

News letter -1932

ACTIVITIES AFFECTING GAINFULLY EMPLOYED WOMEN

Hours and Work ConditionsThe South. Standards For Workers.

A bulletin entitled "Standards for Workers in Southern Industries" has recently been prepared by Miss Lucy Randolph Mason, executive secretary of the Southern Council for Women and Children in Industry. The bulletin is published by the National Consumer's League. The bulletin covers 14 States, and gives data on the child labor laws and workmen's compensation laws in these States. There is a section on the departments in the various States which are charged with the enforcement of labor laws and a brief resume of Southern Industries.

A considerable part of the bulletin deals with the limitation of hours of work for women and the limitation or prohibition of night work for women. The laws on these subjects are outlined, and the arguments for and against such limitation presented. A section on Scheduled Hours and Actual Hours gives information secured from the departments of labor or child welfare departments in all of the States, from printed reports, surveys, books and articles, from teachers, social workers, manufacturers and employees. On the difficulties of securing accurate data, Miss Mason says: While regular hours of work as reported are longer in the South than elsewhere, unregulated over time which is not shown in reports must be taken into consideration. It is possible for a 12-hour day and 72-hour week to alternate with shutdowns, or for employees to work 9 hours on a regular store schedule and 12 or more hours on Saturdays and before Christmas, without its being shown in official reports. In studying statistical reports on scheduled hours and actual hours of work, it must also be borne in mind that there is wide variation in methods of ascertaining average hours. Average hours may be deduced from all plants' reports on standard scheduled hours; or by using actual hours of work in a sample number of plants for a definite period of a week or more; or they may be obtained by dividing the actual hours worked by the total number of working days in a given period; and in more rare instances they may be compiled from a yearly record of actual hours of operation. It is inevitable that different reports will give varying figures, depending on the method of assembling data, and that these varying averages will ignore under time and over time.

Finland. Domestic Workers.

About the year 1900 several local societies of Domestic Workers were organized in Finland. These united into one Federation in 1905. The lot of the domestic workers had been neglected. According to the patriarchal conception servants belonged to the family, having duties as members of the family group but no rights. A special law, "Regulations for hiring, to masters and servants," dating back to 1865, prescribed employment agreements, defined the rights of the masters and duties of the servants and even permitted bodily punishment in case of minors.

One of the first demands the Domestic Workers' Federation made, was that for full citizenship rights. It further demanded that special legislation pertaining to hiring of servants be repealed, and that the laws limiting the length of the working day and workers' protective laws be applied to domestic servants. Demands were made to establish free municipal employment agencies and vocational training schools, to bring domestic workers including minors under accident and sickness insurance laws, and for betterment in food and lodgings. The question of compensation, of course, was taken up, but always remained abreast with other more important demands.

The organizing of servants and their demands created an unusual stir in the employing circles. Mistresses formed a "Federation of Hostesses" to counteract societies among their help. In the columns of newspapers heated discussions were conducted, especially fruitful to the cause of the workers as this was the first chance for presenting to the public their side of the question. As a result, very important laws have been passed for the betterment of their conditions.

It is due to the Federation of Domestic Workers that servants received full citizenship and franchise rights. The ancient law pertaining to hiring was repealed and domestic workers now come under the same working agreements as other wage earners. The law prescribes a paid vacation period during the summer. An 8-hour day has not been put into practice in case of domestic servants, however, workers in restaurants, hotels and travelers' homes are subject to the 8-hour law. Workers' accident insurance laws, wherein employers pay the insurance fees, also cover domestic servants. Private employment agents have been eliminated and municipalities maintain employment agencies.

The domestic workers' societies have effected compensation agreements with a few large hotels and restaurant systems. Since the Federation of Hostesses and Women's League represent only a fraction of employers, and since, in rural districts, no organization whatever can be found to represent employers, agreements, if made, have to be made in individual cases. The real meaning of the Domestic Workers' movement is in the fact that it has awakened and turned the public mind favorably to the cause of betterment which in turn forces improvement of conditions.

In the city of Helsingfors, the organization of the domestic workers has been active since 1898. It maintains a home for girls when temporarily out of work. A spacious suite is owned by the home in a cooperative building. This home provides food and lodgings at a very low cost and takes care of about 800 to 900 girls yearly. This society also maintains an employment agency securing positions for girls living there.

A fine summer home in the country is also owned by them where girls are able to spend a vacation at a very small cost in their own villa. It is open all the year around, in the winter as a convalescing home and in the summer as a vacation camp. About 70 or 80 girls can be cared for at one time. Socially these homes have so great a value that appropriations have been secured from the municipal and government treasuries to maintain and improve them. (Miina Sillanpaa in Life and Labor, December, 1931.)

Employment

College Graduates. Placement.

There has been a marked decrease in calls from employers for college graduates since the peak of 1928-29, according to the annual report of Miss Katharine Doty of the Barnard College Employment Bureau. The reduction in all calls has been

20 per cent since last year and 35 per cent since 1928-29. There has been a reduction in calls for permanent positions of 41 per cent since last year, and of 52 per cent since 1928-29 while the reduction in permanent placements for the same periods has been 20 per cent and 39 per cent respectively. (New York Herald Tribune, November 22, 1931.)

College graduates. Employment and Marriage.

In a study of land grant colleges made by the United States Office of Education and published in 1930, schedules were received from 6,665 women. These were given to the Institute of Women's Professional Relations for analysis. Women's Work and Education (December, 1931) published by the Institute announces that this work has been completed and the bulletin will be available late in January 1932. In addition to a discussion of the preparation, occupation and earnings of these women, there will be chapters on the continuity of occupational interest, on self-help, on reasons for leaving college and its results, on earning capacity, and on the work of the married women in this group.

Some preliminary information from the study is given in the December number of Women's Work and Education in an article entitled "The College Woman - Her Family and Her Job." Schedules were sent to all students matriculating in four selected periods. Of the women, 182 had matriculated in 1889-1892, 526 in 1899-1902, 1,333 in 1909-1912, and 4,624 in 1919-1922. Of the total 6,665 women 53.3 per cent were married. Grouped by occupations, 13.9 per cent of those teaching, 27.2 per cent of those in other occupations, or 19.5 per cent of all those gainfully employed and 94.3 per cent of those at home were married. Apparently there is a tendency for more of the more recent graduates to marry. For example, while 62.3 per cent of all those reporting from the 1899-1902 matriculation group were married, 67.5 per cent of the 1909-1912 group were married. And the likelihood of more marriages in the latter group was, of course, greater than in the earlier.

Of all women with no occupations 69.7 per cent had children, of those working 27.8 per cent. While a smaller percentage of those in teaching than in nonteaching occupations was married, a slightly larger percentage of the married teachers had children, 29 per cent as against 24.6 per cent. "While married women are in some localities excluded from teaching, the hours and work are well adapted to the combination of home and a job." Some interesting data are given on earning of single women, married women without children and married women with children.

In conclusion the author says: While these findings cover a relatively small number still they point to some interesting situations and to questions on which more data are needed. If, as figures indicate, a larger percentage of college alumnae are marrying now than did formerly, does this mean that more alumnae will try to continue their work after marriage? If so, in what occupations will they meet the most favorable reception? The findings from this Land-Grant College group would seem to suggest that teaching is not a profession in which the married alumnae can do as well relatively as elsewhere. Should this condition hold or should an effort be made to retain more married women in the teaching profession?

France. Agricultural Labor.

In certain districts, especially the central regions of the Paris district, hiring fairs were held in June before the opening of the period of heavy agricultural work. These hiring fairs are meetings at which employers in search of workers and workers in search of employment meet together. Engagements are concluded for the four months of heavy work, or for the whole year, according to the nature of the work in question. The demand for male workers was easily met. On the other hand,

there was a shortage of women workers which had to be met by the employment of women from Poland or Czechoslovakia. The decline in the number of women farm servants has given rise to much complaint, especially in districts where milking is done by women. The task which makes girls reluctant to accept work in stables is the cleaning and renewal of litter. Even those who are willing to milk the cows are reluctant to tend them. (Industrial and Labour Information, December 7, 1931.)

India. Employment of Women.

Women in India play an important part in the production of national wealth. According to the census of 1921, which is still the latest source of information on the subject, out of a total of 146 million actual workers or persons engaged in gainful occupations, 46 million are women, 31 per cent of all persons gainfully employed as compared with 29 per cent in Italy, 30 in England and Wales, 35 in Germany and 22.1 in the United States. In organized industries such as plantations, factories, and mines, the proportion of women is smaller. In 1921, of 2,681,125 workers in large scale industries or in industrial establishments employing 20 persons or more, 686,811 or 26 per cent were women.

By far the largest number of women workers are employed on plantations, which form one of the most important classes of organized industries in India. In 1921, of 1,003,456 workers on tea, coffee, rubber, cinchona, and indigo plantations, 474,626 or 47 per cent were women. There are several reasons for the large proportion of women workers found on plantations. Agriculture work is congenial to the majority of Indian women who are drawn from the rural districts. Men workers have to live on or near the plantation and this gives their wives and daughters a chance to work with them. Finally, the system of labor contract based on the principle of utilizing every able-bodied person in the family for labor, and of fixing the wage rates accordingly, compelled many women to seek employment in order to balance the family budget. The contract system has been abolished but the wage rates and the custom of woman labor still remain.

The earliest available records for workers in all classes of factories are for 1892, when the total number was 316,816, consisting of 254,336 men, 43,592 women, and 18,888 children. In 1928 there were 1,520,315 factory workers, consisting of 1,216,471 men, 252,933 women and 50,911 children, showing an increase of 480 per cent for women as compared with 378 per cent for men and 170 per cent for children. There are several reasons for the proportionately larger increase in the number of factory women. Increasing transportation facilities have opened up greater opportunities to women in factories; the gradual amelioration of working conditions has attracted more women to factories; and finally, the stricter regulation of the employment of children has decreased their number and increased that of women.

Another organized industry which employs a considerable number of women is mining. In 1901, (the earliest record available) of 104,660 workers, 30,488 were women. In 1929 the number of men was 199,045 and of women 70,656, indicating an increase of 174 and 160 per cent, respectively. A large number of women are employed underground. In 1929, 34 per cent were so employed and at the same time 40 per cent were employed in open workings.

Women's work consists mostly of plucking on tea gradens; of carrying of loads in coal, iron, and salt mines; of drying, spreading and turning rice, moving it from the hullers, and winnowing bran in rice mills; of stripping, grinding and sieving in shellac factories; and of drawing, roving, and moving receivers and hand sewing in jute mills. In cotton mills women are employed in a variety of occupations, such as winding, reeling, ring spinning, slubbing, mixing, carding and warping, but by far the largest number are employed in the first three occupations. In certain kinds of work women's labor is preferable to that of men, but the main reason why women are employed in organized industries is the cheapness of their labor. (From "Woman Labour in India" by R. K. Das, International Labour Review, October, 1931.)

Wages.

California. Wages of office employees.

In October, 1930, reports were obtained from 2,643 manufacturing establishments employing women. A tabulation of the office workers in these manufacturing establishments shows that 26.3 per cent of the women and minors received wages of from \$25 to \$30 a week, and the next largest number, 21.1 per cent, received wages of from \$30 to \$40 a week. (California State Department of Industrial Relations, Report to Governor's Council, November, 1931.)

Massachusetts. Wages in Manufacturing.

For 822 establishments reporting wages by sex, average weekly earnings for November were \$23.75 for men and \$14.88 for women. The average wage for women ranged from \$7.63 in rubber goods manufacture to \$30.52 in newspaper printing and publishing. For 15 of the 27 industries reporting wage by sex the average wage for women was over \$12 but under \$15; for 7 the average wage was below this group and for 5, above. (Monthly Survey - Representative Manufacturing Establishments - November 1931, Department of Labor and Industry - Division of Statistics.)

New York. Wage of Office Employees.

Every year in October the New York Department of Labor secures data on the wages of office employees in factories. The employees covered are only those who work in factory offices. The data does not include office help in the general business office of the concern located away from the manufacturing plant nor high salaried executives and officials. Among the kind of positions represented are office and stock clerks, stenographers, bookkeepers, accountants, cashiers, office managers and superintendents.

The outstanding fact this October is the decline of over 5 per cent from a year ago in average weekly earnings for factory office help (men and women), \$35.49 as compared with \$37.48 in 1930. This drop was the first real set back in the upward trend evident since 1914.

Only part of the firms reporting give wages separately for men and women. For those so reporting, wages for men in October of this year averaged \$46.22 and for women \$23.25. This difference is due partly to the fact that more of the higher paid positions requiring executive ability or technical skill are held by men.

Office workers have been reduced since October, 1930 not only in pay but also in numbers, the number of office workers having declined 12 per cent from a year ago. However, the decline has not been as severe for office workers in factories as for the shop workers either in employment, pay roll or average weekly earnings as shown in the following comparison:

| | Per cent decrease | |
|----------------------------|-------------------|--------------------------|
| | Office | Office and shop combined |
| Employment..... | 12.3 | 14.3 |
| Pay rolls..... | 17.0 | 22.5 |
| Average weekly earnings... | 5.3 | 9.6 |

(The Industrial Bulletin--New York. November, 1931.)

Rhode Island. Wage-earning Home-makers.

The prevalence of the wage-earning home maker in one county of the State and "some of its effects on her and her family" are being studied by the Agricultural Experiment Station of the Rhode Island State College. The study is a rural one, the only town in the county with a population of more than 2,500 being excluded from consideration. Although the facts are not yet all secured data have been compiled for 408 women and some of the findings reported by Margaret Whittenore in the Journal of Home Economics, November, 1931.

Since Rhode Island is an industrial State, it is natural that approximately one-half of the wage-earning home makers work in the mills. The next largest group is that in laundering and cleaning. Although steam laundries are readily available, many women, especially the well-to-do among the summer residents, prefer to have their clothes laundered by hand. Some continue to employ the local women in the winter, mailing the laundry from New York, Philadelphia, or elsewhere. The other obvious occupations such as accommodation of tourists, taking of boarders, running of tea rooms or wayside stands, and acting as waitresses, chambermaids, or general houseworkers are well represented. Ten per cent of the total number are teachers; and there are quite a number of clerks, librarians, postmistresses, and dressmakers. Two of the 408 are real estate agents, one is a doctor, four are florists, and seven raise turkeys. One of the latter reported having cleared over \$500 in one year from her turkey flock. Others have found more original ways of earning money. Two are rural mail carriers, one of whom has had her route for over 29 years. Another woman, who has always loved horses, found it possible to utilize her ability in handling them and the proximity of the farm to several summer resorts by developing stables with saddle horses for rent. Another woman rents boats and sells bait on a river where fishing is popular. Touching up and finishing photographic plates for a photographer in one of the Connecticut cities is the source of quite a large income for the mother of a small boy living in a rather isolated location. A complete list of the different ways in which the group of women is earning money would show more than sixty different activities.

It may easily be seen that except for some of the mill work and a few other types of work, the women are not competing with men. Even in cases where the kind of work might be suitable to men, it is usually on a part-time basis, or so poorly paid that few, if any, men would be interested. This may not be rating the market ability of the women very high, but in this county it is the present situation.

In light of the facts just stated, it is surprising to find that a weekly total of \$4,655.27 was earned by 288 women who were able to give a fairly accurate statement of their earnings. This means a per capita average of \$16.16, which is not a large amount on which to support a family, but no mean supplement to that supposedly provided by a wage earner with undivided demands on his time and strength. If the other 120 of the 408 women had reported their earnings, the weekly average would have doubtless been smaller because many of them were in the irregularly employed group. This circumstance made it especially difficult to state their yearly income.

Of the women whose records are completed, 343, or 71.4 per cent, are working for pay because they need the money. This is based not only on their own statement but on a knowledge of the financial situation of the family, shown by the earnings of other members of the family, together with any other source of income. One of the striking facts of this investigation has been the frequency

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ACTIVITIES AFFECTING GAINFULLY EMPLOYED WOMEN

Hours and Work ConditionsKentucky. Hours and Work Conditions.

Information compiled from reports made by labor inspectors show that violations of the Women's Working Law among the manufacturing group were infrequent. "No general conclusion that the manufacturers have provided ideal conditions for their employees can be drawn from this statement. If conditions in some plants do approach the ideal, workplaces are dirty, dingy, generally unsuitable and dangerous in many others. It is only that the labor welfare laws of this State are deficient, general rather than specific, ambiguous and vague, that such hazards and other undesirable conditions can not be rectified or reported as actual violations of the labor laws of Kentucky."

No violations of the law limiting working hours of women were reported for manufacturing establishments, but 125 violations were found among the trade groups (such as stores, restaurants, and laundries). "The economic stress we are now experiencing has resulted in reduced personnel in practically all trade establishments . . . a persistent tendency on the part of managers of trade establishments to stay open several hours a day longer than formerly has contributed to the difficulties of enforcement. Many workers who formerly worked on an 8-hour basis have been increased to 10. These increases have been the cause of many complaints but since the limitation set by law is 10 hours a day and 60 hours a week, nothing within the jurisdiction of the department can be done to remedy this situation." (Biennial Report of Kentucky Department of Agriculture, Labor and Statistics, July 1, 1929 to June 30, 1931.)

Albania. Night Work.

The Albanian Parliament has ratified the conventions concerning the employment of women during the night, concerning the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment and concerning the night work of young persons. (Industrial and Labor Information, January 4, 1932.)

China. Conditions of Work in Shanghai Factories.

The local Y.W.C.A. of Shanghai made a study of selected industrial districts in that city in the winter of 1929 and 1930, which has recently been published. The investigation was undertaken mainly because of the lack of definite information concerning the conditions under which women live and work. It included information concerning existing facilities in each district which were meeting the needs of women workers, and of possible ways of cooperating with existing organizations.

The position of the Chinese woman factory worker is an extremely difficult one. Hours of work are long and rest days few. In a large number of factories there are only two rest days a month and the average working day is 10 or 11 hours. In many factories there is a rest day on Sunday for the day workers but the night shift works as usual.

Although wages in most industries are lower for women than for men, the contribution made by women toward family support is of considerable importance. A study of the income and expenditures of 21 families in Shanghai made by Shanghai College students shows that in these families the average contribution of females was 53.3 per cent of the family income. That this contribution is necessary for the family

support is shown by the fact that the average earnings for male laborers in Shanghai in 1928 in 30 types of industries was \$255.96. This is less than the \$415.30 to \$498.42 which it is estimated is required to support a family of 5 for one year.

Factory workrooms are found to be crowded with workers so that air space is insufficient. Ventilation and lighting are bad, especially in the silk filatures. In the other factories conditions are somewhat better but still there is much room for improvement. While the effect of the conditions on the health of workers has not been studied thoroughly, there is some indication of the effect of the conditions in filatures in the statements of workers who were interviewed. Some had developed eye trouble as a result of the badly lighted rooms, where the handling of the fine threads requires very close work. The ground floor is usually more poorly lighted than the upper floors. Many of the filature workers complained of "Hongkong foot," which they said was due to the dampness in the reeling rooms. In the summer months the steam filled rooms become unbearably hot. In some filatures there was actual provision of substitutes for taking the place of those who were overcome by the heat.

In one of the districts studied, it was found that not more than 150 women out of a total of 11,153 could be accommodated in all of the evening schools. In this same district women workers participate in three labor unions. The most important seemed to be The Joint Silk Women's Union, including in its membership women from 24 silk filatures in the district. The purpose of the union, as stated by the woman labor leader interviewed, is to study the conditions of the members and to do collective bargaining. The work which they plan to do if financial support can be had will include the encouraging of the arts, a cooperative society, recreation rooms, library and gymnasium and a school for workers. The income of the union comes from membership dues, the fee being 10 coppers per person per month, and from employers' subsidy which is given in proportion to the number of machines in the filatures. (Women in Industry in the Chapei, Hongkew and Pootung Districts of Shanghai.)

England. Work Conditions of Shop Assistants.

The Select Committee on the hours and conditions of shop assistants (workers in stores) was appointed in May, 1930, by the Labor Government. It consisted of 5 labor men, 5 Tories, and 1 Liberal. Charles Roden Buxton, a labor man, was elected chairman. The committee was at work for 18 months. Evidence was secured from employers, employees, and also from social organizations such as the Association for Juvenile Employment and Welfare Officers, which come in contact with shop assistants in the course of their work, and are able to take an impartial and unbiased view of their condition.

Mr. Buxton gives a summary of the report in The Labor Magazine, December, 1931, which is quoted here in part:

"The problem is a vast one, and very few people realize the number of persons whose lives are affected by it. There are, probably, approximately 1,750,000 shop assistants in the country and it is, therefore, the most important—in point of numbers—of all the occupations, not even excluding Agriculture and Mining. Of course, the reason why so little has been heard of the grievances of shop assistants is that they are scattered often in twos or threes or even ones, among innumerable places of employment . . .

"There is no doubt that the worst hardship arises from the length of the hours during which they are at the beck and call of their employers, or those in charge. The Select Committee had considerable evidence of men and women working normally 60 hours a week and over, without including the hours set aside for meals. When the weekly half-holiday is taken into account, this means a working day of 11 hours on 5 days of the week. We had evidence of hours longer than this: of waitresses working a 70-hour week, of girls working in ice-cream stalls or shops up to 80 hours a week, and so on . . .

"The length of the hours of work tells on the health of all those concerned. It is, nevertheless, perhaps most serious in its effect on the women. The late Dr. Ethel Bentham, giving evidence before the Committee, said she would put the health of women working in shops lower than that of either factory or domestic workers. 'Like the men, they suffer from flat feet, varicose veins, and inflamed toe joints, from every form of dyspepsia, and the consequent nervous irritability. They are anaemic very often, and there are menstrual troubles, and very frequently I have found uterine displacements leading to much backache and malaise. There was a tradition among them, often expressed to me when I first returned to London, that a woman who had been 10 to 12 years in her younger days in a shop behind the counter did not have children if she married. Another very common complaint is headache and eyestrain; . . . As to causation, I believe that the long hours of standing account for the greater part of this. The space behind the counters is often very narrow, and the assistant is standing in the same attitude practically all the time.'

" . . . The second grievance of the shop assistant is the irregularity of their working day. In some trades more than others the prevalence of 'overtime' work after the closing of the shops prevents full enjoyment of even the limited leisure they possess. The irregularity and uncertainty prevents their making any definite plans, and leads to the abandonment of evening classes or any other regular occupation.

"Ventilation, seats, and the freedom to use them, sanitary arrangements, lighting—all gave rise to criticism. But the length and uncertainty of hours of work overshadows all other matters.

"The main recommendation of the Committee was that the normal hours of work of shop assistants—which means practically all persons working in connection with shops, and not merely those in the shop itself—should be limited to 48 a week. The breaks for meal times are, of course, not included . . .

"The adoption of this main proposal will be rendered more easy by the recommendations on overtime. Such overtime is to be allowed in certain trades 'where there is a reasonable demand for hours in excess of 48 per week.' The decision as to the trades in which overtime should be allowed, and its amount, is to be placed in the hands of Local and National Advisory Boards . . .

"The chief remaining recommendation of the committee was that certain provisions of the Factory and Workshops Act, 1901, should be extended, so as to cover the sanitary conditions, heating, ventilation, and lighting of shops . . .

"Much was made in the evidence of employers as to the difficulties of organization which would be caused by the shortening of the hours of labor. Fortunately, the committee obtained most elaborate information, showing in full detail, and by all sorts of alternative methods, how these supposed difficulties not only might be surmounted, but were actually being surmounted at the present time.

"If anything were needed to complete the proof, it would be the admirable achievement of the Cooperative Movement. They have introduced, practically universally, a 48-hour week, and yet, while giving this advantage to their employees, they have lost nothing in the number of their members and adherents. This achievement of the Cooperative Movement has been really the final proof, the overwhelming confirmation of the case put forward by those of us who have fought throughout for the 48-hour week."

Japan. Hours and Wages in Mines.

The report of the Japanese Mining Inspection Service for 1930 was recently published by the Government. Mining in general, and especially coal mining, was slack during the year in consequence of the industrial depression, electrification of spinning mills, slump in the shipping industry, etc. An agreement was reached among coal producers to reduce their output by 22 per cent during the year. The total number of miners at the end of June, 1930, was 258,469, of whom 214,836 were

men and 43,633 women. The number of women engaged in underground work was 24,270, a decrease of 9,062.

The feature of the year was the coming into operation on September 1 of the amended Mining Regulations reducing the maximum hours of work for underground miners from 11 to 10 in the day, including rest periods. This involved no change in metalliferous mines, where one shift of from 8 to 10 hours a day was worked. In coal mines, however, where about 80 per cent of the miners are employed, two shifts ranging from 10 to 12 hours were worked, so that the hours of work were reduced by 30 minutes a day on the average. In coal mines, the number of rest days was increased from 6 to 10 in each month so as to effect the reduction of output. The most popular form was the adoption of 2 rest days a week. In metalliferous mines, the weekly rest was generally observed, instead of 2 or 3 days a month as practiced in the past. These rest days were devoted chiefly to athletics, lectures or vegetable gardening. The actual daily earnings on the average during the year were 1.66 yen for men, 1.02 yen for women. (Industrial and Labor Information, December 28, 1931.)

Portugal. Night Work.

The Portugese government has promulgated decrees ratifying the conventions concerning the employment of women during the night and concerning the night work of young persons. (Industrial and Labor Information, January 4, 1932.)

EMPLOYMENT

United States. Women in Government Service.

In the fiscal year of 1931, 7,976 women were appointed to positions in the Federal classified service. Of particular interest is the appointment of a woman as junior forester, another as associate commercial agent, one as assistant park naturalist, one as distilled-spirits clerk, and three as customs inspector.

Among the positions classified as professional, to which women were appointed during the year from the eligible register, are biochemist, associate biochemist, associate economic analyst, senior educationist, associate civil service examiner in education, associate in historical research, senior librarian, expert in social service administration, home economics specialist, associate medical technician, and supervisor of home demonstration work. These positions pay entrance salaries ranging from \$3,200 to \$4,600 a year.

On June 30, 1931, 30,294 women were employed in the Federal executive civil service in the District of Columbia, and 60,902 outside the District of Columbia—a total of 91,196. These figures include positions classified under the civil service law and those not so classified. (Annual Report of the United States Civil Service Commission, Fiscal Year ending June 30, 1931.)

United States. Employment of Married Women.

Preliminary reports from the Bureau of the Census covering 35 States give the proportion of married women who are gainfully occupied. In 14 of these States less than one-tenth of the married women are working. In 14 additional States over 10 but less than 15 per cent are gainfully employed. In three States, all in the South, over 20 per cent of the married women are working.

Pennsylvania. Employment of Married Women.

Displacement of employed married women by unemployed heads of families as an unemployment relief measure would afford only trivial relief and in many cases would cause severe hardship, according to a survey made by the industrial research department of the University of Pennsylvania's Wharton School of Finance and Commerce. This conclusion is based on the following data:

Although 55,000 married women normally are employed in this city, 11,000 of these are out of work and 10,000 others are working part time. Of the estimated 34,000 Philadelphia families in which a married woman was employed full time, a total of 9,660 had no earnings except those obtained from the full-time employment of the married woman. In an additional 1,590 families all of the employable members, except the married women, were either totally unemployed or employed part time. Thus, eliminating the 11,250 full-time employed married women represented in these families, there remains a total of 22,750 for consideration as displacement possibilities. Of these 22,750 families, which had some full-time employment earnings besides those of the married women, 5,050 had one or more wage earners totally unemployed or employed part time. It is evident, therefore, that each one of these 22,750 full-time employed married women who might be considered for displacement would have to be given individual consideration before any action could be taken without resulting in widespread distress among many families. Many of these families may already be below the level of minimum health and comfort. In many others, further reduction of family income would immediately result in this condition. In the remaining 17,700 families, individual consideration would have to be given to size of family, number of persons employed full time, family income and other factors. (Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, Ledger, December 10, 1931.)

Wisconsin. Unemployment Insurance.

The first unemployment insurance law in the United States has been enacted in Wisconsin. It is to become effective July 1, 1933 unless before that time voluntary plans have been adopted by industry covering the majority of workers eligible to the proposed benefits. The "majority" is defined as 175,000 workers. Benefits will be 50 per cent of the worker's wage, with a maximum of \$10 a week for 10 weeks. Additional benefits will be paid to workers who attend school during the period of unemployment. Workers eligible to benefits are limited to resident employees who lose their jobs involuntarily. (United States Daily, January 15 and 18, 1932.)

WAGES

Colorado. Wages and Production in Coal Mines.

The Colorado Labor Advocate, December 31, 1931, contains an account of conditions in the mines of The Rocky Mountain Fuel Company since Miss Josephine Roche has been in control.

In 1929 the company's production was 200,000 tons more than in 1928. The average number of working days was 216, compared with 178 in 1928. This was 57 days more than the average number of days worked by all the mines in the State in 1929. Miners' average earnings were \$2,104 as compared with \$1,661 in 1928. This is more than twice the average annual earnings of coal diggers in Colorado's nonunion mines. The average number of men employed was the same--595. Production per man per day was 5.98 tons in 1929, as compared with 5.27 tons in 1928, or approximately three-fourths of a ton more. With the higher union rate in effect all of 1929, operating costs were reduced 19 cents a ton below those of 1928.

of the cases in which, during the business depression, the woman's earnings have been the only cash income of the family for weeks or months at a time. In more cases than one, these earnings have been the only thing that has kept the family from actual want and the need to call upon outside help. For although the acuteness of the labor situation has affected the married woman's work to some extent, especially in the mills, for the most part the demand for her work has continued. This may be partly because her services are of more vital nature, and also partly because tourists and summer visitors, like the poor, we have ever with us. A study of the types of work carried on showed that 67 per cent were little, if any, affected by the present business depression.

Nova Scotia. Minimum Wage.

Order No. 6, the latest order of the Minimum Wage Board, governs - "Female employees in all factories not dealt with in other orders, and the paper trades" (Printing, bookbinding and manufacture of paper products). The minimum wage for experienced workers shall be \$11 a week in cities and towns of 17,000 population and over, and \$10 a week in all towns under 17,000 population. The wage minimum shall be payable for the work period within the limits of from 44 hours to 50 hours per week. The wages paid to each time worker and to each piece worker during the first six months' employment in the industry shall conform to this order. In the case of piece workers of more than six months' experience it is sufficient, if at least 80 per cent receive wages conformable to this order. (The Labor Gazette, Canada, November, 1931.)

NOTES: UNITED STATES

Vocational Rehabilitation.

Of 5,192 persons rehabilitated during the year ending June 30, 1931, 1,042 were female. The type of service rendered these women and girls was as follows:

| | |
|---|-----|
| Guidance, school training and placement..... | 652 |
| Guidance, employment training and placement..... | 90 |
| Guidance, other training and placement..... | 59 |
| Guidance, physical reconstruction, and placement..... | 44 |
| Guidance, artificial appliances, and placement..... | 53 |
| Guidance, placement..... | 144 |

Beside the above completed cases, there are 24,156 cases on the live roll (not separated by sex). (Provisional figures from the 15th Annual Report of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, 1931.)

NOTES: INTERNATIONAL

The Textile Industry.

The Committee on Conditions of Work in the Textile Industry of the International Labor Office, held its third session in October, 1931.

At its preceding session, the Committee had drafted a questionnaire which was to be sent to Governments with a view to their undertaking an inquiry into the conditions of work in the textile industry (cotton and wool). The questionnaire included inquiries concerning wages for workers in certain specified occupations, classified by sex and also by age groups. The Governing Body of the International Labor Office decided in February 1930 to send this draft to certain Governments asking them for any observations they wished to offer for its improvement and for information as to the approximate number of establishments from which they expected to receive the data required for the proposed inquiry. Twenty of the twenty-two countries thus consulted sent in replies.

The committee, having examined the replies, drafted a new questionnaire less extensive in scope and simpler in form, which will be submitted to the Governing Body of the International Labour Office next January. (Industrial and Labour Information November 2, 1931 and Communication to Women's Bureau.)

PERSONNEL

Miina Sillanpaa, a leader of the Finnish labor movement, started her career as a servant girl and as an organizer of domestic servants. She began her political career in 1905 as Socialist representative in the Finnish Diet and was the first woman to hold an administrative post. She has served as Minister of Social Affairs.

In 1930 the Rocky Mountain, in common with all industry, felt the effect of the depression. The State's output of coal declined $17\frac{1}{2}$ per cent in that year, while the Rocky Mountain suffered a decline of 13 per cent. Despite the fact that decreased production ordinarily results in a substantial increase of cost, the company's 1930 production cost remained exactly the same as in 1929, the first year after the union contract went into effect. This was due to the fact that the tonnage produced per man again showed a sharp increase this time nearly half a ton daily.

The average daily wage of Miss Roche's miners in 1930 was \$8, as compared with the 1929 average of \$7.97 and the 1928 average of \$6.99. Annual earnings were \$1,770, as compared with \$2,104 in 1929 and \$1,660 in 1928. This decrease of the 1930 average annual earnings below the average of the preceding year was the result of a socially significant policy adopted at certain of the company's mines. Instead of laying off men when the slack season began in the spring of 1930, work was rotated between all men. It was estimated that unorganized miners were getting between \$3.50 and \$4 a day, less than half the average paid by Miss Roche. Nonunion miners worked only 164 days during 1930, against 172 worked by Rocky Mountain employees.

NOTES: UNITED STATES

Industrial Research in New Jersey.

The Bureau for Women and Children was authorized by the bill creating it "to make studies and investigations of special problems connected with the labor of women and children." When Mrs. Summers, director of the bureau, first took charge she found so much work needing immediate attention, such as homework regulation, migrant child protection, and tightening of regulations regarding employment of women and children, that for the time being the matter of a research division was set aside. Now, Mrs. Summers feels that the time has come to establish such a division. She says:

Up to the present time it has been impossible to undertake the routine inspection of our mercantile establishments which should be done according to law. A follow up of the complaints as they come in has uncovered much that should have such regular attention, but has also uncovered the fact that no such system could be set up, however necessary it may be, without an adequate survey, which of course, the bureau has no facilities to undertake, nor the personnel to carry out. Then, too, constant requests come to the Director, from the Federal and other State bureaus, which are fully equipped, for information and data which we are unable to provide due to lack of a properly established research and survey division.

(The Industrial Bulletin, New Jersey, November, 1931.)

NOTES: INTERNATIONAL

Advisory Meeting of Representatives of Hotel Employees.

In accordance with repeated requests, the Director of the International Labor Office recently organized a meeting of certain representatives of international organizations of hotel, cafe and restaurant employees, in order to consult them on the claims to be made on behalf of these groups of workers. The tipping system was one of the subjects discussed, and the following resolution was adopted:

Hotel employees are of the opinion that only a system of fixed wages can clarify the relations between employers, clients and staff and put them on a correct footing. They consider that efficient service for the client and good profits for the undertaking depend neither on tips nor on percentages, and that the same results can be obtained by means of fixed wages.

An international regulation of the system of remuneration in hotels is essential in the interests of international tourist traffic. The tipping system is widely disapproved of by public opinion. Until hotel employees can be paid like other workers, the system of percentages should be applied instead of that of tips, but only those employees who previously received the latter should benefit by the former. Employers should have the right to check the sums thus collected and divide them among the staff, but should have no right whatever over them, even in the form of deductions or payments for breakages, utensils, etc.

(Industrial and Labor Information, Dec. 21, 1931.)

NOTES: FOREIGN

Finland. Position of Women.

An interview with Muna Sillanpaa is quoted in The Dawn (the monthly journal of the Australian Federation of Women Voters), for October 21, 1931. She is proud of her country as the first in the world to have extended the suffrage to women, in 1907. In that year 19 women were elected to the Diet. From 1907, 20 per cent of the members of the Finnish Diet have been women.

During the administration of 1927-28 the law making it impossible for women to act as judges was overthrown. With the exception of the Army and the Police Force, all posts in Finland are open to women. A law is now being passed in Parliament that women shall be trained to handle cases, both of a criminal and moral nature, in which women are concerned. At present a few women in a semiofficial capacity handle children's cases and conduct investigations in cases where offenses against women are involved.

Men and women teachers of equal status receive equal pay for equal work. And even more surprising, is the fact that in the printing trade (a male stronghold in English countries) women are trained with men, and receive the same rate of pay. In factories and various other classes of work, great differences in pay, as between men and women, exist. Women are graded as assistants, with very small pay, and are debarred from learning the better-paid work.

News Letter No. 34

March 1, 1932.

ACTIVITIES AFFECTING GAINFULLY EMPLOYED WOMEN

Hours and Work ConditionsMassachusetts. Hours.

A bill has been introduced into the General Court restricting the hours of employment for women and minors to six hours a day and thirty-six a week with certain exceptions.

The Commissioner of Labor and Industries has introduced two bills affecting women workers. One is to require reporting to the Department of Labor and Industries of all kinds of home work, the present law requiring such reporting only in the case of home work on wearing apparel. The other law requires employers not only to post but to maintain the statutory notices regarding employment of women and minors. (Communication to the Women's Bureau.)

Minnesota. Hours of Work.

Governor Floyd B. Olson has ordered the Minnesota Industrial Commission to institute a test case to secure a court determination of the validity of the women's hour law passed by the 1923 legislature. The law has been inoperative since shortly after its passage as a result of a ruling by the Attorney General's office holding that it was invalid because the measure signed by the Governor was not the same measure passed by the legislature. A legislative clerk made an error in copying the measure, omitting from the draft sent to the Governor for signature, amendments adopted by the State Senate. (U.S. Daily, Feb. 13, 1932.)

With the 1923 law inoperative the laws of 1909 and 1913 again were in force. These laws provide, in cities of the first and second class, a 9-hour day, 54-hour week in mechanical and manufacturing, telephone and telegraph establishments and a 10-hour day, 58-hour week in mercantile establishments and restaurants; outside cities of the first and second class, a 10-hour day, 58-hour week in manufacturing and mechanical establishments, and a 58-hour week in mercantile establishments. The act of 1923 provided a 9½-hour day, 54-hour week for practically all women workers throughout the State. (Session laws 1909, ch. 499; 1913, ch. 561; 1923, ch. 422; 1927, ch. 349.)

New York. Beauty Parlor Workers.

After years of effort to organize beauty parlor workers, a crisis in the industry has made both employers and employees realize that the only hope of stabilization lies in trade-union organization. While the workers were always overworked and underpaid, the employers were able to make money. Now the employers also are suffering. A large number of 25 cent beauty parlors have sprung up—fly-by-night concerns which are a menace to the industry and the public. For the first time an association of employers has been formed. It is negotiating an agreement with the union which calls for: A 48-hour week; closing time not later than 9 o'clock; a minimum scale of wages; pay for legal holidays; a strictly union shop. (Women's Trade Union League of New York, Monthly Bulletin, February, 1932.)

The draft of a bill for State licensing of schools of hairdressing, establishments and operators was presented at a meeting of the New York State Hairdressers Association on January 5th. Some 800 members of the association were in attendance

and the New York State Department of Labor was represented at the meeting. The Labor Department has under consideration certain standards for the industry, to begin with a limitation of hours for workers, last year's survey of the hairdressing and beauty parlor business having revealed very unsatisfactory conditions with respect to hours. (The Industrial Bulletin, New York, January, 1932.)

Virginia. Hours and Wages, Manufacturing.

For the calendar year of 1930, 3,890 plants reported to the Department of Labor and Industry. These plants employed 162,927 wage earners, of whom 41,876 were women, 26,659 white and 15,217 colored. The largest numbers were employed in manufacturing, 2,970 plants reporting 25,615 white women wage earners and 13,507 colored women. The average daily hours of labor in manufacturing industries were 8.7 for white women and 9.0 for colored women.

Average hourly wages are reported for certain industries. While it is pointed out that these averages are only approximately correct, they undoubtedly indicate general trends, especially in the more important industries. The two most important woman-employing manufacturing industries in Virginia were food and kindred products and textiles and their products. The food industries employed 3,014 white women and 6,302 colored women. White women worked an average of 8.4 hours a day earning an average of slightly over 21 cents an hour; while colored women worked an average of 8.8 hours a day at an average of nearly 16½ cents an hour. In the textile industries 15,312 white and 876 colored women were employed. The average daily hours for white women were 8.8 and their average hourly earnings slightly over 27 cents. For colored women an average of 9.1 hours a day at nearly 16 cents an hour were reported.

(Thirty-fourth Annual Report of the Department of Labor and Industry of Virginia, 1931.)

Japan. Effects of Night Work on Women Employees.

Spinning and weaving, which are among the most important industries in Japan, depend upon the work of young women employed in alternate weeks of day and night work, a system which many far-sighted Japanese investigators consider presents one of the most important problems in industrial hygiene.

Recent studies of this subject have been made by two doctors connected with the Japanese Institute for Science of Labor, T. Ishikawa and T. Yagi.

Doctor Ishikawa described his experiments as follows:

The items of examination were the body temperature, body weight, rate of pulse, and blood pressure of the subjects; and the atmospheric temperature and humidity of the workshop. From each of the three departments of roving, ring spinning, and reeling, two subjects were selected. These six girls were between 13 and 19 years of age and all in normal health.

His conclusions were as follows:

When the night is occupied in work, and the day in sleeping, the hourly courses of the body temperature, pulse rate, and blood pressure are an inversion of their normal daily routine. Benedict's theory, that the body temperature is an exception to this rule, can not be supported. Night work, especially work after midnight, has a very great influence on the physical functions. Comparing the results obtained during the period of day work with those of night work, (a) the daily variations of the body temperature, the pulse rate and blood pressure, are greater in the latter than in the former; (b) these daily variations increase from day to day in the night-work period, which is not the case with day work; (c) in the night-work period, the body weight decreases daily, as a rule. These facts may be considered as indicating a greater decline of the physical functions and a larger decrease in the ability for work, and in the power of resisting disease, when the subject is employed on night work than on day work, and consequently as symptoms of daily accumulating fatigue.

Doctor Yagi's investigation confined itself to variation in body weight, and was described as follows:

The relations of night work to body weight were observed during 19 consecutive days, from August 3 to the 21st 1922, which is the hottest season of the year, when the workers find their occupation most difficult. Each subject was measured twice daily, before and after work, in each case before she had eaten or bathed. Although a very large number of girls were thus measured, there were only 8 who did not miss a single measurement through absence, while a further group of 10 girls included 2 who missed 1 or 2 measurements on the holiday. All the subjects were healthy girls living together in a large boarding house and employed in the reeling department of the same factory. The reeling operation is one of the most important in a Japanese spinning factory, requiring the greatest effort and tension on the part of the workers. It is also a very convenient operation when variations of output are to be observed. The average age of the group consisting of 10 subjects, was 17 years and 3 months, the minimum age was 15 and the maximum 20 years; their average length of service in the factory was 11 months. The average temperature of the air while they were working was 29.7°C, and the average humidity 80 per cent.

The experiments which were made during the hottest season of the year, were repeated during 16 days of November, from the 4th to the 19th, when the girls find work is easiest.

Among Dr. Yagi's findings were the following:

Night work, undeniably and with few exceptions, decreases the body weight of female workers. Whether this loss is recovered during the week of day work, depends on circumstances, and dogmatic conclusion is impossible.

So great a difference as is observed between the body weights during the day and night shifts can not be sufficiently explained by the influence of output, fatigue, temperature, humidity, caloric value of food or any known other factors. There is probably some cause, either inherent in night work itself, or indirectly arising therefrom, such as insufficient sleep and relaxation and loss of appetite.

Although only a small number of subjects were observed, a high degree of correlation was discovered between body weight and the caloric value of food consumed. The loss of body weight during night work, may to some extent be minimized by increasing the caloric value of food. The body weight of young girls is much more decreased by work of any kind than that of older girls, but work making excessive demands on strength or attention, as night work does, makes this greater loss of weight even more pronounced. The more rapid recovery of lost weight by the younger girls, during rest and normal working periods, is of course due to their being immature and having that additional energy necessary for development. If, however, this reserve be wasted in recovering from work too strenuous for them, their health and growth are liable to be adversely affected.

Thin girls are least affected by night work; but it is the middle class which suffers least, and recovers quickest, from the effects of night work; they also derive most benefit from holidays. The small number of subjects tested makes it desirable to reexamine these conclusions. (Reports of the Institute for Science of Labor, Kurashiki, Japan, No. 3, Studies on the Influence of the Day and Night Shift System Upon the Physiological Functions of Labor, and No. 4, On the Variations of the Body Weight of Young Working Girls Employed in Day and Night Shift Work.)

Employment

United States. Employment of Women, 1930 Census.

Up to the middle of February, 1932, the reports of the 1930 census of occupations have been made available in such form that main occupational groups can be compared with 1920 for 17 States: Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Delaware, Georgia, Idaho, Kansas, Maine, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, South Dakota,

Vermont, West Virginia, and Wyoming. In each of these States there has been an increase in the proportion of women employed. These increases range from 1.5 per cent in New Hampshire to 63 per cent in Arizona. No State but Arizona shows a 50 per cent increase, New Mexico coming next with 47.9 per cent. West Virginia showed over 40; Wyoming and Nevada over 30; South Dakota, Idaho, North Dakota, and Kansas over 20, and the following States over 10 per cent increase each: Alabama, Montana, Delaware.

If the various occupational groups be considered, it will be found that every State reported shows an increase in number of women engaged in trade, professional service, domestic and personal service, and in clerical occupations; in most cases these additions were very considerable in each of these classifications. In all States for which information is available, except Montana, numbers of women in transportation have increased somewhat. Those in manufacturing and mechanical industries have increased only in 7 of the 17 States. The most notable additions to numbers in this classification were in Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, and West Virginia, while heavy declines occurred in Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont. Losses in employment were shown in agriculture in 10 of the 17 States, the decline being very great in Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Georgia, Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont. (Analysis by Women's Bureau.)

Minnesota. Employment Trends in St. Paul, Minneapolis, and Duluth.

(A Report by William H. Stead and Dronng Bjornaraa of the University of Minnesota, November, 1931.)

This report is one of a series of bulletins containing unemployment data to be issued by the Employment Stabilization Research Institute of the University of Minnesota. This material is part of the background for a project of employment stabilization, to be undertaken by the Institute and the Tri-City Employment Stabilization Committee.

The report analyzes employment data collected in 122 St. Paul establishments over a 6-year period, in 106 in Minneapolis for 5 years, and 183 in Duluth for 4 years—ending December, 1930, for Minneapolis and St. Paul, and June, 1930, for Duluth. Some interpretation is made on the basis of seasonal fluctuations, trend through the period and effects of depression. The employment figures are given by sex for the total, retail and mail-order houses, wholesale firms, manufacturing, public utilities, construction and building materials, miscellaneous. In all cases, clerical workers in the industries are included with the others. Each main industry group is then broken down into smaller groups, the data for which also are given by sex. Next, employment in the following main occupational groups, and in subdivisions of each of these are given: Skilled, semiskilled, unskilled, sales, clerical, miscellaneous. These occupational figures are not reported by sex except for Minneapolis, for which data on women are given for the main groups and for the following separate occupations—presumably those important in woman employment—telephone operators, apprentices, bakers and bakery workers, hand folders, machine operators, general labor, helpers, janitors, and six occupations in the sales and clerical groups.

The following points were brought out in connection with woman employment:

St. Paul. It is observable that the decline in employment is greater among the male than among the female workers. The female workers show an average monthly decline of 4.1 per cent from 1928 to 1930, whereas the male workers show an 8.6 per cent decline.

One other distinction between the employment curves of male and female labor is shown in the fact that the seasonal peak for female workers is December, with a summer decline, whereas the male workers reach a peak of employment in October or November with the low point in February or March.

The proportion of female labor is largest in the clothing industry, and there is some tendency to displace men in this field. It is also interesting to note that in the meat packing industry the number of women increased about 20-25 per cent from 1929-1930, while the number of men was decreasing some 3 or 4 per cent.

Minneapolis. When the curve for total employment in Minneapolis is divided into male and female we find surprising similarity in the two curves. Both male and female employees show the same general employment picture from 1926-1930 with a sharp gain in 1928 and a 10 per cent loss in each curve from 1929 to 1930.

Two points of difference stand out, however. While the female employees gained 5 to 6 per cent from 1926 to 1929, the male workers actually lost 3-4 per cent. It is also noticeable that the female workers show little seasonality, varying only 3 per cent from the winter low to a holiday peak in December. On the other hand the male workers show from 13-15 per cent seasonal variation from the February low to a summer peak in July.

From the clerical group, male bookkeepers, male office clerks, and female office clerks were selected. Male bookkeepers have shown a downward trend throughout the entire period, accelerating in 1929 and 1930 to a point 11-12 per cent below 1926. No seasonal movement is found in this group. The male and female office clerks have one thing in common—the absence of any marked seasonal fluctuation, a characteristic common to most clerical occupations.

The long-run trend, however, shows considerable difference. The male office clerks increase 3 or 4 per cent from 1926 to 1928, lose less than 1 per cent in 1929, and then drop 4-5 per cent in 1930. Female office clerks gain slightly from 1926 to 1927, only to lose rapidly in 1928, dropping 13-14 per cent in one year. Just about holding their own in 1929, they actually show a gain of about 1 per cent in 1930. Here again we have an illustration of the fact that the women workers have retained employment much more successfully than the men during the depression year of 1930.

Duluth. Duluth department stores are manned 75 per cent by women in contrast to the more than 90 per cent males in the small unit stores. The smaller department stores such as those found in Duluth show the sales force much larger in proportion to the operating staff, and the sales force is always predominantly female.

Women workers are most important in the clothing industry where they comprise 55-60 per cent of the total, and in household equipment with 33-35 per cent. The dairy products division of the food industry also numbers 27-28 per cent females. In all other (manufacturing) groups they represent less than 5 per cent of the total.

The "Other Public Utilities" have about 30 per cent female workers, mostly in the telephone business, but none of the transportation divisions run more than 5-10 per cent women workers, mostly clerical.

While the report does not note the fact, the data for St. Paul show more extreme fluctuations and greater irregularity for women than for men. For example, the totals given for women and men in all industries taken, even excluding the month of December for women—always a peak one in their employment—show that in every year the month of minimum employment approached more nearly that of the maximum month for men than for women; in some years the difference for the two sexes was considerable.

In Minneapolis women's employment appears to be, on the whole, somewhat more regular than men's. In Duluth, while the variations in employment from low point to high point in the year seem to be no more extreme for women than for men, there is considerably more irregularity from month to month within the year.

Pennsylvania. The Full-Fashioned Hosiery Industry.

A study of how full-fashioned hosiery workers find their jobs has recently been completed by the Department of Industrial Research of the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce, University of Pennsylvania. Information was gathered in 1930 from more than 4,000 full-fashioned hosiery workers and 61 mill executives through replies to questionnaires and through personal interviews. The study was made by Miss Dorothea de Schweinitz, assistant to the director of the Pennsylvania Employment Commission.

It was found that approximately 58 per cent of the workers obtained their positions through friends, and that 22 per cent obtained their positions by direct application to the factories. Only slightly more than 2 per cent make use of employment bureaus. As a result of these conditions, employers are handicapped because they are not always assured of finding the best men and women available to fill vacancies in their mills, and the skilled workers, in turn, suffer through inability to find readily the particular jobs for which they are best qualified, according to the study.

The last two chapters of the book are devoted to a description of the three employment bureaus which might have been used by the industry and to a discussion of the organization of a hypothetical bureau which would serve the full-fashioned hosiery industry alone. The essentials of an industry bureau would be that it hold the confidence of employers and workers alike and that it be used by the entire industry as a central point of information as to the availability of jobs and workers. (Daily News Record, February 9, 1932.)

Wages.

United States. Salaries of Teachers.

The Office of Education of the Department of Interior has attempted to show in a limited way what the financial opportunities for women entering the profession of college teaching are as compared to those of men. In 1928 the Office of Education made a survey of 50 selected institutions known as land grant universities and colleges and an analysis has now been made of the salary data collected at that time.

According to the results of the inquiry, women entering college teaching in these particular universities and colleges appear at a distinct disadvantage in the salaries received by them as compared with men. Comparisons were made in five academic ranks, that of dean, professor, associate professor, assistant professor, and instructor. Women were found to receive a lower median salary than men in each of these academic ranks, the difference increasing with the increase in rank. The difference between men's and women's salaries in each rank was as follows: Dean, \$1260; professor, \$558; associate professor, \$402; assistant professor, \$265; instructor, \$71. For all women teachers, irrespective of rank, in these 50 institutions the median salary was \$800 below that of men teachers. (Salaries of College Teachers: Comparisons, by John H. McNeely, Division of Colleges and Professional Schools, Office of Education, in School Life, February, 1932.)

Massachusetts. Minimum Wage.

A wage board to recommend a minimum rate of wages for women and girls employed in waste sorting establishments is to be formed by the Minimum Wage Commission. The occupation considered includes the sorting of rags, bags, waste paper, and mill remnants.

Wages. Manufacturing. The average weekly wage for women in 812 manufacturing establishments for December 1931 was \$12.98. The average wage in certain industries employing large proportions of women was: Boots and shoes, \$11.66; clothing, men's, \$11.26; clothing, women's, \$13.75; confectionery, \$13.58; cotton goods, \$11.22; hosiery and knit goods, \$11.28. Average earnings are influenced by time worked. While such data are not given separately for women, a report on the total number of wage earners employed in 1,057 manufacturing establishments shows that of 151,916 employees, 65,884, or less than half, worked full time. (Communication to the Women's Bureau.)

Oregon. Minimum Wage.

Two important problems are scheduled for consideration at a special conference to be held in Portland March 7 under the direction of the State welfare commission. Probably the most important of these deals with readjustment of the minimum wage for women employed in canneries. Women employees of these industries received 27½ cents an hour in 1931. Cannerymen declared that this scale was discriminatory against women, for the reason that men could be employed at a lesser wage under existing conditions. Some cannery men reported that they could employ men workers for 20 cents an hour.

The other problem at issue has to do with the so-called bonus system in berry, vegetable and hop fields. Reports received by the welfare commission indicated that the present system of holding back from pickers as much as one-half cent a pound on their pickings until the end of the season had worked a hardship on many of the workers. Only pickers who remain through the entire season receive this bonus. (The Sunday Oregonian, February 7, 1932.)

Great Britain. Salaries of Teachers.

The present scales of salaries are so framed as to give to women teachers approximately 80 per cent of the salaries payable to men. These scales are due to terminate in March, 1933. Before this date, the Burnham committee, the joint committee of teachers and education authorities responsible for teachers' salaries, will undertake the task of formulating new scales. At these negotiations pressure for equal pay for men and women will be exerted.

The movement for equal pay will stimulate the movement for allowance for dependents. Already the London School of Economics has granted equal pay to the men and women on its staff, together with substantial allowances to married men for each child receiving education, under the age of 23. (Christian Science Monitor, Feb. 16, 1932.)

PERSONNEL

Florence Kelley

Working women of this country suffered an immeasurable loss with the recent death of Florence Kelley. Her 73 years of life were spent in an effort to better the conditions of industrial workers, women and children, and at the end of her long career, the force of her personality and her intellectual keenness and vision had made her one of the most distinguished humanitarians of her day and a real influence on her generation.

At a time when women university graduates were few and women lawyers still more uncommon, she was a graduate of Cornell University and a member of the Illinois bar. In the early and experimental days of social research, she had served as a special agent of the Federal Government in charge of its inquiry into conditions in Chicago

for its report on The Slums of Great Cities. Moreover from 1893 to 1897 she had served with ability as chief of the Illinois Factory Inspectors—being the first woman to head a State factory inspection department.

Few progressive movements failed to receive her support. From the first she was a leader in the cause of Equal Suffrage. She was actively interested in aiding the Negro. She was one of the pioneers in promoting the creation of the Federal Women's and Children's Bureaus. She had long residence with Jane Addams at Hull House and later at the Henry Street Settlement with Lillian Wald.

But it is in connection with the National Consumers' League of which she was secretary from 1899 until her death and with her work for industrial and social legislation that Florence Kelley's name has been most closely identified. Under her leadership this League worked for legislation limiting the day's and the week's work and prohibiting night work, to set standards of safety and sanitation, and to secure minimum wage standards.

For such causes she wrote and spoke. She was the author of "Some Ethical Gains Through Legislation," published in 1905, and of "Modern Industry" in 1913.

In Mrs. Kelley's own words, "The Consumers' League was not formed to beat down the price of groceries and dress goods. What it wanted to do was to awaken responsibility for conditions under which goods were made and distributed, and through investigation, education and legislation, to mobilize public opinion in behalf of enlightened standards for workers and honest products for everybody."

NOTES: UNITED STATES

Vocational Guidance.

At the annual convention of the National Vocational Guidance Association, which met in Washington, February 18, 19, and 20, 1932, a number of matters of interest and importance in the field of woman employment were discussed. An important feature of one breakfast meeting was the explanation by Miss Florence E. Clark of Chicago of the preparation of a pamphlet on the printing trades shortly to be published by the occupational research section of the association, for the use of young students and the teachers who are seeking to give them occupational information and advice. In another meeting, the chairman of this section, Miss May Rogers Lane of Oswego, New York, called attention to the fact that, after stressing the need of more complete and accurate information in regard to occupations, the sessions had laid especial emphasis on a matter scarcely mentioned at such meetings in former years: The importance of establishing a broad background of knowledge in regard to changing economic conditions and the ways in which they are affecting occupations. In another session, the need for training in diversified knowledge rather than in narrowed specialization was brought out. At a fourth session, Miss Margaret Meyer, of the division of Junior Placement, New York State Department of Labor, spoke of the difficulties of preventing certain types of occupational exploitation against which the law does not protect. In this connection she mentioned the use of young people for the sale direct to consumers of cosmetics and other products. Sometimes these young people, whose appeal may be greater than that of older persons, are sent to country districts to make sales, after having been supplied by their employers with "hard luck" stories, or even with a photograph of the convalescent hospital from which they are supposed to have emerged.

News Letter No. 85

April 1, 1932.

ACTIVITIES AFFECTING GAINFULLY EMPLOYED WOMEN

Hours and Work ConditionsNew Jersey. A Six-Day Week.

A bill which would make mandatory one day of rest in seven for workers in factories, mercantile establishments, transportation and public service companies, hotels, restaurants and elevators, has been introduced in the State legislature of New Jersey as a socially desirable measure and as another attack on unemployment. The bill, introduced by Senator Arthur A. Quinn, permits Sunday work but guarantees another day of rest and recreation to those employed on Sunday. Similar laws have been in operation in New York, Massachusetts, and Wisconsin for some years as public health measures. The American Association for Labor Legislation which is backing the New Jersey measure reports, on the basis of recent investigation, that the one-day-of-rest-in-seven law in these three States is working smoothly "without hardship to the employer." (The Survey, March 15, 1932.)

Pennsylvania. Industrial Homework.

In the administration of the Home Work Regulations during the year 1931 contacts have been made with nearly 500 employers and over 4,000 home-working families. In 1930, violations of the Woman's Law were found in about 3 per cent of the homes visited. In 1931 violations were found in approximately 14 per cent of the homes. (Labor and Industry, January, 1932.)

The hour law—10-hour day, 54-hour week—the night work law, and the law requiring a 45-minute rest period after 6 hours' work, apply to industrial home work as well as to work in factories.

Rhode Island. Hours of Work.

Bills which would prohibit night work for women, and limit their hours of labor to 48 in one week, have been introduced into the Rhode Island legislature. The night work law would prohibit work between the hours of 10 p.m. and 6 a.m. (Daily News Record, March 15, 1932.)

Virginia. Hours of Work.

The Senate Committee on General Laws has killed a new hour law for women by a vote of nine to one. At present the law forbids women in industry to work more than 10 hours a day, and there is no weekly limit, making 70 hours a possibility, where the Sunday law is not enforced. The bill just killed provided an 8-hour day for a 6-day week, a 9½-hour day for a 5-day week, and a 9-hour day for a 5½-day week. Manufacturers appearing against the bill claimed that it would seriously handicap if not destroy the industries of the State. (Christian Science Monitor, March 12, 1932.)

Wisconsin. Night Work.

Officials of a hosiery company of Beaver Dam, Wisconsin, and representatives of civic organizations of that city recently appeared before the Industrial Commission

asking that the hosiery company be allowed to employ a night shift of women. The commission had previously ruled against night work, and would not change this previous decision. The commission in its decision stated in part:

"The trend of modern thought in the light of modern conditions is to prohibit night work, and Wisconsin must choose whether it will continue to lead in this direction or whether it will turn its face in the other direction, thus lending its influence not only to breaking down the progress that has been made in this State but in other States as well.

"Women may now work from 6 a.m. until 6 p.m. so that this employer could operate on a two 6-hour shift plan without losing any time for meal periods. This alone would increase the number of hours of employment 44 per cent, since the women are now working 50 hours a week. Permitting this employer to operate until 10 o'clock would only grant him two additional hours per day, since two 1-hour meal periods would have to be permitted each shift of workers.

"If the employer followed this suggestion he would be reducing the number of hours worked by each woman from 40 to 36 per week but would be doubling the number of women workers. This would be more than sufficient to take care of the proposed increase in production.

"The commission believes that it comes with ill grace from such an employer to urge that he be permitted to employ his women at night before he has taken advantage of his opportunities to increase employment." (Daily News Record, March 8, 1932.)

Employment

United States.

Employment of Married Women. 1930 Census. Up to the 25th of March preliminary releases received from the Census of Occupations show the gainful employment of married women in 44 States. The proportion of these women who were so occupied had decreased in 3 States from that in 1920, and had increased only about 1 ^{point} per cent or less in 7 others. In nearly half the reported States only about 10 per cent or less of the married women were employed. Only in the four States of Georgia, Florida, South Carolina, and Mississippi did the proportion reach or approach 20 per cent, and these were all in regions where many negroes live and work. For example, in Georgia 10.5 per cent of the white and 37.0 per cent of the negro married women were gainfully employed. In all the States for which information is available, considerably larger proportions of all women 15 years of age and over than of married women 15 and over were gainfully employed. In 16 of the 26 States for which bulletins giving occupation statistics have been published, the proportion of gainfully employed women was practically twice as great as the proportion of employed married women. In 14 of these States less than one-third of the gainfully occupied women 15 and over were married, and only in the four States of Arizona, Florida, Mississippi, and Nevada was the proportion as high as 40 per cent; in three of these and in seventeen other States--in all, 20 of the 26--the largest groups of married women in gainful occupations were in domestic and personal service. That women who enter this occupation do so from the necessity of making a living would seem to be obvious. (Analysis by Women's Bureau.)

Employment of Married Women as Teachers. In 1930-31 the National Education Association obtained from school authorities in nearly 1,500 cities a statement of the general policy of each school system with respect to the employment of married women as new teachers and the retention of single women teachers who marry. Of the cities reporting in all population groups, about 77 per cent do not employ married women as new teachers. The figures vary from 69 per cent in cities over 100,000 to

80 per cent in cities of 10,000 to 30,000 in population. No definite relationship is apparent between the size of cities and their practice on this point.

Only 37 per cent of all cities reporting permit single women teachers to continue teaching after marriage, and a number of these permit it only in case of teachers who have been elected for permanent service. More than one-half of the remaining 63 per cent require women teachers to resign at once if they marry, while nearly as many require their resignation at the close of the school year. In a mere handful of cities the rules make it optional with the school board in each case as to whether the teacher may continue or is required to resign.

As to the legal aspects of the question, apparently no State has passed any legislation with respect to married women as teachers. In at least six States and the District of Columbia, however, decisions on the question have been handed down by the courts, the chief State school official, or the State board of education. Two authorities conclude from their analyses of these decisions that in these States marriage is not in itself a valid cause for dismissing a teacher who is under contract or who is teaching under a tenure law which permits dismissal only for specified causes. It is, of course, unsafe to assume that similar decisions would be made in the other States if cases of this kind should come up for adjudication.

The most recent decision on the subject was handed down on December 21, 1931, by the Maryland State Board of Education in response to an appeal from Wicomico County. The board ruled that a woman teacher in the public schools of Maryland can not be dismissed because she marries. It also stated that a clause in a teacher's contract reading, "If a female teacher marries in any school year she will be expected to resign at the close of the school year," is in plain conflict with the State tenure law. This law provides no basis for discrimination on account of sex or marital status. (Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Jan. 1932.)

Employment of College Women. Among the 6,665 matriculants of land-grant institutions whose educational and occupational histories have been analyzed, in a bulletin just published by the Institute of Women's Professional Relations, there are encouraging indications of a growing diversification of occupations. While far too many of these college women are crowded into teaching, an increase in the proportion entering other fields of work is noted among the more recent classes.

For example there were 302 women with home economics training who were not teaching. Of these 106 were dietitians and 77 were home demonstration agents. The others were in business positions with food, equipment, and textile companies, on newspaper or magazine staffs writing special articles or in managerial positions in tea rooms, cafeterias and institutions.

Next to the teachers in number were those in clerical work, but there were 162 women in business who were distinctly outside of the clerical ranks. Though few in number their example is of value.

Some of the most interesting work was that reported by the 30 women in agriculture. Half of them had had special preparation for their work in the agricultural colleges, the other half had matriculated in liberal arts or home economics. There were growers of grain, bulbs, fruit, and flowers; cattle raisers, dairy and poultry farm owners. One of the highest earned incomes was reported by the manager of a cattle ranch who had made \$16,000 the year of the survey, 1927-28. (Women's Work and Education, February, 1932.)

Unemployment Among Women. 1930 Census of Unemployment. Examination of the figures showing number of women ordinarily in gainful occupations who were reported by the Census to be out of work in the groups classed by the Census as Class A, those "out of work, able to work, and looking for a job," and Class B those on lay-off (which in some cases had extended for 6 or 9 months or even a year at the time reported) it is found that over 500,000 women—4.7 per cent of those usually in gainful occupations—were returned as unemployed. The largest group of unemployed

women—185,000—was from the manufacturing industries, 145,000 were from domestic and personal service, and 66,000 from trade. Very many more women than men had been thrown out of work in domestic and personal service. Nearly as many of the women as of the men normally in the cigar and tobacco industries were unemployed; in this industry as well as in the manufacture of electrical machinery and supplies, and in the combined textile industries, over 10 per cent of the women normally so engaged were out of work. The largest groups of unemployed from manufacturing were 53,000 from the textile, 31,000 from the clothing, and 13,700 from the food industries. While unemployment did not affect as many of the women as of the men who were usually in the electrical machinery and supply industry, the combined food industries, insurance and real estate, and wholesale and retail trade, it did apply to larger proportions of the women than of the men in these occupations. (Analysis by Women's Bureau.)

New York. Industrial Homework.

It is sometimes assumed that during a depression industrial homework thrives at the expense of the factory worker. A closer examination of the facts, however, reveals quite a different situation. Homework, as all other work, has been greatly affected by the present depression and there are indications that for the past twenty years the volume of such work has increased during periods of prosperity and has been curtailed more drastically than factory employment during periods of depression.

A rough index of the trend of homework in New York State may be found in the reports of the homework inspectors who regularly inspect each tenement which is licensed for homework, and report the number of persons engaged in such work at the time of the inspection. During 1931 there were 13,377 homeworkers reported working in the apartments visited during the two regular inspections, as compared with 14,440 the year before. In addition to the 13,377 reported working, the inspectors interviewed 5,458 workers who normally engaged in homework, but had not been able to secure work at the time of the interview. Those who were more successful in finding work had a much smaller amount than ever before. Now one seldom sees Italian women piled heavily with coats or trousers on the way from the factory, even in the height of the season. They carry only a few garments each, often less than half a dozen, instead of the heavy bundle of a dozen or two which was a familiar sight a few years ago.

It would seem that there is a direct relation between the volume of factory work and that of homework. There are various factors which must influence this relationship. In some industries certain processes in the manufacture or finishing of factory made articles have lent themselves readily to homework. In these cases homework has long held a definite place in the industry and is expanded or curtailed as the volume of factory work itself increases or diminishes. It is undoubtedly true that there are other industries in which homework is substituted for factory work during a depression. In still others, homeworkers constitute a reserve labor supply and as such are the first workers to be dispensed with when business becomes dull. With their plants and machinery in existence manufacturers in such industries are anxious to keep their factory workers employed. Instead of increasing homework as a substitute for factory work at such times, they rely upon homework as a means of expanding production beyond the capacity of their plants during periods of greater activity. (The Industrial Bulletin, New York, February, 1932.)

Canada. Married Women in Government Service.

A section of the Civil Service Act provides that, "An employee holding a permanent position that is to be abolished, or which is no longer required, shall be laid off and his salary discontinued but his name shall be placed, in the order provided by the regulations of the commission on the list of persons eligible for

the class of positions from which he was laid off or for any other positions for which he may have qualified."

As a result of changes in the Department of the Interior, 845 employees were laid off in 1931. Realizing the hardship which this involved, and also that a great number of trained workers would be lost to the service if they could not be absorbed elsewhere, the Government saw fit to pass an Order in Council, making provision for the absorption of these 845 employees.

One of the provisions of this Order in Council for the absorption of laid-off employees of the Department of the Interior by other departments of the service, was that married women who were employed in the Government service should be replaced by surplus Interior employees. A canvass was made of the various departments of Government, and complete returns have been received from all but two departments, namely, the National Research Council and the Income Tax Branch of the Department of National Revenue. In all other departments it was found that there were 75 married women employed, but with the exception of 11 these were either separated from their husbands and receiving no support from them, or their husbands were physically incapable of supporting them. (23d Ann.Rep.Civil Service Commission of Canada, 1931.)

Scotland. Employment of Women in Edinburgh.

More than 41 per cent of all women and girls in Edinburgh 14 years of age and over are employed, and the total number of female workers, 79,132, is nearly 10,000 greater than in 1921 and represents more than 18 per cent of the total population of the Scottish capitol, 439,010. Of the 79,132 female workers in Edinburgh, 21,490 are in personal services, including 14,840 in private domestic service; 18,404 are employed in commerce and finance, 8,351 in the professions (chiefly teaching and nursing), 5,703 in public administration and defense, 5,748 in the manufacture of food, drink and tobacco, 5,157 in paper making, printing and publishing, 3,785 in the manufacture of clothing and textiles, and 2,622 in the rubber industry. Among 4,774 typists there are only 16 men. (Communication from the American Consul in Edinburgh, based on Fourteenth Decennial Census of Scotland, 1931.)

Wages

Massachusetts.

Earnings, Pocketbook and Leather Goods Industry. It will be recalled that the Minimum Wage Commission voted in the fall to establish a wage board for the pocketbook and leather goods industry. Data on wages and earnings in this industry recently have been compiled, based on an investigation of pay-roll records in 30 establishments for the period June through July, 1931. Minimum wage decrees are now in force covering 21 industries or occupations in Massachusetts. The lowest minimum for experienced workers set by any decree is \$13 (in some cases this applies only to workers 18 years of age and over); the highest is \$15.40.

Of the 820 women in the 30 establishments investigated, over three-fourths earned less than \$13 a week, and over half earned less than \$10 a week. Weekly rates were reported for 714 women in 29 establishments. A rate of less than \$13 was reported for over two-thirds of the women and of less than \$10 for over one-third. The per cent of women earning the lower rates was greatest in establishments manufacturing pocketbooks and handbags, over three-fourths having rates less than \$13 a week and nearly one-half having rates less than \$10. Wage rates of \$16 or over were reported for 119 of the 714 women. (Communication to the Women's Bureau.)

Minimum Wage. A bill has been introduced by State Senator William S. Conroy of Fall River requiring that manufacturers not complying with the provisions of the minimum wage law shall indicate this fact by appropriate labels on their products. Two important amendments have been added since the introduction of the original bill. One would compel retailers to post in their places of business a sign notifying

purchasers that goods sold there were not made in compliance with the minimum wage law, if this were the case. The other provides a substantial fine and imprisonment for any person detected removing labels from goods.

Introduction of this proposed legislation is the result of a recent meeting of civic bodies, at which it was stated that very low wages were paid to women employees by a number of industries that have come recently to Fall River. While the legislation is aimed at the garment industry it will take effect on every industry in the State.

That the bill is considered important is apparent from the fact that the committee on rules will take it up after the time allowed for the filing of bills. The solid support in favor of placing it upon the calendar for this session by members of the legislature from Fall River will undoubtedly have effect. (Daily News Record, March 18, 1932.)

Oregon. Wages in Fruit and Vegetable Harvesting and Canning.

The Industrial Welfare Commission at a recent meeting refused to reduce the minimum hourly rate for women in canneries from $27\frac{1}{2}$ cents to 25 cents as requested by employers.

At the same meeting a program was adopted for establishment of an arbitration board to adjust complaints and grievances arising out of a so-called "bonus system" for pickers in berry, vegetable, and hop fields. The bonus system, adopted by the growers themselves to make sure that the pickers will remain until the end of the season, is an arrangement whereby a portion of the picker's wage is withheld until the last crop is harvested. Abuses of the system in which the workers charged that they had been forced out just before they were entitled to receive the bonus, or in which they claimed they had left the fields with the employer's permission, and later were not allowed to claim the remainder of their wage, have been submitted to the welfare commission and will result in an investigation. (The Portland Oregonian, March 12, 1932.)

France. Family Allowances.

On 21 January 1932 the French Senate adopted without amendment the Family Allowances Bill passed by the Chamber of Deputies on 30 March 1931. The essential provisions of this measure are given below.

The new Act will form the fifth Chapter of the Labor Code. It requires every employer in an industrial, commercial or agricultural occupation, or liberal profession, to become a member of a compensation fund or similar institution approved by the Minister of Labor. In exceptional cases an employer who has already established on behalf of his workers a family allowance service approved by the Minister of Labor may be exempt from this requirement. The application of the act to agricultural undertakings will be determined by public administrative regulations, issued on the initiative of the Minister of Labor and the Minister of Agriculture and after consultation with the Chambers of Agriculture.

The act provides for allowances for every child dependent on the worker or salaried employee up to the school-leaving age, or up to the age of 16 if the child is continuing its studies or has entered apprenticeship. The number of daily allowances may not be less than the number of days' work performed. The allowances are payable in full in the event of temporary or permanent incapacity or in case of death resulting from an accident.

The minimum rate of the allowance for each child will be determined by an Order of the Minister of Labor in each department, either for all occupations together

or for each occupational group. The rate may not be less than that granted by the compensation funds already approved at the time of the promulgation of the act, but may be raised or lowered at a later date. Allowances may not be ceded or attached, except for the payment of the specific forms of debt covered by section 203 of the Civil Code. (Industrial and Labor Information, Feb. 15, 1932.)

PERSONNEL

Massachusetts.

Miss Mary Meehan of the Bookbinders' Union has been appointed Assistant Commissioner of the Department of Labor and Industries, the position formerly held by Miss Ethel Johnson.

NOTES: UNITED STATES

Position of Women in 50 Land Grant Universities and Colleges.

This information is based on a study made in 1928 by the Office of Education. Of 6,890 full-time staff members in these 50 institutions, 5,822 were men and 1,068 were women. The proportionate distribution of men and women in the five academic ranks of dean, professor, associate professor, assistant professor, and instructor, shows more men proportionately in the higher ranks. Nearly 3 per cent of the men and less than $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the women were deans. One-third of the men and one-tenth of the women were professors. While women formed 15.5 per cent of all the staff members, they formed only about 5 per cent of the professors. Nearly one-half of the women and about one-fourth of the men were instructors. The report also gives the distribution of men and women, and median salaries by academic rank in seven major divisions of instruction; liberal arts, education, home economics, agriculture, engineering, commerce and business, and physical education. Median salaries of women in all ranks together were only 72.9 per cent as great as those of men. Women instructors received 96.6 the median salary of men, while as deans they received only 77.6 of the men's median. (Salaries in Land-Grant Universities and Colleges, by John H. McNeely.)

ACTIVITIES AFFECTING GAINFULLY EMPLOYED WOMEN

Hours and Work ConditionsMassachusetts. Night Work.

House Bill 23 to prohibit the employment of women and minors in the manufacture of leather before 6 a.m. and after 6 p.m. passed the House without division but was rejected in the Senate on a roll-call vote of 15 to 15. (Industry, March 26, 1932.)

New York. Changing Conditions of Homework.

The history of legislation regulating industrial homework in New York State, and a survey of conditions surrounding such work as shown in studies made from time to time are given in the New York Industrial Bulletin for March, 1932.

"Almost fifty years have passed since the first attempt was made to control industrial homework through legislation. When the first homework law was enacted in New York State there was no such thing as a labor law. The Department of Labor was not yet in existence. There were no regulations concerning child labor, no limitations of hours of work, not even the most elementary requirements to insure safety and sanitation in factories"

"..... The first law relating to tenement house manufacture, a law prohibiting the manufacture of cigars, in tenement houses in New York City, was passed in 1883. This law and a second which followed it were entitled 'An Act to Improve the Public Health' and were to be administered by the sanitary inspectors. Both were soon declared unconstitutional. Eight years later, in 1892, a more effective law was passed which was broader in scope but which regulated, rather than prohibited, certain types of homework in tenements"

"..... In January, 1913, a new homework bill was passed which, with a few minor changes, is still in effect today. Most important among the new provisions of this law were the prohibition of the manufacture of certain articles in tenement houses for a factory, including children's clothing, dolls and food; licensing and regulation of the manufacture of all articles in tenement houses; the requiring of a permit for all factory owners giving out articles to be manufactured in tenements; and the organization of a special Division of Homework Inspection to enforce the law"

In the earlier reports "many pages were devoted to detailed descriptions of the overcrowding and the insanitary conditions in the tenement workrooms" "The investigators reported the prevalence of 'consumption' and other communicable diseases among homeworkers and called attention not only to insanitary rooms from which disease might be spread to consumers but to the dangers, for the workers themselves, of working long hours and eating poorly prepared food. They commented on the fact that the workers did not stop their work for meals but sent out for whatever food required the least time to prepare and eat at their work. They also reported that the families worked and slept in shifts so that work continued day and night"

"..... Although sanitary conditions characteristic of the old type sweat shop are now the exception rather than the rule in apartments where homework

is carried on, it must nevertheless be remembered that the potential hazards of homework are still great. A fact pointed out by the Factory Investigating Commission twenty years ago is still true today, that very few families who engage in homework have a room where such work can be done without coming into contact with food and housekeeping processes. Contagious diseases are still found from time to time in apartments where work is being carried on for factories, and every year hundreds of orders are issued by the inspectors to comply with the sanitary regulations of the homework law. In 1913, 705 such orders were issued to homeworkers regarding insanitary conditions.

"It has also become apparent that the sanitary hazards of homework, as well as other homework problems, may be as serious in single and two family dwellings as in tenement houses where homework is carried on. In 1904 such dwellings were exempted from the homework law. It was believed at that time that the evils which the law was designed to correct generally existed only in tenement houses and that the conditions under which homework was carried on in dwellings did not require legislative control. It has become more and more apparent, however, that the sanitary dangers of homework depend more upon the habits of the individual family than upon the type of dwelling in which they live, and that from the point of view of the consumer, homework in the dwellings now exempt from the Labor Law may be as great a menace as that carried on in the tenement houses under its jurisdiction."

Albania. Night Work.

On March 17, 1932, the Secretariat of the League of Nations registered the formal ratification by the Albanian Government of the Conventions concerning the employment of women during the night, concerning the night work of young persons employed in industry, and fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment. (Industrial and Labor Information, April 11, 1932.)

France. Hours of Work.

A Bill for the introduction of a 40-hour week was introduced in the French Chamber of Deputies on 23 February 1932.

The Bill stipulates that workers, irrespective of sex and age, who are employed in industrial or commercial undertakings or their branches, whether public or private, secular or denominational, educational or charitable, may not be employed more than 40 hours per week of five days. Provision will be made in the public administrative regulations to distribute the 40 hours over more than five days in trades where the nature of the work does not normally permit a five-day week.

Within three months of the date of promulgation, public administrative regulations will fix the time limits and conditions for the application of the provisions of the Act to the various occupational groups throughout France. In all cases the employers' and workers' organizations concerned must be consulted and must give their opinion not more than one month later. The administrative regulations must be based on existing national agreements concluded between the employers' and workers' organizations concerned, and are subject to compulsory amendment when the time limits and conditions which they embody are not in conformity with the provisions of international agreements concluded on the subject. They may also be revised at the request of the employers' and workers' organizations.

The enforcement of the 40-hour week may in no case be a reason for a reduction in the real earnings of the workers. (Industrial and Labor Information, March 28, 1932.)

Employment

Illinois. Unemployment of Women, January, 1931.

The Labor Bulletin for March, 1932, contains a report of the men and women unemployed in Chicago as shown in the special unemployment census taken in January, 1931. Of 370,851 persons out of a job, able to work and looking for work (Class A) 82,034 were women; while of 79,393 persons having jobs but on lay-off without pay excluding those sick or voluntarily idle (Class B) 14,230 were women, making nearly a hundred thousand women in the two classes. In April, 1930, of 167,934 persons reported unemployed in Classes A and B, 26,869 were women. Thus in April, 1930, about one-sixth (16 per cent) of those reported as unemployed in Classes A and B were women while in January, 1931, over one-fifth (21.4 per cent) of those so reported were women.

New York. Unemployment, Syracuse.

A survey of unemployment sponsored by the New York State Department of Labor was made in Syracuse in November, 1931. Seven sample areas were selected for canvass by the Associated Charities of Syracuse. "The superior residential district, the medium residential district, the congested district, the foreign district, all found their way into the selection." The persons enumerated both male and female formed roughly 10 per cent of the total gainfully employed in the city according to the 1920 census. In the areas canvassed were found 5,639 males 18 years of age and over (those in school excluded) and 1,663 females 18 years of age and over, who were usually employed. Of the 1,663 women, 311 were unemployed, 292 of these being able and willing to work - nearly one-fifth of the total usually employed. One-sixth of this total (278) were employed part time.

The following table shows the proportion of women unemployed but able and willing to work in certain industrial groups employing larger numbers of women.

| | <u>Total number enumerated</u> | <u>Per cent unemployed, but able and willing to work</u> |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|--|
| Domestic and personal service.... | 340 | 21.2 |
| Manufacturing and mechanical..... | 337 | 22.6 |
| Retail and wholesale trade..... | 307 | 16.3 |
| Professional..... | 224 | 9.4 |
| Self-employed..... | 130 | 14.6 |

Clerical workers were classified according to industry employing them (manufacturing, etc.) unless the industry or employer was not given, in which case they were classified as "clerical (not otherwise specified)." Fifty-two women were so classified, of whom 21.2 per cent were unemployed although able and willing to work. (Special Bul. No. 173, New York State Department of Labor.)

West Virginia. Employment of Women.

"A number of factories in recent years have located within the State recruiting their employees from the female sex. The largest growth in numbers was during 1930..... West Virginia is one of four States that does not have a law regulating the hours of labor for women. Consideration should be given to this fact, a regulatory law enacted, and thus remove the State from the present black color on the chart of the United States." (Twentieth Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor, West Virginia.)

Quebec. Employment Offices.

An amendment to the Employment Bureau Act, which comes into force May 1, 1932, repeals those sections which permit private employment offices to operate under license and prohibits the keeping of such offices except those established and maintained by religious congregations or societies for the placing of their proteges; workers' societies for the study, defense and development of the economical, social and moral interest of employees, charitable and benevolent societies; and employers who have their own employment bureaus. In all cases a permit must be obtained from the Minister of Labor. Such permit is issued free of charge and is good for one year only. It may be cancelled at any time. No remuneration may be exacted from the seeker for employment and a register must be kept in the form prescribed by the Minister. (The Labor Gazette, Canada, March, 1932.)

Wages

Massachusetts. Minimum Wage.

The House of Representatives on a voice vote, April 14, killed the bill which would authorize the State Minimum Wage Commission to revise wage decrees without the convening of a wage board unless a revision in excess of 10 per cent was contemplated. (The Boston Transcript, April 14, 1932.)

Quebec. Minimum Wage.

The Quebec Legislature which was in session from November 3, 1931, to February 19, 1932, amended the Women's Minimum Wage Act so as to extend its scope to include commercial establishments. The section dealing with the appointment of the Minimum Wage Commission was altered to provide that two non-members should represent female employees. The commission may fix a special scale of wages for persons engaged in seasonal occupations. (The Labor Gazette, Canada, March, 1932.)

Australia. Child Endowment.

The principle of supplementing wages by a payment in respect of dependent children under fourteen years of age has become very prominent in Australia in recent years and is actually in operation in certain instances.

The first payment of child endowment allowances in Australia was in connection with the Commonwealth Public Service. When the Commonwealth Government decided to pay allowances, payment was made to officers at the rate of 5 shillings per week for each dependent child under 14 years of age, with a limitation of 400 pounds per annum by way of salary plus allowance. The payment of the allowance in the service is now limited to a sum derived from salary and allowances of 500 pounds per annum.

An act passed in New South Wales in 1927 and amended in 1929 provides that child endowments shall be five shilling per week for each child in the family except one. (Labor Report 1930, No. 21, Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics, Canberra, Australia.)

Bulgaria. Minimum Wage.

The Bulgarian National Council on Labor and Social Insurance held its ninth session in Sofia on March 14, 1932. In his opening speech the Minister of Commerce, Industry and Labor drew attention to the importance of this meeting in view of the economic depression under which the country and the working class were laboring. Referring to the low level of wages, especially in the tobacco industry, where some women workers were earning only 12 leva (about 8 cents) a day, the Minister asked the council to draft a Bill providing for the determination of minimum wage. (Industrial and Labor Information, April 11, 1932.)

Hungary. Minimum Wage.

The Upper House of the Hungarian legislature has passed a bill to incorporate in Hungarian legislation the Convention concerning the creation of minimum wage fixing machinery. (Industrial and Labor Information, March 21, 1932.)

Maternity Benefits for Employed Women

United States.

The trustees of Barnard College, Columbia University, have voted to allow maternity leave of a half year on full pay or a full year on half pay to any woman member of the college administrative or teaching staff who is expecting a child. There are at present seventeen married women on the staff. (The Survey, April 15, 1932.)

India.

At the annual meeting of the Bengal Presidency Council of Women, Dr. Balfour, of Bombay, who has closely investigated the position of women in industry in India, discussed the question of maternity benefits, and emphasized the greater efficacy and desirability of allowances in kind rather than in cash.

Fifty years ago, she said, only 40,000 women were employed in industry in India, but the number has now risen to more than a quarter of a million, 30 per cent working in Bengal where the question is one of great importance She dwelt on the importance of special maternity privileges for women employed in industrial concerns and on the necessity of scrutinizing any proposed legislative measures in this respect. In Bombay, she added, the existing legislation might have been much improved had it been examined by intelligent women. (Industrial and Labor Information, April 11, 1932.)

Poland.

The Polish Government recently laid before Parliament a bill for the revision of the whole system of social insurance with the exception of unemployment insurance. The provisions regarding maternity benefits are as follows:

Maternity benefit includes medical and obstetrical assistance before, during and after confinement, with benefit amounting to half the wage as long as the woman abstains from working, for a period of not more than eight weeks, six of which must be after confinement, together with a nursing bonus for twelve weeks after the cessation of the allowance for childbirth. Benefits proposed are less than at present granted. The bill proposes to fix the joint contribution, which is borne half by the insured person and half by the employer, at 5 per cent of the wage, instead of 7.5 per cent as at present. (Industrial and Labor Information, April 11, 1932.)

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Employee Attitudes.

In order to determine the influences affecting the individual attitudes of women factory workers an investigation was undertaken by Dr. Arthur W. Kornhauser and Agnes A. Sharp of the University of Chicago.

The study was carried on from June to December, 1930, in the Badger-Globe Mill of the Kimberley-Clark Corporation. The Mill is located in Neenah, Wisconsin. Its principal products are Kotex and Kleenex. The manufacturing process is carried on by routine repetitive jobs at machines and conveyors operated by from 200 to 300 girls. The investigation focused on the girls and their supervisors.

Relations between management and employees were normally good. There were no special problems or labor trouble.

The character of the working group may be briefly summarized. In 1930 three-fourths of the girls were between 19 and 25 years of age; only 3 per cent were over 35. One in four was married. About two-thirds had been employed over one year; one-fourth over 3 years. Only 10 per cent reported less than eighth grade schooling; one in seven graduated from high school. Sixty per cent had native-born parents. About one-half lived at home. All in all it is probably a typical group of young women workers.

The girls work at an hourly rate of pay. Physical conditions are good except that there is a great deal of noise and vibration and in some places considerable draft. A 20-minute rest period is provided morning and afternoon.

Many interesting facts were brought out and questions arose indicating the need of further study. Attitudes are determined both by the situation and the make-up of the individual and investigation might profitably follow along either line.

Among the conclusions arrived at may be quoted the following:

No correlation existed between work-attitude scores and intelligence, age, schooling, and marital status. This is true both of general attitudes and of more specific ones like boredom or monotony. On the basis of interviews we selected a group of 30 girls whom we labeled "those with unhappy home life." Their work-attitudes proved to be no more unfavorable than the average. Likewise, and perhaps still more unexpectedly, efficiency ratings of employees showed no relationship to their attitudes.

Low positive correlations are found between favorableness of attitudes and individual scores for emotional adjustment, secured by means of a brief psychoneurotic inventory. Of the 25 most neurotic, 16 are more dissatisfied than the average; of the 25 most stable, only 3 are this dissatisfied.

Unfavorableness of job attitudes is slightly correlated with lost time because of sickness and with ratings of health by the foreladies. Attitudes of boredom or monotony are somewhat more closely correlated with these health indicators. If we divide the girls into those averaging more than one-half day sickness per month and all others, reports of marked boredom are twice as frequent among the former.

Feelings toward loss of job stand out as most important of all the points inquired into. In the list of job characteristics where the girls were to mark the things disliked, far more checked "possibility of lay-off" than any other item. Likewise in a list of "things you worry about most," many more marked "losing your job" than anything else.

Another point of some interest which arises in interpreting employees' feelings is the apparently large part played by unimportant, even trifling, occurrences. Minor sources of irritation are bound to occur. The question is how far they will carry. Where attitudes are basically favorable the annoyances are mere surface ripples. Where there is little trust or good-will, however, where negative feelings have developed because of insecurity, inadequate rewards, bad treatment by supervisors, frustration in work—then almost any molehill may become a mountain.

In conclusion the authors say:

There is pressing need for trustworthy knowledge about the social and individual effects of modern factory work. The human side of industry is much talked of in recent years but scientifically-spirited inquiries are still rare. The study sketchily portrayed in this paper is one small attempt to add to our reliably collected information about people at work. There is no end to the amount of such evidence needed if we are successfully to adjust ourselves to the new industrialism. Or may one be idealistic enough to say: if we are to adjust the new industrialism to the needs of human life? (The Personnel Journal, April, 1932.)

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The Committee dealt first of all with unemployment and vocational guidance, a subject on which the Secretariat has been in touch with the International Confederation of Students. A questionnaire has been sent out to the national federations asking them to try to organize vocational guidance in their own countries and to inform the Secretariat of the systems which already exist for this purpose. The replies received will later be transmitted to the International Labor Office.

The Confederation decided to undertake an inquiry on the question of office hygiene and the International Medical Association has agreed to inquire into school hygiene.

The committee began a study of the economic position of professional workers during the present economic depression in accordance with a resolution adopted by the Congress of the Confederation in September, 1931. (Industrial and Labor Information, March 21, 1932.)

ACTIVITIES AFFECTING GAINFULLY EMPLOYED WOMEN

Hours and Work ConditionsMassachusetts. Night Work.

House Bill 23 to prohibit the employment of women and minors in the manufacture of leather before 6 a.m. and after 6 p.m. passed the House without division but was rejected in the Senate on a roll-call vote of 15 to 15. (Industry, March 26, 1932.)

New York. Changing Conditions of Homework.

The history of legislation regulating industrial homework in New York State, and a survey of conditions surrounding such work as shown in studies made from time to time are given in the New York Industrial Bulletin for March, 1932.

"Almost fifty years have passed since the first attempt was made to control industrial homework through legislation. When the first homework law was enacted in New York State there was no such thing as a labor law. The Department of Labor was not yet in existence. There were no regulations concerning child labor, no limitations of hours of work, not even the most elementary requirements to insure safety and sanitation in factories"

"..... The first law relating to tenement house manufacture, a law prohibiting the manufacture of cigars, in tenement houses in New York City, was passed in 1883. This law and a second which followed it were entitled 'An Act to Improve the Public Health' and were to be administered by the sanitary inspectors. Both were soon declared unconstitutional. Eight years later, in 1892, a more effective law was passed which was broader in scope but which regulated, rather than prohibited, certain types of homework in tenements"

"..... In January, 1913, a new homework bill was passed which, with a few minor changes, is still in effect today. Most important among the new provisions of this law were the prohibition of the manufacture of certain articles in tenement houses for a factory, including children's clothing, dolls and food; licensing and regulation of the manufacture of all articles in tenement houses; the requiring of a permit for all factory owners giving out articles to be manufactured in tenements; and the organization of a special Division of Homework Inspection to enforce the law"

In the earlier reports "many pages were devoted to detailed descriptions of the overcrowding and the insanitary conditions in the tenement workrooms" "The investigators reported the prevalence of 'consumption' and other communicable diseases among homeworkers and called attention not only to insanitary rooms from which disease might be spread to consumers but to the dangers, for the workers themselves, of working long hours and eating poorly prepared food. They commented on the fact that the workers did not stop their work for meals but sent out for whatever food required the least time to prepare and eat at their work. They also reported that the families worked and slept in shifts so that work continued day and night"

"..... Although sanitary conditions characteristic of the old type sweat shop are now the exception rather than the rule in apartments where homework

is carried on, it must nevertheless be remembered that the potential hazards of homework are still great. A fact pointed out by the Factory Investigating Commission twenty years ago is still true today, that very few families who engage in homework have a room where such work can be done without coming into contact with food and housekeeping processes. Contagious diseases are still found from time to time in apartments where work is being carried on for factories, and every year hundreds of orders are issued by the inspectors to comply with the sanitary regulations of the homework law. In 1913, 705 such orders were issued to homeworkers regarding insanitary conditions.

"It has also become apparent that the sanitary hazards of homework, as well as other homework problems, may be as serious in single and two family dwellings as in tenement houses where homework is carried on. In 1904 such dwellings were exempted from the homework law. It was believed at that time that the evils which the law was designed to correct generally existed only in tenement houses and that the conditions under which homework was carried on in dwellings did not require legislative control. It has become more and more apparent, however, that the sanitary dangers of homework depend more upon the habits of the individual family than upon the type of dwelling in which they live, and that from the point of view of the consumer, homework in the dwellings now exempt from the Labor Law may be as great a menace as that carried on in the tenement houses under its jurisdiction."

Albania. Night Work.

On March 17, 1932, the Secretariat of the League of Nations registered the formal ratification by the Albanian Government of the Conventions concerning the employment of women during the night, concerning the night work of young persons employed in industry, and fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment. (Industrial and Labor Information, April 11, 1932.)

France. Hours of Work.

A Bill for the introduction of a 40-hour week was introduced in the French Chamber of Deputies on 23 February 1932.

The Bill stipulates that workers, irrespective of sex and age, who are employed in industrial or commercial undertakings or their branches, whether public or private, secular or denominational, educational or charitable, may not be employed more than 40 hours per week of five days. Provision will be made in the public administrative regulations to distribute the 40 hours over more than five days in trades where the nature of the work does not normally permit a five-day week.

Within three months of the date of promulgation, public administrative regulations will fix the time limits and conditions for the application of the provisions of the Act to the various occupational groups throughout France. In all cases the employers' and workers' organizations concerned must be consulted and must give their opinion not more than one month later. The administrative regulations must be based on existing national agreements concluded between the employers' and workers' organizations concerned, and are subject to compulsory amendment when the time limits and conditions which they embody are not in conformity with the provisions of international agreements concluded on the subject. They may also be revised at the request of the employers' and workers' organizations.

The enforcement of the 40-hour week may in no case be a reason for a reduction in the real earnings of the workers. (Industrial and Labor Information, March 28, 1932.)

Employment

Illinois. Unemployment of Women, January, 1931.

The Labor Bulletin for March, 1932, contains a report of the men and women unemployed in Chicago as shown in the special unemployment census taken in January, 1931. Of 370,851 persons out of a job, able to work and looking for work (Class A) 82,034 were women; while of 79,393 persons having jobs but on lay-off without pay excluding those sick or voluntarily idle (Class B) 14,230 were women, making nearly a hundred thousand women in the two classes. In April, 1930, of 167,934 persons reported unemployed in Classes A and B, 26,869 were women. Thus in April, 1930, about one-sixth (16 per cent) of those reported as unemployed in Classes A and B were women while in January, 1931, over one-fifth (21.4 per cent) of those so reported were women.

New York. Unemployment, Syracuse.

A survey of unemployment sponsored by the New York State Department of Labor was made in Syracuse in November, 1931. Seven sample areas were selected for canvass by the Associated Charities of Syracuse. "The superior residential district, the medium residential district, the congested district, the foreign district, all found their way into the selection." The persons enumerated both male and female formed roughly 10 per cent of the total gainfully employed in the city according to the 1920 census. In the areas canvassed were found 5,639 males 18 years of age and over (those in school excluded) and 1,663 females 18 years of age and over, who were usually employed. Of the 1,663 women, 311 were unemployed, 292 of these being able and willing to work - nearly one-fifth of the total usually employed. One-sixth of this total (278) were employed part time.

The following table shows the proportion of women unemployed but able and willing to work in certain industrial groups employing larger numbers of women.

| | <u>Total number enumerated</u> | <u>Per cent unemployed, but able and willing to work</u> |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|--|
| Domestic and personal service.... | 340 | 21.2 |
| Manufacturing and mechanical..... | 337 | 22.6 |
| Retail and wholesale trade..... | 307 | 16.3 |
| Professional..... | 224 | 9.4 |
| Self-employed..... | 130 | 14.6 |

Clerical workers were classified according to industry employing them (manufacturing, etc.) unless the industry or employer was not given, in which case they were classified as "clerical (not otherwise specified)." Fifty-two women were so classified, of whom 21.2 per cent were unemployed although able and willing to work. (Special Bul. No. 173, New York State Department of Labor.)

West Virginia. Employment of Women.

"A number of factories in recent years have located within the State recruiting their employees from the female sex. The largest growth in numbers was during 1930..... West Virginia is one of four States that does not have a law regulating the hours of labor for women. Consideration should be given to this fact, a regulatory law enacted, and thus remove the State from the present black color on the chart of the United States." (Twentieth Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor, West Virginia.)

Quebec. Employment Offices.

An amendment to the Employment Bureau Act, which comes into force May 1, 1932, repeals those sections which permit private employment offices to operate under license and prohibits the keeping of such offices except those established and maintained by religious congregations or societies for the placing of their proteges; workers' societies for the study, defense and development of the economical, social and moral interest of employees, charitable and benevolent societies; and employers who have their own employment bureaus. In all cases a permit must be obtained from the Minister of Labor. Such permit is issued free of charge and is good for one year only. It may be cancelled at any time. No remuneration may be exacted from the seeker for employment and a register must be kept in the form prescribed by the Minister. (The Labor Gazette, Canada, March, 1932.)

Wages

Massachusetts. Minimum Wage.

The House of Representatives on a voice vote, April 14, killed the bill which would authorize the State Minimum Wage Commission to revise wage decrees without the convening of a wage board unless a revision in excess of 10 per cent was contemplated. (The Boston Transcript, April 14, 1932.)

Quebec. Minimum Wage.

The Quebec Legislature which was in session from November 3, 1931, to February 19, 1932, amended the Women's Minimum Wage Act so as to extend its scope to include commercial establishments. The section dealing with the appointment of the Minimum Wage Commission was altered to provide that two members should represent female employees. The commission may fix a special scale of wages for persons engaged in seasonal occupations. (The Labor Gazette, Canada, March, 1932.)

Australia. Child Endowment.

The principle of supplementing wages by a payment in respect of dependent children under fourteen years of age has become very prominent in Australia in recent years and is actually in operation in certain instances.

The first payment of child endowment allowances in Australia was in connection with the Commonwealth Public Service. When the Commonwealth Government decided to pay allowances, payment was made to officers at the rate of 5 shillings per week for each dependent child under 14 years of age, with a limitation of 400 pounds per annum by way of salary plus allowance. The payment of the allowance in the service is now limited to a sum derived from salary and allowances of 500 pounds per annum.

An act passed in New South Wales in 1927 and amended in 1929 provides that child endowments shall be five shilling per week for each child in the family except one. (Labor Report 1930, No. 21, Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics, Canberra, Australia.)

Bulgaria. Minimum Wage.

The Bulgarian National Council on Labor and Social Insurance held its ninth session in Sofia on March 14, 1932. In his opening speech the Minister of Commerce, Industry and Labor drew attention to the importance of this meeting in view of the economic depression under which the country and the working class were laboring. Referring to the low level of wages, especially in the tobacco industry, where some women workers were earning only 12 leva (about 8 cents) a day, the Minister asked the council to draft a Bill providing for the determination of minimum wage. (Industrial and Labor Information, April 11, 1932.)

Hungary. Minimum Wage.

The Upper House of the Hungarian legislature has passed a bill to incorporate in Hungarian legislation the Convention concerning the creation of minimum wage fixing machinery. (Industrial and Labor Information, March 31, 1932.)

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ACTIVITIES AFFECTING GAINFULLY EMPLOYED WOMEN

Hours and Work ConditionsCalifornia. Lighting and Vision.

The Department of Physics Optometry of the University of California has recently made the first complete scientific investigation of the visual status of the employees of a California industry. This survey, under the supervision of Professor R. S. Minor in charge of the department, assisted by Dr. T. A. Brombach, lecturer, was made at the plant of the California Wire Cloth Company in Oakland. The results were given to the public for the first time at a meeting of the California Safety Society, and show very definitely that many of the so-called "unavoidable accidents" are due to eye or plant conditions which can be corrected. The combined services of the optometrist, illuminating expert, and safety engineer, will give benefits that were unknown under the old system of eye examinations. (California State Department of Industrial Relations, Report to Governor's Council, April, 1932.)

France. Seats for Public Transport Workers.

The Committee on Public Works and Communications of the French Chamber of Deputies recently drafted a bill providing that in all vehicles utilized for public transport, including trams, railway trains and motor-buses, as many seats should be provided as there are employees, so as to enable the latter to sit down during their work, on condition that this does not interfere with their duties.

The committee stated that the object of this proposal was to make universal a practice which had been begun some time ago by several public transport undertakings, and that it corresponded to the legislative measure already enacted in regard to women shop assistants. Such a measure was even more necessary for women employed as ticket collectors in trams and omnibuses, but it should also be extended to men, for whom the standing posture continued for long periods involved serious disadvantages in view of the vibration to which they were exposed. (Industrial and Labor Information, 2 May 1932.)

Turkey. Labor Code.

A bill embodying a new labor code has been presented to the Turkish Parliament. The original project comprises no fewer than 161 clauses, dealing with the following subjects: Employment of women and children; hours of work; rest periods; health and safety; factory inspection; wages and contracts of employment; shops attached to works; accident insurance; freedom of association; employment exchanges; conciliation and arbitration; the establishment of a Superior Labor Council. (Industrial and Labor Information, 18 April 1932.)

Employment

New York. Unemployed Industrial Women.

The annual report of the Women's Trade Union League of New York for the year ending March 31, 1932, contains a summary of activities for the assistance of unemployed industrial women, the major problem to be met during this period.

In April of 1931 a small loan fund was started, from which members of affiliated trade unions could borrow without paying interest. Loans have been made to 64 individuals averaging \$26.59 each. There is no time limit on the repayment of the loan, which is given with the understanding that it will be repaid in small weekly installments as soon as the borrower is able. Yet even in these hard times 11 women have started to make repayments. The league believes that under present conditions a loan fund of this type is the only form of relief which really fits the needs of the trade union group. Although started only in a small way (the entire fund amounted to \$3,000), it is hoped to build up the fund gradually so that the league can permanently provide this service for trade union women.

The league has also taken an active part in plans for the relief of the great mass of industrial women. A special committee, of which Miss Mary E. Dreier is chairman, has been working on relief proposals throughout the winter. It was found early in the fall, that in spite of the legislative appropriation of \$20,000,000 for unemployment relief, industrial women could not expect work relief (the only form of relief which would not destroy their self-respect). One of the limitations of the work relief program was that work had to be given on city projects and no way could be found to employ any large number of industrial women on these projects. As soon as this became apparent the league brought their plight to the attention of Mrs. August Belmont, Chairman of the Women's Division of the Gibson Committee, and to the Welfare Council Coordinating Committee, stressing especially the needs of unemployed trade union women. Later, the Emergency Work Bureau opened registration to industrial women for work in sewing shops and asked the league to recommend 200 trade union women. Work relief of this type was given to approximately 800 industrial women.

The league in December also recruited a group of 50 industrial women who were placed in the continuation schools by the Emergency Work Bureau at a scholarship wage ranging from \$5 to \$8 a week. The Emergency Work Bureau also provided scholarships for 10 unemployed industrial girls to enable them to attend the Vineyard Shore School for three months. When the school term of the first group was at an end, the Emergency Work Bureau gave a maintenance scholarship to a second group of one hundred industrial women while they attended school for 10 weeks. Although the school group was small in relation to those in need, this experiment at least provided some help to a group who would not otherwise have been aided, and also showed that relief can be made at least partially constructive. The league officers believe that since we must expect a continuous increase in the number of permanently unemployed, the development of trade training is of outstanding importance. The Committee on Unemployment has been empowered by the Executive Board to make a detailed study of the results of this experiment in trade training for adults, and to recommend a program for next winter and a plan for the future development of this type of training.

The league this year has made a special effort to reach unemployed girls with their educational program. It is encouraging to note that despite the unusual financial and personal problems facing industrial girls, registration increased considerably; 97 students registered for the seven courses that were given and attended them with reasonable regularity. Over one-third of this group registered

for more than one class, so that there was a total of 135 enrollments for all the classes. In order to make it possible for unemployed girls to take these classes, the league accepted an additional financial burden, believing that no student should be turned away because of her inability to pay tuition fees. A large number of students have been unable to pay even the average tuition fee of 25 cents a lesson. Yet in spite of the fact that a large proportion were unemployed, 34 students (over one-third) have paid their full tuition and 29 (nearly another third) have paid part of their tuition. It is felt that this shows remarkable cooperation on the part of the students, the more noteworthy as no bills were sent.

Wages

Salaries of Public Health Nurses.

A report has been made by Louise M. Tattershall (statistician, National Organization for Public Health Nursing) on salaries paid public health nurses on January 31, 1932, based on information from 104 health departments, 130 boards of education, and 143 public health nursing associations. All the agencies employ two or more nurses, except 20 boards of education which employ one nurse each. Twelve agencies, six health departments and six public health nursing associations serve counties or group of townships. The other agencies serve only the places in which they are located.

That some idea might be obtained as to whether or not the salaries reported for January 31 could be considered as the salaries to be paid for the year 1932, all agencies were asked if changes in salaries were to be made at a later date, and, if so, what changes. Of the total 377 agencies, sending information, only 12 agencies, three health departments, one board of education, and eight public health nursing associations report that plans are made for cuts in salaries to go into effect after January 31. In addition, three health departments and three boards of education report that it is probable that cuts in salaries will be made later. As these 18 agencies represent only 5 per cent of the total number of agencies included in this report, the salaries given may be considered as those to be paid for 1932.

Median monthly salaries paid by health departments and by public health nursing associations to directors, supervisors and field nurses are classified by population of cities reporting and by number of nurses employed. The following table gives the median monthly salary paid by each agency to nurses in the three types of positions in all population groups combined.

| | <u>Health Departments</u> | <u>Public Health Nursing Assn.</u> |
|-------------------|---------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Directors..... | \$180 | \$225 |
| Supervisors..... | 175 | 165 |
| Field Nurses..... | 145 | 135 |

The report on salaries paid school nurses includes salaries paid by health departments and boards of education to graduate nurses giving full time to school nursing. The median yearly salary for directors or chief nurses was \$2,100 and for school field nurses, \$1,760. (Public Health Nursing, May 1932.)

Quebec. Minimum Wage.

The fifth annual report of the Women's Minimum Wage Commission of the Province of Quebec gives a detailed review of its work in administering the act during the year ending June 30, 1931. The 23 enactments issued to the date of the report's

publication cover 949 workshops in which are employed a total of 31,818 working women and apprentices. Orders governing the employment of female workers now apply in laundries, dye works and dry cleaning establishments; printing in all its branches; textile trades and all allied processes; boot and shoe and leather manufacture; clothing in all its classifications; tobacco, cigar and cigarette manufacture; and the fur industry.

The chief statistics as regards the employment of women in these various industries are summarized in the following table:

| | Montreal | | | Remainder of Province | | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| | No. of establishments | No. of women employed | Average wage weekly | No. of establishments | No. of women employed | Average wage weekly |
| Laundries and dye works..... | 45 | 1271 | \$12.52 | 22 | 284 | \$ 9.62 |
| Printing industry..... | 104 | 988 | 13.19 | 31 | 215 | 9.82 |
| Textile industry..... | 13 | 2483 | 13.45 | 33 | 5909 | 12.33 |
| Leather industry..... | 54 | 2124 | 14.62 | 52 | 1597 | 10.98 |
| Tobacco, cigars and cigarettes | 22 | 3132 | 12.78 | 20 | 924 | 10.98 |
| Fur industry..... | 116 | 724 | 15.88 | 30 | 294 | 10.42 |

A complete report was not given for the needle trades but in this classification there are 407 establishments employing 11,873 women.

The statistics indicate that while the number of women employed decreased by about one thousand in these industries and while a number worked on reduced time, the average weekly wage was not only maintained but increased in every industry except laundering where it dropped from \$12.63 in 1930 to \$12.52 in 1931. (The Labor Gazette, Canada, April, 1932.)

Accidents

Maryland. Accidents to Women.

Of 10,401 claims filed with the State Industrial Accident Commission which were classified by sex, 696 were made by women. Of these, 661 were cases of temporary injury and 35 of permanent partial injury. There were no fatal cases among women, and none of permanent total disability. Of the men's cases, 77 were fatal and 3 permanent total. The women injured ranged in age from 13 to 69, with age not stated in 24 cases. Over half (387 or 55.6 per cent) of the women were under 30. Nearly half (306 or 44 per cent) were under 25, and one-fourth (167 or 24 per cent) were under 20. Of all females 10 years of age and over reported as gainfully employed in Maryland by the census of April, 1930, half (49.3 per cent) were under 30, one-third (35.7 per cent) under 25, and about one-sixth (15.3 per cent) under 20. While many persons reported as gainfully employed by the census are not covered by the workmen's compensation law of the State, still the figures seem to indicate a higher incidence of accidents among young women in relation to the numbers employed than among more mature women. (Seventeenth Annual Report of the State Industrial Accident Commission of Maryland, and U. S. Census data.)

NOTES: UNITED STATES

The spring months represent a time when a number of women's conventions and conferences take place, and several of these have sections concerned with the conditions of women's work and their occupational progress.

National League of Women Voters

The biennial convention of the National League of Women Voters was held in Detroit April 25 to 29. In connection with the program of its Women In Industry Committee, the convention reaffirmed its stand for active support of the following Federal or Federal-State measures: Adequate appropriation for the Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor; an effectively coordinated system of Federal and State employment offices; and the collection of adequate employment statistics. A new item added to this part of the program was a system of Federal, State and local unemployment relief.

For support in the various States, new points on the program indorsed by the convention were workmen's compensation including occupational diseases, and unemployment compensation; items reiterated for State support were shorter hours and the prohibition of night work for women in industrial occupations, adequate enforcement of labor laws, establishment and adequate appropriations for a State agency of women in industry, State inspection of industrial pay rolls and publication of figures on women's earnings, and effective regulation of private employment agencies. In addition, the principle of collective bargaining was indorsed as a means of giving women workers a share in the control of their conditions of employment.

The league's committee on the Legal Status of Women, designed to "remove discriminations which preclude women from sharing an equal opportunity and a true equality with men before the law," devoted part of its program to a presentation of the occupational distribution of gainfully employed married women and opposition to their dismissal from employment for the reason of marriage. On the recommendation of this committee the convention recorded its disapproval of "blanket" methods of legislation.

Among the speakers at the evening meetings was James Mullenbach, chairman of the Trade Board of Men's Clothing Industry, Chicago, who suggested as important points in a labor program the treatment of unemployment as a national problem, the six-hour day and the five-day week, the setting aside of reserves for "days of disemployment," creation of a permanent labor committee of the House and Senate, and some form of joint industrial control supervised by an appropriate Federal body.

Young Women's Christian Association - National Convention.

The Young Women's Christian Association held its national convention in Minneapolis May 5 to 11. Proposals for work during the coming biennium include the following listed as economic questions, for many of which the association has been working for over a decade, and for which it planned "to continue more vigorously its efforts": Alleviation of unemployment through

Federal-State agencies, advance planning of public works, and unemployment insurance; a maximum eight-hour day and abolition of night work for women in industry; attempts to regulate wages, with special attention to the relation of wages to the cost of living and to fullness of life; abolition of child labor, and the regulation of the work of minors, according to the standards of the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor; support of the Women's Bureau and Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor; and, opposition to the so-called Equal Rights Amendment to the Federal constitution.

In addition to the foregoing points the convention recorded approval of unemployment insurance and of the establishment of a national economic planning commission.

National Conference of Social Work

The National Conference of Social Work held its annual meeting in Philadelphia May 16 to 24. Division V, devoted to Industrial and Economic Problems, led by Paul W. Kellogg, considered the need for Federal aid for relief funds, the necessity of economic security for the family, industrial health, unemployment insurance, mental hygiene, and hard times, and social economic planning. Sessions were held jointly with the National Association of Public Welfare officials, and the American Association for Labor Legislation, and with the family and health divisions of the Conference. Although the conference does not adopt programs for action, the need for some form of unemployment insurance was one of the key notes of this year's session.

Memorial Meeting to Julia Lathrop.

On Sunday afternoon, May 22d, a memorial meeting to Julia Lathrop was held in Washington under the auspices of the Children's Bureau and the Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor, with Miss Grace Abbott, presiding, and with the following national organizations participating: American Association of University Women; General Federation of Women's Clubs; National Association of Settlements; National Child Labor Committee; National Conference of Social Work; National Committee for Mental Hygiene; National Consumers League; National League of Women's Voters; National Probation Association; National Women's Trade Union League.

The speakers were Miss Lillian Wald, of Henry Street Settlement, Judge Julian Mack, first judge of the first Juvenile Court in the country, in Cook County, Illinois, and Dr. Adolf Meyer, psychiatrist. Each of the speakers told of his or her intimate associations with Miss Lathrop. Miss Wald characterized Miss Lathrop as a great pioneer in social investigation, stating that she had contributed greatly to the rise of American civilization and the development of scientific philanthropy, and speaking especially of her work as chief of the Children's Bureau. The speakers stressed the variety of social welfare interests that Miss Lathrop had initiated or actively furthered. These included her work at Hull House; as a member of the Board of Welfare in Illinois, where she had been interested in the foreign-born, in the aged, in those in alms houses and insane hospitals, and in other groups needing assistance; her activities during the war for the establishment of the War Risk Insurance Bureau; and her part in planning for a court in which the youth of the city of Chicago, and the rest of Cook County, could be dealt with not as criminals but as misunderstood children.

The meeting was closed by Miss Abbott with a fitting tribute to this great pioneer who had been a continual source of help and inspiration to those with whom she came in contact in her work for the social causes she constantly furthered. (Report by members of Women's Bureau staff.)

News Letter No. 88

July 1, 1932.

ACTIVITIES AFFECTING GAINFULLY EMPLOYED WOMEN

Hours and Work ConditionsEffects of Air Conditioning on Lost Time and Labor Turnover.

H. H. Mather of Philadelphia Electric Company has studied the savings resulting from the installation of refrigeration in the Philadelphia plant of the American Cigar Company. Although these savings are expressed largely in terms of increased production, the benefit to the workers is immediately apparent. The study was made in 1930. Refrigeration was required for 85 days of the summer. Without it the company had found that an average of 50 girls per day for 75 days would be sick or tired in the cigar-making department and work only half a day leaving at noon. This left 12 machines idle. With refrigeration, lost time was reduced to an average of 5 girls out a half day for 75 days. The improved conditions were found to increase efficiency so that the proportion of cigars rejected because imperfect was reduced from about 3 per cent to about 1 per cent. These benefits increased both the plant's profits and the girls' earnings. There was also a reduction in labor turnover by about 100 girls, as "not so many felt the urge to take jobs as waitresses in summer resorts."

Adding these and other savings, it was found that the refrigerator equipment in this plant paid for itself in two summers. "It should be remembered, of course, that the figures are for the cigar-making department alone. If similar studies were made in the stripping and packing departments, for example, there would unquestionably be additional savings to swell the total. And again no attempt has been made to evaluate the general increase in health that has resulted from the comfortable working conditions provided. Production executives in many industries will do well to weigh this last point. Added to the tangible benefits of refrigeration it is a powerful argument in favor of a comfortable plant." (Factory and Industrial Management, May, 1932.)

Illinois. Hours of Work.

Beginning in 1929 the Division of Statistics and Research of the Illinois Department of Labor has made an annual study of normal and actual hours of work in representative manufacturing establishments. The most recent report covers a pay roll period near April 15, 1932. Data for women cover over 450 establishments, actual hours being reported for nearly 24,000 women, normal hours for over 1,000 more. The term "normal" hours means the standard full daily and weekly operating time of a plant for each shift, excluding overtime and part time. The term "actual" hours means the daily and weekly hours which the plant actually operated with one shift of workers, during the period covered by the report.

Normal weekly hours for over two-thirds of the women (67.9 per cent) were from 44 to 48 inclusive. For only about 4 per cent (3.9) of the women were normal hours less than 44 a week. Nearly three-tenths (28.2 per cent) had normal schedules of over 48 hours a week, with one-tenth (10.5 per cent) having schedules of over 50 hours a week.

When actual hours are considered, two-thirds of the women reported (66.5 per cent) were found to have worked less than 44 hours in the week with well over one-third (36.0 per cent) having worked less than 32 hours. Nearly one-fourth (23.1 per cent) had worked from 44 to 48 hours inclusive in the week and one-tenth (10.8 per

cent) over 48 hours, with only a very small proportion (3.7 per cent) having worked over 50 hours. (The Labor Bulletin, Illinois Department of Labor, Chicago, May, 1932.)

Employment

Louisiana. Employment of Women in New Orleans.

In 1931 there were 30,234 persons employed in New Orleans in factories, retail stores, laundries, telephone and telegraph service, public service, hotels and restaurants. Of these, 14,363—nearly half—were women and girls. There were 10,495 white women; 2,740 colored women; 107 white and colored girls from the ages of 14 to 16 years, and 1,021 from the ages of 16 to 18 years. Colored women formed a somewhat larger proportion of all women than did colored men of all men, and there were about two-fifths more boys than girls in employment.

The following industries employed more than 500 females (all ages, white and colored): Department stores, 3,307; clothing manufacture, 1,961; laundries, 1,111; cigar factories, 988; telephone service, 983; hosiery mills, 663; hotels, 636. Over 700 colored women were employed in clothing factories, almost 700 in laundries, 375 on work with pecans (the only female employees in that industry), and nearly 250 in cigar factories. Clothing factories employed 67 girls 14 but under 16 years of age, and 105 who were 16 but under 18. The other large employers of girls in the latter age group were department stores with 274, hosiery mills with 250. (Twenty-fourth Report of the Factory Inspection Department, Parish of Orleans, State of Louisiana, year ending Dec. 31, 1931.)

Canada. Ontario.

Women who normally are employed in Ontario have suffered severely from unemployment during the depression, but there has not been heavy lowering of wage rates owing largely to the fact that these had been fixed originally at modest levels. In 1926 there were 43,242 female factory workers in the province, and the number increased steadily to 53,461 in 1929, after which it dropped to 50,069 in 1930 and 47,086 in 1931. The report takes some comfort from the fact that the older and higher paid workers apparently have not been replaced by those younger and cheaper. In 1929, girls under 18 formed 14.5 per cent of all female workers, in 1930 they formed 10 per cent and in 1931 only 7.4 per cent. The decreases in employment of all female workers from 1929 to 1931 was 11.9 per cent, of young girls 54.5 per cent. There has been no noticeable change respecting the employment of married women. (Eleventh Annual Report of the Minimum Wage Board of Ontario, 1931.)

Wages.

Colorado. Wages of Business Girls.

The Y.W.C.A. of Denver recently has made a study of changes in the wages and economic responsibilities of the girls belonging to its five Business Girls' Clubs. The group included clerical workers, sales women and professional women. The information was secured by questionnaire of which 172 were returned. Of this number 154 were employed and 18 unemployed. Of the total group, 16 per cent were under 20 years of age, 37 per cent between 20 and 25, 25 per cent between 25 and 30, 12 per cent between 30 and 35, and 9 per cent 35 and over.

A comparison of this year's wage with that of last was reported by 85 per cent of the women. Of these about one-fourth reported reductions ranging from under \$5 to over \$15 a week; slightly over one-fourth reported increases in wages; and slightly less than one-half reported no change in wages.

On the matter of expenses and financial responsibility the report states: "We were interested in finding out whether the girls had cut expenses on clothes, recreation, room and board, and found that 53 per cent have had to make such cuts. In view of the fact that 41 per cent have had no cuts in salary and 23 per cent have had wage raises, this 53 per cent looks as though the girls were uncertain of the future or taking advantage of lowering cost of living. When we turn to the item of increased responsibility at home due to unemployment in the family we find perhaps the answer to this reduction... 42 per cent of the girls having taken on more financial responsibility."

Most of the eighteen girls unemployed were unmarried, but seven of them had one or more persons dependent on them. (Communication to the Women's Bureau.)

Declines in women's wages 1929 to 1931 as reported from certain sources in the United States and for Ontario which has a minimum wage law.

The Eleventh Annual Report of the Minimum Wage Board of Ontario, recently issued, gives striking evidence of the fact that from 1929 to a corresponding period in 1931 women's wages had not decreased to anything like the degree that has been the case in the United States, so far as evidence is available from the two important industrial States that report data on this subject--Illinois and New York--and from the figures on women's wages issued by the National Industrial Conference Board.

With due allowance for differences in types of industry, in degree of economic change, and in industrial classification, these data give an added strength to the contention that minimum wage legislation carefully drafted and wisely administered may produce a decided effect in the maintenance of the earnings of a group of industrial workers who ordinarily receive extremely low wages, though the extent to which the entire effect is due to the minimum wage regulations scarcely can be measured.

The Ontario report gives the total number of women employed and the total wages paid them in one week of 1929 and 1931 (exact date not specified) in 11 separate industrial classifications in addition to those for a group of miscellaneous manufactures. The decrease from 1929 to 1931 in the average wages of the women in all the manufacturing industries taken together was only 1.7 per cent, while in Illinois it was something over 11 per cent; in New York 5.4 per cent in March, 13 per cent in September; and according to the National Industrial Conference Board report 12 per cent in March and 18.2 per cent in September.

The greatest decline that had occurred in any industrial group in Ontario was 18.2 per cent in rubber, the next 7.2 per cent in tobacco; the least was 2.3 per cent in jewelry. In four groups there had been some increase--food, printing and paper goods, custom millinery, and textiles; average wages in the food industries had decreased as much as 9.9 per cent in New York, but had shown some increase in Illinois; decreases in printing and paper had been as high as 14.3 per cent in New York, 19.2 per cent in Illinois, in the textile group as high as 19.9 in New York, and 24.8 in Illinois. (These highs were in March in some cases, in September in others.)

In Illinois, in the industrial groups that most nearly correspond to those of Ontario, the greatest decline in average wages from March, 1929, to March, 1931, was 38.3 per cent in watch and jewelry factories, the next two being 31.8 per cent in clothing and millinery and 24.8 per cent in textiles; the least was 4 per cent in electrical apparatus plants. There had been increases in three main groups--furs and leather goods; food, beverages and tobacco; and chemicals, oils ~~grains~~ and paints.

In New York, declines from March, 1929, to March, 1931, ranged from 17.5 per cent in furs, leather and rubber goods and over 14 per cent in textiles and in rubber to 1.3 per cent in the food and tobacco group, and there were no increases.

September figures for New York showed the declines from 1929 to 1931 to have been greater than was the case in March in all the industries that could be roughly compared to the Ontario groupings, but in an especially great degree in machinery and electrical apparatus factories and in tobacco. In Illinois, the September comparisons showed conditions worse than did those of March in five groups, especially so in furs, leather and rubber and in cigars and tobacco; there was a less decrease than in March in three groups—watches and jewelry, clothing and millinery, and textiles—all of which, in comparison to the other industries, had shown especial declines from March, 1929, to March, 1931, and September showed an increase greater than that of March in food, beverages and tobacco, which may have reflected largely seasonal influences.

In the figures given by the National Industrial Conference Board, women's average wage declines from March, 1929, to March, 1931, ranged from 19.1 per cent in electrical manufacturing, 18.2 per cent in chemicals, and over 16 per cent in silk and in rubber to 4.9 per cent in book and job printing; average wages had increased somewhat in one industry—news and magazine printing. Declines from 1929 to 1931 in September were greater than in March in all the groups under consideration except electrical manufacturing and silk (in which they had been especially great in March) and particularly so in news and magazine printing which had shown a slight average wage gain in March, and in certain of the textile industries in which the March declines had been moderate. (Analysis by Research Division of the Women's Bureau.)

Belgium. Family Allowances.

The system of family allowances was begun as a voluntary service soon after the war. In 1928 it was made compulsory for all manufacturers or employers who obtained contracts from the State or other public authority. By a law of August 4, 1930, payment of allowances was made compulsory for all employers except employers of persons living in the employer's own house, or of charwomen or of foreign sailors who have not been put on the same footing as Belgians by an agreement with their country of origin.

Contributions are paid by the employer into Equalization Pools, and are due for every man or woman employed whether married or single so that there is no reason for discrimination in employment against a married person. The legal minimum of allowances is as follows:

| Child | 1st | 2d | 3d | 4th | 5th and subsequent |
|------------------|-----|----|----|-----|--------------------|
| Francs per month | 15 | 20 | 40 | 70 | 100 |

The law particularly insists that the allowances are not part of the salary, but quite independent of it. The allowances can not be taken into account when fixing minimum or contractual wages. They may not be attached for debt or made over to a third party. The allowances are continued during strikes and lockouts, if the responsibility for these is attributable to the employer and not to the worker. This depends on the findings of an arbitration court. The distinction between family allowances and wages is emphasized by the rule that the two must not be paid on the same day. One provision of the law is that a wife is allowed to receive and spend for the benefit of the children the whole of the allowance without any control by the husband.

Allowances are paid in respect of children until school-leaving age, that is, 14. Extensions of benefits are granted until the age of 18 for children continuing their education in day classes and who for this reason do not earn any wages, or children apprentices in a legal manner for a trade. Allowances are granted indefinitely for children who by reason of their physical or mental condition are incapable of working. Allowances are granted not only for the children of the employee, whether legitimate or not, but also for every other dependent child, e.g., young brothers or sisters.

The estimated yearly cost to employers is 400,000,000 francs; the number of employers affected, 400,000, and of wage earners, 2,200,000. As the total population of Belgium is about 9,000,000 it will be seen that a wide field is covered. (From a

speech by Monsieur Forthomme at the Family Allowance Conference in London, April 29th and 30th, 1932. Reported in Family Endowment Chronicle, May, 1932.)

Industrial Accidents

Louisiana. Industrial Accidents in New Orleans.

Of 1,351 persons injured in New Orleans during 1931, 346 were women and 6 were girls under 18 years of age. No accidents were reported for girls under 16. The highest incidence of accidents to women occurred in the bag industry, there being reported during the year 87 such accidents, about one for each five women employed. Laundries and the manufacture of condiments and foods showed the next highest incidence of accidents, there being one for each ten women employed in each of these industries.

The most serious accidents to women in terms of time lost due to the accident occurred in textile mills. One woman in a twine mill lost 23 days due to an accident, and 12 women over 18 years of age employed in cotton mills lost an average of over 12 days each from such a cause. In the same industry 5 girls under 18 years of age lost an average of over 17 days each. One girl under 18 years of age employed in the mop and broom industry lost 20 days because of an accident. Thirty women employed in hotels lost an average of slightly over 10 days each, five women in hosiery mills an average of 8 days each, and nine women in telephone service an average of 5 days each. (Twenty-fourth Report of the Factories Inspection Department, Parish of Orleans, State of Louisiana, year ending Dec. 31, 1931.)

NOTES: UNITED STATES

Illumination and Eyesight in Industry.

A paper on this subject was presented by Le Grand H. Hardy, M.D. (director of eye service at the Fifth Avenue Hospital, New York City) before the Greater New York Safety Conference, February 24, 1932. Dr. Hardy analyzed defects in illumination, their effects on the eyes, and the way in which such defects cause accidents. He also analyzed the different usual type of eye defects found, stating that defective vision is a common condition in all stages of life. Of 50,000,000 incandescent lamps installed in our industrial plants, less than 25 per cent are so installed or equipped that they will not produce glare. Glare is but one of the defects of industrial illumination; there may be defects in intensity or quantity; in quality or spectral composition; in distribution, in steadiness, in diffusion and indirection. The Illuminating Engineering Society estimates that we are losing the services of 125,000 men annually through accidents due to poor lighting. Recent reliable surveys show that 15 per cent of industrial accidents are caused by poor lighting, with an annual direct cost of \$150,000,000. The direct cost has been shown to be but one-quarter of the total cost due to time lost by fellow employees, foremen, supervisors and other executives, damage to machinery, tools, and materials, and other interference with production. The public health cost of this condition has never been evaluated satisfactorily.

It has been demonstrated repeatedly that light is cheap compared with labor costs. The Illuminating Engineering Society and the American Standards Association have made a detailed estimate conservatively based on practical conditions; this demonstrates that if, because of good illumination, an operator saves the equivalent of only 3 minutes per day for 300 days—whether in more production, better quality of product or decreased accidents—he will offset the annual cost of the illumination.

In conclusion, Dr. Hardy recommended that every plant make an illumination survey and also test the eyesight of its workers, showing how these projects might be carried out simply and inexpensively and yet effectively. (The Sight-Saving Review, June, 1932.)

News Letter No. 89

August 1, 1932.

ACTIVITIES AFFECTING GAINFULLY EMPLOYED WOMEN

Hours and Work ConditionsUnited States. Night Work in Cotton Mills.

One year's discontinuance of productive night operations in cotton mills, to begin October 15 next, has been recommended to the industry by The Cotton-Textile Institute. Discussing the recommendation, Mr. George A. Sloan, president of the institute, noted that ever since the World War the industry has been subject to the depressing influence of the threat of overcapacity, due not so much to excess equipment as to the widespread practice of double-shift operations. This situation has resulted in intermittent work and unequal distribution of employment.

It is expected that the new policy which is recommended for the voluntary consideration of each mill, and which applies only to productive machinery (i.e. spindles in spinning mills and looms in weaving mills), will help to correct handicaps of long standing by concentrating operations and stabilizing employment on the day shift. The proponents of the recommendation believe that its observance will tend to insure more regular work and at the same time to encourage the confidence of customers and the general public in the industry's ability and determination to put its house in order.

Mr. Sloan emphasized that the recommendation constitutes a vitally necessary and progressive step for the cotton textile industry, its employees and customers and for cotton farmers, pointing out that the industry's daytime productive capacity, alone, is well in excess of the present demand for cotton goods and ample to meet any expected requirements for the near future. He expressed the opinion that the removal during the coming year of this threat of over production should stimulate buying and result in increased consumption of raw cotton.

The recommendation first appeared in the form of a unanimous resolution at a meeting of the institute's executive committee on June 16. It has since been indorsed by an overwhelming percentage of the institute's board of directors. The directors supporting the recommendation represent equipment aggregating in excess of 9,000,000 spindles. It is understood that the institute's officials and directors will immediately undertake to canvass the various mill managements as to their respective attitudes regarding the institute's proposal. (Daily News Record, July 11, 1932.)

Massachusetts, Legislation Affecting Industrial Home Work.

The Massachusetts Legislature of 1932 extended the jurisdiction of several labor laws. Most of these concerned the statutes regulating the employment of women and children. Outstanding in this new legislation is the requirement that "every person hiring, employing or contracting with a member of a family to make, alter, repair, ornament, finish or adapt for sale by labor to be performed in a room or apartment in a tenement or dwelling house, any article except wearing apparel or any part thereof or material supplied by said person, shall at such times as the commissioner may require, furnish to the department the names and addresses of the workers so hired, employed or contracted with and of all women and minors dwelling in said room or apartment, and of girls under 21 and boys under 18, their ages." The exception of "wearing apparel" made in this case is due to the fact that in another statute it is already covered.

In homes where work of this type is being done, children have been known to work in violation of the statutes regulating child employment in this State. At present when a violation of this kind comes to the attention of the department, the concern is immediately notified of its responsibility in this connection even though such employment is not in their plant. The Massachusetts statutes provide that no person shall employ a minor under 14 or permit him to work in or about or in connection with any establishment engaged in the manufacture or sale of these goods. Furthermore, the Massachusetts law requires that such persons shall not employ a child between 14 and 16 or "permit him to work" in or about or in connection with his establishment unless an employment certificate is issued to such child.

Another side to this problem appears in relation to the 48-hour law for women employed in labor in certain types of establishments. If work is taken from the place of employment to be done in the home, then the home is used for industrial purposes, and becomes for the purposes of the statute a manufacturing establishment. The advantage under the new law consists of requiring manufacturers to furnish the department with a list containing the names and addresses of the workers so hired, and of all women and minors dwelling in the room or apartment, and also in the case of girls under 21 and boys under 18, their ages. This will enable the department to maintain supervision of such places and strengthen the laws relating to women and children.

The Department of Labor and Industries was also directed by the legislature to make special study into the provisions of the law relating to one day's rest in seven for certain employees now excepted by the statute; and another requiring investigation as to the advisability of including laborers in the prevailing rate of wages law in the construction, addition to or alteration of public works. (Communication to the Women's Bureau.)

New York. Hours of Work in Canneries.

The hour law as it applies to canneries provides that "a female over 18 years of age may be employed in canning or preserving perishable products in fruit and canning establishments between the 15th day of June and the 15th day of October not more than 10 hours in any day nor more than 6 days or 60 hours in any week, but the board may adopt rules permitting such employment between the 25th day of June and the 5th day of August not more than 12 hours in any one day or more than 6 days or 66 hours in any week, if it finds that such employment is required by the needs of the industry and can be permitted without serious injury to the health of the women so employed."

The industrial board has revised the rule permitting overtime employment between June 25 and August 5, the revision being effective April 21, 1932. Of especial interest are the following new requirements, which, it is hoped, will tend to make more stable a highly seasonal industry:

The employer shall report each product to be packed during the permit period, the number of canning lines available for packing each of them; and the minimum number of men and women necessary to pack in a 10-hour day the normal output of each product in terms of what is now known as can size No. 2.

The employer shall produce satisfactory proof that he has calculated and arranged to employ the number of men and women who will be needed to pack the expected yield of each crop in a working day not exceeding a maximum of 10 hours, and that he has also calculated and arranged to employ an additional number of women who may be needed during an emergency or rush period.

The employer shall produce satisfactory proof that he has instituted arrangements to secure regular delivery of raw produce as far as possible.

(Industrial Code, Rule No. 1. Relating to the Employment of Women in Canneries.)

China. Labor Administration.

The Labor Department of the Chinese Ministry of Industry recently announced the program of work of the department. The following are the more important items of this program: (1) Investigation of labor conditions; (2) continuation of the reorganization and registration of trade unions; (3) establishment of machinery for the settlement of labor disputes; (4) promotion of the adoption of the factory council system; (5) division of factory inspection areas; (6) encouragement of workers' education; (7) drafting of regulations for workers' savings banks; (8) application of the law relating to collective agreements; (9) participation in the International Labor Conference; (10) revision of labor laws; (11) study of the problem of industrial efficiency; (12) compilation of labor statistics; (13) publication of a monthly labor review. (Industrial and Labor Information, July 11, 1932.)

Great Britain. Seating and Posture.

General principles with regard to posture: (1) Wherever seats can be used for work, they should be so arranged as to enable the work to be done in correct sitting posture; (2) wherever possible, arrangements should be made for change of posture.

Posture and health: That posture and health are closely related is common knowledge, but on the question of the extent and the manner there still exists some confusion. This is in part accounted for by the difficulties of isolating the "posture factor" from other effects of work done in a sitting position. Looking at the anatomical facts it is clear that the spinal column, composed of a large number of vertebrae, is the controlling factor not only for the support of the head but for movements of the limbs. The spine, then, should be so accommodated when the worker is seated as to enable it to exercise to advantage its control over the movements of the body. In the erect posture the spinal column presents certain curves and in order to work with the minimum of fatigue in the sitting posture these curves must be maintained, with support if necessary. Failure in this respect not only produces fatigue, but results in a deformity, which at first may be easily corrected at will, but later may become permanent.

The skeletal effects of deformity of the spinal column are too well known to need description, but the physiological effects are not sufficiently recognized. A cramped position day after day will lead to reduced chest capacity (impeding respiration) and laxity of the muscles of the abdomen, predisposing the worker to impoverishment of the blood and disorders of the digestive system.

Correct Sitting Posture: Correct sitting posture is that in which the weight of the body is carried on the bones which form the base of the pelvis, and the body held erect by muscular action which prevents sagging at the waist, the keynote of bad sitting posture. To assist the muscles the back should be supported at its most flexible part, i.e. the lumbo-dorsal region (or small of the back).

In order to avoid hampering the circulation, the angle at the knee joints should always be greater than a right angle.

Work should be so placed that stooping is reduced to a minimum.

Instruction of workers as to correct posture is as necessary as the provision of good seats. It is a waste of money to buy good seats unless training is given as to their proper use.

Seats for Work: The aim in every factory should be to avoid continuous standing wherever possible. Workers are often unnecessarily made to stand continuously at their work either through the mistaken idea that they will work harder and better, or simply because it has always been the tradition or custom of the factory to do so. It is certain that by some readjustment of tables or benches, the adoption of suitable chairs, the introduction of mechanical conveyors, or other similar means, much work now done standing could equally well be done sitting.

Two things have to be considered—the type of seat and the adjustment of the seat to the worker and the work. Details of construction and design of seats are of great importance if correct posture is to be maintained, and proper adjustment of the seats is also essential on account of individual differences in workers and the great diversity of types of work, work tables and machines. (Seats for Workers in Factories and Workshops, Welfare Pamphlet No. 6 (Second Edition) issued by the Home Office.)

Employment

Wisconsin. Training for Unemployed Women.

The Milwaukee Vocational School has arranged a two weeks' training course to prepare unemployed women for domestic work. Before the school closed its spring term the course had been conducted five times with groups ranging from 10 to 20. A few of these have been placed. The courses may be continued in the fall. (Communication to the Women's Bureau.)

Alberta. Employment of Women.

Reports on employment in trades and industries for 1931 cover 2,808 firms employing 40,030 male employees over 18; 571 males under 18; 7,793 females over 18; 229 females under 18; and 509 apprentices. The returns, when considered as to employment by months for males, for the first time since returns have been received show a steady decline during the entire year, there being practically no improvement through usual seasonal activities. December was the month of least employment, when 38,497 were employed, and January the month of greatest, when 41,507 were employed.

The returns of monthly employment of females indicate very little change in volume of employment throughout the year. Summer holiday trade and Christmas activities did, however, bring additional employment. February was the month of least employment for women when 7,234 were employed; the highest point was reached in June with 7,795 employed. Fluctuation of employment for men and women was practically the same, minimum employment being 92 per cent of maximum employment in each case. Seven-eighths (87.3 per cent) of the firms operated 52 weeks in the year and over 90 per cent (91.5) at least 40 weeks. Five and one-half per cent operated less than half a year. (Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labor of the Province of Alberta, 1931-32.)

Wages

Louisiana. Wages of Women Workers.

The Constitutional Convention of 1921 authorized the creation of a commission to investigate working conditions, hours of service and other matters in connection with women and child workers and if there ever was a time that such commission be appointed, it is now, as some of the above policies now existing are most deplorable.

This department knows firsthand that in the City of New Orleans certain restaurants and cafes are paying waitresses as little as 6 cents an hour and if the patronizing public did not tip these workers, they could not exist on the wages paid. In addition to this measly wage, the workers have to return to the employer 5 cents a day out of their wages for a so-called maid service. In addition to this, they are forced to pay 25 cents weekly for a cap or head band. They are also forced to pay 25 cents for the use of uniforms and ordinarily the worker uses two or more each week.

If the waitress works six full days, she would earn \$3.24 and after making the deductions above mentioned, she has a net balance left of \$2.19 and should she be forced to pay street car fares both ways daily, she would have a net balance of \$1.35 for a week's work.

We also know that there are certain clothing manufacturing industries and establishments making women's dresses that are paying approximately the same earnings as above mentioned and workers are penalized for every defect or for infraction of company rules until these workers earn virtually nothing and are working under certain conditions in direct violation of State laws.

Much has been said and written about the despicable sweat shop practices in some of the eastern cities but the same conditions exist in New Orleans and something should be done to eliminate these evils.

Unless the hours of service are violated or some law is disregarded in connection with employment coming under the supervision of the Department of Labor and Industrial Statistics, the commissioner has no legal jurisdiction but realizing the existence of the deplorable conditions above mentioned, he feels that in the name of humanity and common justice as well as for the protection of these unfortunates, that the lawmaking bodies should enact some law looking to the elimination of these evils and that a commission should be appointed under the authorization of the Constitution to take immediate steps with the view of rectifying conditions herein complained of and this office is more than willing to do all possible in connection therewith. (Sixteenth Biennial Report of the Department of Commissioner of Labor and Industrial Statistics of the State of Louisiana, 1931-1932.)

Alberta. Wage Rates for Women Workers.

The Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labor of Alberta gives classified weekly wage rates for men and women wage earners for the week of employment of greatest numbers in the period covered by the report. The exact date is not given. While some wage earners not covered by minimum wage rates may be included, it is of interest to compare these rates with rates set by the Minimum Wage Board. The minimum wage rate for experienced women 18 years of age and over is \$12.50 in factories and retail stores, and \$14 in hotels and restaurants (in certain towns and cities), in telephone and telegraph offices, in personal service, and in office and clerical employment. The wage statistics given in this report are for "trades and industries" and cover 2,808 firms employing 7,793 women 18 years of age and over. Rates of less than \$12 were reported for about 15 per cent (14.7 per cent) of the women, and of less than \$13 for less than one-third (32.9 per cent). Rates of \$20 and over were reported for over one-fifth (22 per cent) of the women. (Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labor of the Province of Alberta, 1931-32; and Wages and Hours of Labor in Canada, 1926, 1930, and 1931, Report No. 15 Issued by the Department of Labor.)

Industrial Accidents

Illinois. Accidents to Women.

During the calendar year 1929, 54,390 compensable accident cases were closed in Illinois. This number includes accidents occurring before 1929 but closed in 1929 and excludes any accidents occurring in 1929 that were not closed during the year. Of this number, 1,691 were accidents to women. These accidents were classified as to extent of disability as follows: Fatal, 4; permanent partial, 343; disfigurement, 60; temporary total only, 1,259; temporary partial only, 6; other disabilities, 19. Cases classified as resulting in temporary total disability only, which constitute three-fourths of all cases, are those of persons who lost time from work due to the injury, but eventually recovered completely. In the cases of permanent partial disability the person injured may or may not have lost time from work, but in all cases was left with a permanent injury such as loss, or loss of use, of a member. Some kind of permanent disability resulted from about one-fifth of all women's cases closed in 1929.

Of all women injured, over one-fourth (28.0 per cent) were under 21 years of age, 8.8 per cent being under 18. Over one-fifth (22.2 per cent) were 40 or over. Of those with permanent partial injuries, the proportion of younger women was greater, 30 per cent being under 21 and 11 per cent under 18. The proportion of those 40 and over was practically the same (21.9 per cent).

Half the women were employed in manufacturing at the time of the injury, over one-fourth (27.0 per cent) in services other than government or professional service, and over one-tenth (14.6 per cent) in trade and finance. The manufacturing group responsible for the largest number of accidents was that of metal and metal products, over one-fourth (26.3 per cent) of the women injured in manufacturing being so employed. Over half (51.8 per cent) the women in the service group were employed in hotels or restaurants.

Over one-fourth (29.9 per cent) of these accidents to women were caused by machinery and one-fourth (25.8 per cent) by falls of persons. One-eighth (12.9 per cent) were caused by handling objects and about one-tenth (9.8 per cent) by striking against objects or persons. No other one cause accounted for as much as 5 per cent of the accidents. Over half (53.3 per cent) of the accidents resulting in permanent partial disability were due to machines and one-fifth (19.8 per cent) to falls of persons. Two of the four fatal accidents were due to flames and two to motor vehicles.

The cost of accidents as reported includes compensation only, medical and funeral expenses, and the cost of artificial members being excluded. The average cost of the 1,691 closed cases was \$113. The average for fatal cases was \$1,425; for permanent partial cases, \$385; for disfigurement, \$85; and for temporary total, \$31. (Thirteenth Annual Report of the Illinois Department of Labor, July 1, 1929-June 30, 1930.)

Personnel

Miss Helen Wood of New Haven, chairman of the Department of Women in Industry for the New Haven County League of Women Voters, has just received from Commissioner of Labor, Joseph M. Tone, the appointment to fill the office of industrial investigator in the State Department of Labor and Factory Inspection. Miss Wood was the industrial secretary of the Y.W.C.A. in New Haven before accepting the office of State industrial investigator. A graduate of Columbia University, Miss Wood did graduate work in labor problems and social legislation at Washington University, St. Louis, Mo., and later worked for the Chester Knitting Mills and the Missouri State Life Insurance Company in St. Louis.

NOTES: UNITED STATES

Medical and Health Service for Small Plants.

It has been demonstrated in Philadelphia during the past five years that a small plant can have a practical medical and health program at a cost commensurate with that of larger plants. Means for supplying such a service have been worked out by the Philadelphia Health Council. Two or more small plants located near to each other share the services of an industrial nurse and physician.

According to a definite schedule, regular visits are made to each plant by the physician and the nurse, each of whom gives an amount of time to each plant which is determined by the number of employees. For every 100 employees the nurse spends two hours in the dispensary each week while the physician is there for one hour. The nurse's schedule is arranged to coincide with the physician's schedule in each

plant. It has been the experience of the council that this specified amount of time is the least with which a satisfactory medical program can be maintained.

Whenever the number of hours of service to be given makes it possible, the frequency and length of visits are so distributed that the nurse will be in each plant at least three times a week and the physician at least twice. In plants of 100 employees this arrangement is possible, but occasionally impractical unless this smaller plant is located near a larger one. But when the health service is established in a plant of 200 or more it is practical for the nurse to visit the plant every day and the physician three times a week. In addition to their regular schedules, the nurse and the physician return frequently for special redressings of accident cases or for emergency calls.

In the beginning, the physician in charge of the plant dispensary is a full-time industrial physician on the staff of the Health Council. When, after a period of one or two years, the several details of relationships of the medical service to the management and employees have been carefully worked out, the entire service is turned over to a physician in private practice, who continues to maintain approximately the same schedule as first planned and carries on in the same manner as did the Health Council physician. When the "divorcing" from the Health Council occurs, two or more plants, likewise ready to be "divorced" are at the same time turned over to this private physician. So far as possible, the plants to be "divorced" are located closely together in the same part of town, and their total number of employees approximates one thousand.

The cost to the plant of the nurse's and the physician's time while the service is maintained by the Health Council is \$4.50 per employee per year, payable monthly. As an example, therefore, the cost to a plant of 100 employees would be \$450 per year or \$37.50 per month. The Health Council assists each plant in planning and equipping a dispensary suitable to its needs. Past experience has shown that the total cost of installing and equipping a two-room clinic, including the first supply of necessary surgical and medical items, varies from \$200 to \$400 depending upon the requirements of the plant. The cost to the plant after separation from the Health Council depends on the time given by the nurse and doctor who continue the service.

A well-trained full-time industrial nurse should receive at least \$165 a month for this type of work. A competent younger private physician, who is building up a practice but who proves to have a definite interest in industrial health work, can be secured to give about 11 hours a week for an average of \$145 per month. This is a little more than \$3 per hour. However, it has been the experience of the council that in securing the services of a physician for a very few hours per week one should expect to pay \$5 an hour. (Factory and Industrial Management, July, 1932.)

ACTIVITIES AFFECTING GAINFULLY EMPLOYED WOMEN

Hours and Work ConditionsPennsylvania. Needle Guards on Power Sewing Machines.

A recent survey of the needle industries in Pennsylvania, conducted hastily by the Bureau of Inspection to obtain information for the guidance of the Industrial Board, relative to guarding point of operation on power sewing machines, revealed an interesting change of attitude toward needle guards. While there still are some manufacturers who contend that needle guards slow up production to a ruinous degree, the survey reports show an increasing number of prominent manufacturers who are thoroughly committed to this form of protecting workers from injury.

In one district fourteen shirt and dress manufacturers reported that they were efficiently using needle guards on power sewing machines. Among the establishments surveyed was one large factory which began installing needle guards in 1929. The management of this plant reported that in one year during which 1,313 women were employed on a double shift for five months, there were 22 injuries from needle punctures. These were mostly attributed to the fact that employees had removed the needle guards, which were even then being supplied but without much compulsion as to use. An intensive drive to enforce use of needle guards greatly reduced these accidents. Although this concern has operated since 1931 with a large percentage of inexperienced workers, due to labor turnover, the needle accident experience has continued to show a healthy trend of reduction, while production standards actually have improved.

Most operators, it was found in the survey, do not object to the use of needle guards for straight sewing. On fancy dresses, which require many stops, the operators complain of slowed-up production on piece work, objecting especially to interference with a full view of the work. One manager in the dress industry protested that needle guards are bad for posture and hard on the eyes.

The Bureau of Inspection, as a result of this survey, is recommending that general enforcement of needle guarding be sustained by the Industrial Board except in specific cases where it can be shown by the manufacturer that the character of the work makes use of the needle guard impractical. It is being recommended at the same time that the Bureau of Industrial Standards approach sewing machine manufacturers with a view to obtaining improvement in design at the point of operation, which may make later application of needle guards unnecessary. This, of course, would benefit only in cases of new installations. Accident investigators in the needle industry very generally believe that regulation of the needle lift can assist greatly in reducing sewing machine accidents. Much work is performed to-day on power sewing machines with a needle lift considerably in excess of actual requirements, the natural result being an increase in unnecessary hazard. (Labor and Industry, July, 1932.)

Brazil. Regulations on Work of Women in Industry.

Detailed regulations on the work of women in Brazilian industrial and commercial establishments were issued in a decree dated May 17, 1932.

Beginning with a declaration of the right of all workers to equal compensation without distinction as to sex, the decree provides that, with certain exceptions, women shall not be employed in public or privately-owned industrial and commercial establishments between the hours of 10 at night and 5 in the morning, forbids their employment in specified industries, and guarantees them safeguards during pregnancy and childbirth.

According to the regulations, women shall not be required to handle articles above a given weight, nor be employed in work carried on underground, in subterranean mining operations, quarries, private or public construction work, or in dangerous or unhealthful tasks listed in a supplementary order. However, restriction on any or all of these last may be lifted by the order of the Minister of Labor, Industry and Commerce when it is proved that the danger or unhealthful condition has been eliminated as a result of the adoption of new methods of work or manufacture or the introduction of preventive measures.

Pregnancy alone shall not be considered a justifiable cause for the dismissal of a woman from her position. Expectant mothers shall not be required to work during the four weeks prior to and following childbirth. Upon recommendation by a physician these periods each may be increased to six weeks should conditions so demand. Women nursing their own children will be granted special rest periods of a half hour each twice a day during the first six months following childbirth.

Establishments which employ 30 or more women over 16 years of age shall maintain a day nursery for the children of their employees.

During the period of from four to six weeks prior to or following childbirth women shall have the right to compensation equal to one-half of their average wages during the previous six months, and shall not be demoted because of their absence from their regular duties.

The amount of the compensation during the time it is impossible for a woman to work ordinarily will be taken from the funds established by the Institute of Social Insurance. However, if money is not available from this source, the amount must be paid by the employer. (Bulletin of the Pan American Union, August, 1932.)

Mexico. A Labor Office.

As a result of a number of requests made to the Advisory Council of the Department of the Federal District by representatives of the workers' organizations, a Labor Office recently has been established in Mexico with the object of supervising the application of the Federal Labor Code in the Federal District, and of giving particular attention to hygiene and safety in industrial undertakings, the night work of women and children, home work, and the protection of workers in other respects in accordance with the Labor Code.

The Labor Office also will deal with complaints made by workers against their employers as a result of failure to apply social legislation. (Industrial and Labor Information, July 18, 1932.)

Employment

New York. Need for Standards for Household Employment.

The Service Section of the Public Employment Center of Rochester, N.Y., opened May 1, 1931, operating for a period of eight months that year. During that period, of the 1,449 requests for workers (called orders in this analysis) received in the Service Department, 38 per cent were filled and the remaining number were cancelled. To determine why these cancelled orders were not filled, the orders which have been received and cancelled during the first two months of 1932 have been scanned carefully, since obviously causes of cancellations during these two months would be

applicable to the cancellations of 1931. During these two months, 339 orders have been received; 158 or 46 per cent were filled; 152 or 44 per cent were cancelled, and the remaining 10 per cent were still open at the end of that period. The more significant causes for cancellation were the following:

Low pay was the cause of cancellation of 29 orders. In 12 of these cases, wages were so low that no applicant was interested. Insufficient time allowance was the reason for the cancellation of 27 orders. Many people, when entering an order with the Public Employment Center, also notify their friends and other employment agencies, and sometimes insert ads in the papers at the same time. In other cases, it is found that the Public Employment Center has been called after these other sources have been tapped, and by the time the Center is able to refer people the other sources have produced results. In 15 cases, orders were cancelled because living conditions were not acceptable to the applicant. The element of low wages also entered into these orders. Distance was a factor in 11 cases. It is difficult to get applicants to consider positions where more than one carfare is entailed. The average employer does not add this extra carfare to the wage offered, and women are unwilling to deduct this amount from their earnings.

The request of employers for applicants whose qualifications were out of line with the wages offered caused cancellation in 13 instances. Even when the classification was not mentioned specifically, it was found that "requirements out of line with pay offered" honeycombed this whole group of cancelled orders. At the present time there is a strong conflict of interests between the two groups; the employers offering gradually diminishing wages, while the applicants try to make a firm stand for wages comparable to those received in the past. For this reason, it is only when the better type person really gets desperate that she is willing to consider the low wages being offered. Applicants readily available for these lower priced jobs are neither of the high type, nor have they the experience demanded by the average employer, regardless of the wage she offers.

By scanning orders frequently reopened, it is apparent that turnover is increased by very low wages, since the better qualified girl takes an underpaid job only until she can get another at a wage nearer that at which she values her services. If the employer hires a girl whose work actually is worth the low wage paid, the employer soon tires of her and discharges her hoping to get one better qualified for the same money. If she succeeds, in some cases, the better qualified girl cuts down on the quality of her work to match the amount of wage received. Both employer and worker are dissatisfied and further turnover is inevitable.

There is one element especially important in giving service to employers of household workers. The personal aspect of the relationship of employee and employer in household service is of such importance that adequate time should be given to be sure that these personal requirements are met. The question of skill is only one factor. Demand for immediate action on a request for a worker defeats the purpose of sound placement procedure. To accede to such a demand usually necessitates the sending of the first person available—the delicate question of personal rapport with the employer and her family having, in many cases, to be relegated to the background. Organization and anticipation of labor requirements are of equal if not greater importance in the home than in the field of business. (Communication to the Women's Bureau.)

Canada. Employment and Unemployment, 1931.

The 1931 census was taken to show the situation as of June 1. The census covered only cities of over 5,000 population, numbering 137 in all. For each of these was ascertained first, the number of persons 20 years of age and over, designating themselves as "workers," and second, the number of these not at work on June 1. An estimate based on a one in ten sample in thirty cities was made of the employment or unemployment of persons under 20.

Of 1,345,330 workers 20 years of age and over, one-fifth (21.7 per cent) were women. Of the male wage earners, one-fifth (21.8 per cent) were not working on June 1, 1931, and of the female wage earners one-twelfth (8.6 per cent) were so situated. It was estimated that there were nearly 200,000 workers under 20 years of age, 53 per cent being male and 47 per cent female. It was further estimated that one-fifth (20.6 per cent) of the boys and one-sixth (12.3 per cent) of the girls were unemployed. (The Labor Gazette, Canada, July, 1932.)

Wages

North Carolina Determining Wage Rates of Hosiery Workers.

Following a stoppage in the seamless hosiery mills of High Point, North Carolina, an agreement was signed by workers and employers which embodied some interesting points. We quote in part:

The return of the workers "is agreed upon with the further distinct understanding that the mill owners will conduct an investigation of the wage scales applying to these operations in the competitive trade area of High Point; and that the workers will conduct a similar survey with a view to assembling data for a review of the matter at a future date when both sides have the information needed, at which time the manufacturers agree to raise their scale to bring it in line with the level of this competition if it is found to be low. It is understood and agreed that this review and adjustment, if and where needed, will be made within a reasonable time.

"It is further understood and agreed that the manufacturers, parties to this negotiation, will not reduce wages again while orders now on hand are being filled and while business remains on no worse basis than at present and that they will seek to procure conditions that will permit them to raise pay if possible.

"It is part of this agreement that the manufacturers party to it will not reduce wages at any time in the future without giving employees notice of it at least one week in advance of the cut; and that the workers by voluntary proposal of their delegates will give similar notice of their intention to walk out or strike." (Daily News Record, Aug. 2, 1932.)

Pennsylvania. Earnings and Hours in the Knit Goods Industry.

A study of the knit goods industry was made by the Bureau of Women and Children, of the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry, in April, 1929. The establishments covered manufacture cotton underwear, rayon underwear, sweaters and bathing suits. Data on earnings and hours were secured for 2,205

men and women in 22 establishments. Of these employees, 1,719 or 77.9 per cent were women. The sample comprises 15 per cent of the employees and 10 per cent of the plants in the knit goods industries of the State.

There was a wide range in the scheduled weekly hours of work in the plants studied. Hours on the day shift ranged from 45½ to 54 a week, the median being 50 hours. The scheduled hours on the day shift usually were the same for men and women. On the night shifts where only men were employed, the weekly schedules were 50, 60, and 62 hours.

Men in the knit goods industry had a higher earning power than women. Men's median weekly earnings were \$23.82, that is, half earned more and half less than this amount. The median for women, \$15.38, was more than \$8 less than that for men. Nearly two-thirds (63.1 per cent) of the men received \$20 or more in the week studied, while only about one-fifth (21.6 per cent) of the women had weekly earnings of \$20 or more. Seven per cent of the men and 15 per cent of the women earned less than \$10. There was a considerable range in median weekly earnings for women in different occupational groups. Median earnings of \$21.44 for women in the winding department were the highest reported; the lowest, \$12.68 for those in inspecting and pressing departments. Overtime workers, both men and women, earned less money than those working their regular scheduled hours.

That more significant data might be made available regarding the actual earnings of knit goods employees, information on annual earnings for the year 1928 was secured for all employees whose names appeared on each firm's pay roll for the entire year. Data on annual earnings were secured for 254 men and 909 women. The median annual earnings for men were \$1,265, half earning more and half less; for women they were \$727. Two-thirds of the men and less than one-fifth of the women earned \$1,000 or more in 1928. Approximately 2 per cent of the men and 6 per cent of the women earned less than \$500 during the year. Women engaged in seaming and winding had the highest median earnings, \$808 and \$813 respectively. Women knitters with a median of \$658 and the women doing miscellaneous work with a median of \$647, had the lowest annual earnings of the group.

"The findings of this report serve to emphasize irregular employment as the outstanding problem in the knit goods industry. The fluctuation in employment varied somewhat in the different geographical areas but the industry as a whole did not provide a regular full-time week's work for quite one-third of the employees. With more than one-half the women and one-third the men working less than their regular hours, it was significant to find that one-fifth of the workers were working overtime. The seriousness of this irregularity of employment which was found in all occupational groups and in all geographical areas is emphasized by the decrease in earnings not only for the undertime workers but for the overtime workers as well." (Hours and Earnings of Men and Women in the Knit Goods Industry.)

Hungary. Minimum Wage.

On July 30, 1932, the Secretariat of the League of Nations registered the formal ratification by the Hungarian Government of the convention concerning the creation of minimum wage fixing machinery. (Industrial and Labor Information, Aug. 15, 1932.)

Health Problems

Nursing in a Department Store.

..... A report from a department store in Seattle states:

"The staff of a medical department in a store varies in size with the number of employees. For our personnel of 1,500 people we have a doctor and a dentist one hour daily and two full-time nurses. The physician examines all new employees, gives medical advice to all who consult him and treats all accidents which happen to employees or customers in the store building. The dentist examines all employees every six months and gives advice as to dental care needed. This enables us to maintain a high standard of dental health, for all are expected to keep their teeth in good condition.

"The daily routine of the nurse usually consists of—

- Assisting the physician
- Giving necessary first aid to all emergencies and caring for cases per order of store physician
- Making home calls
- Keeping records
- Consulting on health and dietary habits.

.....

"During the day she cares for a great many ailments and emergencies for which she has standing orders. In 1931 the report in our department read:

| | |
|---------------------------------|--------|
| Doctor's examinations..... | 2,525 |
| Dentist's examinations..... | 2,320 |
| Customers assisted..... | 315 |
| Nurses' consultations, etc..... | 16,750 |
| Home calls..... | 815 |

"A very small percentage of those examined by the physician are found unfit for employment, but a great many have some defects and the majority of these are later corrected. All are encouraged to consult the doctor whenever needed and many serious conditions and breakdowns are forestalled. Trouble is avoided frequently by building up resistance through hypodermic injections of iron, ultra-violet ray treatments, and the administration of cold serums, besides advice on diet and health habits. This close health supervision has made it possible to reduce absence and turnover, both of which are expensive to the employer as well as the employee....." (Frances Norquist, R.N., in Public Health Nursing, August, 1932.)

Diet of Substandard Workers.

Studies have determined that undernourished industrial workers are less efficient than those who are well nourished. There is a greater number of absences and a smaller amount of work accomplished by these workers.

It was arranged that a group of underweight women dependent on industrial employment should be given one tablespoonful of cod liver oil and one pint of milk daily to supplement their ordinary home ration. These were served during morning and afternoon rest periods. Data were collected on increase of body weight, decrease in number of absences, increase in efficiency at usual tasks, frequency and severity of colds and other illnesses, and menstrual difficulties. The experiment was carried on from the middle of December to the middle of May.

The group studied were 63 women employed at light muscular work. Their ages ranged from 18 to 45 years. Over 50 per cent were more than 10 per cent underweight.

Forty-five women were kept on the additional diet for a year and 18 for two years.

The average hours of absence totaled 105.3 for the year previous to the test, 68.4 for the first year, and 40.8 for the second year—a total reduction of 61 per cent for those in the two-year test.

The average efficiency for the group was 77.8 for the year previous to the test, 78.8 for the first year, and 80.1 for the second year.

During the first year the women gained an average of 2.6 pounds. At the time of the first weighing 14 suffered from menstrual irregularities. Six of these stated that the irregularities were completely corrected, six that they were benefitted, and two that there was no improvement. (Journal of Industrial Hygiene, June, 1932.)

Great Britain. Influence of Holidays on Body Weight.

In a recent investigation the National Institute of Industrial Psychology had occasion to take weekly readings of the weights of groups of operatives in three cotton mills. During the course of the investigation a holiday period of one week occurred at each of the three mills, and some interesting results were obtained on the influence of holidays on weight.

The data were analyzed by converting the successive weekly weights of each operative into a percentage of her initial weight, and averaging the percentage weights thus obtained for each mill. The numbers studied were not large, being 30 in mill One, 21 in mill Two, and 15 in mill Three. In all three mills there was a definite tendency for the weights of operatives to fall before the holiday period. The first set of readings taken after the holiday periods showed that in all three mills the operatives had gained considerably in weight as a result of a week's absence. The average percentage increase in weight during the holiday week for all three mills was 1.53 per cent, the average gain per operative being 2 pounds with a probable error of 0.13 pounds. At the end of five weeks after the resumption of work at two of the mills, the average weight was 2.05 per cent greater than in the week before the holiday period, indicating that the effect of the holiday still was being maintained.

These results, although obtained on a very small group, point the way to further research which should be undertaken to throw light on the problem of holidays. (The Human Factor. The Journal of the National Institute of Industrial Psychology, August, 1932.)

NOTES: UNITED STATES

Occupational Experience of Applicants for Work in Philadelphia.

The purpose of this study was to present information as to the nature and characteristics of the unemployed. It was confined to persons able and willing to work who were seeking employment. The study was made with the cooperation of thirty-nine establishments representing twenty different industries, and six placement agencies. A special questionnaire was filled out for each applicant for work in these establishments during the first week of March, 1929. The information secured covered personal data and data regarding the family. It also covered the employment experience of the applicant for three years.

The gross yield of the week's collection was the record of 3,838 applicants. Of these, two groups were rejected, those which did not show a complete employment

record for at least three years, and those from which was omitted more than one item of personal information. The net sample represented 1,123 persons. Of this number, 125 were single women, 30 married women, and 17 widowed or divorced women. The total of 172 women represented about 15 per cent of the whole group.

Duration of employment and unemployment, number of jobs held, and the regular occupation of the applicants, were carefully studied and correlated with personal and family data. The chief findings regarding women are summarized here.

The division according to sex, 15.2 per cent being women, does not correspond very closely to the groupings of "those usually employed" in the Census, which shows 26.3 per cent to be women. The most likely explanation of this seems to lie in the omission of domestic service and the reporting of very few in professional service, since the Census shows that a large proportion of employees in both these categories are females.

Though women had longer unemployment than had men, they had not held so many jobs as had men. The proportions of both married and single women who held one or two jobs were larger than average, while those of the women who held more than two jobs were correspondingly smaller than average. No married woman held more than four jobs and no single woman more than five.

The duration of unemployment of men was decidedly shorter than that of women applicants. The married men, although they were shown to be often out of work, tended to remain out for shorter periods than most of the other applicants. Larger proportions of women than men were out of work at all intervals of more than one month. The percentages for the three female groups (married, single, and widowed) were nearly twice as large as those for men in the five longest periods of unemployment (three months, four months, five months, six months, one year).

The comparison of numbers of times out of work with sex and marital status shows that single men lost time more frequently than any other group. Single women show a tendency to emulate the single men since they have large percentages in the groups who were out three and four times. (The classifications are from none to five times.) Married women, widows, and widowers in no instance lost time more than twice.

Occupations were classified as low, medium, and high clerical, and low, medium, and high manual. Half of the married women and nearly half of the single women had been employed on low-grade clerical jobs as their regular occupation. Women constituted half of the low-grade clerical group; one-third of the medium-grade and one-fifth of the high grade. In contrast, less than one-tenth of each of the manual groups were women.

The largest numbers of the unemployed women reported were from retail trade, the next from textiles, and following in close order came metals, clerical organizations, paper and printing, and professional service.

As a final conclusion the author states: "The group appears to constitute a labor supply which is in great part above the average quality. The enforced idleness of most of these workers is due, not to their unfitness for work, but to the inability of business and industry to absorb these capable and willing workers." In this connection the date of the study, March, 1929, should be recalled. (Occupational Experience of Applicants for Work in Philadelphia, by Burton P. Morley. A Thesis in Economics.)

ACTIVITIES AFFECTING GAINFULLY EMPLOYED WOMEN

Hours and Work ConditionsBritish Columbia. Hours of Work.

Included in the report of the British Columbia Department of Labor is the annual report of the Board of Adjustment administering the Hours of Work Act. It will be recalled that the Hours of Work Act was passed by the Legislature in 1923 and became effective on January 1, 1925. It established a normal working day of 8 hours (48 hours per week) in industrial undertakings in the province, except agriculture, with provisions for certain other exceptions under special conditions.

The 48-hour week is regarded by the Board of Adjustment as being on a sound footing, the report stating that "only in those industries not coming within the scope of this legislation, or those having been granted special exemption because of climatic or other consideration, do the hours exceed 48 in the week." (The Labor Gazette, Canada, September, 1932.)

Chile. A Ministry of Labor.

A Ministry of Labor was established in Chile by a Legislative Decree of June 6, 1932, and will deal with all matters relating to labor problems. These were formerly within the province of the Ministry of Social Welfare, which was also concerned with questions of public health; a Ministry of Health has now been established to deal with the latter. The functions of the new Ministry of Labor will be determined by a decree to be issued later. (Industrial and Labor Information, September 5, 1932.)

Great Britain. Hours and Days of Work.

The Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops in Great Britain for the year 1931 contains interesting information as to the actual hours worked in the principal industries.

The report states that the normal week of 47 or 48 hours was general, except in cases where short time was being worked on account of the depression. The 48-hour week is of such general application that employment in excess is often regarded, especially in the case of young persons, as illegal. In woolen and worsted factories and cotton doubling, however, after the departure from the gold standard, most of the mills reverted to the full legal period of employment of 55½ hours a week for protected persons (women and young persons), while in some cases the men worked much longer hours. In the nontextile industries some undertakings worked 56 hours in the week.

The report refers to the steady progress of the 5-day week, which has now been adopted in a wide variety of industries. This system of working continues to be very popular, more especially in those areas where workers travel long distances to their work. At least 100 firms engaged in a wide variety of industries and employing large numbers of workers have been found working the 5-day week in addition to those mentioned in last year's report. Some of them have worked on this system for a considerable period.

There is again very little evidence that firms who have once started this system revert to Saturday working except in a few cases where the nature of the work is such that it is inconvenient to have the factory closed on Saturdays. (Industrial and Labor Information, August 22, 1932.)

Switzerland. Improvement of Conditions Affecting Domestic Servants.

In the spring of 1930 the Federal Bureau of Industry, Trades, and Labor discussed in a conference of experts the question of the domestic servants. In compliance with the request made by the participants of this conference, a committee was appointed for the purpose of studying the lack of trained women domestic servants and the causes of this lack. The committee was also asked to present suggestions for a solution of these problems.

Under the chairmanship of Dr. Nelli Jaussi, secretary of the Swiss Association for the Study of Occupations for Women, the committee prepared a detailed report which was presented to the Federal Bureau. In that report she expressed the opinion that a larger number of trained domestic servants could be made available in Switzerland (1) if facilities are provided for training of women for domestic service and also if the housewives who employ servants are more familiar with home economics; (2) if the economic and personal conditions of the work of domestic servants are greatly improved; and (3) if the attitude of society toward domestic servants could be improved. She suggests intensive educational work among housewives, domestic servants, and the broad masses of the population; also the introduction of laws and regulations, the use of work contracts, and the establishment and spread of public dormitories for domestic servants. She considers that it is necessary to establish a temporary office which would study intensively this question for several years.

The report of the committee was published and it may be obtained from Schweizerischen Zentralstelle für Frauenberufe, Zurich, Schanzengraben 29. (Swiss Association for the Study of Women's Occupations.)

Employment.

Great Britain. Employment of Women in the Lancashire Area.

In March, 1931, the University of Manchester was invited by the Board of Trade to conduct an industrial survey of the Lancashire area and make a report which should include "(a) a survey of the present industrial position of the area; (b) the prospects of early expansion and new development, having regard particularly to new industrial developments within recent years, and (c) so far as practicable, an assessment of the prospective employment capacity of the various industries in the area as a basis for an estimate of the volume of labor likely to be surplus to the requirements of individual industries within the next few years."

The Survey Region excludes a small part of Lancashire and includes "the industrial and residential fringe of Cheshire and Derbyshire," among the principal cities in the area covered are Manchester, Blackburn, Preston, Burnley, and Rochdale. The report was submitted in February, 1932. In a brief review it is possible to give only the more outstanding facts regarding the employment of women.

The persons in the "occupiable population" are insured workers, and exclude juveniles under 16; persons over 65; those employed otherwise than in manual labor if their rate of remuneration was more than £250 per annum; persons engaged in agriculture and private domestic service; shore fishermen; outworkers; a number of those engaged by public local authorities, railways and certain public utility undertakings; nurses; and certain other public employees. The numbers of persons reported as unemployed were the averages for March, June, and September, 1931.

The female population of the area numbered over 2,000,000 in 1931 and about one-fourth—nearly 600,000—were insured as "occupiable" persons. Of these potential workers, about one-third (34.8 per cent) were unemployed. The report separates women and girls, but since all girls included were at least 16 years of age, they have been included here with women.

Lancashire is well known as the center of the English cotton industry. Over half the insured women usually were engaged in the making of cotton yarn or cloth. The other important women-employing industries were clothing—which included boots and shoes, and hats—and wholesale and retail trade, each accounting for about one-tenth of all employable women. The per cent of women unemployed in these three main industries was 45 in cotton and 14 in clothing and in trade.

The report calls attention to three peculiarities of the cotton textile industry in Lancashire. "Women very much outnumber men. Roughly speaking, there are 17 insured women workers to every 10 men in the cotton industry in Great Britain, whereas in all those industries which come under the Unemployment Insurance Acts, there are only 4 women to every 10 men. This predominance of females is largely due to their outnumbering men in the weaving industry, but, according to the Census of 1921, they also surpass in number the males in the spinning section of the industry. The second marked characteristic is the frequency with which women continue in employment after marriage. The Census of 1921 shows that 28 per cent of the females occupied in textiles in the Lancashire industrial area were married, whereas for the whole of England and Wales, only 14 per cent of females in all occupations were married. The third peculiarity, the reliance on a joint income, is attributable to a number of overlapping factors all of which are related to the fact that many of the present standard occupations in the cotton industry are women's occupations."

The family-wage situation, having elements in common with the foregoing statements, may be found in cotton manufacturing communities in this country. In 1920 over one-third (35.5 per cent) of the women in cotton manufacturing in the United States were married, the proportion being higher among the laborers than the semi-skilled workers. Further, it is of interest to compare the occupational distribution of women in the cotton industry of England with that in the United States. According to the 1921 census of population, nearly half (48.9 per cent) of the women in the industry in Lancashire, were weavers, while only 7.6 per cent were spinners (including piecers). The small proportion engaged as spinners is due to the predominance of mule spinning, which is more generally done by men than is ring spinning. The only census for the United States which gives specific occupations is that of 1910. At that time over one-fifth (22.1 per cent) of the women in the cotton industry were spinners, and less than one-third, (30.2 per cent) were weavers. According to a report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics on cotton goods manufacturing for 1920, 22 per cent of the women included were spinners and 27 per cent were weavers. (An industrial survey of the Lancashire Area, made for the Board of Trade by the University of Manchester.)

Wages

United States. Earnings and Cost of Living of Business Girls.

At the request of the Business and Professional Assembly of the Young Women's Christian Association, hundreds of business girls kept personal accounts of income, savings, and expenses through September, October, and November, 1931, to provide up-to-date knowledge of income and expenses to aid other young women. Over 300 of these account books have been analyzed, and the findings presented by Benjamin R. Andrews in an article entitled "The Budgeteers" appearing in the Woman's Press, September, 1932. Most of the 312 young women whose accounts are here analyzed did some form of clerical work; 29 were in professional service, chiefly teaching. Their earnings ranged from less than \$10 to over \$45 a week, with a median of \$23.01 (half receiving more and half less, than that amount). The following table indicates the numbers of young women whose earnings came within certain classified wage groups:

| | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----------------------|----|----------------------|----|
| Less than \$10..... | 2 | \$20 but not \$25... | 93 | \$35 but not \$40... | 26 |
| \$10 but not \$15... | 17 | \$25 but not \$30... | 56 | \$40 but not \$45... | 8 |
| \$15 but not \$20... | 83 | \$30 but not \$35... | 29 | \$45 but not \$50... | 1 |

As to living costs, Mr. Andrews says: "A broad view of their use of money is best obtained perhaps by presenting the average expenditures of a subgroup of 28 persons who all earned from \$20 to \$24.99, all lived in cities of over 250,000 population and all lived at home... The average regular wage of this representative subgroup was \$22.33 a week; it was supplemented by extra earnings or slight interest receipts so that total average income was \$22.51; in addition, savings were used and loans or gifts received so that the total average money for use per week during the 13 weeks of the account keeping was \$23.12. This group on the average put \$2.12 a week in its savings account, probably largely for deferred spending, and 80 cents a week into investment and life insurance, making the total of savings and investment \$2.92 a week. The average operating expenses included board, \$7.41; lunch, \$1.09; carfare, \$1, and emergencies (largely items of additional family expenditure for those living at home) \$1; making average total operating expenses \$10.50 per week. On the average, the group spent for clothing \$3.71 a week, and for repair, cleaning and laundry, 36 cents a week, or a total of \$4.07 for clothing. Their advancement expenses included 35 cents a week for education, 75 cents a week for health; \$1.42 a week for gifts, 96 cents for recreation; 8 cents for clubs; 42 cents for toilet articles and personal care; or a total of \$4.19 per week for advancement or personal expenses. Finally, their sundry or unclassified expenses were 58 cents a week, making the total of savings and expenditures accounted for, \$22.27."

Presented in another way, this group spent nearly half (45.5 per cent) of their income for operating expenses; over one-sixth for clothes and for advancement and personal care (17.6 per cent and 18.1 per cent respectively); and saved or invested about one-eighth (12.6 per cent).

Louisiana. Earnings of Waitresses in New Orleans.

The New Orleans Association of Commerce reports a survey of seven principal restaurants in the city, which it estimates employ approximately 60 per cent of the women in this occupation in New Orleans. (The 1930 census reports 1,098 waitresses in New Orleans and 2,625 in the State of Louisiana.) Managers of the seven establishments were interviewed, and a number of waitresses questioned, and the association reports an average wage of \$1 a day with two meals provided, and an average week's working schedule of 6 days of 8 hours each. Uniforms are reported to be provided in the majority of the restaurants, and sold at cost in others, while in six of the seven establishments the management has the uniforms laundered.

Two recent State surveys of the Women's Bureau report wages of waitresses (in each case including a very few counter girls). In Florida, in the autumn of 1928, the median week's wage of 651 white waitresses was \$5.75. Of these, 155 worked in year-round establishments and had a median wage of \$9.20 a week. (One-half earn more, one-half less, than the median.) In North Dakota, in the early part of 1931, reports for 234 waitresses showed a median of \$9.33 in the week. Comparison with 1930 census data show that these reports covered, respectively nearly one-fifth and slightly over one-fourth of the women so employed in these States (in the case of Florida for white women alone). In no study of waitresses can the amounts received in tips be very adequately estimated. (Communication to the Women's Bureau, and Women's Bureau data.)

Quebec. Minimum Wage.

The Women's Minimum Wage Commission of Quebec has decided to hold a conference at the end of September to investigate the wages and working conditions of female employees in restaurants. It will be recalled that the provincial legislature, at its session this year, amended the Women's Minimum Wage Act to include those employed in "commercial establishments," in addition to those in industrial estab-

lishments who were already provided for under the Act. Restaurant helpers are stated to form the largest section of the commercial establishments group. If the commission should find that existing wages are insufficient, a conference will be held later for the purpose of fixing a minimum wage. (The Labor Gazette, Canada, September, 1932.)

Health Problems of Employed Women

New York. Occupational Dermatitis.

Occupational dermatitis due to handling plants, vegetables and fruits is discussed by May R. Mayers, M.A., M.D., in the New York Industrial Bulletin, August, 1932. "Much has already been written and said about occupational dermatitis in which the general factors of personal susceptibility and idiosyncrasy have been stressed. This brief article will not, therefore, attempt to discuss this phase of the matter at all; but will confine itself to a brief resumé of some of the recent cases which have been reported as due to flowers, vegetables and fruits.

"There have been a number of typical cases among florists, for example, due to handling chrysanthemums, jonquils, narcissus and tulips especially. A few cases were reported as due to handling "plants"—the specific variety not having been specified. Chrysanthemum dermatitis appears to be the commonest among florists, and some interesting observations have been made with reference to it. For instance, it has been shown that the under surface of the leaf is more irritant than the upper surface, the former giving a more positive patch test than the latter. The petal may produce an erythema, but does not usually cause sufficient irritation to produce vesicles such as are produced by the leaf. The stronger smelling varieties of chrysanthemums appear to be more injurious than those which are milder. It is of further interest that extracts from some varieties of chrysanthemums are used in insect powders, and workers in the factories where these powders are made, tend to contract a typical dermatitis. The chemical substance believed to be responsible for this dermatitis is known as pyrethrum—a natural ester.

"Orange and lemon peel have been responsible for a number of recent cases of occupational dermatitis. In some of these cases where patch tests were performed both with the fruit juice and the peel, it was observed that it was the peel and not the juice that was responsible for the dermatitis. Indeed, in a few instances, it was merely the outermost portion of the skin that gave a positive skin test. The chemical substance responsible for the dermatitis in these cases is believed to be the essential oil—Limonene. Limonene is a terpene which is in the same hydrocarbon group as turpentine; and the dermatitis which it initiates appears to resemble that produced by turpentine.

"An interesting case of lettuce dermatitis of unusual severity has been reported in a salad maker. Patch tests with lettuce were positive. In order to effect a cure in this case, it was necessary not merely to eliminate all contact of the skin with the lettuce, but it was also necessary to remove lettuce from the diet...

"Occupational dermatitis is contracted from time to time by workers handling shoe leather. There appears to be some difference of opinion as to the cause. Some believe the injurious substances to be free chromic acid or the water soluble dye-stuffs left over from the dyeing process. Others hold the sumac responsible—this being used in the tanning process...

"Arsenic or other substances used as sprays on flowers or plants are quite as capable of setting up dermatitis as the plants themselves. In all cases a patch test will provide information as to the true cause. In making such tests, therefore, the possibility that the spray rather than the plant may have been responsible must not be overlooked.

"In closing, it might be well to emphasize again the fact that in all of these cases—as in all cases of occupational dermatitis—there appear to be tremendous differences in individual susceptibility."

Great Britain. Industrial Employment of Mothers.

The final report of the Departmental Committee on Maternal Mortality and Morbidity (Ministry of Health, Great Britain) has been issued recently, and has been reviewed in an editorial in *Mother and Child* (September, 1932), part of which is quoted here: "In the Interim Report published two years ago, particulars were given of 2,000 cases investigated by the Committee, and now a further 3,800 cases are reported upon, making a total of 5,800 deaths of women in childbirth, the causes of which have been subjected to the closest investigation possible within the limitations of the Committee..."

"On the much argued question of the industrial employment of expectant mothers, the Committee do not appear to have discovered any valid reason why a pregnant woman should not perform work of some kind up to the last week or two of pregnancy, but the work should be of a suitable nature. It should not involve heavy lifting or prolonged periods of standing, nor should it involve the stress and discomfort of getting to and from work during rush hours. Ordinary factory work is usually inadvisable during the last six or eight weeks of pregnancy. With observations on these lines to direct one's views, the practicability of a satisfactory employment for the expectant mother is seen to be very much limited, however much she and her employer may desire it. Industrial work, the Committee point out, is often lighter and less fatiguing than the household duties that would fall to her lot if she stayed at home. If the cessation of factory work were to be made compulsory, this would constitute a real hardship, involving a loss of wages, with the consequent diminution in good food and perhaps in exercise, upon both of which an expectant mother depends for her health. The dangers of industrial employment to expectant and nursing mothers are of long range. Maternal work may have bad effects upon the child, leading, as it may do, to artificial feeding, which, if carried out on wrong lines, may be an important factor in the production of rickets. Rickets in girl children may be a cause, as we know, of malformed pelvis, leading in turn to obstetric difficulties. Thus it is not difficult to appreciate that industrial employment of mothers may contribute to maternal mortality and morbidity in the next generation..."

NOTES: UNITED STATES

Sale of Milk to Factory Workers.

On June 25, the Kellogg Co. of Battle Creek, Michigan, inaugurated the plan of selling milk to its factory employees. It will be recalled that this plant has been working on a schedule of four 6-hour shifts since December, 1930. No regular rest periods are given but women who wish to purchase milk are systematically relieved and given time to do so. A recent communication to the Women's Bureau indicates that the plan has been appreciated. The day following its beginning, 169 half pints of milk were sold. Thereafter the increase in sales was fairly steady until, on July 16, the last date reported, 616 half pints were sold.

ACTIVITIES AFFECTING GAINFULLY EMPLOYED WOMEN

EmploymentUnited States. Age of Gainful Workers.

A recent release from the Bureau of the Census gives number and proportion of persons gainfully occupied, by age and sex, for the United States and for each State, with a comparison with 1920 for the United States. These figures bring out several striking facts in connection with women's employment. The age group employing the greatest numbers of both sexes is that of 25 and under 45 years, in which 42.3 per cent of the women and 46.7 per cent of the men are found.

The preponderance of the young among the gainfully employed women is shown from the fact that 37.3 per cent were under 25, and 20.3 per cent 45 and over, while of the men only 20.5 per cent were under 25 and 32.7 per cent were 45 or over. In this connection it is interesting to note that the number of employed women under 25 has increased 12.4 per cent since 1920, while that of men has increased only 6 per cent. This increase comes after the age of 17, however, since the employment of young persons of both sexes under 16 shows a marked decrease, that for girls being greater in proportion than for boys.

Another fact that serves to emphasize the youth of the employed women is that of all the women in each age group, those 20 and under 25 had the largest proportion employed, those 18 and 19 the next; while of the men, those 25 and under 45 had the largest proportions employed, those 45 and under 65 the next.

A distinct shift in the importance of various age groups both in the population and among employed persons is shown in the following table:

| Age | Per cent increase since 1920 | | | |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|-----------------------|
| | Male | | Female | |
| | Popula- tion | Gainfully occupied | Popula- tion | Gainfully occupied |
| Total 10 years of age and over..... | 18.1 | 15.2 | 20.6 | 25.8 |
| 10 but not 16..... | 14.7 | 1/ 35.5 | 14.0 | 1/ 40.5 |
| 16 but not 20..... | 22.8 | 0.7 | 21.8 | 3.2 |
| 20 but not 25..... | 17.9 | 16.5 | 16.5 | 29.8 |
| 25 but not 45..... | 13.8 | 14.1 | 17.5 | 33.0 |
| 45 but not 65..... | 22.6 | 22.9 | 29.4 | 41.6 |
| 65 and over..... | 33.9 | 29.9 | 35.0 | 35.2 |

1/ In this case there was a decrease.

The foregoing table shows that the proportional increase in the employment of women in all groups 20 and over was greater than their population increase, while this was true for men only at ages 25 to 45 and 45 to 65. The greatest proportional increase in the employment of women had been at 45 but not 65, of men at 65 and over. In all groups 16 and over, the increase in employment was proportionally greater for women than for men.

The table also gives evidence of increased length of life, since for both sexes the proportional increase in population was greater at the ages 45 and over than at younger ages.

United States. Employment of Married Women.

Complete data on the marital status of gainfully occupied women 15 years of age and over are now available in a release issued by the Bureau of the Census, October 12, 1932. Of all employed women, over half (53.9 per cent) were single (including marital status unknown), while nearly 29 per cent were married. Of all women 15 years of age and over, nearly one-fourth (24.8 per cent) were employed, while of married women only about one-ninth (11.7 per cent) were employed.

Nearly one-third of employed married women (36.1 per cent) were in domestic and personal service, nearly one-fifth (19.8 per cent) in manufacturing, over one-tenth (11.1 per cent and 11.8 per cent respectively) in trade and in clerical occupations, and nearly one-tenth (9.2 per cent) in agriculture. In all occupational groups but agriculture, forestry and fishing many more single (including unknown) than married women were employed, though the proportion of the employed married women who were in domestic and personal service in the manufacturing industries, in trade, and in agriculture, was greater than the proportion of all women in these occupational groups.

Comparison of 1930 with 1920 shows an increase in employment of all women of over 25 per cent, and of employed married women of nearly 60 per cent. The increase in the female population 15 years of age and over was only slightly less than the increase in numbers of married women, the percentages being 21.8 and 22.8 respectively.

United States. Industrial Nurses.

Public Health Nursing, October, 1932, contains a report based on tabulations received from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, which gives the number of trained nurses employed by industry throughout the United States at the date of the 1930 census. A total of 2,942 female trained nurses and 247 male trained nurses were employed at that date.

The industrial distribution of female trained nurses was as follows:

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-------|
| All industries..... | 2,942 |
| Extraction of minerals..... | 33 |
| Manufacturing and mechanical..... | 1,902 |
| Transportation and communication..... | 205 |
| Trade..... | 701 |
| Hotels..... | 69 |
| Miscellaneous..... | 32 |

Hours and Work Conditions

Chile. Saturday Half Holiday and Overtime.

By an act of June 22, 1932, the Chilean Government has made the Saturday half-holiday compulsory in all industrial undertakings except those exempted from the application of the weekly rest under the regulations of January 16, 1918. This exemption covers those industries in which interruption of work is impossible for technical reasons, and undertakings the stoppage of which would involve serious prejudice to the community, such as railways and slaughter-houses. (No statement was made as to wage.) By legislative decree of June 22, 1932, the overtime hitherto authorized in certain cases by the act relating to contracts of employment and the 8-hour day has been prohibited. The object is to reduce unemployment. (Industrial and Labor Information, September 19, 1932.)

France. Night Work.

On July 4, 1932, M. Reille-Soult again introduced in the French Chamber of Deputies his bill to lengthen the night period during which employment is prohibited, so as to abolish the two-shift system for women and children. M. Reille-Soult's bill would amend Section 22 of the Labor Code, which authorizes the employment of women and children between 5 a.m. and 10 p.m., so that all work by such persons between 8 p.m. and 6 a.m. shall be prohibited except in cases in which the employment of women at night is authorized by administrative regulations after consultation with the occupational organizations concerned. (Industrial and Labor Information, September 12, 1932.)

Italy. Overtime.

The Italian Ministry of Corporations recently issued new instructions to factory inspectors in regard to exemptions under the act relating to hours of work. The circular states that in applying the act relating to hours of work those authorities which, like the factory inspectors, have the duty of supervision and the power to grant exemptions should keep in view the necessity of relieving the congestion of the labor market so far as possible. Factory inspectors, when expressing their views as to the granting of exemptions subject to administrative authorization, should consider whether the nature of the work calls for such exemptions, and whether the organization of the undertaking would make it possible, without increasing costs or endangering the normal development of production, to meet special economic needs by the engagement of labor on the local market rather than by the grant of exemptions from the normal system of hours of work established by the act. (Industrial and Labor Information, September 26, 1932.)

Wages.

United States. Wages of Women Workers.

The executive committee of the 1932 Industrial Assembly of the Y.W.C.A. as it worked on the important issues requiring attention at Minneapolis came to the conclusion that one urgent question has to do with the effect of the depression on wages. Many girls were already realizing something of the depression in their own reduced pay envelopes but they did not know how widespread the cuts were or how acute. They, therefore, asked the Laboratory Division to collect some facts for discussion at the assembly. An informal questionnaire was sent out during the first three months of 1932 and brought 603 replies from widely scattered sections and from many different types of industries. The results are of interest to more than the few who could discuss them at the assembly, both because they reveal the present limited resources of industrial women to-day and because they show us the shrinkage in purchasing power upon which all business is dependent.

The 603 who sent in the histories of their pay envelopes for the last year are a fairly representative sample of the industrial membership. Of the 603, the largest single group (177) were household employees; 80 were textile workers, 71 were garment workers, 36 in the electrical industry, 32 in stores, 28 in the food industries, 23 in shoe factories and smaller numbers in the metal trades, in rubber factories, in hotels and restaurants, laundries, printing establishments and many miscellaneous trades.

From all over the United States the histories came, although the largest numbers came from the highly industrialized sections. All those who sent in the questionnaire were asked to tell the amount in their last pay envelope. The results, therefore, do not indicate whether these amounts were for full- or part-time work. It is evident from the wages reported that many of these girls have been on part time. The important fact, however, is that this is what there was for them to live on.

The median rate for all included is \$11.13 (half earning less and half earning more), and that for the largest single occupation group, the household employees, is \$10.54. The latter amount does not include room and board so that it shows a rate actually somewhat higher than for the total group. The following table gives the wages paid to these 603 women during the early months of 1932:

| | | | |
|-------------------|-----|-------------------|-----|
| Up to \$5..... | 8% | \$15-\$19.99..... | 18% |
| \$5-\$9.99..... | 32% | \$20-\$24.99..... | 5% |
| \$10-\$14.99..... | 36% | \$25-\$29.99..... | 1% |

Half of these women are getting less than \$11.13 (the median) and 74 per cent are getting under \$15 which shows that wages are dropping down below anything current in recent years. Information also was secured as to wages received a year ago.

Many of us comfort ourselves these days when we hear of such facts by thinking of lower prices and a falling cost of living. There has, of course, been a drop in the cost of living since the depression began, and between December, 1931, and December, 1930, a decline of about 9.2 per cent. At the same time the wage of this group had declined from a median of \$14.83 for that received a year back to a median of \$11.13, a drop of 24.9 per cent. This means, of course, that there was a real drop in the standard of living during the last year.

Of 584 women reporting wages for both 1930 and 1931, 35 had an increase in earnings and 107 were earning the same. The remaining 442, almost three-fourths, reported reductions ranging from \$1 to \$15 or more, the median being just under \$5. The lowering of earnings by 10 per cent—for this group an average of about \$1.50—would have more than equalled the reduction during the year in cost of living, yet the median loss in earnings, instead of \$1.50 was \$4.93. (Grace L. Coyle, in The Woman's Press, October, 1932.)

Massachusetts. Minimum Wage.

A minimum rate of \$12.50 a week for women and girls employed throughout the State in the pocketbook and leather goods occupation is provided by a decree entered August 17, 1932, by the Minimum Wage Commission. This decree became effective October 3, 1932.

Under the decree the minimum rate applies to women 18 years of age or over who have had one year's experience in the occupation, one month of which was in a particular factory; for employees under 18 years of age with the required qualifications of experience, except as to age, not less than \$11.25 a week. For learners and apprentices, irrespective of age, not less than \$8 a week for the first six months; and not less than \$10 a week after six months' experience.

The entrance of this decree brings 22 occupations in the State under minimum wage decrees. (Communication to the Women's Bureau.)

Wisconsin Minimum Wage.

On June 8, 1932, the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin issued a new minimum wage order, having decided that there should be approximately a 10 per cent reduction in basic wage rates. Minimum wage orders in Wisconsin apply only to minors under 21 years of age.

The new order sets the hourly rates for minors 17 years of age and over as follows:

| | |
|---|------------|
| Experienced employees in cities with a population of 5,000 or more... | 22½ cents. |
| Experienced employees, elsewhere..... | 20 " |
| Inexperienced employees during the first 3 months in the industry.... | 16 " |
| Inexperienced employees during the second 3 months in the industry... | 18 " |

(Communication to the Women's Bureau.)

Industrial Accidents and Health Hazards

United States. Atmospheric Conditions in Textile Plants.

C. O. Sappington, M.D.; Dr. P.H., Director of Division of Industrial Health, National Safety Council, Chicago, delivered an address at the last National Safety Congress on the subject of health hazards in the textile industry. According to the 1930 census the industry employs nearly 938,000 operatives and laborers, nearly half of whom are women.

We quote in part from Dr. Sappington's address, omitting any discussion of the hazards involved in the use of dyes and other chemical substances to which few if any women are exposed.

"Perhaps the best brief summary ever given of the health hazards in the textile industry was that written by Doctor Milton J. Rosenau of Harvard University:

The principal conditions which affect health in the textile industries are working in a dusty atmosphere which is often kept very moist and usually very warm in order to keep the fiber pliable and workable. Working in an atmosphere which is excessively moist and frequently very warm, and further, containing an excessive amount of organic dust, subjects the workmen to artificial and unnatural conditions which can not be conducive to health. Presumably the heat and moisture predispose to rheumatic states and inflammatory conditions of the respiratory tract which are aggravated by the irritation of the fibrous dust. It is believed that workmen so exposed are more prone to contract common colds, bronchitis, pneumonia, tuberculosis, and other inflammatory diseases of the respiratory tract.

"In a study made by the Workers' Health Bureau of New York City, an examination of a small group of textile workers showed the following defects and abnormal conditions occurring in order of greatest frequency as named: (1) anemia; (2) throat irritations, coughs and colds; (3) headaches; (4) digestive disorders; (5) muscular pains and rheumatism; (6) decayed teeth and pyorrhea; (7) high blood pressure; (8) respiratory diseases, including active and suspected tuberculosis; and (9) skin affections, including rashes and irritations.

"A great deal of attention has been given to the study of tuberculosis in the textile industry. For instance, 25 cases of pulmonary tuberculosis were found among 404 workers examined. In making comparisons with other organizations this amounts to 12 times the percentage found among 16,662 persons examined by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company about ten years ago; and 6 times the amount of tuberculosis found by Doctor George M. Price in his examinations of 50,000 garment workers. It is also significant that tuberculosis has decreased among metal grinders, molders, founders, and casters; plumbers, and hatters, to a greater extent than among employees in the textile industry. For instance Kober comments that 'in Massachusetts the reduction in death rate from pulmonary tuberculosis during recent years has been much less in the four chief textile centers, than in the State in general.' According to the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, the tuberculosis death rate for textile employees of all ages is 22 per cent for males, and 35.5 per cent for females, as against an average of 14.8 per cent for the general population. . . .

"Tuberculosis has been properly considered a partly-occupational disease, that is to say, it results from a combination of factors which may be both occupational and nonoccupational. It should also be explained that tuberculosis is a germ disease and can not be caused primarily either by industrial or nonindustrial environmental factors. However, in placing the responsibility for a high incidence of tuberculosis, a detailed study of both working and home conditions should be made, along with a survey of the habits and the financial status of the employees concerned.

"In addition to the influence of organic dusts, in the production of catarrh of the respiratory passages and other respiratory abnormalities, adequate consideration must also be given to the influence of high temperature and high humidity which surely favor functional troubles in the beginning and later, anatomical derangement of the respiratory system.

"Added to this must also be considered the necessity of maintaining a standing position for long hours, and other factors which may induce overfatigue.

. . . .

"The greatest need in the textile industry, in considering health hazards and sickness experience, is the acquisition of more accurate knowledge and experience. This can be accomplished through the use of the following suggestions as a basis for acquiring this information and experience:

1. The inauguration of health service in the various textile groups, providing for employment examinations, periodic reexaminations, including advice on physical defects found; a first aid and dispensary service, which will help to prevent loss of time from work; and an inspection service which will embrace a study of the health hazards incident to the various processes and substances used in certain individual groups.
2. Special studies on the incidence of tuberculosis throughout the various groups in the textile industry
3. Special investigations and research regarding the use of systems of artificial humidification and temperature control
4. Studies in engineering revision which will permit of successful adaptation of exhaust systems of ventilation to be applied to special processes."

Ohio. Industrial Health Hazards.

A recent study of Ohio vital statistics showed that in mechanical and manufacturing industries the tuberculosis death rate for females was 118.1 as compared to 96.6 for males, for the year 1929. In 1930 there were 487 deaths from tuberculosis among the 904,286 males employed in this group, but there were 490 deaths among the 143,873 females so employed, or a comparative rate for the latter of nearly 6 to 1.

In a similar manner the other leading causes of disability and death assume great prominence. One might consider that the industrial depression has greatly modified these relations, but if the number of reports of occupational diseases received from the physicians of the State are any criterion, such is not the case. The reasons for this are of course only surmise: Those who are working are doing so more intensely, sometimes with much overtime; the state of nutrition is decreasing; domestic overcrowding is increasing, etc.

The attack upon this situation can only be partly successful when made by health officials alone. There are too many factors involved. If features of industrial hygiene alone are considered, four common hazards of work life appear: (1) Faulty air hygiene—particularly overheating of ordinary working interiors which is almost universal in the cooler seasons in American shops, factories, stores, offices, etc.; (2) fatigue from innumerable causes and exposures, some of which have been worked out; (3) dust, which is associated with about 10 per cent of all employments and invites lung diseases as well as upper respiratory afflictions; and (4) poisons, particularly the mineral poisons like lead, but also the volatile solvents like petroleum and coal-tar derivatives, paints, enamels, lacquers, etc., and irritants which affect the skin and too often the mucous membranes.

At present Ohio compensates 21 occupational diseases just as though they were industrial accidents, but the total number is legion. In fact, some 200,000 organic chemicals alone have yet to be investigated from a medical viewpoint. (Ohio Health News, published by the State Department of Health.)

October 1, 1932,

Pennsylvania. Infection in Industrial Accident Cases.

The Bureau of Statistics of the Department of Labor and Industry recently completed a tabulation showing the rate of blood poisoning in compensable industrial accident cases. This covering the experience for the 10 years 1921-1930, shows an average rate of infection for all industries of 5.6 per cent.

In 5 industries, the rate of infection is found to exceed one in every ten cases. All of these employ considerable numbers of women, though the data in this case are not given by sex. The rate of infection in the cases compensated in these 5 industries during the year 1930 was as follows:

| | |
|-----------------------------|---------------|
| Clothing..... | 17.7 per cent |
| Hotels and restaurants..... | 15.4 |
| Leather and rubber..... | 13.7 |
| Textiles..... | 11.9 |
| Food..... | 10.4 |

The consistently high rate of infection for these five industries in which minor accidents are common and serious accidents rare seems to offer conclusive evidence that the pin-prick injury in the needle trades, the minor burns and cuts in the hotel, restaurant and food industries, the punctures and abrasions from flying shuttles in the textile trades, and the cuts and abrasions from knives and hides in the leather industries do not receive the immediate medical attention that is of much vital importance in the prevention of septic infection. (Labor and Industry, Pennsylvania, August, 1932.)

Great Britain. Industrial Accidents to Women.

During the year 1931 there were reported to the department of inspection of factories and workshops 755 fatal and 112,494 nonfatal accidents to workers. An accident as included in the report is defined as one "which is either fatal or disables the workman for more than three days from earning full wages for the work at which he was employed." Of the fatal accidents, 733 occurred to males and 22 to females. Of these 13 occurred to females in textile industries, 7 in nontextile manufacturing, and 2 were of a group classified by place of occurrence rather than by industry. Of the nonfatal accidents, 14,873 were accidents to females, 10,001 adults and 4,872 young persons.

The greater number of these accidents to women occurred in manufacturing industries, less than 300 being classified not by industry but by place of occurrence, such as docks, warehouses, or other buildings. Excluding this last group the following discussion concerns the 14,600 nonfatal accidents to females which are classified by industry. The proportion which young persons formed of all injured females varies considerably from industry to industry. They form one-fourth of the group reported from the textile industries and one-third from nontextile industries. They form 43 per cent of those injured in the light metal industries, 40 per cent of those in the wearing apparel industries, and 39 per cent of those in the pottery and glass industries.

Textiles are found to have accounted for 28 per cent of the 14,600 accidents to females which are classified by industry; 12 per cent occurred in the food industries.

nearly 11 per cent in the light metal trades, nearly 8 per cent in the wearing apparel industries. If all metal industries are combined, electrical engineering, the making of machinery, the making of vehicles, etc., as well as the "light metal trades," the group is found to form one-fourth of the total. (Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops, Great Britain, 1931.)

PERSONNEL

Miss Charlotte Carr has recently assumed the duties of Director of Bureau of Inspection in addition to her position as Deputy Secretary of the Department of Labor and Industry of Pennsylvania. (Communication to the Women's Bureau.)

NOTES: FOREIGN

Great Britain. Women Factory Inspectors.

The Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops in his annual report for 1931 makes the following statement regarding the status of women inspectors:

"The second great change which has been brought about during my tenure of office is the reorganization of the department by which the separate branch of the Women Inspectors was abolished, and men and women placed on a similar footing. The change was decided upon shortly before I became Chief Inspector, after the whole question had been considered by a Departmental Committee. It was found that the old system led to overlapping and consequent friction within the department, and to confusion and irritation amongst employers arising from dual visits. It was recognized too that most of the work of inspection can be done equally as well by women as by men. The two branches were therefore amalgamated and a proportion of women were appointed to each grade of the inspectorate. The position was reviewed by a second Departmental Committee in 1929. They arrived at the unanimous conclusion that the new system had worked satisfactorily and recommended still closer coordination of the work. Accordingly a common seniority list has been formed, including men and women in each grade, and men and women are now recruited on a common basis and at a common examination.

U.S. Department of Labor
WOMEN'S BUREAU
Washington

News Letter No. 93

December 1, 1932

ACTIVITIES AFFECTING GAINFULLY EMPLOYED WOMEN

Hours and Work Conditions

United States. Night Work of Women in Textile Mills.

The directors of the Cotton Textile Institute in a closed session held November 15 in Spartanburg, S.C., reaffirmed the board's position of opposition to night work for women and minors and adopted resolutions referring the problem to manufacturing groups and advocating a shorter work week.

Mr. George A. Sloan, president of the Institute, said, "I am hopeful of the future. The textile industry occupies a unique position in comparison with other industries because of the unusually fine demand for its products. It rests with the mill executives as to how they will supply this demand to the best advantage - through carefully ordered operation giving steady employment to many or through maximum production which would close the mills quickly." (Christian Science Monitor, Nov. 16, 1932.)

Pennsylvania. Legal Working Hours of Women.

In the course of a public statement on the policy of the Inspection Bureau, Charlotte E. Carr, the new director, called attention to the fact that the hour laws were the ones most frequently violated by employers. "The last 100 prosecutions covering 231 violations," she said, "show that the woman's law cases covered 69 per cent of the total, and the child labor law cases covered 27 per cent. These are 96 per cent of the total. There were only 3 safety prosecutions and one for violation of the bakery law. The bulk of law violation takes place against the legal rights of the women and children. There were 166 violations of the woman's law and 65 violations of the child labor law covered by the last 100 prosecutions brought by the Department."

"It is tragically humorous at this time when the efforts of the nation from the President downward are bent toward securing shorter hours and splitting-of-work among the unemployed that 58 out of 100 violations in Pennsylvania are offenses against the hours laws for women and children. Many of these offenses took place in factories where the work on hand could have been done by a larger staff without resorting to these violations. The efforts of the Federal and State governments to supply work relief on public projects can easily be outweighed in effectiveness by employers who are unwilling to recognize that the social need at present is for a reasonable amount of work spreading among as great a number of unemployed as possible."

In this connection it is interesting to recall the statement made in July by Dr. A. M. Northrup, secretary of the Department of Labor and Industry in the same state. "During the past year, largely because of the depression, the demand for the services of the Department of Labor and Industry has increased between 20 and 25 per cent." (Pennsylvania Labor and Industry, July and October, 1932.)

Wisconsin. Night Work of Women

Requests have been made by certain industrial interests that the order prohibiting work of women after 6 p.m. be modified. After a hearing in September and a study of data on the subject, the Industrial Commission issued an order allowing

certain modifications. In an introductory statement the Commission says:

"The general order of the commission prohibiting night work for women was entered on June 29, 1917. During the fifteen years that have elapsed since then, which included the war period, when demand for production was most insistent, this order has met with general acceptance, so that the burden of proof rests upon those who would disturb it. The petitioners have not made a showing that there is any general demand for modification of this general order, or that there is any general disagreement with its reasonableness. However, they have argued that in specific instances certain employers could employ more persons if they were permitted to employ women after 6.00 p.m."

Modifications allowed are carefully safeguarded as follows:

"During this period of widespread unemployment upon individual application, the commission will permit women to be employed after 6.00 p.m. but not later than 10.00 p.m. for not more than eight hours per day, nor for a period which extends more than twelve hours from beginning to end. Such special orders shall remain in effect until January 1, 1934, or until factory employment as a whole has increased twenty-five per cent above the level of October 15, 1932, whichever date is earlier. They will be entered only upon the following showing being made by the individual employer:

1. That he has made every reasonable effort to regularize his business and consequently his employment, so as to avoid seasonal peaks and intermittent rush periods.
2. That taking full advantage of the existing regulations will not result in sufficient increased output to meet present and prospective orders.
3. That the effect of employing women beyond 6.00 p.m. will be to increase or spread employment, not merely result in the substitution of women for men.
4. That he has made proper provisions for the health and comfort of women employes, including transportation to their homes after nightfall.
5. That he will make periodical reports to the Industrial Commission covering any phase of his operations which the commission considers relevant."

(Communication to the Womens' Bureau, enclosing copy of the order.)

Spain. Night Work of Women.

On 29 September 1932 the Secretariat of the League of Nations registered the formal ratification by the Government of the Spanish Republic of the Conventions concerning the employment of women during the night, concerning the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment and concerning the night work of young persons employed in industry, the Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases, and the Conventions concerning sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce and domestic servants and concerning sickness insurance for agricultural workers. (Industrial and Labor Information, Oct. 17, 1932.)

Employment

Ohio. Unemployment Insurance.

An Unemployment Insurance Commission was appointed by Governor White of Ohio in pursuance of a joint resolution of the General Assembly adopted April 9, 1931. The commission in October 1932 submitted the first part of its report containing its conclusions and recommendations. In it the commission states that compulsory unemployment insurance "must be the corner stone of any practical program to protect workers against unemployment."

The principal provisions of a proposed bill are as follows:

A general fund is to be formed through contributions of employers and employees. The treasurer of the state is to be custodian of the fund, and it is to be administered by a commission of three members appointed by the Governor. Employers are to contribute two per cent of their pay rolls and employees one per cent of their wages. It is proposed, however, that after January 1, 1937, the insurance commission shall be authorized to classify industries and employments according to the unemployment they cause and fix and publish rates on a merit rating system, after the manner of the workmen's compensation rates. Rates for employers may be as low as one per cent or as high as three and one-half per cent.

To qualify for benefits the employee must have been at work and paid premiums for at least 26 weeks during the 12 months preceding his application, or for a period of 40 weeks in the preceding 2 years. He must be capable of and available for employment, and unable to obtain work at his usual employment or at any other for which he is reasonably fitted. Also he must register at an employment office or other designated agency. Those unemployed because of strikes or lockouts are disqualified. It is provided, however, that no one shall be disqualified for refusal to take work where there is a strike or lockout, or where wages, hours and conditions of labor are substantially lower than those prevailing in the locality. Benefits shall begin after a 3 weeks' waiting period, or 6 weeks for those discharged for just cause. And benefits shall be 50 per cent of the worker's normal wage, but not to exceed \$15.00 a week. The maximum period for which benefits will be paid shall be 16 weeks in any one year. For those only partially employed, no benefits shall be paid unless there is a loss of more than 40 per cent of normal weekly earnings.

Excluded from the law are persons engaged in interstate commerce, farmers, farm laborers, and domestic servants, teachers in schools and government employees, non-manual workers with salaries of \$2,000 a year or more, employees and workers in establishments of less than three employees, and short time casual workers. However, special provisions are to be made for the last named group if their employment by any one employer continues for more than 4 weeks. (Report of the Ohio Commission on Unemployment Insurance, Part I, Conclusions and Recommended Bill.)

Pennsylvania. Spreading Employment

At a time when efforts are being made to spread work through a reasonable shortening of the working time of individual employees, cases of unreasonable hours come to light from time to time. The American Federation of Full-fashioned Hosiery Workers opposes work on Sunday that it reports has existed in a large Pennsylvania mill. The organ of this union states that at times during the last three years when operations have been curtailed at this mill many employees involved have been on short time. Nevertheless, even in the dullest periods some employees have worked full ten hours and twenty minutes a shift. (The Hosiery Worker, Oct. 21, 1932.)

India. Employment of Women in Bengal.

During 1931 a daily average of 480,439 persons were employed in the factories of Bengal. Of these 61,947 or one-eighth (12.9%) were women. The most important single industry employing women was that of jute manufacture, over two-thirds (68.2%) of the women being so employed. Employment of women had decreased by 16 per cent below the daily average of 1930. This was due to trade depression and the general change over by jute mills to the single shift system of working. The decrease in employment of women in jute mills was 19 per cent. (Annual Report on the Administration of the Indian Factories Act in Bengal, 1931.)

Wages

California. Minimum Wage.

The Industrial Welfare Commission, at its September 28th meeting, voted to hold a public hearing in Los Angeles sometime in December for the purpose of taking testimony about the present cost of living for employed women. According to the Act, the minimum wage in the State of California is based upon maintenance, and the Commission wants to be sure that the \$16 rate in effect today is in accordance with present needs. This action should not be construed to mean that the Commission contemplates either raising or lowering the present standard, or that it has any set figure in mind, but rather that because of the conflicting opinions on the costs today, it wishes to make a thorough and comprehensive study, and the results will show what can be considered the legal amount for women and minors. Questionnaires have been mailed to all women's and men's organizations, labor unions, employees' and employers' associations, chambers of commerce, and to hundreds of individual workers, to obtain their statements as to what should be the wage for those who come under the law. (California State Department of Industrial Relations. Report to Governor's Council, October 1932.)

North Dakota. Minimum Wage.

On December 16 North Dakota will put into force revised minimum wage orders affecting three types of occupations - laundry, public housekeeping, and mercantile - and reducing the rates 10 per cent below the minimums set in 1922.

In laundry occupations the minimum rates fixed in the new order are for experienced workers \$12.60 a week (\$54.60 a month) or \$12.10 a week where laundry privileges are allowed. For the first 3 months learners must be paid \$9.90 a week or \$42.90 a month, and for the next two months \$11.25 a week or \$48.75 a month.

In public housekeeping occupations the minimum rates set are \$13.41 for waitresses and counter girls and \$12.76 for chambermaids and kitchen help. No monthly rates are indicated as in the 1922 order. Also unlike the earlier order no apprenticeship period is specified with the usual lower rates allowed. However, part time workers under the new order may be put on a strictly hourly basis of pay instead of the former graded scale, i.e., the order calls for only one forty-eighth of the weekly wage to be paid for each hour worked, whereas the 1922 order declared 36 to 48 hours a full week's work and required that one thirty-sixth of the weekly minimum be paid for 30 to 35 hours of work. A further change in the new order is the omission of the prohibition against work between 1.00 a.m. and 5.00 a.m.

In mercantile occupations, which are defined as including the work of all women in mercantile establishments except those performing office duties solely, minimum wages of \$13.00 a week or \$56.33 a month are set. The apprenticeship period is one year during which time a minimum wage of \$10.80 a week or \$46.80 a month must be paid. The earlier order divided this year into four periods with minimum wage requirements of \$9.60, \$10.40, \$11.20, and \$12.00 each. The same provision is made in this order for part time workers as in the public housekeeping order. (Communication to Women's Bureau, enclosing copy of the order.)

Wisconsin. Minimum Wage.

Following a reduction of 10 per cent in minimum wage rates for minors 17 but not 21 years of age which was ordered in June 1932, further modifications were asked by certain industrial interests. This request was refused in a recent order in which the Industrial Commission says in part: "The argument of the petitioners that the cost of living has declined twenty-five to thirty per cent since 1921,

when the previous rates had been established, is not valid because of the fact that when the 1921 rates were fixed they did not represent an increase over the rates fixed in 1919 commensurate with the increase in the cost of living since then. In other words, they did not take into account the extreme peak that prices reached in 1921. The commission is of the opinion that further reduction cannot be directed without violation of the legislative standard and is therefore obliged to deny that part of the request." (Communication to the Women's Bureau, enclosing copy of the order.)

Industrial Accidents and Occupational Diseases

New York. Cause of Industrial Accidents.

The Department of Labor of New York has recently issued a special bulletin (No. 176) on Cause of Compensated Accidents, for the year ending June 30, 1930. The analysis covers cases closed during the year. No data are given by sex, but, since in three industries covered, manufacture of clothing, manufacture of textiles and laundries, over half the operatives and laborers in New York were women (58.4%, 50.9% and 54.3%, respectively) as reported in the Census of 1930, it is of interest to give a brief analysis of the data for these three industries.

In the clothing industry, there were 5,137 compensated cases closed during the year. Of these, 7 resulted fatally, 520 in permanent partial disability, and 4,610 in temporary disability. In the textile industry the 1898 cases were divided into 12 fatal, 415 permanent partial, and 1,471 temporary; and in the laundries of 844 cases 1 was permanent total, 9 fatal, 170 permanent partial, and 665 temporary. In the textile industries and in laundries, about one-fifth of all cases were permanent partial, compared to one-tenth in clothing industries. In terms of average weeks' compensation awarded, accidents in the clothing industries were least severe, those in laundries most severe. The average number of weeks for which compensation was awarded for permanent partial cases was 32.2 in clothing, 47.6 in textiles, and 68.5 in laundries. The average for temporary cases was 3.9, 5.8 and 5.5 respectively.

In each industry more accidents were caused by mechanical appliances than by any other one cause, the next most important cause was handling objects and tools, falls being third. The same order of importance was found in each industry for permanent partial cases, but in textiles and laundries the order of importance was slightly different for temporary cases.

The figures point to three other causes extremely serious in their results although responsible for comparatively few accidents. In the clothing industries, vehicles caused 5 permanent partial cases with an average award of 114.0 weeks' compensation. In laundries, elevators, hoists and conveyors caused 3 permanent partial cases with an average award of 129.7 weeks' compensation; and electricity, explosives, heat, etc., 5 permanent partial cases with an average award of 128.2 weeks' compensation.

New York. Occupational Diseases and Compensation.

The Division of Women in Industry of the New York Department of Labor reports an analysis of cases appearing on the occupational disease calendar of the Division of Workmen's Compensation and which were heard in New York City between July 1, 1931 and June 30, 1932. The cases are analyzed as to disposition, reasons for disallowance, length of disability, causative agent, occupation involved and diagnosis.

In an introductory statement the report says: The idea behind occupational disease legislation is to compensate workers for losses incurred by virtue of disability arising from diseases contracted in the course of work. Eight states and territories in the United States have an "all inclusive" or "blanket" law covering all diseases proven to have arisen out of employment (California, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Hawaii, Massachusetts, North Dakota, Philippine Islands and Wisconsin). This is the only fair method of coverage, as present day industry changes raw materials too rapidly for legislation to keep pace with the changes. New industries spring up over night and use injurious substances that could not be covered by list legislation before a year or two had elapsed.

New York legislation, however, has not yet placed this State in the group of those providing all-inclusive coverage. The Workmen's Compensation Law in the State of New York compensates only for such occupational diseases as are enumerated in Section 3, Subd. 2, Pars. 1-27 of the Compensation Law. This list has been growing since the time when compensation for occupational disease was first granted in 1920, until at the present time 27 diseases are enumerated. However, this does not cover all diseases which may be contracted in the course of employment. Six other states besides New York have lists of this sort (Illinois, Kentucky, Minnesota, New Jersey, Ohio and Puerto Rico).

There were 655 cases heard in the year covered by the analysis. Of these 288, or 44 per cent, were disallowed for various reasons, while 196, or 30 per cent of the total, were granted awards; 146, or 22 per cent, are still pending; 12, or 2 per cent, were transferred to other calendars, either to the trial calendar hearing accidents, or, if occupational diseases, to calendars in some other locality. In 11 cases, or 2 per cent, decision was reserved, and two cases although reporting the disease make no claim at present. The chief reason for disallowing cases is still the fact that they are not covered by the Act, although this group does not form so large a percentage as formerly, since each year the Act has been extended to cover more diseases. However, 93, or 32 per cent, of the total disallowed cases were not covered by the Act.

The lack of complete coverage is shown in detail in the analysis of disposition of cases as classified by causative agent. Only a part of these data can be referred to.

Disability due to carbon monoxide poisoning is compensable only where the concentration of carbon monoxide is sufficient to cause unconsciousness. But any insidious change in the human economy caused by working continuously in an atmosphere of carbon monoxide in low concentration is not recognized. In consequence, all cases due to this cause, 14 in number, were disallowed, though obviously of occupational origin.

Dust of any type, such as that constantly inhaled by lens grinders, metal polishers and some textile workers, will cause changes in the lung tissue and prepare a pabulum which is particularly favorable to the growth of any tubercle bacilli present. Yet these dusts are not recognized by law as causing diseases that are compensable. Of the 13 cases reported, 12 have already been disallowed.

Flour, sugar and spices, used daily by bakers (and sugar by candy makers) cause a dermatitis which has been well known in medical literature for many years, but so far these agents have not been brought under the law as compensable causes of occupational disease. Hence of 11 cases reported, nine have been disallowed and two are pending. (New York Industrial Bulletin, September and October, 1932.)

Pennsylvania. Occupational Disease.

The first meeting of the newly appointed Commission on Industrial Diseases was held on October 11, 1932. T. Henry Walnut was elected chairman. Mr. Walnut was chairman of the Workmen's Compensation Board under Governor Pinchot's former administration, and aided in framing the first Compensation Law.

In making public the membership of the Commission, Governor Pinchot said:

"Workers injured through industrial accidents now receive compensation without fighting their cases through the courts. But thousands of workers annually are crippled through industrial diseases. They do not get automatic compensation. They must fight expensively for every cent. This condition exists in Pennsylvania in spite of the fact that 11 other states, with fewer dangers to employes, have proper laws.

"The right simply to bring a law suit means nothing at all today to an employe who has been crippled through an industrial disease. He cannot wait, and he has no money to pay lawyers.

"It is time to provide adequate legislation. That need has become increasingly urgent because new industrial methods have developed new hazards to health. It is important to have all the facts in the case, and to have them as soon as possible. Not only workers but employers and insurance companies are interested. I have therefore appointed a Commission representative of all interests, to study the problem. Its recommendations will be presented to the next session of the Legislature." (Pennsylvania Labor and Industry, October 1932.)

NOTES: UNITED STATES

New Jersey. Medical Examination of Domestic Servants, Newark.

Charles V. Craster, M.D., D.P.H., health officer of Newark, N.J., speaking before the 61st annual meeting of the American Public Health Association in Washington October 25, described the workings of a city ordinance requiring the examination of domestic employes.

This ordinance was passed in 1930 to take effect on Sept. 1 of that year. The ordinance requires that no person shall be employed as a domestic servant unless they have first filed with the city Public Health Department a certificate of a duly licensed physician setting forth that the person is free from tuberculosis and any other contagious or communicable disease. Such a certificate shall be effective for six months. Domestic servants may be examined by physicians connected with the Department of Health of the city without charge.

The enforcement of the domestic servants ordinance was placed in the division of sanitation. The actual examinations are conducted in the dispensary clinics under the supervision of the bureau of tuberculosis. The examination includes examination of the skin to detect the presence of skin diseases such as eczema, psoriasis, abscesses, cuts and wounds. The attention of the examiner is directed to the possible association of skin diseases with syphilis. When such is suspected, a Wassermann blood test is required. The physical examination of the chest must include all known procedure for the determination of chronic pulmonary diseases. Any abnormal chest condition found is sufficient cause for rejecting the applicant pending X-ray or fleuroscopic examination. The examination of the nose, mouth, teeth, throat, ears and eyes is directed towards the discovery of acute or chronic conditions of an infective nature. Especially where there is a discharge swabs are taken for examination. Blood tests are required where there is a history of typhoid fever or syphilis. When there is no scar, vaccination is required.

As is the case with all new laws, a considerable amount of education and publicity was required. All employment agencies, public and private, were brought into the department for a conference. The new ordinance was explained and it was pointed out that no domestic employee should be placed in any position without possessing the domestic employee's card. Local newspapers carried copies of the new ordinance displayed above help wanted advertisements. Domestic advertising for places were mailed copies of the law with instructions for examination. All hotels, clubs, lodging houses and institutions were canvassed and their domestics sent down for examination. A house to house canvass was carried out in the residential districts of the city and all householders duly informed of the new ordinance.

During the year 1931 the law was not generally known to the public and the follow-up system had not been sufficiently organized. More definite efforts in the early part of 1932 produced better results. The number of examinations to date is as follows. It will be observed that there were over 10,000 examinations during the first eight months this year compared to 2863 during 1931.

| | <u>Examinations 1931 & 1st 8 months 1932</u> | | |
|-------------------|--|----------------------|--------------|
| | <u>Private doctors</u> | <u>At our clinic</u> | <u>Total</u> |
| 1931 | 291 | 2572 | 2863 |
| 1st 8 months 1932 | 1282 | 8879 | 10,161 |