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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
JAMES J. DAVIS, SECRETARY
WOMEN'S BUREAU
MARY ANDERSON, Director

BULLETIN OF THE WOMEN'S BUREAU, NO. 24

WOMEN IN MARYLAND INDUSTRIES

A Study of Hours and
Working Conditions



WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1922

[PUBLIC—No. 259—66TH CONGRESS.]

[H. R. 13229.]

AN ACT To establish in the Department of Labor a bureau to be known as the Women's Bureau.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there shall be established in the Department of Labor a bureau to be known as the Women's Bureau.

SEC. 2. That the said bureau shall be in charge of a director, a woman, to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, who shall receive an annual compensation of \$5,000. It shall be the duty of said bureau to formulate standards and policies which shall promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment. The said bureau shall have authority to investigate and report to the said department upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of women in industry. The director of said bureau may from time to time publish the results of these investigations in such a manner and to such extent as the Secretary of Labor may prescribe.

SEC. 3. That there shall be in said bureau an assistant director, to be appointed by the Secretary of Labor, who shall receive an annual compensation of \$3,500 and shall perform such duties as shall be prescribed by the director and approved by the Secretary of Labor.

SEC. 4. That there is hereby authorized to be employed by said bureau a chief clerk and such special agents, assistants, clerks, and other employees at such rates of compensation and in such numbers as Congress may from time to time provide by appropriations.

SEC. 5. That the Secretary of Labor is hereby directed to furnish sufficient quarters, office furniture, and equipment for the work of this bureau.

SEC. 6. That this act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

Approved, June 5, 1920.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
JAMES J. DAVIS, SECRETARY
WOMEN'S BUREAU
MARY ANDERSON, Director

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
JAMES B. CLAY, SECRETARY
WOMEN'S BUREAU
AGNES ANDERSON, CHIEF

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR,
WOMEN'S BUREAU,
Washington, May 12, 1922.

SIR: I have the honor to submit the accompanying report giving the results of the survey of hours and conditions of work of women in selected industries in 15 cities and towns in the State of Maryland.

This investigation was made at the request of Gov. Albert C. Ritchie. Valuable assistance and cooperation was given by the commissioner of the State board of labor statistics, the inspector of buildings in Baltimore, the State and Baltimore city departments of health, the industrial accident commission, the Consumers' League, the Young Women's Christian Association, certain labor organizations, and the Community Council of Hagerstown.

The survey was directed by Caroline Manning, in charge, assisted by May R. Lane, Elisabeth D. Benham, Edith G. Knowles, Mary H. Turner, and Lenore Leins. The statistical material was prepared under the direction of Elizabeth A. Hyde, and the report was written by Mary V. Robinson.

Respectfully submitted.

MARY ANDERSON, *Director.*

HON. JAMES J. DAVIS,
Secretary of Labor.

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

I have the honor to submit the accompanying report giving

the results of the survey of labor and conditions of work in various
selected industries in Florida and some in the State of Alabama.
The investigation was made in the State of Florida under the
direction of the Florida Industrial Association and cooperation was given by the
Commissioner of the State Board of Labor Statistics, the members of
the State and National Industrial Association, the Florida League
of Health, the Industrial Accident Commission, the Florida League
of Women, the Florida Industrial Association, certain organizations
and the Commercial Council of Jacksonville.
The survey was directed by Lemmie Manning in Florida assisted
by Mrs. M. L. and Elizabeth B. Bondman, Ethel E. Knott, Mrs. H.
Lemon, and others. The statistical material was prepared
under the direction of Elizabeth A. Hyde and the report was written
by Mary V. Robinson.

Respectfully submitted,

Howe W. H. Hays
Secretary of Labor

MARY V. ROBINSON, Director

WOMEN IN MARYLAND INDUSTRIES.

PART I.

INTRODUCTION.

This survey of the hours and working conditions of women in Maryland industries was made by the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor upon the invitation of the governor of the State. The League of Women Voters of Maryland was influential in instigating the study. During the survey various officials and organizations in the State were consulted, including the commissioner of the State board of labor and statistics, the inspector of buildings in Baltimore, the State and Baltimore city departments of health, the industrial accident commission, the Consumers' League, the Young Women's Christian Association of Baltimore, certain labor organizations, and the Community Council of Hagerstown. The courtesy and cooperation extended on all sides to the representatives of the Women's Bureau greatly facilitated the work of the survey. The field investigation was begun May 9 and continued until June 25, 1921, with a supplemental investigation for a few days in July.

The survey did not include a study of wages. The period of the investigation was characterized by a general depression which had been crippling industry for many months. Wages, in consequence, were exceedingly unstable, with a steadily downward trend. Many establishments had made a reduction in the number of workers employed and others had cut the daily and weekly working hours below the normal schedule.¹ Accordingly, current data on women's earnings would not have been adequately representative of wages paid to women in the Maryland industries investigated.

SCOPE AND METHOD.

Investigations were made in 15 cities and towns scattered throughout the State and listed below in descending scale according to the population:

Baltimore.	Salisbury.	Elkton.	Luke.
Cumberland.	Cambridge.	Lonaconing.	Ilchester.
Hagerstown.	Frostburg.	Alberton.	Parsonsburg.
Annapolis.	Havre de Grace.	Oella.	

¹ In the hour data secured in this survey, however, the normal working hours of each plant visited were recorded.

The great difference between the industrial status of Baltimore and that of the other cities and towns in the State has made it advisable to treat Baltimore separately in certain parts of this report. In all, 240 establishments were visited. Of these, 142 were in Baltimore and 98 in the rest of the State. The survey covered manufacturing and mercantile establishments, laundries, and restaurants. Canneries were not included, partly because the time of the investigation was not coincident with the height of the canning season and partly because the industry differing in so many respects from other types of manufacturing, requires individual treatment. The manufacturing plants visited covered a wide range, producing paper and wooden boxes, candy, cigars, men's clothing, women's and children's clothing, glass, hats, hosiery, meat products, metal products, textiles, umbrellas, and yarn and thread. Printing and publishing plants also were included. Industries represented by fewer than 3 establishments and for that reason grouped under the heading "miscellaneous," were the manufacture of brushes, chemicals, artificial flowers, food products, furniture, gloves, mattresses, paper, pianos, rubber tires, shoes, sparklers, soda straws, and tents and awnings. The mercantile establishments included department stores, 5-and-10-cent stores, and a few specialty shops. The restaurants inspected were of many types—cafés, cafeterias, tea rooms, dairy lunch rooms, restaurants, and lunch counters in department and 5-and-10-cent stores.

An effort was made to select a proportional number as well as representative establishments, that is, large, small, and average in each industry, taking into consideration the size and importance of the industry in the State.

Definite information about numbers of employees, hours, and working conditions was scheduled by the investigators from interviews with employers and from inspection of plants. Such information was supplemented by facts about age, nativity, experience in the trade, and conjugal and living conditions of employees, obtained on printed cards distributed throughout the plants. Furthermore, visits made by investigators to a number of the women workers in their homes furnished a human background for the industrial study.

The following table gives the total number of men, women, and children employed at the time of the investigation in the various plants visited:

TABLE 1.—Number of establishments and number of employees, by sex, race, and industry.
BALTIMORE.

Industry.	Number of establishments.	Number of employees.		Number in each specified group who were—								
		White.	Negro.	Male adults.		Female adults.		Boys under 16.		Girls under 16.		
				White.	Negro.	White.	Negro.	White.	Negro.	White.	Negro.	
Manufacturing:												
Boxes, paper.....	5	277	11	45	10	217	1	2			13	
Boxes, wooden.....	3	199	19	110	17	58	1	9	1		22	
Candy.....	6	605	5	184	1	380	4				37	
Cigars.....	4	935	12	117	5	818	7	4				
Clothing, men's.....	26	2,180	61	1,256	48	922	13	1			1	
Clothing, women's and children's.....	14	587	53	169	4	416	49				2	
Hats, men's straw.....	5	1,181	69	286	12	879	50	9	7		7	
Meat products.....	2	563	72	488	60	75	12					
Printing and publishing.....	4	96	6	67	5	27	1	2				
Metal products.....	9	2,974	28	1,797	17	937	11	153			57	
Textiles.....	6	2,330	19	1,125	5	1,156	14	22			27	
Umbrellas.....	3	195	3	45	1	139	2	3			8	
Miscellaneous.....	13	1,935	297	1,229	123	631	172	39	2		36	
General mercantile.....	10	3,909	267	977	180	2,688	87	97			147	
5-and-10 and 25-cent stores.....	4	157	11	19	4	138	7					
Laundries.....	10	240	328	96	80	142	248	2				
Restaurants.....	17	335	121	149	58	186	63					
All industries.....	142	18,698	1,382	8,159	630	9,839	742	343	10		357	

STATE EXCLUSIVE OF BALTIMORE.

Manufacturing:										
Clothing, men's.....	13	679	18	65		596	18	5		13
Clothing, women's and children's.....	4	143		11		128				4
Glass.....	3	401		305		89		7		
Hosiery.....	5	263		35		219		2		7
Textiles.....	9	1,213	5	530	3	663	2	10		10
Miscellaneous ¹	20	3,095	67	2,472	67	618		2		3
General mercantile.....	16	413	6	129	4	284	2			
5-and-10 cent stores.....	8	73	2	8	1	63	1	1		1
Laundries.....	10	474	21	126	4	345	17	1		2
Restaurants.....	10	89	29	28	16	61	13			
All industries.....	98	26,843	148	23,709	95	3,066	53	28		40

¹ Includes 1 paper box, 1 metal products, and 2 printing and publishing plants.² Includes 96 men who were night workers (48 in textiles and 48 in glass).

From the foregoing table it will be seen that the total number of women and girls in the establishments visited was 14,097; of these, 77.6 per cent, or over three-fourths, were in Baltimore. In the Baltimore establishments they constituted 54.5 per cent of the total working force, as compared with 45.2 per cent in the rest of the State. In the State as a whole, somewhat over two-thirds of the women and girls (68.1 per cent) were employed in manufacturing establishments, slightly less than one-fourth (24.2 per cent) in mercantile establishments, and small proportions (5.3 and 2.3 per cent, respectively) in laundries and restaurants. The largest group of women and girls in the manufacturing industries was in the garment factories,² constituting 22.5 per cent of the total number reported in

² These include the men's and the women's and children's clothing establishments.

the survey of manufacturing plants. These persons were distributed in 57 establishments. The textile mills show the next largest group (19.5 per cent), distributed in only 15 plants.

The percentage of negro women and girls in the establishments visited was small, 5.6 per cent of the total number of female employees. The only industry in Baltimore where the number of negro women was greater than the number of white was laundries, where 63.6 per cent of the women employees were negroes. In striking contrast were the laundries in the rest of the State, with negro women constituting only 4.7 per cent of the women reported in that industry. Restaurants, with 17.6 per cent of the women negroes, showed the largest proportion of negro women employees in any industry in the State exclusive of Baltimore.

The proportion of girls under 16 years of age in the industries visited also was small, doubtless smaller than usual on account of the large amount of unemployment. According to the figures given by managers ³ the number of girls under 16 formed only 2.8 per cent of the female employees in the survey. The proportion of girls under 16 in Baltimore (3.3 per cent) was higher than in the rest of the State (1.3 per cent).

In Baltimore 41.2 per cent of the girls under 16 were in the general mercantile establishments, but they formed only 5 per cent of the total number of women in these establishments. Wooden-box factories, with 27.2 per cent of their women under 16 years of age, showed the largest proportion in any one industry, followed by candy, with 8.8 per cent. No girls under 16 were reported in cigar, meat-product, and printing establishments, nor in 5-and-10-cent stores,⁴ restaurants, and laundries.

In the State exclusive of Baltimore only 40 girls under 16 were reported, but 42.5 per cent of these were in the garment factories. Girls under 16 comprised only 2.2 per cent of the total number of women in this industry, however, as compared with 3.1 per cent in the hosiery establishments, the industry with the highest proportion of women in this age group. Glass factories, general mercantile establishments, and restaurants reported no girls under 16.

³ The statements of managers were accepted in regard to the numbers of employees under 16; the investigators made no attempt at verification, either by consulting records or by questioning employees.

⁴ On the personal record cards, which were obtained for almost one-half of the women in the survey, five girls in the 5-and-10-cent stores in Baltimore (Table X, p. 94, appendix) gave their age as under 16.

SUMMARY.

Number of cities and towns, 15; number of establishments, 240.

Workers.

1. Number of women and girls included in the survey, 14,097.
2. Proportion of negro women, 5.6 per cent.
3. Proportion of girls under 16 years of age, 2.8 per cent.
4. Distribution of women:⁵ 68.1 per cent in manufacturing, 24.2 per cent in mercantile, 5.3 per cent in laundries, 2.3 per cent in restaurants.
5. Largest group of women in any one manufacturing industry was in garment factories, 22.5 per cent.
6. Of the 6,527 women whose nativity was ascertained, only 6 per cent were foreign born.
7. Of the 6,571 women reporting their conjugal condition, 67.6 per cent were single, 18 per cent married, and 14.4 per cent widowed, divorced, or separated.
8. Of 6,720 women reporting their living condition, 87.9 per cent were living at home and 12.1 per cent were living independently.
9. Of the 6,519 women reporting their age, 35.7 per cent were under 20 years, 35.8 per cent were 20 and under 30, 14.5 per cent were 30 and under 40, and 14 per cent were 40 years and over. Of 6,492 women reporting their age at beginning work, 71.1 per cent were less than 17 years of age at that time.

Working conditions.

1. General workroom conditions in 240 plants were as follows:
 - (a) Crowded condition of workers and machinery in 54 plants.
 - (b) Cleaning of workrooms unsatisfactory in 116 plants.
 - (c) Lighting inadequate in some respect in 210 plants. Natural lighting inadequate in 60; artificial lighting inadequate in 72; both natural and artificial lighting inadequate in 78.
 - (d) Ventilation inadequate in 52 plants.
 - (e) Seating unsatisfactory in 115 plants. No seats for women in 18 plants, insufficient number of seats in 92 plants, some or all seats without backs in 99.
2. The investigation of hazard and strain revealed:
 - (a) Occupational or workroom hazard or both in 97 plants.
 - (b) A possible strain for some or all of the women in a considerable number of plants.

⁵ Unless otherwise specified, the term "women" includes girls.

(c) Obvious fire hazards in 148 plants.

3. The need for improved sanitation is shown by the following:

(a) Drinking facilities inadequate in 172 plants.

(b) Washing facilities inadequate in 208 plants. Only 26 plants were reported as having a combination of hot water, soap, and individual towels.

(c) Toilet facilities inadequate in 213 plants. An insufficient number of toilets in 87 plants, ventilation of toilets unsatisfactory in 86 plants, cleaning of toilets unsatisfactory in 65 plants.

4. The record of service facilities show:

(a) No employees' lunch room of any sort in 198 plants.

(b) No rest room in 203 plants.

(c) Facilities for wraps inadequate in 157 establishments.

(d) No first-aid equipment, or a very inadequate one, in 116 plants.

A hospital room reported in only 30 plants, a nurse in attendance in 15, a doctor in 2, and health records in 17.

Hours.⁶

1. *Daily*.—The Monday to Friday hours of 213 establishments (restaurants excluded) showed:

(a) A schedule of 8 hours or less in 74 establishments, affecting 31.9 per cent of the total number of women.

(b) A schedule of more than 8 hours in 141 establishments, affecting 68.1 per cent of the total number of women.

(c) A schedule of 10 hours in 18 establishments, affecting 4 per cent of the total number of women.

2. *Weekly*.—The records for 208 establishments⁷ (restaurants excluded) showed:

(a) A schedule of 48 hours or less in 104 establishments, affecting 56.9 per cent of the total number of women.

(b) A schedule of more than 48 hours in 107 establishments, affecting 43.1 per cent of the total number of women.

(c) A schedule of more than 54 hours in 21 establishments, affecting 5.3 per cent of the total number of women.

3. *Saturday hours (restaurants excluded)*.—On Saturday there was a full or longer-than-usual schedule in 47 establishments, a half holiday in 144 establishments, and no work for women in 18 establishments.

4. *Restaurant hours*.—The records for 264 women restaurant employees, 191 in Baltimore and 73 in the State exclusive of Baltimore, show:

⁶ In several instances some of the women in an establishment had a different daily and weekly schedule from the rest of the women working therein; therefore these establishments are counted more than once.

⁷ Five establishments were too irregular in their weekly hours to be included.

(a) A 7-day week for 29.5 per cent of the total number, comprising about one-tenth of those in Baltimore as opposed to over three-fourths of those outside Baltimore.

(b) A schedule of more than 48 hours a week for 43.9 per cent of the total number, comprising one-fourth of those in Baltimore as opposed to slightly over nine-tenths of those outside.

(c) A schedule of more than 60 hours a week for 14 per cent of the total number, comprising 5.2 per cent of those in Baltimore as opposed to 37 per cent of those outside Baltimore.

(d) An average working day of more than 8 hours for 36 per cent of the total number, comprising a little more than one-fifth (21.5 per cent) of those in Baltimore as opposed to a little less than three-fourths (74 per cent) of those outside Baltimore.

CONCLUSION.

The great bulk of the women wage earners included in this survey of Maryland industries were white and American born; they were of all ages, of every conjugal condition, and engaged in a variety of industries. They may be considered representative of the thousands of women gainfully employed in industry in the State.

The detailed analysis of the information secured has brought to the surface the most striking features and has made conspicuous certain defects which demand attention. Accordingly, throughout the pages of the report special stress has been laid upon the unsatisfactory conditions encountered by the investigators, for the purpose of showing the course to be pursued by those agencies aiming at industrial betterment.

An examination of the findings shows a more careful protection of working women to be imperative, in spite of the fact that in a State as old industrially as is Maryland, the uprooting of antiquated traditions and the pruning of old methods are apt to meet with resistance on the part of those who fail to realize the ultimate effect of industrial evils as insidious influences in the undermining of society.

Certain influences of that sort were found at work in Maryland, definitely retarding other forces in industry making for progress. Although the working conditions in some of the establishments visited were excellent, in the majority of the plants a great deal was required for the attainment of desirable standards. As long as any women work in plants grimy with accumulated dirt and lint, strain their eyes because of glare or insufficient light, stand all day or sit continuously in a cramped posture; as long as safety is jeopardized because of unguarded machinery or lack of fire protection; as long as health is menaced by such things as the common drinking cup and the common towel; as long as one toilet must serve for 75 or more women; as long as employees must run the risk of having their wraps

ruined or stolen, or must lie on the floor of the toilet room when ill, from lack of proper service facilities—then not only is pride in working conditions out of the question but definite action for improvement is called for. All of these situations were found in Maryland establishments, some with disturbing frequency.

Furthermore, the situation in regard to the working hours of women in Maryland industries was far from ideal, notwithstanding a decided trend toward the 8-hour day and 48-hour week. More than two-fifths of the women of the survey had a working week in excess of 48 hours, and more than two-thirds of them had an industrial day of more than 8 hours. Excepting the Saturday hours in 5-and-10-cent stores and in other small stores outside Baltimore, the hours in mercantile establishments were, on the whole, good. Among manufacturing establishments, the clothing industry conformed more generally than any other to the 8-hour day; the textile mills showed a strong tendency toward long hours. Laundries had only a fair record, since in Baltimore over four-fifths of the women in the laundries investigated worked more than 50 hours a week. Restaurants more than any other industry employing women in Maryland showed the necessity for the improvement and standardization of hours. The restaurants outside Baltimore had a worse record than those in the city. The mistake of excluding restaurants from the State hour legislation is apparent. A sufficiently large proportion of women worked unduly long hours to indicate the inadequacy of the present law permitting 10 hours a day and 60 hours a week, and to stress the need for more progressive legislation.

Finally, because it is such an important industrial State, characterized by a great variety of industries, employing many thousands of women, and because the bad effects of industrial evils can not be confined within the four walls of the workshops but filter into the lives and homes of the workers and thus assail the organism of the community, Maryland should follow the lead of those States which have established legally standardized working conditions, the 8-hour day, and an adequate minimum-wage law. It is safe to predict that such progress would inaugurate in the State a better industrial era.

PART II.

THE CLOTHING INDUSTRY.

The manufacture of clothing is by far the most important industry in Maryland and employs a much larger proportion of women than any other manufacturing industry in the State. It is advisable, therefore, to consider some of the outstanding characteristics of the trade.

According to the 1910 report of the Bureau of the Census—the 1920 figures not yet being available—Maryland in 1909 ranked fourth among the States in the production of men's clothing and eighth in the manufacture of women's clothing.¹

The 1920 report of the Maryland State Board of Labor and Statistics states that "the enormous volume of clothing made in Baltimore City alone gives the State of Maryland third place in the clothing industry in the United States. New York and Illinois, with their many cities, alone outrank the State in clothing manufacture."² The same report shows that in 2,003 establishments—manufacturing, mercantile, mechanical, and printing establishments, bakeries, and laundries—inspected by the Maryland State Board of Labor Statistics in 1920, there were employed 43,265 women. Of this total number 35 per cent, or over one-third, were working in clothing factories. Of the 948 manufacturing establishments, 62 per cent were engaged in the manufacture of clothing. Also, by far the greatest number of women in any manufacturing group, 51.4 per cent (that is, slightly over one-half of the 29,478 women engaged in manufactures), were found in garment factories. Next in numerical importance, so far as women in manufactures were concerned, were the 8.2 per cent employed in cigar and cigarette plants.³

The clothing establishments visited in the Women's Bureau survey made practically all articles of men's, women's, and children's wearing apparel. The men's clothing included overcoats, suits, pants, vests, shirts, underwear, and overalls. The women's and children's clothing also covered a wide range, comprising suits, coats, skirts, outing gowns, underwear, middy blouses, rompers, and children's suits and dresses.

In the selection of establishments for investigation the aim was to inspect types representative of the industry. Although a few

¹ U. S. Bureau of the Census, Thirteenth Census, 1910, vol. 9, Manufactures, Washington, 1912, p. 463.

² Maryland State Board of Labor and Statistics, Twenty-ninth Annual Report, Baltimore, 1920, p. 232.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 97-106.

large plants and some medium-sized ones were included, many more small factories were chosen, because operation in small plants is more characteristic of the clothing industry. In substantiation of this statement are the 1910 census figures showing that almost nine-tenths of the clothing establishments in Maryland employed 50 or fewer wage earners.⁴ The figures of the present survey show that practically the same proportion of the plants visited (86 per cent) reported 50 or fewer employees. The manufacture of clothing requires neither an extensive plant nor a large outlay of capital. Sewing machines, pressing irons, needles, and shears, the chief implements used in the trade, are an equipment within the means of almost any employer, whether he has 5 or 500 workers, and readily installed in any establishment, though it be only one room in a dwelling. Consequently there is always a tendency toward the sweat-shop system, a tendency that must be carefully guarded against. Despite laws enacted in Maryland to minimize this evil, the Old Town, or ghetto, section of Baltimore is honeycombed with small garment factories characterized by extremely bad working conditions. Of the 26 factories manufacturing men's clothing which were visited in Baltimore, 25 belonged to the subcontract class; that is, they were small shops, working under contract to manufacture goods for larger firms—in some cases for well-known New York houses. Almost invariably the subcontract shops had inadequate quarters. Nine of the 25 were located in dwellings in the Jewish residential section already referred to. In two cases there was at the time of the visit, a whooping-cough sign on the door.

Since not only most of the subcontract shops but many of the other small clothing factories in Baltimore and in the rest of the State were of the same type, a general description of them may prove enlightening. Many of them were located in old buildings, some of which had been dwellings. In some cases the entrance was on an alley. The approach to the workroom frequently was a stairway that was described as narrow, steep, dark, and so dirty that it appeared never to have been swept. Some of the stairways were broken and devoid of handrails. Often the workrooms were disorderly, the walls grimy, and the floors littered with trash. Accumulations of trimmings, oil cans, papers, and rubbish testified to the lack of regular cleaning. In some instances the work was done in crowded, close rooms with insufficient ventilation and inadequate light. The service facilities were of a most casual sort. An iron sink in the corner of the workroom, a dirty towel, a common drinking cup, nails in the walls for wraps, and an insanitary toilet too frequently comprised the sum total of arrangements for comfort and convenience.

⁴ U. S. Bureau of the Census, Thirteenth Census, 1910, vol. 9, Manufactures, Washington, 1912, p. 471.

In striking contrast to these small, badly equipped plants were some of the larger clothing factories with their appearance of order and good management. The working and sanitary conditions in these establishments were excellent, and the service facilities, as a rule, satisfactory.

Another important problem in connection with the clothing industry was that of home work. Of the 39 garment factories visited, 14 reported that some home work was given out in connection with the factory operations. The work done in homes usually was similar to that performed in the plant, consisting chiefly of trimming, finishing, and the sewing of linings.

Maryland law requires that employers or manufacturers shall keep a register of names and addresses of persons to whom articles or materials are given to be manufactured, altered, and repaired in homes. Nine of the fourteen establishments reporting home work kept no register, the manager in several instances stating that he was ignorant of the existence of such a law. So vague was the knowledge of some of the managers concerning their home workers, that the only information available was that they were Italian women, or that they lived on a certain street. "The boy takes the goods to them, and he knows where they live," was the statement of one manager. It is also the legal duty of employers to ascertain whether or not the room or apartment in which home work is done has been licensed. There was even more ignorance of this law than of the other on the part of the managers, with the consequence that home workers usually had not obtained a license. One employer who gave out home work irregularly to two or three women said that these workers changed too often to be licensed. With such haphazard methods of production the possibility of the manufacture of garments under conditions conducive to the spreading of contagious and infectious diseases is strong, especially as home workers may be foreigners with low standards of living and with little knowledge of health laws or of the principles of hygiene and sanitation. Furthermore, the laxity of laws regulating home work spells a definite menace not only to the public but to the workers themselves. There is no way of safeguarding them against overwork nor against eye and nerve strain. Though there has been considerable public agitation throughout the country in regard to sweat shops and home work, these evils tend to crop up and spread in an insidious way unless there is drastic legal supervision to hold them in check.

The work in the clothing industry is highly subdivided into a number of occupations. In the main, however, these fall into four general groups—cutting, machine operating, hand sewing, and pressing. Women were employed extensively in machine operating

and hand sewing. The latter included such occupations as basting, felling, finishing, bar-tagging, making buttonholes, and sewing on buttons. Cutting and pressing were, as a rule, men's jobs, although a few women were found in these occupations. Some women were examining and inspecting, and a few were engaged in pulling out basting threads, sorting, folding, busheling, serging, and cutting threads. Women constituted almost the entire working force in the clothing factories outside Baltimore.

On the whole, the work is not hard, although confining and, as a rule, monotonous. The strain of the repetitive processes was minimized by the fact that the hours of labor of the clothing establishments were well regulated. Almost all the plants visited had a week of 48 hours or less. This was due largely to the organization of the workers in the industry and to their insistence upon the standard of the 8-hour day.

To concentrate, in conclusion, upon the most salient features of the garment industry in Maryland, it must be said that it stands as both a good and a bad influence in the industrial circles of the State. The excellent hour standards prevailing serve as a leaven for the improvement of working hours generally, but the taint of the sweat shop and the stigma of home work tend to brand the industry as a reactionary force in the industrial progress of Maryland. On the other hand, a few of the large and well-organized clothing establishments with their excellent conditions stand as evidence of progress in some branches of the industry,

PART III.

WORKING CONDITIONS.

The conditions under which women wage earners work are obviously of tremendous importance from both an economic and a sociological point of view. One of the guiding principles of modern industrial engineering is that a working environment established on the cornerstones of comfort and hygiene, science and sanitation, forms a strong foundation for a superstructure of efficiency. An unnecessary waste of energy occurs when workers must cope with disadvantages present in plants because managers have failed to understand the need of good working conditions. In industrial competition those employers who realize the value of the elimination of all possible obstacles to production and all apparent causes of disaffection naturally bid fair to come out ahead. If with no other purpose than this of efficiency, good conditions in industry pay. Were efficiency, however, the only motive for concern about the workers' surroundings the matter could be left to individual employers and need not become a legislative problem. A much more fundamental necessity for the consideration of working conditions is the sociological. Industrial conditions that affect the health and well-being of individual workers derange in turn the organism of the community. The protection of women wage earners is particularly important. Whatever lowers the vitality and saps the energies of women limits their ability to bestow a good-health heritage upon their children and upon society. Another menace to the community is the failure to establish right systems of sanitation in industry, which means the inevitable spread of disease, through the workers and through the goods produced. Furthermore, the maintenance at a high level of the standards of working conditions promises a corresponding rise in the standard of living. Women working in comfortable and hygienic surroundings will have more desire, time, and energy to live well at home. The opposite undoubtedly is true. The industrial world which with one hand offers women economic opportunities should not with the other hold them down in the sociological morasses resulting from stagnant methods in industry.

A survey of the conditions under which women work in a State throws the searchlight not only on any existing disorders but on those progressive establishments which serve as models of what can be done in the effective solution of industrial problems. It tends also to precipitate educational and legislative means for improvement. The following analysis of the situation in Maryland reveals that the conditions under which women worked in the State embraced opposite extremes.

BUILDINGS AND WORKROOMS.

The 240 firms included in this investigation were located in many different types of buildings, from the most up-to-date fireproof structures to cramped quarters in old dwelling houses. Sixteen firms, nine of which were subcontract shops in the clothing industry in Baltimore, were operating in houses where families were living. In some instances service facilities were shared with these families. Other subcontract shops were located in remodeled dwellings not always adequate. Thirteen structures were reported to be obviously unfit for the purpose of the industry. The majority of the buildings visited, however, were in good repair.

Approach to workrooms.

Workers have a right to an approach to workrooms that is neither dangerous nor unduly inconvenient. Nevertheless, in a number of instances inexcusable conditions had been allowed to exist. Stairways constituted something of a hazard wherever they were dark, narrow, steep, or circular. Twenty-one establishments were reported in which some or all of the stairs had no handrails. This defect was especially serious when such stairways were dark or in bad repair. Halls and steps occasionally were so filthy and littered with rubbish that they indicated total lack of cleaning. In a few cases passageways were circuitous or elevators dangerous. There was not always adequate elevator service for plants located so high up in buildings as to make the use of the stairs an added strain for employees.

Workrooms.

The general plan of the workroom in regard to size, structure, equipment, and general routing of the work is significant both for the comfort of the workers and for the efficiency of the plant. Failure to grasp this cardinal industrial principle was apparent in a number of instances in this survey. Of the 240 establishments visited 37 had dark walls, due to the natural brick or wood finish or to paint of a somber color. Low ceilings affecting both ventilation and lighting were found in 60 establishments. Crowding of workrooms, either with machinery, work benches, and stock, or with too many workers, occurred in 54 plants, nearly every kind of industry being represented. If the workers' environment has any direct bearing upon the work, such a condition as the following would tend to induce carelessness and inefficiency:

Old building kept in bad condition. Much abandoned material; machines and equipment clutter up the unused parts, and all is left in a very dirty condition. General appearance of workrooms is disorderly, badly kept, and insanitary. The floors are all of soft wood except on the first floor in the storage and shipping rooms where they are of cement.

The floors, badly worn and much caked with candy, apparently are never scrubbed. The walls are of brick, painted white to within about 4 feet of the floor; this latter part is painted black. The white part is dingy and looks as though it had not been treated for a long time.

The above is not an isolated case, but is more or less similar to the condition reported of a number of plants. It is only reasonable to expect much more satisfactory results to be achieved in surroundings like the following, a description typical of the best establishments visited:

All floors, walls, and windows in very good condition. Floors of wood very smooth, walls whitewashed, ceilings high and painted light. Aisles wide and kept open at all times. No crowding. Girls working on machines not too near each other. Arrangement of work very systematic. A general impression of order and good management.

Such a standard is attainable by all managers willing to devote the necessary time and money to these matters.

Cleaning.

The subject of cleaning was gone into by the investigators in considerable detail, with none too gratifying results. In theory cleanliness would seem to be one of the first tenets of industry, but in practice it appears sometimes to be one of the last. The cleaning of workrooms was unsatisfactory in some respects in 116 Maryland establishments. In 46 of these the walls and in 54 the floors throughout were not clean. In some cases the floors were caked with dirt. In 56 other plants the floors were oily, wet, sticky with glue, or littered with scraps and lint. Too often the cleaning was of a superficial nature, as one worker's description of the practice in a garment factory shows. "The boss has the place cleaned," she admitted "that is, he has the litter and rubbish taken away; but they don't get into the corners, and they don't scrub." Scrubbing formed no part of the cleaning program in a number of places where it seemed most essential for the proper upkeep of the plant. Occasionally it was stated that the flooring was constructed in such a way as to prohibit scrubbing.

The inadequacy in cleanliness is largely attributable to the lack of system. In plants where the managers considered the subject of such minor importance that they dismissed it with vague statements, it was not surprising to find grimy walls, dusty windows, scraps in corners, and dirt accumulated under tables. There was no regular system of cleaning in 27 plants, and in 25 others the women employees did the cleaning in addition to the work for which they were engaged. Among the establishments with an unsatisfactory cleaning record were 19 where food was handled. Despite the regulations of the State board of health stipulating that floors, walls, ceilings, furniture, and

implements shall be kept clean, food establishments with very insanitary conditions were reported. The two following extracts from reports serve to describe such places:

Floors were caked with candy and in most parts very dirty indeed. Work tables were fairly clean where the packing was done and the stick candy made, but the kettles, trays, and dipping tables (unused at present) were filthy and caked with old candy. Trays and barrels of scraps of candy were standing around everywhere.

Flies terrible, in the bakery. Hundreds in room and on baked goods. Manager seemed hopeless and helpless. Fly paper not sufficient preventive. Screening inadequate.

In general, a system of daily cleaning of workrooms by a person or by a corps of persons definitely engaged for this work, under careful supervision—a practice already existing in a number of plants—is easily within the reach of all.

Heating.

Heating, so far as could be judged in summer from the types of heating apparatus, was generally good; in only 7 plants in Baltimore and 4 in the rest of the State were the heating systems reported inadequate. In such cases gas heaters or small coal stoves supplied uneven or insufficient heat. In another case where the heating was unsatisfactory the second floor workroom was too hot in winter, whereas the first floor was so cold that most of the workers were forced to wear their wraps all day. The low temperature maintained in connection with certain processes in the candy and meat-packing industries for the sake of the product is a problem to be considered under hazard and strain rather than under heating.

Lighting.

Such highly technical subjects as lighting and ventilation, requiring scientific and individual treatment for the various industries, could not be given exhaustive consideration in a general survey. On the whole, lighting in the 240 Maryland establishments was far from satisfactory, since in 210 of them (87.5 per cent) some defect was reported. In 60 establishments the natural lighting was not entirely satisfactory, in 72 the artificial lighting was inadequate in some respect, and in 78 both natural and artificial lighting were in need of improvement. Every precaution should be taken to prevent bad lighting arrangements for occupations such as inspecting, hand sewing, and the operation of sewing, looping, and knitting machines; wherever, in fact, close and constant application of the eyes is necessary. The main trouble in the plants reported to have inadequate lighting facilities for such processes was the careless placement of workers without reference to the light. Frequently women worked facing a strong glare from unshaded windows. Sometimes there was

insufficient light because of windows too few in number or remote from the workers. In other places obstructions of stock, partitions, or machines cut off the supply of light. The proper use of artificial light may remedy such a situation.

The artificial lighting was found unsatisfactory where electric bulbs were unshaded or were placed too high, too low, or at too great intervals. Even where the work was not taxing on the eyes objectionable shadows or a steady glare from high-power electric bulbs seemed likely to prove injurious to the sight. In some cases where poor natural lighting required the constant use of artificial light, the lack of shades for the bulbs or the infrequency of lights made the arrangement unsatisfactory. One girl complained that she worked in a dim section of a room where artificial light was necessary, but that in the summer it was turned off to reduce the heat, and she had not enough light for her work.

Some managers apparently believed that if enough light was supplied the problem was solved, not knowing that too much illumination or glare is as detrimental to eyesight as is insufficient light. Other managers, realizing that unsatisfactory lighting not only produces impaired vision—which in turn causes nervous fatigue of the whole body—but also limits production, had given careful study to the question. The lighting in these cases was excellent. The many large factory windows were of ground or frosted glass, well-shaded with blinds or muslin curtains. Sometimes a skylight or a saw-tooth roof aided greatly in the lighting of a plant. Work tables and machines placed at right angles to windows added to the comfort of the workers. Individual artificial lights, properly shaded and adjustable, were supplied wherever the work was facilitated thereby.

Investigation indicates the need of State regulation of industrial lighting. A few States have already progressed to the point of having definite lighting codes, specifying the amount and distribution of lighting. Popular education along these lines, with technical guidance, should be an important feature in future developments.

Ventilation.

The ventilation of industrial plants is a complicated matter not only because of the congregation of large working forces but because of the heat, humidity, fumes, dust, and lint prevailing in certain industries. Inadequate ventilation was reported for 52 of the establishments inspected in Maryland. In some instances where the trouble was due to low ceilings, basement workrooms, poor arrangement of windows, and obstructing partitions, it might have been obviated without much difficulty, sometimes merely by the introduc-

tion of electric fans. A more elaborate means of ventilation is described in the following:

Plant equipped with powerful blower system—reaches workrooms by means of galvanized pipes near ceilings. In summer outside air taken from rear roof is blown throughout workrooms, in winter air is passed through large system of heated coils before entering workroom.

Care should be taken in the use of such a blower system to prevent the draft from blowing on the heads of the workers, a defect noted in one plant.

Thirty-three establishments were reported as having failed to solve special problems of ventilation due to the nature of the industry. In textile mills for example, the lint arising in the handling of cotton and wool, together with the moisture from the humidifiers, creates a difficult problem. That these disagreeable features can be greatly minimized was shown by the methods in use in some mills. A few controlled the lint admirably by means of vacuum stripping machines. One system which produced good results in preventing an unduly oppressive atmosphere consisted of a blower and air-washing apparatus combined with a huge exhaust fan. The type of humidifiers used made a great difference as to whether the degree and distribution of the moisture were unduly disagreeable. As an illustration of the wrong kind may be described the arrangement in one mill of overhead pipes with nozzles every eight or ten feet emitting jets of steam and creating an extremely oppressive atmosphere.

Excessive heat and humidity also prevail in laundries unless an effort is made to catch and dissipate the steam by the installation of hoods over mangles and by the operation of electric and exhaust fans. Most of the laundries visited had made definite efforts to improve atmospheric conditions. As illustrative of mismanagement in this respect, however, is the following statement made of one laundry:

Too much humidity—probably available facilities not utilized as fully as could be. Exhaust fan over one washer not running and windows should have been open at the top to let out steam.

Occasionally the same sort of oppressive condition was encountered in restaurant kitchens, when the absence of hoods and exhaust fans permitted the accumulation of heat, vapor, and smoke. In the glass industry, despite the use of a blower and exhaust system, excessive heat in the furnace room was unavoidable. That the problem of ventilation in glass factories does not always receive sufficient attention was shown in one plant where the failure to equip the finishing department with devices for carrying off the heat caused great discomfort to the workers.

Other irritants necessitating the use of artificial devices of ventilation were the dust and fumes generated in some processes. Tobacco

dust was found in varying degrees in the five tobacco factories visited. In three the amount of dust was objectionable and no effort had been made to remove it. In the other two plants such contrivances as blowers, exhausts, and humidifiers reduced the dust to an innocuous minimum. Cork dust and sawdust in several plants were well controlled by exhausts attached to machines. From the successful use of artificial ventilating devices in a number of plants it would appear that the following situation, encountered in one factory, was inexcusable:

In all the rooms the atmosphere was thick with fumes. No protection against them. The product was made according to a secret process, the kind of chemicals not divulged. The wet reddish material which the women handled was smoking constantly, apparently hot.

Even though these fumes may not have been harmful, they were obviously objectionable enough to call for some means of removal.

Seating.

The question of seating has as yet received little scientific consideration in industrial circles. Not considered from the standpoint of physiological construction, but measured only by the ordinary standard which requires the provision of seats with backs for use by women workers, seating was reported unsatisfactory in 115 of the 240 establishments in the following respects:

	Baltimore.	State outside Baltimore.	Total.
Number of establishments with—			
No seats provided for women.....	4	14	18
No seats for women with standing jobs.....	24	4	28
Insufficient number of seats.....	48	44	92
Some or all of the seats without backs.....	59	40	99

Although some legislation has been enacted in Maryland in regard to seats for women it is not sufficiently comprehensive. The law applying to the State outside Baltimore stipulates that a chair or stool be provided for each women in a mercantile establishment who is employed for the purpose of serving the public and that the use thereof be permitted. The law does not apply to manufacturing establishments. The Baltimore city code, however, goes further, requiring every employer in any mercantile or manufacturing establishment in Baltimore to provide and maintain suitable seats for the women employees and permit the use thereof. The establishments in Baltimore in which no seats for women were found were 3 factories and 1 laundry. Those in the rest of the State were 2 laundries, 5 stores, 2 mills, and 5 factories.

Additional proof that these laws were not taken seriously by some employers was found in their attitude toward the subject, one manager

dismissing it with the remark that there were no seats because the women all stood at their work. A number of other managers had failed to realize that women at standing jobs could sit in leisure moments if seats were furnished.

In establishments where the only seats provided were occupied constantly by women whose work required sitting, obviously no seats were available for women at standing jobs to use during an occasional rest. Also, when only two or three chairs were supplied for a hundred or more women the benefit was slight. Sometimes where seats were provided the women hesitated to use them, for as one girl put it, "Nothing is said if you sit, but the boss sort of makes a face at you." Another testified in a similar fashion with the remark, "If they see a girl has time, they give her more to do; you don't dare lean against a window sill if you see the boss coming."

Constant standing is a strain on women workers. It is necessary in comparatively few occupations, as an analysis of the seating arrangements in the various industries visited may indicate.

In stores, despite the State-wide law concerning seats, much improvement was necessary to make the seating for saleswomen adequate. In the general mercantile establishments conditions varied greatly; in several there were apparently enough seats for all women; in others there were no seats, or entirely too few. In one store the three stools for 150 women were clearly insufficient. The hinged seat behind the counter was the most usual type found in stores. Stools and chairs provided for customers were in some instances used also by employees. Five-and-ten-cent stores showed a poor record, since in most cases no seats were provided or the number was wholly inadequate. Occasionally girls were seen sitting on counters or on narrow ledges behind counters.

The seating in textile mills seemed rather casual. For most of the occupations in this industry women stand, though frequently they could sit to watch their machines if seats were available. In several plants where no regular seats were provided for use, women were seen sitting on window sills, trucks, and boxes. In other plants the few stools or benches scattered about were entirely inadequate. In one or two instances, however, it was evident that an effort had been made to supply each worker with a seat for occasional use. Some jobs, such as drawing-in, mending, and sewing, necessitate constant sitting, and in several mills the women performing these were provided with stools, benches, or boxes, giving no support for the back. The loopers, inspectors, and menders in knitting mills were afforded more comfort at their sitting jobs, since all had chairs except those in one mill who were furnished with only stools or boxes. Also, the operators of knitting machines, though required to stand most of the time, usually were supplied with seats.

In laundries, where most of the jobs are considered as standing jobs, but little effort had been made to enable workers to sit during the performance of the work or during rest intervals. Since in some plants the sorters, markers, and folders at mangles were seated, seats would appear practicable for all such workers. In some laundries women were sitting on tables, boxes, stairs, or "anything they could find," in striking contrast to which was the laundry where individual seats to be used whenever possible, were provided for almost all the 200 women employees. Careful study of the subject is revealing the fact that many operations for which formerly only one posture was considered possible may be performed either sitting or standing. This is true of jobs in laundries, since especially devised seats would do away with much unnecessary standing.

In a number of other industries much useless standing could have been prevented. Women stood very generally in the meat-packing plants, with no seats available, although apparently they could have done their work as well if they had been seated. In glass factories but scant effort had been made to look after the comfort of the workers in this respect. It would seem possible and advisable to provide seating arrangements for washers, wipers, and packers; in fact, for most of the women in these establishments, performing jobs outside of the furnace room. "As I just have to sit down sometimes," one woman said, "I get an empty box and stand it on end." Another girl noticed was sitting on a table as she wiped glasses. Equally unsatisfactory were the seating facilities in paper mills. In one establishment women sorting rags stood all day with a chance to sit occasionally on bales of rags. The sorters in another plant sat on piles of scraps, and in a third establishment women counting sheets of paper sat on the floor, on the sides of trucks, or on stools, according to the height of the pile of paper. Even in candy factories there seemed no uniform system of seating. The fact that in some plants the packers and dippers sat or stood, according to preference, proved that there was no excuse for conditions in other plants where women engaged in these occupations were compelled to stand constantly. Wherever seats were found in candy factories, they were almost invariably stools without backs. The use of such stools was prevalent also in paper-box manufacturing, even for girls who sat constantly at their work. In metal shops the workers at standing jobs usually were supplied with some sort of seats. As a rule, the operators of automatic machines in these shops sat on stools and benches. The provision of high stools with backs in one plant, however, and of steel chairs of two heights in another, added greatly to the comfort of the workers.

The seating facilities in garment and straw-hat factories, restaurants, and printing establishments were fair, although seats were

not always furnished the few workers at such standing jobs as pressing and examining in garment factories and blocking and sizing in straw-hat manufacturing.

Generalizations about the seating in the other plants visited is not possible because of the great variety of occupations.

In conclusion it should be emphasized that it is possible and desirable to furnish a sufficient number of comfortable seats for the leisure moments of women at standing jobs, suitable seats for those where sitting or standing at the job is optional, and adjustable seats to relieve the strain of constant sitting.

HAZARD AND STRAIN.

Attention must be called to the menaces to health and safety inherent in or attendant upon various occupations, since in many cases improvements may be effected. Hazards of some sort, occupational or workroom and frequently both, were reported in 97 plants. In a considerable number of establishments a possible strain for women workers was recorded. This subject is a difficult one to discuss, since frequently these objectionable features are inevitable concomitants of the industry. The constant and close application of the eyes in sewing, inspecting, and looping, the heat and humidity in laundries and mills, the excessively high temperature in glass factories and the lowered temperature in chocolate-dipping rooms, are conspicuous examples of this. Every possible precaution should be taken to lessen the risk. As has already been pointed out, special attention to lighting facilities can do much to prevent eyestrain. Also, it has been shown that artificial devices can control such things as lint, dust, heat, and humidity to such a degree that they cease to be dangerous irritants.

On the other hand, during the course of the investigation certain strains and hazards to which women were exposed seemed unnecessarily bad. For example, the girls who "cracked off" in glass factories complained that the heat and gas from the markers' machines hurt their eyes. A better placement of machines and the use of goggles apparently would remedy to a great extent this difficulty. Furthermore, women were reported in a number of plants as lifting and carrying heavy trays, boxes, or loads, where some slight adjustment could have been made to lighten the strain. A striking example of strain from lifting and pressure is the following description of women's work in one metal shop:

Women stand, lift, pull, and press constantly in opening the packs of metal. The packs average 8 sheets, 20 by 28 inches, with an average weight of 18 pounds. The sheets after being rolled and compressed by hot rollers are opened after 24 hours of cooling. The girls lift the packs, stand them on edge, and by dint of striking and pressing with a piece of lead one-third of an inch thick buckled on the hollow of the

right hand, pry apart the corners of the tin. Then the girls pull apart the sheets and pile them on the truck. The pulling requires much muscular effort of the arm. If the tin is poor greater strength must be exerted. Men pull apart the worst stickers with tools. Usually girls average 8,000 to 9,000 pounds of sheets lifted and opened daily.

One girl when visited in her home was suffering from a sprained wrist which had been caused by this work. As illustrative of the cumulative effect of constant lifting may be cited the work in one textile mill in which it is estimated that women speeders and slubbers who handled 1½-pound and 2½-pound bobbins lifted daily 2,700 and 4,500 pounds, respectively.¹ In other mills boy helpers did most of the lifting for women in these occupations. Scientific measurement of effort exerted in industrial work frequently reveals surprising facts. For instance, one girl in a glass factory who had a chance to use a pedometer one day had made a test for herself. According to her own statement she walked 4½ miles in one afternoon in going back and forth between the leer and the furnace room. The study of the relationship between expenditure of effort and industrial efficiency will prove profitable both to the worker in terms of health and energy and to the employer in terms of production.

In fact the subject of fatigue in its relation to health and safety has been too generally neglected. In some Maryland establishments women were compelled, in order to keep up with machines or a team of workers, to work at top speed so continuously that undue exhaustion resulted. When such fatigue is coupled with an excessively long working day it may become so acute and so poisonous to the system as to constitute a hazard; it may be responsible also for industrial accidents, since workers when overtired are apt to be less careful. In one glass plant where the work was heavy, two rest periods of fifteen minutes each were allowed daily, one in the morning and one in the afternoon.

Plant casualties constitute another serious factor in industrial life. Although much attention had been given to this question, evidence was found in certain Maryland establishments pointing the need for greater precaution. Accidents were reported as the result of unguarded presses. Cuts from handling tin and glass were not uncommon. One girl working with heavy glazed paper stated that cuts from the paper frequently festered because of the preparation used in the glaze.

Other hazards observed in a number of establishments might be designated as general workroom hazards. For example, unprotected belts were reported in 31 plants; dangers from machines not necessarily operated by women but located in their vicinity, in 17 plants;

¹ Workers ran 4 to 6 frames of 72 bobbins each, averaging 360 bobbins; 360 bobbins doffed usually 5 times daily, equaling 1,800 bobbins; 1,800 bobbins × 2½ pounds (slubber), equaling 4,500 pounds lifted daily; 1,800 bobbins × 1½ pounds (speeder), equaling 2,700 pounds lifted daily.

unsafe elevators in 10; dangerous conditions, such as unguarded openings in the floors and steep stairways, in 5. Narrow aisles and slippery floors added to the dangers where unguarded machinery was located on such aisles.

That the "safety first" slogan had already been adopted in some places was shown by the excellent means taken to prevent accidents therein. One progressive plant had appointed a special safety committee to study the question.

In general, although hazards and strains are not always avoidable in industrial occupations, the bad effects can be greatly reduced by more careful management, by the installation of guarded machines and comfort facilities, and by the adoption of the 8-hour day.

Fire hazard.

One type of danger which can be carefully guarded against is fire hazard. Every precaution should be taken in industrial plants for the sake of safety, particularly where the force of workers is large and the stock highly inflammable. That this was not done in all cases is shown by the 148 establishments visited which were reported as being inadequate in the matter of fire protection. For such a highly technical subject only the most obvious defects were recorded. These were of various kinds, but about 37 per cent might be classed as serious. Some plants, for example, were located in buildings of more than two stories, yet devoid of fire escapes or provided with unsuitable ones—equipment dangerous because of faulty construction, poor location, or bad condition. In a few instances where the fire escape on the building was adequate there was not free and ready access thereto from all parts of the building. In several plants a ladder to the roof was the only escape for use in emergency. Dark, narrow, or winding stairways, as well as stairways of wood or those constructed with triangular treads, were considered dangerous, especially where they were the only means of exit in case of emergency.

Other hazards, not so grave but possible causes of disaster in case of fire, were entrance doors that opened inward instead of outward, a rather common defect, since in 105 of the 240 plants all entrance doors opened inward. In the matter of exit signs, only 27 establishments were reported as having some or all of the exits marked, and most of these were department stores where the presence of the public demanded such protection.

Although certain obstructions noted, such as the crowding of aisles with stock or tables, were of a temporary nature, they constituted a hazard for the time being. Other more permanent obstructions in front of fire-escape exits also were reported. Stoves in dangerous proximity to walls or without protecting jackets were observed in some of the smaller establishments. Nor was it uncommon to find in a plant the total lack of any apparatus for extinguishing flames.

On the other hand certain plants had taken every precaution in the installation of fire extinguishers. An overhead sprinkler system was found in 70 establishments, and fire walls and doors as a safeguard were observed in 67.

SANITATION.

In a consideration of the health and efficiency of the workers the question of sanitation is admittedly of paramount importance. Accordingly, a detailed State sanitary code, enforced through careful inspection and supervision, is an effective means of producing good results. Although some legislation in this respect has been enacted in Maryland, it is limited in scope and vague as to meaning, facts which will be developed in the following sections:

Drinking facilities.

Drinking facilities were reported inadequate in 172 Maryland establishments in the following respects:

Number of establishments with—

No drinking facilities.....	2
Drinking facilities inconveniently located.....	21
Common cups the only provision.....	71
No cups provided.....	84
Insanitary bubble fountains.....	16

It would seem reasonable to expect each establishment to supply cool drinking water easily accessible to all employees. In one plant, however, the only water was that brought in a bucket from a spring near by. In another establishment where water was provided on only the first and fifth floors, the girls on the fourth floor brought ice water in thermos bottles. The lack of convenient facilities in one store visited encouraged the employees to spend money for root beer, which was sold in one corner of the room.

The most flagrant transgression in regard to sanitary drinking arrangements was the provision of the common cup. The law of the State reads:

The use of the common drinking cup, an undoubted source of communication of infectious diseases, is hereby prohibited in all public places within this State and upon all railroad trains carrying passengers and all boats carrying passengers while in this State, and the State board of health shall have full authority to establish such reasonable rules and regulations to make this prohibition effective as in their judgment seems wise and proper.²

The term "public places" is vague, permitting of several interpretations. According to the State department of legislative reference in Baltimore, the inclusion of private industrial establishments in the terminology is the intent of the law, although the question has never come up for legal interpretation. The manager of a factory, mill,

² Session laws of Maryland, 1912, ch. 156, sec. 1.

or laundry from which the general public is excluded might, however, construe the law as not applying to his premises. At any rate, the common drinking cup was found in about 30 per cent of the plants visited. The custom in some establishments of expecting the workers to furnish their own cups results frequently in the use of the common cup or of no cup at all. The manager in a glass factory stated that although individual cups or bottles were available for the employees, they were careless about the matter. Another manager complained because "the girls were too particular and insisted upon having their own cups." More extensive education concerning the evils of the common cup would seem advisable. The use of individual paper cups, customary in some plants, is possible for all. Nevertheless, in only 56 plants were individual cups of any sort provided.

Twenty plants had installed bubble fountains, but in only four instances were these reported to be of a sanitary type.³ The exposure of the danger lurking in what was believed to be an ideal drinking arrangement was made in an article entitled "Possible dangers of the bubble fountain" in the *Journal of the American Medical Association* several years ago.⁴ Here it was shown that an epidemic of streptococcus tonsillitis in the University of Wisconsin was traced directly to the bubble fountains in the buildings. This circumstance led to an extensive bacteriological investigation of the hygiene of the bubble fountain in general, with the discovery that it may be a powerful factor in transmitting disease, since germs left in the jet of water may fall back on the fountain and remain a menace for several hours. This difficulty is obviated, however, if the tube is inclined at an angle of 15° or more from the vertical and is equipped with an adequate collar to prevent possible contact of the lips with the orifice. The need for education on this subject is urgent, since, to quote from the article referred to, "Danger disguised in the cloak of safety is a menace of the most potent sort, particularly when it receives the approbation of health authorities in the way that the bubble fountain has shared it."⁵

Washing facilities.

Washing facilities varied widely in the different plants, but were reported as unsatisfactory in some respect in 208 of them. The prevalence of the chief defects was as follows:

Number of establishments with—

Common towels provided.....	56
Washing facilities inconveniently located.....	23
No hot water provided.....	141
No soap provided.....	110
No towels provided.....	113

³ In two other plants where there were bubble fountains there was no report as to whether they were sanitary or insanitary.

⁴ Possible danger of the bubble fountain. *Journal American Medical Association*, vol. 67, No. 20, Nov. 11, 1916, p. 1451.

⁵ *Idem*.

The common towel, like the common drinking cup, is a great danger in spreading infectious disease. Consequently, a law was passed in Maryland in 1920 prohibiting the use of the common towel in public places throughout the State; the enforcement was placed under the jurisdiction of the State board of health. The same ambiguity exists in this law as in the one regarding the common drinking cup, rendering it insufficiently comprehensive. Also, the fact that in 56 establishments, 8 of which were plants handling food products, common towels were in use, shows the need of propaganda on the subject. In many cases the common towels were filthy. One manager of a plant in which two roller towels were supplied for 59 women, apologized with the remark, "A towel gets very dirty by the end of the day, when there are so many using it." One girl in a confectionery store said that she preferred to use her handkerchief or apron instead of the rag hanging at the sink. In some plants where no towels were provided women were reported as wiping their hands on rags, scraps, or wrapping paper. The custom seemed to be general in laundries for the workers, whenever in need of a towel, to take one that was in the process of being laundered and then throw it back to be washed again. A fee of 5 cents a week for towel service was charged in several plants.

The lack of hot water and soap in so many of the establishments visited caused a definite hardship to employees when they worked with sticky substances or greasy machines. Furthermore, the absence of adequate washing facilities in establishments handling food products constituted a definite menace to the public health. The Maryland law reads:

Every building, basement, cellar, or other place occupied or used for the preparation, manufacture, packing, canning, sale, or distribution of food shall have a convenient lavatory and shall be supplied with soap, water, and towels maintained in a sanitary condition.⁶

In the interests of comfort and sanitation it is not too much to ask that such a law be amended, requiring "hot water" and applying to all industrial and mercantile establishments. Of the 233 establishments for which information on washing facilities was secured, only 23 in Baltimore and 3 in the rest of the State were reported as having a combination of hot water, soap, and individual towels. Of these 26 plants, 11 were restaurants and 1 was a candy factory. The other food establishments lacked these essentials for cleanliness.

A few plants were conspicuous in that they had provided wash-rooms supervised by a matron and equipped with porcelain washbowls, liquid soap, hot water, and paper towels. At the other end of the scale were those plants where a pump in the engine room or back yard was the only arrangement for washing.

⁶ Session laws of Maryland, 1914, ch. 678, sec. 3c.

Toilets.

The record for toilets was especially poor, as 213 of the 240 plants were found inadequate in some respect. This is due largely to the lack of a detailed law regulating toilet conditions. With the exception of a law dealing with nuisances dangerous to health, the only state-wide legislation concerning toilets applies solely to establishments where food is handled. It stipulates that in such plants toilets must be provided in convenient locations, separate for men and women, partitioned off from the workroom, and kept clean. In addition to this law there is a Baltimore city ordinance which reads:

Employers or others conducting any business or occupation in the city of Baltimore in which the services of men, women, or children may be required shall keep and maintain in good order, and in a cleanly and safe condition, separate privies or water-closets for males and females, whenever or wherever employees may be of different sexes.⁷

The need for improved legislation is evident from an analysis of the situation revealed and the variety of defects encountered. Two plants in Baltimore and four in the rest of the State had no toilets for the women. In 107 plants some or all of the toilets were entered directly from the workroom, a condition objectionable unless special care is taken in the matter of screening and privacy. Ninety establishments were reported as lacking screens before the entrances to toilets which opened directly into workrooms, halls, or yards. Too frequently the partitions separating toilets from workrooms, lunchrooms, or cloakrooms did not extend to the ceiling, as was the case with some or all of the arrangements in 60 plants in Baltimore and in 20 in the rest of the State. The question of ventilation was a serious one in such instances. In several the only ventilation was from public restaurants. In general, all the toilets in 86 plants were unsatisfactorily ventilated. There was no outside ventilation in any of the toilets of 50 of these plants nor in some of the toilets of 11 others.

In 33 establishments some or all of the toilet seats were not partitioned off from each other or were not inclosed within a washroom or cloakroom. In 122 establishments none of the toilets were designated. In 29, men and women used the same; in 10, women used the same as the public; and in 10 others men and women employees and the public used the same. Twenty of these establishments were in Baltimore—including some where, in spite of the law, men and women used the same toilets—and 29 were in the rest of the State. It was reported in one store where the girls used the toilet room with the public that it was often so crowded by shoppers that it was not available for the girls. In one plant white and negro men used the same toilet used by the women.

⁷ Baltimore City Code, 1906, art. 14, sec. 158.

The number of toilets was insufficient in 87 establishments; in fact, plants were reported with as many as 56, 80, and even 110 women using one seat.

Some or all of the toilets in 72 establishments were not clean at the time of the inspection. A few were described as "filthy" or "ankle deep in trash." In 34 plants girls employed for other work were obliged to clean the toilets. In 35 establishments there was no regular system or interval for cleaning, and in some instances no one was responsible for this task. The practice in a few cases of having a matron in charge produced good results. In 25 plants some of the toilets were out of repair at the time of the inspection. In 45 plants none of the toilets were adequately lighted.

The following excerpts from the reports of the investigators describe some of the unsatisfactory conditions. The first is more or less typical of the toilets in a number of Baltimore establishments visited:

Toilets partitioned from far end of workroom on third floor, with outside window. Partition did not reach ceiling. Dirty, odor bad. Needed good scrubbing. Manager said it was cleaned every day but agent doubted it. Negro porter cleans. Women's toilet adjoins men's. Doors not designated. White and negro girls both use same toilet; 36 girls to toilet seat.

The next is illustrative of the kind of toilet occasionally encountered in the State outside Baltimore:

Privy in yard, with window for light and ventilation. Dirty and disorderly. Cleaned at irregular intervals by negro woman. Water standing in vault almost at ground level. No screen. No designation. No toilet paper. Three seats, but not screened from each other. Used only by women, manager stated. Not locked and might be used by public. No houses very near.

The next two are examples of exceptionally bad conditions:

Negro girls' toilet quite a walk across yard from where they work. Row of several outhouses with drainage direct into river. Some of them for men, others for women, not designated which. Buildings loosely constructed of boards over concrete floor. No seats provided, merely holes in floor, which was filthy with fecal matter. Manager could give no definite information about cleaning.

Two seats, separate compartments located at foot of stairway from second floor to back yard. One had a door and the other had not, and occupant could easily be seen in latter. No light and no ventilation, though both unnecessary as doors were open all the time. No paper, not designated, not screened, floor of each littered with pieces of newspaper. Both filthy, one so caked that the wooden seat would not go down. Supposed to be cleaned by the owner of the house but neglected. Worker said she never went there if she could help it. Girl and men use this toilet. Number per seat uncertain—31 men in addition to girl, and probably more.

Such conditions are inexcusable. The plea advanced by some managers that the carelessness of employees is responsible for insanitary conditions is palpably a subterfuge. Many employees instead of being indifferent are so disturbed by bad toilet facilities that they

endeavor not to use them. The attitude of one worker is evident from her remark that "the toilets are not fit for animals, they have more sanitary quarters than we do." Another woman worker in conducting the investigator through the plant apologized for the toilet, adding, "But it's all there is, so we have to use it." To secure the cooperation of thoughtless employees in maintaining sanitary premises, some education may be necessary. In one plant, for example, placards were placed on the outside and inside of each toilet door reading respectively, "Please help to keep this place clean" and "Improve your own comfort and others, by helping to keep this room and fixtures clean and in good condition." The opinion voiced by one intelligent woman touched the heart of the problem. She felt that the girls were partly responsible for the dirty toilets and washrooms, but that "if the rooms were cleaned out oftener by the janitor, the girls would take more pride in keeping them nice."

As part of a State code, detailed specifications regarding the provision of an adequate number of toilets, separate for men and women, as well as about the location, ventilation, privacy, lighting, cleanliness, and designation are necessary for the maintenance of a high standard in this respect.

Uniforms.

Uniforms must be considered from the points of view of sanitation and safety. The advisability of wearing special working clothing depends largely upon the job. However, in all occupations where workers handle food products, or where they operate machines with the possibility of skirt or hair being caught, or where they are exposed to oil, dust, or other substances detrimental to clothing, uniforms are desirable. The type of garment should vary with the job.

In the study of this question in Maryland, women were found wearing uniforms in 35 establishments where food was handled. In 14 of these some or all of the uniforms were furnished by the firm, and in 13 plants they were kept in condition by the firm. An excellent system was reported in one candy plant where comfortable caps and aprons were furnished and laundered, the girls being required to change their uniforms twice a week. In several plants the girls bought their uniforms from the firm at cost. Some of the women in the meat-packing industry, for example, who wore rubber boots to protect their feet, got them at a reduced rate from the firms. In 7 of the 13 plants where the women were compelled to wear gloves and other protection for the hands, some or all of the equipment necessary was provided. In a metal plant, however, where the work necessitated the wearing of gloves, many of the women were compelled to buy a new pair weekly at 25 cents a pair. The cost of

the provision and maintenance of uniforms by workers is apt to amount to quite an item in their budget and should be taken into account in the matter of wages.

SERVICE FACILITIES.

Other arrangements for the comfort of the women, such as lunchrooms, cloakrooms, restrooms, and first-aid equipment, were found to vary greatly in the establishments inspected.

Lunchrooms.

Lunch rooms of some sort were found in 42 of the 240 establishments. In 24 other establishments employees were allowed to eat in restaurants maintained for the public. Of the lunchrooms provided exclusively for employees, 12 were rated as generally unsatisfactory as to size, equipment, or cleanliness. As an example of such inadequacy is the following description:

Lunchroom is under stairway from street. The sloping roof affords very little floor space where girls can stand erect. Several chairs, but no other furniture. No light except from the artificial light in the store. No ventilation; odor very objectionable. Papers and dirty milk bottles scattered about.

In contrast is another report illustrative of the best type of lunchroom seen:

Cafeteria in large attractive room on top floor. Windows on two sides, with sunlight streaming in. Small tables and chairs. Hot food served at cost. Food ordered and prepared under direction of experienced cafeteria director. Piano and rockers at other end of room. Magazines on table.

An elaborate equipment would not be possible for all plants, especially those employing but few women. A general service room, affording rest, lunch, and locker facilities, however, if properly arranged may answer every purpose. In 15 of the 42 plants reporting lunchrooms for employees such combination rooms were found, but not all of these were adequate. In some plants, even though hot food was not available the workers had facilities for making hot drinks. Altogether, in 51 plants hot lunches could be purchased at reasonable rates, and in 7 others coffee was furnished. It was stated in a few plants where there were cafeterias that the employees were encouraged to eat therein even when they brought their own lunch. One plant which had provided an attractive and inexpensive cafeteria had made the mistake of allowing only a 25-minute lunch period. Consequently, the women who worked in a remote part of the building were unable to patronize the lunchroom. As one girl said, "It's so far and the time's so short and it takes so long to clean ourselves up to eat with other people, that we can't use it." It is, therefore, not only necessary to have a conveniently located lunchroom but also a sufficiently long lunch period.

In some of the 184 plants without a lunchroom it was stated that most of the women went home for their midday meal. Even so, there were women who for one reason or another were compelled to eat lunch in these plants. Also, others might have preferred to remain rather than hasten home for a hurried meal if there had been a pleasant place in the plant in which to eat. In the great majority of establishments, however, the workers were unable to go home, and as no provision whatever had been made for lunch the girls ate in the workrooms at machines or worktables. Such a system is to be discountenanced, for too frequently the materials and débris of the work make unappetizing surroundings. In any case it is much better for the worker to eat in a comfortable place with no reminder of her job, so that when she resumes it after a satisfactory lunch she will feel refreshed mentally and physically.

Cloakrooms.

It seems reasonable to expect adequate facilities for wraps in every establishment employing women. Nevertheless, the record for cloakrooms in the Maryland industries showed need of much improvement in this respect. Although 131 establishments had provided some sort of cloakrooms, in 48 they were unsatisfactory because they were dirty, poorly ventilated, insufficiently lighted, or badly crowded. The two following excerpts from reports picture typically good and bad conditions:

Cloakroom in the basement is a locker room with many steel lockers. Some are long for wraps, others are small and square for the hats. Lockers have wire doors with keys, and two girls have charge of the room. It is light and well ventilated.

Girls hang wraps in dark closet under the stairs. No electric light. Girls leave door ajar when they go in. Floor broken; walls dingy.

Of the 240 establishments only 44 provided lockers for some or all of the women. In some cases the lockers were not in the cloakrooms but in the halls or workrooms. Occasionally the lockers were broken and could not be made secure, or they were dirty and contained trash. The manager in one plant where the lockers were described as covered with an accumulation of dust, and as having broken hinges to the doors complained because the girls did not seem to appreciate the lockers and hence did not use them. Since the lockers failed to fulfill their function of protecting belongings from theft and dust, this fact is not surprising. Some authorities on the subject, however, prefer other arrangements than lockers. A type of cloakroom recommended is one equipped with iron racks, coat hangers, and shelves or boxes for hats and personal belongings. The system of having a matron to supervise the service facilities and to look after the cleaning of the rooms and the comfort of the girls is said to produce excellent results. In a large number of plants the only arrangements for wraps were

hooks or nails on the walls of the workrooms. As one girl said, "You wouldn't have that if you didn't find your own nail and drive it in." The workers in one restaurant hung their wraps in the kitchen. An inspection of dusty workrooms and of jobs detrimental to clothes makes apparent the urgent need of a room where wraps can be kept and clothing changed if necessary. Frequently women desire to change their clothes and especially their shoes before and after working; the lack of a room for this purpose is a serious handicap. One woman who worked in a plant where there was much wear and tear on her clothes and who lived some distance from the plant changed her clothes and shoes in a small, gloomy toilet in which there was barely room to close the door after entering. Some of the plants visited had made admirable arrangements for providing a maximum of comfort for employees and a minimum of risk for their belongings.

Restrooms.

In every plant employing women there should be provided a place for resting with a couch and other facilities for use in case of sickness and emergencies. That this need had received but little recognition from Maryland employers is shown by the small number of restrooms encountered. Only 37 plants had made such provisions, and 18 of these were unsatisfactory as to equipment and cleanliness. Conspicuous illustrations of insufficiency were the rest facilities reported for two plants—a seatless rocking chair in the dressing room of the one and a broken couch in the cloakroom of the other. As proof of the lack of understanding of the subject was the remark of one manager, who when questioned as to his equipment replied, "The girls are not paid to rest." Another manager, who had failed to grasp the basic principle that comfort facilities are of vital importance in the maintenance of health and efficiency, stated that "the girls come here to work and not to rest." Occasionally a sick girl was seen sitting in the window sill or lying on the concrete floor of a toilet room. The absence of a restroom frequently means the loss of an entire day for a girl who is compelled to go home for a slight indisposition when a short rest might enable her to go on with her work. In an emergency the lack of a restroom may cause distressing situations. Facilities for resting are especially desirable in industries where the women stand continuously at their jobs. In two glass factories, for example, in which the women were allowed two short rest periods a day, the arrangement was less advantageous because of the lack of restrooms.

In a few plants comfortable and attractive rooms equipped with couches, rocking-chairs, rugs, curtains, and sometimes with a victrola and magazines, were a great asset.

Health equipment.

Because of an occasional accident or illness every establishment should have a first-aid equipment. Of the 238 establishments for which this information was secured, 116 had no such equipment or one totally inadequate. The other 122 had first-aid equipment of varying degrees of completeness. Among these have not been included those plants which reported peroxide, linseed oil, "headache medicine," or butter for burns as the only remedy provided. One manager in a textile mill lacking a first-aid equipment dismissed the matter briefly with the remark, "None is needed." In a few instances where a cabinet of remedies was found there was no person in charge of administering aid. On the other hand, in some plants were excellent measures for looking after the health of the workers. A hospital room was reported in 30 establishments, a nurse in attendance in 15, and a doctor giving medical attention in 2. Other managers stated that a doctor was on call and would be summoned in case of an emergency. In 17 plants records were kept of accidents occurring and of cases treated. Only 2 of the 37 establishments where food was handled required a medical examination either upon entering employment or during the period of service.

The following description illustrates the more extensive hospital equipment found in a few of the large, progressive establishments:

A complete first-aid equipment is provided in the suite of hospital rooms for the use of the nurse and doctor. The rooms are painted white. The suite consists of a small waiting room, the private laboratory with the equipment, and a third room with two beds and a hospital cot which serves as a restroom. These rooms and equipment are immaculately clean. As many as 145 to 150 cases have been taken care of in one day by the nurse. There are all sorts of cases, ranging from such serious ones as the loss of a finger to headaches, indigestion, cuts, and burns. The nurse emphasizes the need of taking care of the general health of the women and pays attention to general debility and building up the girls' health. Such cases are kept on record.

This department keeps in touch with the organization of the Maryland State industrial nurses.

A complete arrangement of this sort is not to be expected in any but a large plant, but it is possible for even the smallest industrial or mercantile establishment to have a couch in a rest room and a complete first-aid cabinet with a responsible person in charge to administer aid in case of an emergency.

EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING.

Employment management.

Employment management is an extensive subject, about which only a limited amount of information could be obtained in this investigation. Questions were asked as to what person employed, discharged, and transferred from one department to another within the plant. A variety of answers was received. In 200 establish-

ments the employment of workers was centralized; that is, all employing, discharging, or transferring was done by the management or referred thereto. In such cases the plant manager, the superintendent, the owner, or a foreman or forewoman with complete authority was in charge of all matters of employment. In 29 establishments, however, these matters were left to the separate departments, frequently to the foreman in charge of each. In other cases the employing was done by one person and the discharging or transferring by another. Such methods mean a greater possibility of injustice to individual workers than where these matters are under one head. Sometimes in the plants visited a system of consultation produced satisfactory results when the manager consulted with the foreman or heads of departments. In the unionized shops of the clothing industry it was reported that, although the managers usually did the employing, the discharging was done according to the union rules and under the supervision of the union. A definite employment manager was reported in 15 establishments, which were for the most part large and well systematized firms. The metal shops showed the best record in this respect, as 6 of the 10 visited had employment managers.

The excellent system in operation in one candy plant was described as follows:

All work relative to employment is done through the cooperation of the heads of the departments with the superintendent and the woman in charge of the employment department. Both men and women make application to the employment manager. If approved, they are required to fill out cards and then to go to the nurse for a physical examination. If they are not rejected on account of physical condition, they are given a job. In busy seasons there is a weekly meeting of department heads for the discussion of general matters. A suggestion box is kept in the workrooms into which employees may put suggestions; these are discussed at the meetings. If any suggestion is found practicable, the employee is rewarded. In this way a spirit of cooperation between employers and employees is maintained.

The method used in another plant tended to insure justice to the worker. The overseers were required, in discharging a worker, to write out the reason for discharge and send it to the employment manager. The worker was allowed to appeal his case to an employment committee and to have a hearing.

It is now generally conceded that a carefully worked-out policy of employment management is one of the best ways of securing labor, of maintaining a low labor turnover, and of establishing satisfactory relations between employers and employees. It is not to be expected that a small plant employing but a few workers should have a person devoting full time to this, but it is advisable for the sake of efficiency and justice that matters of employment and personal supervision should be in the hands of some intelligent person with the proper qualifications for the work.

Where women are employed to any extent it is desirable to have a competent woman in a supervisory position. Women are, as a rule, better qualified to consider problems dealing specifically with women. In 25 of the plants visited a woman was connected in some way with the employment of the workers. In 2 of these a woman was employment manager and in 5 others a woman was the general business manager. In a few plants forewomen were in charge of all matters of employment, and in a few others they acted after consultation with the manager.

Employment records were kept in 59 plants. These varied from simple statements as to age and previous employment, to detailed records of the personal and industrial history of the workers.

Training.

The amount of training necessary for a new and inexperienced worker naturally depends upon the degree of skill required for a job. In the industries investigated the training needed and supplied varied from a few simple instructions to several months of careful teaching. A number of managers stated that no training was given in the plant, either because of the simple work or because of the policy of employing only experienced workers.

A discussion of the systems or lack of systems for training encountered in the several industries may serve to throw light on the industrial opportunities and needs of women in Maryland as well as on the character of the industries employing women.

Of the women included in the survey the largest number engaged in one type of work were the store employees. Also of the methods of training recorded in the survey the most efficient were those in a few of the large stores visited in Baltimore. In the last few years there has been a definite movement throughout the country to train store employees. That the Baltimore stores were progressive in this respect was shown by the excellent systems of training encountered in a few of the department stores of the city. The following description gives some idea of the extent and workings of such a system:

Training department is organized under an educational director with five assistants. Classes are held for cashiers every day for a week, during one week each month. These are arranged for various groups at the most convenient time. Classes for stock girls in groups are held three times a week. The work in the classes is partly academic and partly vocational.

New saleswomen are trained by the department sponsor, that is, a sales person in each department chosen to help beginners, to establish a personal relation with them, and to instruct them about the stock, records, and store in general.

Weekly or biweekly talks on the particular goods in a department are given by the head of the department. Meetings of various groups, such as the department heads and sponsors, are held from time to time for educational purposes.

In a few other large stores were similar but less extensive systems. Some of the smaller stores stated that their policy was to employ

only experienced workers, thereby relieving themselves of the burden of training. Although the 5-and-10-cent stores pursued the policy of employing inexperienced girls, the stores of this type visited had no efficient methods of training. Beginners were instructed by managers or older workers or expected to "pick up the work." One manager's plan was "to break the girls in gradually on Saturday work."

The next largest group of women in any one industry was in the garment trades. As already shown, the women in this industry were engaged largely in semiskilled jobs. There seemed, however, a very strong trend toward not training the workers in the plants, since one-half of the clothing factories visited reported that there was no training done in the plant or that only experienced workers were employed. This was generally true of the men's clothing shops in Baltimore. Some instruction in the plant was reported for a few of the men's clothing shops outside Baltimore and also for some of the women's clothing factories both in Baltimore and in the rest of the State. In only two plants were special instructors found, and in a third the beginners were taught by an experienced worker, who was paid a time rate. In the other cases the foreman, forewoman, or manager gave the instruction.

Although almost 1,700 women were engaged in textile occupations which required in many cases a great deal of skill, the training in the plants was largely unsystematized. Experienced workers, as a rule, instructed beginners, or the beginners "picked up" their knowledge. In only one mill was any statement made about special pay for the teacher. The reports from two mills, however, indicated a branching off from haphazard methods. In the one no beginners were trained, the workers being obtained from textile schools; in the other, although it was customary for beginners to be taught by the skilled workers, an effort was being made to offer systematic instruction. For two years a night class had been held, conducted by two special teachers, giving training in textile processes and textile mathematics, with an enrollment of 35 adults.

The metal establishments visited were an important industrial field for women, employing over 1,000. Most of the processes performed by women were mechanical in nature, such as the tending of automatic machines, and, as one manager said, "women learn their mechanical tasks very easily." Accordingly, the little training necessary was given by the foremen or experienced workers. In one shop, however, the women were engaged in the highly technical operations of boring, milling, hammering, surfacing, grinding, filing, gauge setting, inspecting with micrometer tests, and welding imperfections. At the time of the investigation all the women in this plant were highly experienced. During the war, when it was necessary to substitute

women for men in the skilled occupations in metal shops throughout the country, women were given special training and a chance to prove their ability in this line. Even after the return of men to the metal industry many of the women who had acquired the necessary skill were retained. Untrained women, however, have at present but little opportunity of breaking into this field. If in the future women are to enter upon such work for which a number have a natural aptitude and ability, girls must be given the same opportunities as boys for training in vocational schools. As yet, except for the usual courses in dressmaking, sewing, and millinery, extremely little has been done in this respect.

The straw-hat industry was found to be employing a large number of women, and these were engaged in the jobs of cutting, machine operating, hand sewing, blocking, and sizing, all of which usually require considerable proficiency. According to the opinion of one superintendent, three months' experience was necessary before a girl could attain sufficient skill to make much money. In his plant was a separate instruction department. An experienced woman gave her entire time to teaching machine and hand work to beginners. In a second straw-hat factory the employees also were instructed by a woman engaged for that purpose. Such an arrangement is undoubtedly more satisfactory than that encountered in the other plants in this industry, where the forelady had the task of "breaking in green help" added to her other duties.

Although cigar and cigarette manufacturing employed a large number of women, some of them in the skilled process of hand cigar making, very little information was obtainable about training. Two of the five plants visited reported that there was no training at all, and a third that there had been little since the war. The other two stated that the foreman trained when necessary.

In candy manufacturing the only jobs performed by women necessitating some degree of skill were the chocolate and cream dipping. Any instruction needed in the plants visited was given by the forewomen. In the various other food establishments there was in only one instance a woman engaged especially to teach new workers. The processes in the food plants were on the whole simple ones, such as washing, labeling, and packing. Some of the occupations in the meat-packing industry required experience—for example, trimming meat and stuffing and twisting sausages—but at the time of the survey, since plenty of experienced workers were available, there were but few beginners.

In paper-box manufacturing women were engaged in both machine and hand work. The operation of staying, stripping, or covering machines was a mechanical job in each case, whereas hand covering, decorating, and putting on fancy bottoms required more skill and

experience. A system of helpers is customary in this industry. The helpers assist in turn at the various occupations and are gradually initiated into the trade. In the plants visited the training was done by the foreman or forewoman, and in one plant by experienced workers who were paid time rates while teaching.

The few women in the wooden-box factories were engaged in staying and lining boxes. In two plants the instruction was given by experienced workers. The teacher in one case received definite pay in addition to her piecework wage. In the other the learner was given a flat rate of \$8 a week, and the teacher was allowed besides her regular pay whatever the beginner would have made at a piecework rate. It took two or three weeks for the new worker to earn as a pieceworker more than the initial rate.

There were also only a few women in the highly skilled trades of printing and publishing. These were engaged chiefly in bookbinding, although several operated cylinder printing presses. The bindery jobs were simple but varied, and girls changed from one to the other in order to master the trade. Training was given by foremen and forewomen. One foreman showed his union card, which he said it was necessary to have in order to instruct apprentices.

In glass factories new workers were taught sometimes by foremen and sometimes by experienced workers. The policy in one plant was to start the new employees on simple jobs in the department. Although a few women in the plants visited were engaged in the processes of putting on patterns, gold laying, and decorating, which require some skill, the great majority were in such jobs as carrying the glass from the furnace to the leer, tending automatic machines to grind off rough edges on the glass articles, sorting, washing, cleaning the molds, wrapping, and so on. For all of this work little skill is necessary.

In the miscellaneous industries women were engaged on jobs too varied to enumerate. None of the establishments reported any other training than by foremen, forewomen, or experienced workers. The manager of one small umbrella establishment producing high-class goods stated that there was no training at that time in his plant, but that his workers came from other large umbrella establishments. He also said that it took three or four years for a girl to learn hand sewing and tipping well enough to work on silk umbrellas, that she had first to serve an apprenticeship on cotton ones.

Any little training given in laundries was by foremen, forewomen, managers, or experienced workers, according to the individual plant. In restaurants, where practically no training was necessary—as one manager said, a girl became accustomed to the work in a day or two—the head waitress, proprietor, or chef gave instructions.

A recapitulation of the foregoing indicates that all too frequently the methods by which workers learn their trades are haphazard and casual. It was only in a few well-organized establishments that a special teacher was definitely appointed and paid for the task of training beginners. In this way much better results are obtainable. Waste and friction are reduced; efficiency is increased. On the other hand, when experienced workers are expected to do the training, they may resent the trouble and time required and, in the case of piece-workers, the money lost in the training of "green help." The beginner may develop slipshod habits or become so discouraged as to give up the job. This method may serve as a serious handicap to all concerned—the experienced worker, the new employee, and the firm.

PART IV.

HOURS.

In a study of the hours of labor for women it is important to consider not only the working schedules prevailing in various establishments but also the State laws regulating hours. Despite those progressive firms which voluntarily have adopted shorter schedules than the hours permitted by law, there are always certain other plants which keep their working hours stretched to the limit of the law, no matter how backward that law may be.

Consequently, it is for such employers that effective legislation is necessary, as a wall to prevent ebbing from the tide of industrial progress. Maryland is one of the States which are conservative about bringing hour laws up to modern standards. The State law for women workers reads as follows:

No female shall be employed or permitted to work in any manufacturing, mechanical, mercantile, printing, baking, or laundering establishment more than ten hours in any*one day, nor more than sixty hours in any one week, nor more than eight hours in any one day, if any part of her work is done before six o'clock in the morning or after ten o'clock in the evening of the said day. * * *

But the provisions of this section shall not apply to females employed in the canning or preserving, or preparing for canning or preserving of perishable fruit and vegetables. And provided further that in any retail mercantile establishments located outside of the city of Baltimore a female may be permitted to work on Saturdays and on Christmas Eve and the five working days next preceding Christmas Eve not more than twelve hours, if during each of such Saturdays and Christmas Eve and five days aforesaid the female so employed shall have at least two rest intervals of not less than one hour each, and this provision shall only apply to such mercantile establishments as have during the remainder of the calendar year a working day of not more than nine hours.¹

In general this places Maryland in the 10-hours-a-day, 60-hours-a-week class. There are five other States in the country with a similar law and only ten others more backward in hour legislation.

To turn from the legal to the industrial hour records obtained in the survey, is to inspire hope that Maryland law will eventually be brought up to the standards set by those plants now serving as pioneers in the shortening of hours. This will give the necessary momentum to the backward establishments.

Information about hours was obtained from the statements of managers. The data given in this section represent the normal scheduled hours of the establishments visited and not short-time

¹ Session Laws of Maryland, 1916, ch. 147, sec. 14.

schedules resulting from the industrial depression. It should be borne in mind also that the hours tabulated are not the actual hours worked by the individual women. It is not always possible to get the actual daily hours for each worker, since in a number of establishments no record is available; also, daily and weekly hours actually worked by the women during the period of the investigation were in many instances far below normal.

The great difference between the industrial status of Baltimore and that of other cities and towns in the State has made it advisable to consider Baltimore separately in this discussion. Furthermore, in the matter of hours restaurants have been tabulated and treated apart from the other establishments on account of the irregularities characteristic of the industry.

DAILY HOURS.

The following table gives the number of establishments and of women working certain specified hours a day:

TABLE 2.—Scheduled daily hours of women, by industry—Monday to Friday.

BALTIMORE.

Industry.	Total number reporting.		Number whose hours were—											
			Under 8.		8		Over 8 and under 9.		9		Over 9 and under 10.		10	
	Estab-lishments	Women.	Estab-lishments	Women.	Estab-lishments	Women.	Estab-lishments	Women.	Estab-lishments	Women.	Estab-lishments	Women.	Estab-lishments	Women.
Manufacturing:														
Boxes, paper.....	5	218					3	161	2	57				
Boxes, wooden.....	3	59					1	38			1	15	1	6
Candy.....	6	384					1	66	3	223	2	95		
Cigars.....	4	825			2	283	1	292			1	250		
Clothing, men's.....	26	935			19	65	3	9	3	860	1	1		
Clothing, women's and children's.....	14	465			6	147	6	306	2	12				
Hats, men's.....	5	929					5	929						
Meat products.....	3	87	2	67									1	20
Metal products.....	9	978			1	312	1	105	4	344	1	104	2	113
Printing and publishing.....	4	28					4	28						
Textiles.....	6	1,170					3	957	2	178			1	35
Umbrellas.....	3	141							3	141				
Miscellaneous.....	13	803	1	53	2	123	1	18	7	511	2	98		
General mercantile.....	10	2,775	9	2,720	2	55								
5-and-10-cent stores.....	4	145	1	63	3	82								
Laundries.....	10	390	2	21	1	13			1	7	6	349		
All industries.....	125	10,332	15	2,924	36	1,080	29	2,909	27	2,333	14	912	5	174
Per cent distribution.....		100.0		28.3		10.5		28.2		22.6		8.8		1.7

¹ Includes one establishment with 237 women working 7½ hours and 40 women working 8 hours.

² Sum of establishments classified by hours exceeds total, because of certain establishments appearing in more than one column.

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WOMEN IN MARYLAND INDUSTRIES.

TABLE 2.—Scheduled daily hours of women, by industry—Monday to Friday—Continued.

STATE EXCLUSIVE OF BALTIMORE.

Industry.	Total number reporting.		Number whose hours were—											
			Under 8.		8		Over 8 and under 9.		9		Over 9 and under 10.		10	
	Estab- lishments	Women.	Estab- lishments	Women.	Estab- lishments	Women.	Estab- lishments	Women.	Estab- lishments	Women.	Estab- lishments	Women.	Estab- lishments	Women.
Manufacturing:														
Clothing, men's.....	13	614			1	3	2	96	6	393	1	40	3	82
Clothing, women's and children's.....	4	128					2	58	1	36	1	34		
Glass.....	3	89					3	62	2	27				
Hosiery.....	5	219												
Textiles.....	9	665												
Miscellaneous.....	20	618			5	37		94	8	513	1	11	2	104
General mercantile.....	16	286	6	91	5	42	3	68	2	466	2	11	1	10
5-and-10-cent stores.....	8	64	1	10	5	32	1	14	1	82			2	3
Laundries.....	10	362			1	49	2	40	4	247	1	3	2	23
All industries.....	88	3,045	7	101	17	163	17	432	29	1,777	9	214	13	358
Per cent distribution.....		100.0		3.3		5.4		14.2		58.4		7.0		11.8

² Sum of establishments classified by hours exceeds total, because of certain establishments appearing in more than one column.

³ Includes one establishment with 14 women working 8½ hours and 13 women working 9 hours. Also includes one establishment with 27 women working 8½ hours and 14 women working 9 hours.

⁴ Includes one establishment with 2 women working 8 hours and 2 women working 10 hours. Also includes one establishment with 2 women working 8 hours and 4 women working 8½ hours.

Using the 8-hour day as a standard, we find from the table that the Baltimore establishments were more progressive than those in the rest of the State. Of the 213 plants scheduled in the whole State, the total number with eight hours a day or less was a little over one-third (34.7 per cent), employing somewhat less than one-third of the women (31.9 per cent). In Baltimore, 40 per cent of the 125 establishments visited—that is, 50 establishments employing 38.8 per cent of the Baltimore women included in the survey—had a daily schedule of eight hours or less. Such hours also were reported for 27.3 per cent of the 88 establishments inspected in the rest of the State—that is, 24 establishments—in which were employed only 8.7 per cent of the women outside Baltimore for whom data were obtained. On the other hand, 141 establishments² visited in the entire State, employing over two-thirds of the women (68.1 per cent), had a daily schedule of more than 8 hours. Although the group which worked the legal limit of 10 hours a day comprised only 18 establishments, employing only 4 per cent of the total number of women, it is sufficiently large to indicate the need of improvement in the hour legislation. The record for Baltimore, where only 4 per cent of the establishments visited reported a 10-hour day, was better than that for the rest of the State where 14.8 per cent of the establishments were in this class.

The table also shows which industries had made the most progress in the matter of the 8-hour day. It is apparent that the numbers of establishments scheduled in some of the industries are too small to make a comparison of percentages of much value. However, several significant things may be pointed out. Stores had the best record, since all of the general mercantile and 5-and-10-cent stores in Baltimore, as well as a little over two-thirds of the general mercantile and three-fourths of the 5-and-10-cent stores in the rest of the State, had a working-day of 8 hours or less. More than one-half of the men's clothing factories and one-third of the women's clothing factories visited in the whole State were operating on a daily schedule of 8 hours or less. Despite this strong trend toward the 8-hour day in stores and garment factories, the three clothing shops and the two general mercantile establishments outside Baltimore reporting a 10-hour day show that there were delinquents even in these industries. The fact that none of the textile mills were in the 8-hour group, and that four of the general textile mills and two of the hosiery mills reported a 10-hour day, reveals a tendency toward longer hours in the textile industry.

WEEKLY HOURS.

The record of daily hours must be supplemented with the weekly hour data to obtain a comprehensive view of the matter. The following table shows the number of establishments (exclusive of restaurants) and the percentage of women employees having certain weekly hours:

² Cf. note to table.

TABLE 3.—Scheduled weekly hours of women, by industry.

BALTIMORE.

Industry.	Total number reporting.		Number whose scheduled weekly hours were—														
			Under 44.			44.			Over 44 and under 48.			48.		Over 48 and under 52.			
	Estab-lish-ments.	Women.	Estab-lish-ments.	Women.		Estab-lish-ments.	Women.		Estab-lish-ments.	Women.		Estab-lish-ments.	Women.		Estab-lish-ments.	Women.	
				Num-ber.	Per-cent.		Num-ber.	Per-cent.		Num-ber.	Per-cent.		Num-ber.	Per-cent.		Num-ber.	Per-cent.
Manufacturing:																	
Boxes, paper.....	5	218							2	30	13.8	1	131	60.1	2	57	26.1
Boxes, wooden.....	3	59							1	38	64.4				4	289	75.3
Candy.....	6	384															
Cigars.....	4	825			2	283	34.3	1	292	35.4							
Clothing, men's.....	26	935	7	26	2.8	15	905	96.8	1	1	0.1				2	2	.2
Clothing, women's and children's.....	14	465	1	23	4.9	5	66	14.2	7	373	80.2				1	3	.6
Hats, men's.....	5	929							3	459	49.4	1	29	3.1	1	441	47.5
Meat products.....	3	87	2	67	77.0										6	553	56.5
Metal products.....	9	978							1	312	31.9						
Printing and publishing.....	4	28										4	28	100.0			
Textiles.....	6	1,170										2	937	80.1	4	233	19.9
Umbrellas.....	3	141													3	141	100.0
Miscellaneous.....	13	803	1	53	6.6				1	41	5.1	2	100	12.5	7	511	63.6
General mercantile.....	19	2,769							8	2,714	98.0	2	55	2.0			
5-and-10-cent stores.....	4	145							1	63	43.4				3	82	56.6
Laundries.....	10	390	3	27	6.9				2	21	5.4	1	13	3.3	1	5	1.3
All industries.....	² 124	10,326	14	196	1.9	22	1,254	12.1	28	4,344	42.1	13	1,293	12.5	34	2,317	22.4

STATE EXCLUSIVE OF BALTIMORE.

Manufacturing:																	
Clothing, men's.....	13	614				1	3	0.5	2	82	13.4	1	43	7.0	6	384	62.5
Clothing, women's and children's.....	4	128							2	58	45.3				1	36	28.1
Glass.....	3	89							3	62	69.7				2	27	30.3
Hosiery.....	5	219															
Textiles.....	9	665													5	518	77.9
Miscellaneous.....	⁴ 19	610				3	33	5.4	4	42	6.9	2	56	9.2	6	453	74.3
General mercantile.....	⁵ 16	286	1	5	1.7				3	50	17.5	3	9	3.1	5	73	25.5
5-and-10-cent stores.....	8	64													6	42	65.6
Laundries.....	⁶ 7	303							3	42	13.9				3	249	82.2
All industries.....	⁷ 84	2,978	1	5	.2	4	36	1.2	17	336	11.3	6	108	3.6	34	1,782	59.8

BALTIMORE.

Industry.	Number whose scheduled weekly hours were—																	
	52.			Over 52 and under 54.			54.			Over 54 and under 60.			60.			Over 60.		
	Estab- lish- ments.	Women.		Estab- lish- ments.	Women.		Estab- lish- ments.	Women.		Estab- lish- ments.	Women.		Estab- lish- ments.	Women.		Estab- lish- ments.	Women.	
		Num- ber.	Per cent.		Num- ber.	Per cent.		Num- ber.	Per cent.		Num- ber.	Per cent.		Num- ber.	Per cent.		Num- ber.	Per cent.
Manufacturing:																		
Boxes, wooden.....				1	15	25.4				1	6	10.2						
Candy.....	1	35	9.1							1	60	15.6						
Cigars.....	1	250	30.3															
Clothing, men's.....				1	1	0.1												
Meat products.....										1	20	23.0						
Metal products.....										2	113	11.6						
Miscellaneous.....				1	26	3.2				1	72	9.0						
Laundries.....	1	175	44.9	2	149	38.2												
All industries.....	3	460	4.5	5	191	1.8				6	271	2.6						

STATE EXCLUSIVE OF BALTIMORE.

Manufacturing:																		
Clothing, men's.....				1	40	6.5				2	62	10.1						
Clothing, women's and children's.....				1	34	26.6												
Hosiery.....				2	84	38.4				2	104	47.5						
Textiles.....				1	11	1.7	1	31	14.2									
Miscellaneous.....				3	16	2.6				3	136	20.5						
General mercantile.....				1	42	14.7				1	10	1.6						
5-and-10-cent stores.....				1	42	14.7				3	104	36.4				2	3	1.0
Laundries.....				1	14	21.9				1	8	12.5						
										1	12	4.0						
All industries.....				10	241	8.1	1	31	1.0	13	436	14.6				2	3	.1

¹ Includes 1 establishment with 237 women working 45 hours and 40 women working 48 hours; 1 store excluded because of irregularity of hours.

² One store excluded because of irregularity of hours.

³ Includes 1 establishment with 14 women working 46½ hours and 13 women working 49½ hours; also 1 establishment with 27 women working 47½ hours and 14 women working 50 hours.

⁴ One establishment excluded because of irregularity of hours.

⁵ Includes 1 establishment with 2 women working 50 hours and 2 women working 61 hours; also 1 establishment with 2 women working 48 hours and 4 women working 51 hours.

⁶ Three establishments excluded because of irregularity of hours.

⁷ One miscellaneous manufacturing plant and 3 laundries excluded because of irregularity of hours.

Although not brought out in this table, the working week for women in Baltimore establishments ranged from 39 to 56 hours, inclusive, and those in the rest of the State from $41\frac{1}{2}$ to $64\frac{1}{8}$ hours, inclusive. One-half of the plants in the whole State for which this information was obtained, employing more than one-half (56.9 per cent) of the total number of women in the survey, exclusive of restaurant workers, had a weekly schedule of 48 hours or less. Baltimore was far in advance of the rest of the State in this respect, since 68.6 per cent of the women in Baltimore and only 16.3 per cent of those outside Baltimore had such a weekly schedule.

Among the 36 establishments with 44 hours and under in Baltimore were 28 of the 40 establishments manufacturing clothing. According to the more detailed figures only 4 women in men's clothing factories in Baltimore had a week of more than 44 hours, and only 3 in the women's and children's clothing worked more than 47 hours. It can be seen from the table that the hours of the garment trades in the State exclusive of Baltimore, with 79.2 per cent of the women in the men's clothing shops and 54.7 per cent of those making women's and children's clothing working more than a 48-hour week, form a striking contrast to the hours in Baltimore, where only 0.3 per cent and 0.6 per cent, respectively, of the women in these two industries had a weekly schedule of more than 48 hours.

Of the plants visited in Baltimore, the six having a weekly schedule of more than 54 hours for the women employed therein, who constituted, however, only 2.6 per cent of the total number in the Baltimore establishments, were as follows: Two metal shops, and 1 wooden-box, 1 candy, 1 meat-products, and 1 miscellaneous factory. In the State exclusive of Baltimore there were 14.7 per cent of the women working more than 54 hours a week, and although all the industries except glass and women's clothing factories showed some women in this classification, the hosiery mills, with 47.5 per cent of the women employees, and the general mercantile, with 36.4 per cent, had the worst records in this respect.

From the foregoing it is evident that a legal reduction of the working hours would benefit a large proportion of the women workers in Maryland.

Whenever an effort is made to reduce the hours of labor for women in any locality, the argument is advanced that such a limitation will cause industries employing both men and women to discriminate against women. Experience has tended to prove the invalidity of this argument. The actual result of the legal reduction of women's hours is apt to be a corresponding reduction in men's hours. A comparison of the hours of the men and women in the Maryland establishments included in the survey is of interest at this point. The following summary prepared from Table I, page 80, in the appendix, gives the percentages of men and women working certain classified weekly hours:

Scheduled hours.	Baltimore.		State exclusive of Baltimore.		Total in State.	
	Per cent of men.	Per cent of women.	Per cent of men.	Per cent of women.	Per cent of men.	Per cent of women.
Under 44.....	6.2	1.9	0.1	0.2	4.4	1.5
44.....	16.5	12.1	.5	1.2	11.7	9.7
Over 44 and under 48.....	21.0	42.1	18.2	11.3	20.2	35.2
48.....	17.9	12.5	1.3	3.6	13.0	10.5
Over 48 and under 52.....	26.5	22.4	50.5	59.8	33.7	30.8
52.....	2.3	4.5	.6	1.8	3.5
Over 52 and under 54.....	2.5	1.8	2.6	3.1	2.5	3.2
54.....	.35	1.0	.3	.2
Over 54 and under 60.....	6.5	2.6	25.8	14.6	12.2	5.3
60.....	.32
Over 60.....	(1)	.1	(1)	(1)

¹ Less than 0.05 per cent.

The summary figures for the total in the State show that the proportion of men working 44 hours or under (16.1 per cent) is greater than the proportion of women with these hours (11.2 per cent), and that the proportion of men working 48 hours or under (49.3 per cent) is only a little less than the proportion of women in this group (56.9 per cent). Furthermore, the percentages of men who worked more than 52 hours and more than 54 hours a week are not strikingly higher than the percentages of women working these hours. Finally, despite the 60-hour limitation for women in most industries and the absence of limitation to the hours of work for men, only one man was found to be working over 60 hours in these establishments, whereas three women had a schedule of more than 60 hours.

What is true of a 60-hour limitation is in a large measure true of one of 48 hours. In substantiation of this statement are the facts given in an investigation made by the Women's Bureau after the 48-hour law for women went into effect in Massachusetts. The investigation showed that when hours were reduced for women they were reduced for 77.7 per cent of the men in the same establishments studied in Massachusetts.

The report of that investigation also helps to answer the argument that reduction in women's hours means reduction in pay, by showing that one-half of the establishments visited in Massachusetts had increased both their time and piece rates when hours were reduced. In other plants the shortening of hours had led to an improvement of working conditions, the installation of labor-saving devices, and more efficient management, all with the idea of maintaining production and thereby keeping up wages. On the whole, opinions as well as definite facts given by the managers of the various factories seemed to show that a reduction of working hours was a good thing from their point of view. A concrete example of this is given in the following quotation from the report:

The report of another manager in an establishment manufacturing a rubber product in Massachusetts said that when the shorter week was put into effect a careful study was made of each process to see if it was done with as little waste and as much efficiency as possible. Piece rates were not increased but weekly earnings of pieceworkers were the same under the shorter hours. During the year this firm made no change in its selling price. The cost of labor had been increased owing to shorter hours, but it had been compensated for by better management and more efficient organization in the plant. The general output of the plant was better under the new week than under the old.³

The testimony of the workers also is interesting.

None of the many working women interviewed in the course of this investigation reported any discrimination against them since the 8-hour law went into effect, and the great majority reported that the increased time for rest and recreation had been of great benefit and that the decreased working hours had resulted in only a few instances in reduced pay.⁴

Thus a law limiting the industrial week for women produces a benefit in more ways than one. It tends to prevent that undue fatigue resulting from long hours of labor, a fatigue which acts as a poison to the system, decreasing output and increasing accidents during working hours, sapping energies and destroying ambition for activities after working hours. In many cases these activities are of a most essential and vital nature—the maintenance of homes and families. Consequently, in the final analysis, the individual women, the industries, and the community at large share in the benefits of a law which reduces hours.

SATURDAY HOURS.

Because of the realization of the need for some time to be spent in rest, recreation, and the pursuit of personal activities, the custom of Saturday half holiday has become more and more prevalent in industrial circles. A large majority of the plants visited in Maryland had adopted this practice. Nevertheless, 47 plants (about one-fourth) still had a full Saturday or one even longer than other days. The following summary of Table II, page 84 in the appendix, gives the number of establishments in the various industries which employed women full time on Saturday, a full day, for this tabulation, being considered one of 7 or more hours:

	Baltimore.	State ex- clusive of Baltimore.
General mercantile establishments.....	9	16
5-and-10-cent stores.....	4	8
Laundries.....	2
Manufacturing plants.....	4	4

³ U. S. Dept. of Labor, Women's Bureau. Some effects of legislation limiting hours of work for women. Bulletin No. 15, 1921, p. 16.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 24.

The length of the Saturday in these establishments varied from a 7-hour day to one of 12½ hours in two stores outside of Baltimore.

This summary shows that of the 47 establishments with a long Saturday 37 were stores. Of this number, 28 had Saturday hours longer than those of Monday to Friday. Only 6 of the 28 were Baltimore stores, and only 1 of these 6 remained open for more than an hour longer than on other days. On the other hand, 9 of the stores outside Baltimore had a Saturday from 3 to 4 hours longer than the other working days.

The more detailed figures of the table show that in Baltimore 34.2 per cent of the women—almost wholly store employees—had a long Saturday, but only 13 women, or one-tenth of 1 per cent of the total number, worked as long as 10 hours on Saturday. In the State exclusive of Baltimore, although only 14.4 per cent of the women had a long Saturday, 9.8 per cent of the women worked 10 hours or more and 3.8 per cent of them had a day of 12 or 12½ hours.

Altogether, 144 of the establishments reporting had a shorter schedule on Saturday, while 12 factories, 1 mill, and 5 laundries reported that the women did no work on Saturday.

Credit must be given to certain Baltimore stores for falling in line with the movement recently instituted in large cities of closing for the whole day on Saturday during the summer months. Five of the stores visited in Baltimore are closed all day on Saturday during August, and three others during both July and August.

REST INTERVALS AND VACATIONS.

Lunch periods.

An analysis of the length of the lunch period in 213 establishments (restaurants omitted) shows that 72 allowed a half hour for lunch and 120 an hour. Only four establishments had a lunch interval of more than one hour—two were stores with an hour and a half, while one was a 5-and-10-cent store and one a laundry with an hour and a quarter. One plant, a metal shop, had only a 25-minute period, and it was not surprising that some of the employees in this plant complained that the lunch time was too short to permit them to go to the cafeteria at the other end of the building.

The length of the lunch period is a matter to be decided by individual establishments, the needs and desires of the workers being taken into account, but every establishment should have at least a 30-minute interval.

Rest periods.

The matter of rest periods is also one to be decided by individual plants. Experience has shown that an asset to health and efficiency is a 10 minutes' rest in the middle of each working period

without an increase in the length of the working-day. In only three factories of all the Maryland establishments visited was such an arrangement found. All three of these factories manufactured glass products. The first plant allowed two 15-minute periods to the employees in the furnace room, the second gave two 15-minute periods to all workers, and the third gave two half-hour rests, one from 9 to 9.30 in the morning and the other from 3 to 3.30 in the afternoon.⁵

Vacations.

A vacation for each worker at some time during the year, although a principle generally recognized in theory, is not practiced so extensively nor considerably in industrial as in business circles. A vacation with pay has long been customary for employees in mercantile establishments, and in Maryland this practice was followed in three-fifths of the stores visited. Length of vacation, as a rule, was regulated by length of service. A vacation of one week was the usual allowance after a year with the firm, although in a few stores two weeks with pay were granted employees with a record of two years or more with the firm.

Despite the growing tendency to give a vacation with pay to factory workers, but few instances of this were encountered in the Maryland manufacturing establishments visited. In a number of plants such a vacation was allowed to superintendents, heads of departments, foremen, forewomen, and office workers, but in only very rare cases was it granted to other employees. The most generous arrangement was that in a printing establishment, where all-employees were given two weeks with pay after one year's service. A small mattress factory and two large cigar factories paid all the workers during a week's rest. Three laundries reported vacation with pay, the first granting one week to all employees, the second five days to those who had worked one year in the plant, and the third one week to employees after two years' service and two weeks after five years' service.

A number of manufacturing establishments permitted workers to take a vacation without pay if they so desired. In the great majority of these cases there was no systematic arrangement. In some plants a vacation was forced upon the workers because of a slack condition in the industry. Since no pay was given during this period, there was, in consequence, strong possibility of financial hardship to these employees. Even when time off without pay is allowed, many workers feel that they can not avail themselves of the privilege when wages are meager and personal needs numerous. Some plants reported that neither a vacation with pay nor one without was permitted.

⁵ Restaurants are not included in this discussion.

Obviously, at least a week's rest with pay is desirable for every manual as well as for every mental worker. In industries where it would not be feasible to close the plant for any one week, vacations could be adjusted so that only a few employees would be out at one time.

Seasonal nature of the industries.

The system of enforced vacations caused by the seasonal nature of industries is a very definite problem because of resulting hardships to the working forces in such industries. The effects of a slack period are different in different plants. In some the condition is so serious as to cause the closing of the plant for several months and the suspension of all wage payments. In other instances, when only a part of the force is dropped, the effect is not so far-reaching. A third consequence may be the reduction of working hours for all employees with a corresponding cut in wages. In this way the depression, instead of falling entirely on any one group, is shared by all.

Since industries are more or less the victims of the capricious law of supply and demand, a complete elimination of such slack periods doubtless is impossible. However, a great deal can be done to lessen the evils of the system, and much already has been done in some industries and in some establishments. Careful study of the market and analysis of the possibilities in a plant for the manufacture of a somewhat different product during a dull season, have proved effective in minimizing the slack-time evil.

An attempt was made in the Maryland investigation to ascertain in which industries the seasonal nature of the work necessitated wage cuts or enforced vacations for the workers. Clear-cut information in this respect was difficult to obtain on account of the tendency on the part of some managers to confuse the slackness due to the nature of the industry with that resulting from the general industrial depression.

Perhaps the most definitely seasonal of all the industries investigated in Maryland were the candy and straw-hat trades. As might be expected, the candy factories had their busiest time in the fall months and their next busiest time before Easter. One plant which at the time of the investigation had on the pay roll only 124 women and 22 men, reported that there had been employed before Christmas about 700 women and 300 men. The candy factories all had a definitely slack period during the summer months. Of the five straw-hat factories four reported a dull season in the summer. Two of these plants stated that they never shut down entirely, but that workers "took vacations" during the dull period. Another firm made a practice of closing for as long as six weeks in July and August.

In other industries the steadiness of work throughout the year varied in degree for different establishments. In the garment trades, for example, a number of managers declared that their production was steady during the year. Others reported that although the industry was not seasonal they were much busier at certain times than at others. A large group announced that their plants were very busy at some seasons and very dull at others, the slack season varying in the several factories and lasting for different periods. With some firms business was exceedingly dull for six months out of the twelve. January, February, June, July, and August were the months most commonly designated as dull. Only two of the six paper-box establishments reported a slack period; in each case this occurred in the summer. In all three wooden-box factories, however, there was a dull season, the time differing somewhat in the several plants.

The reports from mills showed that the textile industry was normally very steady, but that it had been crippled greatly by the industrial depression. Only one textile plant reported a slack season in normal years, and that was a knitting mill which always curtailed its output in June, July, and August. Nor did the metal establishments have slack seasons, although in one plant some fluctuations in production were said to occur, though not systematically. The cigar industry appeared to be one in which fluctuations also took place, but likewise with no seasonal regularity. The five cigar factories visited all stated that they were very slack at the time of the investigation. Two of the five glass plants admitted a dull season in the summer months. A food-product establishment was slack from January to July. One umbrella factory reported greatly decreased production in February, while another acknowledged May and June to be the poorest months. In a brush factory the period from April to September was dull.

Stores are not definitely seasonal in their trade, with the exception of the greatly increased activity for the weeks immediately preceding Christmas. It is a well-known fact that the force in stores is augmented for this period, and that the extra employees taken on for the emergency usually are dropped when it is over.

The large majority of laundries reported that business was steady throughout the year. Although a few plants had less work at certain times of the year than at others, these periods varied in the several laundries in such a way as to indicate that the location of the plant and outside circumstances were responsible, and not the nature of the industry.

From the foregoing discussion it would seem that a considerable number of workers would be greatly handicapped in the matter of securing a living yearly wage because of the seasonal nature of their

occupations. Workers in such industries must in many cases weather a period of six weeks or more in the year without pay. Another job during the off season is not always obtainable, especially when managers realize that a worker is applying for temporary work. If slack seasons are inevitable in certain industries, this fact should be considered in setting wage rates.

In some industries in Maryland apparently the dull periods could have been averted by more careful adjustment. As an example of good management was one textile mill which reported that its busiest season was from December to April in preparation for the spring demand, but that the plant contrived to run steadily throughout the year by manufacturing a slightly different product the rest of the time. Such efforts and results would seem possible for other establishments.

Undertime and overtime.

At the time of the investigation in Maryland an abnormal amount of slackness was found on account of the general business depression. Undertime was very general. Many plants were operating not only fewer hours a day, but fewer days a week. In fact, about one-third of the manufacturing establishments visited reported that they were running on a shorter weekly schedule or that they had been completely shut down for a period.

From this it is obvious that the matter of overtime work by women in manufacturing plants was not important during the survey, since there had been practically none for a year or more prior to that time. Also, any information obtained about overtime policies in normal years was too fragmentary to be of value.

As the hours of stores and laundries were virtually unaffected by the industrial depression, a discussion of their overtime practices is more significant. Although the custom of night work for women for a week or two preceding Christmas was found in some of the Maryland stores. None of the general mercantile establishments in Baltimore remained open longer than their regular hours during the Christmas rush. The overtime schedules varied in such stores as did remain open at night. One 5-and-10-cent store in Baltimore, which required employees to work until 10 p. m. from one to two weeks before Christmas, and two department stores outside Baltimore which kept the women a 12-hour day for 10 days during the busy period were among those with the worst record in this respect. Very little overtime was reported for mercantile establishments at any other season. The women in the alteration department of one store remained before Easter until 8 p. m., and in several other stores girls occasionally worked for a few hours in the evening, making inventories and taking stock. Except in a few instances, store

employees received no extra compensation for overtime. Six stores stated that they gave some remuneration for time worked after regular hours. Women in such cases usually were paid at the same rate as for regular time, although the women in the alteration department already referred to received a half day's pay for the extra time.

In laundries where hours were more or less irregular, and where undertime was common, it was difficult to ascertain the amount of overtime worked by women. In fact, in only three laundries did the overtime appear of sufficient importance to merit any consideration. In one plant the women worked for about two hours on 20 or more Sundays during the year, receiving \$1 a Sunday. In another laundry six people worked each Sunday for an hour and a half without extra pay; they were permitted to leave at 2 o'clock one week day to offset this. A third laundry, which was scheduled to close at 1 o'clock on Saturday, sometimes required the women to remain until 6 o'clock. There was no report on the overtime pay here.

POSTING OF HOURS.

As a guard against the arbitrary stretching of working hours and as a definite means of checking up on overtime, is the practice of posting in a plant the hours of labor. In this way are prevented misunderstandings about the length of the working-day on the part both of employer and of employees. According to the State regulation in Maryland, the hour schedule in force in the establishment, together with a copy of the law regulating hours for women, must be posted in a conspicuous place in each plant. Of the 213 plants visited ⁶ 78 were complying with the law, 96 did not have the hours posted, and 9 others had wrong schedules posted.⁷

Of the nine plants displaying wrong hour notices, eight had allowed former schedules with longer hours to remain posted; several of such schedules were dated as far back as 1914. Another firm had paid so little heed to this regulation that the hour schedule of the firm which formerly had occupied the premises had been left up, even though the schedule was an hour and a half longer than that of the present firm. In a few plants where the hours were not posted, it was said that the notice had been taken down when walls were cleaned or painted and never had been put up again.

RESTAURANT HOURS.

The study of the hours of restaurant employees is exceedingly intricate. Each establishment, and in fact the schedule of almost every restaurant employee, is a problem in itself. Consequently, restaurant working hours are probably more irregular and incon-

⁶ Restaurants are not included, since this law does not apply to them.

⁷ For 30 plants there was no report on this subject.

venient than those of any other industry in which women are engaged. Examination of the schedules and shifts is likely to reveal the prevalence of unduly long daily and weekly hours, objectionably early and late hours for beginning and ending work, night work, the seven-day week, the lack of definite meal time, and the split shift with long over-all hours.⁸ At first glance most of these evils may seem inherent in the industry or, as many proprietors of hotels and restaurants assert, may be attributed to the public, with its habit of eating at all hours. However, that they are not unavoidable is shown by the fact that the protective hour legislation for women in a number of States applies to restaurants as well as to other industries. Not only the daily and weekly hour limitation, but the laws prohibiting night work and providing for definite meal intervals, and one day of rest in seven, cover restaurant employees in a considerable number of States.

Maryland is not one of these States, however. The legal limit of 60 hours a week and 10 hours a day does not apply to restaurants and hotels, a fact well illustrated by the data gathered in the survey. Twenty-seven restaurants were visited, 17 in Baltimore and 10 elsewhere in the State. These establishments were of all types, each type having its own problems. There were included department store restaurants, lunch counters, and tea rooms, which had the same hours and regulations as the stores in which they were located; lunch rooms open for only one meal a day; hotel dining rooms with exceedingly long hours; and restaurants with 24 hours' service. The ensuing analysis of restaurant hours shows the absence of any standardization throughout the State and the need for great improvement in this respect to make restaurant work a more satisfactory kind of employment for women.

In a study of restaurant hours it is necessary to consider the schedules of individual women, since shifts and irregularities cause great variation in hours for the different workers within any one establishment. Accordingly, for 264 women in Maryland restaurants the weekly schedule was secured, that is, the beginning and ending hours for each day in the week, the number of meals on or off duty, with time allowed, and the intervals between shifts.

Weekly hours.

The hours of restaurant employees were, on the whole, more standardized in Baltimore than in the rest of the State. The following table furnishes a comparison between the number working certain specified weekly hours in the Baltimore restaurants investigated and the number working those hours outside Baltimore:

⁸ The time from the beginning to the end of the working-day, including meal periods and time off from work.

TABLE 4.—*Weekly hours of women employees in restaurants.*

Weekly hours.	Women working each specified number of hours—			
	Baltimore.		State exclusive of Baltimore.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Under 44.....	59	30.9	6	8.2
44.....	5	2.6
Over 44 and under 48.....	29	13.2
48.....	49	25.7
Over 48 and under 54.....	24	12.6	16	21.9
54.....	9	4.7	2	2.7
Over 54 and under 60.....	5	2.6	13	17.8
60.....	1	.5	9	12.3
Over 60 and under 65.....	5	2.6	6	8.2
65 and under 70.....	1	.5	6	8.2
70 and under 75.....	3	1.6	12	16.4
75 and over.....	1	.5	3	4.1
Total.....	191	100.0	73	100.0

The table shows that, in all, 43.9 per cent of the restaurant women in the survey worked more than 48 hours a week, but that only 25.7 per cent of those in Baltimore restaurants, as compared with 91.8 per cent of those in the restaurants visited outside Baltimore, had such hours. Furthermore, only 5.2 per cent in the Baltimore establishments worked more than 60 hours a week, whereas 37 per cent in the rest of the State had a week of more than 60 hours. From this it is apparent that the restaurant hours in Baltimore, a large and busy city, catering to a large and varied public, are strikingly better than those in the much smaller towns in the rest of the State. Evidently the restaurant hours outside Baltimore could be remedied—if not by public opinion, then by legislation—without jeopardizing the success of the industry.

It is important to consider weekly hours not only according to location, but in relation to occupation. Of 251 restaurant workers under consideration,⁹ 139 (55.4 per cent) were dining-room employees—waitresses and counter girls—and the others were almost all workers behind the scenes, that is, the kitchen and pantry corps and the cleaners.

A comparison of the weekly hours of the waitresses¹⁰ and the other workers can be drawn from the following statement prepared from Table III, page 86 in the appendix:

⁹ The 13 cashiers are excluded from this discussion, since their work differs so fundamentally from that of the waitresses and other workers. Eleven of the cashiers had regular hours. Of these only two had a 7-day week and only one had more than an 8-hour day. The two irregular cashiers alternated a 5½ and a 10½ day for seven days in the week.

¹⁰ Throughout the following discussions counter girls are included under the term waitresses.

	Wait- resses.	Others.	Total.
Percentages of women working—	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
More than 48 hours a week.....	46.8	42.0	44.6
More than 60 hours a week.....	11.5	17.9	14.3

From this it appears that the proportion of waitresses working more than 48 hours was a little greater than that of other workers, but the proportion working more than 60 hours was a little less than that of others. The significant fact is that 14.3 per cent, or a considerable number of the women employed in the restaurants visited in Maryland, worked more than 60 hours a week, the legal maximum stipulated for most industries in which women are engaged in this State.

Irregularity of hours.

A characteristic feature of the work in restaurants which may or may not be objectionable is the irregularity of daily hours. The term "irregular" is applied to shifts which require a different number of hours, and to work beginning and ending at various hours, on the several days of the week. In some cases the women alternated a long and short day, or had a split shift on some days, but not on all, or had different hours of beginning and ending work on the various days. Only 189 of the 264 workers whose weekly schedules were obtained were sufficiently regular to be tabulated according to occupation and hours actually worked daily. (Table IV, p. 86, appendix.) It is generally supposed that the hours of the waitresses are longer and more irregular than those of the other restaurant workers. On the whole, the detailed data obtained for Maryland bear out this idea. Over one-third of all the waitresses (34.5 per cent) had irregular hours, as compared with less than one-fourth (22.3 per cent) of the other workers. When such schedules enable the women to perform their home duties to better advantage they are a boon, but when they compel women to work during hours which are outside the range of general industrial hours they are more often than not a hardship.

Daily hours and the 7-day week.

One of the greatest drawbacks to the industry from the viewpoint of the worker is the too prevalent custom of the 7-day week. To analyze the question of restaurant hours, it is necessary to ask not only how many hours a day but how many days a week employees work.

Furthermore, since the irregularity of schedules precludes the tabulation of actual daily hours in so many cases, average daily hours must be considered in any general discussion. The following table gives the number of women in restaurants within and outside Baltimore who worked a 6-day or a 7-day week and the number of hours which these women averaged daily:

TABLE 5.—*Number of women employees in restaurants working 6 days or 7 days a week classified by average daily hours.*

Hours.	Women in restaurants in—					
	Baltimore.		State exclusive of Baltimore.		Total.	
	6 days.	7 days.	6 days.	7 days.	6 days.	7 days.
Under 7.....	17	5	6	1	17	6
7.....	4	3	1	1	24	6
Over 7 and under 8.....	52	3	11	52	14	14
8.....	49	4	1	49	1	1
Over 8 and under 9.....	18	4	5	14	23	18
9.....	7	3	1	2	8	5
Over 9 and under 10.....	1	1	1	8	2	9
10.....	1	1	8	9	9	10
Over 10.....	2	3	6	2	9	9
Total.....	171	20	15	58	186	78

The table shows that 29.5 per cent of the women worked a 7-day week, but that only one-tenth (10.5 per cent) of those in the Baltimore restaurants had such a schedule, compared to 79.5 per cent, or more than three-fourths, of those in restaurants outside Baltimore. Also, the daily hours of women in Baltimore restaurants were much better than those of women employed elsewhere. A little more than one-fifth of the women (21.5 per cent) in Baltimore averaged more than an 8-hour day for a 6-day or a 7-day week, as compared with almost three-fourths (74 per cent) of those outside Baltimore. Only 3.7 per cent of the women in the Baltimore restaurants averaged 10 or more hours daily, while 31.5 per cent in the restaurants outside Baltimore were in such classification.

Even in Baltimore there were some women with exceedingly long schedules. For example, one woman who had a 7-day week worked as many as 15½ hours on one day during the week. Two other women were on duty 12½ and 14 hours, respectively, on one day in a 7-day week. Outside Baltimore, one woman was reported as working 11½ hours for 6 days and 10 hours on Sunday, and two others 11 hours a day for 7 days.

Considering all workers, we find from Table III that approximately one-third (32.4 per cent) of the waitresses and about one-fourth of the other employees (25.9 per cent) had a 7-day week. The more detailed figures of the survey show that the difference between the proportion of waitresses and the proportion of other workers who averaged a daily schedule of more than eight hours for a 6-day or 7-day week was slight, 39.6 per cent of the former and 37.5 per cent of the latter.

Over-all hours.

The hours actually worked by restaurant employees do not tell the whole story of hardship. Over-all hours, or the time from the

beginning to the end of the working-day, including time off duty, frequently make the industrial day extremely long and burdensome. The following summary, arranged from Table V, page 87 in the appendix, gives the over-all hours of the regular workers:

TABLE 6.—Daily over-all hours of women restaurant employees with regular hours.

Daily over-all hours.	Number in each specified hour group who were—					
	Waitresses.		Others.		Total.	
	6-day week.	7-day week.	6-day week.	7-day week.	6-day week.	7-day week.
Under 7.....	3				3	
7 and under 8.....	11		9	5	20	5
8 and under 9.....	29	2	23	1	52	3
9 and under 10.....	17	1	25	5	42	6
10 and under 11.....	6	6	5	8	11	14
11 and under 12.....	2	1		2	2	3
12 and under 13.....	7	1	1	2	8	3
13 and under 14.....		4				4
14.....		1		1		2
Total.....	75.	16	63	24	138	40

From this we see that—

Of the waitresses:

16.5 per cent had daily over-all hours of 10 to 12, inclusive, for 6 days a week.

14.3 per cent had daily over-all hours of 10 to 14, inclusive, for 7 days a week.

Of the other workers:

6.9 per cent had daily over-all hours of 10 to 12, inclusive, for 6 days a week.

14.9 per cent had daily over-all hours of 10 to 14, inclusive, for 7 days a week.

Altogether the waitresses showed a larger proportion with long over-all hours than did the other workers.

Of all the regular workers, including waitresses and others with either a 6-day or a 7-day week, over one-fourth (26.4 per cent) had daily over-all hours of 10 to 14, inclusive.

The over-all hours of the irregular workers varied so from day to day that for them such a tabulation as the foregoing is impossible. Nevertheless, some idea of their over-all hours can be obtained from Table VI, page 91 in the appendix, in which the actual weekly working hours of these irregular employees are coupled with their longest over-all hours on one or more days during the week. A little over three-fourths of these women (76.7 per cent) had daily over-all hours of 10 to 18, inclusive, for a varying number of days a week, and 15.1 per cent had an actual working week of 60 to 77 hours, inclusive. According to more detailed figures of the survey almost two-thirds (64.4 per cent) had daily over-all hours of 10 to 18, inclusive, for three

or more days a week. Sixteen of these women had an 18-hour stretch from the time of beginning to the time of ending work, but they were off duty 7 or 8 hours during this time.

Time off.

Time off duty during the day naturally is of great importance in connection with the over-all hours. The individual workers' records show that a little over two-thirds of the regular workers and almost one-third of the irregular workers had no time off duty other than meal time. Accordingly there was, for these women, on the one hand definite time for eating meals, and on the other hand no waste time during the over-all period.

A further analysis of the records shows that 36 of the regular workers had no definite time off duty between their beginning and ending hours. Also, a considerable number of the irregular workers had no definite time off on certain days in the week, even on days with the longest over-all. Almost invariably these women were supposed to have one, two, or three meals while on duty, that is, to eat their meals when opportunity offered. That such opportunity might not occur, on exceptionally busy days, especially for waitresses, is a possibility strong enough for serious consideration. Or, if the opportunity could be seized, the uncertainty of the hour and the intervals for meals would brand the system of "meals on duty" as exceedingly detrimental to health and comfort. For example, of the 36 regular workers, with no definite time off duty for meals or for anything else, one-half had daily over-all hours of 10 to 12, inclusive, and one-third had such hours for a 7-day week. In addition to these women were others who were expected to eat meals on duty, but who had some time off during their over-all period.

Time off is not necessarily an asset in the worker's personal time ledger; in fact it may be a liability. For example, of the 22 women with regular hours who had time off other than meal time in the over-all period, 11 had between $1\frac{1}{2}$ and $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours, a time longer than would be needed for a rest but in most cases too short to permit them to go home for any purpose. Also 11 of the irregular workers had such a short interval between work hours on several days in the week. Split shifts were more characteristic of the irregular than of the regular workers, for 63 per cent of the former as opposed to 12.4 per cent of the latter worked according to such a schedule. As would be expected, the proportion of waitresses who worked split shifts (40.3 per cent) was also greater than the proportion of other restaurant workers who did so (10.7 per cent). The split shift is not necessarily an objectionable feature; it may be an advantage to certain women, if the interval between shifts is of sufficient length to allow them to pursue their own interests during the time off.

Beginning and ending hours.

It must be pointed out that the system of split shifts or of long straight shifts in restaurants serving meals to the public at all hours, means inconvenient hours of beginning and ending for women working therein. As an illustration of this is the following summary, prepared from Tables V and VII of the beginning and ending hours of the regular and irregular workers who went on duty before 7 a. m. or ended work after 7 p. m.:

Hours.	Number of women.	
	Regular workers.	Irregular workers. ¹
Beginning at—		
5 and before 6 a. m.....	6	
6 and before 7 a. m.....	12	25
Ending at—		
7 and before 8 p. m.....	12	25
8 and before 9 p. m.....	16	14
9 and before 10 p. m.....	8	1
10 and before 11 p. m.....		
11 p. m. and before midnight.....		2
Midnight and before 1 a. m.....	12	23
1 and before 2 a. m.....	5	
2 a. m.....	3	
Working from 9 p. m. to 7 a. m.....	1	
Working from midnight to 9 a. m.....	2	
Working from 1 to 11 a. m.....	1	

¹ The irregular workers had such beginning and ending hours for one or more days in the week.

Altogether 17.1 per cent of the workers began before 7 a. m. on some or all days of the week, and 18.7 per cent worked until midnight or after on some or all nights of the week. Four women worked all night. The only law for the limitation of night work by women in Maryland reads, "If any part of a female's work is performed before 6 a. m. or after 10 p. m. not more than 8 hours in any one day are permitted."¹¹ This law applies to women in manufacturing, mechanical, mercantile, printing, baking, or laundering establishments, but not to women in restaurants. Accordingly, 35 of the women in restaurants whose hourly records were obtained and who began work before 6 a. m. or worked after 10 p. m. had more than an 8-hour day. Furthermore, 24 women who worked until midnight or after had a "day" of from 10 to 12 hours for 1 to 7 days in the week. A dishwasher, for example, worked for 16½ hours 1 day a week, beginning at 6 a. m. and ending at 11:30 p. m., with only 1½ hours off for meals. The other 6 days she began at the same hour but stopped work at 5:30 p. m. on 5 days and at 2:30 p. m. on the other day, totaling a week of 76½ hours. A cook who went on duty at 5:30 a. m. worked 11½ hours a day for 7 days a week, with no

¹¹ Session laws of Maryland, 1916, ch. 147, sec. 14.

definite time for meals. A waitress beginning at 5:45 a. m. worked 10½ hours daily for 7 days a week, with no definite intervals for meals. In view of such long and fatiguing hours, and in view of the steps already taken in a few States to regulate night work for women in restaurants, it would seem possible and highly desirable for the Maryland law to be amended to prevent women who work in restaurants between the hours of 10 p. m. and 6 a. m. from being on duty more than 8 hours in the 24. Such a law, or one somewhat similar, has been passed in Delaware, New Hampshire, and Wisconsin. Massachusetts has gone a step further and prohibited women from working in restaurants at all between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m.

Not only do the schedules of night workers in restaurants stress the need for improvement in the Maryland hour laws, but the schedules of day workers also pile up more arguments for such revision. The following specimens are some of the worst records encountered:

Waitress: 7 a. m. to 5 p. m., 7 days and 70 hours a week; eats on duty.

Waitress: 7 a. m. to 8 p. m., 7 days and 70 hours a week; eats on duty with 3 hours off in afternoon.

Dishwasher: 8 a. m. to 8.30 p. m., 7 days and 70 hours a week; eats on duty, with 2½ hours off in afternoon.

Dishwasher: 6.30 a. m. to 5 p. m., 7 days and 73½ hours a week; eats on duty.

Cook: 7 a. m. to 9 p. m., 7 days and 77 hours a week; eats on duty, with 3 hours off in afternoon.

Kitchen helper: 6.30 a. m. to 5.30 p. m. on 6 days, 6.30 a. m. to 8.30 p. m. on 1 day, and 72½ hours a week; 1 hour off for meals on 10-hour day and 1½ hours off for meals on 12½-hour day.

The idea that hours for restaurant employees must necessarily be long because of the demands of the public is an antiquated tradition, which gradually is being discarded. Even though restaurants remain open for 24 hours' service, improvements can be made in the schedules of the women workers. The 8-hour day and 48-hour week, as well as 1 day of rest in 7, are possible. In fact, a little over one-half of the restaurant workers reported in the survey had a week of 48 hours or less. Furthermore, definite time for meals should be allowed all restaurant employees. Waste time between shifts and unduly long over-all hours often could be prevented by better adjustments of shifts.

PART V.

THE WORKERS.

The realization that women are employed in vast numbers in industrial enterprises throughout the country and that not only are they indispensable to the industrial world but the industrial world in turn is indispensable to them in their economic struggles has led to the study of the question of women in industry. Interest in this matter is growing rapidly. Careful study to produce the smooth adjustment of the workers in industry is more important than the perfect regulation of machinery, since the well-being of the worker is essential not only for successful industries but for a successful society. The protection and adjustment of women workers is especially imperative since women have the additional rôle of mothers and homemakers. They are the producers of future citizens as well as of economic goods. Moreover, the greater necessity for control of standards affecting women workers is due to the fact that women have been in a weaker position economically than have men. They have not been able to control conditions for themselves.

In a consideration of the subject of women in industry certain questions arise. What proportion of women workers in an industry or locality are foreign born, and does nativity in any way affect their industrial situation? In what respects does age enter into the problems of women wage earners? Are women steady in their gainful occupations and does their experience in a trade and with a firm prove of value to them? What bearing does the conjugal condition of the women have on their work, and what influence do their jobs have on home responsibilities?

NATIVITY.

Of the 6,527 women reporting on nativity, 94 per cent were born in the United States (Table IX, page 93 in the appendix). Of the 6 per cent of the women who were foreign born, 1 per cent were born in English-speaking and 4.9 per cent in non-English-speaking countries. The more detailed figures show that in the State, exclusive of Baltimore, the women reporting on nativity were practically all American born; among 1,679 women, less than 1 per cent were born elsewhere than in the United States. In Baltimore, where 7.8 per cent of the women reporting were foreign born, the largest proportion in any industry were in clothing manufacturing, with 28.1 per cent foreign born of the women in the industry who reported

place of birth. Exclusive of the meat-products industry (with 24.1 per cent) and of cigar manufacturing (with 13.4 per cent) the proportions of foreign-born women in the other industries were small. As has been shown from Table 1, page 9, the proportion of colored women in the industries investigated was small, only 5.6 per cent of the total number of women and girls included. Since the great preponderance of the women were white and American born, the question of race and nativity would not appear to complicate to any great extent the problems of women in the Maryland industries investigated. The one fact significant enough for some emphasis is that in the garment establishments of Baltimore, which show a larger proportion of foreign born than any other industry—that is, over one-fourth of the women reported in the industry—unusually poor working conditions were allowed to exist. It would seem that foreign-born women tolerate worse conditions than do American-born women, partly on account of lower standards of living and partly on account of their need to secure a job under any circumstances. Such an attitude may be attributed to their realization of the handicap of being a foreigner when in quest of work. Sometimes the employers of these women also are foreign born, as was the case in many of the garment factories in Maryland. For no reason, however, should the presence of foreign workers encourage the existence of bad working conditions and the lowering of standards. Education and legislation should be combined as preventive and remedial measures.

AGE.

The matter of the age of women workers is significant in several respects. If a large proportion of girls become industrial workers at an early age, they are apt to drift into industry without any trade training and hence are restricted in their opportunities for advancement. Also, there is danger that the educational level of the State will be held down. In answer to the argument that girls do not need trade training because they are only transients in the industrial world, it is important to ascertain the proportion of mature women found in industry. It is of value, moreover, to know the kind of occupations in which women of different ages engage, and to discover which jobs attract young workers and which furnish the best opportunities for older women.

Of the 6,519 women in Maryland reporting on age, the following summary (prepared from Table X, page 94 in the appendix) shows the distribution according to age:

Age.	Women reporting.	Age.	Women reporting.
	<i>Per cent.</i>		<i>Per cent.</i>
Under 20 years.....	35.7	40 and under 50 years.....	8.4
20 and under 25 years.....	23.1	50 years and over.....	5.6
25 and under 30 years.....	12.7		
30 and under 40 years.....	14.5	Total.....	100.0

This shows that although there was a large group of young workers, since more than one-third of all reporting their age were under 20, there was likewise a considerable proportion of mature women. The fact that over one-fourth of the women (28.5 per cent) were 30 years of age and over does not substantiate the theory that women work for only a few years in industry and then drop out.

In general the detailed figures from the survey show that candy, paper-box, and wooden-box factories, 5-and-10-cent stores, and metal shops were more especially the provinces of the workers under 20 years of age. The other industries show a fairly even distribution of workers in the various age groups up to 50 years of age. Meat-packing plants, men's clothing factories, laundries, restaurants, general mercantile establishments, and textile mills showed the largest proportions of women 30 years of age and over. Meat-packing showed the highest percentage in this age group, or slightly over one-half of the total number of women in the industry. The detailed figures also show the industries having the largest percentages of women in the youngest and oldest age groups. Wooden-box, candy, and paper-box manufacturing showed the largest proportions of girls under 16, whereas textiles and men's clothing had the highest percentages of women who were 50 years of age and over. It is of equal importance to safeguard young people in industry in order to prevent their energies from being prematurely sapped and older women workers who frequently are carrying heavy economic and domestic responsibilities.

Closely allied with the foregoing subject is the age at which the women began to work for wages. The following summary (prepared from Table XI, page 94 in the appendix) gives the percentages of women who began to work at the several different ages:

Age at beginning work.	Women reporting.	Age at beginning work.	Women reporting.
	<i>Per cent.</i>		<i>Per cent.</i>
Under 14 years.....	11.8	30 and under 40 years.....	3.0
14 and under 16 years.....	34.3	40 and under 50 years.....	1.4
16 and under 17 years.....	25.0	50 years and over.....	.8
17 and under 20 years.....	15.5		
20 and under 25 years.....	5.5	Total.....	100.0
25 and under 30 years.....	2.6		

It is evident that the vast majority of women (86.7 per cent) began to work before they were 20 years of age, almost three-fourths (71.1 per cent) before they were 17, and almost one-half (46.1 per cent) before they were 16. The age at which a worker makes her entry into the industrial world is a strong factor in molding her personal and industrial history. If girls of from 14 to 16 years, devoid of vocational training, in many cases lacking an elementary education, are driven by economic circumstances to earn a livelihood, they are likely to accept the first available job. Too frequently they engage in work of a mechanical and monotonous nature, requiring no skill, giving no training nor chance for advancement, and tending to check initiative and ambition. Such a situation may, on the one hand, make them unduly restless, causing them to go from plant to plant seeking a change in environment if not in occupation. It is not uncommon for a girl to give as her reason for leaving a job, "Oh, I just got tired; I wanted a change." On the other hand, girls may stick at their "blind alley" jobs, grinding along through life until, as one woman put it, "We don't have any more bright thoughts"—that is, until ambition and ability become atrophied. There is, of course, the third possibility, which is far from being a probability, that inexperienced young girls who enter industrial establishments will be given a chance to learn a trade requiring skill or offering opportunities for advancement. Only in very rare instances is such good fortune encountered.

Too frequently girls who enter industry at an early age have had but little education and are thus handicapped in their progress. Although no comprehensive investigation was made of the educational history of the women included in the survey, a small group of workers (48 women) when visited in their homes gave information about their education. As these women were chosen at random, they may be considered as somewhat representative. About two-thirds of those reporting had left school for economic reasons, the most usual statements being "I left to go to work," "I was needed by my family," "My father died," "I had to support myself," "I had to help do housework at home." About one-half of these women had left school at 14 years of age or under, and more than three-fourths had not gone beyond the seventh grade. There is small likelihood that girls will supplement their education by attendance at night school after they enter upon industrial jobs, for even if they should have the ambition, the majority would not have the energy at the end of a working day to profit greatly by night classes.

TIME IN THE TRADE.

Of interest in view of the preceding discussion is the information given by 6,240 women as to the length of time they had worked in the

trade. The following summary (prepared from Table XII, page 95 in the appendix) shows the proportions of women with the number of years of experience in the trade:

Time in the trade.	Women reporting.	Time in the trade.	Women reporting.
	<i>Per cent.</i>		<i>Per cent.</i>
Under 6 months.....	11.4	15 and under 20 years.....	3.9
6 months and under 1 year.....	9.6	20 and under 30 years.....	4.0
1 and under 2 years.....	15.0	30 and under 40 years.....	.9
2 and under 3 years.....	13.0	40 and under 50 years.....	.5
3 and under 4 years.....	9.8	50 years and over.....	.1
4 and under 5 years.....	7.2		
5 and under 10 years.....	16.0	Total.....	100.0
10 and under 15 years.....	8.6		

This indicates that there was a large group of steady women workers, since the largest proportion in any group was in the 5 and under 10 years group, and since over one-third of all the women reporting (34 per cent) had worked in the trade 5 years and over. Although 21 per cent of the women reported that they had had less than one year's experience in the trade, it must be remembered that this group includes the beginners. Seventy-nine per cent had been in the trade for one year and over. From the table it can be seen that textile mills, restaurants, and laundries, followed by clothing factories and general mercantile establishments, had the largest proportions of women in the 5 and under 10 years group. The more detailed figures of the survey show that the highest percentages of the women reporting on time in the trade in wooden-box, cigar, and hat factories also were in this group, while the largest proportion in umbrella establishments had had 10 and under 15 years of experience. These facts indicate that many women do acquire a trade and stick to it.

TIME WITH PRESENT EMPLOYER.

The next question that arises is, Do women remain with one employer sufficiently long to become valuable, or do they add to the labor turnover by changing from plant to plant within an industry? Some light is thrown on this subject by the following summary (prepared from Table XIII, p. 95 in the appendix), giving the proportions of women who had been with their present employer certain classified numbers of years:

Time with present employer.	Women reporting.	Time with present employer.	Women reporting.
	<i>Per cent.</i>		<i>Per cent.</i>
Under 6 months.....	17.4	10 and under 15 years.....	6.0
6 months and under 1 year.....	12.1	15 and under 20 years.....	2.8
1 and under 2 years.....	16.9	20 and under 30 years.....	2.3
2 and under 3 years.....	12.9	30 and under 40 years.....	.6
3 and under 4 years.....	9.1	40 years and over.....	.4
4 and under 5 years.....	6.3		
5 and under 10 years.....	13.1	Total.....	100.0

The figures show that one-fourth of the women (25.2 per cent) had been with their present employer five years or more and that the large majority (70.4 per cent) had a record of one year or more with the present firm. Although the highest percentage of workers is found in the under-6-months class, again it must be remembered that this group includes the beginners in these industries and does not necessarily indicate that there is a large number of women workers shifting about. Naturally there is always a certain amount of labor turnover among women wage earners, as among men. It is very difficult to get figures on the turnover of particular establishments, since such records are not generally kept. Although all managers were questioned about the matter, only two or three attempted to give any specific figures; but the majority thought that women workers were steady, especially at the time of the survey. Only a few said that the turnover among women employees was high.

There are many different elements contributing to the problem of labor turnover, some of which can be noted from the answers of 36 women who gave reasons for changing their jobs. Twelve women said that they had given up former jobs because of their health; that is, because the work was too heavy for them or had certain objectionable hazards and strains. Nine had left jobs for such personal reasons as to get married, to take care of families, or to work in a more congenial place. Eight had left because the plants had been shut down or work had become slack. Two had made a change because they had grown tired of their old place, and two others in order to get higher wages. One had left because the plant was too dirty, and another because the hours were too long.

CONJUGAL AND LIVING CONDITION.

It is interesting to note that of the 36 women who gave reasons for leaving their jobs, the two who left in order to get married and the one to take care of her young children later returned to their industrial work. In general the figures on conjugal condition obtained in the survey help to disprove the theory that girls engage in industrial work only until they marry.

Table XIV (page 96 in the appendix) shows that 67.6 per cent of the women were single, 18 per cent were married, and 14.4 per cent were widowed, divorced, or separated. Accordingly, of the 6,571 women reporting on conjugal condition, almost one-third (32.4 per cent) were or had been married. Restaurants, with 53.8 per cent of all their women employees married, widowed, divorced, or separated, laundries, with 42.8 per cent, and garment factories, with 41.9 per cent, showed the largest proportions of women who were or had been married.

Any discussion of married women wage earners inevitably leads to a consideration of home responsibilities, both financial and domestic. This subject was too extensive to be handled in the type of investigation made in Maryland, but in visits to the homes of some of the women workers various significant bits of information along this line were picked up.

Widows and women with husbands reported that they were the entire or partial mainstay of their families. These wage earners were conspicuous examples of the economic struggle which many women must make to keep their families together and to provide a home and a livelihood. The hand-to-mouth existence of some of the families visited was not surprising, since the mother frequently was compelled to perform all her household duties and take care of small children in addition to her industrial job. More than one woman who had the burden of heavy domestic tasks reported that her plant work also was heavy. "They never put girls on this job who don't have to work and aren't strong enough for a man's job," was the frank statement of one widow. Even though such a worker had a man's responsibility in the home and did a man's work in the plant, she did not necessarily receive a man's pay. One woman, for example, who was operating a big cutting machine in an underwear factory for which, she said, a man would be paid \$25 a week was given a weekly stipend of only \$12. With very meager wages, which in most instances had suffered a recent reduction, it seemed almost incredible that women could keep their families together. That this could not always be done in the case of a large family is shown by the experience of one widow. Upon her husband's death several years before, when she had been left with six children, all under 12 years of age, she had gone to work in a mill. Her wages always had been too low to enable her to support her whole family. At the time of the visit only the youngest child was living with the mother. Two others were "adopted out," two were in a home, and one was with an uncle. Another widow whose husband had died of "the flu" was receiving \$10 a week, the only means of subsistence for herself and three children. The oldest child, a boy of 15, had just obtained his work permit, but on account of the unemployment situation was unable to get a job. As the only living quarters which they could afford were too small for more than one bed, all four slept together. The reduction of another widow's wages from \$16 to \$11 had made it difficult for her to buy sufficient clothing to permit her to keep her four children at school.

The women who were making such efforts were not all widows. According to the report in one community where the men were miners, the wives as mill workers had been the chief breadwinners

for several months since the closing of the mine. One woman in a garment factory in Baltimore said, "I never worked in a down-town shop before, but hard times drove me to it." As her husband was an invalid she had been the family mainstay for years, earning a livelihood by sewing at home. "I guess I'm one of the people who were born to work and carry burdens," she added philosophically. Incident upon incident could be piled up of the burdens of married women wage earners.

As many cases could be cited of single women and girls who were forced to carry heavy financial and domestic burdens. The following stories are illustrative of such responsibilities for young girls. One 17-year-old girl was receiving \$10 a week for her work in a laundry. She assisted her widowed mother and her brother in supporting a family of nine children. The girl had hoped to go to high school but had been prevented by her father's death. Another girl of 17 was the sole support of her family. As a cream dipper in a candy factory she normally earned \$11 a week, but at the time of the visit, since there was no Saturday work, her weekly wage was reduced to \$9.73. The mother was sick in bed; the father was sickly and unable to work. There were two sisters, one married, the other 9 years old, and two brothers aged 6 and 12 years. In another family a daughter who was just 14 years old and therefore permitted to work only eight hours a day, was receiving \$7.50 a week. Her job of packing kept her standing all day. Her father was a tailor and had been laid off for three or four months, although he was working at the time of the visit. The girl and her two older sisters helped in the support of the family. The other five children, ranging in age from 2 to 12 years, were unable to contribute anything to the family income.

At the other end of the age scale was an unmarried woman 69 years old, a laundry worker, who with her weekly wage of \$12 supported herself and an older sister, the latter being unable to work.

Some idea of the difficulties which beset a single woman supporting herself and living alone can be obtained from the experience of one worker who volunteered the following information. She was receiving \$12 a week, but as she had "got behind" during the previous weeks when she was "out of a job," she was trying to make up her deficit and also to put something by for another rainy day. She lived alone and did light housekeeping in two small rooms devoid of all conveniences, but renting for \$1.25 a week. She spent \$5 a week for food, altogether averaging \$6.87 for her weekly expenses. She did her own laundry and her own sewing. She spent no money for car fare, as she lived near her work and church, and walked to town. For months she had bought no clothes except shoes. She was compelled to buy these because her work in a glass factory was unusually

detrimental to footwear. Another single woman because of slack work and reduction in pay had been forced to give up boarding and resort to light housekeeping in order to make ends meet. By severest economy she was planning to live on \$16 a month, spending only \$2.56 for food, buying no clothes and only the barest necessities.

According to Table XV (page 96 in the appendix) the proportion of women who were living independently was only 12.1 per cent as compared with 87.9 per cent who were living at home. Sufficient evidence has been obtained to show that frequently women living at home have just as heavy and often heavier financial responsibilities, and consequently as urgent a need for a living wage, as those women living independent of families.

In general, so slender is the average wage earner's pay envelope, so many the demands made upon it—whether she is married or single or whether she is aiding in the support of others or not—that very clever manipulation of the contents is necessary to enable her to meet the vicissitudes inherent in an industrial job; to permit her to keep her feet on the level of present subsistence, to wipe out past arrears, and to store up for possible future misfortunes. When working women make such remarks as, "I'm never out of debt, for no sooner do I finish paying for one dress than it is worn out and I have to get another," or "I've never been able to save any, and though I hate to think about it, the only thing left for my old age is the poorhouse," it is quite evident that no insignificant part of the burden of a wage-earning woman is the worry of getting a living wage, not only for present demands but for future needs. Accordingly, when minimum-wage laws guarantee to all working women a rate not only covering bare living expenses but allowing some margin for dependents or for savings for "a rainy day" and old age, there will be made a long step forward toward the social betterment of a large and very important part of the population.

APPENDIX.

GENERAL TABLES.

TABLE I.—Scheduled weekly hours of men and women by industry.

BALTIMORE.

Industry.	Total number reporting.			Number whose scheduled weekly hours were—															
				Under 44.			44.			Over 44 and under 48.			48.			Over 48 and under 52.			
	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	
Manufacturing:																			
Boxes, paper.....	5	55	218							2	6	30	1	36	131	2	13	57	
Boxes, wooden.....	3	127	59							1	20	38							
Candy.....	16	185	384												4	40	289		
Cigars.....	4	122	825				2	53	283	1	43	292							
Clothing, men's.....	126	1,304	935	7	44	26	18	1,243	905	1	3	1				2	9	2	
Clothing, women's and children's.....	14	173	465	1	3	23	5	116	66	7	49	373				1	5	3	
Hats, men's.....	15	298	929							3	101	459	1		29	2	121	441	
Meat products.....	3	548	87	2	462	67													
Metal products.....	9	1,814	978							1	124	312				6	1,454	553	
Printing and publishing.....	4	72	28										4	72	28				
Textiles.....	6	1,130	1,170										2	950	937	4	180	233	
Umbrellas.....	3	46	141												3	46	141		
Miscellaneous.....	113	1,352	803	1	10	53				1	320	41	2	438	100	7	367	511	
General mercantile.....	19	1,151	2,769							8	1,112	2,714	2	39	55				
5-and-10-cent stores.....	4	23	145							1	7	63				2	16	82	
Laundries.....	110	176	390	3	17	27				2	17	21	1	2	13	2	25	5	
All industries.....	1124	8,576	10,326	14	536	196	25	1,412	1,254	28	1,802	4,344	13	1,537	1,293	36	2,276	2,317	
Per cent distribution.....		100.0	100.0								21.0	42.1		17.9	12.5		26.5	22.4	

Industry.	Number whose scheduled weekly hours were—																	
	52.			Over 52 and under 54.			54.			Over 54 and under 60.			60.			Over 60.		
	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.
Manufacturing:																		
Boxes, wooden.....				1	14	15				1	93	6						
Candy.....	1		35	2	74					2	46	60	1	25				
Cigars.....	1	26	250															
Clothing, men's.....				1	5	1												
Hats, men's.....				1	52		1	24										
Meat products.....										1	86	20						
Metal products.....										2	236	113						
Miscellaneous.....	1	124		1		26				3	93	72						
Laundries.....	1	46	175	3	69	149												
All industries.....	4	196	460	9	214	191	1	24		9	554	271	1	25				
Per cent distribution.....		2.3	4.5		2.5	1.8		0.3			6.5	2.6		0.3				

TABLE I.—Scheduled weekly hours of men and women, by industry—Continued.

STATE EXCLUSIVE OF BALTIMORE.

Industry.	Total number reporting.			Number whose scheduled weekly hours were—															
				Under 44.			44.			Over 44 and under 48.			48.			Over 48 and under 52.			
	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	
Manufacturing:																			
Clothing, men's.....	13	65	614				1		3	2	2	82	1	2	43	6	57	384	
Clothing, women's and chil- dren's.....	4	11	128							2	9	58				1	1	36	
Glass.....	13	257	89							3	222	62				3	35	27	
Hosiery.....	5	35	219																
Textiles.....	9	485	665																
Miscellaneous.....	19	2,534	610				3	17	33	4	407	42	2	42	56	6	1,457	518	
General mercantile.....	16	128	286	1	2	5				3	4	50	3	5	9	6	5	41	
5-and-10-cent stores.....	8	9	64													6	6	42	
Laundries.....	7	107	303							3	16	42				3	82	249	
All industries.....	184	3,631	2,978	1	2	5	4	17	36	17	660	336	6	49	108	35	1,832	1,782	
Per cent distribution.....		100.0	100.0		0.1	0.2		0.5	41.2		18.2	11.3		1.3	3.6		50.5	59.8	

WOMEN IN MARYLAND INDUSTRIES.

Industry.	Number whose scheduled weekly hours were—																	
	52.			Over 52 and under 54.			54.			Over 54 and under 60.			60.			Over 60.		
	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.	Es- tab- lish- ments.	Men.	Women.
Manufacturing:																		
Clothing, men's				1	2	40				2	2	62						
Clothing, women's and chil- dren's				1	1	34												
Hosiery				2	8	84	1	18	31	2	9	104						
Textiles				1	6	11				3	326	136						
Miscellaneous				3	61	16				1	550	10						
General mercantile	1	20		1	15	42				3	40	104				2	1	3
5-and-10-cent stores				1	2	14				1	1	8						
Laundries										1	9	12						
All industries	1	20		10	95	241	1	18	31	13	937	436				2	1	3
Per cent distribution		0.6			2.6	8.1		0.5	1.0		25.8	14.6					(²)	0.1

¹ This tabulation is based on actual number of employees reported as working certain hours. An establishment reporting that its 200 factory employees have a 54-hour week but that its 4 office clerks work 48 and its 4 janitors 60 would appear in the 3 columns specified.

² Less than 0.05 per cent.

TABLE II.—Saturday hours, by industry.

BALTIMORE.

Industry.	Total number reporting.		Number whose Saturday hours were—																					
			Under 4.		4 and under 5.		5 and under 6.		6 and under 7.		7 and under 8.		8 and under 9.		9 and under 10.		10 and under 11.		11 and under 12.		12 and over.			
	Establishments.	Women.	Establishments.	Women.	Establishments.	Women.	Establishments.	Women.	Establishments.	Women.	Establishments.	Women.	Establishments.	Women.	Establishments.	Women.	Establishments.	Women.	Establishments.	Women.	Establishments.	Women.		
Manufacturing:																								
Boxes, paper.....	5	218			4	207	1	11																
Boxes, wooden.....	3	59			1	38	2	21																
Candy.....	6	384			3	225	2	99							1	60								
Cigars.....	4	825			4	825																		
Clothing, men's.....	19	52	1	1	16	49	2	2																
Clothing, women's and children's.....	12	433			12	433																		
Hats, men's.....	5	929			2	191	3	738																
Meat products.....	3	87			2	67	1	20																
Metal products.....	9	978			3	273	5	691	1	14														
Printing and publishing.....	4	28			4	28																		
Textiles.....	5	1,135			3	957	2	178																
Umbrellas.....	3	141			2	125	1	16			1	41	2	154										
Miscellaneous.....	13	803			4	221	6	387																
General mercantile.....	19	2,769									6	2,317	3	132										
5-and-10-cent stores.....	4	145											3	132			1	13						
Laundries.....	7	363	1	5	2	181	1	47	1	102	1	15	1	13										
All industries.....	1,111	9,349	2	6	62	3,820	26	2,210	2	116	8	2,373	10	751	1	60	1	13						
Per cent distribution.....		100.0		0.1		40.9		23.6		1.2		25.4		8.0		0.6		0.1						

TABLE III.—Weekly hours of full-time women restaurant employees who worked a 6-day or 7-day week.

Weekly hours.	Days worked per week.	Number who were—					
		Regular.		Irregular.		Total.	
		Waitresses. ¹	Others.	Waitresses. ¹	Others.	Waitresses. ¹	Others.
Under 44.....	6	36	24			36	24
	7	1	1	4		5	1
44.....	6		5				5
	7						
Over 44 and under 48.....	6	6	3	14	3	20	6
	7						
48.....	6	13	27		2	13	29
	7						
Over 48 and under 54.....	6	6		4	13	10	13
	7	1	5	9		10	5
54.....	6	7	1			7	1
	7	2		1		3	
Over 54 and under 60.....	6	1		1		2	
	7		4	11		11	4
60.....	6	6	3			6	3
	7				1		1
Over 60 and under 65.....	6				2		2
	7	2	4	3		5	5
65 and under 70.....	6						
	7	3	1	1	2	4	2
70 and under 75.....	6						
	7	7	7			7	7
75 and over.....	6						
	7		2		2		4
Total.....	6	75	63	19	20	94	83
	7	16	24	29	5	45	29
Grand total.....		91	87	48	25	139	112

¹ Includes counter girls.TABLE IV.—Number of full-time regular women employees in restaurants working classified daily hours for a 6-day¹ and a 7-day week, by occupation.

Occupation.	Days worked per week.	Women whose daily hours were—					
		5 and under 6.	6 and under 7.	7 and under 8.	8.	Over 8 and under 9.	9.
Waitresses.....	6	1	9	14	8	1	² 7
	7		1		² 2		1
Counter girls.....	6			17	6	1	4
	7			1			
Cashiers ⁴	6			3	6		
	7			1			1
Cooks ⁵	6			4	⁶ 4		1
	7					7	1
Dishwashers.....	6			4	⁸ 3		
	7	1		5	1	2	3
Kitchen help.....	6		6	2	⁸ 15		
	7						
Cleaners ⁹	6			4	5		
	7						
Pantry help ¹⁰	6			2	3		
	7						
Miscellaneous ¹¹	6		1	4	2		
	7						
Total.....	6	1	16	54	52	2	12
	7	1	1	7	3	3	5
Grand total.....		2	17	61	55	5	17

(See footnotes on following page.)

TABLE IV.—Number of full-time regular women employees in restaurants working classified daily hours for a 6-day¹ and a 7-day week, by occupation—Continued.

Occupation.	Days worked per week.	Women whose daily hours were—					Total.
		Over 9 and under 10.	10.	Over 10 and under 11.	11.	Over 11 and under 12.	
Waitresses.....	6 7	1	6 12 9	2			47 15
Counter girls.....	6 7						28 1
Cashiers ⁴	6 7		1				9 2
Cooks ⁵	6 7						9 4
Dishwashers.....	6 7	1	2 2	2	1	13 1	9 17
Kitchen help.....	6 7		14 1				23 1
Cleaners ⁹	6 7			3 2			9 2
Pantry help ¹⁰	6 7		1				6 6
Miscellaneous ¹¹	6 7						7
Total.....	6 7	1 1	9 13	6	1	1	147 42
Grand total.....		2	22	6	1	1	189

¹ Among 6-day workers are 24 women who have one day a week off or every other Sunday, and 2 women who have one day a week off and every other Sunday.

² Includes 4 with one day of 7 hours.

³ Have one-half day off every other Sunday.

⁴ Includes one candy clerk.

⁵ Includes bakery women.

⁶ Includes 2 with one afternoon a week off.

⁷ Has every other Sunday off.

⁸ Has one day of 10 hours.

⁹ Includes laundresses and scrub women.

¹⁰ Includes sandwich and salad makers.

¹¹ Includes hostesses and 3 storeroom keepers.

¹² Includes 2 with one day of 6½ hours, one with one day of 4½ hours, and one with one day of 3½ hours.

¹³ Includes 1 with one afternoon a week off.

¹⁴ Has one day of 12½ hours.

TABLE V.—Beginning, ending, and over-all hours of full-time regular women employees, in restaurants, by length of time off duty.

WAITRESSES.

WOMEN WHO HAD NO DEFINITE TIME OFF DUTY.

6-day week.				7-day week.			
Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.	Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over all hours.
2 1	7 a. m.	3 p. m.	8	2 1	5.45 a. m.	4 p. m.	10½
3 1	7 a. m.	5 p. m.	10	2 1	7 a. m.	5 p. m.	10
3 1	7.30 a. m.	3.30 p. m.	8	2 1	10 a. m.	8 p. m.	10
3 3	8 a. m.	5 p. m.	9	2 1	11 a. m.	8 p. m.	9
3 1	9 a. m.	7 p. m.	10	2 1	11 a. m.	9 p. m.	10
2 1	9.15 a. m.	7 p. m.	9¾	2 1	11 a. m.	9.30 p. m.	10½
4 1	10 a. m.	3.30 p. m.	5½	2 1	9 p. m.	7 a. m.	10
3 1	10 a. m.	8 p. m.	10				
4 1	10.30 a. m.	5 p. m.	7				
3 1	3 p. m.	12 p. m.	9				

TABLE V.—Beginning, ending, and over-all hours of full-time regular women employees, in restaurants, by length of time off duty—Continued.

WOMEN WHOSE TIME OFF DUTY WAS ONE-HALF HOUR.

6-day week.				7-day week.			
Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.	Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.
64	7 a. m.	2.30 p. m.	7½	452	5.30 a. m.	2 p. m.	8½
51	8 a. m.	4 p. m.	8				
451	11 a. m.	8 p. m.	9				
66	5 p. m.	12 p. m.	7				
62	7.30 p. m.	2 a. m.	6½				

WOMEN WHOSE TIME OFF DUTY WAS 1 AND UNDER 2 HOURS.

6-day week.

Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.
61	5.30 a. m.	3 p. m.	9½
51	6 a. m.	3 p. m.	9
62	7 a. m.	4 p. m.	9
62	7 a. m.	5 p. m.	10
64	8 a. m.	5 p. m.	8
616	8.45 a. m.	4.45 p. m.	8½
75	9 a. m.	5.30 p. m.	8½
62	9 a. m.	5.30 p. m.	8½
83	9 a. m.	5.30 p. m.	8½
81	10.30 a. m.	7.30 p. m.	9
61	10.30 a. m.	8.30 p. m.	10
61	11 a. m.	8 p. m.	9
61	5 p. m.	2 a. m.	9

WOMEN WHOSE TIME OFF DUTY WAS 2 AND UNDER 3 HOURS.

6-day week.				7-day week.			
Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.	Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.
82	8 a. m.	8 p. m.	12	21	8 a. m.	8 p. m.	12
81	9 a. m.	9 p. m.	12				

WOMEN WHOSE TIME OFF DUTY WAS 3 AND UNDER 4 HOURS.

6-day week.				7-day week.			
Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.	Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.
51	8.30 a. m.	7.30 p. m.	11	21	6.30 a. m.	7.30 p. m.	13
21	8.30 a. m.	7.30 p. m.	11	21	7 a. m.	8 p. m.	13
64	12 m.	12 p. m.	12	21	8 a. m.	7 p. m.	11
				21	8 a. m.	9 p. m.	13

TABLE V.—Beginning, ending, and over-all hours of full-time regular women employees, in restaurants, by length of time off duty—Continued.

WOMEN WHOSE TIME OFF DUTY WAS 4 HOURS AND OVER.

7-day week.			
Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.
21	7 a. m.	8 p. m.	13
21	7 a. m.	9 p. m.	14

OTHER WORKERS.

WOMEN WHO HAD NO DEFINITE TIME OFF DUTY.

6-day week.				7-day week.			
Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.	Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.
5	8 a. m.	4 p. m.	8	21	5.30 a. m.	5 p. m.	11½
21	8 a. m.	6 p. m.	10	22	6.30 a. m.	5 p. m.	10½
21	10 a. m.	8 p. m.	10	21	8 a. m.	5 p. m.	9
21	11 a. m.	9 p. m.	10	42	9 a. m.	7.30 p. m.	10½
				21	10 a. m.	8 p. m.	10
				21	12 m.	9.30 p. m.	9½
				21	4 p. m.	12 p. m.	8

WOMEN WHOSE TIME OFF DUTY WAS ONE-HALF HOUR.

6-day week.				7-day week.			
Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.	Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.
2	8.30 a. m.	4 p. m.	7½	51	8 a. m.	5.30 p. m.	9½
7	9 a. m.	4 p. m.	7	55	5.30 p. m.	1 a. m.	7½
61	11 a. m.	7.30 p. m.	8½				

WOMEN WHOSE TIME OFF DUTY WAS 1 AND UNDER 2 HOURS.

6-day week.				7-day week.			
Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.	Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.
61	5 a. m.	2 p. m.	9	61	6 a. m.	4 p. m.	10
61	6 a. m.	2.30 p. m.	8½	61	6.30 a. m.	4.30 p. m.	10
63	6 a. m.	3 p. m.	9	61	6.30 a. m.	5.30 p. m.	11
65	7 a. m.	4 p. m.	9	62	7 a. m.	4.30 p. m.	9½
61	8 a. m.	4 p. m.	8				
65	8 a. m.	5 p. m.	9				
68	8.30 a. m.	5.30 p. m.	9				
62	9 a. m.	5.30 p. m.	8½				
13	9 a. m.	5.30 p. m.	8½				
61	11 a. m.	8 p. m.	9				
62	12 p. m.	9 a. m.	9				
61	1 a. m.	11 a. m.	10				

WOMEN IN MARYLAND INDUSTRIES.

TABLE V.—Beginning, ending, and over-all hours of full-time regular women employees, in restaurants, by length of time off duty—Continued.

WOMEN WHOSE TIME OFF DUTY WAS 2 AND UNDER 3 HOURS.

7-day week.			
Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.
21	8 a. m.	8.30 p. m.	12½

WOMEN WHOSE TIME OFF DUTY WAS 3 AND UNDER 4 HOURS.

6-day week.				7-day week.			
Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.	Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.
51	9 a. m.	7.30 p. m.	10½	21	7 a. m.	9 p. m.	14
61	8 a. m.	8 p. m.	12				

WOMEN WHOSE TIME OFF DUTY WAS 4 HOURS AND OVER.

7-day week.			
Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.
351	6.30 a. m.	7 p. m.	12½
21	10 a. m.	8.30 p. m.	10½

¹ Cashiers not included. Among 6-day workers are 25 who have 1 day off a week or every third Sunday and 5 who have 1 shorter day a week. Among 7-day workers are 4 who have one-half day off every other Sunday, 1 who has every other Sunday off, 5 who have 1 shorter day in the week, and 1 who has 1 longer day in the week. In some instances the shorter day means a difference in number of meals on or off duty.

² Three meals on duty.

³ Two meals on duty.

⁴ One meal on duty.

⁵ One meal of one-half hour off duty.

⁶ Two meals of one-half hour each off duty.

⁷ One meal of one-half hour and 1 meal of three-fourths hour off duty.

⁸ One meal of 1 hour off duty.

TABLE VI.—*Weekly hours of women employees in restaurants whose hours were irregular, classified by longest daily over-all hours.*

Longest daily over-all hours.	Number whose weekly hours were—						Total.
	Under 48.	48 and under 54.	54 and under 60.	60 and under 66.	66 and under 72.	72 and under 78.	
9 and under 10:							
Waitresses.....	12						12
Others.....	3	2					5
10 and under 11:							
Waitresses.....		1					1
Others.....		1					1
11 and under 12:							
Waitresses.....		2	1				3
Others.....		11					11
12 and under 13:							
Waitresses.....		1	3	1			5
Others.....		1		1			2
13 and under 14:							
Waitresses.....	4		1	2	1		8
14 and under 15:							
Waitresses.....		1					1
Others.....				1		1	2
15 and under 16:							
Others.....					1		1
17 and under 18:							
Waitresses.....	1						1
Others.....				1	1	1	3
Over 18:							
Waitresses.....	1	8	8				17
Total:							
Waitresses.....	18	13	13	3	1		48
Others.....	3	15		3	2	2	25

TABLE VII.—*Beginning, ending, and over-all hours on day or days with longest over-all hours, of full-time irregular women employees, by length of time off duty.*

WAITRESSES.

Women who had no definite time off duty.				Women whose time off duty was one-half hour.			
Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.	Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.
1	7 a. m.....	7 p. m.....	12	2	9 a. m.....	6 p. m.....	9
2	9 a. m.....	8 p. m.....	11	1	9 a. m.....	7.30 p. m.....	10½

Women whose time off duty was 1 and under 2 hours.

Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.
5	7 a. m.....	6.30 p. m.....	11½
5	7 a. m.....	9 p. m.....	14
5	8 a. m.....	11.30 p. m.....	15½
8	10 a. m.....	7.30 p. m.....	9½

TABLE VII.—Beginning, ending, and over-all hours on day or day with longest over-all hours, of full-time regular women employees, by length of time off duty—Continued.

WAITRESSES—Cont nued.

Women whose time off duty was 3 and under 4 hours.				Women whose time off duty was 4 hours and over.			
Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.	Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.
1 1	6 a. m.....	7 p. m.....	13	3, 6 16	6 a. m.....	12 p. m.....	18
1 1	7 a. m.....	7 p. m.....	12	5 4	6 a. m.....	7 p. m.....	13
1 1	7 a. m.....	7.30 p. m.....	12½	5 1	6.30 a. m.....	12.30 p. m.....	18
1 2	8 a. m.....	8 p. m.....	12	5 1	7 a. m.....	12.30 p. m.....	17½
1 3	11 a. m.....	12 p. m.....	13				

OTHER WORKERS.

Women who had no definite time off duty.				Women whose time off duty was one-half hour.			
Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.	Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.
2 3	9 a. m.....	8 p. m.....	11	4 8	8 a. m.....	7.30 p. m.....	11½
				2 3	9 a. m.....	6 p. m.....	9
				4 2	11.30 a. m.....	8.30 p. m.....	9

Women whose time off duty was 1 and under 2 hours.

Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.
5 1	6 a. m.....	8 p. m.....	14
7 1	6 a. m.....	11.30 p. m.....	17½
6 1	8.30 a. m.....	8.30 p. m.....	12
6 1	10.30 a. m.....	8.30 p. m.....	10

Women whose time off duty was 3 and under 4 hours.				Women whose time off duty was 4 hours and over.			
Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.	Number of women.	Beginning hour.	Ending hour.	Over-all hours.
1 1	6 a. m.....	8 p. m.....	14	8 2	7 a. m.....	12 p. m.....	17
5 1	8 a. m.....	8.30 p. m.....	12½				

1 Three meals on duty.

2 One meal of ¼ hour off duty.

3 Two meals on duty.

4 One meal on duty.

5 Three meals of ¼ hour each off duty.

6 Two meals of ¼ hour each off duty.

7 No report on meals.

8 Four meals on duty.

TABLE VIII.—Over-all hours for one or more days in the week, of women restaurant employees whose hours were irregular, classified by length of time off duty.

Longest daily over-all hours.	Women whose time off duty was—						Total.
	Not definite.	One-half hour.	1 and under 2 hours.	2 and under 3 hours.	3 and under 4 hours.	4 hours and over.	
9 and under 10:							
Waitresses.....		4	8				12
Others.....		5					5
10 and under 11:							
Waitresses.....		1					1
Others.....			1				1
11 and under 12:							
Waitresses.....	2		1				3
Others.....	3	8					11
12 and under 13:							
Waitresses.....	1			5			6
Others.....			1				1
13 and under 14:							
Waitresses.....					4	4	8
14 and under 15:							
Waitresses.....			1				1
Others.....			1		1		2
15 and under 16:							
Others.....			1				1
17 and under 18:							
Waitresses.....						1	1
Others.....			1			2	3
Over 18:							
Waitresses.....						17	17
Total.....	6	18	15	5	5	24	73

TABLE IX.—Nativity, by industry—(For entire State).

Industry.	Number of women reporting.	Number of women who were born in—			
		United States.	Foreign country.		
			English speaking.	Non-English speaking.	No report.
Manufacturing:					
Clothing, men's.....	351	320	1	28	2
Clothing, women's and children's.....	215	189	2	23	1
Metal products.....	770	710	10	50	
Textiles.....	1,183	1,166	4	13	
Miscellaneous ¹	1,998	1,847	20	129	2
General mercantile.....	1,160	1,073	23	64	
5-and-10-cent stores.....	146	142	1	3	
Laundries.....	497	493	3	1	
Restaurants.....	207	194	3	10	
Total.....	² 6,527	6,134	67	321	5

¹ Industries with fewer than 10 establishments.

² Of the 6,800 women who supplied personal record cards, 273 did not report country of birth.

TABLE X.—Age, by industry—(For entire State).

Industry.	Number of women reporting.	Number of women whose age was—								
		Under 16 years.	16 and under 18 years.	18 and under 20 years.	20 and under 25 years.	25 and under 30 years.	30 and under 40 years.	40 and under 50 years.	50 and under 60 years.	60 years and over.
Manufacturing:										
Clothing, men's..	507	2	82	80	104	56	78	61	28	16
Clothing, women's and children's.....	200	3	15	31	58	37	28	16	11	1
Metal products..	774	32	110	180	204	93	88	45	16	6
Textiles.....	1,204	31	185	203	267	133	154	114	78	39
Miscellaneous ¹	1,956	90	354	345	450	236	284	126	52	19
General mercantile.....	1,021	25	138	148	249	121	181	106	42	11
5-and-10-cent stores.....	149	5	64	28	22	17	8	5
Laundries.....	495	3	69	66	101	83	89	51	23	10
Restaurants.....	213	13	26	48	52	36	26	6	6
Total.....	6,519	191	1,030	1,107	1,503	828	946	550	256	108

¹ Industries with fewer than 10 establishments.² Of the 6,800 women who supplied personal record cards, 281 did not report their age.

TABLE XI.—Age at beginning work, by industry—(For entire State.)

Industry.	Number of women reporting.	Number of women who began work for wages at—					
		Under 14 years.	14 and under 15 years.	15 and under 16 years.	16 and under 17 years.	17 and under 18 years.	18 and under 19 years.
Manufacturing:							
Clothing, men's.....	460	39	44	52	125	48	47
Clothing, women's and children's.....	202	22	37	27	39	20	20
Metal products.....	771	90	248	120	168	52	24
Textiles.....	1,201	255	301	152	284	57	49
Miscellaneous ¹	1,955	231	514	255	507	126	89
General mercantile.....	1,058	35	139	122	282	102	103
5-and-10-cent stores.....	147	3	24	6	69	15	14
Laundries.....	492	70	61	85	105	43	29
Restaurants.....	206	22	24	17	44	22	24
Total.....	6,492	767	1,392	836	1,623	485	399

Industry.	Number of women who began work for wages at—							
	19 and under 20 years.	20 and under 25 years.	25 and under 30 years.	30 and under 35 years.	35 and under 40 years.	40 and under 45 years.	45 and under 50 years.	50 years and over.
Manufacturing:								
Clothing, men's.....	14	35	16	12	6	8	4	10*
Clothing, women's and children's.....	5	12	5	3	6	4	2
Metal products.....	10	23	15	6	10	2	1
Textiles.....	12	26	22	12	14	8	3	6
Miscellaneous ¹	33	78	48	26	9	14	9	16
General mercantile.....	32	119	43	37	20	11	4	9
5-and-10-cent stores.....	4	6	2	2	2
Laundries.....	11	39	8	10	10	7	7	7
Restaurants.....	7	16	12	6	2	5	3	2
Total.....	128	354	171	114	79	59	33	52

¹ Industries with fewer than 10 establishments.² Of the 6,800 women who supplied personal record cards, 308 did not report age at beginning work.

TABLE XII.—*Time in the trade, by industry—(For entire State).*

Industry.	Number of women reporting.	Number of women who had been in present trade or business—					
		Under 6 months.	6 months and under 1 year.	1 and under 2 years.	2 and under 3 years.	3 and under 4 years.	4 and under 5 years.
Manufacturing:							
Clothing, men's.....	457	91	15	54	60	32	38
Clothing, women's and children's.....	188	59	5	25	12	14	13
Metal products.....	715	47	68	145	119	104	76
Textiles.....	1,158	85	58	137	123	128	89
Miscellaneous ¹	1,838	198	218	312	256	148	117
General mercantile.....	1,078	100	139	135	128	116	64
5-and-10-cent stores.....	137	45	26	29	14	8	5
Laundries.....	473	70	48	64	76	42	28
Restaurants.....	196	14	22	32	24	22	20
Total.....	2 6,240	709	599	933	812	614	450

Industry.	Number of women who had been in present trade or business—						
	5 and under 10 years.	10 and under 15 years.	15 and under 20 years.	20 and under 30 years.	30 and under 40 years.	40 and under 50 years.	50 years and over.
Manufacturing:							
Clothing, men's.....	75	48	14	28	2		
Clothing, women's and children's.....	32	11	8	9			
Metal products.....	104	34	8	9		1	
Textiles.....	220	114	68	75	30	24	7
Miscellaneous ¹	271	170	67	63	14	4	
General mercantile.....	172	111	55	50	8		
5-and-10-cent stores.....	8	1	1				
Laundries.....	80	30	20	10	2		
Restaurants.....	36	17	1	6	1	1	
Total.....	1,001	536	242	250	57	30	7

¹ Industries with fewer than 10 establishments.

² Of the 6,800 women who supplied personal record cards, 560 did not report on time in present trade or business.

TABLE XIII.—*Time with present employer, by industry—(For entire State).*

Industry.	Total Number of women reporting.	Number of women who had been with present employer—					
		Under 6 months.	6 months and under 1 year.	1 and under 2 years.	2 and under 3 years.	3 and under 4 years.	4 and under 5 years.
Manufacturing:							
Clothing, men's.....	499	160	36	70	68	35	33
Clothing, women's and children's.....	215	122	7	34	14	13	5
Metal products.....	774	54	80	155	124	114	84
Textiles.....	1,198	113	79	155	148	130	91
Miscellaneous ¹	1,982	294	278	382	263	140	119
General mercantile.....	1,159	194	202	189	139	112	48
5-and-10-cent stores.....	147	65	27	24	16	7	1
Laundries.....	487	124	61	77	66	32	28
Restaurants.....	214	38	40	42	26	22	10
Total.....	2 6,675	1,164	810	1,128	864	605	419

TABLE XIII.—*Time with present employer, by industry—(For entire State)—Continued.*

Industry.	Number of women who had been with present employer—						
	5 and under 10 years.	10 and under 15 years.	15 and under 20 years.	20 and under 30 years.	30 and under 40 years.	40 and under 50 years.	50 years and over.
Manufacturing:							
Clothing, men's.....	44	29	6	15	3		
Clothing, women's and children's.....	17	1	1	1			
Metal products.....	112	38	6	6		1	
Textiles.....	219	101	53	58	26	20	5
Miscellaneous ¹	243	139	72	43	6	3	
General mercantile.....	140	70	37	26	2		
5-and-10-cent stores.....	7						
Laundries.....	62	20	11	6			
Restaurants.....	28	5	2	1			
Total.....	872	403	188	156	37	24	5

¹ Industries with fewer than 10 establishments.² Of the 6,800 women who supplied personal record cards, 125 did not report time with present employer.TABLE XIV.—*Conjugal condition, by industry—(For entire State).*

Industry.	Number of women reporting.	Number of women who were—		
		Single.	Married.	Widowed, separated, or divorced.
Manufacturing:				
Clothing, men's.....	495	292	147	56
Clothing, women's and children's.....	200	112	66	22
Metal products.....	767	541	112	114
Textiles.....	1,192	796	201	195
Miscellaneous ¹	1,966	1,383	335	248
General mercantile.....	1,104	822	122	160
5-and-10-cent stores.....	144	116	21	7
Laundries.....	493	282	115	96
Restaurants.....	210	97	67	46
Total.....	26,571	4,441	1,186	944

¹ Industries with fewer than 10 establishments.² Of the 6,800 women who supplied personal record cards, 229 did not report conjugal condition.TABLE XV.—*Living condition, by industry—(For entire State).*

Industry.	Number of women reporting.	Number of women who were living—	
		At Home.	Independently.
Manufacturing:			
Clothing, men's.....	506	447	59
Clothing, women's and children's.....	210	171	39
Metal products.....	776	702	74
Textiles.....	1,204	1,063	141
Miscellaneous ¹	1,996	1,816	180
General mercantile.....	1,166	975	191
5-and-10-cent stores.....	149	144	5
Laundries.....	502	426	76
Restaurants.....	211	164	47
Total.....	26,720	5,908	812

¹ Industries with fewer than 10 establishments.² Of the 6,800 who supplied personal record cards, 80 did not report living condition.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE WOMEN'S BUREAU.

BULLETINS.

- No. 1. Proposed Employment of Women During the War in the Industries of Niagara Falls, N. Y. 16 pp. 1918.
 - No. 2. Labor Laws for Women in Industry in Indiana. 29 pp. 1918.
 - No. 3. Standards for the Employment of Women in Industry. 7 pp. 1919.
 - No. 4. Wages of Candy Makers in Philadelphia in 1919. 46 pp. 1919.
 - No. 5. The Eight Hour Day in Federal and State Legislation. 19 pp. 1919.
 - No. 6. The Employment of Women in Hazardous Industries in the United States. 8 pp. 1919.
 - No. 7. Night-Work Laws in the United States. 4 pp. 1919.
 - No. 8. Women in the Government Service. 37 pp. 1920.
 - No. 9. Home Work in Bridgeport, Connecticut. 35 pp. 1920.
 - No. 10. Hours and Conditions of Work for Women in Industry in Virginia. 32 pp. 1920.
 - No. 11. Women Street Car Conductors and Ticket Agents. 90 pp. 1920.
 - No. 12. The New Position of Women in American Industry. 158 pp. 1920.
 - No. 13. Industrial Opportunities and Training for Women and Girls. 48 pp. 1920.
 - No. 14. A Physiological Basis for the Shorter Working Day for Women. 20 pp. 1921.
 - No. 15. Some Effects of Legislation Limiting Hours of Work for Women. 26 pp. 1921.
 - No. 16. State Laws Affecting Working Women. 1920. 104 pp. 1921.
 - No. 17. Women's Wages in Kansas. 1920. 104 pp. 1921.
 - No. 18. Health Problems of Women in Industry. 11 pp. 1921.
 - No. 19. Iowa Women in Industry. 73 pp. 1921.
 - No. 20. Negro Women in Industry. 65 pp. 1922.
 - No. 21. Women in Rhode Island Industries. 73 pp. 1922.
 - No. 22. Women in Georgia Industries. 89 pp. 1922.
 - No. 23. The Family Status of Breadwinning Women. 43 pp. 1922.
 - No. 24. Women in Maryland Industries. 96 pp. 1922.
 - No. 25. Women in the Candy Industry in Chicago and St. Louis. (In press.)
 - No. 26. Women in Arkansas Industries. (In press.)
 - No. 27. The Occupational Progress of Women. (In press.)
- First Annual Report of the Director. (Out of print.)
Second Annual Report of the Director.
Third Annual Report of the Director.
Fourth Annual Report of the Director. (In press.)

CHARTS.¹

- I. Eight-hour and eight-and-a-half-hour laws for women workers.
- II. Nine-hour laws for women workers.
- III. Ten-hour laws for women workers.
- IV. Ten-and-a-quarter hour, ten-and-a-half-hour, eleven-hour, and twelve-hour laws for women workers.
- V. Weekly hour laws for women workers.
- VI. Laws providing for a day of rest, one shorter work day, time for meals, and rest periods for women workers.
- VII. Night-work laws for women workers.
- VIII. Home-work laws for women.
- IX. Minimum wage legislation in the United States. 3 sections.
- X. Mothers' pension laws in the United States. 4 sections.

¹Separate charts out of print. Revised and published in pamphlet form in Bulletin No. 16.