DEMAND IMPLEMENTATION OF A FEMINIST ECONOMIC PROGRAM THAT PROVIDES STIMULATING, WELL-PAYING JOBS AND NECESSARY SUPPORT SERVICES. THE CURRENT UNEMPLOYMENT CRISIS PROVIDES AN OPPORTUNITY FOR BEGINNING TO REDRESS THE ECONOMIC DISENFRANCHISEMENT OF WOMEN.

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TESTIMONY

Submitted to

Assembly Committee on

Human Services

Feminization of Poverty Hearing

San Francisco

April 8, 1983

Most American women get jobs for the same reasons men do - to support themselves or their families. In 1980, 52% of all women were employed. However, women still earn only 59% for every dollar earned by men. The disparity in earnings by sex is greater than the disparity in earnings by race.

Why does this wage disparity continue to exist? One reason is that women don't work at the same kinds of jobs that men do. Women are employed primarily in clerical, health, teaching, retail sales and service occupations. Skilled craft or trade occupations in construction and manufacturing were virtually closed to women until recently. Even in the same occupational group, women's earnings rarely approach parity with men's, largely because female and male workers are segregated within those groups. In the sales category, for instance, women are concentrated in retail sales, while men are concentrated in the higher-paying wholesale sales positions. The Equal Pay Act of 1963 essentially mandates equal pay for equal work in the same workplace. It was not designed to address the problems faced by most working women. State legislation passed in 1981 regarding comparability of the value of work is an important first step for many working women in California.

Too often, employment and training programs succumb to the tyranny of numbers. Instead of fulfilling their real mission, improving job skills of the unemployed and disadvantaged - they concentrate on providing minimal services to the largest number of participants. In an effort to boost placement rates, services go first to the most employable and that rarely means poor women.

An example of the failure to address the needs of poor women is the Federal Work Incentive Program (WIN). 1971 amendments require WIN administrators to give priority for services first to unemployed fathers; next to mothers who are voluntary entrants and next to mothers required to register for the program. Women, even unemployed mothers who are heads of households, find themselves at the end of the queue.

Many administrators report that this mandatory preference prevents them from providing services to women who may be more qualified, more highly motivated or more needy. Women are also underrepresented in most Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) programs, especially in the higher-paid public service jobs programs.

Assemblyman Lockyer's modified workfare bill which was signed into law in 1982 addresses job preparation and training services. In establishing priorities for services, special emphasis shall be given to those women who are sole heads of families with minor children. Assemblyman Lockyer's bill also provides for the formation of a Private Industry Council in each county. Each council, will, among other things, "promote the transition of participants served by the system into fulltime, unsubsidized jobs with special emphasis on non-traditional jobs for women". This section of the law must be implemented if low income women are to have an opportunity to advance up the job ladder instead of remaining on the first rung.

All employment and training programs should be tailored to the needs of individual participants, with attention to local labor market opportunities and employer needs. Recognition of women's employment needs at all levels of program administration and a refocusing of training efforts along with strict enforcement of sex discrimination laws could improve women's employment opportunities significantly.

Occupational training must provide women with training that leads to economically viable work -- e.g. in the skilled trades and high technology industries historically dominated by men. The degree of upward mobility is significantly greater in these fields than in traditionally female occupations. Consider: A plumber or pipefitter can earn an average salary of \$347. weekly; a carpenter \$385; a welder \$420; a computer specialist \$413. On the other hand, a nursing aid earns an average of \$152 per week; a sales clerk, \$140; a typist, \$189 -- all jobs traditionally held by women.

Testimony on the feminization of poverty, April 8, 1983
Page three

The League of Women Voters of California recognizes that all major employment training programs will require additional state revenues. The League supports increased funding through such programs as the oil severance tax, increased individual and corporate income taxes and the elimination exemptions, credits and deductions except those which achieve a social purpose impossible by other means.



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TESTIMONY ON

THE FEMINIZATION

OF POVERTY

Assembly Human Services Committee

San Francisco, California

April 8, 1983

Kathleen Kinnick

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California Labor Federation, AFL-CIO

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I would like to thank Assemblyman Tom Bates and the other members of the Human Services Committee for the opportunity to present organized labor's perspective on the growing feminization of poverty in America.

What may well prove to be our nation's legacy from the 1980's will not be nuclear war; nor will it be the final triumph of corporate profit over environmental protection or the worker's right to join a union. Instead the 1980's will be recorded as the era when America once and for all shut the door on its own poor. The earlier cautious optimism we all shared as the total percentage of poor Americans as defined by the U.S. Census Bureau declined from 22% of the population in 1959 to 12% in 1969 is now long gone.¹ As of 1979, this rate had fallen only to 11.6 %, the equivalent of 25 million people.² In recent years the worst economic recession since the 1930's has increased the number of our nation's needy.

As the final report of the September 1981 National Advisory Council on Economic Opportunity concluded,³ only the continued expansion of income transfers and social insurance programs stabilized the number of poor in America since the late 1960's. While private sector employment growth had made a major impact in reducing poverty before 1970, the increasing concentration of America's poor in urban areas coupled with new employment growth in rural or suburban areas has resulted in the private sector's diminishing effectiveness during the last 13 years.

While our nation's number of poor is now once again rising, in some ways, the composition of America's poor has changed dramatically during the last decade. First, the age distribution of the officially poor has shifted markedly -- the poor are now often younger than they used to be. Because of various social security benefit increases fought for during the 1970's, poverty among the aged has decreased overall, although it is still quite prevalent among low income blacks, other minorities and women. It should be stressed that poverty among the elderly has by far not been eradicated. One out of three elderly blacks and one out of four elderly latinos were still poor as of 1979⁴ and many seniors officially "out of poverty" remain perilously close to the U.S. Census Bureau poverty income definition. The recent benefit cuts included in the so-called social security rescue package represent a policy shift away from the objective of ending poverty among our nation's aged.

The second point to be noted about today's welfare population is that whatever gains in reducing poverty accomplished during the 1970's have also been accompanied by increased racial inequality, growing numbers of poor children and the general feminization of American poverty. Like so much of our time on this earth, these have been painful times for women. But what has made this past decade especially bitter is not only that more of the poor are women, but also that more women, especially those heading families with minor children, are poor.

Today two out of every three poor adults are women.⁵
While the number of male headed families dropped between
1969 and 1978 by 600,000 to 2.6 million, the number of
poor female headed households with minor children increased⁶
by 900,000 to 2.7 million. Female headed families have a poverty⁷
rate six times that of male headed families. (31.4% vs. 5.3%)

The 1970's and 80's witnessed an even greater structural
income shift among minority families. Today 1.2 million or
more than half (50.6%) of all U.S. black female headed families
live in poverty as do 70% of black families headed by a woman⁸
under 25. Forty percent of all black children in America are⁹
poor. Latino families face similar straits with 53.1% of all
female families in poverty.

Yet even these numbers fail to illustrate the tremendous
emotional stress placed on poor single parent mothers as well
as the amazing courage shown by poor women in coping with their
lives, both on their own and through extended family networks
when they exist. Given the current economic crisis which now
exists throughout our country, this grim scenario can only
deteriorate.

We could now discuss the different causes and solutions
of female poverty. Women are not poor because "they like" low
wage "female" occupations, nor are they poor because "they like"
to work parttime, have less human capital or a low motivation
to excel, nor because they quit their jobs more often than men.

Instead, general unemployment, sexual and racial discrimination by employers and educators, lack of affordable quality child care facilities and access to family planning information, low levels of unionization in female dominated occupations, female segmentation in low wage secondary labor markets and a united private sector's opposition to equal pay for comparable value and collective bargaining seem to be the more likely explanations for feminized poverty.

A truly humane program would address these issues. Universal child care, active government encouragement of unionization and comparable worth, national economic planning to redirect private sector investment funds towards full employment and better enforcement of affirmative action and anti-discriminatory laws would represent the major components of a meaningful, progressive solution.

But these items are not on the current political agenda, either Washington's or Sacramento's. The Reagan program of redistributing income to the rich from the poor, slashing social programs that assist working people while sweetening up corporate tax cuts, and eliminating environmental and other necessary regulatory protections is concerned more with waging a war on the poor rather than on poverty.

Similarly, working people, organized labor and the poor
face a similar attack in Sacramento. The California Labor Federation opposes Governor Deukmejian's suggested social welfare program reductions including:

1. A new suspension and a proposed elimination of the AFDC cost of living adjustments provision on top of the past two year postponements. Inflation, while slowing, has continued during the past two years and will continue in the future. Failure to adjust welfare payments for price increases further reduces the already low living standards of our state's poor. This is doubly painful because rising prices often hit the poor hardest and because the poor cannot reduce further their expenditures on necessities nor shift to other goods. The Federation feels that this is a crucial social welfare issue facing the state legislature and we remain adamantly opposed to both a third COLA suspension and or permanent possible COLA elimination in AFDC payments.

2. The suggested proration of shelter utility and similar costs. People often share housing as the only means of survival. Prorating such costs for AFDC recipients who stretch their grants in this way is foolish and absolutely unacceptable.

3. All workfare proposals -- Proposals which require recipients to work with little or no pay or benefits in dead end jobs as a condition for economic survival are little better than proposals for forced labor. While the Governor has not yet provided explicit details on workfare, the California Labor Federation remains conceptually opposed to these schemes.

4. The elimination of supplemental aid to pregnant women. Eliminating aid to pregnant poor women until the third trimester of pregnancy will reduce the welfare mother's ability to meet the nutritional requirements for herself and her fetus. Such a proposal, combined with past reductions in prenatal health care, can only result in an increased number of infant disabilities and other difficulties.

The Reagan recession of the last two years adds new Californians to the welfare rolls daily as thousands of California's workers continue to exhaust their U.I. benefits, their savings and their patience in search of jobs. The Federation feels that an improved, extended state unemployment insurance program is necessary to provide additional income protections for the jobless in the hope of slowing the further growth of California's welfare population. Worker rights to advance notice, severance pay, extended health insurance protection and employment relocation in the event of a plant closure would also minimize the effect of the current economic carnage afflicting our state. Workers should not have to bear the financial burden of managerial foulups nor of their often sudden decisions to shift jobs out of state and overseas.

Organized labor feels that if our nation is to rediscover our compassion and our sense of justice, the progressive community of the state must begin to reprioritize the current objectives of the Reagan and Deukmejian administrations. Working people, women and the poor, should not have to bear the costs of outrageously high military expenditures, tax cuts for the rich and unemployment for everybody else. It is time for all of us to fight back both in Washington and Sacramento in this new American war on the poor.

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FOOTNOTES

1. Statistical Abstract of the United States 1981, U.S. Department of Commerce Bureau of the Census. Washington, D.C. 1981 p. 446.
2. ibid. p. 446.
3. National Advisory Council on Economic Opportunity: Final Report U.S.G.P.O. Washington, D.C. 20402 p. 35.
4. ibid. p. 42.
5. ibid. p. 7. This figure is from 1976. However, given the declining economic conditions since that time, it probably understates the number of poor female adults today. The same is true for the following 4 footnotes.
6. ibid. p. 8.
7. ibid. p. 9.
8. ibid. p. 10.
9. ibid. p. 9.
10. ibid. p. 10.

Susana Halfon
Rodolfo Vidaurri
1479 64th Ave.
Sacramento, CA 95822

April 8, 1983.

HUMAN SERVICES COMMITTEE
State Capitol
Sacramento, CA 95814

Dear Chairperson Bates and Committee Members,

We would like to congratulate you on the hearings you are holding regarding the feminization of poverty. Although I was not able to testify at your hearing, I would like to submit the enclosed study for your review and have it become part of the official record. The study was initiated by the California Commission on the Status of Women. I served as Director of the project and Ms. Amy Barton was the consulting sociologist..

The report is the first of its kind, comprehensive study of farmworker women in the California labor force and has a reliability of +/- 5 per cent. The report outlines the following: data base profile on demographic and social characteristics, economic characteristics, employment characteristics, and expressed social service needs. It also makes a comparison of social services needed with social services provided and makes extensive recommendations on how farmworker women can be best served by state and local government services. The report speaks for itself, but I would like to highlight some of its salient features.

Women farmworkers make up a significant portion of the agricultural labor force and are important contributors to their family's income.

The average annual income for a woman farmworker in California is just under \$3,000.

One third of the women respondents declare themselves as heads of households, and the majority of respondents devote their earnings to basic maintenance of their family.

Three-quarters of the women farmworkers report that their total annual income is earned in agriculture. Ninety percent report their total annual family income is earned in California.

Almost three-quarters of the women declare a home base in California. Sixty-three percent declare themselves as paying United States income tax. Forty-four percent are United States citizens, with another 28.9 percent holding greencards (permanent resident status.)

Women farmworkers are overwhelmingly employed in the low-status and low paying tasks of weeding, thinning, and hoeing, with some harvesting work. The brief and sporadic nature of these tasks leads to women being employed fewer weeks of the year than men.

Women lack upward job mobility.

Women farmworkers have had very little opportunity to participate in job training programs.

Women farmworkers would like to have affordable and geographically accessible child care centers.

Women farmworkers cited primary on-the-job risks to their health and safety as:

- a. Mechanized processes
- b. Field conditions
- c. Unsafe use of chemicals
- d. Lack of adequate sanitation facilities.

I hope you will carefully review the section in the report which makes recommendations on how to better meet the needs of farmworker women in this time of fiscal crisis. Congratulations again on your continuing efforts, please contact me if you would like additional information.

Sincerely,

Susana Halfon
SUSANA HALFON

cc: [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]

CAMPESINAS

WOMEN FARMWORKERS IN THE CALIFORNIA AGRICULTURAL LABOR FORCE



**A REPORT BY THE CALIFORNIA
COMMISSION ON THE STATUS
OF WOMEN**

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CAMPESINAS:

WOMEN FARMWORKERS IN THE CALIFORNIA AGRICULTURAL LABOR FORCE

**Report of a Study Project by
The California Commission on the Status of Women**

**Susana Halfon, Project Director
Amy E. Barton, Project Designer and Principal Author
Margaret Gipe, Project Secretary**

California Commission on the
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**Edmund G. Brown Jr.
Governor**

DECEMBER 1978

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ABSTRACT

This report provides summary profiles of a data base which has been compiled in order to describe California's women farmworkers. It also presents a discussion of the differences in employment characteristics for men and women farmworkers. It presents a profile of the expressed social service needs of women farmworkers and compares them to services provided by state agencies. Finally, it discusses women agricultural workers' attitudes toward farmwork and the attitudes of agricultural employers toward women farmworkers, and makes a series of projections for future study, based on the attitudes of these employers and employees.

In summary, the findings show that:

1. Women make up a significant portion of the agricultural labor force and are important contributors to their family's income.
2. Women farmworkers do not have upward job mobility, since better jobs are presumed to require more strength.
3. Women farmworkers have lower annual incomes than men, primarily due to the differential in job status and the pay rates for low-status jobs.
4. Women, and men, overwhelmingly want to leave farmwork unless working conditions, pay and benefits, and housing improve.
5. Many women farmworkers are United States citizens and tax-paying residents.
6. Women farmworkers have had very little opportunity to participate in job training programs.
7. Women farmworkers would like to have affordable and geographically accessible child care centers.
8. Farmworkers, both male and female, overwhelmingly cite a need for increased health care services. There is a great demand for multi-service clinics where there is flexibility in the hours the clinics are open.
9. Women feel there is a need for more migrant camp housing, as well as better facilities within the camps already provided.
10. Women farmworkers cited primary on-the-job risks to their health and safety as:
 - a. Mechanized processes
 - b. Field conditions
 - c. Unsafe use of chemicals
 - d. Lack of adequate sanitation facilities.

Women farmworkers are not a surplus labor force, since they earn most of their income from farmwork, work a significant part of the year in farmwork, and are often heads of households. In spite of the considerable role they play in the agricultural labor force, they face barriers to upward job mobility, fuller employment, and higher annual incomes. They are often tax-paying residents of the United States, yet lack basic facilities such as adequate housing and health care. They are clear about the positive and negative aspects of agricultural work, and seek improved work conditions and benefits only to the degree of comparability with other employment sectors.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

CAMPESINA: WOMEN FARMWORKERS IN THE CALIFORNIA AGRICULTURAL LABOR FORCE is a report by the California Commission on the Status of Women. The one-year study on which this report is based was supported by Governor's Discretionary Funds, Comprehensive Employment and Training Act, as administered by the California Employment Development Department. The staff of the Women in the California Agricultural Labor Force project are very grateful to those individuals in the CETA staff and EDD staff who assisted us in gaining the grant and who were both meticulous and sympathetic in their supervision of the study.

In addition, we are very thankful for the assistance and support of our Advisory Board. The concern, advice, and knowledge of the Board's official and ex-officio members were instrumental to the completion of this project. The Board members' willingness to give their time and energies is a gift gratefully received and remembered.

We would also like to thank all the exceptional people who have worked with us on this project. Project interviewers, community groups in Fresno and Imperial, and the Division of Social Sciences computer staff at the University of California, Santa Cruz are only some of those whose contributions have been essential to the study.

Finally, we express our gratitude and appreciation to the many individuals who have directly and indirectly contributed their effort and concern to both the project and the staff.

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FINDINGS

The California Commission on the Status of Women has completed a one-year descriptive study of the demographic characteristics, employment situations, and supportive services needs of women farmworkers in the California agricultural labor force. Some of the most important demographic characteristics of women farmworkers are:

1. The average annual income for a woman farmworker in California is just under \$3,000.
2. The discrepancy in income between male and female farmworkers results from women's confinement to lower-paying tasks, resulting in annual incomes two-thirds less than those of male farmworkers.
3. One-third of the women respondents declare themselves as heads of households, and the majority of respondents devote their earnings to basic maintenance of their family.
4. Three-quarters of the women farmworkers report that their total annual income is earned in agriculture. Ninety percent report their total annual family income is earned in California.
5. Almost three-quarters of the women declare a home base in California. Sixty-three percent declare themselves as paying United States income tax. Forty-four percent are United States citizens, with another 28.9 percent holding greencards.

Notable employment characteristics for women farmworkers are:

1. Women farmworkers are overwhelmingly employed in the low-status and low-paying tasks of weeding, thinning, and hoeing, with some harvesting work. The brief and sporadic nature of these tasks leads to women being employed fewer weeks of the year than men.
2. Women lack upward job mobility. Employers believe that the higher-paying, more skilled tasks are beyond a woman's physical capabilities, but the women themselves feel capable of pursuing physically demanding work.

Women farmworkers' support services needs include:

1. Better endorsement of laws providing for on-the-job health and safety.
2. Geographically accessible, low-cost, multi-service health care clinics, staffed by fully bilingual professionals.
3. Geographically accessible, low-cost child care centers, offering comprehensive health care for children as well as bilingual and bicultural educational and recreational programs.
4. Increased migrant housing, both in terms of the number of units as well as the number of camp locations.
5. Improvement in the quality of existing camp housing.
6. Bilingual educational and job training programs for women.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Economic Development

1. Job training programs for farmworker women in California under CETA, Titles I, II, III, IV, and VI, should encompass apprenticeship in non-traditional jobs in both agricultural and non-agricultural employment sectors. In addition, job training agencies must incorporate English as a part of job training, thus teaching language in a relevant context. Agencies offering job training to women must also provide support services, such as:
 - child care
 - transportation
 - family involvement in pretraining to assure support by the non-participant spouse
 - survival skill courses which utilize group concepts (banking, budgeting, marketing)
 - assertiveness training courses.

In addition, a standard definition of migrant and seasonal farmworkers that does not exclude family members from participation in training programs provided through CETA must be developed.

2. Job training which prepares women farmworkers to provide services to other women farmworkers should be undertaken (for example, as legal paraprofessionals). Also, job training for farmworker women as outreach and community workers to the migrant seasonal farmworkers should be undertaken to resolve unemployment and gaps in service delivery due to lack of information.
3. Cooperatives, such as providers of child care, and small business opportunities for women farmworkers must be investigated and actively advertised and extended throughout the farmworker communities.
4. Both in terms of housing and economic development, attention should be given to the enforcement of the 1902 Reclamation Act so that farmworkers may have access to land ownership.

Employment Conditions

1. Employers must be advised that under the Fair Employment Practices Act, they may not refrain from hiring women applicants on the supposition that they have physical limitations based on their sex.
2. The Department of Industrial Relations and Cal/OSHA should strongly enforce safety regulations, particularly in regard to inspection procedures for agricultural machinery. There must be better enforcement of regulations providing for adequate sanitation facilities in the fields, particularly for women.
3. The Department of Industrial Relations and Cal/OSHA should institute statewide bilingual employer-employee safety and education programs which should include bilingual outreach workers; distribution of bilingual written materials; slide presentations on pesticide poisoning symptoms (for those unable to read either English or Spanish), on-the-job health hazards, complaint procedures and preventive measures.

4. There must be clarification of jurisdiction over pesticides by the Departments of Agriculture, and Industrial Relations, and appropriate health-related departments. These departments should separately or jointly undertake research on the chronic effects of pesticides, train physicians to recognize symptoms of pesticide poisoning, and undertake research on alternatives to spraying for achieving pest control.
5. EDD should mount informational programs advising women farmworkers that pregnancies may be partially covered by Disability Insurance.

Support Services and Delivery

1. Multiservice centers should be established which provide health care, child care, legal aid, and in-center and outreach information about rights under existing laws, social service eligibility, job training referrals and vocational counseling, and health and safety regulations. Transportation for women and children to these centers should be provided. Staffing should be bicultural and bilingual and provide on-the-job training for women as service delivery workers. Child care centers should be developmentally oriented, with services offered in a wide range of hours. Health care services should be multiphasic and preventive as well as curative. Centers should have professional bilingual staff and be open a wide range of hours. Service should include 24-hour emergency health care, primary care, ophthalmology, dentistry, obstetrical and gynecological care, psychological, family planning, and nutritional counseling.
2. Wherever possible, multiservice centers should be cooperatively organized and administered by farmworkers, particularly women farmworkers.
3. There must be an increase in low-income subsidized housing; legislation should be enacted to counterbalance Article 34 in order to allow for the construction of low-income housing.
4. Rent control should be instituted and information on tenants' rights should be provided.
5. Housing should be made available for single women farmworkers, as it is for men farmworkers.
6. Increased enforcement of housing code regulations is necessary.

CHAPTER I

A PROFILE OF CALIFORNIA'S WOMEN FARMWORKERS

One major interest guided the development of this study: to identify the employment and social characteristics of women agricultural farmworkers in California. Farmworker women, long a part of an industry which is of prime importance to California's economic position, have remained "invisible" for an equally long period of time.

Descriptive demographic studies of the farmworker population as a whole, or similar studies of male farmworkers, are comparatively rare; descriptive demographic information on farmworker women has been virtually non-existent. Not only has there been an almost total absence of basic census-type information about farmworker women, but there has also been a lack of data concerning their occupational status and the specific characteristics of their employment situations. In addition, since women agricultural farmworkers constitute essentially a disenfranchised population, social services tend to be provided without channels for ascertaining whether or not these are the services most desired by women farmworkers, and in a form of delivery which maximizes accessibility.

This report provides objective data about, and concrete recommendations for, assisting women farmworkers in their employment situations and within their communities as well.

The study concerned itself with four main objectives:

1. Develop a census-type data base of social, economic, and demographic characteristics of farmworker women.
2. Identify the employment situation of women farmworkers; for example, the types of tasks in which they are typically engaged, annual income, job mobility, methods of payment, types of job recruitment, etc.
3. Ascertain the expressed needs of women farmworkers for social services and modes of provision of social services; then compare these views with the social services currently delivered to these women.
4. Explore the views and experiences of agricultural employers with respect to women performing agricultural field work.

The data on which this study is based, was collected from 400 women and 200 men engaged in farmwork in Fresno and Imperial Counties. Although many of *Campesina's* findings may appear to reaffirm the obvious, it is important to remember that this is the first study to document the social, economic, and employment characteristics of California's female fieldworkers. It may be appropriately considered as providing a basis for future collection and analysis of data.

DATA BASE PROFILE: DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS

The sample of women interviewed largely reported themselves as being of Mexican extraction, either as Mexican or Mexican-American. More women reported themselves Mexican in Imperial than in Fresno County (see Table 1). The bulk of women in the sample give 21 - 29 years as their age, with the next heaviest concentrations being between 40 - 49 years and then 30 - 39 years. There are more very young women working in Fresno, and more women over 56 working in Imperial (see Table 2). In both counties, women farmworkers reported themselves as Catholic, with a somewhat higher percentage of declared Catholics occurring in Imperial rather than in Fresno (see Table

3).^{1/} A great majority of respondents cite themselves as married, but a third of the total respondents, including the small percentage of single women, also declare themselves as heads of household (see Tables 4 and 5). This finding may suggest that women engaged in agricultural farmwork are working for basic support. They are not engaged in a part-time occupation to provide "extras"; they are not simply a surplus labor pool, but are a significant and integrated part of the labor force.

Although the bulk of the respondents are of Mexican extraction, almost half are United States citizens. Many others hold greencard status. The rate of both citizenship and greencard status is higher for women than for men (see Table 6). This is of some interest, since it indicates that women are less likely to be *sin documentos* than men. One logical inference from this finding about citizenship is that women with children, as citizens, could have services to which *sin documentos* lack access.

A considerable percentage of women farmworkers report receiving some education in the United States, and one-quarter of the population report having nine or more years of school. Most women, however, have only between one and seven years of school, and a relatively small percentage appear to have no education at all (see Table 7). However, this overall finding must be qualified in that there has been no measure applied to prove the quality of education received.^{2/}

This is similar to the qualification offered with respect to reading and writing in English and Spanish. Respondents may report themselves to read and write both English and Spanish. Approximately one-quarter of the respondents report themselves as reading and writing English; one-half of the respondents report themselves to read and write Spanish. These are total percentages for females in Fresno and Imperial; there is no considerable differentiation in reported language competency between counties. Further, there was no test administered to check competency in languages written and read, and, therefore, these findings are the women's self perceptions. It is entirely possible that although they can to some degree in fact read and write in English and in Spanish, they may not have the competency required by some employers for higher paying jobs (see Tables 8 and 9). However, it is necessary to note that no matter what the reported competency, a quarter of the women were interviewed in English, and slightly over half in Spanish; more women appear to be more comfortable with Spanish (see Table 10). Women in Fresno have better reported English skills than men in Fresno, but the reverse is true in Imperial.

The bulk of both the Fresno and Imperial respondents declare permanent residence in the United States (see Table 12). The majority of the respondents do have a permanent residence they consider their home base, and these residences are more often houses than apartments, trailers, or any other form of accommodation. Although they may be residing in houses, more of these houses are rented than are owned by the respondents (see Tables 13, 14, 15). About half the respondents are like the majority of California residents, building equity for landlords in their home base district. This particular data does not support the popular conception that these farmworkers take all their income back to Mexico. In Imperial, the houses are described as having three to four rooms, while in Fresno most of the houses are described as having seven or more rooms. Only half of the respondents report having separate kitchen and bathroom facilities. Lack of proper sanitation facilities may make possible to some extent an inference about the quality of many of the houses (see Tables 16 and 17A/B).

Most respondents report sharing their house with five to six others. Generally there are one or two wage earners in the house, and the rest dependents. Most report living in the same house for between three months and five years (see Tables 18-21).

^{1/} The findings of religion and ethnicity showing more Mexicans and more Catholics in Imperial can probably be traced to the proximity of Imperial to the Mexican border. When the data were checked to see whether or not Mexican residence particularly affected the significance of the findings, it was found not to introduce bias into the social service expressed needs; therefore the place of residence has not been separated out from the findings as discussed and presented regarding services. However, differences between the two counties show, in some instances, significant variance in demographic findings.

^{2/} There is a contention that the quality of education may be affected by the location of the education system (United States or Mexico), since it has been argued that Mexican grammar schools are generally one to two years more advanced in curricula than the U.S. counterpart.

The descriptive profile which emerges differs from some of the myths which surround this population. Women engaged in agricultural occupations are often citizens, make their home and build property value in the United States, as well as purchase United States goods from local businesses. They are part of family units of generally about seven persons, and only two or sometimes only one of these persons bring in a wage. They live primarily in rental housing, and much of it appears to be below code in terms of sanitation facilities. However, they appear to have more education than is popularly thought, and are relatively stable residents of California.

DATA BASE PROFILE: ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS

A large number of women report that their total annual income is earned in California and is earned doing farmwork (see Tables 22 and 23). An equally large percentage report paying United States income tax. In fact, it may be significant that more Imperial respondents report themselves as tax paying, since it raises doubt about the argument that border proximity increases tax evasion. Most of the women earn \$100 - \$124 a week.^{3/} And when asked how much they had earned in the last two weeks, the average was \$213. Average annual incomes for female farmworkers are under \$3,000. The bulk of their incomes is devoted to family support (Tables 24, 25, 26, and 27). During periods of unemployment, many collect Unemployment Insurance as a means of assistance. A greater number report receiving no assistance at all than report receiving welfare (see Table 28).

The study shows that incomes earned in California are spent in California, that these women tend to be taxpayers, and although their incomes are small, they are not consistently collecting welfare. The incomes of women farmworkers from their employment will be examined more closely in the following chapter when contrasted to the incomes of male farmworkers.

DATA BASE PROFILE: EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

Most of the women respondents reported that they come from families who have been engaged in farmwork for several generations, and that most of their families have not participated in occupations other than agricultural ones (see Tables 29 and 30). Of those families where various members have been engaged in non-agricultural occupations, either permanently or temporarily, the majority were engaged in blue-collar jobs (see Table 31). This participation in blue-collar employment activities is inconsistent with those non-agricultural occupations which would be preferred by the women respondents themselves, who rank white-collar highest (see Table 33). Not surprisingly, although women respondents report some participation in domestic house care employment, no men reported having participated in this category. Besides white-collar tasks, blue-collar jobs and public service employment rank high as options which the respondents have attempted to pursue. The reasons they give for moving from these types of employment are discussed in detail in the following chapter, since reasons differ for male and female respondents. However, it does bear mentioning here that, for women respondents, home and child care responsibilities clearly appear as a reason for not pursuing occupations in the non-agricultural sector (see Table 85).

Most of the female respondents in the study report that they have been engaged in agriculture for five years or less, with the next highest grouping at 6-8 years (see Table 32). Generally, women will work for six or more employers in a year, and yet, defining a migrant as an individual who spends more than five weeks away from home base in a year to pursue agricultural work, most of the women have a low migrancy score, i.e., less than five weeks away from their home base. There is a considerably higher percentage of Imperial respondents reporting as migrant than Fresno respondents (see Tables 34 and 35). When traveling to work, most women report themselves as being in their own car or in a car pool, but the percentage of women traveling to work by bus is higher in Imperial

^{3/} All incomes on a weekly basis of reporting show average or actual amounts earned when work is available.

than Fresno. This is not surprising, since it is consistent with the agricultural employers' greater use of labor contractors in Imperial than Fresno (see Table 36). Most of the women respondents reporting themselves to be away fewer than five weeks travel to work alone, and those with a higher degree of migrancy travel to work with members of their family, primarily their spouse, children, siblings, and parents (see Tables 37 and 38).

Most of the women reported themselves as the most fully employed during the summer season, which was defined as the period between April and September. During the summer season, women reported themselves as having 10-19 weeks of work in contrast to the winter season (October - March), where the greater percentage reported themselves as having 0 - 4 weeks of work (see Tables 39, 40, and 44). During these seasons, appropriate to the crops' growing cycles, Fresno women report their major crop as grapes, followed by tomatoes. Imperial, on the other hand, shows lettuce as the major crop reported, followed by miscellaneous vegetable crops (see Tables 42 and 43).

No matter in what crop and in what season they are working, the highest number of women respondents report themselves as doing the following tasks in order of frequency: weeding, thinning, and hoeing, with some harvesting. Fresno respondents report more harvest employment than Imperial respondents, who report a greater amount of weeding (see Table 44). Almost three-quarters of the women respondents report that they prefer to be paid on an hourly rather than a piece-rate basis, regardless of the type of work activity in which they are engaged (see Table 45).

When asked about the effect of mechanization on their work, most of the respondents who answered in Fresno felt that machines had affected the crops in which they work; most respondents in Imperial did not feel machines had had an impact on the crops in which they work. Of those respondents who felt mechanization had had an impact on the crops in which they worked, most respondents felt that this had either caused them to lose a job or had made no difference to them. A very small percentage reported an increase in employment due to machines (see Tables 46 and 47). When asked about what types of jobs they perform if they work with machines, a large number of responses fell within the "sort and clean" category. Again, of those who felt an impact of machines, those responding indicated that they prefer to work without, rather than with, machines (see Tables 48 and 49).

Most of the female respondents in Fresno report themselves as not ever having belonged to a union; the reverse is true for Imperial respondents. Female respondents from both counties report themselves as being in favor of a union representing their interests in negotiating with employers. Of those respondents that belong to a union now, the greater proportion of responses indicated that they feel their union does represent their interests (see Tables 50, 51 and 52).

Given that there may be a decline in the number of agricultural jobs available if the trend toward mechanization continues in agricultural production, a series of questions explored previous encounters by respondents with job training programs, and their preferences about staying in agricultural work or moving into another employment area. Very few of the respondents reported themselves as having been referred to a job training program, although a somewhat higher number reported that they had heard of job training programs which sounded interesting to them (see Tables 53 and 54). Very few respondents reported themselves as having participated in any job training program in California, but of those who had, a higher percentage of female respondents than male respondents felt that the training had been useful (see Tables 55 and 56). Most respondents would like to pursue non-agricultural employment, if the work conditions in agriculture remain the same. ~~If the conditions in agriculture were to improve, e.g., higher rates of pay, better benefits,~~ enforcement of health and safety regulations, and better living conditions, then just over half would change rather than the three-quarters wishing to change if conditions did not improve (see Tables 57 and 58).

The employment characteristics of women farmworkers, then, show that they are performing the lowest-level jobs, there are few opportunities for job training and advancement in the present agricultural employment situation, they have a low degree of migrancy, and prefer an hourly rate of pay to piece-rate pay.

DATA BASE PROFILE: EXPRESSED SOCIAL SERVICE NEEDS

The social services explored in this study were child care, health care, and housing. In addition to seeking the current perceptions about such services as expressed by the respondents, the most desirable characteristics of such services were also explored.

In terms of child care, it was found that the majority of respondents report themselves as leaving their children with private babysitters and non-working family members. The major obstacles to use of child care centers were found to be distance away from the home and expense. If centers were accessible in terms of cost and location, the respondents reported they would leave their children either in the centers or with family. The most important characteristics of the centers were seen by respondents to be: multiservice facilities, including health care of a comprehensive and detailed nature; educational programs; cultural activities; and adequate recreation programs and facilities (see Tables 59A/B, 60, 61, 62, and 63).

Most respondents report themselves as responsible for paying for and acquiring health insurance. Most felt that health clinics do not have services available during non-working hours. Dental and ophthalmological care is in great demand, as are multiservice clinics where a broad spectrum of health services are provided, with greater flexibility in terms of the hours the clinics are open (see Tables 64, 65, 66, and 67).

Housing while working away from the home base is a major problem to the bulk of the respondents. Female respondents in both Fresno and Imperial report that the Central Valley is the most difficult area in California in which to find housing. The actual lack of housing facilities is the major obstacle, with cost being next in importance and the presence of children third in significance. More camp housing with better facilities within the camps, was requested (see Tables 68A/B, 69, 70, and 71).

These reported needs are neither surprising nor unreasonable. They reflect basic human requirements for adequate shelter, a modest level of health care, including attention to teeth and eyes, and a great concern for the well-being of their children while they are at work and unable to personally attend to their children's needs. As in most sociological studies of other populations, the concern for education of their children to insure them a better quality of life is high.

CHAPTER II

A COMPARISON OF SOCIAL SERVICES NEEDED WITH SOCIAL SERVICES PROVIDED

In this chapter the agency questionnaire responses will be discussed in relationship to the needs expressed by the women farmworker respondents. It is not our intention to formally *evaluate*, nor to criticize or commend any of the agencies involved, but merely to clarify differences between workers' expressed needs and available agency services.

Completed questionnaires were provided by the following agencies: California Department of Industrial Relations (including Cal/OSHA), the Comprehensive Employment Training Advisory Office (CETA-O), the Department of Health, the Department of Housing and Community Development, Migrant Services, and the Employment Development Department (EDD).

Only general comparisons between perceived needs and available services have been made, since farmworker responses, both male and female,^{1/} were quite specific, but the responses from agencies were of a more general nature. Despite this difference in the form of the responses, some conclusions may be drawn.

Workers' perceptions of health and safety hazards in agricultural employment, what in the workers' opinion might be done about these hazards, and the procedures followed by the Department of Industrial Relations in providing protection were elicited. In descending order of mention, women farmworkers cited as primary risks to their health and safety: mechanized processes (primarily conveyor-belt accidents and machine hazards around conveyor belts resulting from unsafe design or lack of proper upkeep), field conditions under which they are expected to work, unsafe use of chemicals, and lack of adequate sanitation facilities (see Table 72). In addition to detailed criticism of conditions, women farmworkers suggested steps that could be undertaken to reduce these risks. The following responses occurred with the most regularity: machines should be better maintained, with special safety devices regularly utilized; employers should discuss problems of field conditions with their workers to make them aware of potential danger areas; better safety procedures with respect to chemical use should be implemented; and laws and regulations should be more effectively enforced.

The responses of the Department of Industrial Relations indicate that there are adequate laws and regulations to protect workers from many of the perceived hazards. Yet, workers respond so strongly about the risks to which they are exposed that it is clear there is a wide gap between protective laws and any beneficial effects for farmworkers. The Department does not maintain personnel to deal specifically with agricultural concerns. The same personnel must deal with both industrial and agricultural safety, and attend to fair employment practices concerns as well. This agency response indicates that although they *may* initiate investigations or proceedings against violations, they most frequently respond to complaints; in other words the agency posture is essentially a passive one. Since the majority of complaints originate in industry, the industrial areas may be better served. The agency practice of proceeding on complaints, rather than initiating actions, appears to stem from shortness of staff rather than any lack of concern. Because farmworkers may not be as aware of their rights as are urban industrial workers, since information is often less available in rural areas, the policy of action via complaint rather than action through agency initiation without doubt contributes significantly to the workers' accurate perception that agricultural health and safety services are inadequate. The problems of lack of information, who should supply such information, and who should coordinate such information will be addressed in the conclusion of the chapter.

^{1/}Although this report is primarily concerned with women's expressed needs, the findings are that men and women share concerns for the same services.

The response received from the Department of Health, Farmworker Health Services Unit (FHSU), demonstrates why farmworkers overwhelmingly express a need for an increased level of health care services. There are only 12 FHSU clinics currently operating, although more are planned in the near future. However, there are significant gaps in health care service since the Department of Health estimates that they have a budget of only \$185,000 to serve an estimated farmworker population of 500,000. This works out to 37 cents per year per farmworker.

Clearly, not all farmworkers depend on FHSU for equal health care services. But it seems obvious that this woefully inadequate budget can only represent woefully inadequate service to this client population.

The Department of Health FHSU coordinates with local community agencies to some extent, and has undertaken research on effects of pesticides and accessibility of health care services to farmworkers. The FHSU is seeking effective ways of drawing input from farmworkers themselves. Their study on accessibility shows, expectedly, that distance from clinics and poor transportation facilities impede access to health care. There is also a lack of access to private practitioners, since many do not accept patients who are social benefit or MediCal recipients. Farmworkers themselves, as seen in responses presented here, would add the limited hours clinics are open as a barrier to access (see Table 66). In addition, since health services may be provided through the migrant housing camps, those farmworkers who cannot find housing at the migrant camps have still another barrier (see Table 68B). The farmworker respondents express a distinct and immediate need for dental and eye care.^{2/} They report a preference for multiservice health clinics, rather than purely primary care clinics. In addition, they express a need for bilingual professional medical staff (see Table 67).

Another area of concern to farmworkers is housing. Two entities within the California state governmental structure deal with the problems of farmworker housing: the Department of Housing and Community Development (HCD) and the Migrant Services office of EDD. The Department of Housing and Community Development works with local farmworker agencies, such as county housing authorities, to provide cooperatively-owned housing, multifamily housing, and single-family home ownership. Since many of the organizations they work with are either farmworker community action agencies, or are agencies in touch with such groups, much of their information about housing needs comes from these sources. Like the Departments of Industrial Relations, and Health, and the offices of Migrant Services, and CETA, they obtain additional planning information about the farmworker population from the aggregate data provided by the Employment Development Department. HCD is concerned with finding adequate loan sources for farmworkers to buy their own homes, as well as adequate land resources for homes. Since many farmworker respondents indicated that they rent rather than own their homes, this seems to be highly appropriate work for HCD to undertake and pursue.

The Migrant Services office runs 25 migrant centers which provide temporary housing. Each center can accommodate 50 to 150 families, but the office did not provide information on the size of these dwellings in relationship to the size of the families. In addition, the office indicated that their camps are locally run in terms of services and facilities provided. In spite of Migrant Services' statement that they have two monthly meetings with committees of camp residents, women respondents in this study claimed not to participate in such meetings (see Table 74A). The reality of local input from the residents themselves may be open to question. Information about child care was not available from Migrant Services; project staff were referred to the State Department of Education. Migrant Services appears not to be in sufficient communication with the Department of Education to have an overview of services and facilities existing for children. However, it should be noted that most child care services at migrant centers are determined by local input. Although most interviewees responded that they would like to use child care centers, they do not use centers for the reasons of cost, location, and programs discussed in Chapter I. If these child care centers are

^{2/} FHSU reports show some eye and dental care for children, but it is unclear whether these services are provided for adults. Ophthalmological examinations are, of course, crucial, and the question of provision of eye glasses also requires attention.

available only to camp residents, and if there is inadequate accessibility to camp housing, then child care needs are clearly not being met numerically, and perhaps not in the form reported as desirable by respondents (see Table 63).

Farmworker respondents to the survey did not reflect substantial job placement through the Employment Development Department, nor was there a large percentage of participation in EDD programs such as the Work Incentive Program (WIN). EDD reports the migrant seasonal farmworker (MSFW) applications as being 66,911, with 30,518 being referred to jobs. Of these referrals 21,652 were to agricultural jobs, and EDD figures further show 16,085 placements in agricultural jobs. Although many farmworkers have been referred and placed through EDD, there must be a large population of farmworkers, since a representative sample of farmworkers does not reveal a high affirmative response rate with regard to EDD job referrals and placements. It is unfortunate that there is no accurate data on the total number of farmworkers, since this lack makes it impossible to tell whether EDD is serving a significant portion of the farmworker population or whether it serves only a fragment. The character of the placements which have been made deserves mention. The bulk of these farmworker placements are in jobs which are for longer than three days and less than 150 days. It seems likely, then, that these placements occur during peak of season and probably last only about two to three weeks. The farmworker survey responses may be a reflection of the low rate of job placements which they report as gaining through EDD.

More critical of EDD than the farmworker respondents, however, were the grower respondents. Many growers reported they they made no effort to work through EDD, based on their prior experience with the agency. Their major criticism was of the time lag between a request for employees and the referral of farmworkers to them for employment, particularly during peak of season. If the majority of growers were to become disenchanted with EDD, this would impact upon farmworkers in that EDD would not have the job listings for placements (see Tables 74B, 74C, and 74D).

CONCLUSION

Migrant Services does make an excellent point: there is no single agency structuring and coordinating farmworker programs. Thus, the information about the nature of these programs may be somewhat confusing to the public. It is surely confusing to farmworkers, and perhaps this is why many of their expressed needs are unmet. Increased services to the farmworker population are obviously important, but what is also clearly necessary are effective methods of information dissemination to notify farmworkers of existing services and programs. Improved channels of communication will help alleviate the lack of access to programs.

Problems in communication are in some respects clearly illustrated by the State CETA office response. CETA itself does not provide services, but does fund innovative and demonstration programs. They coordinate with numerous agencies and groups working with farmworkers. There are also CETA prime sponsors in various counties, but the prime sponsors are antonomous, and in order to coordinate or learn of their activities, each would have to be contacted.

There are serious gaps between the needs expressed by farmworker respondents and the provision of services by agencies. The responses of both farmworkers and agencies indicate that this is primarily due to a lack of a comprehensive, coordinated planning and implementation structure, a lack of avenues to adequately promote farmworker input and participation, and a lack of comprehensive and detailed information about the numbers, needs, and characteristics of the farmworkers themselves. It is to be hoped that the data base presented by this study will be helpful to those agencies seeking to serve an isolated and disparate farmworker client group.

CHAPTER III

A COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT SITUATIONS AND OPTIONS FOR WOMEN AND MEN

This study did not begin from the assumption that women workers are discriminated against on the basis of gender. Rather the study undertook to explore potential areas of difference between the characteristics of employment for male and female farmworkers. Comparisons of the following areas were made:

1. Tasks performed
2. Length of time employed during the year
3. Income differentials
4. Perceptions of women's work ability
5. Perceived obstacles to employment
6. Preferred areas for change of employment.

By far the majority of women respondents reported themselves as performing the tasks of weeding, thinning, hoeing and harvesting. These tasks are in contrast to the activities performed by men, which include not only these tasks but irrigating and driving as well (see Table 44). Although growers report that they pay men and women at the same rate for the same tasks, and farmworkers themselves support this claim (see Table 75), it was hypothesized that women, being confined to what the industry labels low-level tasks,^{1/} would have lower incomes. Keeping women in these tasks, with no upward job mobility and with lower incomes, would result in a diminished standard of living for women. This would be of particularly serious significance to women heads of household. Also, the types of tasks performed will affect the amount of time employable during the year. The hoeing, weeding and thinning tasks women perform, which take a comparatively short time to do and are done only at certain periods, may result in lower pay and underemployment.

The issue of underemployment required an examination of the length of time women work during the year as compared to the length of time men work during the year. Table 76 shows the responses about the average number of weeks respondents generally expect to be employed during the year. The table holds years of experience and years of education constant, so that the difference in amount of time employed can be clearly associated with sex rather than being attributed to any intervening variable.

This table shows that no matter how much experience and education women have, men with the same degree of experience and education will be employed a higher average of weeks in the year. A regression analysis was run for this table and resulted in the probability of 0.0001. This means that there is only a one in ten thousand probability that this finding could occur by chance alone.

The next area of comparison in employment characteristics between men and women was their respective incomes. Tables 77 and 78 show the average annual and weekly incomes for male and female farmworkers. All these tables are consistent in that they show men and women with the same years of experience and years of education, they also consistently show that men earn more than women. In fact, some categories of men have incomes which are two to three times those of some categories of women. These incomes reflect only those wages earned in agriculture. This evidence supports the perception that although men work more than women, they do not work so much more that it can account for a difference of two or three times greater income for males.

^{1/}Those tasks which are less well paid than activities such as irrigation or machine operation reflect the low status assigned them by the industry.

Since growers report that they pay the same wages for the same tasks, this income difference must be due to the fact that although they are paid the same for the same jobs, women more frequently perform low-status, low-paying jobs. This is particularly held true by the finding of Table 44. When asked if in their opinion women earn as much as men when the men and women are performing the same tasks, most respondents agreed with the growers' expression of their belief that there is equal pay for equal tasks. The only respondents who did not agree, and this is significant if not surprising, were women farmworkers with high education and high experience. Again, regressions were performed to test the degree of significance and probability of the income findings, and were found to range between 0.0001 and 0.0003. This, then, means that there is only between a one in ten thousand to a three in ten thousand likelihood that these findings about income differences could occur by chance alone. Tables 79 and 80 further illustrate the difference in incomes for men and women farmworkers. When using an average annual income figure calculated from all worker responses, and when keeping years of education constant, women more often than men earn less than that average income figure. The same held true when examining the average weekly income. Regression was performed and results found to be, again, statistically significant.

The responses of the women farmworker interviewees indicate that they:

1. Feel able to do the same tasks (machine operation, irrigation) as men, but that they lack training (see Table 81).
2. Are capable and prepared to do the same work as men but they are not hired to do this work (see Table 82).

These perceptions add support to the argument that women could do the same work as men, and thus earn higher incomes, but that they are either denied training to move up to these jobs or are not hired to do these jobs, regardless of the amount of education and experience they have. In addition, in Table 83 it can be seen that men and women respondents agree that women *are* able to do the same work as men.

When men and women were asked if they would like to work in an occupation other than agriculture if they learned new skills, they overwhelmingly agreed. However, they also agreed that if conditions were improved, more would remain in agriculture. Although men and women agree that lack of education and job training are the main obstacles to changing employment, women more frequently than men cited familial responsibilities and child care as being additional obstacles, while men cited language difficulties more frequently than did women (see Tables 58, 84 and 85). When asked about preferred occupational sectors other than agriculture, Table 33 shows women having a preference for white-collar and helping occupations and men showing a preference for blue-collar work.

It is possible to see that in agriculture, as in other employment sectors, females more consistently perform low-status, low-paying tasks, and are more burdened by familial duties than men when considering alternative careers in other occupational sectors.

CHAPTER IV

CHARACTERISTICS OF AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT

The growers who were interviewed were primarily sole proprietors, growing grapes, lettuce, field and vegetable crops, and tree fruits. Half of the grower interviewees farmed under 640 acres. The largest number of growers had been farming for between thirty and forty years; seventeen growers leased land, while twenty-three leased no land but owned the entirety. Twenty-one of the grower respondents had between one and four other family members engaged in the operation with them, even if not in a formalized partnership. There were, of course, differences between counties. For example, larger land holdings were primarily located in Imperial, and more Fresno farmers leased part of the land they farm (see Tables 86, 87, 88 and 89).

Although this sample is too small to be statistically representative, it is possible to discuss the indications of employer's attitudes toward women farmworker employees, particularly since those employers who were interviewed were quite consistent in their responses to the attitudinal portion of the interview schedule.

For example, although 32 growers agreed with the statement that women workers are as dependable as male workers, and some qualified this response to say that they felt women workers were more dependable, they also felt women workers were not physically able to perform the same work as men. This is a central issue. It may or may not be true that women are able to perform the same tasks as men, based on physical strength; it would be more correct to say that some women *and* some men are not able to perform physically rigorous tasks. Under Civil Rights law and Equal Employment Opportunity regulations, women must be given the opportunity to compete for virtually any type of work a man would be hired to do. Thus, decisions not to hire women as machine operators because they may have to hook heavy equipment to tractors, which may be too physically taxing, may be neither valid nor legally correct. Most growers felt that women could be trained to do the same tasks as men (within their physical limitations), that women were equally cooperative as employees, that men and women equally deserve agricultural job training (when this was favored at all), that men and women are equally productive when doing the same tasks, and that women are hard workers (see Tables 90A/B, 91, 92, 93, 94A/B, 95, and 96). However, they prefer not to hire women to operate machinery, resulting in relegating women to low-level tasks and, therefore, lower-paying tasks (see Chapter III). In addition, grower responses indicate that they believe women to be less skilled than men (Table 97A/B). Yet skills can be acquired, and comparatively few depend on a high level of physical strength.

In the open-ended response part of the interview schedule, growers were asked to comment on their perceptions of the industry and the future of the industry. Among the items they mentioned as important and significant to agriculture in the future were: the need for more pesticide research, since more effective and less harmful pesticides would have significant advantages; a need for less government intervention in labor relations and other areas of agricultural production; and difficulties engendered by the enforcement of the 160-acre limitation. Only Fresno growers discussed labor supply problems. In both counties growers were asked to comment on their view of mechanization in agriculture. Most felt that if there is an increase in mechanized harvesting, they would very likely employ women in the mechanized harvest procedures. This is not meant to imply that no growers expressed reservations about agricultural mechanization; but with mechanization, if it were to occur, there would be, in their minds, less of a barrier to women's employment, since they felt that mechanization reduces the physical rigorousness of the work.

PROJECTION FOR FUTURE STUDY

It is possible to surmise that with mechanization and the growers' perception that physical rigor is reduced with mechanization, employment opportunities may increase for women farmworkers.

Also, it is quite clear that growers feel that government regulation and intervention is an onerous burden.^{1/} However, it was also found that most growers believe that if social services are to be provided to farmworkers, these services should be government sponsored (see Table 98C). Growers also believe that they are businessmen, and as such they will only be in business as long as they can make a living. Thus, although they may comply with, for example, sanitation regulations to some extent, they are not prepared, nor perhaps in some cases able, to provide them to the full extent of the law if it cannot be cost/benefit balanced.

These are not necessarily unreasonable attitudes and perceptions. In fact, many of them are quite understandable. When compared with the farmworkers' attitudes towards agricultural work, however, real conflicts which may have serious implications can be seen to surface. As already shown (see Chapter I), women farmworkers are not interested in remaining in agriculture unless conditions improve. Thus, if mechanization were to become prevalent, and women were to become preferred employees, they might not be available unless conditions such as the following are met: better pay and benefits, better housing facilities, better working conditions, and better treatment by employers and supervisors. In terms of regulations and enforcement of health and safety laws, if women want improvement in this area and consequently begin to make complaints, there will be government intervention, and this intervention is a sensitive area to the growers. In addition, if, as this study shows, farmworkers are intent on occupations other than farmwork for themselves, if possible, and certainly for their children (see Tables 98A/B and 99), then there may be a decrease in the total number of agricultural workers (not at once, but over time) unless replenished from new sources. If working conditions in agriculture are not made better by the employers themselves, there may not be an adequate labor force, or there may be considerable government intervention on behalf of the labor force, or there may be both. Basic economics would seem to indicate that smaller farmers would be the first to feel these ill effects. It is the small farmer that depends on recurrent labor to meet his/her labor needs, it is the small grower who is less likely to mechanize and thus has higher labor requirements, and it is the small grower who feels most suffocated by government intervention and its accompanying paperwork. Thus, these projected factors may impact upon the already prevalent trend in California toward agribusiness corporation control of food production. There is no value judgment implied here; rather, by suggesting these projections, it is hoped that potentially affected individuals, including growers, will make conscious decisions.

The picture projected is not totally grim. There are a number of characteristics of agricultural work that are very appealing to many women farmworkers. For example, women like working outside in the open, the freedom of working some seasons and not the entire year, and the freedom of agricultural work when contrasted to work for a tightly supervised and organized industry (see Table 100). In fact, women specifically like those aspects of agricultural work that are less industrialized. Thus, if agriculture is increasingly industrialized, without improving working conditions, it is logical to project that women will be less interested in agriculture as an occupation, even if it is more available. It is important to note, however, that a shift to the industrial mechanized mode may not be the solution to a potentially diminishing labor force. For example, energy reserves are of considerable importance, given the current and continued scarcity of energy resources. To disrupt the agricultural labor force in favor of mechanized processes, which may not have adequate fuel resources, could result in a severe lack of labor should it be necessary to resume hand farm labor. It should also be noted that a rapid transition to mechanization will displace workers who currently have no other career options and will have to undergo training to be employable in another sector. Further, it is important to remember that those farmworkers who have worked with machines prefer to work without machines, and that machines are perceived as a primary risk to safety.

These projections, of course, are not meant to be conclusive; but, instead, they are meant to be indicative of potential situations for both the farmworkers and growers of the California agricultural production system.

^{1/}It must be pointed out that several growers expressed their belief that their own lack of organization and in some areas lack of responsibility had contributed to an increased governmental role in agriculture, and that they realized their social responsibilities.

CHAPTER V

METHODOLOGY

This is the first descriptive demographic study of women farmworkers to have been conducted in California, as well as the first study nationwide to deal specifically with women farmworkers as differentiated from male farmworkers, or from the farmworkers population as a whole. The aim of the study was to obtain as full a profile as possible of women employed in agricultural farmwork in California.

A combination of sociological methods was used to achieve this goal while maintaining a high level of confidence in the findings. The use of multiple methods is valuable in this regard as it allows for different questions and concerns to be addressed in the manner which will result in the most appropriate mode of response. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were employed, as were archival, in-depth interview, and survey research. In addition, although the target population was specifically female farmworkers, male farmworkers, agricultural employers, and State agencies involved in farmworker issues and support services were used as respondents so that a full view of women farmworkers and their social context could be developed.

ARCHIVAL RESEARCH

The first step was a literature search to determine what was currently known about female farmworkers, and to determine which of the State of California agencies were most involved in service delivery to the farmworker population. Using subject headings such as farmworker, migrant, agricultural labor, seasonal labor, agriculture, Chicana, Mexicana, and Mexican-American, a number of libraries and indexes were searched. The California State Library was searched, using not only the subject headings listed above, but was searched agency by agency to see which agencies had published reports on farmworkers or had services to farmworkers discussed in their annual reports. The agencies concerned with farmworkers which emerged from this search were as follows: Migrant Services/Migrant Education, Employment Development Department, Department of Health, Office of Migrant Rural Programs, Department of Housing and Community Development, and the program section of the State Comprehensive Employment and Training Act office located within the Department of Employment Development. Conspicuously absent from the list, since there were no reports, were Cal/OSHA, and with the exception of one report, the Department of Industrial Relations. The Department of Agriculture, although keeping statistical reports on numbers of farmworkers, had no other information; farmworkers and farmworker services are not really within their mandate. Consequently, this department has been excluded from the questionnaire developed from distribution to State agencies mandated to work with farmworkers. Having located the agencies to be used as respondents, their annual reports were read and questionnaires developed specific to each agency's farmworker-related programs (see section on agency questionnaires).

As can be seen from the partial bibliography, little useful information about the California farm labor force existed, and there was even less on women farmworkers alone. Agriculture as an industry in California emerged as not even differentiating between numbers of males and numbers of females employed. Data from EDD and the Department of Food and Agriculture were found to be based not on actual numbers of labor force participants, but on mathematical formulas which estimate the number of jobs and the number of manhours. Thus, it was dubious that these data were reliable or informative, and it was decided that both males and females needed to be interviewed so that the necessary comparisons could be made from a data base with greater reliability.

Having completed the literature search of state-related sources, the libraries at the University of California, Berkeley, and the University of California, Davis, were searched. In addition to searching the collections of these libraries, Dissertation Abstracts, Sociological Abstracts, Psychological Abstracts, the automated Cain data base, and a number of periodical indexes were searched. Again, very little information specific to women farmworkers could be discovered.

SURVEY LOCATIONS

Examination of the California agricultural industry did lead to a choice of counties for the survey: Fresno and Imperial. Given the constraints of a one-year project, the study was limited to two counties. Consequently, counties which were representative of various elements in California agriculture were sought. Fresno and Imperial are both counties in which the agricultural industry plays a prominent role. They provide complementary information since the organization of agricultural labor and agricultural production differs in each.

Fresno has a highly diversified base of agricultural commodities. Thus, there is a more stable labor force, primarily seasonal rather than migrant, and a broad range of tasks for agricultural workers exists. The variety of crops and tasks insures a greater likelihood of employment for a greater portion of the year. Imperial County is somewhat less diversified in terms of crops with labor-intensive activities. In addition, due to its proximity to the border, the labor force has a greater portion of workers commuting from Mexicali, and a greater portion of migrant workers who move through the Imperial and Coachella valleys.

FARMWORKER INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Using the little information found in the literature search, a set of questions that could be used for social histories with male and female farmworkers was derived. In this more qualitative component of the study, open-ended oral histories were conducted with male and female farmworkers. These interviews served to supplement the available literature in developing a base for the formulation of the farmworker interview schedule questions. In addition, questions were drawn from Cheryl Peterson's 1965 USDA-sponsored farmworker study, so that there would be a potential for comparative overtime analysis.

The farmworker interview schedule consisted of primarily closed-ended questions, supplemented by open-ended and attitudinal questions. The interview schedules were pre-coded. The interview schedules were in both English and Spanish, so that the respondents could participate in the interview using their own language of choice. The interview schedule underwent "back translation." This means that the interview schedule which was developed in English, was translated into Spanish, and then, by a second translator, translated back into English to see if the translation expressed the English formulations adequately. The interview schedule was then pretested by six respondents; examined by the Advisory Board, particularly those members with agricultural backgrounds; examined by several consulting sociologists with methodological expertise; and discussed with persons familiar with the farmworker experience.

AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYER INTERVIEW SCHEDULES

In-depth open-ended interviews conducted in 1975 & 1978,^{1/} were used as the basis for the agricultural employer interview schedules. Closed-ended, open-ended, and attitudinal questions on the agricultural employer interview schedule for the *Campesina* study were based upon the earlier interviews with growers and on social histories from farmworkers showing the need for work context information. The interview schedules were designed to determine agricultural employers' attitudes toward employing women in general and toward employing women for specific tasks, and to obtain information bearing on production which will affect employment contexts.

^{1/} Interviews conducted in the preparation of *Destalking the Willy Tomato*, Friedland and Barton, 1975 and *Manufacturing Green Gold* Friedland, Barton, and Thomas, 1978

After completion of the interview schedule, it was reviewed by several sociologists, the Advisory Board, particularly the agricultural employer members, and agricultural industry representatives.

AGENCY QUESTIONNAIRE

As discussed earlier, materials specific to the target agencies were collected and reviewed. The questionnaires were designed to be self-administered by the agency heads so that both policy and specifics of the programs relating to farmworkers could be explored. Again, the farmworker social histories were used to highlight certain areas of the agency questionnaires. The questionnaires were designed to be open-ended. Both quantitative information, such as number of clients served, and qualitative information, such as type and depth of service, were elicited. Again, the instrument was reviewed by sociologists, the Advisory Board, and persons familiar with social service programs and social service program delivery.

FARMWORKER SAMPLE

Given the lack of accurate data on the numbers of farmworkers in California, it was difficult to determine a sample size. The universe was defined as infinite, and the sample size of 600 was selected from the Appendix table. The sample size of 600, according to the table, allows for generalizability reliable within ± 4 percent. The total sample of 600 was broken down into components of 400 women, a sample reliable within ± 5 percent, and 200 men, a sample reliable within ± 7 percent. This breakdown was decided upon since some interviews with males were needed for comparative purposes, but a larger number of females was appropriate since they are the target of the study.

Originally, the farmworker sample was to be drawn through employers. Through employee lists, random samples were to be drawn and the workers contacted and interviewed in their homes. However, in both counties, agricultural employers were either unable or unwilling to comply with the requests for lists of workers. Those agricultural employers who were able to comply did not provide adequate breadth in terms of type of growing operation, since they were all small growers and involved in essentially the same crops. This would have biased the type of workers interviewed. Consequently, an alternative sampling framework was created.

In Fresno, County Planning Department maps were utilized. First, using the County Planning Department definitions, the county was divided into four quadrants: north, south, east, and west. Then, using Fresno County census data, residential sections of the county were further broken down by ethnicity and by incorporated and unincorporated areas. Using the concept of key informants, state and county outreach workers and farmworker community informants identified those residential areas within the census tracts where farmworkers were located. A list of public and private farmworker housing camps was then obtained from the Fresno County Department of Environmental Health, and the two lists were scrambled and combined. These areas were then randomly sampled and a list of areas for the survey resulted. Streets within these areas were then randomly sampled to provide the interviewer assignments. A random numbers table was used to assign different interviewers to different 'nth' houses on the streets.

In Imperial County, the sample of 300 was split into two groups of 150, one hundred women and fifty men to each group. Group A interviewees were located by using the same procedure as had been developed in Fresno and consisted of farmworkers living on the United States side of the border. Group B were residents of Mexico. These workers were contacted as they crossed the border in the early morning hours. Every third woman and every fifth man was approached, and addresses in Mexicali were obtained from those agreeing to do interviews. Where workers travelled across the border in groups, every third group was approached and a coin was flipped to determine which worker would be asked to participate.^{2/}

^{2/} This form of sampling may somewhat reduce the percent of reliability as indicated by the chart in the Appendix. The large overall sample size allows for considerable confidence in the overall findings, despite the possible increase in sampling error for the 150 Mexican residents.

AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYERS SAMPLE

The Agricultural Commissioners in Fresno and Imperial Counties were contacted and were requested to provide a representative list of agricultural employers in their counties. The Fresno County list provided information on farm size and crops grown, which are important variables for the sample to be representative. This list was randomly sampled and growers were contacted until a sample of twenty interviews had been developed. The Imperial list of growers was not stratified by farm size and crop. After the sample had been drawn and interviews conducted, key informants of the Imperial agricultural industry were contacted and asked a list of questions synthesized from the responses obtained from the sample, as a check for representativeness of the county as a whole. These samples do not have statistical reliability of generalization, but do serve to give an indication of prevailing attitudes toward, and work context for, farmworkers in these counties.

SELECTION AND TRAINING OF INTERVIEWERS

Interviewers were recruited locally in Fresno and Imperial counties. Job announcements for these positions were circulated in a variety of places one month prior to hiring: Employment Development Department offices, farmworker social service agencies, local legislative offices, and others. Given the residential nature of the sampling and location of farmworkers, it was important to have interviewers familiar with the local areas. Thoroughly bilingual persons with previous experience with interviewing and with farmworkers were selected. In each county 14 women and 6 men were hired as interviewers. Male interviewers interviewed men and female interviewers interviewed women. This procedure was considered necessary, since cultural differences might have prevented women interviewees from responding openly, or even participating in interviews with men. Interviewers were trained at one-day training sessions directed toward general interview techniques and familiarization with the interview schedules. In addition, interviewers were trained in terms of the administrative requirements for invoices and information release forms, since interviewees were compensated for their time, and had to sign legal releases. Techniques used in the training session involved small group discussion of the interview schedules, role playing while using the interview schedules, and large group questions and answers. Interviewers translated Spanish open-ended responses into appropriate English keywords.

FRESNO INTERVIEWS

The Fresno interviews were conducted in early September 1977, during the peak labor period for that county, and lasted two weeks. Interviewers were required to check in every two days. Invoices for the interviewees were randomly sampled to provide the names and addresses of respondents for check-back purposes. Aside from this procedure to establish the validity of the interviews, strict confidentiality of the interviewee identities was maintained.

Grower interviews were conducted during November, after the peak harvest pressure was somewhat eased.

IMPERIAL INTERVIEWS

Imperial farmworker interviews were conducted in January 1978, during the peak labor period and lasted two weeks. The same check-in and check-back procedures that applied in Fresno were again utilized.

Grower interviews were conducted in December 1977.

DATA PROCESSING

Data entry and processing were contracted to the Division of Social Sciences, University of California, Santa Cruz. The Social Sciences Division maintains a full-time staff to facilitate social scientists' computer needs. This, plus the capacity of the system for direct data entry onto disc were considered valuable characteristics. The physical components plus specialized programming staff allowed the study's vast quantity of data to be handled efficiently, yet without losing any of the subtleties and nuances in some of the responses. Only farmworker interviews, 300 from Fresno and 286 from Imperial,^{3/} and agricultural employer interviews, 20 from Fresno and 20 from Imperial, were entered into the computing system. Agency questionnaires were not manipulated by computer since they were few in number and very specific in design.

Open-ended responses from the farmworker and agricultural employer interview schedules were input by keyword and keyword phrase directly into the computer. From this procedure it was possible to get listings of frequency response for coding purposes. This is different from the procedure of creating coding categories first and then entering coded responses, and worked very well in that the codes are derived from the actual responses and all of the responses still exist for in-depth discussion and examples.

The first step in handling the entered closed-ended responses was to obtain frequencies both by county and then with both counties combined. Following these frequency distributions, crosstabs by sex were run for all of the questions, both closed-ended and open-ended. These steps were also followed for the grower interviewer schedules, but without crosstabs by sex, since all growers in the samples were male.

The entering of the open-ended questions, as well as the closed-ended questions, was programmed to allow for multiple responses where necessary and appropriate in terms of obtaining the fullest possible answer from the farmworkers and agricultural employers. This results in considerable variation in the missing values of the tables.

Using the frequencies and crosstabs, several new variables were created, and control variables were identified and defined. Control variables were identified as being race, number of years of formal education (high education = 9 years and more), and number of years of farmwork experience (high experience = 10 years and more). New variables include: migrant (five weeks and more away from home, with "home" defined as place of permanent residence) and non-migrant (fewer than five weeks away from home); average annual income; average rate of pay per task; weeks worked during the year; and average weekly income.

Based on the above, tables were ordered in such a way as to test the relationship between the independent variable (sex) and a number of dependent variables in a series of 68 hypotheses pertaining to the status of women farmworkers. Only these tables relating to those hypotheses with direct bearing and statistical significance, as determined through regression analysis techniques, are included in this report.

^{3/} Fourteen female farmworker interview schedules were lost in the mail from Imperial to Santa Cruz. This alters the percentage of reliability by 1%, i.e. $\pm 6\%$ and $\pm 8\%$.

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TABLE I — ETHNIC BACKGROUND

	ANGLO		BLACK		MEXICAN		MEXICAN AMERICAN		FILIPINO		OTHER ASIAN		AMERICAN INDIAN		OTHER UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	5	2.5	5	2.5	94	47.4	87	43.9	2	1			1	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5
MALE FRESNO			2	2	64	64	24	24			3	3					1	1
FEMALE IMPERIAL			3	1.5	149	77.2	39	20.2	1	0.5							1	0.5
MALE IMPERIAL			2	2.1	78	83.8	12	12.9									1	1
TOTAL FEMALE	5	1.2	8	2	243	62.1	126	32.2	3	0.7			1	0.2	1	0.2	2	0.5
TOTAL MALE			4	2	142	73.5	36	18.6			3	1.5					2	1
GRAND TOTAL	5	0.8	12	2	385	65.9	162	27.7	3	0.5	3	0.5	1	0.1	1	0.1	4	0.6

TABLE 2 — AGE

	1 - 15		16 - 20		21 - 29		30 - 39		40 - 49		50 - 55		56+	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	3	1.5	32	16.1	46	23.2	56	28.2	44	22.2	12	6	5	2.5
MALE FRESNO	1	1	6	6	32	32	23	23	19	19	12	12	7	7
FEMALE IMPERIAL	1	0.5	18	9.3	54	27.9	38	19.6	54	27.9	15	7.7	12	6.2
MALE IMPERIAL	1	1	2	2.1	18	19.3	13	13.9	25	26.8	13	13.9	21	22.5
TOTAL FEMALE	4	1	50	12.7	100	25.5	94	24	98	25	27	6.9	17	4.3
TOTAL MALE	2	1	8	4.1	50	25.9	36	18.6	44	22.7	25	12.9	28	14.5
GRAND TOTAL	6	1	58	9.9	150	25.6	130	22.2	142	24.3	52	8.9	45	7.7

TABLE 3 — RELIGION

	CATHOLIC		PROTESTANT		JEWISH		OTHER		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	161	81.3	18	9	1	0.5	8	4	2	1	8	4
MALE FRESNO	77	77	6	6			9	9	2	2	6	6
FEMALE IMPERIAL	175	90.6	3	1.5			9	4.6	3	1.5	3	1.5
MALE IMPERIAL	85	91.3	1	1			4	4.3	1	1	1	1
TOTAL FEMALE	336	85.9	21	5.3	1	0.2	17	4.3	5	1.2	11	2.8
TOTAL MALE	162	83.9	7	3.6			13	6.7	3	1.5	7	3.6
GRAND TOTAL	498	85.2	28	4.7	1	0.1	30	5.1	8	1.3	18	3

TABLE 4 — MARITAL STATUS

	MARRIED		DIVORCED		SEPARATED		WIDOWED		SINGLE		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	148	74.7	11	5.5	6	3	7	3.5	22	11.1			4	2
MALE FRESNO	75	75	3	3					22	22				
FEMALE IMPERIAL	131	67.8	11	5.6	9	4.6	13	6.7	28	14.5	1	0.5		
MALE IMPERIAL	77	82.7	3	3.2	3	3.2			8	8.6			2	2.1
TOTAL FEMALE	279	71.3	22	5.6	15	3.8	20	5.1	50	12.7	1	0.2	4	1
TOTAL MALE	152	78.7	6	3.1	3	1.5			30	15.5			2	1
GRAND TOTAL	431	73.8	28	4.7	18	3	20	3.4	80	13.6	1	0.1	6	1

TABLE 5 — HOUSEHOLD STATUS

	HEAD		WITH OTHERS		ALONE		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	44	22.2	149	75.2	4	2			1	0.5
MALE FRESNO	71	71	19	19	10	10				
FEMALE IMPERIAL	89	46.1	96	49.7	6	3.1			1	0.5
MALE IMPERIAL	73	78.4	8	8.6	9	9.6	1	1	2	2.1
TOTAL FEMALE	133	34	245	62.6	10	2.5			2	0.5
TOTAL MALE	144	74.6	27	13.9	19	9.8	1	0.5	2	1
GRAND TOTAL	277	47.4	272	46.5	29	4.9	1	0.1	4	0.6

TABLE 6 — CITIZENSHIP STATUS

	YES		NO		PENDING		WORK VISA		GREEN CARD		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	118	59.5	49	24.7			2	1	26	13.1	1	0.5	2	1
MALE FRESNO	49	49	27	26.9	2	2	2	2	16	16			3	3
FEMALE IMPERIAL	55	28.4	46	23.8			4	2	87	45			1	0.5
MALE IMPERIAL	25	26.8	28	30.1			2	2.1	38	40.8				
TOTAL FEMALE	173	44.2	95	24.2			6	1.5	113	28.9	1	0.2	3	0.7
TOTAL MALE	74	38.3	55	28.4	2	1	4	2	54	27.9			3	1.5
GRAND TOTAL	247	42.2	150	25.6	2	0.3	10	1.7	167	28.5	1	0.1	6	1

TABLE 7 — YEARS OF EDUCATION

	NONE		IN SCHOOL		1-7 YEARS		8 YEARS		9-11 YEARS		12+ YEARS		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	16	8	10	5	75	37.8	22	11.1	46	23.2	28	14.1			1	0.5
MALE FRESNO	8	8	2	2	44	44	7	7	17	17	20	20			2	2
FEMALE IMPERIAL	22	11.3	12	6.2	108	55.9	14	7.2	20	10.3	16	8.2			1	0.5
MALE IMPERIAL	13	13.9	1	1	56	60.2	5	5.3	11	11.8	5	5.3	1	1	1	1
TOTAL FEMALE	38	9.7	22	5.6	183	46.8	36	9.2	66	16.8	44	11.2			2	0.5
TOTAL MALE	21	10.8	3	1.5	100	51.8	12	6.2	28	14.5	25	12.9	1	0.5	3	1.5
GRAND TOTAL	59	10.1	25	4.2	283	48.4	48	8.2	94	16	69	11.8	1	0.1	5	0.8

TABLE 8 — LANGUAGES READ

	ENGLISH		SPANISH		ENGLISH/ SPANISH		ENGLISH/ OTHER		OTHER		CAN'T READ		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	43	21.7	66	33.3	83	41.9					5	2.5			1	0.5
MALE FRESNO	13	13	49	49	34	34	1	1			3	3				
FEMALE IMPERIAL	4	2	131	67.8	50	25.9					7	3.6			1	0.5
MALE IMPERIAL	5	5.3	65	69.8	20	21.5					2	2.1			1	1
TOTAL FEMALE	47	12	197	50.3	133	34					12	3			2	0.5
TOTAL MALE	18	9.3	114	59	54	27.9	1	0.5			5	2.5			1	0.5
GRAND TOTAL	65	11.1	311	53.2	187	32	1	0.1			17	2.9			3	0.5

TABLE 9 — LANGUAGES WRITTEN

	ENGLISH		SPANISH		ENGLISH/ SPANISH		ENGLISH/ OTHER		OTHER		CAN'T WRITE		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	58	29.2	70	35.3	62	31.3					7	3.5			1	0.5
MALE FRESNO	20	20	51	50.9	22	22	1	1			6	6				
FEMALE IMPERIAL	7	3.6	132	68.3	45	23.3					8	4.1			1	0.5
MALE IMPERIAL	7	7.5	68	73.1	16	17.2					2	2.1				
TOTAL FEMALE	65	16.6	202	51.6	107	27.3					15	3.8			2	0.5
TOTAL MALE	27	13.9	119	61.6	38	19.6	1	0.5			8	4.1				
GRAND TOTAL	92	15.7	321	54.9	145	24.8	1	0.1			23	3.9			2	0.3

TABLE 10 — LANGUAGE IN WHICH INTERVIEW WAS CONDUCTED

	ENGLISH		SPANISH		ENG/SPAN		OTHER		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	92	46.4	90	45.4	15	7.5					1	0.5
MALE FRESNO	34	34	62	62	4	4						
FEMALE IMPERIAL	9	4.6	149	77.2	33	17	1	0.5				
MALE IMPERIAL	6	6.4	78	83.8	9	9.6						
TOTAL FEMALE	101	25.8	239	61.1	48	12.2	1	0.2			1	0.2
TOTAL MALE	40	20.7	140	72.5	13	6.7						
GRAND TOTAL	141	24.1	379	64.8	61	10.4	1	0.1			1	0.1

TABLE 11 — PLACE OF EDUCATION

	UNITED STATES		MEXICO		US/MEXICO		OTHER		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	116	58.5	60	30.3	8	4	2	1	2	1	10	5
MALE FRESNO	43	43	44	44	3	3	1	1			9	9
FEMALE IMPERIAL	32	16.5	125	64.7	16	8.2	2	1	3	1.5	14	7.2
MALE IMPERIAL	20	21.5	57	61.2	1	1	1	1			14	15
TOTAL FEMALE	148	37.8	185	47.3	24	6.1	4	1	5	1.2	24	6.1
TOTAL MALE	63	32.6	101	52.3	4	2	2	1			23	11.9
GRAND TOTAL	211	36.1	286	48.9	28	4.7	6	1	5	0.8	47	8

TABLE 12 — HOME BASE LOCATION

	U.S.		CALI-FORNIA		FRESNO		SACRA-MENTO		FIRE-BAUGH		ORANGE COVE		BRENT-WOOD		IMPERIAL		MEXICO		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	28	14.1	23	11.6	110	55.5	1	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5			1	0.5	4	2	29	14.6
MALE FRESNO	3	3	3	3	62	62							1	1			4	4	27	26.9
FEMALE IMPERIAL			14	7.2	1	0.5									103	53.3	59	30.5	16	8.2
MALE IMPERIAL	7	7.5	3	3.2	2	2.1									39	41.9	29	31.1	13	13.9
TOTAL FEMALE	28	7.1	37	9.4	111	28.3	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2			104	26.5	63	16.1	45	11.5
TOTAL MALE	10	5.1	6	3.1	64	33.1							1	0.5	39	20.2	33	17	40	20.7
GRAND TOTAL	38	6.5	43	7.3	175	29.9	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	0.1	143	24.4	96	16.4	85	14.5

TABLE 13 — DECLARES A HOME BASE

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	170	85.8	26	13.1			2	1
MALE FRESNO	78	78	21	21			1	1
FEMALE IMPERIAL	163	84.4	28	14.5			2	1
MALE IMPERIAL	88	94.6	3	3.2			2	2.1
TOTAL FEMALE	333	85.1	54	13.8			4	1
TOTAL MALE	166	86	24	12.4			3	1.5
GRAND TOTAL	499	85.4	78	13.3			7	1.1

TABLE 14 — TYPE OF HOME BASE HOUSING

	HOUSE		TRAILER		APARTMENT		HOTEL		MOTEL		ROOM /HOUSE		OTHER		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	163	82.3	5	2.5	22	11.1							5	2.5	1	0.5	2	1
MALE FRESNO	88	88	2	2	4	4					5	5	1	1				
FEMALE IMPERIAL	167	86.5	5	2.5	15	7.7			1	0.5			1	0.5			4	2
MALE IMPERIAL	82	88.1			11	11.8												
TOTAL FEMALE	330	84.3	10	2.5	37	9.4			1	0.2			6	1.5	1	0.2	6	1.5
TOTAL MALE	170	88	2	1	15	7.7					5	2.5	1	0.5				
GRAND TOTAL	500	85.6	12	2	52	8.9			1	0.1	5	0.8	7	1.1	1	0.1	6	1

TABLE 15 — HOME OWNERSHIP

	RENT		OWN		OTHER		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	94	47.4	87	43.9	13	6.5	1	0.5	3	1.5
MALE FRESNO	49	49	42	42	8	8			1	1
FEMALE IMPERIAL	91	47.1	89	46.1	7	3.6			6	3.1
MALE IMPERIAL	47	50.5	44	47.3	2	2.1				
TOTAL FEMALE	185	47.3	176	45	20	5.1	1	0.2	9	2.3
TOTAL MALE	96	49.7	86	44.5	10	5.1			1	0.5
GRAND TOTAL	281	48.1	262	44.8	30	5.1	1	0.1	10	1.7

TABLE 16 — NUMBER OF ROOMS IN RESIDENCE

	1		2		3		4		5		6		7+		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	1	0.5	8	4	21	10.6	23	11.6	41	20.7	43	21.7	54	27.2			7	3.5
MALE FRESNO			7	7	20	20	19	19	18	18	17	17	15	15	2	2	2	2
FEMALE IMPERIAL	2	1	22	11.3	50	25.9	46	23.8	30	15.5	24	12.4	15	7.7			4	2
MALE IMPERIAL	3	3.2	9	9.6	25	26.8	22	23.6	13	13.9	10	10.7	8	8.6			3	3.2
TOTAL FEMALE	3	0.7	30	7.6	71	18.1	69	17.6	71	18.1	67	17.1	69	17.6			11	2.8
TOTAL MALE	3	1.5	16	8.2	45	23.3	41	21.2	31	16	27	13.9	23	11.9	2	1	5	2.5
GRAND TOTAL	6	1	46	7.8	116	19.8	110	18.8	102	17.4	94	16	92	15.7	2	0.3	16	2.7

TABLE 17A — SEPARATE KITCHEN

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	103	52	89	44.9			6	3
MALE FRESNO	44	44	51	50.9	2	2	3	3
FEMALE IMPERIAL	103	53.3	85	44	1	0.5	4	2
MALE IMPERIAL	48	51.6	43	46.2			2	2.1
TOTAL FEMALE	206	52.6	174	44.5	1	0.2	10	2.5
TOTAL MALE	92	47.6	94	48.7	2	1	5	2.5
GRAND TOTAL	298	51	268	45.8	3	0.5	15	2.5

TABLE 17B — SEPARATE BATHROOM

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	102	51.5	89	44.9	1	0.5	6	3
MALE FRESNO	44	44	52	52	2	2	2	2
FEMALE IMPERIAL	113	58.5	75	38.8	1	0.5	4	2
MALE IMPERIAL	30	32.2	61	65.5			2	2.1
TOTAL FEMALE	215	54.9	164	41.9	2	0.5	10	2.5
TOTAL MALE	74	38.3	113	58.5	2	1	4	2
GRAND TOTAL	289	49.4	277	47.4	4	0.6	14	2.3

TABLE 23 — AMOUNT OF ANNUAL INCOME EARNED IN AGRICULTURE

	UNDER 1/4		1/4		1/2		3/4		UNDER 1/3		1/3		2/3		ALL		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	27	13.6	8	4	9	4.5	6	3	3	1.5	1	0.5	2	1	135	68.1	3	1.5	4	2
MALE FRESNO	4	4	2	2	3	3	2	2			1	1	3	3	79	79	3	3	3	3
FEMALE IMPERIAL	4	2	7	3.6	10	5.1	1	0.5	3	1.5	4	2			158	81.8	3	1.5	3	1.5
MALE IMPERIAL	1	1	1	1	3	3.2	4	4.3			1	1	1	1	79	84.9	3	3.2		
TOTAL FEMALE	31	7.9	15	3.8	19	4.8	7	1.7	6	1.5	5	1.2	2	0.5	293	74.9	6	1.5	7	1.7
TOTAL MALE	5	2.5	3	1.5	6	3.1	6	3.1			2	1	4	2	158	81.8	6	3.1	3	1.5
GRAND TOTAL	36	6.1	18	3	25	4.2	13	2.2	6	1	7	1.1	6	1	451	77.2	12	2	10	1.7

TABLE 24 — PAY U.S. INCOME TAX

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	105	53	89	44.9			4	2
MALE FRESNO	63	63	36	36			1	1
FEMALE IMPERIAL	142	73.5	44	22.7	1	0.5	5	2.5
MALE IMPERIAL	61	65.5	30	32.2			2	2.1
TOTAL FEMALE	247	63.1	133	34	1	0.2	9	2.3
TOTAL MALE	124	64.2	66	34.1			3	1.5
GRAND TOTAL	371	63.5	199	34	1	0.1	12	2

TABLE 25 — USUAL WEEKLY EARNINGS

	\$50-99		\$100-124		\$125-149		\$150-199		\$200-249		\$250-299		\$300-399		\$400+		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	46	23.2	68	34.3	37	18.6	25	12.6	7	3.5	4	2			1	0.5	4	2	6	3
MALE FRESNO	13	13	18	18	23	23	30	30	8	8	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3
FEMALE IMPERIAL	17	8.8	48	24.8	64	33.1	48	24.8	10	5.1	2	1			1	0.5			3	1.5
MALE IMPERIAL	11	11.8	17	18.2	13	13.9	22	23.6	18	19.3	6	6.4	5	5.3	1	1				
TOTAL FEMALE	63	16.1	116	29.6	101	25.8	73	18.6	17	4.3	6	1.5			2	0.5	4	1	9	2.3
TOTAL MALE	24	12.4	35	18.1	36	18.6	52	26.9	26	13.4	8	4.1	6	3.1	2	1	1	0.5	3	1.5
GRAND TOTAL	87	14.8	151	25.8	137	23.4	125	21.4	43	7.3	14	2.3	6	1	4	0.6	5	0.8	12	2

TABLE 26 — EARNINGS IN PAST TWO WEEKS

	\$ 1 - 50		\$51-100		\$101-150		\$151-200		\$201-300		\$301-400		\$401-500		\$500+		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	11	5.5	17	8.5	30	15.1	40	20.2	60	30.3	16	8	8	4	13	6.5	3	1.5		
MALE FRESNO	1	1	7	7	15	15	8	8	34	34	14	14	11	11	8	8	2	2		
FEMALE IMPERIAL	7	3.6	34	17.6	41	21.2	39	20.2	40	20.7	7	3.6	3	1.5	12	6.2	10	5.1		
MALE IMPERIAL	7	7.5	10	10.7	18	19.3	17	18.2	24	25.8	9	9.6	3	3.2	4	4.3	1	1		
TOTAL FEMALE	18	4.6	51	13	71	18.1	79	20.2	100	25.5	23	5.8	11	2.8	25	6.3	13	3.3		
TOTAL MALE	8	4.1	17	8.8	33	17	25	12.9	58	30	23	11.9	14	7.2	12	6.2	3	1.5		
GRAND TOTAL	26	4.4	68	11.6	104	17.8	104	17.8	158	27	46	7.8	25	4.2	37	6.3	16	2.7		

TABLE 27 — CONTRIBUTION TO ANNUAL FAMILY INCOME

	UNDER 1/4		1/4		1/2		3/4		UNDER 1/3		1/3		2/3		ALL		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	56	28.2	17	8.5	20	10.1	6	3	1	0.5	8	4			81	40.9	4	2	5	2.5
MALE FRESNO	7	7	2	2	8	8	16	16			3	3	6	6	54	53.9	2	2	2	2
FEMALE IMPERIAL	10	5.1	15	7.7	20	10.3	1	0.5	3	1.5	6	3.1	3	1.5	127	65.8	1	0.5	7	3.6
MALE IMPERIAL	1	1	3	3.2	6	6.4	5	5.3			1	1	2	2.1	71	76.3	1	1	3	3.2
TOTAL FEMALE	66	16.8	32	8.1	40	10.2	7	1.7	4	1	14	3.5	3	0.7	208	53.1	5	1.2	12	3
TOTAL MALE	8	4.1	5	2.5	14	7.2	21	10.8			4	2	8	4.1	125	64.7	3	1.5	5	2.5
GRAND TOTAL	74	12.6	37	6.3	54	9.2	28	4.7	4	0.6	18	3	11	1.8	333	57	8	1.3	17	2.9

TABLE 28 — SOURCES OF ASSISTANCE WHEN NOT WORKING

	STATE/EMP.		STATE/WELFARE		KIN		CHURCH		NONE		UNKNOWN	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	47	23.3	79	39.3	1	0.4	3	1.4	69	34.3		
MALE FRESNO	30	31.5	18	18.9	1	1			46	48.4		
FEMALE IMPERIAL	95	56.8	20	11.9			1	0.5	51	30.5		
MALE IMPERIAL	52	65	19	23.7					8	10		
TOTAL FEMALE	142	38.5	99	26.9	1	0.2	4	1	120	32.6		
TOTAL MALE	82	46.8	37	21.1	1	0.5			54	30.8		
GRAND TOTAL	224	41.2	136	25	2	0.3	4	0.7	174	32		

TABLE 29 — GENERATIONS FAMILY HAS WORKED IN AGRICULTURE

	1		2		3		4		5+		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	16	8	29	14.6	57	28.7	27	13.6	63	31.8	4	2	2	1
MALE FRESNO	18	18	19	19	14	14	6	6	31	31	9	9	3	3
FEMALE IMPERIAL	21	10.8	54	27.9	45	23.3	17	8.8	37	19.1	8	4.1	11	5.6
MALE IMPERIAL	24	25.8	38	40.8	13	13.9	7	7.5	8	8.6	1	1	2	2.1
TOTAL FEMALE	37	9.4	83	21.2	102	26	44	11.2	100	25.5	12	3	13	3.3
TOTAL MALE	42	21.7	57	29.5	27	13.9	13	6.7	39	20.2	10	5.1	5	2.5
GRAND TOTAL	79	13.5	140	23.9	129	22	57	9.7	139	23.8	22	3.7	18	3

TABLE 30 — FAMILY PARTICIPATION IN NON-AGRICULTURAL WORK

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	78	39.3	117	59	1	0.5	2	1
MALE FRESNO	22	22	74	74	2	2	2	2
FEMALE IMPERIAL	37	19.1	150	77.7	2	1	4	2
MALE IMPERIAL	9	9.6	80	86			4	4.3
TOTAL FEMALE	115	29.4	267	68.2	3	0.7	6	1.5
TOTAL MALE	31	16	154	79.7	2	1	6	3.1
GRAND TOTAL	146	25	421	72	5	0.8	12	2

TABLE 31 — TYPE OF NON-AGRICULTURAL WORK PERFORMED BY FAMILY

	BLUE COLLAR		WHITE COLLAR		PUBLIC SERVICE		PRIVATE SERVICE		HOUSE CARE		PACK/CAN		UNKNOWN	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	45	46.8	14	14.5	14	14.5	12	12.5	2	2	9	9.3		
MALE FRESNO	14	51.8	4	14.8	6	22.2	2	7.4			1	3.7		
FEMALE IMPERIAL	16	38	13	30.9	3	7.1	2	4.7	3	7.1	5	11.9		
MALE IMPERIAL	5	55.5					2	22.2			2	22.2		
TOTAL FEMALE	61	44.2	27	19.5	17	12.3	14	10.1	5	3.6	14	10.1		
TOTAL MALE	19	52.7	4	11.1	6	16.6	4	11.1			3	8.3		
GRAND TOTAL	80	45.9	31	17.8	23	13.2	18	10.3	5	2.8	17	9.7		

TABLE 32 — NUMBER OF YEARS IN FARMWORK

	UNDER 5		6-8		9-10		11-15		16-20		21-25		26-30		31+		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	45	22.7	32	16.1	18	9	35	17.6	25	12.6	14	7	12	5	14	7			3	1.5
MALE FRESNO	12	12	6	6	9	9	14	14	17	17	8	8	11	11	19	19			4	4
FEMALE IMPERIAL	66	34.1	45	23.3	24	12.4	20	10.3	9	4.6	9	4.6	3	1.5	9	4.6			8	4.1
MALE IMPERIAL	5	5.3	11	11.8	8	8.6	12	12.9	13	13.9	11	11.8	7	7.5	18	19.3	1	1	7	7.5
TOTAL FEMALE	111	28.3	77	19.6	42	10.7	55	14	34	8.6	23	5.8	15	3.8	23	5.8			11	2.8
TOTAL MALE	17	8.8	17	8.8	17	8.8	26	13.4	30	15.5	19	9.8	18	9.3	37	19.1	1	0.5	11	5.6
GRAND TOTAL	128	21.9	94	16	59	10.1	81	13.8	64	10.9	42	7.1	33	5.6	60	10.2	1	0.1	22	3.7

TABLE 33 — PREFERRED NON-AGRICULTURAL OCCUPATION

	ANY NON-AGRICUL.		SCHOOL		CAN /PACK		PRO.		WHITE COLLAR		BLUE COLLAR		PUBLIC SERVICE		WELL-PAYING		UNKNOWN	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	10	4.8	7	3.3	13	6.2	19	9.1	50	24	37	17.7	62	29.8	3	1.4	7	3.3
MALE FRESNO	6	5	1	0.8	10	8.4	5	4.2	9	7.5	77	64.7	9	7.5	1	0.8	1	0.8
FEMALE IMPERIAL	13	7.7	4	2.3	11	6.5	15	8.9	58	34.7	40	23.9	18	10.7			8	4.7
MALE IMPERIAL	4	4.7			3	3.5	5	5.8	4	4.7	66	77.6	3	3.5				
TOTAL FEMALE	23	6.1	11	2.9	24	6.3	34	9	108	28.7	77	20.5	80	21.3	3	0.7	15	4
TOTAL MALE	10	4.9	1	0.4	13	6.3	10	4.9	13	6.3	143	70	12	5.8	1	0.4	1	0.4
GRAND TOTAL	33	5.6	12	2	37	6.3	44	7.5	121	20.8	220	37.9	92	15.8	4	0.6	16	2.7

TABLE 34 — NUMBER OF EMPLOYERS IN A YEAR

	HIGH (6-7+)		MEDIUM (4-5)		LOW (1-3)		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	99	50	85	42.9	13	6.5	1	0.5		
MALE FRESNO	53	53	31	31	15	15	1	1		
FEMALE IMPERIAL	146	75.6	42	21.7	5	2.5				
MALE IMPERIAL	46	49.4	38	40.8	7	7.5	2	2.1		
TOTAL FEMALE	245	62.6	127	32.4	18	4.6	1	0.2		
TOTAL MALE	99	51.2	69	35.7	22	11.3	3	1.5		
GRAND TOTAL	344	58.9	196	33.5	40	6.8	4	0.6		

TABLE 35 — NUMBER OF WEEKS AWAY FROM HOME BASE TO WORK IN AGRICULTURE

	0 - 4		5 - 9		10 - 19		20 - 29		30 - 39		40 - 49+		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	77	38.8	12	6	1	0.5	2	1	1	0.5	3	1.5	6	3	96	48.4
MALE FRESNO	44	44	1	1	4	4	12	12	1	1	8	8			30	30
FEMALE IMPERIAL	65	33.6	20	10.3	37	19.1	26	13.4	8	4.1	4	2	4	2	29	15
MALE IMPERIAL	42	45.1	12	12.9	20	21.5	10	10.7	2	2.1	3	3.2			4	4.3
TOTAL FEMALE	142	36.3	32	8.1	38	9.7	28	7.1	9	2.3	7	1.7	10	2.5	125	31.9
TOTAL MALE	86	44.5	13	6.7	24	12.4	22	11.3	3	1.5	11	5.6			34	17.6
GRAND TOTAL	228	39	45	7.7	62	10.6	50	8.5	12	2	18	3	10	1.7	159	27.2

TABLE 36 — TYPE OF TRANSPORTATION TO WORK

	OWN CAR		CAR POOL		EMPLOYER		OTHER		BUS		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	121	61.1	65	32.8	5	2.5	3	1.5			2	1	2	1
MALE FRESNO	68	68	12	12	14	14	3	3					3	3
FEMALE IMPERIAL	56	29	34	17.6	51	26.4	1	0.5	46	23.8	1	0.5	4	2
MALE IMPERIAL	46	49.4	5	5.3	32	34.4			10	10.7				
TOTAL FEMALE	177	45.2	99	25.3	56	14.3	4	1	46	11.7	3	0.7	6	1.5
TOTAL MALE	114	59	17	8.8	46	23.8	3	1.5	10	5.1			3	1.5
GRAND TOTAL	291	49.8	116	19.8	102	17.4	7	1.1	56	9.5	3	0.5	9	1.5

TABLE 37 — NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS TRAVELLING TO WORK WITH RESPONDENT

	NONE		1		2		3		4		5		6		7+		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	62	31.3	37	18.6	21	10.6	9	4.5	8	4	7	3.5	4	2	4	2	1	0.5	45	22.7
MALE FRESNO	49	49	8	8	6	6	2	2	2	2	2	2		2	2			29	29	
FEMALE IMPERIAL	73	37.8	44	22.7	26	13.4	13	6.7	10	5.1	8	4.1	4	2	7	3.6			8	4.1
MALE IMPERIAL	61	65.5	20	21.5	2	2.1			1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1			6	6.4
TOTAL FEMALE	135	34.5	81	20.7	47	12	22	5.6	18	4.6	15	3.8	8	2	11	2.8	1	0.2	53	13.5
TOTAL MALE	110	56.9	28	14.5	8	4.1	2	1	3	1.5	3	1.5	1	0.5	3	1.5			35	18.1
GRAND TOTAL	245	41.9	109	18.6	55	9.4	24	4.1	21	3.5	18	3	9	1.5	14	2.3	1	0.1	88	15

TABLE 38 -- RELATIONSHIP OF TRAVELLING FAMILY MEMBERS

	SPOUSE		PARENTS		SPOUSE PARENT		CHILDREN		SIBLINGS		COUSINS		AUNTS		UNCLES		UNKNOWN	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	65	30.9	17	8	5	2.3	57	27.1	22	10.4	4	1.9	4	1.9	3	1.4	2	0.9
MALE FRESNO	37	31.6	7	5.9	2	1.7	38	32.4	13	11.1	1	0.8	1	0.8	1	0.8	3	2.5
FEMALE IMPERIAL	75	34	19	8.6	4	1.8	67	30.4	32	14.5	4	1.8	1	0.4	1	0.4	7	3.1
MALE IMPERIAL	49	38.2	5	3.9	2	1.5	57	44.5	11	8.5	1	0.7			1	0.7		
TOTAL FEMALE	140	32.5	36	8.3	9	2	124	28.8	54	12.5	8	1.8	5	1.1	4	0.9	9	2
TOTAL MALE	86	35.1	12	4.8	4	1.6	95	38.7	24	9.7	2	0.8	1	0.4	2	0.8	3	1.2
GRAND TOTAL	226	33.4	48	7.1	13	1.9	219	32.4	78	11.5	10	1.4	6	0.8	6	0.8	12	1.7

TABLE 39 -- SEASON MOST FULLY EMPLOYED

	WINTER		SUMMER		WINTER/SUMMER		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	7	3.5	162	81.8	26	13.1			3	1.5
MALE FRESNO	7	7	65	65	24	24			4	4
FEMALE IMPERIAL	81	41.9	56	29	51	26.4			5	2.5
MALE IMPERIAL	24	25.8	50	53.7	18	19.3			1	1
TOTAL FEMALE	88	22.5	218	55.7	77	19.6			8	2
TOTAL MALE	31	16	115	59.5	42	21.7			5	2.5
GRAND TOTAL	119	20.3	333	57	119	20.3			13	2.2

TABLE 40 -- WEEKS WORKED IN SUMMER

	0-4		5-9		10-19		20-29		30-39		40-49+		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	37	18.6	48	24.2	67	33.8	43	21.7	1	0.5					2	1
MALE FRESNO	5	5	11	11	28	28	50	50	1	1	2	2			3	3
FEMALE IMPERIAL	53	27.4	38	19.6	58	30	29	15	6	3.1	1	0.5	1	0.5	7	3.6
MALE IMPERIAL	5	5.3	13	13.9	29	31.1	23	24.7	2	2.1	18	19.3	1	1	2	2.1
TOTAL FEMALE	90	23	86	21.9	125	31.9	72	18.4	7	1.7	1	0.2	1	0.2	9	2.3
TOTAL MALE	10	5.1	24	12.4	57	29.5	73	37.8	3	1.5	20	10.3	1	0.5	5	2.5
GRAND TOTAL	100	17.1	110	18.8	182	31.1	145	24.8	10	1.7	21	3.5	2	0.3	14	2.3

TABLE 41 — WEEKS WORKED IN WINTER

	0 - 4		5 - 9		10 - 19		20 - 29		30 - 39		40 - 49+		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	128	64.6	35	17.6	20	10.1	10	5							5	2.5
MALE FRESNO	23	23	19	19	31	31	22	22							5	5
FEMALE IMPERIAL	27	13.9	29	15	65	33.6	54	27.9	8	4.1	4	2	1	0.5	5	2.5
MALE IMPERIAL	2	2.1	15	16.1	37	39.7	26	27.9	3	3.2	5	5.3	1	1	4	4.3
TOTAL FEMALE	155	39.6	64	16.3	85	21.7	64	16.3	8	2	4	1	1	0.2	10	2.5
TOTAL MALE	25	12.9	34	17.6	68	35.2	48	24.8	3	1.5	5	2.5	1	0.5	9	4.6
GRAND TOTAL	180	30.8	98	16.7	153	26.1	112	19.1	11	1.8	9	1.5	2	0.3	19	3.2

TABLE 42 — MAJOR CROPS WORKED IN

	FIELD CROP		GRAPES		TREE FRUIT		PEACHES		VEGE-TABLES		TOMATOES		LETTUCE		OTHER		NONE	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	88	22.4	102	26	29	7.3	25	6.3	21	5.3	79	20.1	11	2.8	19	4.8	18	4.5
MALE FRESNO	37	14.7	71	28.2	48	19.1	45	17.9	14	5.5	18	7.1	1	0.3	10	3.9	7	2.7
FEMALE IMPERIAL	7	3	6	2.5	4	1.7			34	14.5	18	7.7	121	51.9	15	6.4	28	12
MALE IMPERIAL	26	21.8	2	1.6	2	1.6			21	17.6	4	3.3	45	37.8	11	9.2	8	6.7
TOTAL FEMALE	95	15.1	108	17.2	33	5.2	25	4	55	8.8	97	15.5	132	21.1	34	5.4	46	7.3
TOTAL MALE	63	17	73	19.7	50	13.5	45	12.1	35	9.4	22	5.9	46	12.4	21	5.6	15	4
GRAND TOTAL	158	15.8	181	18.1	83	8.3	70	7	90	9	119	11.9	178	17.8	55	5.5	61	6.1

TABLE 43 — CROPS WORKED IN LONGEST

	FIELD CROP		GRAPES		TREE FRUIT		PEACHES		VEGE-TABLES		TOMATOES		LETTUCE		OTHER		NONE	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	38	18.9	74	36.8	12	5.9	13	6.4	4	1.9	32	15.9	2	0.9	7	3.4	19	9.4
MALE FRESNO	15	13.2	36	31.8	13	11.5	27	23.8	5	4.4	4	3.5			3	2.6	10	8.8
FEMALE IMPERIAL	3	1.7	6	3.5	2	1.1			16	9.4	4	2.3	106	62.7	6	3.5	26	15.3
MALE IMPERIAL	14	16.6			1	1.1			11	13			42	50	5	5.9	11	13
TOTAL FEMALE	41	11	80	21.6	14	3.7	13	3.5	20	5.4	36	9.7	108	29.1	13	3.5	45	12.1
TOTAL MALE	29	14.7	36	18.2	14	7.1	27	13.7	16	8.1	4	2	42	21.3	8	4	21	10.6
GRAND TOTAL	70	12.3	116	20.4	28	4.9	40	7	36	6.3	40	7	150	26.4	21	3.7	66	11.6

TABLE 44 — TYPES OF TASKS MOST FREQUENTLY PERFORMED

	MACHINE WORKER		OTHER		PRUNING		GIRDLING		SORTING		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	35	8.4	29	6.9	24	5.7	7	1.6	61	14.6	2	0.4	3	0.7
MALE FRESNO	15	6.1	11	4.5	39	16.1	9	3.7	7	2.8	1	0.4	4	1.6
FEMALE IMPERIAL	58	14.5	18	4.5	6	1.5	1	0.2	32	8	1	0.2		
MALE IMPERIAL	4	2.9	8	5.8	2	1.4			2	1.4				
TOTAL FEMALE	93	11.4	47	5.7	30	3.6	8	0.9	93	11.4	3	0.3	3	0.3
TOTAL MALE	19	5	19	5	41	10.8	9	2.3	9	2.3	1	0.2	4	1
GRAND TOTAL	112	9.3	66	5.5	71	5.9	17	1.4	102	8.5	4	0.3	7	0.5

TABLE 44 — Cont

	WEEDING		HOEING		IRRIGATING		DRIVER		PLANTING		HARVESTING	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	82	19.7	63	15.1	5	1.2	5	1.2	6	1.4	93	22.4
MALE FRESNO	34	14	17	7	10	4.1	17	7	11	4.5	67	27.6
FEMALE IMPERIAL	119	29.7	87	21.7			1	0.2	9	2.2	68	17
MALE IMPERIAL	28	20.4	25	18.2	23	16.7	11	8			34	24.8
TOTAL FEMALE	201	24.6	150	18.4	5	0.6	6	0.7	15	1.8	161	19.7
TOTAL MALE	62	16.3	42	11	33	8.7	28	7.3	11	2.9	101	26.6
GRAND TOTAL	263	22	192	16	38	3.1	34	2.8	26	2.1	262	21.9

TABLE 45 — PREFER PIECE OR HOURLY RATE

	HOURLY		PIECE		OTHER		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	123	62.1	56	28.2	12	6	1	0.5	6	3
MALE FRESNO	48	48	40	40	7	7	1	1	4	4
FEMALE IMPERIAL	154	79.7	34	17.6	2	1	1	0.5	2	1
MALE IMPERIAL	58	62.3	34	36.5			1	1		
TOTAL FEMALE	277	70.8	90	23	14	3.5	2	0.5	8	2
TOTAL MALE	106	54.9	74	38.3	7	3.6	2	1	4	2
GRAND TOTAL	383	65.5	164	28	21	3.5	4	0.6	12	2

TABLE 46 — CROPS WORKED IN AFFECTED BY MECHANIZATION

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	83	41.9	71	35.8	7	3.5	37	18.6
MALE FRESNO	44	44	32	32	3	3	21	21
FEMALE IMPERIAL	28	14.5	60	31	10	5.1	94	48.7
MALE IMPERIAL	21	22.5	26	27.9			45	48.3
TOTAL FEMALE	111	28.3	131	33.5	17	4.3	131	33.5
TOTAL MALE	65	33.6	58	30	3	1.5	66	34.1
GRAND TOTAL	176	30.1	189	32.3	20	3.4	197	33.7

TABLE 47 — MECHANIZATION — EFFECTS ON JOBS

	LOST		GAINED		CHANGED		NO AFFECT		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	60	30.3	15	7.5	8	4	13	6.5	28	14.1	74	37.3
MALE FRESNO	39	39	7	7	9	9	4	4	11	11	30	30
FEMALE IMPERIAL	7	3.6	16	8.2	5	2.5	54	27.9	13	6.7	98	50.7
MALE IMPERIAL	18	19.3	2	2.1	2	2.1	27	29	1	1	42	45.1
TOTAL FEMALE	67	17.1	31	7.9	13	3.3	67	17.1	41	10.4	172	43.9
TOTAL MALE	57	29.5	9	4.6	11	5.6	31	16	12	6.2	72	37.3
GRAND TOTAL	124	21.2	40	6.8	24	4.1	98	16.7	53	9	244	41.7

TABLE 48 — TYPES OF MACHINE RELATED JOBS PERFORMED

	OPERATOR		SORT/CLEAN		PROCESSING		MAINTENANCE		SUPERVISE	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	11	11.5	78	82.1	6	6.3				
MALE FRESNO	22	50	17	38.6	1	2.2	3	6.8	1	2.2
FEMALE IMPERIAL	2	2.8	66	95.6	1	1.4				
MALE IMPERIAL	18	75	6	25						
TOTAL FEMALE	13	7.9	144	87.8	7	4.2				
TOTAL MALE	40	58.8	23	33.8	1	1.4	3	4.4	1	1.4
GRAND TOTAL	53	22.8	167	71.9	8	3.4	3	1.2	1	0.4

TABLE 49 — PREFER WORK WITH OR WITHOUT MACHINES

	WITH		WITHOUT		DON'T CARE		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	50	25.2	97	48.9	1	0.5	11	5.5	39	19.6
MALE FRESNO	19	19	51	50.9			9	9	21	21
FEMALE IMPERIAL	63	32.6	22	11.3			9	4.6	99	51.2
MALE IMPERIAL	15	16.1	37	39.7			1	1	40	43
TOTAL FEMALE	113	28.9	119	30.4	1	0.2	20	5.1	138	35.2
TOTAL MALE	34	17.6	88	45.5			10	5.1	61	31.6
GRAND TOTAL	147	25.1	207	35.4	1	0.1	30	5.1	199	34

TABLE 50 — EVER BELONGED TO A UNION

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	52	26.2	141	71.2	2	1	3	1.5
MALE FRESNO	29	29	70	70			1	1
FEMALE IMPERIAL	111	57.5	75	38.8	1	0.5	6	3.1
MALE IMPERIAL	54	58	37	39.7			2	2.1
TOTAL FEMALE	163	41.6	216	55.2	3	0.7	9	2.3
TOTAL MALE	83	43	107	55.4			3	1.5
GRAND TOTAL	246	42.1	323	55.3	3	0.5	12	2

TABLE 51 — PREFER TO HAVE A UNION REPRESENT INTERESTS WITH EMPLOYER

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	104	52.5	34	17.1	17	8.5	43	21.7
MALE FRESNO	75	75	14	14	4	4	7	7
FEMALE IMPERIAL	124	64.2	41	21.2	16	8.2	12	6.2
MALE IMPERIAL	78	83.8	8	8.6	2	2.1	4	4.3
TOTAL FEMALE	228	58.3	75	19.1	33	8.4	55	14
TOTAL MALE	153	79.2	22	11.3	6	3.1	11	5.6
GRAND TOTAL	381	65.2	97	16.6	39	6.6	66	11.3

TABLE 52 -- IF BELONG TO A UNION, DOES UNION REPRESENT INTERESTS

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	25	12.6	5	2.5			168	84.8
MALE FRESNO	9	9	1	1			90	90
FEMALE IMPERIAL	67	34.7	8	4.1	5	2.5	113	58.5
MALE IMPERIAL	26	27.9	4	4.3			63	67.7
TOTAL FEMALE	92	23.5	13	3.3	5	1.2	281	71.8
TOTAL MALE	35	18.1	5	2.5			153	79.2
GRAND TOTAL	127	21.7	18	3	5	0.8	434	74.3

TABLE 53 -- BEEN REFERRED TO A JOB TRAINING PROGRAM

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	24	12.1	164	82.8	3	1.5	7	3.5
MALE FRESNO	14	14	77	77			9	9
FEMALE IMPERIAL	16	8.2	164	84.9	1	0.5	12	6.2
MALE IMPERIAL	5	5.3	84	90.3			4	4.3
TOTAL FEMALE	40	10.2	328	83.8	4	1	19	4.8
TOTAL MALE	19	9.8	161	83.4			13	6.7
GRAND TOTAL	59	10.1	489	83.7	4	0.6	32	5.4

TABLE 54 -- HEARD OF ANY JOB TRAINING PROGRAMS INTERESTING TO YOU

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	69	34.8	127	64.1	1	0.5	1	0.5
MALE FRESNO	46	46	53	53			1	1
FEMALE IMPERIAL	33	17	147	76.1	1	0.5	11	5.6
MALE IMPERIAL	20	21.5	73	78.4				
TOTAL FEMALE	102	26	274	70	2	0.5	12	3
TOTAL MALE	66	34.1	126	65.2			1	0.5
GRAND TOTAL	168	28.7	400	68.4	2	0.3	13	2.2

TABLE 55 — ATTENDED A JOB TRAINING PROGRAM IN CALIFORNIA

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	20	10.1	166	83.8	2	1	10	5
MALE FRESNO	10	10	77	77			13	13
FEMALE IMPERIAL	9	4.6	168	87	4	2	12	6.2
MALE IMPERIAL	6	6.4	84	90.3			3	3.2
TOTAL FEMALE	29	7.4	334	85.4	6	1.5	22	5.6
TOTAL MALE	16	8.2	161	83.4			16	8.2
GRAND TOTAL	45	7.7	495	84.7	6	1	38	6.5

TABLE 56 — HELPED BY THAT CALIFORNIA JOB TRAINING PROGRAM

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	16	8	50	25.2	7	3.5	125	63.1
MALE FRESNO	4	4	27	26.9	2	2	67	67
FEMALE IMPERIAL	9	4.6	75	38.8	27	13.9	82	42.4
MALE IMPERIAL	3	3.2	37	39.7	7	7.5	46	49.4
TOTAL FEMALE	25	6.3	125	31.9	34	8.6	207	52.9
TOTAL MALE	7	3.6	64	33.1	9	4.6	113	58.5
GRAND TOTAL	32	5.4	189	32.3	43	7.3	320	54.7

TABLE 57 — WISH TO PURSUE A NON-AGRICULTURAL OCCUPATION

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	173	87.3	19	9.5			6	3
MALE FRESNO	86	86	11	11			3	3
FEMALE IMPERIAL	148	76.6	31	16	2	1	12	6.2
MALE IMPERIAL	72	77.4	20	21.5			1	1
TOTAL FEMALE	321	82	50	12.7	2	0.5	18	4.6
TOTAL MALE	158	81.8	31	16			4	2
GRAND TOTAL	479	82	81	13.8	2	0.3	22	3.7

**TABLE 58 — PREFER AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT TO
NON-AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT IF CONDITIONS IMPROVE**

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	108	54.5	84	42.4	2	1	4	2
MALE FRESNO	45	45	51	50.9	1	1	3	3
FEMALE IMPERIAL	85	44	94	48.7	3	1.5	11	5.6
MALE IMPERIAL	71	76.3	22	23.6				
TOTAL FEMALE	193	49.3	178	45.5	5	1.2	15	3.8
TOTAL MALE	116	60.1	73	37.8	1	0.5	3	1.5
GRAND TOTAL	309	52.9	251	42.9	6	1	18	3

TABLE 59A — FORMS OF CHILD CARE

	WIFE		HUSBAND		UNIT RELATION		NONUNIT RELATION		FRIEND		OTHER		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	6	3	5	2.5	58	29.2	15	7.5	25	12.6	15	7.5	3	1.5	71	35.8
MALE FRESNO	32	32			14	14	2	2	3	3	3	3			46	46
FEMALE IMPERIAL	1	0.5	9	4.6	65	33.6	10	5.1	23	11.9	16	8.2	4	2	65	33.6
MALE IMPERIAL	52	55.9	1	1	7	7.5	2	2.1	1	1	4	4.3	1	1	25	26.8
TOTAL FEMALE	7	1.7	14	3.5	123	31.4	25	6.3	48	12.2	31	7.9	7	1.7	136	34.7
TOTAL MALE	84	43.5	1	0.5	21	10.8	4	2	4	2	7	3.6	1	0.5	71	36.7
GRAND TOTAL	91	15.5	15	2.5	144	24.6	29	4.9	52	8.9	38	6.5	8	1.3	207	35.4

TABLE 59B — PREFERRED FORMS OF CHILD CARE

	KEEP HOME		AT WORK		CENTERS		CNTR/WORK		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	60	30.3	6	3	56	28.2	15	7.5	8	4	53	26.7
MALE FRESNO	24	24			36	36	7	7			33	33
FEMALE IMPERIAL	70	36.2	8	4.1	23	11.9	36	18.6	11	5.6	45	23.3
MALE IMPERIAL	22	23.6	2	2.1	16	17.2	25	26.8			28	30.1
TOTAL FEMALE	130	33.2	14	3.5	79	20.2	51	13	19	4.8	98	25
TOTAL MALE	46	23.8	2	1	52	26.9	32	16.5			61	31.6
GRAND TOTAL	176	30.1	16	2.7	131	22.4	83	14.2	19	3.2	159	27.2

TABLE 60 — LEAVE CHILDREN IN CENTER AT SOME DISTANCE

	STRONGLY AGREE		AGREE		DISAGREE		STRONGLY DISAGREE		NO OPINION	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	2	1	22	11.1	113	57	51	25.7	7	3.5
MALE FRESNO	6	6	14	14	55	55	11	11	4	4
FEMALE IMPERIAL	2	1	16	8.2	106	54.9	44	22.7	13	6.7
MALE IMPERIAL	3	3.2	7	7.5	50	53.7	19	20.4	2	2.1
TOTAL FEMALE	4	1	38	9.7	219	56	95	24.2	20	5.1
TOTAL MALE	9	4.6	21	10.8	105	54.4	30	15.5	6	3.1
GRAND TOTAL	13	2.2	59	10.1	324	55.4	125	21.4	26	4.4

TABLE 61 — USE CENTER IF AFFORDABLE

	STRONGLY AGREE		AGREE		DISAGREE		STRONGLY DISAGREE		NO OPINION	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	29	14.6	126	63.6	19	9.5	12	6	5	2.5
MALE FRESNO	15	15	45	45	22	22	5	5	4	4
FEMALE IMPERIAL	11	5.6	113	58.5	28	14.5	8	4.1	15	7.7
MALE IMPERIAL	7	7.5	48	51.6	20	21.5	5	5.3	2	2.1
TOTAL FEMALE	40	10.2	239	61.1	47	12	20	5.1	20	5.1
TOTAL MALE	22	11.3	93	48.1	42	21.7	10	5.1	6	3.1
GRAND TOTAL	62	10.6	332	56.8	89	15.2	30	5.1	26	4.4

TABLE 62 — USE CENTER IF CLOSE BY

	STRONGLY AGREE		AGREE		DISAGREE		STRONGLY DISAGREE		NO OPINION	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	46	23.2	128	64.6	10	5	6	3	6	3
MALE FRESNO	20	20	54	53.9	10	10	4	4	3	3
FEMALE IMPERIAL	24	12.4	124	64.2	13	6.7	6	3.1	12	6.2
MALE IMPERIAL	20	21.5	45	48.3	11	11.8	6	6.4	3	3.2
TOTAL FEMALE	70	17.9	252	64.4	23	5.8	12	3	18	4.6
TOTAL MALE	40	20.7	99	51.2	21	10.8	10	5.1	6	3.1
GRAND TOTAL	110	18.8	351	60.1	44	7.5	22	3.7	24	4.1

TABLE 63 — PREFERRED CHILD CARE CENTER CHARACTERISTICS

	HOUR ACCESS		LOCATION ACCESS		STAFF		EDUCATION		MULTI-SERVICE		COST		REC-REATION		CON-DITIONS		UNKNOWN	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	28	10.4	6	2.2	23	8.5	62	23.1	94	35	12	4.4	20	7.4	14	5.2	9	3.3
MALE FRESNO	1	0.9	5	4.5	8	7.2	33	30	43	39	4	3.6	11	10	4	3.6	1	0.9
FEMALE IMPERIAL	17	10.6	33	20.6	8	5	18	11.2	63	39.3	3	1.8	9	5.6	2	1.2	7	4.3
MALE IMPERIAL	7	16.2	17	39.5	2	4.6	6	13.9	8	18.6			2	4.6			1	2.3
TOTAL FEMALE	45	10.5	39	9.1	31	7.2	80	18.6	157	36.6	15	3.5	29	6.7	16	3.7	16	3.7
TOTAL MALE	8	5.2	22	14.3	10	6.5	39	25.4	51	33.3	4	2.6	13	8.4	4	2.6	2	1.3
GRAND TOTAL	53	9.1	61	10.4	41	7	119	20.4	208	35.8	19	3.2	42	7.2	20	3.4	18	3

TABLE 64 — PARTY RESPONSIBLE FOR PROVISION OF HEALTH CARE

	SELF		STATE		CAMP		COUNTY		GROWER		OTHER		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	121	61.1	20	10.1	2	1	31	15.6	4	2	13	6.5	4	2	3	1
MALE FRESNO	72	72	4	4	1	1	11	11	6	6	3	3	2	2	1	0
FEMALE IMPERIAL	116	60.1	6	3.1	6	3.1	3	1.5	35	18.1	14	7.2	5	2.5	8	4
MALE IMPERIAL	39	41.9	3	3.2			3	3.2	30	32.2	6	6.4	4	4.3	8	8
TOTAL FEMALE	237	60.6	26	6.6	8	2	34	8.6	39	0.9	27	6.9	9	2.3	11	2
TOTAL MALE	111	57.5	7	3.6	1	0.5	14	7.2	36	18.6	9	4.6	6	3.1	9	4
GRAND TOTAL	348	59.5	33	5.6	9	1.5	48	8.2	75	12.8	36	6.1	15	2.5	20	3

TABLE 65 — HEALTH INSURANCE AVAILABLE AT PLACE OF EMPLOYMENT

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	70	35.3	112	56.5	11	5.5	5	2.5
MALE FRESNO	45	45	50	50			5	5
FEMALE IMPERIAL	133	68.9	44	22.7	9	4.6	7	3.6
MALE IMPERIAL	55	59.1	34	36.5	1	1	3	3.2
TOTAL FEMALE	203	51.9	156	39.8	20	5.1	12	3
TOTAL MALE	100	51.8	84	43.5	1	0.5	8	4.1
GRAND TOTAL	303	51.8	240	41	21	3.5	20	3.4

TABLE 66 — HEALTH SERVICE AVAILABLE DURING NON-WORKING HOURS

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	74	37.3	119	60.1	2	1	3	1.5
MALE FRESNO	42	42	56	56			2	2
FEMALE IMPERIAL	119	61.6	61	31.6	7	3.6	6	3.1
MALE IMPERIAL	69	74.1	23	24.7	1	1		
TOTAL FEMALE	193	49.3	180	46	9	2.3	9	2.3
TOTAL MALE	111	57.5	79	40.9	1	0.5	2	1
GRAND TOTAL	304	52	259	44.3	10	1.7	11	1.8

TABLE 67 — PREFERRED HEALTH CARE SERVICES AND CHARACTERISTICS

	HOUR ACCESS		TEETH /EYES		OBS/GYN		EMER- GENCY		LOCATION ACCESS		MULTI- SERVICE		COST		STAFF		UNKNOWN	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	71	20.6	84	24.4	15	4.3	24	6.9	19	5.5	62	18	25	7.2	33	9.5	11	3.1
MALE FRESNO	36	18.3	50	25.5	2	1	10	5.1	10	5.1	53	27	24	12.2	9	4.5	2	1
FEMALE IMPERIAL	25	9.3	108	40.2	9	3.3	8	2.9	8	2.9	49	18.2	22	8.2	26	9.7	13	4.8
MALE IMPERIAL	8	5.5	64	44.4	2	1.3	8	5.5	4	2.7	44	30.5	9	6.2	5	3.4		
TOTAL FEMALE	96	15.6	192	31.3	24	3.9	32	5.2	27	4.4	111	18.1	47	7.6	59	9.6	24	3.9
TOTAL MALE	44	12.9	114	33.5	4	1.1	18	5.2	14	4.1	97	28.5	33	9.7	14	4.1	2	0.5
GRAND TOTAL	140	14.7	306	32.1	28	2.9	50	5.2	41	4.3	208	21.8	80	8.4	73	7.6	26	2.7

TABLE 68A — HOUSING AVAILABLE WHEN AWAY FROM HOME BASE

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	14	7	26	13.1	8	4	150	75.7
MALE FRESNO	15	15	19	19	3	3	63	63
FEMALE IMPERIAL	35	18.1	96	49.7	19	9.8	40	20.7
MALE IMPERIAL	29	31.1	38	40.8	7	7.5	18	19.3
TOTAL FEMALE	49	12.5	122	31.2	27	6.9	190	48.5
TOTAL MALE	44	22.7	57	29.5	10	5.1	81	41.9
GRAND TOTAL	93	15.9	179	30.6	37	6.3	271	46.4

TABLE 68B — AVAILABLE HOUSING USUALLY IN MIGRANT CAMP

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	1	0.5	17	8.5	11	5.5	169	85.3
MALE FRESNO	10	10	10	10			80	80
FEMALE IMPERIAL	13	6.7	42	21.7	11	5.6	127	65.8
MALE IMPERIAL	26	27.9	14	15	3	3.2	50	53.7
TOTAL FEMALE	14	3.5	59	15	22	5.6	296	75.7
TOTAL MALE	36	18.6	24	12.4	3	1.5	130	67.3
GRAND TOTAL	50	8.5	83	14.2	25	4.2	426	72.9

TABLE 69 — PROBLEMS IN LOCATING HOUSING (AREAS)

	NORTHERN CALIFORNIA		CENTRAL CALIFORNIA		SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA		EVERYWHERE		NON-CALIFORNIA		UNKNOWN	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	1	2.7	28	75.6			7	18.9	1	2.7		
MALE FRESNO	1	2.5	23	57.5	4	10	9	22.5	3	7.5		
FEMALE IMPERIAL	27	20.7	97	74.6	1	0.7	4	3	1	0.7		
MALE IMPERIAL	10	21.2	32	68	1	2.1	2	4.2	2	4.2		
TOTAL FEMALE	28	16.7	125	74.8	1	0.5	11	6.5	2	1.1		
TOTAL MALE	11	12.6	55	63.2	5	5.7	11	12.6	5	5.7		
GRAND TOTAL	39	15.3	180	70.8	6	2.3	22	8.6	7	2.7		

TABLE 70 — PROBLEMS IN OBTAINING HOUSING (OBSTACLES)

	NO HOUSING		COST		CHILDREN		NONE		UNKNOWN	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	21	52.4	8	20	8	20	2	5	1	2.5
MALE FRESNO	19	76	3	12	3	12				
FEMALE IMPERIAL	98	67.1	41	28	6	4.1			1	0.6
MALE IMPERIAL	34	75.5	8	17.7	3	6.6				
TOTAL FEMALE	119	63.9	49	26.3	14	7.5	2	1	2	1
TOTAL MALE	53	75.7	11	15.7	6	8.5				
GRAND TOTAL	172	67.1	60	23.4	20	7.8	2	0.7	2	0.7

TABLE 71 — NEED MORE MIGRANT CAMP HOUSING

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	160	80.8	8	4	8	4	22	11.1
MALE FRESNO	76	76	7	7	5	5	12	12
FEMALE IMPERIAL	158	81.8	4	2	13	6.7	18	9.3
MALE IMPERIAL	75	80.6	1	1	3	3.2	14	15
TOTAL FEMALE	318	81.3	12	3	21	5.3	40	10.2
TOTAL MALE	151	78.2	8	4.1	8	4.1	26	13.4
GRAND TOTAL	469	80.3	20	3.4	29	4.9	66	11.3

TABLE 72 — RISKS TO HEALTH AND SAFETY AT WORK

	MACHINE		EQUIP- MENT		STRESS		SANI- TATION		CHEMICALS		FIELD		WATER /BREAKS		WEATHER		NONE	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	98	26.5	57	15.4	9	2.4	32	8.6	78	21.1	47	12.7	9	2.4	5	1.3	34	9.2
MALE FRESNO	50	23.8	44	20.9	11	5.2	4	1.9	45	21.4	28	13.3	4	1.9	15	7.1	9	4.2
FEMALE IMPERIAL	47	15.2	30	9.7	14	4.5	36	11.6	30	9.7	84	27.1	22	7.1	11	3.5	35	11.3
MALE IMPERIAL	20	14.1	18	12.7	7	4.9	5	3.5	46	32.6	14	9.9	5	3.5	18	12.7	8	5.6
TOTAL FEMALE	145	21.3	87	12.8	23	3.3	68	10	108	15.9	131	19.3	31	4.5	16	2.3	69	10.1
TOTAL MALE	70	19.9	62	17.6	18	5.1	9	2.5	91	25.9	42	11.9	9	2.5	33	9.4	17	4.8
GRAND TOTAL	215	20.8	149	14.4	41	3.9	77	7.4	199	19.3	173	16.8	40	3.8	49	4.7	86	8.3

TABLE 73 — HOW REDUCE RISKS TO HEALTH AND SAFETY

	MACHINES		CON- DITIONS		EQUIP- MENT		SANI- TATION		CHEMICALS		FIELD		CONCERN		REGU- LATIONS		UNKNOWN		NOTHING	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	52	22.3	9	3.8	26	11.1	17	7.2	45	19.3	19	8.1	9	3.8	11	4.7	22	9.4	23	9.8
MALE FRESNO	11	11	9	9	19	19	3	3	19	19	6	6	11	11	4	4	9	9	9	9
FEMALE IMPERIAL	27	12.3	12	5.4	28	12.7	24	10.9	21	9.5	19	8.6	21	9.5	2	0.9	39	17.8	26	11.8
MALE IMPERIAL	13	13.4	12	12.3	9	9.2	6	6.1	31	31.9	6	6.1	7	7.2	2	2	5	5.1	6	6.1
TOTAL FEMALE	79	17.4	21	4.6	54	11.9	41	9	66	14.6	38	8.4	30	6.6	13	2.8	61	13.4	49	10.8
TOTAL MALE	24	12.1	21	10.6	28	14.2	9	4.5	50	25.3	12	6	18	9.1	6	3	14	7.1	15	7.6
GRAND TOTAL	103	15.8	42	6.4	82	12.6	50	7.7	116	17.8	50	7.7	48	7.3	19	2.9	75	11.5	64	9.8

TABLE 74A -- PARTICIPATE IN CAMP MEETINGS

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	1	0.5	6	3	9	4.5	182	91.9
MALE FRESNO	1	1	3	3	1	1	95	95
FEMALE IMPERIAL	8	4.1	9	4.6	24	12.4	152	78.7
MALE IMPERIAL	5	5.3	3	3.2	2	2.1	83	89.2
TOTAL FEMALE	9	2.3	15	3.8	33	8.4	334	85.4
TOTAL MALE	6	3.1	6	3.1	3	1.5	178	92.2
GRAND TOTAL	15	2.5	21	3.5	36	6.1	512	87.6

TABLE 74B -- JOB EVER OBTAINED THROUGH EDD

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	42	21.2	145	73.2			11	5.5
MALE FRESNO	18	18	66	66			16	16
FEMALE IMPERIAL	15	7.7	167	86.5	1	0.5	10	5.1
MALE IMPERIAL	13	13.9	79	84.9			1	1
TOTAL FEMALE	57	14.5	312	79.7	1	0.2	21	5.3
TOTAL MALE	31	16	145	75.1			17	8.8
GRAND TOTAL	88	15	457	78.2	1	0.1	38	6.5

TABLE 74C -- EVER USED EDD SERVICES

	YES		NO		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	120	60.6	73	36.8	1	0.5	4	2
MALE FRESNO	51	50.9	48	48			1	1
FEMALE IMPERIAL	128	66.3	56	29	1	0.5	8	4.1
MALE IMPERIAL	80	86	13	13.9				
TOTAL FEMALE	248	63.4	129	32.9	2	0.5	12	3
TOTAL MALE	131	67.8	61	31.6			1	0.5
GRAND TOTAL	379	64.8	190	32.5	2	0.3	13	2.2

TABLE 74D — EDD SERVICES MOST USED

	UNEM- PLOYMENT		JOB FINDING		JOB TRAINING		WIN		OTHER		UNEMP/ JOB		UNKNOWN		NO ANSWER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	68	34.3	19	9.5	3	1.5			1	0.5	32	16.1	3	1.5	72	36
MALE FRESNO	29	29	4	4	1	1	1	1			17	17			48	
FEMALE IMPERIAL	108	55.9	5	2.5	2	1					20	10.3	13	6.7	45	23
MALE IMPERIAL	66	70.9	3	3.2					1	1	10	10.7	1	1	12	12
TOTAL FEMALE	176	45	24	6.1	5	1.2			1	0.2	52	13.2	16	4	117	29
TOTAL MALE	95	49.2	7	3.6	1	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5	27	13.9	1	0.5	60	
GRAND TOTAL	271	46.4	31	5.3	6	1	1	0.1	2	0.3	79	13.5	17	2.9	177	30

TABLE 75 — WOMEN PAID AS MUCH AS MEN FOR SAME JOBS:
CONTROLLING FOR EXPERIENCE, EDUCATION, SEX

EDUCATION	SEX	EXPERIENCE – LOW				EXPERIENCE – HIGH				MISSING	ROW TOTALS		
		YES		NO		YES		NO			N	N	%
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%				
LOW	MALE	21	16.7	1	.7	89	71.1	14	11.1	11	125	100	
	FEMALE	108	41.6	40	15.4	87	33.5	24	9.2	20	259	100	
HIGH	MALE	22	44	6	12	15	30	7	14	3	50	100	
	FEMALE	39	36.7	32	30.1	16	15	19	17.9	4	106	100	
COLUMN TOTALS		190	35.1	79	14.6	207	38.3	64	11.8	38	540	100	

TABLE 76 — AVERAGE NUMBER OF WEEKS WORKED PER YEAR
CONTROLLING FOR EXPERIENCE, EDUCATION, SEX

EDUCATION	SEX	EXPERIENCE — LOW			EXPERIENCE — HIGH			MISSING	ROW TOTALS	
		N	AVG	%	N	AVG	%		N	%
LOW	MALE	21	26.6	16.7	104	35.9	83.2	9	125	100
	FEMALE	155	24.1	57.8	113	22.5	42.1	7	268	100
HIGH	MALE	28	31.8	54.9	23	34.3	45	2	51	100
	FEMALE	72	20.7	67.2	35	17.2	32.7	1	107	100
COLUMN TOTALS		276		50	275		49.9	19	551	100

TABLE 77—ANNUAL INCOME: CONTROLLING FOR EXPERIENCE, EDUCATION, SEX

EDUCATION	SEX	EXPERIENCE — LOW			EXPERIENCE — HIGH			MISSING	ROW TOTALS	
		N	AVG	%	N	AVG	%	N	N	%
LOW	MALE	21	3722	16.7	104	6349	83.2	9	125	100
	FEMALE	153	3342	58.1	110	3093	41.8	7	263	100
HIGH	MALE	28	5374	56	22	6332	44	2	50	100
	FEMALE	69	2806	66.9	34	2045	33	1	103	100
COLUMN TOTALS		271		50	270		49.9	19	541	100

TABLE 78 — WEEKLY INCOME: CONTROLLING FOR EXPERIENCE, EDUCATION, SEX

EDUCATION	SEX	EXPERIENCE — LOW			EXPERIENCE — HIGH			MISSING			ROW TOTALS	
		N	AVG	%	N	AVG	%	N	AVG	%	N	%
LOW	MALE	22	143	17.3	105	166	82.6	9	157	7	127	93.3
	FEMALE	156	132	57.7	114	130	42.2	9	106	3.3	270	96.7
	MISSING	1	137	100				1	137	100	1	50
HIGH	MALE	28	155	54.9	23	156	45	2	168	3.9	51	96.2
	FEMALE	73	133	66.9	36	113	33	1	112	.9	109	99
	MISSING											

TABLE 79 — AVERAGE WEEKLY INCOME:
CONTROLLING FOR EXPERIENCE, EDUCATION, SEX

EDUCATION	SEX	EXPERIENCE — LOW				EXPERIENCE — HIGH				MISSING	ROW TOTALS	
		UNDER AVG		OVER AVG		UNDER AVG		OVER AVG		N	N	%
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%			
LOW	MALE	14	11.1	8	6.3	49	38.8	55	43.6	10	126	100
	FEMALE	117	44.1	37	13.9	81	30.5	30	11.3	14	265	100
HIGH	MALE	16	32	12	24	10	20	12	24	3	50	100
	FEMALE	49	47.1	21	20.1	27	25.9	7	6.7	6	104	100
COLUMN TOTALS		196	35.9	78	14.3	167	30.6	104	19	33	545	100

AVERAGE WEEKLY INCOME OF FARMWORKERS = \$138.98

**TABLE 80 — AVERAGE ANNUAL INCOME:
CONTROLLING FOR EXPERIENCE, EDUCATION, SEX**

EDUCATION		SEX		EXPERIENCE – LOW				EXPERIENCE – HIGH				MISSING	ROW TOTALS		
				UNDER AVG		OVER AVG		UNDER AVG		OVER AVG			N	N	%
				N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%				
LOW	MALE	14	11.1	7	5.5	38	30.3	66	52.7	11	125	100			
	FEMALE	100	38	53	20.1	85	32.3	25	9.5	16	263	100			
HIGH	MALE	14	28	14	28	10	20	12	24	3	50	100			
	FEMALE	53	51.4	16	15.5	30	29.1	4	3.8	7	103	100			
COLUMN TOTALS		181	33.4	90	16.6	163	30.1	107	19.7	37	541	100			

AVERAGE ANNUAL INCOME OF FARMWORKERS = \$3,898.28

**TABLE 81 — WOMEN ABLE BUT LACK TRAINING:
CONTROLLING FOR EXPERIENCE, EDUCATION, SEX**

EDUCATION SEX		EXPERIENCE – LOW				EXPERIENCE – HIGH				MISSING	ROW TOTALS		
		YES		NO		YES		NO			N	N	%
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%				
LOW	MALE	1	16.6	1	16.6	3	50	1	16.6	130	6	100	
	FEMALE	107	42.9	40	16	75	30.1	27	10.8	30	249	100	
HIGH	MALE	2	50			2	50			49	4	100	
	FEMALE	48	46.6	22	21.3	24	23.3	9	8.7	7	103	100	
COLUMN TOTALS		158	43.6	63	17.4	104	28.7	37	10.2	216	362	100	

**TABLE 82 — WOMEN CAN DO SAME WORK AS MEN BUT ARE NOT HIRED:
CONTROLLING FOR EXPERIENCE, EDUCATION, SEX**

EDUCATION	SEX	EXPERIENCE – LOW				EXPERIENCE – HIGH				MISSING	ROW TOTALS		
		YES		NO		YES		NO			N	N	%
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%				
LOW	MALE			2	28.5	3	42.8	2	28.5	129	7	100	
	FEMALE	76	33	55	23.9	64	27.8	35	15.2	49	230	100	
HIGH	MALE	2	40			3	60			48	5	100	
	FEMALE	35	36.8	25	26.3	20	21	15	15.7	15	95	100	
COLUMN TOTALS		113	33.5	82	24.3	90	26.7	52	15.4	241	337	100	

TABLE 83 -- WOMEN ABLE TO DO THE SAME WORK AS MEN:
CONTROLLING FOR EXPERIENCE, EDUCATION, SEX

EDUCATION SEX		EXPERIENCE – LOW				EXPERIENCE – HIGH				MISSING	ROW TOTALS		
		YES		NO		YES		NO			N	N	%
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%				
LOW	MALE	11	9	10	8.2	63	52	37	30.5	15	121	100	
	FEMALE	102	40	43	16.8	90	35.2	20	7.8	24	255	100	
HIGH	MALE	19	37.2	9	17.6	14	27.4	9	17.6	2	51	100	
	FEMALE	52	50	18	17.3	27	25.9	7	6.7	6	104	100	
COLUMN TOTALS		184	34.6	80	15	194	36.5	73	13.7	47	531	100	

TABLE 84 -- WOULD LEAVE AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT IF RETRAINING AVAILABLE:
CONTROLLING FOR EXPERIENCE, EDUCATION, SEX

		EXPERIENCE – LOW				EXPERIENCE – HIGH				MISSING	ROW TOTALS	
EDUCATION	SEX	YES		NO		YES		NO		N	N	%
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%			
LOW	MALE	19	15	3	2.3	93	73.8	11	8.7	10	126	100
	FEMALE	132	50.5	19	7.2	98	37.5	12	4.5	18	261	100
HIGH	MALE	23	46.9	3	6.1	18	36.7	5	10.2	4	49	100
	FEMALE	65	62.5	5	4.8	31	29.8	3	2.8	6	104	100
COLUMN TOTALS		239	44.2	30	5.5	240	44.4	31	5.7	38	540	100

TABLE 85 -- OBSTACLES TO CHANGING OCCUPATIONS

	AGE		LANGUAGE		FAMILY		NO EDUCATION		FEAR		TRANS-PORTATION		COST		LIKES JOB		NO JOBS	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	5	2.2	25	11.2	44	19.8	93	41.8	6	2.7	21	9.4	15	6.7	1	0.4	12	5.4
MALE FRESNO	5	4.7	21	20	5	4.7	51	48.5	3	2.8	3	2.8	12	11.4	4	3.8	1	0.9
FEMALE IMPERIAL	14	7.2	30	15.4	16	8.2	91	46.9			6	3	12	6.1	6	3	19	9.7
MALE IMPERIAL	5	5.7	14	16			55	63.2	3	3.4			5	5.7	1	1.1	4	4.5
TOTAL FEMALE	19	4.5	55	13.2	60	14.4	184	44.2	6	1.4	27	6.4	27	6.4	7	1.6	31	7.4
TOTAL MALE	10	5.2	35	18.2	5	2.6	106	55.2	6	3.1	3	1.5	17	8.8	5	2.6	5	2.6
GRAND TOTAL	29	4.7	90	14.8	65	10.6	290	47.6	12	1.9	30	4.9	44	7.2	12	1.9	36	5.9

TABLE 86 — CROPS GROWN DURING YEAR

CATEGORY LABEL	COUNT	PERCENT OF RESPONSES	PERCENT OF CASES
FIELD CROPS	58	47.5	145.0
GRAPES	25	20.5	62.5
TREE FRUITS	14	11.5	35.0
PEACHES	3	2.5	7.5
VEGETABLES & RELATED	10	8.2	25.0
TOMATOES	1	0.8	2.5
LETTUCE	11	9.0	27.5
TOTAL RESPONSES	122	100.0	305.0

0 MISSING CASES 40 VALID CASES

TABLE 87 — NUMBER OF ACRES OWNED

CATEGORY LABEL (Number of Acres)	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (Percent)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)	CUMULATIVE ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)
	0	5	12.5	12.5	12.5
	20	1	2.5	2.5	15.0
	32	1	2.5	2.5	17.5
	40	2	5.0	5.0	22.5
	50	1	2.5	2.5	25.0
	60	1	2.5	2.5	27.5
	80	2	5.0	5.0	32.5
	105	1	2.5	2.5	35.0
	120	2	5.0	5.0	40.0
	145	1	2.5	2.5	42.5
	150	1	2.5	2.5	45.0
	160	2	5.0	5.0	50.0
	240	2	5.0	5.0	55.0
	350	1	2.5	2.5	57.5
	395	1	2.5	2.5	60.0
	500	1	2.5	2.5	62.5
	640	1	2.5	2.5	65.0
640 ACRES & OVER	641	14	35.0	35.0	100.0
TOTAL		40	100.00	100.00	

TABLE 88 — YEARS IN FARMING

CATEGORY LABEL (Number of years)	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (Percent)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)	CUMULATIVE ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)
	3	1	2.5	2.5	2.5
	7	1	2.5	2.5	5.0
	10	2	5.0	5.0	10.0
	11	1	2.5	2.5	12.5
	13	1	2.5	2.5	15.0
	17	2	5.0	5.0	20.0
	18	1	2.5	2.5	22.5
	20	3	7.5	7.5	30.0
	23	1	2.5	2.5	32.5
	25	2	5.0	5.0	37.5
	27	1	2.5	2.5	40.0
	28	2	5.0	5.0	45.0
	30	7	17.5	17.5	62.5
	31	1	2.5	2.5	65.0
	32	2	5.0	5.0	70.0
	35	2	5.0	5.0	75.0
	40	8	20.0	20.0	95.0
	42	1	2.5	2.5	97.5
	45	1	2.5	2.5	100.0
TOTAL		40	100.0	100.0	

TABLE 89 — WHICH BEST DESCRIBES YOUR FARM

CATEGORY LABEL	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (Percent)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)	CUMULATIVE ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)
NO ANSWER, NOT APPLICABLE	1	2.5	2.5	2.5
SOLE PROPRIETORSHIP	31	77.5	77.5	80.0
PARTNERSHIP	3	7.5	7.5	87.5
CORPORATE FARM	5	12.5	12.5	100.0
TOTAL	40	100.0	100.0	

TABLE 90A — WOMEN AS DEPENDABLE AS MEN

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (Percent)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)	CUMULATIVE ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)
NO ANSWER	0	1	2.5	2.5	2.5
STRONGLY AGREE	1	4	10.0	10.0	12.5
AGREE	2	28	70.0	70.0	82.5
DISAGREE	3	4	10.0	10.0	92.5
NO OPINION	5	3	7.5	7.5	100.0
TOTAL		40	100.0	100.0	

TABLE 90B — WOMEN PHYSICALLY ABLE AS MEN

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (Percent)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)	CUMULATIVE ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)
NO ANSWER	0	2	5.0	5.0	5.0
AGREE	2	4	10.0	10.0	15.0
DISAGREE	3	30	75.0	75.0	90.0
STRONGLY DISAGREE	4	4	10.0	10.0	100.0
TOTAL		40	100.0	100.0	

TABLE 91 — HIRE WOMEN TO OPERATE MACHINERY

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (Percent)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)	CUMULATIVE ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)
NO ANSWER	0	2	5.0	5.0	5.0
STRONGLY AGREE	1	3	7.5	7.5	12.5
AGREE	2	12	30.0	30.0	42.5
DISAGREE	3	19	47.5	47.5	90.0
STRONGLY DISAGREE	4	3	7.5	7.5	97.5
NO OPINION	5	1	2.5	2.5	100.0
TOTAL		40	100.0	100.0	

**TABLE 92 -- WITHIN PHYSICAL LIMITATIONS WOMEN CAN
BE TRAINED TO DO SAME TASKS AS MEN**

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (Percent)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)	CUMULATIVE ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)
NO ANSWER	0	1	2.5	2.5	2.5
AGREE	2	27	67.5	67.5	70.0
DISAGREE	3	8	20.0	20.0	90.0
STRONGLY DISAGREE	4	3	7.5	7.5	97.5
NO OPINION	5	1	2.5	2.5	100.0
TOTAL		40	100.0	100.0	

TABLE 93 -- MEN MORE COOPERATIVE THAN WOMEN

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (Percent)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)	CUMULATIVE ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)
NO ANSWER	0	2	5.0	5.0	5.0
STRONGLY AGREE	1	3	7.5	7.5	12.5
AGREE	2	4	10.0	10.0	22.5
DISAGREE	3	25	62.5	62.5	85.0
NO OPINION	5	6	15.0	15.0	100.0
TOTAL		40	100.0	100.0	

TABLE 94A -- JOB TRAINING GOOD FOR WOMEN

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (Percent)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)	CUMULATIVE ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)
NO ANSWER	0	2	5.0	5.0	5.0
STRONGLY AGREE	1	4	10.0	10.0	15.0
AGREE	2	17	42.5	42.5	57.5
DISAGREE	3	11	27.5	27.5	85.0
STRONGLY DISAGREE	4	1	2.5	2.5	87.5
NO OPINION	5	5	12.5	12.5	100.0
TOTAL		40	100.0	100.0	

TABLE 94B -- JOB TRAINING GOOD FOR MEN

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (Percent)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)	CUMULATIVE ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)
NO ANSWER	0	2	5.0	5.0	5.0
STRONGLY AGREE	1	6	15.0	15.0	20.0
AGREE	2	20	50.0	50.0	70.0
DISAGREE	3	6	15.0	15.0	85.0
NO OPINION	5	6	15.0	15.0	100.0
TOTAL		40	100.0	100.0	

TABLE 95 -- WOMEN ARE AS PRODUCTIVE AS MEN

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (Percent)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)	CUMULATIVE ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)
NO ANSWER	0	1	2.5	2.5	2.5
STRONGLY AGREE	1	3	7.5	7.5	10.0
AGREE	2	28	70.0	70.0	80.0
DISAGREE	3	4	10.0	10.0	90.0
STRONGLY DISAGREE	4	1	2.5	2.5	92.5
NO OPINION	5	3	7.5	7.5	100.0
TOTAL		40	100.0	100.0	

TABLE 96 -- WOMEN ARE HARD WORKERS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (Percent)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)	CUMULATIVE ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)
NO ANSWER	0	2	5.0	5.0	5.0
AGREE	2	30	75.0	75.0	80.0
DISAGREE	3	6	15.0	15.0	95.0
NO OPINION	5	2	5.0	5.0	100.0
TOTAL		40	100.0	100.0	

TABLE 97A — SEASONAL JOBS FOR MEN

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (Percent)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)	CUMULATIVE ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)
SKILLED	1	9	22.5	22.5	22.5
SEMI-SKILLED	2	14	35.0	35.0	57.5
UNSKILLED	3	17	42.5	42.5	100.0
TOTAL		40	100.0	100.0	

TABLE 97B — SEASONAL JOBS FOR WOMEN

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (Percent)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)	CUMULATIVE ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)
NO ANSWER, NOT APPLIC.	0	4	10.0	10.0	10.0
SKILLED	1	2	5.0	5.0	15.0
SEMI-SKILLED	2	14	35.0	35.0	50.0
UNSKILLED	3	19	47.5	47.5	97.5
NO OPINION	9	1	2.5	2.5	100.0
TOTAL		40	100.0	100.0	

TABLE 98A — AGRICULTURAL PROBLEM AREAS MOST IMPORTANT TO CHANGE

	CON- DITIONS		PAY/ BENEFITS		CHILD CARE		HOUSING		DISCRI- MINATION		MOBILITY		ORGANI- ZATION		EVERY- THING		ATTITUDES	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	28	8.5	201	61.6	10	3	51	15.6	2	0.6	21	6.4	2	0.6	6	1.8	5	1.5
MALE FRESNO	27	13	117	56.5			36	17.3	1	0.4	5	2.4	3	1.4	9	4.3	9	4.3
FEMALE IMPERIAL	21	7	178	59.3			65	21.6			26	8.6	1	0.3	6	2	3	1
MALE IMPERIAL	25	12.6	110	55.5	1	0.5	36	18.1			19	9.5	1	0.5	4	2	2	1
TOTAL FEMALE	49	7.8	379	60.5	10	1.5	116	18.5	2	0.3	47	7.5	3	0.4	12	1.9	8	1.2
TOTAL MALE	52	12.8	227	56	1	0.2	72	17.7	1	0.2	24	5.9	4	0.9	13	3.2	11	2.7
GRAND TOTAL	101	9.7	606	58.7	11	1	188	18.2	3	0.2	71	6.8	7	0.6	25	2.4	19	1.8

TABLE 98B -- HOW TO CHANGE AGRICULTURAL PROBLEM AREAS

	CONDITIONS		PAY/ BENEFITS		EDUCATION		HOUSING		DISCRI- MINATION		ORGANI- ZATION		EMP. RESPON- SIBILITY		UNKNOWN	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	10	4.5	83	37.7	7	3.1	19	8.6	5	2.2	3	1.3	57	25.9	12	5.4
MALE FRESNO	5	4.2	43	36.7			9	7.6	2	1.7	1	0.8	43	36.7	8	6.8
FEMALE IMPERIAL	11	4.5	117	48.7	4	1.6	52	21.6	5	2	13	5.4	16	6.6	3	1.2
MALE IMPERIAL	4	3.1	34	26.5	5	3.9	21	16.4	1	0.7	5	3.9	56	43.7	1	0.7
TOTAL FEMALE	21	4.5	200	43.4	11	2.3	71	15.4	10	2.1	16	3.4	73	15.8	15	3.2
TOTAL MALE	9	3.6	77	31.4	5	2	30	12.2	3	1.2	6	2.4	99	40.4	9	3.6
GRAND TOTAL	30	4.2	277	39.2	16	2.2	101	14.3	13	1.8	22	3.1	172	24.3	24	3.4

TABLE 98C -- GOVERNMENT SHOULD PROVIDE SERVICES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (Percent)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)	CUMULATIVE ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (Percent)
NO ANSWER	0	3	7.5	7.5	7.5
STRONGLY AGREE	1	6	15.0	15.0	22.5
AGREE	2	19	47.5	47.5	70.0
DISAGREE	3	6	15.0	15.0	85.0
STRONGLY DISAGREE	4	1	2.5	2.5	87.5
NO OPINION	5	5	12.5	12.5	100.0
TOTAL		40	100.0	100.0	

TABLE 99 -- FARMWORK ADEQUATE FOR SELF BUT NOT CHILDREN

	STRONGLY AGREE		AGREE		DISAGREE		STRONGLY DISAGREE		NO OPINION	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	88	44.4	89	44.9	8	4	6	3	3	1.5
MALE FRESNO	27	26.9	41	41	7	7	5	5	15	15
FEMALE IMPERIAL	81	41.9	64	33.1	7	3.6	22	11.3	12	6.2
MALE IMPERIAL	59	63.4	25	26.8	2	2.1			2	2.1
TOTAL FEMALE	169	43.2	153	39.1	15	3.8	28	7.1	15	3.8
TOTAL MALE	86	44.5	66	34.1	9	4.6	5	2.5	17	8.8
GRAND TOTAL	255	43.6	219	37.5	24	4.1	33	5.6	32	5.4

TABLE 100 — BEST CHARACTERISTICS OF FARMWORK

	HEALTH		FREEDOM		FRIEND /FAMILY		NECESSITY		LIKE IT		PAY/ BENEFITS		EDU- CATION		SPECIAL TASK		NOTHING		EVERY- THING	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALE FRESNO	54	24.4	49	22.1	17	7.6	5	2.2	11	4.9	26	11.7	4	1.8	11	4.9	42	19	1	0.4
MALE FRESNO	43	32.8	21	16	4	3	1	0.7	3	2.2	7	5.3	10	7.6	10	7.6	32	24.4		
FEMALE IMPERIAL	33	18	15	8.1	3	1.6	10	5.4	3	1.6	23	12.5	9	4.9	6	3.2	79	43.1	2	1
MALE IMPERIAL	16	18.6	8	9.3	3	3.4	2	2.3	2	2.3	6	6.9	3	3.4	10	11.6	36	41.8		
TOTAL FEMALE	87	21.5	64	15.8	20	4.9	15	3.7	14	3.4	49	12.1	13	3.2	17	4.2	121	29.9	3	0.7
TOTAL MALE	59	27.1	29	13.3	7	3.2	3	1.3	5	2.3	13	5.9	13	5.9	20	9.2	68	31.3		
GRAND TOTAL	146	23.5	93	14.9	27	4.3														

APPENDIX

Percent of Accuracy Calculated on a Given Sample

Size	1%	2%	3%	4%	5%	6%	7%	8%	9%	10%
100	99	97	92	86	80	73	67	61	55	49
150	148	142	132	121	108	97	85	76	67	59
200	196	185	169	151	132	115	99	86	75	65
250	244	227	203	177	152	130	110	94	81	70
300	291	267	235	201	169	142	119	101	85	73
350	338	306	264	222	184	152	126	106	89	76
400	385	343	291	241	196	161	132	110	92	78
450	430	379	317	258	208	168	137	113	94	80
500	476	414	341	273	218	174	141	116	96	81
600	565	481	385	301	235	185	148	121	100	83
700	653	542	423	324	249	194	154	124	102	85
800	739	601	458	343	260	201	158	127	104	86
900	823	655	489	361	270	206	161	129	105	87
1000	906	706	517	376	278	211	164	131	106	88
1200	1067	801	565	401	292	219	169	134	108	89
1400	1222	885	606	421	302	225	172	136	110	90
1600	1372	961	641	437	310	229	175	138	111	91
1800	1516	1029	670	451	317	233	177	139	112	92
2000	1656	1092	696	462	323	236	179	140	112	92
2500	1984	1225	748	485	333	242	182	142	114	93*
3000	2286	1334	788	501	341	245	184	143	115	94
3500	2566	1425	818	513	347	248	186	144	115	94
4000	2824	1501	843	522	351	251	187	145	116	94
4500	3065	1566	863	530	354	252	188	146	116	95
5000	3289	1623	880	536	357	254	189	146	116	95
6000	3693	1715	906	540	362	256	190	147	117	95
7000	4049	1788	926	553	365	257	191	147	117	95
8000	4365	1847	942	559	367	259	192	148	117	95
9000	4647	1896	954	563	369	260	192	148	118	96
10000	4900	1937	965	567	370	260	193	148	112	96
15000	5856	2070	997	578	375	263	194	149	118	96
20000	6489	2144	1014	583	377	264	195	149	118	96
25000	6939	2191	1024	587	379	264	195	150	119	96
Infinitely large	9604	2401	1067	600	384	267	196	150	119	96

For example, if you have a population of 5,000 people and you want the sample percent to be within 4% of the true population value, you should use a sample size of 536.

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 - "What do they believe?"
 - "How are their lives molded and shaped by the work that they do?"

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- (2) subordination and domestication of women
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 - (2) Emergency measures to meet total infant diarrhea epidemic.
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STATEMENT TO THE ASSEMBLY HUMAN SERVICES COMMITTEE
PUBLIC HEARING ON THE "FEMINIZATION OF POVERTY" - APRIL 8, 1983
SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA

By: Milo P. Smith, Field Consultant

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(415) 835-5227

I would like to commend Assemblyman Tom Bates and the Assembly Human Services Committee for providing the opportunity for the "feminization of poverty" to finally receive wider local attention. The individual issues which impact on keeping women and children in stressful economic situations have thus far been dealt with in a piece-meal fashion and today's forum will hopefully provide a framework for bringing public policy in line with public reality.

There will be many expert presenters today who will provide in-depth testimony on the barriers which prevent women from becoming economically self-sufficient, i.e. comparable worth, job segregation, lack of appropriate child care, inequities in pension systems, insurance, social security, and, of particular concern to all of us ... how all of these issues are most damaging to women of color. Thus, I do not intend to duplicate the information which will be provided by others.

My approach will have a different thrust and hopefully will demonstrate that even with the constraints of all of these inequities, there are many women in the community who are constructively working on their own behalf and on the behalf of other women.

Since the Displaced Homemakers Center, Inc. has been primarily concerned with the plight of the middle-years and older woman in crisis, you will understand that we do not have time to wait for society to recognize our problems or to plan for solutions.

Our primary message today is to let it be known that it is possible, despite shrinking resources to continue to move forward.

The Displaced Homemakers Center, Inc. in Oakland has provided consultation
services at no cost to the facilities it works with. It also has contributed technical assistance to all of the federal and state research projects which have been done on displaced homemakers and women in mid-life. All of its work

has been done on a miniscule budget obtained through individual donations and private sector grants. Only through the dedication of a "working" Board of Directors with part-time staff has all of this been possible. It is an example of what can be done by people who care about their community.

It is impossible in a short presentation to provide detailed information but what we hope will be recognized today is that creative and innovative efforts are underway to break down some of the barriers to economic independence for women. Of particular note, we want to emphasize that the approach we have taken is extremely cost-effective. Our efforts have been designed around a "resource re-allocation model" ... which translates into the fact that no up-front monies were provided to initiate these programs. The expertise provided by Displaced Homemakers Center, Inc. brought together available resources at each site to begin the core programs, which were then supplemented by involvement of the site participants as volunteers and additional assists acquired from the larger community, while continuing to receive on-going support from Displaced Homemakers Center, Inc.

For example:

Utilization of the volunteer contract ... provides validated work experience for participants to give the necessary recent job experience expands staffing capacity.

Peer Advisors are a very important adjunct to the programs. Participants are trained in good listening skills, interviewing techniques and knowledge of community resources to provide on going support, and information and referrals to women in distress.

Professional "experts" have been recruited for specialized supplementary presentations. Many lawyers, financial planners, counselors, educators etc, have contributed their services.

Utilization of Title V (the employment component of the Older Americans Act) which can provide part-time paid staff and on-the-job training for participants

over 55 years of age.

The first Displaced Homemakers Center, Inc. in the United States opened in Oakland, California in 1976. This was brought about by the hard work of a group of dedicated women who in their middle years found themselves, because of widowhood or divorce, in need of employment.

The phenomenon of the displaced homemaker was not discovered by any enlightened social planning body but came from the personal experiences of local women victims of a changing society that moved them suddenly from their traditional roles as housewives and mothers into the position of seeking some means of becoming totally self-sufficient, on their own, without any preparation of planning for this change.

It is nothing short of miraculous that in a period of less than five years, the displaced homemaker received national recognition ... demonstrated by the emergence of over 400 centers throughout the United States and the development of a National Network headquartered in Washington, D.C.

After five years of providing comprehensive direct services to over 3,000 local women, the first Center, in anticipation of shrinking resources, changed its mode of operation. It became apparent that the services provided by the Center, were needed by any women who had to make the transition from dependency to self-sufficiency. More and more women (AFDC mothers, battered women, women veterans, single heads of household etc., etc.) ... far beyond the Center's capability to serve ... were coming to the Center for help.

It has always been the Center's philosophical stance to utilize existing community resources (Education, Rehabilitation, Health, Aging, Legal, EDD etc.) as much as possible to limit duplication of effort. From this premise, the current mode of operation of the Center evolved. Negotiations were made to provide free consultation services to the Peralta Community College District

to assist with the development of pre-employment services in the Community Colleges. We have now expanded beyond the Peralta District.

Underlying this transition was a sincere belief that "institutionalizing" the program would provide the stability of an entrenched tax-supported institution with the capability for continuity and expansion which could not be provided by the limited resources of a small community-based organization. In addition, this approach opened up the potential for bringing much needed services closer to the women in their own communities. Women can now receive assistance at the College of Alameda, Merritt College, Laney College, Chabot College and the Loma Vista Adult Center in Concord. Each program is developing in a different mode, primarily depending on the internal and administrative support at each site.

The Director of the Career Center and Women's Programs at Merritt College, Carolyn Schuetz, was successful in procuring a federal Cooperative Education grant which will expand opportunities for displaced homemakers and other mature students to develop meaningful work opportunities. Cooperative Education which provides concurrent work experience and job-oriented education should be recognized as an outstanding approach for the older student and should receive more attention throughout the entire state educational system. This concept is right on target with state and national planning ... providing more direct involvement with the Private sector.

Laney College because of its location draws on a high percentage of minority students and the programming there will give priority to women of color. A program called C.A.R.E. (Cooperative Agencies Resource for Education) already existed at Laney ... funded through AB3103, Hughes '82 ... and provides services only for AFDC mothers. The current plan here is to locate other resources to expand on this program so that women not yet locked into the welfare system can receive preventative help. Several proposals have been prepared to support this effort.

The success of the program headed by Joanne Durkee at the Loma Vista Adult Center in Concord leads us to believe that expansion through Adult Education systems has very positive potential. Many women who have never considered college in their life plans seem very comfortable at Adult Education sites.

As part of the planning it is recommended that advisory committees be initiated early on ... made up of representatives from appropriate agencies (EDD, Rehab, Health, Social Services, Aging etc.). With the proliferation of sites, it has become a problem for the participating agencies to provide release time for their staff. Laney College has been most successful with the development of an inter-agency advisory committee based on the State Inter-Agency model. Merritt College is exemplary in developing strong private sector support in an advisory capacity which has significantly strengthened the cooperative education project at Merritt. It is imperative that the inter-agency support concept be maintained but it appears that another approach might be more viable. The Directors of all sites will be holding monthly meetings to exchange information and expertise and it will perhaps be more feasible to bring in inter-agency people at this level. We hope to procure support from the State Inter-Agency Committee in this effort.

Information is funneled to each site from the National Displaced Homemakers Center Network in Washington, D.C. as well as information on other State and National changes that could conceivably enhance program development. Careful monitoring of the Vocational Education Act and the Job Training Partnership Act is on-going because these will be the primary sources of future training funds.

The Displaced Homemakers Center, Inc. maintains a broad interactive stance with other women's groups. The East Bay Women's Coalition, made up of over 40 diverse women's organizations in Alameda County has provided invaluable information exchange and mutual support. This group, like the Displaced Homemaker movement is based on the concept of "women helping women". The Coalition

crosses all issue, age and class barriers and is dedicated to the elimination of the "feminization of poverty."

A few years ago, the U.S. Civil Rights Commission issued a statement that is appropriate here ... "it is recognized the serious problems that are encountered whenever changes are called for or are made in the historical allocation of funds ... nevertheless, the reasons that may have justified an allocation pattern that was established some years ago do not necessarily prevail today. Some Administrators say they would make changes if additional funds can be obtained, this would be the ideal solution. Additional funds may not be available." These are continuing acts of discrimination if "Administrators are not willing to take steps now, under current funding levels to correct inequities in the provision of services."

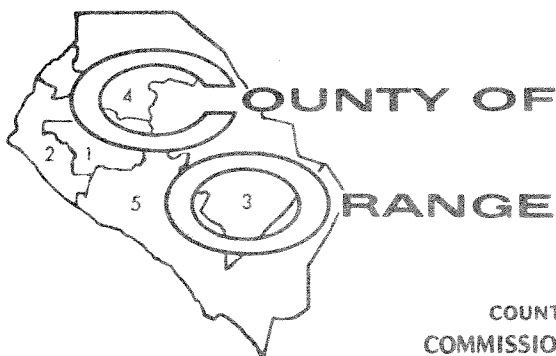
Since women are the majority population in this state, it is only just and reasonable to expect that any program supported by public monies be evaluated on how their services are impacting on women of all ages. "Without serious federal and state policy intervention, millions of women in the United States can expect to live out a grim scenario: they can expect to grow up as a member of a poor family, work in a job which will keep them a member of the working poor, raise children alone and in poverty, and finally, join the majority population of the female aged poor."

"We must examine the paradox of our society having created a large, able, mostly healthy and longer living older population at the very time when outmoded policies and practices are still functioning to force them into dependency on the system while they still have the capacity for making productive contributions to society."

We must call for a reversal of these tragic and wasteful policies and practices. They must be replaced by a new strategy that emphasizes the development of conditions that will allow the skills, capacities and experience of middle years and older people to be kept actively employed in the work economy."

The Displaced Homemaker Center, Inc. will be happy to offer any assists within our purview to the Human Services Committee as it moved foreward to re-evaluate policies as they relate to the economic status of women.

.....Thank you.



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Testimony submitted by the Orange County Commission on the Status of Women to the Assembly Human Services Committee on the Feminization of Poverty.

It is both tragic and ironic that a State Assembly Committee hearing on the Feminization of Poverty had been scheduled a few weeks after the shooting death of an unattended 5-year-old boy in Orange County. Included in the testimony is a newspaper account of the tragedy, as well as the Commission's response to these turn of events.

Figures from the 1980 Census reveal that, in Orange County, almost one-half of the mothers with pre-school aged children are in the labor force. Of those mothers with school-aged children, 64.3%, or almost two out of three are in the labor force. These figures correspond with the national statistics on working mothers.

In a County of over 2,000,000 people, the second largest in the State, there is a definite lack of child care facilities, and an extreme shortage of programs for low-income families.

- . Out of 450 licensed child care centers, only 25 of these offer after-school care for ages 5 through 12.
 - . There is only one child care center that is open on a 24-hour basis.
 - . There are only 20 centers that serve children from birth to two years of age. Of these, eight programs serve only low-income families.
 - . An extensive survey of child care facilities in the County, conducted in August, 1979, revealed over 3,800 unduplicated names on waiting lists for child care.
 - . Center directors reported over 70% of the parents using their facilities did so to enable all adults in the family to work or attend school full time.
-
- . Of those families on waiting lists for subsidized care, over 80% were single parents; over 60% were presently employed, approximately 20% were actively seeking employment, and nearly 18% were in training.
 - . More than 30% of the total list awaiting subsidized care required spaces for children under the age of two.

While the availability of quality, affordable child care is central to the issue of women and employment, the problem is not limited to employed mothers. When children are not cared for adequately, the entire community pays for it,

through both increased pressure on public services, as well as the expense of human tragedy. In addition to the story of Patrick Mason, the following are true stories of what can happen when mothers cannot find care for their children.

- . A mother of a four-year-old and a seven-year-old lost the services of a neighbor who had been watching the children while she worked. She was unable to find another. The seven-year-old was left in charge of the four-year-old, and the children were told to go to the local boys' club. This entailed crossing the main line Santa Fe railroad tracks. The seven-year-old was often absent from school while he cared for the younger child. Neighbors reported the children generally ran loose in the neighborhood. The home was found to be unkempt and filthy. Eventually, the children were removed from the home.
- . A mother had to pick up her paycheck. She left her six-year-old in charge of the two toddlers, ages 2 and 3, locked the house and left with instructions to the six-year-old not to open the door until she returned. Neighbors heard the children bickering and crying and called the police. The police had to break in the front door as the six-year-old was too frightened to open the door. The police located a relative to stay with the children until the mother returned.
- . Neighbors called the police because they suspected that children were not being properly cared for. When the police arrived they found a seven-year-old in charge of two toddlers, with responsibility for feeding and caring for them until their father arrived home from work. This was not happening to the satisfaction of the police. The mother had to leave for work early each day and had assumed the seven-year-old could handle the two younger ones until the father arrived. The police could not locate the parents or relatives, so they took the children into protective custody and delivered them to the County's Albert Sitton Home for emergency shelter care.

For these reasons, it is not only just but prudent for public entities to make a commitment to low-cost, quality care for children. Among the current literature on the subject, several solutions have been offered:

- . Encourage and support the State Department of Education - Office of Child Development and the State Department of Social Services in the simplification of child care funding mechanisms for purposes of (1) reducing the administrative costs of the delivery of child care services, (2) increasing the availability of child care services to consumers, and (3) making the best and most equitable use of the child care dollars.
-
- . Increase tax incentives for employers sponsoring child care centers.
 - . Work with employers, child care consumers and providers to recommend and implement solutions to the problems faced by the community when there is a lack of affordable child care.
 - . Analyse results of 1980 Census data, when available, to focus on trends in demand by location, and to make this analysis available to planners and

and private providers.

- . Encourage private funding sources and national foundations to contribute to the provision of child care services.

With the purpose of educating local employers to the problems in the workplace due to lack of child care, the Orange County Commission on the Status of Women co-sponsored a symposium on Employer-Related Child Care in May of 1982. Attendance at the symposium was over 200, with 38 of the County's largest employers represented. Speakers from throughout the nation contributed expert and first-hand knowledge of both the benefits and potential problems for employers involved in child care. The Children's Home Society and the Orange County United Way N/S, Office of Community Services, Orange County Central Labor Council AFL-CIO contributed to the success of the symposium. It is an excellent example of how the public and private sectors can work together to alleviate the problems of child care and benefit the entire community.

EMPLOYER-RELATED CHILD CARE

New Benefits for New Lifestyles

**ORANGE COUNTY CHILD CARE SYMPOSIUM
ANAHEIM, CALIFORNIA
MAY 21, 1982**

EMPLOYER - RELATED CHILD CARE

New Benefits for New Lifestyles

ORANGE COUNTY CHILD CARE SYMPOSIUM

ANAHEIM, CALIFORNIA

May 21, 1982

ORANGE COUNTY CHILD CARE SYMPOSIUM

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FOREWORD

Working parents in Orange County today face the task of finding child care services that meet both their work demands as well as the developmental needs of their children. Too often, the match is not obtained. As a result, the employer and worker suffer from lost work time and parental worry, and the children suffer from poor quality care. In many cases, an employer, a union, or a group of employees could develop some child care-related services that would help parents meet their child care needs and benefit the employer as well.

This book has been designed as an aid to employers, union leaders, and employee groups. It includes information useful for persons in Orange County who are involved with, or planning for employer-related child care services. The co-authors of this book are pleased to provide this information in hopes that it will help expand the child care services available, to the shared benefit of employers, employees and their children.

- * Children's Home Society of California, Orange County District
- * Office of Community Services, United Way of Orange County North/South; Orange County Central Labor Council, AFL-CIO
- * Orange County Commission on the Status of Women

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POPULATION IN ORANGE COUNTY

The decade of the 70's brought phenomenal growth to Orange County. The 1970 census reported a total population of 1,410,386. Using growth trends and the 1980 census, the population of Orange County passed the 2,000,000 mark late in 1981; an increase of 42.5% in just over 10 years.

On a percentage basis, the growth trend seems to be in the northern hills and southern part of the County. During 1980, the cities of Tustin, Brea, Irvine, Yorba Linda, San Juan Capistrano and Stanton experienced the largest percentage increases, with gains of 15.1, 10.1, 7.7, 5.7, 4.8, and 4.7 percent respectively. The cities showing the greatest absolute increase are the larger cities, with Anaheim, Irvine, Santa Ana and Huntington Beach reflecting the highest absolute increase. Three cities, Buena Park, Villa Park and Fountain Valley, recorded slight decreases in population during 1980, by 0.3, 0.3 and 0.4 percent respectively. The age of the population and the lack of new construction is thought to be the major causes for these decreases.¹

Age

Although there has been a decrease in numbers and percentage of children 14 years of age and under since 1976, there has been an increase in the demand for child care services reported by professionals in the field.

A survey of child care centers in Orange County in 1979 showed 16,040 spaces in 231 child care centers. At the same time, the waiting lists at these centers had 2,626 names of children needing care. These were an additional 1,175 names on waiting lists for subsidized care through various state and federal programs. The total number of children on waiting lists was 3,801.²

Employment

One of the reasons for increased need for child care services is the change in the nature of the work force. The high rate of inflation and cost of housing in Orange County have forced the traditional care-giver, the mother, into the work force. The 1976 Special Census indicated that out of a population of 573,680 females between the ages of 15 and 65 in Orange County, 25,451 were employed. That figure represented 43.8% of the women in that age group were actively

working at either full or part time jobs.³ In 1980, the number of women in that age group in Orange County had increased by over 100,000. While exact figures for the percent employed in 1980 will not be available until August of 1982, the Los Angeles Office of the Census Bureau cites a national figure of 51.1% of all women in that age group employed. This indicates an increase of 7.3% additional employed women in the four-year-period from 1976-80. Of course, not all of the women in this category have child care problems. Recently, however, increasing numbers of men have been responsible for the care of their children. Even in two-parent families, the traditional role of the mother as the only parent who is responsible for the care of the children is no longer valid.

Education

Parents in the work force need child care. Parents attending school also need child care. The nature of the student in post-secondary education is changing. Not only is the average age of students older, but fields which are directly career-oriented such as engineering and computer science are experiencing increasing numbers of students. Many of these students are returning to school to keep up with the latest trends in their fields. Others are learning new careers. If educational trends are an indication of the quality of future employees, the Orange County employer will be seeing better educated, career-oriented individuals. They will be valuable employees who will be needing increasing compensation and benefits for their time. Child care will be a major concern for most of them.

ORANGE COUNTY POPULATION BY
AGE GROUP ⁴

Under 5 years of age	129,531
5 - 14 years	287,845
15 - 21 years	264,728
22 - 24 years	121,554
25 - 29 years	180,499
30 - 34 years	165,684
35 - 44 years	250,743
45 - 54 years	206,545
55 - 59 years	95,659
60 - 64 years	69,008
65 - 74 years	94,456
75 - 84 years	51,460
85 years and older	14,997
 TOTAL.....	 1,932,709

1981 ORANGE COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOL GRADUATES BY GENDER⁵

	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>
High School Graduates	12,496	12,099
Associate Degrees	1,768	1,357
Bachelor Degrees	2,117	1,239
Master's Degree	416	474
Doctors of Medicine	17	72

BACHELOR DEGREES BY GENDER, ORANGE COUNTY 1981⁶

	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>
Engineering	27	190
Computer Science	47	87
Marketing	75	106

THE DEMAND FOR CHILD CARE

Working parents need reliable quality child care. They need to be assured their children are in an environment that fosters development, and they need to feel their children are well cared for so that they can concentrate on their job.

Employers and labor groups can support child care services for employees. When employers help with such a basic need as child care, the employees feel supported, their morale is increased, and the employer can benefit from a steadier and happier work force.

The need for child care service has been increasing as more mothers are entering the work force. As a result of inflation, changing family structures, and career aspirations, the demand for child care is projected to continue over the next two decades. This is despite the declining birth rate, since increases in women's employment will more than offset the reduced number of births. The rate of increase is expected to be particularly high for women with children under three years of age.⁷

When parents must find child care, it is often difficult to find reliable care at an affordable price. Costs vary, depending on the age of the child, type of care used, availability, and the number of days and hours care is needed. Currently in Orange County, parents pay an average of \$180 a month for full-time care for one child between 3 and 5 years of age. The average cost of infant care (birth to 2 years) can be even higher. These prices do not include the parent's cost of transporting the child and food and supply obligations.⁸

Care by relatives is not always accessible, due, for example, to our mobile society. Therefore, parents must look at other sources for child care. There are three main types to consider: in-home care, family day care and center based care.

IN-HOME CARE

In-home care is when someone comes, or lives in the parent's home. The caregiver can be a friend or relative, or someone hired to come to the home. Although this type of arrangement may be ideal for many families, it is difficult to coordinate and can also be costly. ~~This kind of care is not licensed by a regulatory agency.~~

FAMILY DAY CARE

This is care that is provided in a private residence for a small number of children. Often the provider is a mother with children of her own. They can serve children from birth to 14 years of age. These homes are as varied as the families they serve and can offer flexibility in terms of hours, convenience of location, and providing care when a child is sick or has special needs. Care can also extend to school-age children before and after school and during vacation periods. California law requires that family day care homes be licensed. The Department of Social Services inspects the homes for safety and health considerations and specifies the maximum numbers of children that can be cared for at any one time. Providers need not be trained in early childhood education, but often have experiences from a variety of areas.

For further information regarding family day care licensing, contact:

County of Orange
Department of Social Services
Licensing Division
1801 N. College Avenue
Santa Ana, CA 92702
(714) 834-5172

CENTER-BASED CARE

This is a facility where children are cared for in a group away from their homes. Centers are called by many names such as: day care centers, preschools, and child care centers. Goals and objectives vary from center to center, depending on the program's philosophy. The program at a center can range from being primarily care-giving, to highly structured academics, to a program that has a developmental approach where individual characteristics and needs are considered. However, tuition costs, hours offered, and ages served, often limit parental choice. State licensing regulations define health and safety standards, the training and experience requirements of staff and necessary staffing ratios of adults to children.

For further information regarding center licensing, contact:

State of California
Department of Social Services
Community Care Licensing
2323 N. Broadway, Suite 435
Santa Ana, CA 92706
(714) 558-4563

Each type of service has various advantages and disadvantages. One or more of these child care services may be used depending on availability of sources, schedules, cost, and the developmental needs of the child. It is strongly recommended that parents visit facilities with their child and interview the providers before making a selection. No matter how attractive the facility, the quality of care is dependent primarily on the care-giver.

Parents should consider the following items when selecting their child care arrangements.

- * physical environment
- * social interaction between staff and children
- * care-giver qualifications
- * emotional environment
- * program activities

The time and effort spent to find the best situation to meet the needs of the parent and child, is not an easy task. The arrangements that are used will affect the child, the parent and their job.

A DOCUMENTATION OF CHILD CARE NEEDS IN ORANGE COUNTY

In 1981, Resource and Referral Staff at Children's Home Society spoke to over 16,000 people requesting child care information. Of these calls, parents requested child care referrals for 7,165 children. The actual number of parents needing child care is much higher however, since this figure reflects calls received by only one Orange County agency.

A random sample of 1981 referral calls was conducted which revealed the following information:

- * Three-quarters of the parents calling for child care referrals need full-time arrangements.
- * Nine out of ten parents calling for child care referrals are working or seeking work.
- * Half of the parents requesting child care referrals are single parents.
- * One-third of the parents calling for referrals were eligible for placement on our waiting list for child care financial assistance.
- * Forty percent of the calls received were for infants, birth to two years old.

BENEFITS OF EMPLOYER-RELATED CHILD CARE

What can a child care program do for you?

It can:

- * increase productivity
- * attract desirable employees
- * lower absenteeism
- * reduce tardiness
- * improve employee morale
- * reduce turnover
- * enhance public relations
- * offer tax advantages

In Orange County:

- * Out of 450 licensed child care centers, only 25 of these offer after school care for ages 5 through 12.

The shortage of after school programs means that many children are often left without supervision. Businesses pay for the time employees spend worrying and calling to check on their children instead of concentrating on their job.

- * There is only one child care center that is open 24 hours.

Lack of flexible care hours creates problems for parents. Child care may be the reason you have trouble recruiting and retaining employees who have to work overtime or evening hours.

- * There are only 20 centers that serve children, birth to two years. Of these, eight programs serve only low income families.

Due to the limited availability of this kind of care, your employee on maternity leave may have difficulty returning to work.⁹

THE EFFECT OF CHILD CARE
ON EMPLOYEE ABSENTEEISM, TURNOVER, RECRUITMENT AND PERFORMANCE

Absenteeism:

- Control Data, Minneapolis, Minnesota. "Employee parents with children in the center reduced their absenteeism rates by 21.4% over their own rates before enrolling in the center." (This is a cooperative center with other companies).
- Rochester Clothes Inc., New Bedford, Massachusetts. "Employee absenteeism dropped from 10-15% down to 3% with the establishment of a day care center in 1965."
- Stride-Rite, Boston, Massachusetts. "The establishment of a child care program has reduced absenteeism. Employees are more punctual in the morning because they and their children have only one destination."

Turnover:

- Mr. Apparel, Highpoint, North Carolina. "Absolutely zero turnover among women using the center compared to 80-90% among other employees. Turnover costs are estimated at \$1,500 per lost employee."
- Fel-Pro Industries, Skokie, Illinois. "Establishing a summer camp for school age children has reduced turnover from 30-40% ten years ago to less than 10% now. There is a 1-2 year waiting list for employment at Fel-Pro."
- Intermedics, Freeport, Texas. "As a result of a center there has been a 23% decrease in turnover."

Recruitment:

- Stride-Rite, Boston, Massachusetts. "The child care program has helped cut the cost of retraining new employees because it has been a help in recruiting stable, skilled, family-oriented employees."
- Jet Propulsion Laboratory, Pasadena, California. "For JPL, which must maintain a competitive edge in hiring and retaining employees, maintenance of such programs attracts employees with or without children of pre-school ages by projecting an image of sensitivity and responsiveness to the needs of the employees as a whole."

CHILD CARE OPTIONS

There are a wide range of options for employer response to identified needs, each of which can be analyzed in terms of its cost, its offsetting positive effects on company operations, and different ways of reporting for tax purposes.

Business and industry can:

- * Sponsor an on-site or off-site child care facility.
 - * Have a vendor or voucher system to assist employees to purchase their own care.
 - * Form a consortium with other companies for a facility available to all.
 - * Purchase spaces from local centers or licensed family day care homes for use of their employees.
 - * Buy, build or renovate property for use as a child care facility primarily for their employees, for which they can write off their costs at a faster-than-normal rate.
 - * Provide a summer program for children of employees.
 - * Rent space for child care to a child care provider.
 - * Make direct financial contributions to a program.
 - * Supply materials for use at the child care centers.
 - * Supply industrial scrap for recycling.
 - * Provide in-kind services and technical assistance such as accounting, tax help, management systems and training of child care staff for any of them.
 - * Offer flexible employee benefits to include flextime, sick-child leave, alternate work schedules, parental leave and discount for using licensed child care.
 - * Develop support for subsidies on a sliding scale, applicable in community child care centers.
 - * Work with unions to provide programs.
 - * Provide information and referral services for employees.
 - * Provide lunchtime seminars for working parents on a range of topics such as balancing work and family, coping as a single parent, reducing stress, and selecting appropriate child care.
-

EXAMPLES OF EMPLOYER-RELATED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS

In an effort to show the wide variety of programs and locales in child care, we have compiled lists of companies, government agencies, hospitals and labor unions who are involved with child care for working parents. They are provided as reference and are partial lists only.

COMPANY - RELATED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS

<u>Company/Location</u>	<u>Type of Program</u>
Fluor Corporation Irvine, CA	Child care referral service and summer day camp
Jet Propulsion Laboratory Pasadena, CA	Operates day care center
National Semi Conductor Santa Clara, CA	Child care hot line
Pacific Mutual Newport Beach, CA	Voucher system
Mountain Bell Denver, CO	In-house child care information and referral service
American Can Company Greenwich, CT	Flexible benefits plan
Connecticut General Life Ins. Co. Bloomfield, CT	Sponsors child care center
WJLA-TV Washington, D.C.	Consortium with four other broadcasters
Walt Disney World Lake Buena Vista, FL	In-site child care center
Tupperware Corp. Jerome, ID	Summer recreation and facility
Fel-Pro Industries Skokie, IL	Summer camp for employees' children
Union Mutual Life Ins. Co. Portland, ME	Sponsors child care center
AVCO Boston, MA	Operates child care center
Polaroid Corporation Cambridge, MA	Financial assistance (voucher system) for qualifying employees (less than \$20,000 salary)
Stride Rite Corporation Boston MA	Operates child care center
Wang Laboratories Lowell, MA	Operates child care center

COMPANY - RELATED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS (2)

Steelcase Incorporated
Grand Rapids, MI.

In-house child care information and referral service, in-kind support to local day care facilities

Whirlpool RCA
Benton Harbor, MI.

In-kind donations to a non-profit center

Control Data
Minneapolis, MN.

Operates child care center in consortium with 6 other companies

Honeywell Corporation
Minneapolis, MN.

Computerized referral system and counseling

Corning Glass works
Corning, N.Y.

Operates child care center

Ford Foundation
New York, N.Y.

Financial assistance (voucher system) for qualifying employees (less than \$25,000 salary)

Hoffman LaRoche
Clifton, N.J.

Operates child care center

Ohio Bell Telephone Company
Columbus, OH.

Contracts with private provider

Allendale Insurance Co.
Johnston, R.I.

Sponsors child care center

Forney Engineering Company
Addison, TX

Sponsors child care center

Intermedics
Freeport, TX.

Off-site child care center

Levi-Strauss
El Paso, TX.

Contracted with non-profit community based agency

TRW
Houston, TX.

Flexible benefits plan

Zale Corporation
Dallas, TX.

Operates child care center

CHILD CARE CENTERS SPONSORED

BY GOVERNMENT AGENCIES

State Department of Motor Vehicles
Sacramento, CA

Department of Labor
Washington, DC

Department of Education
Washington, DC

HUD
Washington, DC

Equal Employment Opportunity Commission
Washington, DC

Department of Health and Human Services
Washington, DC

Veterans' Administration Hospital
North Chicago, IL

USDA Plant Industry Station
Beltsville, MD

Social Security Administration
Baltimore, MD

National Institute of Health
Bethesda, MD

Ayrlawn Elementary School
Bethesda, MD

Goddard Space Flight Center/NASA
Greenbelt, MD

Veterans' Administration Medical Center
Ann Arbor, MI

CHILD CARE CENTERS SPONSORED

BY HOSPITALS

ALABAMA

Huntsville Hospital
Huntsville, AL

ARIZONA

Good Samaritan Hospital
Phoenix, AZ

ARKANSAS

Central Baptist Hospital
Little Rock, AR

Baptist Medical Center
Little Rock, AR

St. Vincent's
Little Rock, AR

CALIFORNIA

Methodist Hospital of So. CA
Arcadia, CA

Santa Teresita Hospital
Duarte, CA

Good Samaritan Hospital
Los Angeles, CA

Long Beach Memorial Hospital
Long Beach, CA

FLORIDA

Alachua General Hospital
Gainesville, FL

Baptist Hospital
Miami, FL

Florida Sanitarium and Hospital
Orlando, FL

Hialeah Hospital
Hialeah, FL

Lakeland General Hospital
Lakeland, FL

GEORGIA

Crawford W. Long Hospital
Atlanta, GA

DeKalb General Hospital
Decatur, GA

Georgia Baptist Medical Center
Atlanta, GA

Hall County Hospital
Gainesville, GA

University Hospital
Augusta, GA

ILLINOIS

Blessing Hospital
Quincy, IL

Edgewater Hospital
Chicago, IL

Rush-Presbyterian-St. Luke's
Medical Center
Chicago, IL

Mennonite Hospital
Bloomington, IL

INDIANA

St. Francis Hospital
Beech Grove, IN

IOWA

Iowa Methodist Medical Center
Des Moines, IA

Mercy Hospital
Cedar Rapids, IA

KENTUCKY

Eastern State Hospital
Lexington, KY

St. Anthony's Hospital
Louisville, KY

St. Elizabeth Medical Center
Covington, KY

CHILD CARE CENTERS SPONSORED BY HOSPITALS (2)

LOUISIANA

Baton Rouge General Hospital
Baton Rouge, LA

Doctor's Hospital
Shreveport, LA

Seventh Ward General Hospital
Hammond, LA

MARYLAND

Prince George's General Hospital
Cheverly, MD

MASSACHUSETTS

Middlesex County Hospital
Waltham, MA

New England Memorial Hospital
Stoneham, MA

MINNESOTA

Mercy Medical
Coon Rapids, MN

Fairview Hospital, St. Mary's
Hospital, Augsburg College
Minneapolis, MN

MISSOURI

Bethesda General Hospital
St. Louis, MO

Independence Sanitarium & Hospital
Independence, MO

NEW JERSEY

Newton Memorial Hospital
Newton, NJ

NEW YORK

Genesee Hospital
Rochester, NY

NORTH CAROLINA

Forsyth Memorial Hospital
Winston-Salem, NC

Rex Hospital
Raleigh, NC

NORTH DAKOTA

North Dakota State Hospital
Jamestown, ND

OHIO

Miami Valley Hospital
Dayton, OH

Highland View Hospital
Cleveland, OH

Mercy Medical Center
Springfield, OH

OKLAHOMA

St. Francis Hospital
Tulsa, OK

Baptist Hospital
Oklahoma City, OK

Hillcrest Medical Center
Tulsa, OK

St. John's Hospital
Tulsa, OK

OREGON

Holladay Park Hospital
Portland, OR

SOUTH CAROLINA

Spartanburg General Hospital
Spartanburg, SC

TENNESSEE

Baptist Hospital
Memphis, TN

Fort Sanders Presbyterian Hospital
Knoxville, TN

Parkview Hospital
Nashville, TN

St. Mary's Medical Center
Knoxville, TN

CHILD CARE CENTERS SPONSORED BY HOSPITALS (3)

TEXAS

All Saints Episcopal Hospital
Fort Worth, TX

High Plains Baptist Hospital
Amarillo, TX

Memorial Hospital System
Houston, TX

Presbyterian Medical Center
Dallas, TX

Rosewood General Hospital
Houston, TX

Southeast Baptist Hospital
San Antonio, TX

Texas Medical Center
Houston, TX

VIRGINIA

Richmond Memorial Hospital
Richmond, VA

WASHINGTON

Tacoma General Hospital
Tacoma, WA

Virginia Mason Hospital
Seattle, WA

WISCONSIN

Family Hospital
Milwaukee, WI

Luther Hospital
Eau Claire, WI

CHILD CARE CENTERS SPONSORED

BY LABOR UNIONS

Baltimore Regional Joint Board of
The Amalgamated Clothing and Textile
Workers Union

Chambersburg, PA

Hanover, PA

Baltimore MD

Winchester, VA

Verona, VA

Chicago and Central States Joint Board of
The Amalgamated Clothing and Textile
Workers Union

Chicago, IL

NEEDS ASSESSMENT - A PLANNING TOOL

WHAT IS A NEEDS ASSESSMENT?

A "needs assessment" is a process by which an employer can identify and analyze the feasibility of a range of family supportive employee benefits and policies. A well designed needs assessment addresses employer and employee characteristics and needs, available community resources, and costs, benefits, and legal and tax considerations for various family supportive management practices.

WHAT ARE THE BENEFITS OF A NEEDS ASSESSMENT?

A needs assessment is a planning and decision making tool which aids employers considering family supportive management practices in identifying benefit options which offer the best match between the needs of employees as family members and the management and production needs of the employer.

A careful needs assessment provides uniform data which allows for both short and long range planning by studying the implications of specific programs or policies. Some employers have found that a needs assessment also serves as a valuable employee relations tool, by demonstrating a concern for employee family needs.

WHAT ARE THE LIMITATIONS OF A NEEDS ASSESSMENT?

While a needs assessment can identify employee needs and preferences, it cannot be used as a firm indicator of how many employees may use a particular family supportive management option or how much employees can or will pay for certain services, such as child care. Often, employee utilization of an employer offered benefit will increase over time, as employees become aware of the benefit.

In looking at child care supports, a "one shot" needs assessment can yield changeable data, because family child care needs change frequently, depending on the ages of children, school locations and vacation schedules.

A needs assessment that involves only a written questionnaire or that is not anonymous may yield inaccurate data because employees may be fearful of truly indicating their family related needs and problems.

HOW CAN AN EMPLOYER DESIGN A NEEDS ASSESSMENT?

There exist many models for needs assessments, and many public and private agencies and consultants work with employers to carry out needs assessments. Any employer interested in conducting a needs assessment should contact their local child care and family support agencies, Children's Home Society, United Way, Chamber of Commerce or other employers who have carried out needs assessments for further information and assistance.

COMPONENTS OF NEEDS ASSESSMENTS FOR EMPLOYERS

Outlined below are seven types of needs assessments approaches useful in providing planning data and in identifying issues impacting on the suitability of various childcare and alternative work pattern options.

1. EMPLOYEE SURVEY - a survey of current and/or former employees to assess childcare utilization patterns, preferences for types of care, current and future childcare needs, satisfaction with current arrangements, work-family conflicts and productivity issues. Survey methods include questionnaires, informal or small group discussions, formalized employee meetings, review of existing personnel records, or data collection through a Childcare Information and Referral employee assistance program.
 2. SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRES AND/OR INTERVIEWS OF MANAGEMENT AND EXECUTIVE PERSONNEL - attitudinal surveys to review and determine the extent of management problems which could be ameliorated by childcare benefits or alternative work patterns. Assess degree of acceptance or resistance to suggested plans. Approach specific management levels in Public Policy, Personnel, Employee Benefits, Tax and Corporate Planning, Executives, Supervisorial Personnel.
 3. SURVEY OF UNION OFFICERS - questionnaire or interviews to determine pros and cons of childcare service systems as an employee benefit, including attitudes of union officials toward alternative work patterns.
 4. SURVEY OF EXISTING CHILDCARE FACILITIES/CAREGIVERS (Supply Study) - to determine gaps between supply and demand for childcare services, to assess average childcare costs in the private sector and the availability of subsidized programs, to ascertain causes of underutilization of existing facilities (location-cost-quality), to provide "portrait" of existing services.
 5. COMMUNITY IMPACT STUDY - to assess the need for and overall impact of a specific childcare delivery system (on-site center, consortia, voucher program) on the residents of a particular target area. Could include attitudinal survey of community leaders and local government officials. Approaches include public meetings, media outreach/editorial/newspaper opinion polls, neighborhood surveys, etc.
-
6. ASSESSMENT OF EXISTING COMMUNITY RESOURCES - to determine current and potential government and private funding sources, to locate organizations available for technical assistance (e.g., childcare councils, Mayor's committees, service organizations).

7. GENERAL EMPLOYER SURVEY - a survey of area employers conducted by an independent group (Chamber of Commerce, Junior League, Private Industry Council, etc.) to assess existence of, interest in and potential commitment to employer supported childcare programs. Includes assessment of current plans, employee demands or needs, barriers to program development or implementation, results of needs assessments, potential for consortia efforts, overview of current employer supported childcare and alternative work options already in operation, etc.

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SOLUTIONS FOR ORANGE COUNTY

Currently across the nation, there has been a dramatic shift of federally sponsored social programs to state and local levels of responsibility. Orange County has the potential to absorb part of this increasing burden by creating ways that employers can become involved in improving and expanding child care services in our community.

Immediate solutions (0-2 years)

- * Conduct a needs assessment to identify problems and possible solutions
- * Serve on boards of child care programs and participate in all areas of the program.
- * Support existing child care projects through financial and in-kind contributions.
- * Purchase spaces from local centers or licensed family day care homes for use of their employees.
- * Provide a summer program for children of employees.
- * Rent space for child care to a child care provider.
- * Make direct financial contributions to a program.
- * Supply materials for use at child care centers.
- * Supply industrial scrap for recycling.
- * Provide in-kind services and technical assistance such as accounting, tax help, management systems and training of child care staff for any of these.
- * Provide information and referral services for employees.
- * Develop support for subsidies on a sliding scale, applicable in community child care centers.
- * Provide lunchtime seminars for working parents on a range of topics such as balancing work and family, coping as a single parent, reducing stress, and selecting appropriate child care.
- * Have a vendor or voucher system to assist employees to purchase their own care.

Intermediate Solutions (2-5 years)

- * Cooperate with local advocates for establishment of before- and after-school, emergency and sick child care programs.
- * Encourage participation in community organizations with authority to direct child care regulations, such as homeowners' associations.

- * Participate in policy-making at community, state, or federal level.
- * Offer flexible benefits to include flextime, sick-child leave, alternate work schedules, parental leave and discount for using licensed child care.
- * Work with unions to provide programs.
- * Sponsor an on-site or off-site child care facility.

Long-range solutions (5 years or more)

- * Assure adequate planning for child care in new and re-built communities.
- * Form a consortium with other companies for a facility available to all.
- * Buy, build or renovate property for use as a child care facility primarily for their employees, for which they can write off their costs at a faster-than-normal rate.

FOOTNOTES

1. Forecast and Analysis Center, County of Orange
2. Child Day Care in Orange County, Ad Hoc Day Care Advisory Committee, August 1980
3. Statistical Profile, Orange County Commission on the Status of Women
4. U.S. Census Bureau, 1980
5. Orange County Commission on the Status of Women
6. Ibid.
7. Family Day Care in the United States, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services
8. Children's Home Society/Day Care, Orange County
9. Ibid.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

TAX INCENTIVES FOR CORPORATE CHILD CARE

by Ken Jaffe

Concerns regarding the implementation of child care programs and other human services to benefit the growing number of parents returning to the work force have reached major proportions. One of the areas seen to be of particular interest to parents, service providers, and a growing number of corporations are the tax benefits, which might be available to the corporations in exchange for their involvement in or provision of child care services to their employees. Research in this area has been limited at best. Therefore, information regarding tax benefits and incentives should be checked with a reputable tax attorney (preferably one who has had experience with non-profit corporations). Since the field continues to shift, and new Revenue Rulings from the Internal Revenue Service are handed down on a reasonably regular basis, the "state of the art" is one which is fluid rather than static.

The benefits which might accrue to either corporate or institutional providers of child care fall generally within three major categories:

1. Benefits available to corporations as "ordinary and necessary business expenses";
2. Benefits available to corporations for depreciation of property provided for child care purposes; and,
3. Methods by which maximum charitable contributions can be provided by corporations to non-profit agencies.

BENEFITS AVAILABLE TO CORPORATIONS AS "ORDINARY AND NECESSARY BUSINESS EXPENSES"

Under section 162 of Internal Revenue Service Code, employers may be able to deduct the cost of employer-provided child care as an "ordinary and necessary business expense in certain cases." A Revenue Ruling of 1973 has held that expenditures to provide child care for employees are deductible as business expenses when they are of direct benefit to the employer by reducing turnover and absenteeism.¹ While this ruling may establish a beginning point, the decision does not constitute incontrovertible evidence that

¹Revenue Ruling of 1973 73-384 C. B. 31.

the Internal Revenue Service has established this type of child care deduction as a clear national precedent. Subsequent legislation may be necessary to clarify governmental intent to continue or broaden this area.

RAPID AMORTIZATION OF FACILITIES FOR CHILD CARE

Generally, an employer can amortize expenditures to buy, build, rebuild, or rehabilitate tangible property qualifying as a child care facility and serving the employees of the corporate taxpayer over a five-year period rather than over "the useful life of the property" (generally between 20 and 30 years). While this incentive to the employers may seem attractive at first blush, the employer who chooses this method of depreciation would not be able to take an investment tax credit for the same property. Also, there may be certain additional taxes under Section 56 of the Internal Revenue Code if this method is chosen. The legislature saw Section 188, Accelerated Depreciation, as providing an alternative choice to employers for methods of deduction rather than a substantially increased tax benefit.

a. Section 188(a) permits an employer, who so elects, to amortize expenditures to "acquire, construct, reconstruct or rehabilitate Section 188 property over a 60-month period," beginning with the date upon which the property is placed in service. This deduction is not otherwise allowable for such expenditures.

b. Section 188(b) defines "Section 188 property" as tangible property which qualifies as a child care facility primarily for the children of employees of the taxpayer. The applicable Treasury regulations provide that the facility is primarily for the children of employees.² The property must also be subject to depreciation and be located in the United States to qualify as Section 188 property.³

c. Section 188 applies only to expenditures made between December 31, 1971 and January 1, 1982 -- Section 188(c). Congress extended the termination date of Section 188 from 1977 to 1980.⁴ The factors considered by Congress in extending the provision were the continued need for child care facilities, the economic climate, and the work-force participation by mothers.⁵

²Treas. Reg. S 1.88-1(d) (4) (1979).

³Ibid.

⁴Tax Reduction and Simplification Act of 1977, Pub. L. No. 95-30, Section 402.

⁵S. Rep. No. 95-66, 95th Cong., 1st Sess. 95, 1977-1 C. B. 500.

CHARITABLE CONTRIBUTIONS UNDER SECTION 170

Expenses may be deducted by businesses or corporations which are made to charitable organizations under Section 170 of the Internal Revenue Code. Up to 5% of the gross taxable income of the employer may be deducted for purposes of charitable contributions.

Nationally, according to 1978 figures, corporations were donating approximately 1% on the average for charitable purposes (out of the possible 5% for charitable purposes).

a. Section 170(a) (1)

General deduction of any charitable contributions (defined in sub-section c), allowable if made during taxable year.

b. Section 170(b) (E) (2)

Corporations' total deductions for charitable purposes for any taxable year shall not exceed 5% of the corporation's taxpayers' taxable income, and without regard to Part VIII (except sub-section 248), or any net operating loss carryback to the taxable year under Section 172. (Of note is that prior to amendments made by PL 91-122, Section 20 (a) (2), there existed one more Section, PL 91-122, Section 201 (a) (2) (d), which allowed Western Hemisphere Trade Corporations to also deduct amounts over the 5% maximum by one of two possible methods which allowed for spreading the excess over a five-year period.)

c. Section 170(c)

Charitable contributions are defined as a contribution or gift to or for the use of states, or possessions of the U.S., if exclusively for public purposes. A corporate trust, community check fund or foundation created in the U.S. or possessions operating for religious, educational, scientific, literary charities, for international sports, or for "prevention of cruelty to children or animals." No part of net earnings can go to indirect or private shareholders, and if not disqualified under Section 501 (c) (3), by attempting to influence legislation, which does not support specific candidates or legislation.

d. Section 170(e) (2)

If the full interest in the taxpayer's property is not contributed, the adjusted interest in such property will be allocated between the interest contributed and that interest not contributed.

e. Section 170(e) (3) (a)

This section is a special rule for certain contributors of inventory and property and further rules for partial donations.

f. Section 170(e) (3) (b)

Amount of reduction for qualified partial contribution shall be no greater than half the amount contributed as the amount of any charitable contribution or deduction.

g. Section 170(d)

Explains carryovers of excess contributions.⁶ Also, see series of questions which relates to the need for clarification of implications of Section 170(d) which follows.

Issues to be resolved

Is the language of Section 170(d) as amended by PL 91-122 Section 20 1(A)2 restrictive upon the ability for corporate and business taxpayers to make charitable contributions in excess of the 5% limit?

Discussion

Sections 170(d) (A)i and 170 (d) (A)ii seem to indicate a direction by the IRS which would restrict rather than encourage contributions in excess of the 5% limit.

Conclusion

A more definite explanation of the intent of the above section is necessary in order to gain a more precise picture of the possibility of business and corporate taxpayer giving by spreading the excess payments over a period of years.

Section 162 Versus Section 170

Deductions for child care of employees would almost invariably fall under Section 162 ("ordinary and necessary business expenses") rather than under Section 170 (general charitable contributions not benefiting the corporation itself). Revenue ruling from 1972-1974 have supported this assumption. However, two other avenues might be explored in order to seek maximum child care provision and corporate tax incentive.

⁶PL 91-122; Section 20 1(A)2

a. If the use by employees falls well enough under 50% of the total usage of the center, then it is feasible that the child care service may be seen as providing a Section 170 community service and thus fall under the 5% guideline for deduction of general charitable contributions.

b. Certain precedents are being explored whereby the corporation may donate funds to a non-profit corporation established by employees of the corporate taxpayer. If the donations are shown to be for purposes which do not bear a direct relationship to the corporate taxpayer's businesses or are not made with an expectation of direct economic benefit for the corporation, then these contributions may be seen in Section 170 as charitable contributions.

OTHER CODE SECTIONS WHICH MAY BE OF HELP TO YOU

Provided for your information are listings of other major code sections, both Federal and State, which may be a benefit to either an employer or an employee.

a. Section 44(2) (A)

Defines employment-related expenses as amounts paid for such expenses incurred to enable the taxpayer to be gainfully employed.

b. Section 44 A (d)

Sets dollar limits on amount of employment-related expense which can be incurred during any taxable year. The limit as of 1978 was \$2,000 for one qualifying individual with respect to the taxpayer for the taxable year and \$4,000 for two or more qualifying individuals.

c. Section 44 A (e)

Relates to earned income limitations for both single and married individuals and provides a special rule for spouses who are students or incapable of caring for themselves.

WORK INCENTIVE CREDIT

If the child care provided by the employer actually increases its work force, it may be eligible for a work incentive credit under Section 50A. Before January 1, 1979, allowable credits equalled 20% of the work incentive program expenses. On and after January 1, 1979 ~~expenses could be claimed for 50% of the first-~~ year work incentive program expenses.

An employee may claim a work incentive credit for domestic help hired for child care but cannot claim a child credit under 44A in that case.⁷

CALIFORNIA STATE CODE OF IMPORTANCE: REVENUE AND TAXATION CODE

Section 17072 defines adjusted gross income for California taxpayers and lists a series of deductions which may be taken by an employee.

Section 17202 indicates deductions based upon trade or business expenses, etc., and includes allowable deductions for "ordinary and necessary expenses paid or incurred during the taxable year in carrying on any trade or business" (which could include deductions for child care delivery systems).

Section 17208 allows for depreciation deductions as a reasonable allowance for the exhaustion, wear and tear (obsolescence of property used in the trade or business), and defines methods for deducting in these areas.

Section 17214 acts as companion section to Federal Internal Revenue Code on contributions of gifts to various non-profit agencies, etc.

Section 17214.2 explains contributions of interests in property less than the taxpayer's entire interest.

Section 17215.1 defines requirements for the carryover for excess contributions.

Section 17215 indicates that individuals, who provide contributions or gifts, should be allowed to deduct up to 20% of the taxpayer's adjusted gross income, if deductions are verified under rules and regulations as prescribed by the Franchise Tax Board.

Section 17216 indicates a procedure for exemption from the 20% limit of gifts or contributions.

Section 17225.5 -- depreciation for employers establishing child development centers. Indicates intent of legislature that child development services be established in convenient locations for eligible families, who are employed, to be employed, or enrolled in employment training programs. The section further allows ~~that establishing facilities pursuant to Education Code sections~~ may compute depreciation deductions of such facilities under the straight line method using a useful life of 60 months.

BUSINESS AND CORPORATION CODE

Section 24371.5 -- a Band and Corporation Tax Law Code provides depreciation deduction for employers establishing child care

⁷ Section 50 (A) (4) (B)

facilities (companion section to Revenue and Tax Code 17225.5).

FURTHER INFORMATION

It is important to remember that this information is constantly changing. For the most recent update on tax benefits for employers relative to child care, contact your local tax consultant or Kenneth J. Jaffe, (415) 834-9343, 2253 Concord Blvd., Concord, CA 94520.

APPENDIX B

LOCAL GOVERNMENT CONTACTS

REGARDING COMMERCIAL RESTRICTIONS AFFECTING

CHILD CARE FACILITIES

<u>CITY</u>	<u>CONTACT PERSON</u>	<u>PHONE NUMBER</u>
ANAHEIM	Kendra Morries	999-5139
BREA	Tom Combiths	990-7674
BUENA PARK	Rick Sowder	521-9900
COSTA MESA	Willa Bowens Mille Kandler	754-5153 754-5604
CYPRESS	Don Lamm Vern Jones	828-2200 828-2200
FOUNTAIN VALLEY	Clint Sherrod	963-8321
FULLERTON	Barry Eaton	738-6540
GARDEN GROVE	Don Butterfield	636-6831
HUNTINGTON BEACH	Howard Zelefsky	536-5559 or 536-5271
IRVINE	Richard Masyczek	754-3873
LAGUNA BEACH	Jack Connors	497-3311
LA HABRA	Carlos Jaramillo	526-2227
LA PALMA	Edward Rice	523-7700
LOS ALAMITOS	Mitch Oshinsky	827-8670
NEWPORT BEACH	Mel Hage	640-2138
ORANGE	Fred Buss	532-0434
PLACENTIA	Nelson Miller	993-8124
SAN CLEMENTE	Gene Schulte	492-5101
SAN JUAN CAPISTRANO	Don Taomlinson	493-1171
SANTA ANA	Pat Kaine	834-4160
SEAL BEACH	Charles Antos	(213) 431-2527
STANTON	Frankie Carmona	891-2521
TUSTIN	Alan Warren	544-8890
VILLA PARK	Maureen Cassingham	998-1500
WESTMINSTER	Jerry Kennedy	898-3311 ext. 2555
YORBA LINDA	Philip Paxton	777-5000

UNINCORPORATED AREAS Planner: Zoning Information 834-2692

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