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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. 34

WOMEN IN ALABAMA INDUSTRIES

A Study of Hours, Wages, and
Working Conditions



WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1924

[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.

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JAMES J. DAVIS, SECRETARY
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JAMES D. HAYS, SECRETARY
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BULLETIN OF THE WOMEN'S BUREAU NO. 11

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A Study of Hours, Wages, and

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WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1911

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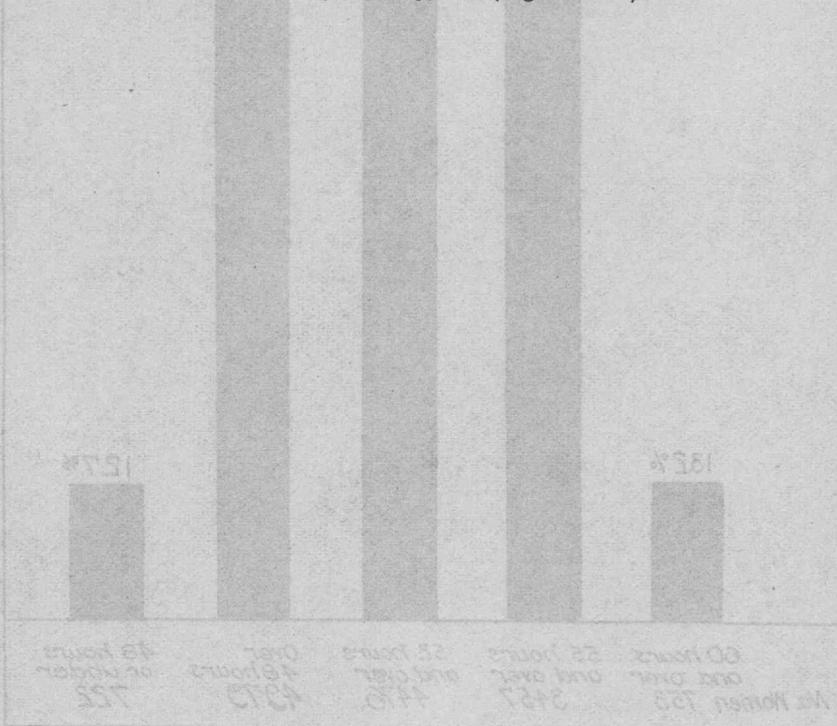
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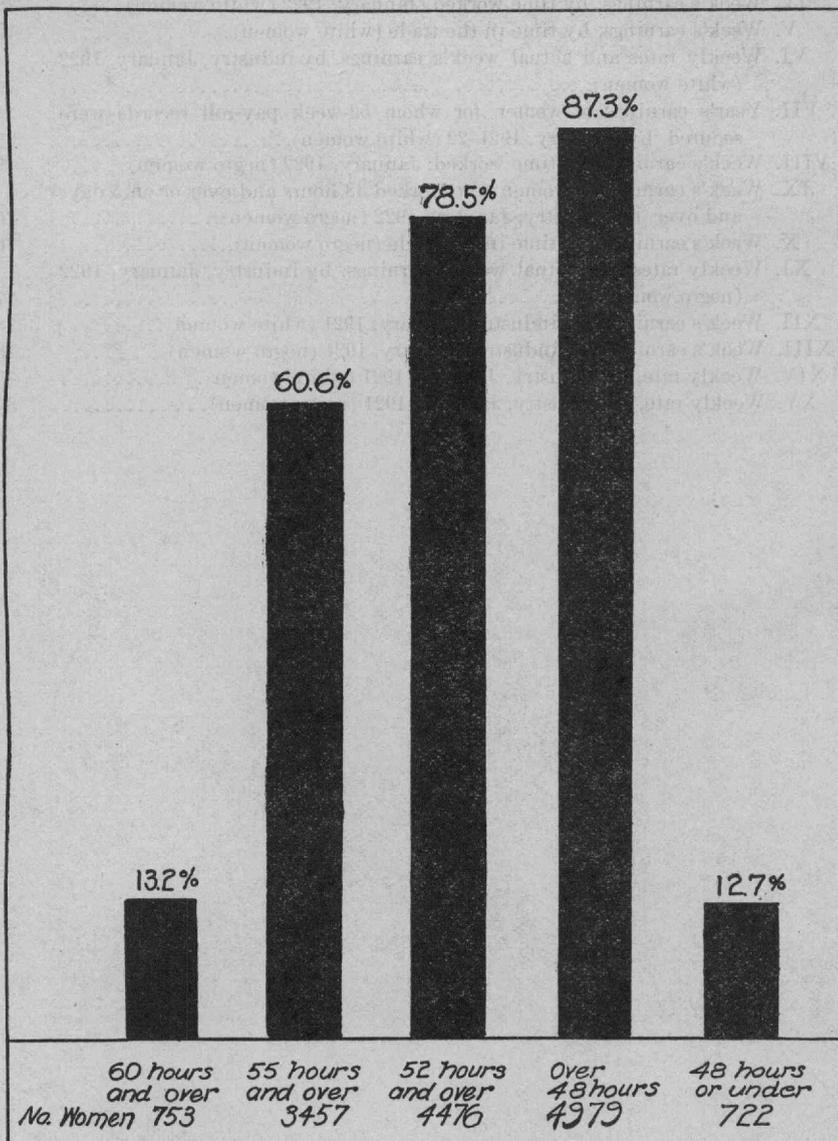
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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR,
WOMEN'S BUREAU,
Washington, September 13, 1923.

SIR: I have the honor to submit the accompanying report presenting results of a survey of wages, hours, and conditions of women's employment in selected industries in 31 cities in the State of Alabama. This investigation was made at the request of the Alabama League of Women Voters and the State Federation of Women's Clubs.

Valuable assistance and cooperation were given by the State Department of Child Welfare through Mrs. L. B. Bush and her assistants.

The survey was made during February, March, and April, 1922, and was directed by Miss Agnes L. Peterson, assisted by Miss Elisabeth D. Benham, Mrs. Hildred M. Hawkins, Miss Kathleen B. Jennison, Miss Edna Kuhnert, and Miss Mary Turner. The statistical material was prepared under the direction of Miss Elizabeth A. Hyde, and the report was written by Miss Kathleen B. Jennison.

MARY ANDERSON, *Director.*

Hon. JAMES J. DAVIS,
Secretary of Labor.

WOMEN IN ALABAMA INDUSTRIES.

PART I.

INTRODUCTION.

Since 1918 the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor has made a series of studies in various localities of the hours, wages, and working conditions in effect for women in industry. State officials and private organizations have urged these surveys in order to secure information necessary to the solution of the problems incident to the steady numerical increase of women wage earners. In the gradual shifting which has followed machinization in this country, women find themselves not transplanted from home to factory or store, but so placed that they are home workers and potential mothers, and at the same time industrial workers. Because of their value in both fields the need for the development of such industrial standards as will promote occupational opportunity and insure mental and physical health assumes increased importance. A first requisite to such development is a compilation of facts built from the material of human experience, and to secure such material, at the request of the State League of Women Voters and the Federation of Women's Clubs, the Women's Bureau undertook a survey of conditions affecting wage-earning women in Alabama, the findings of which are presented in this report. The courteous cooperation of employers in all the localities visited made this survey possible; their assistance, with that of social agencies, both State and private, is gratefully acknowledged. Among the cooperating agencies were the State Child Welfare Department, the State League of Women Voters, the State Federation of Women's Clubs, the Business and Professional Women's Clubs, the Young Women's Christian Association, and the State Federation of Labor.

Scope and method of survey.

Alabama is eleventh in the series of States in which the Women's Bureau has secured material bearing upon the establishment of industrial standards for women. In the course of the survey effort was made to obtain representative data in regard to hours of work, plant conditions, wages, age, nativity, industrial experience, and home responsibilities of women in industry, the material being secured from plant inspections, pay rolls, questionnaire cards filled in by the workers, and home interviews. As the time available for

the survey was short, it was necessary to limit the number of plants studied. In all, 131 were chosen from the chief woman-employing industries; 34 of them were stores, 19 were power laundries, and the remaining 78 were in the manufacturing group, which included textile mills, garment and food factories, and printing and publishing plants. Because conditions of work may vary with the size and location of the community, effort was made to include all sections of the State. Plants were scheduled in the following places: Alabama City, Albany, Anniston, Birmingham, Bon Air, Bridgeport, Cottondale, Dothan, Eufaula, Florence, Fort Payne, Gadsden, Girard, Huntsville, Lanett, Madrid, Mobile, Montgomery, Opelika, Oxford, Ozark, Piedmont, Pinckard, Prichard, Roanoke, Selma, Sheffield, Stevenson, Sylacauga, Talladega, and Tuscaloosa.

NUMBER OF WOMEN EMPLOYED IN ALABAMA INDUSTRIES.

There were 223,868 women gainfully employed in Alabama in 1920.¹ A large proportion of that number were domestic servants, laundresses, and farm laborers. Following these groups the greatest numbers of women were in manufacturing and mechanical industries, employing 15,103 women, 55 per cent of whom were engaged in the manufacture of textiles, and in retail stores, employing 5,399. The occupational statistics for the general census do not offer a classification which makes possible an estimate of the number of women employed in power laundries, but according to the census of manufactures 1,202 women were reported in power laundries in Alabama in 1919.² Because the number of women employed in textile mills, in stores, and in power laundries was far greater than in any of the other industrial groups in the State, the survey is chiefly concerned with conditions surrounding women in those industries.

TABLE 1.—*Number of establishments visited and number of white and negro women employed therein, by industry.*

Industry.	Number of establishments visited.	Number of women employed.		
		Total.	White.	Negro.
All industries	131	5,726	4,966	760
Manufacturing	78	4,164	3,870	294
Food products.....	12	111	73	38
Garments.....	9	391	388	3
Printing and publishing.....	5	30	30
Textiles.....	39	3,485	3,239	246
Cotton goods.....	17	1,941	1,729	212
Knit goods.....	5	681	677	4
Yarn and twine.....	17	863	833	30
Other manufacturing.....	13	147	140	7
Stores	34	1,072	1,023	49
General mercantile.....	21	866	826	40
5-and-10-cent stores.....	13	206	197	9
Laundries	19	490	73	417

¹ U. S. Bureau of the Census, Fourteenth Census, 1920. Abstract of the Fourteenth Census, 1920, Table 7, p. 499.

² U. S. Bureau of the Census, Fourteenth Census. Manufactures, 1919. Vol. X. Table 12, p. 1048.

Table 1 shows the number of plants visited in the various industries and the distribution by race of the women employed therein. The total number of women included formed not far from one-fourth of the women reported by the census as being employed in the industries considered. Of the 5,726 women workers scheduled, 60.9 per cent worked in textile mills, 18.7 per cent in retail stores, and 8.6 per cent in laundries. An overwhelming majority of the textile workers—92.9 per cent—were white. In power laundries negro workers formed 85.1 per cent of the women employed.

INDUSTRIAL HISTORY OF THE STATE.

A brief review of certain significant events in Alabama's evolution may serve to illuminate the industrial situation as it exists to-day. Her early history is the story of powerful Indian tribes; of a Spanish explorer in 1539; of various territorial claims by England, France, and Spain; of final cession to the United States; and of entrance into the Union as a State in 1819. The years between 1819 and 1860 saw the development of large plantations, especially in the "cotton belt" section, a strip of 13,000 square miles of land rich in limestone and marl and extremely well adapted to the growth of cotton. The immediate result of the abolition of slave labor in 1864 entailed the breaking up of these large plantations into smaller holdings; the ultimate result has been more intensive cultivation. Agriculture still employs an overwhelming majority of the wage earners and Alabama ranks among the chief cotton-producing States of the country.

The most spectacular feature in the industrial history of the State since 1864 is the development of vast coal and iron deposits in a strip of land stretching north of the Cotton Belt to the Tennessee Valley. Coal had been discovered in 1834, but real development of the State's mineral resources did not commence until 1881. At the present time Alabama ranks among the chief iron and steel manufacturing centers of the world. Iron and steel is not a woman-employing industry, but its growth has acted as a stimulus to the business of manufacturing textiles, which also has shown remarkable increase in recent years, and whose employees, in 1919, were 40 per cent women.³

A more direct stimulus to growth in the textile industry was supplied by the legislature of 1896, which exempted from taxation for 10 years all capital invested in the manufacture of cotton, providing that \$50,000 or more was invested in buildings and machinery. Before this act there were only 13 cotton mills in the State; in 1919 there were 58. A large majority of those now in operation, therefore, have been built during the last 25 years. In 1904 there were 758,087 cotton spindles in operation and in 1919 there were 1,108,933, an increase of 46.3 per cent in those 15 years. In only three States,

³ U. S. Bureau of the Census, Fourteenth Census. Manufactures, 1919, Vol. IX, Table 5, p. 25.

North and South Carolina and Georgia, was there a greater increase during that period. Alabama ranks eighth among the States in the number of active producing spindles.⁴ She ranks fourth in the production of square yards of cotton sheeting, fifth in the quantity of cotton yarn produced, and seventh in the manufacture of square yards of woven goods.⁵ The increase between 1914 and 1919 in the number of wage earners in all manufacturing industries in Alabama was 36.1 per cent.⁶ Even such a considerable increase, however, does not bring Alabama into the ranks of the so-called industrial States, for of all persons gainfully employed, there were only 16.6 per cent reported in manufacturing and mechanical industries, while in States such as New York, New Jersey, and Massachusetts the proportion so employed ranged from nearly 40 to more than 50 per cent.⁷

As an agricultural State Alabama has not been concerned with standards affecting women in industry. She is still young in industrial activities, but as she finds herself increasingly committed to them the creation of adequate standards becomes necessary to her well-being as a State. Because fatigue has a bearing upon the flow of production, the reduction of illness and accident rates, the lowering of labor turnover, the conservation of human resources, and the promotion of a better citizenship, employers, employees, and the States hold a common interest in such industrial regulations as will further its elimination. Detailed studies of conditions affecting fatigue have been made by experts in factory efficiency, as well as by scientists interested in the individual and in society as a whole. Their findings have shown that among the causes we have a low standard of living due to an inadequate wage; excessive working hours; incorrect posture; badly regulated ventilation or light; insanitary condition of workroom, or of drinking, washing, or toilet facilities, or of rest rooms or cloakrooms; nonnutritious lunches; accident hazard; and personal worries over such factors as an uncongenial job, fear of unemployment, physical condition, or sickness at home. In the various sections of this report existing industrial conditions are measured by standards which would tend to remove these causes of fatigue.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS.

Industrial development is comparatively recent in Alabama, domestic service and agriculture still employing a large proportion of the women wage earners in the State. However, manufacturing industries there have extended their operations to a marked degree in late years and will doubtless continue to do so. The textile

⁴ U. S. Bureau of the Census, Fourteenth Census. Manufactures, 1919, Vol. X, Table 23, p. 176.

⁵ Op. cit., Table 19, p. 171; Table 23, p. 170; Table 18, p. 169.

⁶ U. S. Bureau of the Census, Fourteenth Census. Manufactures, 1919, Vol. IX, Table 5, p. 25.

⁷ U. S. Bureau of the Census, Fourteenth Census, 1920. Abstract of the Fourteenth Census, 1920, Table 8, p. 500.

industries, which rank second in the manufacturing group in regard to value of product, are large woman-employing industries. Many women are also at work in power laundries and in retail stores.

Alabama is one of 5 States in which there is no limit to the hours which women may work either in one day or in one week, it is one of 32 States in which there is no regulation of night work, there is no provision for setting a minimum amount below which wages for a full week's work may not fall, there are practically no regulations in regard to plant working conditions, and it is one of 6 States in which there is no law providing for the pensioning of mothers.

Because industrial development is comparatively recent, it is particularly worth while to discover the facts surrounding the employment of women. With a knowledge of existing conditions Alabama may profit by the experience of other States of older industrial history in determining upon State standards which will promote the mental and physical well-being of women who earn.

Hours.

Because of the home activities which await the majority of women workers after plant hours, it is particularly essential that the demands of their industrial employment keep well within their supply of strength. In Alabama the lack of a State standard has resulted in a wide divergence in the number of hours required for a full working day or week by various plants. Eight per cent of the women worked not longer than 8 hours on a shift; over one-half of them worked 10 hours or longer. For 12.6 per cent of them the normal working week was not more than 48 hours long; for 60 per cent it was 55 hours or longer. For 753 (13.2 per cent) of the women the normal working week was at least 60 hours long.

Working conditions.

Good ventilation, correct posture at work, adequate and properly adjusted lighting, and provision for sanitation tend to lessen fatigue in industry and to leave the worker with energy for other activities at the end of her working day. In view of the conditions which obtained in the establishments studied there are certain outstanding factors which can be summarized under the general topic of working conditions.

Ventilation.—Regulation of temperature and humidity rates was the important need in connection with air conditions. Temperature and humidity were especial problems in textile mills and laundries. In all industries the climate of the State during the summer months increases the problem of general ventilation, a problem which is at all times in all localities a difficult one to handle.

Posture.—A large majority of the women were employed in occupations in which they stood to operate, and in only a small number of

cases were seats provided for their moments of relaxation. Arrangement, when possible, of machines or work benches so that work may be performed either sitting or standing and provision of a chair built with the health of the worker in mind, would alleviate the strain involved in constant standing.

Lighting.—To prevent eyestrain it is necessary to consider the amount of light needed in the performance of an occupation and the arrangement of lighting fixtures which will prevent rays from unshaded sources or by reflection from shining in the eyes of the worker. In a general factory inspection it is possible to note only obvious insufficiency or glare. Decided glare was reported in one-fourth of the mills and factories visited; the same condition existed in 14 of the 19 laundries. A particularly vicious type of artificial lighting is the exposed, unfrosted, unshaded bulb hung from the ceiling on a level with the worker's eyes. Only 1 textile mill of the 39 visited used such a type of unshaded drop lighting; 8 of the 19 laundries were lighted in that way. General artificial light shaded so as to prevent glare was reported in 32 of the 34 stores.

Sanitation.

Types, adequacy, and condition of toilet, washing, and drinking equipment were considered under the head of sanitation.

Toilets.—Certain minimum requirements from the standpoint of the health and comfort of the worker, such as adequacy in number, cleanliness, screening, ventilation, lighting, and methods of cleaning had been met for at least 50 per cent of the women. Standardization would provide that conditions now applying in a majority of cases would be required for all women workers.

Washing facilities.—For 17 per cent of the women workers there was no provision made for washing. The use of the common towels represented a serious health menace. In stores 78 per cent of the women used common towels, and for 7 per cent none were supplied; in mills and laundries the figures were reversed, 10 per cent of the women used common towels, while for 73 per cent in laundries and for 67 per cent in mills and factories no towels were supplied.

Drinking facilities.—Although the sanitary bubbler connected with a cooler is an effective and practical method of insuring clean, cool water and was found in a number of establishments, in 38 plants the employees used common drinking cups, and in 39 plants no cup was supplied; in 15 plants drinking conditions were sanitary, 6 supplied angle jet bubblers and 9 individual cups.

Wages.

Actual earnings are of primary interest in a study of women in industry. In addition such correlations as wages with industry, with time worked, with experience, with rates, indicate industrial

opportunities for women in a community. However, the community must first secure figures showing actual earnings, and after that it must consider them in terms of living costs, in order to determine whether the standard of living made necessary by those earnings requires revision. The middle point in the earnings of all white women workers for the week recorded in January, 1922, was \$8.80. The earnings in the different industries varied from a median of \$6.85 in knit goods manufacturing to \$17.30 in printing and publishing establishments. The week's earnings of those who had worked practically full time (48 or more hours a week or on 5 days or more) ranged from a median of \$8.35 among workers in 5-and-10-cent stores to \$12.65 among general mercantile store employees. Increases in hours of work over 48 hours did not result in consistent increases in pay; there was no economic advantage to the employees in working the longer shifts, rather individual competing plants had varying wage standards. The median of earnings of all negro women was \$6.05 and of practically full-time negro workers \$6.35 for the week. Year's earnings for white women showed a median of \$502 and for negro women a median of \$324.

The workers.

It is obviously necessary to look upon women who earn as individuals with responsibilities toward the manufacture and distribution of goods and with unique obligations in the life of the family. Evaluating their position in relation to industry and to their families in the interest of the development of their occupational opportunity and the elimination of sex discrimination requires a knowledge of certain facts in regard to their age, nativity, industrial stability, marital status, and home responsibilities.

Age.—Twenty-eight per cent of the women reporting were between 16 and 20 years old, 38.6 per cent between 20 and 30, and 28.9 per cent between 30 and 50. These figures contradict the theory that women wage earners are for the most part young persons who do not stay long in industry and are in no great need, therefore, of provision for trade training and promotion.

Nativity.—Ninety-nine per cent of the women reporting were native born.

Experience.—Sixty per cent of the women reporting had been working 3 years or longer; 42 per cent, 5 years or longer; and 22.3 per cent, 10 years or longer in the trade in which they were occupied at the time of the survey. Because the idea persists that women are in industry only during brief periods, there is a marked tendency to put them to work at low skilled jobs where there is obviously less economic advantage, less pressure to keep them from shifting to other jobs. Since in spite of this fact figures show that large numbers of women are in industry for long periods, it would seem that

increase in their stability would inevitably follow upon enlarged opportunities for their trade training and promotion.

Conjugal condition.—One-half of the women reporting were single, 27.3 per cent were married, and 22.3 per cent widowed, separated, or divorced.

Living condition.—The prevailing type of wage earner (80 per cent of the women reporting on the inquiry) was the woman who lived with her immediate family. Her problems represented those existing among large numbers of working women throughout the State.

Home responsibilities.—The number of women interviewed in regard to home responsibilities was small, but the material indicated one or two salient points in connection with the financial and home obligations of wage-earning women. There was no sharp division in regard to home work and financial obligation according to conjugal condition; both single and married women had a share of each. But although single women had financial responsibilities to fulfill and home work to do, their obligations were less extensive than those of married women; and married women on the whole bore less financial responsibility than did women who were widowed, divorced, or separated. Approximately 60 per cent of the women contributed all they made to the family income, 5 per cent contributed nothing financially, and 84 per cent had a definite and appreciable amount of work to do at home daily. These facts bear upon the need for limiting hours of employment for women and for discontinuing discrimination in wage rates on the basis of sex.

PART II.

HOURS OF WORK.

Alabama is one of the five States in which there is no legal regulation of the length of the working day for women. That so few States are without such regulation indicates a very general indorsement of the economic theory that industry exists for the production and distribution of commodities which promote the well-being of the community and that the State must therefore assure itself that citizens stop as producers before they become too fatigued to act as consumers. Because of the home activities which await the majority of women workers after plant hours it is particularly essential that the demands of their industrial employment keep well within their supply of strength. Excessive working hours result inevitably in lowered vitality. Healthful family life is in danger when women go to work before sunrise and return after sunset exhausted and in no condition to meet their home responsibilities.

That there has been a shortening of working hours by some manufacturers in Alabama during the last decade, even though the State itself has not adopted a standard, is indicated by figures from the United States Census of Manufactures, for 1919.¹ These figures show that in 1914 only 8.6 per cent of the workers in all industries worked 48 hours and under, while in 1919 20.6 per cent of the workers came under that head, and that in 1914 for 70.9 per cent of the workers the prevailing weekly hours were 60 and over, while in 1919 the per cent thus affected had been reduced to 49.4. The fact that practically one-half of the wage earners in the State were working 60 hours and over makes it significant to examine further into the length of the working day for women.

Scheduled daily hours.

In considering the time put in at wage earning each day and each week it is practicable to take as a basis the hour schedule of plants employing women. The actual time worked by the few women for whom it was possible to secure such a record is presented later in this section. Scheduled hours represent the length of the normal working day and week. They indicate the standard which is accepted

¹ U. S. Bureau of the Census, Fourteenth Census. Manufactures, 1919, Vol. IX, Table 9, p. 27.

for a full day's work in the various industries and localities, and they are the factor which is of interest if a State standard of hours is under consideration. More than one-half the women in the plants visited were scheduled to work at least 10 hours a day (Table 2). A 10-hour day usually meant from 6.30 or 7 a. m. to 5.30 or 6 p. m., with an hour off at noon. For 879 women in 19 plants the workday was more than 10 hours long. In spite of the generally accepted theory that rest periods of 10 or 15 minutes in the middle of the morning and afternoon decrease fatigue, especially among women working at standing jobs, the schedules for the plants investigated showed that the value of such rest periods had not been appreciated in the woman-employing industries of Alabama.

TABLE 2.—Scheduled daily hours, by industry.

Industry.	Number reported.		Number of establishments and number of women whose daily hours were—															
			Under 8.		8		Over 8 and under 9.		9		Over 9 and under 10.		10		Over 10 and including 11. ²		Irregular. ³	
	Estab-lish-ments.	Wom-en.	Estab-lish-ments.	Wom-en.	Estab-lish-ments.	Wom-en.	Estab-lish-ments.	Wom-en.	Estab-lish-ments.	Wom-en.	Estab-lish-ments.	Wom-en.	Estab-lish-ments.	Wom-en.	Estab-lish-ments.	Wom-en.	Estab-lish-ments.	Wom-en.
All industries	127	5,643	5	32	15	438	25	839	30	543	12	771	28	2,141	19	879	4	83
Per cent distribution	100.0	100.0	3.9	0.6	11.8	7.8	19.7	14.9	23.6	9.6	9.4	13.7	22.0	37.9	15.0	15.6
Manufacturing	77	4,162	13	9	15	438	8	72	6	20	6	617	26	2,127	19	879	1	2
Food products.....	11	109	2	5	4	48	1	4	3	7	2	11	2	34	1	2
Garments.....	9	391	5	313	2	44	2	34	1	2
Printing and publishing.....	5	30	5	30	34
Textiles.....	39	3,485
Cotton goods.....	17	1,941	3	603	20	2,004	18	878
Knit goods.....	5	681	1	207	11	1,254	7	480
Yarn and twine.....	17	863	2	396	2	161	1	124
Other manufacturing.....	13	147	1	4	1	47	5	24	3	13	1	3	7	589	10	274
Yarn and twine.....	17	863	55	1	1
Stores	34	1,072	13	611	21	457
General mercantile.....	21	866	10	532	11	334
5 and 10 cent stores.....	13	206	1	4	3	79	10	123
Laundries	16	409	1	19	4	156	3	66	6	154	2	14	3	81

¹ Details aggregate more than total because 7 firms appear in more than one hour group.
² Of this number all but 46 women, in 2 establishments, had an 11-hour day.
³ Not included in total.

WOMEN IN ALABAMA INDUSTRIES.

In all textile mills the work day was longer than 9 hours. The largest number of women in those establishments (2,004) were scheduled to work 10 hours a day. They formed 57.5 per cent of the total number working in textile mills. For the second largest group of women in textile industries (878) the scheduled day was longer than 10 hours. In garment factories the 8-hour day prevailed for 80 per cent of the women employees, the total number so engaged being 391. The larger stores, 13 employing 611 women, were open for between 8 and 9 hours a day; the smaller ones, 21 employing 457 women, for 9 hours. In laundries, the operating hours for 76 per cent of the women were over 8 and under 10 a day.

From the point of view of eliminating fatigue, a measure of the energy expended in any occupation may enter into a regulation of the daily hours worked therein. However, it is perhaps more obviously imperative to establish a maximum number of hours which no woman wage earner shall exceed, thus providing for time as well as energy for activities after working hours. If the expenditure rate of nervous or physical energy is excessively high in a given occupation it is obvious that the working hours should be reduced; but even where work is not overtaking, in no case should women spend 10, 11, or 12 hours a day in their place of work.

Scheduled weekly hours.

Only 12.6 per cent of the women workers were employed in plants where the regular weekly operating hours were 48 or under (Table 3). Over three-fourths of these women workers were in garment factories or laundries. Only 8.7 per cent of the women in the nine garment factories surveyed worked on a schedule of more than 48 hours a week. For 60.4 per cent of the total number of women the weekly hours were 55 and over. For 753 women, 13.2 per cent of the total number, the schedule was 60 hours or more. All of the women employed in textile mills were scheduled to work longer than 48 hours; for 2,193 of the 3,485 women the regular working week was 55 hours, and for 879 it was longer than 55.

TABLE 3.—Scheduled weekly hours, by industry.

Industry.	Number reported.		Number of establishments and number of women whose weekly hours were—																					
			44 and under.		Over 44 and under 48.		48		Over 48 and under 52.		52		Over 52 and under 54.		54		55		Over 55 and under 60.		60 and over.		Irregular. ²	
	Estab-lish-ments	Wom-en	Estab-lish-ments	Wom-en	Estab-lish-ments	Wom-en	Estab-lish-ments	Wom-en	Estab-lish-ments	Wom-en	Estab-lish-ments	Wom-en	Estab-lish-ments	Wom-en	Estab-lish-ments	Wom-en	Estab-lish-ments	Wom-en	Estab-lish-ments	Wom-en	Estab-lish-ments	Wom-en	Estab-lish-ments	Wom-en
All industries¹.	128	5,701	11	360	11	205	9	157	13	503	3	74	18	656	5	289	26	2,251	22	453	19	753	3	25
Per cent distribution.	100.0	100.0	8.6	6.3	8.6	3.6	7.0	2.8	10.2	8.8	2.3	1.3	14.1	11.5	3.9	5.1	20.3	39.5	17.2	7.9	14.8	13.2
Manufacturing.....	77	4,162	8	324	7	84	7	91	9	304	7	194	26	2,251	2	161	19	753	1	2
Food products.....	11	109	2	5	2	34	1	7	2	11	3	15	2	3	2	34	1	2	2
Garments.....	9	391	4	311	2	44	1	2	2	34
Printing and publishing.....	5	30	2	8	3	22
Textiles.....	39	3,485	2	244	1	169	21	2,193	2	161	16	718
Cotton goods.....	17	1,941	1	17	12	1,546	7	378
Knit goods.....	5	681	1	227	1	169	1	45	1	116	1	124
Yarn and twine.....	17	863	8	602	1	45	8	216
Other manufacturing.....	13	147	3	6	2	60	5	49	3	10	1	21	1	1
Stores.....	34	1,072	1	4	2	178	2	47	8	359	5	289	17	195
General mercantile.....	21	866	2	178	2	47	6	307	4	262	7	72
5-and-10-cent stores.....	13	206	1	4	2	52	1	27	10	123
Laundries.....	17	467	2	32	4	121	2	66	2	21	1	27	3	103	3	97	2	23

¹ Details aggregate more than total because 9 establishments appear in more than one hour group.

² Not included in total.

In each industry, although one set of hours prevailed for large numbers of working women, there was a variation of as much as 10 hours a week in the operating schedules of various plants, which would indicate that some firms found it feasible to operate on a shorter workday. The overwhelming majority of plants and working women whose scheduled hours were more than 48 a week must be considered in connection with the fact that a large proportion of these women found themselves confronted with home activities before and after working hours.

Scheduled Saturday hours.

There is no State regulation in regard to a short Saturday. In spite of that fact, however, textile mills have generally adopted a policy that employees shall have the benefit of a half-day. Only one mill operated 6 hours or more on Saturday, and 36, employing 2,919 women—83.8 per cent of those working in textile mills—operated less than 6 hours on that day (Table 4). In laundries the majority of the women worked a schedule of less than 8 hours on Saturday. In stores, on the contrary, for all women the regular hours were at least 8. For 585 women, 54.6 per cent of those working in stores, the hours were 10 or more on Saturday, and for 20 women, in three stores, the hours were 12 on that day. The custom which has arisen, especially in rural communities, of keeping stores open so that shopping may be done late Saturday afternoon or in the evening makes the problem of Saturday hours for store employees a difficult one. There are, however, two solutions which have been applied successfully. The first and more constructive one has been a development of public opinion to the point of realization that the slight extra convenience of being able to shop Saturday afternoons and evenings does not justify the extra fatigue incurred by the store employees. This point of view has become so general in many cities, that extra long hours for stores on Saturdays have been abolished and in many cases the Saturday half holiday for store employees has been inaugurated. In other localities, where the managements still find it advantageous to keep stores open on Saturdays, a simple adjustment of hours so that all employees do not start and end work at the same time, but so that the full force is on duty during the hours when business is heavy, has made it unnecessary for any woman to work excessive hours. This same adjustment has also been found practical for the busy shopping days of the Christmas period.

TABLE 4.—Scheduled Saturday hours, by industry.

Industry.	Number reported.				Number of establishments and number of women whose scheduled Saturday hours were—											
					Under 6.		6 and under 8.		8 and under 10.		10 and under 12.		12 and over.		Irregular. ²	
	Estab-lish-ments.	Wom-en.	Estab-lish-ments.	Wom-en.	Estab-lish-ments.	Wom-en.	Estab-lish-ments.	Wom-en.	Estab-lish-ments.	Wom-en.	Estab-lish-ments.	Wom-en.	Estab-lish-ments.	Wom-en.	Estab-lish-ments.	Wom-en.
All industries ¹	129	5,703	9	431	61	3,507	9	394	21	742	29	609	3	20	2	23
Manufacturing	78	4,164	5	392	58	3,420	3	212	9	95	6	44				
Garments.....	9	391			8	389			1	2						
Textiles.....	39	3,485	4	359	34	2,919	1	207								
Cotton goods.....	17	1,941	2	119	14	1,615	1	207								
Knit goods.....	5	681	1	227	4	454										
Yarn and twine.....	17	863	1	13	16	850										
Other manufacturing.....	30	288	1	34	16	112	2	5		93	6	44				
Stores	34	1,072							8	487	23	565	3	20		
General mercantile.....	21	866							8	487	12	375	1	4		
5-and-10-cent stores.....	13	206									11	190	2	16		
Laundries	17	467	4	38	3	87	6	182	4	160					2	23

¹ Details aggregate more than total because two firms appear in more than one-hour group.

² Not included in total.

Actual hours worked.

The foregoing sections have shown the normal working hours in the plants surveyed. Figures giving the hours actually worked by women during the week for which hours and wages were secured are also significant. It was possible to get this record for only 1,985, or 34.7 per cent, of the women scheduled, as on some pay rolls hours were not shown for piece workers. Of the women whose actual hours were reported, 52.5 per cent had worked less than full time (Appendix, Table I). The fact that over one-half of the women whose actual working hours were known had worked undertime indicates that this condition was very widespread at the time of the investigation. That undertime was extensive as well as widespread is shown by the fact that for almost one-tenth of the women working less than scheduled hours the time lost during the week was 30 hours or more, and for 66.5 per cent of them it amounted to 10 hours or more. Appendix Table II shows undertime classified according to the normal working hours in plants where it occurred. For 79.9 per cent of the women reporting time lost the plant hours were 55 a week or more. In the textile industry, where the 10-hour day prevailed, about one-half of the 1,507 women for whom hours worked were reported had worked undertime. The largest number of them had worked between 10 and 15 hours less than their regular plant hours. Ninety of them had lost 30 hours or more during the week. It is impossible in anything short of an absenteeism study to ascribe relative importance to such causes of lost time as excessive working hours, shortage of work, sickness of the worker or her family, or home duties. However, shorter working hours might have some effect on stabilizing employment by removing excessive fatigue from the list of possible reasons for irregular workers who constitute an inevitably disrupting force in industry.

Overtime in the plants surveyed was inappreciable. Of the 1,985 women reporting hours worked, only 8.6 per cent worked more than scheduled hours. One-third of these worked less than 3 hours overtime. One-third worked 10 hours or more overtime, although their regular schedules were at least 55 hours a week.

Night work.

For at least 40 years it has been urged by physicians, physiologists, social workers, labor organizations, and others that night work should be abolished especially in the case of women, for whom it too often means a night's work in the factory and a day's work in the home. There were 299 women working on night shifts in the factories surveyed (Appendix, Table III). All but two of them worked in textile mills. This number is only 5 per cent of the number of women who worked on day shifts. Of these night working

women 170 put in 11 hours a night and 55 hours a week. The next largest number, 78, worked a 12-hour night and 60-hour week. In nine of the plants there was a lunch period of from 15 minutes to one hour in length. In the other five plants no time was allowed for lunch and the girls ate at their machines. In only one plant, employing two women, were there six shifts a week.

Conclusion.

The hours of work for women in Alabama during the period studied were extremely uneven. The upper and lower limits were widely variable quantities. Whether there was work to be had four, five or six days a week was uncertain and consequently earnings were not to be figured upon in advance. When there was steady work the majority of the women put in a 10-hour day five days a week and five hours on Saturdays. Textile manufacturing employed 60 per cent of the women in the plants visited, and of the 3,020 women whose regular day was at least 10 hours long 95 per cent worked in that industry. It is apparent therefore that the textile industry is largely responsible for the long working day in the State.

Women workers are not in industry because they prefer to earn and to pay some one else to do their home making. Most of them find that group of activities awaiting them before they go to work in the morning and after they come home at night. With no State standards there is a possibility that plant hours may be regulated merely from the point of view that human energy gives out in a certain period of time. On the other hand if plant hours are not excessive, women will enter into their relations as wage earners, wives, mothers, sisters, friends, and citizens with new mental and physical health. Probably no industrial condition in the State cries more loudly and insistently for revision than the length of the working day.

PART III.

WORKING CONDITIONS.

Fatigue in industry is increased by harmful working conditions as well as by overlong hours. In reporting on the working conditions surrounding women in Alabama industries the findings in the factories inspected are measured by standards which tend to lessen fatigue. In each part of the State there are employers who reason that their efforts to improve ventilation, posture, lighting, and sanitation reduce the energy-depleting forces which exist in every job, result in increased industrial efficiency, and leave the worker with energy for other activities at the end of her wage-earning day. These employers are in competition with others in the same localities who have neglected to consider the importance of conserving the energy of their employees by these means. This report is not concerned with placing a certain number of plants in class 1 and the remainder in class 2. It deals with working conditions from the point of view of standardization. It therefore considers each condition separately as it applies in all work places, and relates each of these conditions to the specifications which would remove certain simple causes of fatigue.

POSTURE.

The Alabama law regulates seating only in retail stores. It requires proper accommodation for sitting and resting for any woman employed as a clerk or a saleswoman when not actively engaged in the work of her employment. This is a health regulation designed to protect one group of women workers. In recent years studies made by industrial engineers and physiologists have ranked incorrect posture a prominent factor in the promotion of industrial fatigue. Therefore to protect the health rights of the individual and also in the interest of operating efficiency detailed studies and recommendations have been made toward the elimination of incorrect position at work. Following demonstrations of this connection between unscientific seating and industrial fatigue chairs designed to meet health requirements for specific occupations are rapidly becoming standardized.

In considering posture in industry, occupations may be classified under three heads, according to whether the worker (1) sits to operate, (2) stands to operate, or (3) sits or stands to operate. The women who stand to operate work under two different conditions, continuous standing in one place or walking from one machine to another, as in the work of spinning, weaving, etc. The operator of a

sewing machine sits to operate. The spinner and the weaver must move from machine to machine. The shirt-front presser in a laundry can either sit or stand, by having a properly-adjusted chair. The saleswoman can sit between sales and adjusting stock if the aisle is wide enough to allow other salespersons to pass and if a chair or stool is available. The operative whose work is so arranged that it is possible for her to work either sitting or standing uses her strength more effectively than the one who sits or stands constantly. Industry, realizing the tremendous loss in energy resulting from unnecessary fatigue, is transferring occupations from classes 1 and 2 to class 3. The shift would entail considerable adjustment in machine, chair, and work table, as well as in building and arrangement and will necessarily be gradual.

However, certain minimum seating standards recommend themselves for all establishments regardless of the ratio existing therein between sitting and standing jobs. Each woman who sits at work needs a chair of a height which permits her to operate with least strain, with a back which supports her spine in moments of relaxation, with a broad, slightly saddle-shaped seat round edged in front, and with a foot rest if her feet do not rest squarely on the floor. Each woman who stands at work needs a chair with a back, so that in stated rest periods or while waiting for material she may be relieved and renewed after the strain of standing.

As seating is primarily an occupational study, it is necessary to discuss findings according to occupation and industry groups. In the textile mills surveyed a large proportion of the 3,485 women were employed in occupations in which it was necessary to stand while at work. The chief occupations in which this condition obtained are listed in Table 5.

TABLE 5.—Principal occupations of women employed in textile mills in which women stood to operate, and type of seat provided.

Occupations in which women stood to operate.	Number of plants reporting women in specific occupation.	Number of plants in which the seat provided was—				None.
		Chair.		Box, bench, or stool.		
		Adequate number. ¹	Inadequate number.	Adequate number. ¹	Inadequate number.	
Weaver.....	16	1	3	5	7
Drawing frame.....	16	2	2	3	5	4
Speeder.....	19	2	3	4	5	5
Spinner.....	34	2	4	5	10	13
Spooler.....	23	3	2	2	8	8
Warper.....	12	2	2	1	5	2
Creeler.....	11	2	1	1	5	2
Winder.....	15	1	2	1	4	7
Reeler.....	6	1	2	3
Knitter.....	5	5

¹ Seating was considered adequate if at least 1 seat to 4 standing workers was available.

A very much smaller group of women in the same industry, working as drawing-in hands, loopers, menders, and in some factories as inspectors, sat at work, and in the plants reporting these occupations chairs with backs were supplied in all cases. The real need presented by the existence of so vast a majority of women in standing jobs is for provision, where possible, of chairs which operatives can use while at work. In the meanwhile, in practically all of those standing occupations there are pauses when the work is running well, or there is a wait for material, and it is possible for the operative to relax. At such times she needs an accessible chair with a back. In various mills the girls sat on window sills or leaned against posts, used the edges of trucks, perched themselves on beams of cotton thread, or sat on low boxes which they had brought with them and placed against the wall. Only 1 of the 16 mills employing weavers supplied chairs. Seven of them supplied no seats whatever. Of the 34 mills employing spinners, 13 did not provide them with seats. The fact that most of the mills furnished only an occasional seat without a back, or no seat at all, for operatives on standing jobs, shows primarily that the enormous waste in human energy due to incorrect posture had not been realized in that industry.

In power laundries this relation between posture and fatigue had been even less considered. Except for occasional menders or flat-work catchers the laundry workers stood continuously, more or less in one spot, and in a majority of cases on a cement floor. Table 6 shows that in 16 of the 19 plants there were no seats for hand ironers or press operatives. There were no seats whatever for any of the workers in over two-thirds of the laundries. One of the laundry operatives interviewed during the course of the survey, a woman of 36 who had "always worked," and who had been responsible for the support of her two young children since the death of her husband several years earlier, worked all day standing, did her own family wash at noon, and her cooking, scrubbing, and sewing at night. She said that although she was thankful for a steady job, toward the end of the day the cement floor got unbearable, that she could think of nothing but her feet, and of how soon she could get off them and into bed.

TABLE 6.—Principal occupations of women employed in laundries in which women stood to operate, and type of seat provided.

Occupations in which women stood to operate.	Number of plants reporting women in specific occupation.	Number of plants in which the seat provided was—				None.
		Chair.		Box, bench, or stool.		
		Ade-quate number. ¹	Inade-quate number.	Ade-quate number.	Inade-quate number.	
Hand and machine ironers.....	19	1	2	16
Starchers.....	14	1	1	12
Flat workers.....	² 19	1	2	2	18
Markers and sorters.....	14	1	1	12

¹ Seating was considered adequate if the ratio was at least 1 seat to 4 standing workers.

² In one establishment the flat-work catchers were supplied with a bench which they could use when folding small pieces.

In stores the chief occupation, salesmanship, is, of course, a standing job. Five of the 34 stores visited supplied seats with backs. In 13 there were stools in the ratio of 1 or more to every 4 employees, and in 15 there were stools in the ratio of only 1 to more than 4 employees. One store supplied no seats whatever. Aisles behind counters wide enough to permit passage back and forth behind the chairs are necessary to effective seating in stores. However, in cases where seats are supplied, whether store employees may obviate posture strain by sitting at times through the day also depends upon the number of saleswomen in proportion to the trade. The provision of a seat does not help the situation if there is no time for, or a sentiment against, its use. However, in Alabama most of the managers who supplied seats encouraged their use, believing that it would increase rather than reduce the number and amount of sales. One man, whose employees had been with him for a long time, said he knew that they came forward to customers with more alertness if they had been sitting rather than leaning against the counter or shelves.

The figures for women in any one occupation in the industries other than textiles, laundries, and stores are too small to discuss, except in the case of machine operating in garment factories, which is, obviously, a sitting job. The nine factories in that industry all supplied seats with backs.

In 132 factories none of the chairs supplied for women operating in sitting, or sitting or standing, jobs had been constructed to promote healthful posture. The fact demanding immediate consideration, however, is that a large majority of the women in the plants surveyed stood while at work and that there were almost no seats provided for their moments of relaxation. The need for constructing comfortable chairs and arranging machines or work benches so

as to permit workers to stand or to sit to operate, in the meanwhile providing seats with backs for women who still must stand while at work, is clearly apparent.

VENTILATION.

Ventilation is a problem of more than usual difficulty for a State in the latitude of Alabama. It has an effect on physical efficiency too direct and immediate to be left entirely unstandardized. Good ventilation means provision for temperature and humidity rates which do not interfere with the heat-regulating mechanism of the body; for movement of air at a stimulating rate; for change of air at specific intervals, defined in terms of cubic feet per person; and for removal before it enters the air, of injurious matter created in a factory process. Technical measurements and analyses of air in work places would be necessary for a statement as to the number of women affected by good or bad ventilation in the State. In a general factory inspection, however, it is merely possible to indicate the existence of excellent natural or artificial methods of ventilation, extreme heat or cold, an obviously oppressive humidity rate, and the presence of excessive dust, lint, or fumes. The inspection sheets show that bad ventilation and its attendant fatigue had been reduced in some work places, but that lack of attention to air condition existed in a number of others, which resulted in some cases in a serious health menace.

The inclusion of certain brief descriptions from schedules may prove illuminating. The manager of a large store stated that when it was planned, "as the temperature is high eight months of the year ventilation was a major consideration." A five-aisle floor area was used and only four aisles were put in, making wide passageways between counters and a space from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 feet wide behind them. The counter cases were low and not piled with stock; movement and change of air were provided for by electric fans, windows on all four sides, and an exhaust pipe and fan; the temperature was 70° . In a large cotton mill, also, the requirements of good ventilation had been met when the building was put up. The windows were built in sections so that they could be adjusted to admit air without creating a draft. The artificial ventilating system provided for movement of air, for vacuum strippers to remove lint from cards,¹ and for the maintenance of a certain temperature and humidity range. In these two plants effort had been made to apply the best that scientific study has brought out in order to conserve the health of the workers. In certain other establishments it was obvious that air conditions had not been considered from the point of view

¹ A satisfactory method for lint removal has not been entirely worked out. The vacuum method used effectively on cards is said to interfere with the factory processes when used on frames.

of physical comfort and efficiency. In one laundry there were no electric fans, exhausts, or heat deflectors over mangles; the windows and doors were closed; the humidity and heat were stifling; steam hung in clouds against the ceiling. In another, all laundry processes were in one room and there was no artificial ventilation whatever. In a large textile plant the windows were all closed, there were no electric fans or exhausts, the heat and humidity were oppressive, and the air was thick with lint. In one coarse-textile mill where the cards were in the same room as the frames and there was no artificial method for cleaning machines, the lint lay in rolls on the floor or circulated like snow in the air. It was kept moving partly by belts to high overhead shafting and partly by so-called cleaners who walked between the frames with a piece of cloth on a stick and flapped it off the floor from around the corners of machines. In a garment factory machines and work benches were extremely crowded, shipping boxes were piled in narrow aisles, the windows were closed, there was no artificial ventilation of any kind, and the workroom was hot and stuffy.

In stores temperature, air movement, and change of air must be considered in terms of workers plus customers. In one place a small front section was partitioned off by high stock cupboards and the only air for the remainder of the long salesroom came from a high narrow window on the west side; there were no electric fans or exhausts. In another store there were small high windows front and back, the aisles were narrow and the counters piled high, there was no artificial ventilating system, the room was close and warm. In still another there were no windows in the store, air came from the front door only, there were no exhausts, and no electric fans. Fatigue is inevitable when such conditions exist.

Regulation of the temperature and humidity rates in laundries and cotton mills, both large woman-employing industries, is urgent in the interest of healthful air conditions in Alabama work places. The combination of excessive heat and moisture means that body evaporation is less active, the blood becomes hot, the pulse high, blood pressure low, and the heart is overtaxed. The ultimate result is loss of appetite, energy, and power of resistance. In laundries where the washing and finishing operations were in the same room, or mangles were without deflectors, or there were no exhaust pipes or electric fans, the humidity in addition to a high temperature constituted a decided health hazard. Textile mills also have heat and moisture to contend with. The fact that a certain degree of both is essential to factory processes makes regulation all the more needed as the tendency is to let temperature and humidity rates rise considerably above the degree necessary to the industry rather than chance their falling below the safe level.

LIGHTING.

Lighting, like seating, must be considered in connection with occupation. To prevent eyestrain it is necessary to determine the amount of light needed in an occupation according to the visual discrimination required, measured in foot candles at the work, and so to arrange that light as to prevent glare, which results when rays from unshaded sources or by reflection shine in the eyes of the workers. If illumination is faulty long-continued eye concentration is accompanied by strain, annoyance, and fatigue. Among the secondary results of poor lighting are less accuracy, less speed, a higher accident rate, and more spoilage. Conversely, according to lighting experts,² the stimulus afforded to production by scientifically lighted work-rooms pays for the installation.

Sufficient natural light, shaded by curtains, awnings, or opaque glass, in combination with a proper arrangement of work tables or machines, is the most satisfactory method of preventing eyestrain. Dirty windows and dark walls and ceilings enter into a consideration of natural lighting because their existence makes more supplemental light necessary. A large proportion of the Alabama textile mills have been built in the last 25 years. The typical mill is an elongated rectangle, practically window-walled, and partitioned through the center so as to make a large oblong section at either end. This construction provides for natural light from three sides in all work-rooms, and in many plants the window space is increased by monitor or saw-tooth roofs. In over one-half of the 39 mills visited the glass in at least the upper half of the windows was opaque or the windows were curtained. Except in an inappreciable number of cases, the windows were clean. In the few mills of earlier construction, with windows narrow, high, and less numerous, natural lighting was supplemented by artificial at all times. On the whole, natural lighting was well taken care of in textile mills. In laundries natural lighting was not so satisfactory. The usual construction was a deep, one-story room with windows front and back and an occasional one high up on the side, and a skylight. The fault was with insufficiency rather than with glare. In stores natural lighting was almost never adequate.

Inadequate natural light taken by itself, however, is not significant, as it may be correctly supplemented by artificial light. The most satisfactory artificial illumination is that which most nearly approximates daylight. This condition is secured by general overhead illumination, of the color of sunlight, diffused, steady, and so placed that direct rays do not shine in the eyes of the workers. In the mills and

² An authoritative article on the subject will be found in "A code of lighting factories, mills, and other work places," p. 36, issued by the Illuminating Engineering Society, 1922.

factories covered by this survey artificial lighting for practically all occupations was general. Inspectors, drawing-in hands, loopers in textile mills, and sewing-machine operators in garment factories had general light supplemented by individual light. In one-fourth of the mills and factories there was glare from artificial light due to ineffective shades or no shades at all. In laundries regulation of artificial light in regard to the glare, rather than to the amount provided, was needed. In 17 of the 19 visited the lights were not shaded. Obvious glare was reported in 14 of them. A particularly vicious type of artificial lighting is the exposed, unfrosted, unshaded bulb hung from the ceiling on a level with the worker's eyes. Only one textile mill of the 39 visited used such a type of unshaded drop lighting. However, 8 of the 19 laundries were lighted in that way. In the majority of the laundries it was necessary to supplement natural light by artificial during a large part of the working day, and for that reason the annoyance caused by lack of shades and by the drop-light method was almost constant. General artificial lighting satisfactorily shaded was reported in 32 stores; decided glare was found in only two cases.

SANITATION.

To insure sanitary toilet, washing, and drinking facilities it is necessary first to standardize equipment, for the reason that certain types lend themselves most effectively to being kept clean; second, to see that there is an adequate number of units of equipment to supply the needs of all workers; and third, to provide for supervision, because obviously, equipment and maintenance of equipment are both necessary to the desired results.

Toilets.

Equipment.—The health and comfort of the workers are the most important considerations governing toilet equipment. The following specifications are made with those two points in mind—separate toilet rooms for men and women; designation by sex; room equipped with outside partitions extending to the ceiling, or consisting of an area independently ceiled over; arrangement which makes it impossible to see the toilet from the workroom when the door is open; outside window or system of artificial ventilation; seat surrounded on four sides so as to insure privacy; floor of smooth, nonabsorbent material, such as marble, asphalt, cement, tile, or glazed brick.

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TABLE 7.—*Insanitary conditions and lack of privacy in toilet equipment, and number of women affected, by industry.*

Toilet equipment.	Total number of women employees on date of inspection.	Number of plants having specified conditions and number of women affected in—								
		Manufacturing industries.			Stores.			Laundries.		
		Number of plants.	Women affected.		Number of plants.	Women affected.		Number of plants.	Women affected.	
			Number.	Per cent.		Number.	Per cent.		Number.	Per cent.
Total.....	5,824	79	4,214	100.0	34	1,122	100.0	19	488	100.0
Room not separate.....	68	6	29	.7	3	39	8.0
Room not designated.....	2,609	34	1,635	38.8	19	596	53.1	16	378	77.5
Room not ceiled.....	2,932	31	12,593	61.5	4	49	4.4	11	290	59.4
Room not screened.....	712	14	384	9.1	6	52	4.6	14	276	56.6
Room not ventilated.....	957	20	611	14.5	6	87	7.8	13	259	53.1
Seat not inclosed.....	2,510	37	2,262	53.7	8	113	10.1	6	135	27.7
Seat inclosed on three sides only.....	555	4	531	12.6	2	24	2.1
Floor absorbent.....	2,165	46	1,231	29.2	26	565	50.4	15	369	75.6

¹ The 2,219 women in 16 establishments used rooms which were ceiled but had no doors.

Table 7 shows that each of these requirements had been met for at least 50 per cent of the women workers in plants visited. Nine establishments, employing 68 women, had failed to provide separate toilets for men and women. In one of these cases the provision consisted of a dilapidated room with no window and no artificial light, situated outside in an alleyway. Slightly more than one-third (37.2 per cent) of the women in the plants surveyed used rooms in which the floor was of absorbent material, not satisfactory from the point of view of cleaning. The screening of rooms so that the toilet could not be seen from the workroom when the door was open had not been attended to in 34 work places, in which 712 women were employed. In one plant a space had been set off at one side of the workroom by 8-foot partitions and a few slats placed across the top. Light and air came from the workroom through the slats. In 39 establishments 957 women were using toilet rooms in which there was no window or artificial ventilating system, and which therefore ventilated into the workrooms. The need for the establishment of certain minimum standards in regard to toilet accommodations is more apparent when it is found that rooms which fell below on one count were also lacking as to four or five others. For example, in the majority of cases where men and women used the same toilet the room was not ventilated or screened, and the floor was of wood.

Adequacy of equipment.—According to the standards of the Women's Bureau the number of toilets is adequate if one seat is provided for each 15 persons. Table 8 indicates that this provision existed for only 45 per cent of the women workers in the plants visited. For the

other 55 per cent conditions were crowded. This situation means inconvenience. It also means that any kind of a standard for cleanliness is almost impossible to maintain.

TABLE 8.—*Adequacy of toilet equipment, by industry.*

Number of employees to one toilet facility.	Number of women employees and number of establishments having equipment as specified.					
	Number of women employees on date of inspection in—				Number of establishments. ¹	
	All industries.	Manufacturing industries.	Stores.	Laundries.	According to least crowded condition which obtained for at least 1 toilet facility.	According to most crowded condition which obtained for at least 1 toilet facility.
Total.....	5,824	4,214	1,122	488	132	132
Not more than 15.....	2,632	2,007	415	210	115	86
16 but less than 25.....	1,188	822	201	165	10	22
25 but less than 50.....	1,496	1,027	356	113	6	20
50 and over.....	508	358	150	1	4

¹ As the facilities in 1 establishment may vary from the least adequate to the most generous, the 132 plants are here distributed in one column according to their most crowded toilet and in the other according to their least crowded one.

In one plant where the proportion was 45 women to 1 facility, a row of four seats was separated from the work place by an L-shaped partition about 8 feet high. There was no window and artificial light was not provided. The place was dirty and disorderly. In four establishments, employing 508 women, the proportion was 50 or more to 1 facility.

Conditions of equipment.—In 75 per cent of the plants persons had been assigned and paid to clean the toilet equipment at definite times. In one plant where the cleaning was thus supervised the walls of the room were tiled, the floors were concrete and sloped to a drain, there were large windows set high on two sides of the rooms, two cleaners were responsible for the sanitary condition, and all the rooms were in excellent shape. In 39 cases the toilet rooms were reported as extremely dirty, and in a majority of those plants there were no regular cleaners. In one plant where drugs were prepared the toilet room was dark and disorderly, there was no window and no artificial light, the floor was of wood, and the girl employees cleaned “when they had time.” In another the floor was never scrubbed, the girls swept it “about once a week.” In laundries it was a common plan to leave the cleaning to the girls when they had nothing else to do. In stores where the public used the toilets the crowded condition made cleaning standards low. Adequate equipment, however excellent, is not enough. Supervision—to provide

that the plumbing and the rooms are kept clean, that needed repairs are made, and that supplies are available—is essential to the maintenance of sanitary toilets.

Washing facilities.

The effect of the condition of the skin upon general health makes the provision of washing facilities essential in a sanitation program. An adequate number of washing units equipped with soap, hot and cold water, and individual towels represents satisfactory equipment. According to Table 9, 18 of the plants, employing 981 women, or 17 per cent of the total women workers scheduled, provided no washing facilities whatever. One of the superintendents in this group stated that there was "no need for a wash place in the plant, the women tended to that at home." Only 16 per cent of the remaining plants, employing 9 per cent of the women, supplied hot water. A little over one-half of them provided soap.

TABLE 9.—*Washing equipment and number of women affected,¹ by industry.*

Items.	Total.	Washing equipment.							No washing equipment.
		Plumbing in repair.	Hot water supplied.	Soap supplied.	Towels.				
					Individual supplied daily.	Individual supplied less often than daily.	Common supplied.	None supplied.	
All industries:									
Number of establishments.....	132	111	18	73	9	6	41	58	18
Total facilities.....	346	340	45	180	13	22	117	194
Total women.....	5,824	4,626	517	2,182	66	178	1,355	3,244	981
Mills and factories:									
Number of establishments.....	79	65	9	35	7	4	16	40	12
Number of facilities.....	255	251	24	110	10	10	68	167
Number of women.....	4,214	3,126	234	886	41	37	426	2,811	899
Stores:									
Number of establishments.....	34	33	4	31	2	2	24	6
Number of facilities.....	66	64	9	56	3	12	44	7
Number of women.....	1,122	1,094	94	1,055	25	141	878	78
Laundries:									
Number of establishments.....	19	13	5	7	1	12	6
Number of facilities.....	25	25	12	14	5	20
Number of women.....	488	406	189	241	51	355	82

¹ Number of women employees on date of inspection.

More far-reaching than the lack of soap and hot water, however, is the serious health hazard presented by the use of the common towel. There is serious risk of contagion when such a carrier is passed from person to person. In the plants visited 1,355 women were subjected to that risk; this figure forms 85 per cent of the women employed in plants where towels were supplied. In stores 78 per cent of the women used common towels and for 7 per cent none were supplied; in mills and laundries the figures were reversed,

10 per cent of the women used common towels, while for 73 per cent in laundries and 67 per cent in mills and factories none were supplied. One foreman in a work place where there were no towels said there was always something lying around which could be used. This haphazard plan may have resulted in even further use of the common towel than the table indicates.

In places where food is handled washing equipment has a double significance—protection to the worker and to the consumer. Of the 79 mills and factories visited, 13, employing 131 women, were food factories. All of these plants had provided washing facilities, but in a majority of them the equipment was signally incomplete. In 4 plants there was no hot water and in 9 no soap; in 5 there were no towels, and in 3 common towels were supplied. In one plant provision for washing consisted of an iron sink in a toilet room in which there was no window, no artificial light, no hot water, no soap, and nothing in the way of towels. Some persons interested in the manufacture and distribution of clean food have gone so far as to urge that food handlers pass not only a physical examination before being employed but also a mental test showing that they understand certain sanitary principles. A knowledge of the danger of contagion is essential, but it is useless if, as a primary requirement, food handlers are not supplied with soap, hot water, and individual towels.

Drinking facilities.

Drinking facilities in an industrial plant must provide an abundant, clean, cool supply of water if they are to measure up to the demands of modern sanitation. The drinking fountain seems to answer all these requirements in a most effective way. It eliminates the troublesome question of cups, there is no waste of water, and the equipment is fairly simple to provide. It has been proved recently, however, that unless the jet of water emerges at an angle of at least 15 degrees from the vertical, there is danger of contagion. This angle provides that the water does not fall back upon the fresh supply. It is possible to make the vertical jet fountain conform to these findings. Table 10 shows that one-third of the plants inspected were supplied with fountains, and in six plants the angle jet type was in use. In more than one-half of the plants having fountains the water was cooled.

The health hazard connected with the common drinking cup is well known. This risk existed in 38 of the plants visited. In 39 plants no cup at all was supplied; the girls used their hands, milk bottles, or tin cans, and in some instances a few had brought cups which were passed around. Three plants supplied a bucket and dipper. In one the water was in a barrel which was refilled when necessary.

TABLE 10.—*Drinking facilities, by type of container.*

Drinking water container.	Number of establishments.	Number of establishments providing—				
		Sanitary bubbler.	Insanitary bubbler.	Individual cup.	Common cup.	No facility.
Total.....	132	6	40	9	38	39
Cooler.....	55	6	25	4	9	11
Tank.....	24	2	10	12
Bucket.....	3	3
Hydrant.....	50	13	5	16	16

¹ Hydrant supplied primarily for factory processes or for washing facilities.

The need for cool water is of more than usual concern for workers in places where the temperature and humidity rates are high. Seventy-nine plants provided it at least in hot weather. In 24 cases the cooling process consisted of the questionable method of placing the ice directly in the water tank, but in 55 cases the water passed through an ice coil to the faucet. The sanitary bubbler connected with a cooler seems to be the effective method of insuring clean, cool water. In 15 plants drinking conditions were sanitary; 6 supplied angle-jet bubblers, and 9 individual cups.

LUNCH ROOMS.

Provision for nourishing lunches is another industrial health measure which has demanded consideration as increasingly large numbers of employees have become concentrated in single stores or factories. In small towns and in cotton-mill villages, if the lunch period is long enough, the workers go home at noon. For those who stay at the plant through the lunch period, however, an alternative to eating a cold lunch in the workroom or on the factory steps is necessary. Twenty-one plants, of which 16 were stores, had provided well-ventilated rooms in which workers might eat and had equipped them with tables and chairs. Seven of these rooms were used as lunch rooms only, the others were lunch and rest rooms combined. Six plants provided hot food at cost. In addition to the 21 plants in which there were lunch rooms, 12 supplied gas plates. When the plant is too small to warrant a cafeteria, such cooking facilities mean a healthful contrast to the otherwise necessarily cold meal. In 99 of the 132 plants there were no lunch rooms or cooking facilities.

REST ROOMS.

In regard to rest rooms, the question before plants employing women is not "Are they necessary?" but "Where can they best be located and how equipped?" In 97 of the 132 plants visited there was no place for women to lie down except the floor of the toilet room. That the floor was so used would indicate the need for a room sup-

plied with a cot. Thirty-five of the plants, of which 26 were stores, had provided a rest room. All but one of these rooms were ventilated by outside windows and 22 were equipped with a cot.

CLOAKROOMS.

Clean, ventilated, conveniently located cloakrooms are needed for the convenience and protection of the workers. One-half of the plants visited (66) had provided cloakrooms. In 39 of them there were seats, 50 were ventilated by an outside window, and 8 were supplied with individual lockers. Fifteen were dirty and 6 were extremely overcrowded. In the other 66 plants—those without cloakrooms—women hung their coats and hats on nails in the work-room in factories or laundries, and under or behind the counter in stores.

EMPLOYMENT METHODS.

Certain causes of fatigue equally potent though less direct than those already described—such as lack of adaptation to the job or fear of losing it—may be eliminated if some one person is put in charge of plant personnel work. This holds true even in a small plant. When one person hires, transfers when the worker is not satisfactory in the job assigned, and discharges, and is in touch more or less with the employee's industrial history and outside responsibility, there is machinery to provide that the management's point of view is correctly interpreted in the plant and that the worker's point of view is made known to the management. One hundred and three of the plants visited used the centralized employment system. In one there was a full-time employment manager, in the others the superintendent or one foreman was responsible. Eleven of these plants kept records, showing among other things the employee's experience before entering the plant. In 29 plants the system was not centralized. When a foreman needed a hand he employed one for as long as help was required and then fired him. This decentralized system is obviously wasteful and makes for irregular employment and a disorganized working force.

HEALTH HAZARDS.

The field of industrial medicine has developed rapidly in the last decade. Although results in the promotion of workers' health do not admit of complete measurement, they are obviously far-reaching. The activities of a health department in an industrial plant may include the following: Periodic physical examinations and treatment of defects requiring attention; diagnosis, curative care, and preventive work in connection with occupational diseases and such conditions as tuberculosis, hernia, cardiac disease, mental and nervous disorders, and so forth; plant sanitation and visiting nurse

work, including the dissemination of health education as well as community nursing. Under the head of preventive work might fall the study and elimination of possible strain involved in certain occupations, such as foot and knee press work in sewing-machine operations, laundry foot-power press operating, weight manipulation by laundry workers, and lifting, reaching, or speeding in various other occupations, and the effect of incorrect posture and of excessive heat and humidity in textile mills and laundries.

Although the majority of plants in Alabama were too small to warrant employing a full-time physician, in some localities the experiment of combining three or four factories under one man who gave to each a regular amount of time daily had been found successful. Nine of the mills studied employed a doctor for part or all of his time and in 11 there was a registered nurse. In the other places there was no physician on the pay roll. In the cotton-mill village, where housing as well as plant sanitation is dependent upon the factory management, the advice of at least a part-time physician is particularly useful.

Accident hazards.

In the general factory inspection of the plants surveyed no effort was made to pass on safe and unsafe conditions, but certain obvious hazards were noted to indicate the need for further efforts to prevent accidents. In 18 plants at least one elevator shaftway was not inclosed at floor levels. Uneven or splintered or wet floors were reported in 23 plants. In 11 there was hazardous crowding of machines or other equipment. In textile mills the wire-mesh case extending to a height of 6 feet above the floor for power-transmission machinery was perhaps the most needed guard. Of 40 plants in which transmission machinery was reported not inclosed, 23 were textile mills. Provision made against accident in time of fire may be noted in Table 11.

TABLE 11.—*Working conditions from the point of view of safety in time of fire.*

Conditions.	Number of establishments.
Total.....	132
Equipped with sprinklers.....	52
Equipped with fire doors between workrooms.....	39
Of more than one story in height.....	101
Stairways:	
Dark (no natural or artificial light).....	25
Narrow (less than 4 feet wide).....	14
Winding (triangular treads).....	6
Handrail defective or lacking.....	13
Exits:	
All opening in.....	69
Part opening in.....	41
Obstructed.....	14
Indirect.....	13

Stairways were reported dark if there was no natural or artificial light; winding, if the treads were triangular; and narrow, if the width measured less than 4 feet. In over two-thirds of the plants which were higher than one story the exits all opened in. In one-fourth of them at least one stairway was dark. Managements, especially those with perishable stock, take out fire insurance and conform to the rules for plant conditions set forth in their insurance policy. However, fire-insurance policies deal chiefly with the safety of product in time of fire and not with the safety of workers.

Turning from workroom to occupational hazards, we find that according to insurance rates issued by the State, power laundry occupations are estimated the most dangerous in which women are employed. Extractors without covers, and flat-work machines without a fixed rod which prevents the hand from entering the pressing rolls, are the most hazardous conditions. Only two plants were reported in which there were no covers for extractors. The flat-work guard also had come into common use. The compensation law was less than two years old at the time of the investigation, and records showing accident severity and frequency by occupation were not available. It is therefore impossible to ascribe relative accident risk to unguarded needles and button-riveter machines in garment factories, knives used by snippers in some textile mills to remove waste from spindles, occasional flying of loom shuttles in weave rooms, and flat-work machines and hot presses in laundries.

A large number of the plants surveyed were too small to warrant the employment of a full-time or even a part-time industrial physician. However, if certain equipment essential to the proper treatment of injured employees is at hand, it is possible to attend effectively to minor injuries, and to provide immediate aid for more serious cases which require surgical care. Eighty-five plants were equipped with a first-aid kit. Eight of them had provided a separate room in which to administer treatment. In 47 plants there was no first-aid equipment whatever.

Illustrations from plants visited.

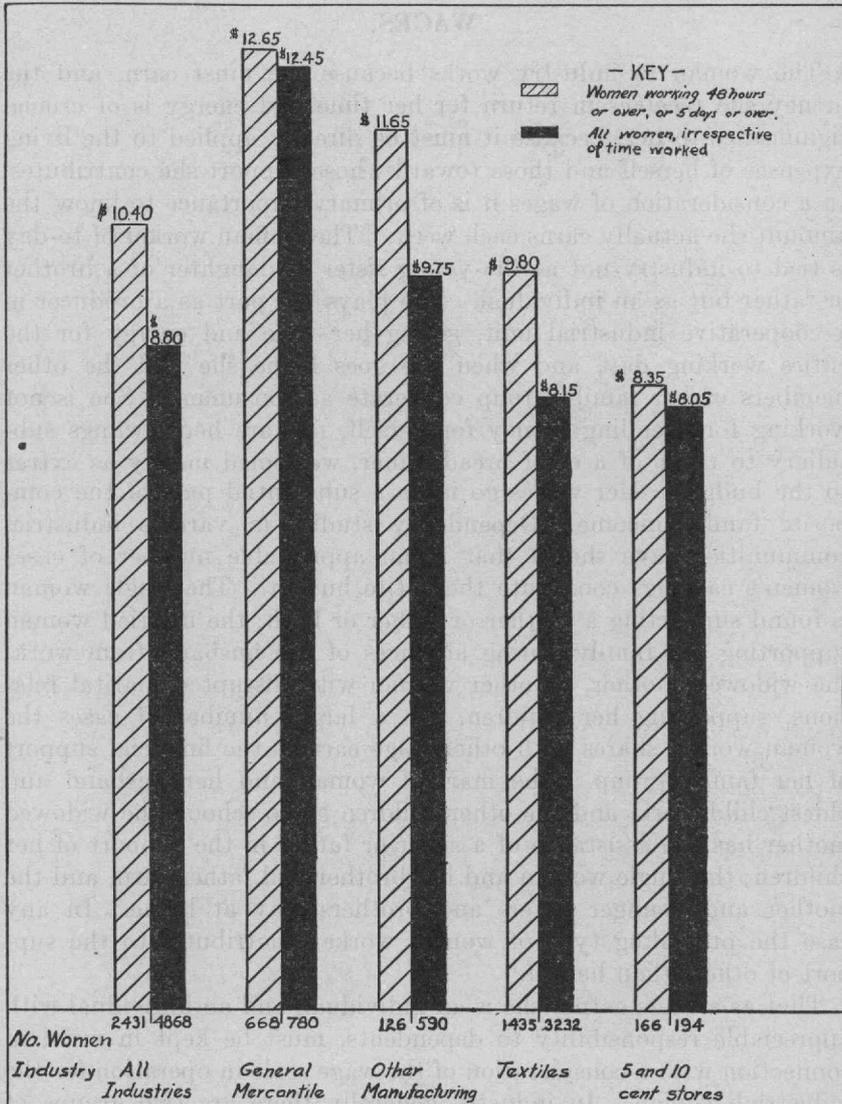
By presenting plant conditions separately, one after another, as each applies through all work places, it has not been possible to indicate the cumulative effect upon health which exists when several harmful conditions occur in one establishment. The following summaries from plant inspection sheets call attention to the need for estimating the seriousness of this cumulative effect.

One laundry presented this picture: All women standing at work, no chairs, wet cement floors, natural light insufficient, low-powered light bulbs hanging at the eye level of the workers, all lights unshaded, heat and moisture oppressive. In stores working was a strain where,

as in one place described, the hours were from 8.30 to 6 on week days and from 8.30 to 9 at night on Saturdays, no outside opening except doors in front, no method of artificial ventilation, folding steel stools under counters with aisle space so meager as to make their use almost impossible. In a large textile mill the description read: Lint thick in the air, floors oily and slippery, aisles extremely narrow, machines crowded, low overhead shafting, no guards on transmission machinery, noise tremendous, and vibration so great as to shake the floor constantly, wrapping paper tacked by girls over windows on east side to eliminate glare, no seats whatever, drinking facilities a pail and dipper in the toilet room, toilet plumbing out of order, flushed by a janitor with a bucket two or three times a day, day shift 6 to 5.30 five days a week and 6 to 11 a. m. on Saturdays, night shift 12 hours for five nights a week, women employed on each shift.

In many plants, of course, the opposite situation prevailed, the working conditions were good throughout and the cumulative effect was to safeguard health. Standardization in regard to working conditions throughout the State would provide that the conditions in such plants would apply for all women in all plants.

Graph 2
 MEDIAN WEEK'S EARNINGS, BY INDUSTRY
 WHITE WOMEN



PART IV.

WAGES.

The woman in industry works because she must earn, and the money she receives in return for her time and energy is of crucial significance to her, because it must be directly applied to the living expenses of herself and those toward whose support she contributes. In a consideration of wages it is of primary importance to know the amount she actually earns each week. The woman worker of to-day is tied to industry not as the young sister or daughter of a brother or father but as an individual. She plays her part as a producer in a cooperative industrial unit, giving her time and energy for the entire working day, and when she goes home she and the other members of her family group cooperate as consumers. She is not working for spending money for herself, nor are her earnings subsidiary to those of a chief breadwinner, welcomed merely as extras to the budget. Her wages go in as a substantial part of the composite family income. Dependency studies in various industrial communities have shown that in an appreciable number of cases women's earnings constitute the entire budget. The single woman is found supporting a mother or father or both; the married woman supporting the family during absences of the husband from work; the widowed mother, or other woman with disrupted marital relations, supporting her children. In a larger number of cases the woman worker shares with other wage earners the financial support of her family group. The married woman and her husband and oldest child work, and the other children go to school; the widowed mother has the assistance of a sister or father in the support of her children; the single woman and her brother and father earn, and the mother and younger sisters and brothers stay at home. In any case the prevailing type of woman worker contributes to the support of others than herself.¹

That as a wage earner she is an individual, and an individual with appreciable responsibility to dependents, must be kept in mind in connection with a consideration of the wage scale in operation for the industrial woman. In industry generally there are two groups of

¹ For a compilation of existing material in regard to the share of wage-earning women in family support see U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Bulletin 30.

workers—those who are employed in occupations in which performance depends upon training, experience, and length of service and those who are employed in occupations for which the learning period is short. The second group is larger numerically, and it increases slowly but steadily with increased efficiency in machine building. Performance demands a certain output of physical energy, but the newcomer is very quickly as capable of producing the quantity and quality required per day as is the older worker. There is no great premium on experience. Obviously rates of pay for the occupations in this second group range at the lower end of the wage scale. In a study of the occupational opportunities open to women in industry, it is of interest to analyze the work and rates of pay of the smaller number of women in group 1 who are earning their way in what may be called skilled work. But in a wage survey it is of primary concern to ascertain the prevailing rates of pay for all women according to industry rather than occupation. Such figures will show whether women in certain industries, or in certain plants in one industry, or in certain localities, are earning at least the amount essential to a decent and healthy existence. The wage scale is shifted by various influences; occupation rates rise and fall, but the powerful factor of social consequences must take precedence in determining that minimum wages shall at least equal minimum living expenses.

The wage figures presented in this report show the earnings of the 5,625 women for whom earnings were reported in the 131 plants visited for a representative week in January, 1922, the earnings of women in the same plants for a representative week in January, 1921, and the earnings of from 15 to 20 per cent of the women employed in the plants in January, 1922, for the whole of the 52-week period intervening. In selecting the week in 1922 for which earnings were secured, care was taken that it should be representative of the usual hours of the firm and that it should not contain a holiday. If a plant had been running undertime for several months, a week was chosen in which not more than the usual number of hours had been lost. It seemed important to take into consideration a possible difference in standards which might prevail in Birmingham, the largest industrial center in the State, and other localities which were included in the survey. However, the differences shown by the tabulation appear to be due to the character of the industries included, so the figures for the separate localities have no great comparative significance. Of the 5,625 women in the plants scheduled, 4,868 were white and 757 were negro workers. Because occupations and rates varied to a marked degree between the two groups their earnings are presented separately.

Cost of living.

One of the many elements to be considered in a study of wages is the relation between the lowest figures on the cost of living scale and the lowest figure on the wage scale. Is a budget based on the minimum living expenses of an individual woman worker higher or lower than the minimum wages for women in a community? One factor in the measurement of the competency of the business manager is his ability to operate successfully and at the same time to maintain an adequate wage scale for his employees. A community can not permit its women to work full time and make less than enough to live on. The ultimate social consequences in terms of mental and physical family health loom in too threatening a way. Because there are woman-employing occupations in some industries in which excessively low rates prevail, it has been found effective in 13 States and in certain Canadian Provinces to establish a board composed of employers, employees, and the public, which shall keep itself informed as to minimum rates and minimum living expenses and provide that the former shall at least equal the latter. This method of setting minimum wages has recently been declared unconstitutional in the District of Columbia by the Supreme Court of the United States. It is not certain what effect the decision will have on minimum wage legislation in other localities. Nevertheless, the social philosophy back of this method of setting wages has been accepted by many persons, and no study of wages is complete which does not compare earnings with the actual cost of living.

Cost of living figures for Alabama are not available for the period studied; however, the figures set by minimum wage commissions in other States may be of some interest. These figures are based on an estimated subsistence budget for an individual woman worker. Rates set for experienced workers vary according to the date of the final ruling rather than according to the location of the State or the length of its industrial history; so the figures seem not out of place in connection with Alabama wages. The later rates, based on the cost of living in recent years, are most significant. The range provided extended from \$10.25 to \$16.50 in the States in which the rate has been set since January, 1921. These figures represent a wage which was expected to cover a bare minimum of living expenses for one week.

Methods of payment.

The two systems of wage payment, output, and time worked, were found in about equal proportions among the women workers scheduled; 2,939 of them worked on a piece-rate basis and 2,487 on time rates (Table 12). Among the white women, 61.5 per cent were piece workers and 38.5 per cent time workers; among the negro women, 91.6 per cent were time workers and 8.4 per cent piece workers.

TABLE 12.—*Basis of wage payment among women for whom method of pay was reported, by industry.*

Industry.	Number of women reported.	Number of women whose basis of payment was—			
		Time worked.		Output.	
		White.	Negro.	White.	egro.
Total.....	5,426	1,800	687	2,876	63
Manufacturing industries.....	3,915	755	226	2,876	58
Food.....	102	39	11	26	26
Garments.....	333	9	2	321	1
Printing and publishing.....	29	29			
Textiles.....	3,311	592	203	2,485	31
Cotton goods.....	1,904	414	181	1,282	27
Knit goods.....	572	44	1	527	
Yarn and twine.....	835	134	21	676	4
Other manufacturing.....	140	85	10	44	
Stores.....	1,022	973	49		
Laundries.....	489	72	412		5

Practically all of the laundry operatives (99 per cent) were paid time rates. In that trade the amount of work to be done weekly remained a fairly constant quantity. The women were paid on a six-day basis and, if in any week they had a heavier load than normal, they stayed on Saturday afternoon. In any case they left on Saturdays when they finished the work. On that week-rate basis of compensation the women were able to plan their expenses ahead because they knew what they could count on if they worked full time.

All the store employees were paid on the time basis. Certain managers, however, had worked out methods by which, in addition to a straight week rate, the saleswoman received a premium or bonus figured on the amount of her sales if they exceeded a certain figure, on the sale of certain kinds of merchandise, or on length of service with the company.

Of the 3,915 women in manufacturing industries, 2,934, or 74.9 per cent were paid on a straight piece-rate basis, and the time-rate method functioned for the remaining 981. In textile mills which formed so large a part of the manufacturing group, the proportions were nearly the same, 76 per cent operating on a piece-rate basis. Frame operatives, including speeders and spinners, were returned as piece workers, but they offered a variation from the straight piece-rate system. The flow of production depended upon the frame speed and upon the efficiency of the operative in keeping her spindles revolving for the maximum amount of time in her 10-hour day. She was paid in "side hours," that is, according to the number of hours she worked on her given number of sides or frames, and if she could tend more sides she raised her rate. To this extent the frame operative was on a production basis.

Of the various methods of payment, the straight piece-rate type is the least defensible. In addition to the emphasis on speeding which

occurs in any method of payment based on production rate, the operative is not rewarded in proportion to effort. Large production is recompensed at the same rate as small. The overhead cost is reduced and the profit per piece is thereby increased, but the rate paid remains the same. Either of two systems may prove satisfactory from the point of view of the worker and of the management: (1) A time rate based on the work involved in each occupation, and considering also the length of the learning period, the fatigue incurred (through working under such conditions at a very high or very low temperature, a high humidity rate, or great eye concentration), length of service, regularity of attendance, and quality of work, such a rate increasing with the operative's increased efficiency; or (2) a payment system by which a considerable part of the wage is paid on this same basis, with extra compensation for improvement of output over the standard rate.

Earnings of white women workers.

Week's earnings, January, 1922.—Even as late as the period for which records of earnings were secured, January, 1922, industry throughout the United States had not recovered from the paralysis which followed the World War. In Alabama there was extensive unemployment in the iron and steel industries, the largest employers of labor in the manufacturing group in the State, and in industries employing women workers the situation was also acute. In textile mills the depression had resulted in undertime employment, obviously more easily borne than shutdowns and complete idleness. In connection with the earnings of textile workers, it should be borne in mind that all but three of the mills scheduled furnished houses for their employees at an average weekly charge of 25½ cents a room.² With complete unemployment or, at best, rate cuts, affecting large numbers of wage earners, buying was below normal, and retail stores though they operated full time had reduced their forces. Fewer people were affording steam laundries, and the latter found themselves in more than usually strong competition with laundresses who offered their services more cheaply at home. With these conditions in mind, correlations between earnings and time worked, particularly in manufacturing plants and in laundries, warrant careful study. However, although from the standpoint of the industry, the community, and the worker herself, qualifying factors in regard to women's wages require consideration, her actual earnings are of first importance, as portraying certain problems which face women wage earners during a period in which some undertime is inevitable.

² For a more detailed presentation of the mill village system see p. 65.

TABLE 13.—*Week's earnings, by industry, January, 1922 (white women).*

Week's earnings.	Number of women earning each specified amount in—													
	All industries.	Manufacturing industries.								Stores.			Laundries.	
		All manufacturing.	Food.	Garments.	Printing and publishing.	Textiles.				Other manufacturing.	All stores.	General mercantile.		5-and-10-cent stores.
					All textiles.	Cotton goods.	Knit goods.	Yarn and twine.						
Total.....	4,868	3,822	65	359	29	3,232	1,729	671	832	137	974	780	194	72
Median earnings..	\$8.80	\$8.30	\$9.10	\$9.95	\$17.30	\$8.15	\$8.70	\$6.85	\$7.60	\$7.85	\$11.00	\$12.45	\$8.05	\$11.00
Under \$4....	494	449	2	21	1	405	159	119	127	20	41	28	13	4
\$4 and under \$6....	601	551	12	33	473	177	147	149	33	42	17	25	8
\$6 and under \$8....	891	780	11	60	1	691	373	144	174	17	102	45	57	9
\$8 and under \$10....	1,036	837	13	67	1	742	448	131	163	14	194	124	70	5
\$10 and under \$12....	681	515	12	43	7	440	270	66	104	13	152	131	21	14
\$12 and under \$15....	589	415	13	54	3	327	200	45	82	18	153	148	5	21
\$15 and under \$18....	308	177	2	51	5	103	65	15	23	10	125	125	6
\$18 and under \$25....	187	88	27	10	45	33	4	8	6	95	93	2	4
\$25 and over	81	10	3	1	6	4	2	70	69	1	1

The median of the week's earnings of the 4,868 women for whom wage data were recorded was \$8.80; that is, one-half of them earned less than and one-half more than that amount during the week studied (Table 13). Over half of the total number of women earned between \$6 and \$12 for the week, and 21.3 per cent earned between \$8 and \$10. The prevailing standard of wages for each industry is indicated by the figures showing the median of earnings which obtains in each. Placing the industries included in the survey in descending order according to the median of week's earnings prevailing therein, they stand as follows:

Industry.	Number of women.	Median earnings.
All industries.....	4,868	\$8.80
Printing and publishing.....	29	17.30
General mercantile.....	780	12.45
Laundries.....	72	11.00
Garments.....	359	9.95
Food products.....	65	9.10
Cotton goods.....	1,729	8.70
5-and-10-cent stores.....	194	8.05
Yarn and twine.....	832	7.60
Knit goods.....	671	6.85

The highest median, \$17.30, is based on the earnings of only 29 women in printing and publishing plants. Printing and publishing is one of the smaller woman-employing industries in Alabama, approximately 196 women being so engaged in 1919,³ but an appreciable number of women employees did skilled work and were well paid for it. Probably few of them would be included in a consideration of minimum rates and minimum living expenses. Among saleswomen and wrappers and cashiers in general mercantile stores, the median was \$12.45, which was \$3.65 higher than the median for all industries. In 5-and-10-cent stores, with a force made up of younger girls with less experience, the median was \$8.05. The laundry median (\$11) stands \$2.20 higher than the prevailing median for all workers. The white women in that trade were for the most part markers and sorters, more highly paid than women in other laundry occupations.

In comparison with the earnings of women in the three industry groups just discussed there is a distinct drop to the levels obtaining among women in manufacturing industries other than printing and publishing. The highest median (\$9.95) was found among garment factory workers. The men's and women's clothing industry is organized throughout the country and is employing an increasing number of women in proportion to men.⁴ The median (\$9.95) is \$1.65 higher than the median for the manufacturing industries taken as a whole.

The median wage in textile industries varied from \$6.85 in knit goods manufacturing, through \$7.60 in the making of yarn and twine, to \$8.70 in cotton-goods manufacturing. Because the figures in this table showing actual earnings of all women regardless of time worked are of interest chiefly as indicating the amounts above which living costs can not go, it is necessary to recall the fact that living costs may be lower for women in the three textile groups than for those in other industries. The majority of the women textile workers lived in mill communities where houses were supplied at almost nominal sums by factory managements.

Earnings and time worked.

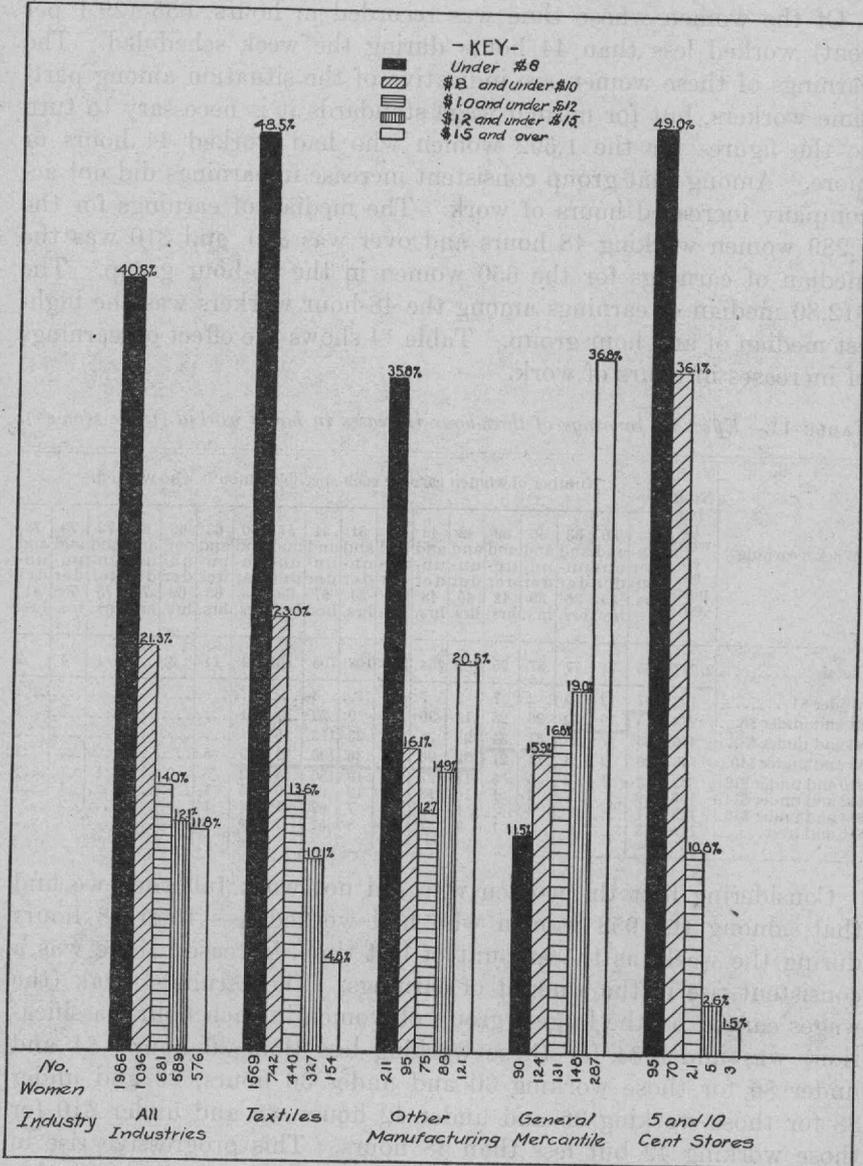
Actual earnings are of primary importance to the individual wage earner. An adequate consideration of wage levels, however, requires figures showing time worked in connection with wages. It is important also to bring out the facts showing earnings for full-time workers. Only by including these correlations is it possible to indicate State standards in regard to wages paid.

³ U. S. Bureau of the Census, Fourteenth Census. Manufactures, 1919, Vol. IX, Table 32, p. 42.

⁴ There were 270,278 women workers so engaged in the United States in 1919 as against 246,204 in 1909, and 164,004 men in 1919 as against 167,971 in 1909. U. S. Bureau of the Census, Thirteenth Census. Manufactures, 1910, Vol. VIII, Table 6, pp. 680 and 682. U. S. Bureau of the Census, Fourteenth Census. Abstract Census of Manufactures, 1919, Table 210, p. 395.

Unfortunately it was not always possible to ascertain hours worked for piece workers. In some cases where hours were not shown, how-

Graph 3
WEEK'S EARNINGS BY INDUSTRY- WHITE WOMEN



ever, the pay roll showed the number of days on which each woman worked. For 76.4 per cent of the 4,868 women for whom earnings

were secured, it was possible to obtain the time which had been spent in earning the week's wage. For 2,247 of them the time was stated in hours and for 1,473 in days. The earnings of these 3,720 women are correlated with time worked in Appendix Table IV. For 23.6 per cent of the women for whom wages were recorded neither days nor hours worked were obtainable.

Of the women whose time was recorded in hours, 655 (29.1 per cent) worked less than 44 hours during the week scheduled. The earnings of these women are indicative of the situation among part-time workers, but for normal wage standards it is necessary to turn to the figures for the 1,592 women who had worked 44 hours or more. Among that group consistent increase in earnings did not accompany increased hours of work. The median of earnings for the 1,289 women working 48 hours and over was \$10, and \$10 was the median of earnings for the 650 women in the 55-hour group. The \$12.80 median of earnings among the 48-hour workers was the highest median of any hour group. Table 14 shows the effect on earnings of increases in hours of work.

TABLE 14.—Effect on earnings of three-hour increases in hours worked (white women).

Week's earnings.	Number of women reported.	Number of women earning each specified amount who worked—																	
		Under 30 hrs.	30 and under 33 hrs.	33 and under 36 hrs.	36 and under 39 hrs.	39 and under 42 hrs.	42 and under 45 hrs.	45 and under 48 hrs.	48 and under 51 hrs.	51 and under 54 hrs.	54 and under 57 hrs.	57 and under 60 hrs.	60 and under 63 hrs.	63 and under 66 hrs.	66 and under 69 hrs.	69 and under 72 hrs.	72 and under 75 hrs.	75 and under 78 hrs.	78 and under 81 hrs.
		Total.....	2,247	265	71	77	87	95	109	254	252	108	705	56	144	14	3	1
Under \$4.....	193	147	12	9	2	7	2	7	4	3
\$4 and under \$6...	273	45	39	32	26	25	13	36	17	9	29	1	1
\$6 and under \$8...	476	35	17	28	31	34	25	76	61	23	112	10	24
\$8 and under \$10...	543	26	2	6	11	21	32	90	65	30	196	19	39	5	1
\$10 and under \$12...	332	3	1	2	6	6	17	27	37	19	156	18	32	5	2	1
\$12 and under \$14...	195	2	3	1	10	13	26	12	95	6	25	1
\$14 and under \$16...	125	4	3	1	4	26	7	62	1	14	1	2
\$16 and over.....	110	3	5	1	9	1	16	8	52	2	9	2	1	1

Considering first the women who did not work full time we find that, among the 958 women who had worked less than 48 hours during the week, as the amount of lost time decreased there was a consistent rise in the amount of earnings. The earnings' peak (the wages earned by the largest group of women in each hour classification) was under \$4 for those working less than 30 hours, \$4 and under \$6 for those working 30 and under 36 hours, \$6 and under \$8 for those working 36 and under 42 hours, \$8 and under \$10 for those working 42 but less than 48 hours. This progressive rise in earnings did not continue, however, for the women who worked a full week. Beginning with the 48-hour workers, the high point on the wage curve in each hour group remained at \$8 and under \$10,

irrespective of whether the hours had been 48 or 62 during that time. These facts are particularly striking as the women for whom actual hours were recorded were, in the main, time workers, paid by the hour rather than on an output basis. The number of women working longer than 62 hours is too small to be of significance for comparative purposes, but the fact that economic necessity forced even an unappreciable number of women to work such excessive hours, over half of them earning only between \$8 and \$12 a week, has a bearing upon the need for standardization. The statement which is sometimes made, that women will be discriminated against if they are not able to compete for the higher earnings possible on long hour shifts, is not substantiated by these figures. Rather, the fact that there is not a proportionate increase in the earnings of time workers with increased hours of work means that individual competing plants have varying standards. Some managements, although they operate on shorter hour schedules, evidently compete successfully with others who have longer schedules but an inappreciable variation in pay.

The 1,473 women whose time was reported in days were largely piece workers. Of that number 22.5 per cent had worked on less than five days during the week scheduled and their earnings are of significance only as indicating problems confronting undertime workers (Appendix Table IV). Among the remaining 1,142 women, the median of the earnings of those who worked on five days was \$7.65 and the median for those who worked on six days was \$12. These figures showing the earnings of women whose time worked was reported in days have no value in an estimate of the relation between earnings in long and short hour plants. They merely show the number of days on which the women worked; whether the day was 8, 9, 10, or 11 hours long was not specified. While some workers reported as employed 6 days worked 48 hours during the week, others reported as working 5½ days worked 55 hours. Hence some of the 5½-day workers actually worked 7 hours longer during the week than did some of the 6-day workers. The facts showing the effect on wages of increased hours of work have been presented in Table 14.

It is of especial interest in a consideration of wages to know the median of earnings among full-time workers according to industry, in order to determine the wage levels in effect under more or less normal conditions. As there is no arbitrary line of demarcation in regard to normal working hours in the State, the women are here considered to have put in practically a full week if they had worked 48 hours or over, or on 5 days or more, during the week scheduled. On that basis, 65.3 per cent of the 3,720 women for whom time records were secured had worked practically full time and the

median of their earnings was \$10.40; that is, one-half of them earned more and one-half earned less than that amount during the week. (Table 15.)

TABLE 15.—*Week's earnings of women who worked 48 hours and over or on 5 days and over, by industry, January, 1922 (white women).*

Week's earning.	Number of women earning each specified amount in—							
	All in- dustries.	Manufacturing industries.					Textiles.	
		All man- u-fac- turing.	Food.	Gar- ments.	Printing and pub- lishing.	All tex- tiles.	Cotton goods.	
Total.....	2,431	1,561	36	17	9	1,435	804	
Median earnings.....	\$10.40	\$9.90	\$10.65	\$9.90	(1)	\$9.80	\$10.25	
Under \$4.....	25	24	23	2	
\$4 and under \$6.....	111	90	90	9	
\$6 and under \$8.....	361	266	1	2	251	126	
\$8 and under \$10.....	606	418	10	7	394	240	
\$10 and under \$12.....	462	319	12	3	292	184	
\$12 and under \$15.....	431	278	11	2	250	154	
\$15 and under \$18.....	219	103	2	1	88	56	
\$18 and under \$25.....	139	56	2	7	41	
\$25 and over.....	77	7	1	6	29	

Week's earnings.	Number of women earning each specified amount in—						
	Manufacturing industries.			Stores.			Lau- dries.
	Textiles.		Other manu- facturing.	All stores.	General mer- cantile.	5-and-10- cent stores.	
Knit goods.	Yarn and twine.						
Total.....	204	427	64	834	668	166	36
Median earnings.....	\$8.75	\$9.40	\$12.00	\$11.50	\$12.65	\$8.35	\$12.35
Under \$4.....	6	15	1	1	1
\$4 and under \$6.....	30	51	19	6	13	2
\$6 and under \$8.....	39	86	12	94	40	54	1
\$8 and under \$10.....	60	94	7	187	117	70	1
\$10 and under \$12.....	24	84	12	132	111	21	11
\$12 and under \$15.....	30	66	14	140	135	5	13
\$15 and under \$18.....	11	21	12	110	110	6
\$18 and under \$25.....	4	8	6	82	80	2	1
\$25 and over.....	2	69	68	1	1

¹ Not computed, owing to small number involved.

Manufacturing industries employed 1,561 of these full-time workers and the median in that group was \$9.90. Among the 834 wage earners in retail stores the median was \$11.50. The median for the 36 laundry workers was \$12.35; as the large majority of power laundry workers were negroes the significant median wage in that trade will be found in connection with the earnings of negro women workers which are presented separately in this report. The bulk of the full-time workers in all industries, 76.5 per cent, earned between \$6 and \$15; in each industry group those figures represented the prevailing earnings except in the case of general mercantile stores,

where there was a considerable percentage of women who earned between \$15 and \$18. Forty-four per cent of the full-time workers earned between \$8 and \$12 during the week.

The industries in which the 2,431 women who had worked full time were employed arranged in descending scale according to the median earnings in each, stand as follows:

Industry.	Number of women working 48 hours or more on five days or more during the week.	Median earnings for week's work.
All industries.....	2, 431	\$10.40
General mercantile.....	668	12.65
Laundries.....	36	12.35
Manufacturing (not otherwise specified).....	64	12.00
Food products.....	36	10.65
Cotton goods.....	804	10.25
Garments.....	17	9.90
Yarn and twine.....	427	9.40
Knit goods.....	204	8.75
5-and-10-cent stores.....	166	8.35
Printing and publishing.....	9	(¹)

¹ Not computed, owing to small number involved.

A comparison of median earnings for all women with those for women who worked full time indicates that there is a greater increase in the textile median than in that of any other industry group; that is, undertime accounted in part for the low earnings prevailing at the time of the survey in that large woman-employing industry.

Earnings and experience.

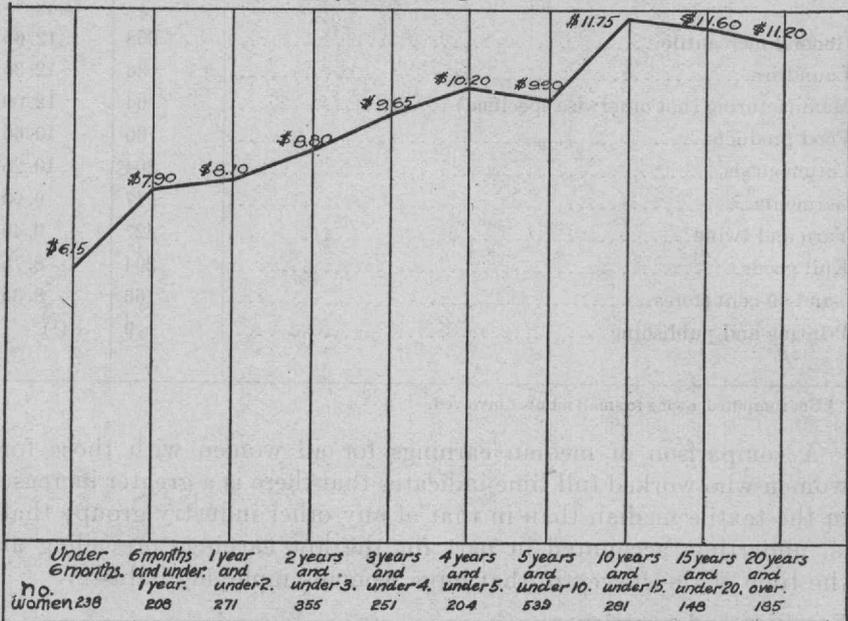
Wage fluctuation in relation to length of service shows the value of stability in terms of earnings. The median of the earnings for the 2,680 women who reported on length of service rose steadily from the beginners up to the group of women who had worked from 10 to 15 years in their trade (Appendix, Table V). There were 281 women in that latter group, forming 10.5 per cent of the total, and the median of their earnings (\$11.75) was nearly double the \$6.15 median of the 238 women who had worked less than 6 months. There appeared to be a slight falling off in earnings after 15 years of service, the median for the women so reported being less than the figure for

those who had worked from 10 to 15 years, though higher than that of any group with less than 10 years experience. These figures indicate that an upward wage trend was coincident with stability. The beginning rate and also the length of service required to earn the maximum rate differed according to industry. But whether the per cent of increase with experience was small and spread over a long time, whether it was small and received very quickly, or whether length of service in itself assumed a definite position in setting wage increase, in any case there was a premium on experience.

Earnings and rates.

Weekly rates for time workers indicate the standards in regard to full-time pay which prevail in a community. As plant or department

EXPERIENCE AND MEDIAN WEEK'S EARNINGS



shutdowns and absences for personal reasons affect the earnings of time workers, a comparison of weekly rates with week's earnings is also significant as showing something of the extent of the influence of lost time on wages during the period studied. Among the 1,765 women for whom time rates were recorded the median of weekly rates ranged from \$8.25 to \$17.70, according to industry (Appendix, Table VI). The median rate for a full week's pay among all women irrespective of industry was \$10.20; that is, one-half of the time workers were scheduled to make more than that amount and one-half to make less for a week's work.

The median of the actual earnings of the 1,765 women for whom time rates were reported was \$9.75, only 45 cents less than the median rate, so the element of lost time influenced time workers' earnings to the extent of only 4.4 per cent during the week studied. Among the 739 women engaged in manufacturing industries, the median rate was \$9.20, 85 cents higher than the median of actual earnings. In the textile industries, the median rate for a full week's work was \$9, 45 cents higher than the median of actual earnings. Median earnings were \$1.25 less than median rates in knit-goods manufacturing; and in that industry the median rate for a full week's work was \$8.25, a figure from which any deduction told most seriously. Among the workers in mercantile stores the median for earnings, \$12.45, coincided with the median for rates; premiums and commissions for effective salesmanship in certain departments balanced the element of lost time. Arranged in descending scale according to the median weekly rate for time workers, the industries stand as follows:

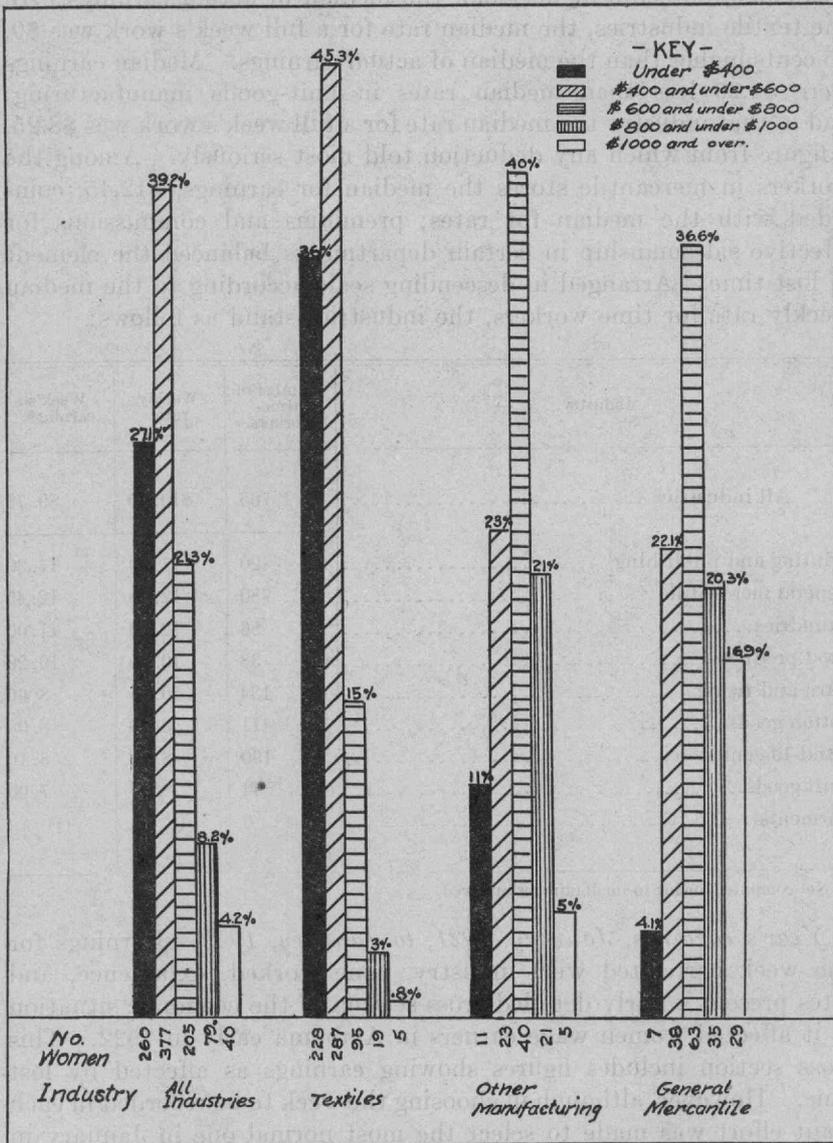
Industry.	Number of time-workers.	Weekly rate.	Week's earnings.
All industries.....	1,765	\$10.20	\$9.75
Printing and publishing.....	20	17.70	17.30
General mercantile.....	780	12.45	12.45
Laundries.....	56	12.10	11.00
Food products.....	38	10.55	10.20
Yarn and twine.....	134	10.45	8.60
Cotton goods.....	411	8.90	8.05
5-and-10-cent stores.....	190	8.45	8.10
Knit goods.....	44	8.25	7.00
Garments.....	6	(¹)	(¹)

¹ Not computed, owing to small number involved.

Year's earnings, January, 1921, to January, 1922.—Earnings for one week correlated with industry, time worked, experience, and rates present a fairly detailed cross section of the economic situation as it affected women wage earners in Alabama early in 1922. This cross section includes figures showing earnings as affected by lost time. However, although in choosing the week to be recorded in each plant effort was made to select the most normal one in January in regard to operating hours, plant or department shutdowns may have figured more or less largely in connection with the annual income. The possibility of rate increases or cuts over a 12-month period also enters into the situation. For these reasons it is impossible to esti-

mate a priori that annual income will equal a week's earnings multiplied by 52. To discover the general average of earnings prevailing over a year's time, records were taken of each week's earnings over a

YEAR'S EARNINGS - BY INDUSTRY



period of 12 months from January, 1921, to January, 1922, for 17 per cent of the women for whom the one-week pay-roll information was secured. These women were chosen, with the help of the man-

agement, from the experienced steady workers in each occupation and their earnings indicate wage opportunities for fairly regular employees. Although effort was made to select steady workers, it was not possible to eliminate entirely the element of lost time; 80.3 per cent of those for whom records were secured had worked between 46 and 52 weeks during the 12-month period.

Year's earnings were recorded for 961 women in manufacturing industries, stores, and laundries, and \$502 was the middle point in the scale of wages received (Appendix Table VII). Eighty women earned less than \$300, and 66 made \$900 or over, but they were exceptional cases; 71.2 per cent of the women earned between \$300 and \$700 for the year. In the manufacturing industries, year's earnings were recorded for 734 women. The median in that group was \$472. Among the 634 women in the textile manufacturing group the median was \$453. Among the 208 women employees in retail stores, half earned less than \$668 for the year. In general mercantile stores the middle figure was \$731 during the 12-month period, and in 5-and-10-cent stores it was \$438. Among the 19 white laundry workers the median was \$675. Dividing \$502, the median of year's earnings of all women workers irrespective of industry, by 52 weeks gives \$9.65 as the equivalent of one week's earnings, which is 75 cents less than the median earnings of approximately full-time workers, and 85 cents more than the median earnings for all workers regardless of time lost, during the scheduled week in January, 1922.

In Table 16 the industries in which 52-week records were secured are listed in descending order according to the median of year's earnings obtaining in each.

TABLE 16.—Actual and estimated year's earnings, by industry, 1921-22 (white women).

Industry.	Median year's earnings of steady workers ¹ (52-week records).		Estimated year's earnings of all workers (based on median earnings of one week in January, 1922).	
	Number of women.	Median earnings.	Number of women.	Median earnings.
Total.....	961	\$502	4,637	\$458
General mercantile.....	172	731	780	647
Garment manufacturing.....	70	683	359	517
Laundries.....	19	675	72	572
Knit-goods manufacturing.....	112	459	671	356
Cotton-goods manufacturing.....	353	456	1,729	452
Yarn and twine manufacturing.....	169	440	832	395
5-and-10-cent stores.....	36	438	194	419

¹ Of the 961 women reported upon, 80.3 per cent had worked at least 46 weeks during the year.

The medians of year's earnings among steady workers are very little higher, industry for industry, than the annual earnings of all workers estimated from the median of week's earnings in January, 1922. In cotton-goods manufacturing, employing 38 per cent of the women, the difference between the two is only \$4 for the year; for women in all industries the difference is \$44; the greatest difference between the two is \$166, occurring in the garment industry. So it would seem that the more comprehensive figures for the week recorded in January, 1922, can be accepted as fairly indicative of the wage opportunities throughout the year for women in Alabama industries.

Earnings of negro women workers.

A larger proportion of negro than of white women were working for wages in Alabama in 1920,⁵ but by far the greatest number of the negroes were engaged in agriculture and in domestic and personal service, which accounts for the fact that only 13.5 per cent of the 5,625 women for whom data were secured in the survey were negroes. They were employed chiefly in power laundries and as cleaners in stores and factories. The war-time scarcity of labor had opened certain occupational opportunities to negro women for the first time, but their lack of industrial experience was accompanied by low wage standards. The interdependence of women workers requires that standards set forth for women in industry should apply to all working women without regard to race; but because in the plants studied the negro women employees formed a distinct group in regard to wage levels, their earnings are presented separately.

Week's earnings.—The actual earnings of the 757 negro women for whom wage records were secured are shown in Table 17. Six dollars and five cents represents the median of week's earnings for all women workers, irrespective of industry; in other words, one-half of them earned more and one-half earned less than that amount during the week recorded. A larger number of negro women were employed in power laundries than in any other industrial group, and the median of week's earnings in that trade was \$6.10. The remaining 340 women were employed chiefly as cleaners in factories and stores, the median of earnings in the manufacturing group being \$5.80 and in stores \$6.80 for the week. Approximately 80 per cent of the negro women earned between \$4 and \$8 during the week recorded.

⁵ U. S. Bureau of the Census, Fourteenth Census, 1920. Abstract of the Fourteenth Census. Table 20, p. 518.

TABLE 17.—*Week's earnings, by industry, January, 1922 (negro women).*

Week's earnings.	Number of women reported.	Number of women earning each specified amount in—						
		Manufacturing industries.			Stores.			Laundries.
		All manufacturing.	Textiles.	Other manufacturing.	All stores.	General mercantile.	5-and-10-cent stores.	
Total.....	757	291	244	47	49	40	9	417
Median earnings.....	\$6.05	\$5.80	\$5.50	\$7.15	\$6.80	\$6.80	(¹)	\$6.10
Under \$4.....	110	46	45	1	8	6	2	56
\$4 and under \$6.....	256	113	107	6	5	3	2	138
\$6 and under \$8.....	327	112	83	29	19	19	196
\$8 and under \$10.....	43	16	8	8	11	7	16
\$10 and under \$12.....	12	3	1	2	3	2	1	6
\$12 and under \$15.....	8	1	1	3	3	4
\$15 and over.....	1	1

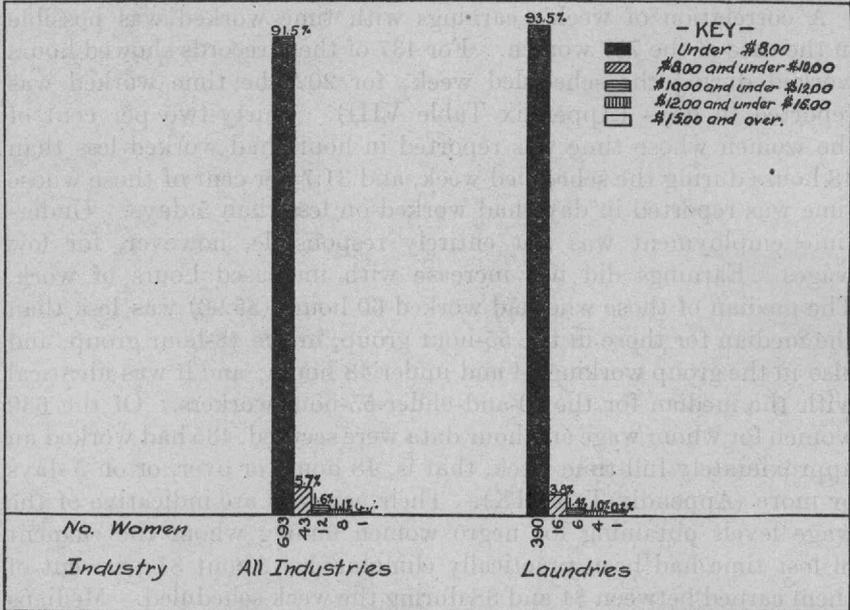
¹ Not computed, owing to small number involved.

A correlation of week's earnings with time worked was possible in the case of the 757 women. For 437 of them records showed hours worked during the scheduled week; for 202 the time worked was reported in days (Appendix Table VIII). Thirty-two per cent of the women whose time was reported in hours had worked less than 48 hours during the scheduled week, and 31.7 per cent of those whose time was reported in days had worked on less than 5 days. Under-time employment was not entirely responsible, however, for low wages. Earnings did not increase with increased hours of work. The median of those who had worked 60 hours (\$5.90) was less than the median for those in the 55-hour group, in the 48-hour group, and also in the group working 44 and under 48 hours; and it was identical with the median for the 50-and-under-55-hour workers. Of the 639 women for whom wage and hour data were secured, 435 had worked an approximately full-time week, that is, 48 hours or over, or on 5 days or more (Appendix Table IX). Their earnings are indicative of the wage levels obtaining for negro women among whom the element of lost time had been practically eliminated. About 87 per cent of them earned between \$4 and \$8 during the week scheduled. Medians of the earnings of these full-time workers in comparison with medians of all women regardless of time worked, arranged in descending order according to industry, are shown in the following statement:

Industry.	All women.		Full-time workers.	
	Number.	Median earnings.	Number.	Median earnings.
All industries.....	757	\$6.05	435	\$6.35
Manufacturing (exclusive of textiles)...	47	7.15	17	7.65
Retail stores.....	49	6.80	39	7.40
Laundries.....	417	6.10	212	6.35
Textiles.....	244	5.50	167	6.05

Three hundred and seventy-four women reported on the length of time they had worked in the trade in which they were engaged at the time of the survey (Appendix Table X). This correlation of exper-

WEEK'S EARNINGS BY INDUSTRY-NEGRO WOMEN



ience and earnings indicates that here was a marked dearth of industrial incentive to wage-earning negro women. They were employed in low skilled work in the performance of which experience was no asset, and stability resulted in an almost inappreciable increase in wages. The median of the earnings of those who had worked under six months was \$5.70, and there was a fairly consistent rise to the figure \$6.65 which represented the middle point in the wages paid to the worker who had been engaged in her trade for from 5 to 10 years. Fifty-five per cent of the women had worked three years and over in their

trades, and the median of their earnings varied from \$6.00 to \$6.65 during the week scheduled.

A large proportion of the 757 negro women workers were paid on a time basis, and it was possible to secure time rates for 586 of them. Rates paid for a full week's work varied from \$6.25 to \$6.95 according to industry (Appendix Table XI). These figures indicate the "going price" in effect for a majority of the negro women workers. There was not very much difference between median rates and the medians of actual week's earnings. However, the 35-cent decrease from \$6.40 which represented the possible earnings for full-time work among women in all industries meant a cut of 5.5 per cent in the weekly income. In manufacturing industries the median of rates was \$6.35, which was 65 cents higher than median earnings. In stores, weekly rates very nearly coincided with week's earnings. Among laundry workers there was a difference of 25 cents between the two.

Year's earnings, January, 1921, to January, 1922.—Earnings of 97 women, 12.8 per cent of the negro women for whom wage data were secured, were recorded for the 52 weeks preceding the week scheduled in January, 1922 (Table 18). Three hundred and twenty-four dollars was the middle point on the scale of year's earnings. The largest number of women, 79.4 per cent, earned between \$200 and \$400 for the 12 months recorded. In manufacturing industries the median of year's earnings was \$300 and among laundry workers it was \$329.

TABLE 18.—*Year's earnings, by industry, 1921-22 (negro women).*

Year's earnings.	Number of women reported.	Number of women earning each specified amount in—				
		Manufacturing industries.			Stores.	Laundries.
		All manufacturing.	Textiles.	Other manufacturing.		
Total.....	97	28	21	7	2	67
Median earnings.....	\$324	\$300	\$291	(¹)	(¹)	\$329
Under \$200.....	5	3	2	1	2
\$200 and under \$300.....	28	11	10	1	17
\$300 and under \$400.....	49	12	9	3	37
\$400 and under \$500.....	8	2	2	1	5
\$500 and under \$600.....	4	4
\$600 and under \$700.....	3	1	2

¹ Not computed, owing to small number involved.

Comparison of wage conditions, January, 1921, and January, 1922.

One year previous to the pay-roll date for which the wage material presented under "week's earnings" was secured, there were 4,277 white and 883 negro women on the books of the plants scheduled. In addition to the more detailed study of wages as obtaining in January,

1922, and of the wages of certain of the women employees who had worked steadily at the same plant through the 12 months previous to that time, a brief study was made of the 5,160 women employed in the plants scheduled at a date one year previous to the week recorded in January, 1922. It seemed important to consider wages and rates over a year's period in order to determine to what extent the more detailed information in regard to wages in 1922 was indicative of wages paid women workers.

The wage median for white women on the 1921 pay roll was \$9.15, which indicates an inappreciable difference between the wage levels of the two periods (Appendix Table XII). Examination of the difference, industry by industry, shows a certain amount of fluctuation in earnings rather than a definite increase or decrease. In January, 1922, the median for cotton textile workers, comprising 35.5 per cent of the 4,868 women for whom wages were recorded, was 45 cents higher than in January, 1921. In the other industry groups, however, there were decreases in median earnings varying from 5 cents in mercantile stores to \$1.80 in laundries.

In the case of the negro women workers there was only a 15-cent difference between the median of week's earnings on the 1921 and on the 1922 pay roll (Appendix Table XIII). Among the 326 women in manufacturing plants there was an increase of 25 cents; among the 506 laundry workers there was a decrease of 25 cents.

The proportion of women who had worked full time varied in the two periods. On the 1922 pay roll, 57.4 per cent of the white women workers whose time was reported in hours had worked 48 hours and over during the week and the median of their earnings was \$10; 77.4 per cent of the white women whose time was reported in days had worked on 5 days or over and the median of their earnings was \$10.90. On the 1921 pay roll 36.3 per cent of those whose time was reported in hours had worked 48 hours and over and their median earnings were \$11.35; and 81.8 per cent of the women whose time was reported in days had worked on 5 days or over and their median earnings were \$11.75.

Wage rates of white and negro women in January, 1921, are presented by industry in Appendix Tables XIV and XV. Median earnings and median rates of white women on the 1921 and 1922 pay rolls are presented according to industry in the following summary. This brief comparison of earnings and wage rates for a week with those of one year previous to the week surveyed in 1922 indicates certain fluctuations in earnings and rates between the two periods, but it corroborates the salient points in the findings already presented in this section in regard to the wage situation as it affects women workers in Alabama industries.

Industry.	Weekly rate.			Week's earnings.		
	January, 1921.	January, 1922.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).	January, 1921.	January, 1922.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).
All industries.....	\$11.40	\$10.20	-\$1.20	\$9.15	\$8.80	-\$0.35
All manufacturing.....	10.30	9.20	-1.10	8.30	8.30
Food.....	11.20	10.55	-.65	9.00	9.10	+.10
Garments.....	(¹)	(¹)	9.45	9.95	+.50
Printing and publishing.....	18.45	17.70	-.75	17.65	17.30	-.35
Textiles.....	9.85	9.00	-.85	8.10	8.15	+.05
Cotton goods....	9.70	8.90	-.80	8.25	8.70	+.45
Knit goods.....	11.00	8.25	-2.75	7.60	6.85	-.75
Yarn and twine.	10.25	10.45	+.20	8.00	7.60	-.40
Other manufactur- ing.....	15.50	8.55	-6.95	12.25	7.85	-4.40
General mercantile.....	12.65	12.45	-.20	12.50	12.45	-.05
5-and-10-cent stores.....	9.25	8.45	-.80	8.70	8.05	-.65
Laundries.....	12.70	12.10	-.60	12.80	11.00	-1.80

¹ Not computed, owing to small number involved.

Earnings of night workers.

There were only 279 women working on night shifts during the week scheduled. However, many manufacturing industries were not operating full force or full time and a period of greater activity would perhaps result in increased employment of night workers. It is sometimes protested that workers on night shifts earn more money than day workers and that to prohibit women from competing for those economically desirable hours is a grave discrimination—graver than the situation which exists when women work a double shift, in the factory at night and at least intermittently at home during the day. Figures showing comparative earnings of night and day workers in Alabama indicate that that protest is without foundation. From an economic point of view there was very little choice between night and day work. All but two of the 261 white night workers were employed in textile mills, and for those textile workers the median earnings were \$8.55, only 40 cents higher for the week than the median for the textile day shift. The comparative economic opportunity offered to all white workers on day shifts irrespective of industry was greater than that offered to night workers. The median of day shift earnings was \$8.80, as against the night shift median of \$8.55. There were so few negro women working

on night shifts (18) that their earnings have no comparative significance. They were employed largely as cleaners in textile mills and their earnings are included in the following summary:

Actual week's earnings:	Number of women earning each specified amount.
Under \$4.....	44
\$4 and under \$6.....	34
\$6 and under \$8.....	54
\$8 and under \$10.....	46
\$10 and under \$12.....	37
\$12 and under \$15.....	33
\$15 and under \$18.....	22
\$18 and over.....	7

CONCLUSION.

The primary consideration in a study of the industrial life of women workers is the degree to which their wage earning power has developed in any given community. Obviously, the amount of money they earn determines automatically the standard of living they can maintain. Over a period of time the community of which they form a part suffers if it does not consider wages paid in terms of what those wages will buy. In a distribution of the earnings of an industrial enterprise, the cost of living of the individual workers is the first irreducible expense. A community interested in the mental and physical well-being of its members after informing itself as to wage levels will have facts with which to decide whether the standard of living made necessary by those levels requires revision.

The median of week's earnings in January, 1922, was \$8.80 for white and \$6.05 for negro women workers. These medians were not the result of extensive undertime employment, as the median of week's earnings of full-time white women was only \$10.40 and of full-time negro women \$6.35. Neither were they the result of a temporary depression—for the median of earnings of white women for 1921 varied only to the extent of 35 cents from that of 1922, and the median of year's earnings when divided by 52 was only 75 cents less than the median of week's earnings of full-time workers in January, 1922, and 85 cents more than the median of week's earnings of all workers in January, 1922.

PART V.

THE WORKERS

Between 223,000 and 224,000 women are working for wages in Alabama.¹ Industry offers them an opportunity to earn. But if in return women are to play their part in building industry so that it will be good for human beings, they must have increased occupational opportunity. Such opportunity has been analyzed to mean, first, a chance for a woman to choose her occupation; second, a chance to be trained for it; third, a chance to advance to more important work in her chosen field; and fourth, fair compensation for the work she is doing. In the interest of providing industrial conditions under which woman may most fully develop her powers, and so most effectively serve society, it is necessary to compile facts from the material of human experience. When a woman is employed to-day certain considerations are inevitably in mind: Her maternal functions may entail absence from industry at intervals, and her home responsibilities enter very emphatically into the need for limiting the length of her wage-earning day. Because of these handicaps she has been weak in bargaining power. However, in spite of them she continues to make a definite contribution toward the manufacture and distribution of goods, and in the interest of the development of what we have called her occupational opportunity certain other considerations arise. Are working women for the most part young persons? Are they native or foreign born? Do they form a stable group or do they shift between trades? What is the ratio of married to single women in industry; of those who live at home to those who live independently? To what extent are wage-earning women responsible for the support of others?²

In the Alabama study information on these points was secured by the questionnaire method, and the material is presented in the following pages. About 3,500 of the women workers supplied personal history information on cards distributed in the plants visited.

Age.

Of the 3,118 women who reported age, 28.0 per cent were between 16 and 20 years old, 38.6 per cent between 20 and 30, and 28.9 per cent between 30 and 50 (Table 19). This distribution of women workers through all age groups coincides very nearly with the findings of similar surveys in other States. It contradicts the theory that women wage earners are for the most part young persons, and in no great need, therefore, of provision for trade training and promotion.

¹ U. S. Bureau of the Census, fourteenth Census, 1920. Abstract of the fourteenth Census. Table 7; p. 499.

² For a detailed study of the share of wage earning women in family support, see U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Bulletin 30.

TABLE 19.—Age of the women employees who supplied personal information, by industry.

Industry.	Number of women reporting.		Number of women whose age was—															
			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.	
	White.	Negro.	White.	Negro.	White.	Negro.	White.	Negro.	White.	Negro.	White.	Negro.	White.	Negro.	White.	Negro.	White.	Negro.
All industries.....	2,732	386	348	20	457	49	664	98	358	84	496	71	294	41	95	15	20	8
Manufacturing.....	2,143	108	269	1	349	9	495	26	278	18	399	25	248	15	87	9	18	5
Food products.....	48	24	11		13	2	6	12	4	6	2	3	8		2	1	2	
Garments.....	250	2	9		16		35	1	38	1	75		56		16		5	
Printing and publishing.....	21		2		6		8		2		1		2					
Textiles.....	1,771	77	242	1	302	6	434	13	224	11	314	18	177	15	67	8	11	5
Cotton goods.....	999	63	118	1	161	6	250	12	128	8	198	15	102	11	37	6	5	4
Knit goods.....	353	1	71		70		83		42		35		35		14	1	3	
Yarn and twine.....	419	13	53		71		101	1	54	3	81	3	40	4	16	1	3	1
Other manufacturing.....	53	5	5		12	1	12		10		7	4	5		2			
Stores.....	542	13	73	2	103	1	161	5	69	3	82	2	46		8			
General mercantile.....	413	7	35	2	68	1	131	3	58	1	69		45		7			
5-and-10-cent stores.....	129	6	38		35		30	2	11	2	13	2	1		1			
Laundries.....	47	265	6	17	5	39	8	67	11	63	15	44		28		6	2	3

There was a more even distribution of women by age among textile employees than among employees in any other industry. The largest per cent of them, 36.9, were between the ages of 20 and 30 and 28.4 per cent were between 30 and 50. A majority of the laundry workers were over 25 years of age. Evidently older women, finding it necessary to earn a living, turned to that work as seeming less apart from their experience and as demanding less in the way of industrial training than did other industries. The business of selling in 5-and-10-cent stores offered opportunity for young workers; an overwhelmingly large number of the women employed in that way, 54 per cent, were between 16 and 20 years old. The number employed in these stores decreased rapidly with increase in age, and only 11.9 per cent of the workers were between 30 and 50. Among women in department stores, 46 per cent were between 20 and 30 years of age, and 27.1 per cent between 30 and 50. The significant fact to which all of these figures lend emphasis is that women workers are in industry in large numbers between the ages of 30 and 50 and by no means should be excluded from plans for vocational training and from opportunities for advancement.

Nativity and race.

The percentage of foreign-born among wage earners is of concern in an inquiry into the conditions surrounding employment in any community. The newly arrived immigrant not only increases the supply of unskilled labor, thereby decreasing its economic value, but is prone to accept any industrial regulations offered as inevitable in the new country. It is of interest, therefore, to correlate information on such points as length of time in the trade, rates of pay, and earnings with nativity. In Alabama, however, there has been no very recent immigration, and of the 3,482 women reporting nativity, only 0.5 per cent were foreign-born (Table 20). Among the native-born, 78.1 per cent were white and 21.9 per cent negro women.

TABLE 20.—*Nativity of the women employees who supplied personal information, by industry.*

Women.	Number of women reporting.	Number and per cent of women who were—					
		Native-born.				Foreign-born.	
		White.		Negro.			
		Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
All industries.....	3,482	2,706	77.7	757	21.7	19	0.5
Textile manufacturing.....	2,003	1,755	87.6	244	12.1	4	0.1
Other manufacturing.....	418	363	86.8	47	11.2	8	1.9
Stores.....	597	541	90.6	49	8.2	7	1.1
Laundries.....	464	47	10.1	417	89.9		

The comparatively small number of negro women in manufacturing industries would indicate that the war-time migration of negro women workers in the United States, which was occupational as well as geographic, had no marked effect on Alabama industries. A large majority of the negro women wage earners there were still engaged in domestic and personal service. A paradoxical situation prevailed in regard to those who were industrially employed. On one hand, they were moving very slowly into manufacturing occupations; they formed only 12.1 per cent of the women employed in textile mills, and they worked there chiefly as cleaners. On the other hand, they had moved rapidly into power laundry work where they formed 89.9 per cent of the women in that industry. They worked there on extractors, on flat-work machines, at starch machines, and at power presses.

Experience.

It is often asserted in connection with the question of women's need for training and their claim for advancement that they are instable, that they shift into industry and out of it again, or from one kind of work to another. If their stay in a trade is to be brief the occupations open to them might logically be of an unskilled, low-paid type for which the learning period is short. This supposed instability of women wage earners does not seem to prevail in Alabama. Of the 2,937 women who reported on the length of their trade experience, 59.8 per cent had worked for 3 years or over in the trade in which they were occupied at the time of the survey, 42 per cent had worked for 5 years or over in their trade, and 22.3 per cent for 10 years or over (Table 21). Of the 42 per cent whose trade experience had been 5 years or longer, nearly one-half had worked in that trade for from 5 to 10 years, one-fourth had worked for from 10 to 15 years, and more than one-fourth for 15 years or longer. Sixteen per cent had worked less than one year at their trade, but that figure is to an appreciable extent compensated for by the fact that it includes those who were entering industry for the first time. Figures already presented in Table 19 have shown that 11.8 per cent of those who reported age were between 16 and 18 years old, and 16.2 per cent were between 18 and 20. Among those young workers an appreciable number had been in industry for less than a year.

TABLE 21.—Time in the trade of the women employees who supplied personal information.

Time in the trade.	White women.		Negro women.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Total.....	2,680	100.0	257	100.0
Under 1 year.....	446	16.6	28	10.8
1 and under 2 years.....	271	10.1	39	15.1
2 and under 3 years.....	355	13.2	42	16.3
3 and under 4 years.....	251	9.3	38	14.7
4 and under 5 years.....	204	7.6	28	10.8
5 and under 10 years.....	539	20.1	42	16.3
10 and under 15 years.....	281	10.4	26	10.1
15 years and over.....	333	12.4	14	5.4

There was a consistent difference between white and negro workers in regard to length of occupational experience. Fifty per cent of the white as against 42.8 per cent of the negro women had worked 4 years or longer at the trade in which they were engaged when surveyed; 43 per cent of the white women as against 31.9 per cent of the negroes had worked 5 years or longer; 22.9 per cent of the white women as against 15.6 per cent of the negro women had worked 10 years or longer.

Because the idea persists that women are in industry but a short time, they are put to work at low skilled jobs where there is obviously less economic advantage, less incentive to keep them from shifting to other jobs. Since, in spite of this chain of circumstances, we find that large numbers of women are in industry for long periods, and that they are stable, it would seem that increase in that stability would inevitably follow upon enlarged opportunities for their trade training and promotion.

Conjugal condition.

Of the 3,021 women workers who reported on conjugal condition, 1,524 were single, and of the remaining 1,497, 55 per cent were married and 45 per cent were widowed, separated, or divorced.

TABLE 22.—Conjugal condition of the women employees who supplied personal information, by industry.

Industry.	Number of women reporting.		Number and per cent of women who were—											
			Single.				Married.				Widowed, separated, or divorced.			
			White.		Negro.		White.		Negro.		White.		Negro.	
	White.	Negro.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.
All indus-tries.....	2,649	372	1,392	52.5	132	35.4	708	26.7	116	31.0	549	20.7	124	33
Textile man-ufacturing....	1,707	74	843	49.3	21	28.3	517	30.2	22	29.7	347	20.3	31	41.8
Other man-ufacturing....	357	30	147	41.1	11	36.6	99	27.7	8	26.6	111	31.0	11	36.6
Stores.....	538	13	381	70.8	6	46.1	81	15.0	4	30.7	76	14.1	3	23.1
Laundries.....	47	255	21	44.7	94	36.8	11	23.4	82	32.1	15	31.9	79	30.9

That there was a difference of only 10 per cent between married wage earners and those who were widowed, separated, or divorced emphasizes the fact that a comparatively larger proportion of the women with disrupted marital relations were at work. In manufacturing industries the same division in regard to marital status existed as in the case of all industries. In stores 70.2 per cent of the women were single, and of the remaining 29.8 per cent, practically one-half were widowed, separated, or divorced. In laundries the proportions were reversed, 38 per cent being single, but of the remaining 61.9 per cent, again one-half were widowed, separated, or divorced. The question of the proportionate number of married and single women in a working group is sometimes raised when equal pay for equal work without regard to sex, or the special need for regulating hours of work for women because of their homework, is under discussion. The tradition which pays a family wage to the male breadwinner and a lower one to the subsidiary woman worker, is based upon several premises, one of which is that woman wage earners are single. The contention that mothers are at home bearing all the responsibility for home making and child rearing, and that there is no special need for regulating plant hours of working women, also is based on the premise that women wage earners are single. The facts show that 49.6 per cent of the women reporting were or had been married. Whether they were in industry because there were no young children at home, or because the husband's earnings were not sufficient to support the family, or because there was no husband and they supported the family, the 49.6 per cent were there, forming a number large enough to merit recognition.

Living condition.

The prevailing type of woman worker in the plants visited lived with her immediate family, 80 per cent of the 3,139 women reporting on the question being found in that classification. This per cent reflects the situation among textile workers, who formed about three-fifths of the total number of women, and of whom only 6.1 per cent were living independently. In the other industry groups, however, the per cent of women living at home was very little lower; in laundries 76.7 per cent lived with their families and 12.5 per cent independently; and in stores 73.7 per cent lived with their families and 13.9 per cent independently. In investigations in other parts of the country where the same inquiry has been made, 80 per cent has been found to be the normal figure for working women living with their families and relatives.

TABLE 23.—*Living condition of the women employees who supplied personal information, by industry.*

Industry.	Number of women reporting.		Number and per cent of women who were living—											
			At home.				With relatives.				Independently.			
			White.		Negro.		White.		Negro.		White.		Negro.	
	White.	Negro.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.
All industries	2,758	381	2,238	81.1	294	77.2	263	9.5	41	10.8	257	9.3	46	12.1
Textile manu- facturing. . . .	1,778	78	1,529	85.9	62	79.5	141	7.9	10	12.8	108	6.0	6	7.6
Other manu- facturing. . . .	377	31	268	71.0	19	61.3	47	12.4	2	6.5	62	16.4	10	32.3
Stores.	556	14	406	73.0	14	100.0	71	12.7	-----	-----	79	14.2	-----	-----
Laundries.	47	258	35	74.4	199	77.1	4	8.5	29	11.2	8	17.0	30	11.6

The manufacture of textiles was carried on largely in distinct communities, and an overwhelming majority of the employees lived in family groups. As textile manufacturing is the most important woman-employing industry in the State, and as certain practices in regard to housing and rents enter into a consideration of textile wages, it is of interest to note something of the organization of Alabama mill villages. The early steps in the evolution of these "villages of looms and spindles" were influenced by the economic status of tenant farmers in the fifties, who worked land on shares in those days of extensive plantations and were quartered by the owners. With the breaking up of large agricultural holdings came the gradual development of the business of manufacturing as well as of growing cotton, and the textile manager drew his labor supply largely from the tenant-farmer group. He had selected his site with perhaps transportation facilities or water power in mind; sometimes it was on the edge of a town and sometimes in a less settled section, and he carried over the custom of providing houses for his employees. There was no charge for rent, the number of rooms allotted depending upon the number of "millhands" in the family. In these producing groups, consisting of from 50 to 500 people with their families and forming each a more or less distinct community, activities in regard to health, education, and recreation also were initiated by the management. The following description from a plant schedule is typical of the activities so initiated: A modern school building equipped with apparatus for vocational training; a small hospital with an operating room in charge of a part-time doctor, with no fee for his service or for those of the visiting nurse; a large auditorium used for meetings of all sorts, with a moving-picture machine by which were shown the usual type of picture and were used also to experiment with State educational films

which taught geography, physiology, and so on; a swimming pool; a conservatory in charge of a botanist who taught children how to raise flowers and shrubs and vegetables; a stock farm; a reservoir; and lighted streets. In another village, built in a more isolated location, there were a school with textile courses for boys, an auditorium, a hospital with a doctor and visiting nurse in attendance, a day nursery, a moving-picture house, a swimming pool, a laundry, a commissary, a dairy, a poultry and truck farm, and an ice plant. There was of course the opposite condition, as shown by the following description from the schedule of one of the smaller, older, mill villages, where only the bare needs of existence had been considered: Ill-kept houses, a one-room school, a general store, water from an occasional pump, neither gas nor electricity in the houses, and no provision for village activities. The fact that the mill had been built in an isolated section added seriousness to the omission. Such a village meant a supply of labor for the mill, and that only. That type, however, seemed to be gradually decreasing in Alabama. It offered no appreciable advantage in rents or wages, and it was not able to compete with the more progressive mill managements in the labor market.

So these satellite towns have evolved, each closely dependent in all its activities upon the theories and successful operation of the mill management, the more progressive ones having developed more quickly into a smoothly running community than would have been possible through individual effort. Among the 36 villages visited, the average weekly rent per room was 25 $\frac{3}{4}$ cents. In 28 villages there was running water in the houses, and in 29 there were electric lights. These facts are important in connection with wage rates prevailing among textile workers, and although it is impossible to estimate accurately the equivalent of such provisions in terms of earnings, due allowance for their existence should be made in estimating what the employee receives for her work. In some villages, organizations with employee representation have been instituted which deal with such conditions as plant and village safety, housing, and health. The development of individual initiative and responsibility is one of the problems confronting employers and employees. One of the managers stated that his great hope in that connection lay in the schools, which have increased so signally in efficiency during recent years.

So among workers in textile mills and also, though in less degree, among those in other industries, the prevailing type of wage earner was the woman who lived at home. Her problems represented those existing among large numbers of working women throughout the State.

Home responsibilities.

Women as such have certain home obligations which men for the most part do not share. The wage-earning woman also has financial obligations. The question of marital status is sometimes raised in connection with the extent of these two types of responsibility. Investigations have shown, however, that there is no hard and fast division of obligation in that respect, it is perhaps more a question of degree. Single women have financial responsibilities to fulfill and home work to do, though less extensively than have married women, and married women on the whole bear less financial responsibility than do women who are widowed, divorced, or separated.

The survey has shown that the prevailing type of woman wage earner lives at home and is usually confronted before and after plant hours with home work. Furthermore, in the majority of cases she also contributes to the family income, thus carrying a double burden. Figures showing the extent of her home and financial obligations have a bearing upon the need for regulating plant hours and upon the need for discontinuing discrimination in wage rates on the basis of sex. For these reasons in addition to the data already presented in this section, secured from the 3,482 women through the questionnaire method, other facts were obtained from certain women through personal interviews. The schedule form used is printed in Appendix C. The 194 women visited included workers in each occupation in the industries studied. In that sense only are they a picked group. Although the numbers involved are small, the material indicates one or two salient points in connection with the financial and home-work obligations of wage-earning women.

TABLE 24.—*Financial responsibilities of 194 women interviewed, by conjugal condition.*

Conjugal condition.	Number of women reporting.	Women workers contributing of their earnings to the family budget—			
		All regularly.	Part regularly.	Part irregularly.	None.
Total.....	194	114	53	16	11
Single.....	89	32	35	12	10
Married.....	51	40	7	3	1
Widowed, separated, or divorced.....	54	42	11	1

Financial obligations.

Ninety-five per cent of the women interviewed lived at home; 58.8 per cent of them contributed all of their earnings to the family income regularly, only 5.7 per cent contributed nothing financially (Table 24). Among the women who were or had been married, 78.1 per cent contributed all their earnings to the family budget.

Among the single women, 36 per cent regularly contributed all they made and 39.3 per cent regularly contributed part. Forty-one of the women were the sole breadwinners in their family group (Table 25). Six of them were the sole earners in families of five or over.

TABLE 25.—*Number of wage earners in family of 194 women interviewed, by size of family group.*

Number of wage earners in family.	Number of women interviewed.	Number of persons in family group.												Not reported.
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	13		
Total.....	194	114	18	26	23	36	27	22	13	5	7	1	2	
1.....	41	114	9	7	5	3	3	
2.....	63	9	15	8	20	6	2	3	
3.....	54	4	5	12	10	11	7	2	3	
4 and over.....	34	5	1	8	9	6	4	1	
Not reported.....	2	2	

¹ Women living independently.

In 63 cases the woman worker was one of two wage earners in the household, and 11 of these households consisted of six or more persons. Although these figures were secured from a comparatively small number of women, they are in line with the findings of other reports which show that women workers bear responsibility for the support of dependents, a point which merits special study, but which should be kept in mind in connection with the rates paid in woman-employing occupations.

Home-work obligations.

The phrase "home-work obligations" includes an array of activities which can not but be a burden to the woman who has put in 10, 11, or 12 hours at wage earning. Taking care of children, marketing, cooking, sweeping, scrubbing, sewing, washing, ironing, staying at home if one of the family is sick—these things are part of the week's work for women. In 124 cases, 63.9 per cent of the workers interviewed, the women cooperated in the housework, just as they cooperated as wage earners in the matter of family income. Only those women were included as cooperating who did a definite and appreciable amount of housework daily. Twenty-nine of the women, 7 of whom boarded, did no home work regularly. Thirty-nine of the women did all their own work all the time; 20 of this number were married, and 16 were widowed, divorced, or separated. In all, 163 of the 194 women found themselves in a special group in that they were confronted with household tasks before and after plant working hours. That point bears with other factors upon the need for regulating hours of employment for women.

Cases illustrating home responsibilities.

In connection with these figures it may be of interest to note from interviews certain typical cases showing something of the financial and home-work responsibilities of women who earn.³

Women workers who were widowed, separated, or divorced:

1. Sole wage earner in family of 5. Her 3 children under 16, and her mother 76 years old, live with her. She does "what work gets done" at home; has lost some time on account of sickness and dreads possibility of more.
2. Sole wage earner in family of 4. Husband has been dead 4 years. Children 4, 6, and 8 years of age at home. She and oldest child get up at 6 each morning. Does all her own work before and after plant hours.
3. Supports 1 son. Made \$448 last year. Does all her own work.
4. Sole wage earner in family of 5. Father out of work. Her two children stay at home with her mother.
5. Works nights on a 12-hour shift and does housework during the day. Two wage earners in family of 3. One son works. The other is young.
6. Usually she and her mother work, and her 3 children stay at home. Mother has been ill, so she has 5 to support and all the work to do at home.
7. One of 2 earners in a family of 5. She and brother work. Support her child, her sister, and her father.
8. One of 2 wage earners in family of 9. She and 1 child work. Other 7 at home; 14-year-old one does most of the work. Has lost some time on account of sickness of self and family and dreads recurrence.

Single women workers:

9. Sole wage earner in family of 3; supports own mother and child of dead sister. Mother not strong enough to do all housework.
10. Sole wage earner in family of 3. Father unable to get work. Mother does housework when well enough, but has been ill so worker does it all at present. Turns in all earnings.
11. Supporting grandmother, who is 76. Takes all earnings. Latter tries to help with housework, but worker does most of it.
12. Father dead. Mother and 2 young sisters at home. She earns for 4.
13. One of 2 wage earners in family of 7. She and sister earn and do most of the housework. Mother not strong, stays at home with 4 brothers and sisters under 16.
14. One of three wage earners in family of 8. She and brother and sister support father, mother, and 2 sisters and a brother under 16.
15. One of two wage earners in family of 9. She and brother earn, latter under 16. Mother, a widow, stays at home with 6 brothers and sisters.

Married women workers:

16. One of 2 wage earners in family of 5. Husband works days. She works nights so she can be at home days with children aged 2, 5, and 7. Does her housework, too.
17. She and husband work. Four children at home. She does all her own work, except the washing, before and after plant hours.
18. Sole wage earner. Husband out of work all winter. Two children at home. She does all the work.

³ The members of the household are spoken of in terms of their relationship to the scheduled woman worker, and the latter is designated by the third personal pronoun.

Married women workers—Continued.

- 19. Sixty-six years old. She and husband of 70 came down from the mountains a few months before with their 2 single daughters to live with married daughter and son-in-law who had preceded them. All 6 work. She creels and her husband was made a sweeper. Finds the standing and the hours hard. She does the cooking. Gets dinner cooked by 7.30. Tries to get to bed between 8.30 and 9 because they have to be at work before 5.
- 20. Baby ill a long time—went \$752 in debt. Therefore she went to work. Chose night work because, although baby died there were 2 other children under 6 to be looked after in the daytime. Husband works days.

APPENDIX A.

STATE LEGISLATION AFFECTING WOMEN WAGE EARNERS.

Industrialization to any appreciable extent is comparatively recent in Alabama and the existing labor legislation is quickly enumerated. According to the State Code of 1907, proper accommodations for sitting and resting when not actively engaged in the work of her employment was required for any girl or woman employed as a clerk or saleswoman in a store or shop, and separate toilets were required for men and women employees in places of work. According to the acts of 1911, the employment of women in or about any coal mine was prohibited. The acts of 1919 established an effective plan for jurisdiction over the welfare of minors, in the form of a child welfare department. This department inspects the sanitary condition of establishments where minors are employed, in that respect affecting the working conditions of some adults. Regulations for women workers in regard to industrial working hours, minimum rates of pay, or mothers' pensions had not yet been considered in the State legislature. The legislature of 1919, which created the child welfare department, also passed the workmen's compensation act, thus making the State one of the 42 which have accident compensation laws.

The Smith-Bankhead law, of which Representative W. B. Bankhead, of Alabama, was joint author, provides funds for the vocational rehabilitation of all persons handicapped through accident, disease, or otherwise. Alabama has accepted the act, has matched the Federal funds allotted to Alabama, and has deputed the duty of expending them to the State department of education. The newly created vocational education division in that department has for its program the provision of vocational training courses for physically handicapped persons, the arrangement for cooperation with employers in job placement, and follow up work in regard to economic rehabilitation.

APPENDIX B.

TABLE I.—Hours worked less than scheduled, by industry.

Industry.	Number of women reported.	Number of women who worked less than scheduled hours.	Number of women who worked less than scheduled hours to the extent of—					
			Under 5 hours.	5 and under 10 hours.	10 and under 15 hours.	15 and under 20 hours.	20 and under 30 hours.	30 hours and over.
All industries ¹	1,985	1,042	113	236	270	165	157	101
Manufacturing	1,721	920	75	196	257	152	139	101
Garments.....	64	62	16	1	33	10	2
Textiles.....	1,507	762	52	149	247	102	122	90
Cotton goods.....	1,204	636	41	132	203	94	99	67
Knit goods.....	78	28	3	3	9	1	9	3
Yarn and twine.....	225	98	8	14	35	7	14	20
Other manufacturing.....	150	96	23	31	9	17	7	9
Laundries	264	122	38	40	13	13	18

¹ Excluding stores, in which actual hours worked are generally not reported.

TABLE II.—Hours worked less than scheduled, by scheduled hours.

Scheduled weekly hours.	Number of women reported.	Number of women who worked less than scheduled hours.	Number of women who worked less than scheduled hours to the extent of—		
			Under 10 hours.	10 and under 30 hours.	30 hours and over.
Total ¹	1,985	1,042	349	592	101
44 hours.....	69	62	16	44	2
Over 44 and under 48 hours.....	54	35	31	4
48 hours.....	157	63	20	38	5
Over 48 and under 52 hours.....	16	10	9	1
Over 52 and under 54 hours.....	40	31	19	12
54 hours.....	8	8	8
55 hours.....	1,322	675	189	408	78
Over 55 and under 60 hours.....	93	32	20	12
60 hours and over.....	226	126	45	65	16

¹ Excluding stores, in which actual hours worked are generally not reported.

TABLE III.—Scheduled hours of night workers, by industry.

Industry.	Number of establishments employing women at night.	Number of women working at night.	Number of women whose scheduled hours per night were—					Number of women whose scheduled hours per week were—				
			9	10	10½	11	12	50	53½	54	55	60
Total.....	14	299	2	5	44	170	78	5	44	2	170	78
Textile manufacturing.....	13	297	5	44	170	78	5	44	170	78
Cotton goods.....	6	189	5	44	105	40	5	44	105	40
Yarn and twine.....	7	108	5	65	38	5	65	38
Other manufacturing.....	1	2	2	2

TABLE IV.—*Week's earnings, by time worked, January, 1922 (white women).*

A. WOMEN WHOSE TIME WORKED WAS REPORTED IN HOURS.

Week's earnings.	Number of women reported.	Number of women earning each specified amount who worked—										
		Under 30 hours.	30 and under 44 hours.	44 and under 48 hours.	48 hours.	Over 48 and under 50 hours.	50 and under 55 hours.	55 hours.	Over 55 and under 60 hours.	60 hours.	Over 60 hours.	48 hours and over.
Total.....	2,247	265	390	303	38	89	250	650	94	120	48	1,289
Median earnings.....	\$8.65	\$3.70	\$6.40	\$8.25	\$12.80	\$9.05	\$9.35	\$10.00	\$10.70	\$10.95	\$9.55	\$10.00
Under \$4.....	193	147	31	8	1	7	3	3	7
\$4 and under \$6.....	273	45	132	39	7	20	28	1	57
\$6 and under \$8.....	476	35	124	87	4	25	55	107	15	9	15	230
\$8 and under \$10.....	543	26	57	105	3	26	69	187	25	33	12	355
\$10 and under \$12.....	332	3	26	33	7	13	39	142	29	32	8	270
\$12 and under \$15.....	278	4	13	20	15	14	42	117	19	26	8	241
\$15 and under \$18.....	96	3	3	8	4	3	14	42	5	12	2	82
\$18 and under \$25.....	50	1	4	3	4	1	8	22	1	5	1	42
\$25 and over.....	6	1	2	2	1	5

B. WOMEN WHOSE TIME WORKED WAS REPORTED IN DAYS.

Week's earnings.	Number of women reported.	Number of women earning each specified amount who worked on—					
		1 and under 3 days.	3 and under 5 days.	5 days.	5½ days.	6 days.	5 days and over.
Total.....	1,473	105	226	114	235	793	1,142
Median earnings.....	\$9.85	\$2.20	\$5.90	\$7.65	\$10.35	\$12.00	\$10.90
Under \$4.....	157	89	50	7	11	18
\$4 and under \$6.....	134	13	67	24	23	7	54
\$6 and under \$8.....	188	1	56	31	23	77	131
\$8 and under \$10.....	277	1	25	18	53	180	251
\$10 and under \$12.....	204	12	13	47	132	192
\$12 and under \$15.....	203	1	12	17	40	133	190
\$15 and under \$18.....	141	4	3	23	111	137
\$18 and under \$25.....	97	12	85	97
\$25 and over.....	72	1	3	68	72

TABLE V.—*Week's earnings, by time in the trade (white women).*

Week's earnings.	Number of women reported.	Number of women who had worked in their trade—									
		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.	5 and under 10 years.	10 and under 15 years.	15 and under 20 years.	20 years and over.
Total.....	2,680	238	208	271	355	251	204	539	281	148	185
Per cent distribution.....	100.0	8.9	7.8	10.1	13.2	9.4	7.6	20.1	10.5	58.5	6.9
Median earnings.....	\$9.30	\$6.15	\$7.90	\$8.10	\$8.70	\$9.65	\$10.20	\$9.90	\$11.75	\$11.60	\$11.20
Under \$4.....	163	40	16	27	26	9	9	18	10	3	5
\$4 and under \$6.....	284	74	32	35	36	26	16	37	15	7	6
\$6 and under \$8.....	504	58	59	70	75	37	43	83	32	23	24
\$8 and under \$10.....	591	50	52	58	88	66	29	137	49	26	36
\$10 and under \$12.....	420	12	25	36	63	51	39	93	40	20	41
\$12 and under \$15.....	378	3	17	32	46	40	31	73	67	32	37
\$15 and under \$18.....	193	1	6	8	15	12	31	57	26	17	20
\$18 and under \$25.....	115	1	5	6	8	6	32	33	13	11
\$25 and over.....	32	2	9	9	7	5

TABLE VI.—Weekly rates and actual week's earnings, by industry, January, 1922 (white women).

Amount.	Number of women for whom amount specified was weekly rate and number for whom it was actual earnings in—														
	All industries.		Manufacturing industries.										Textiles.		
			All manufacturing.		Food.		Garments.		Printing and publishing.		All textiles.	Cotton goods.			
	Weekly rate.	Actual earnings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earnings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earnings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earnings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earnings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earnings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earnings.	
Total... Median	1,765 \$10.20	1,765 \$9.75	739 \$9.20	739 \$8.35	38 \$10.55	38 \$10.20	6 (1)	6 (1)	29 \$17.70	29 \$17.30	589 \$9.00	589 \$8.55	411 \$8.90	411 \$8.05	
Under \$4....	2	120	2	75							1	2	65	45	
\$4 and under \$6....	22	140	16	96		3						16	73	14	51
\$6 and under \$8....	306	275	179	166	3	3					1	146	152	101	107
\$8 and under \$10....	514	392	268	193	8	11	1	2			1	239	172	189	136
\$10 and under \$12....	292	254	119	92	15	9	1		2	7	99	68	53	35	
\$12 and under \$15....	278	243	101	71	9	10	1	1	8	3	65	43	37	26	
\$15 and under \$18....	182	160	33	30	3	2	1	1	6	5	17	14	12	9	
\$18 and under \$25....	103	110	21	15			2	2	13	10	5	2	5	2	
\$25 and over.	66	71		1						1					

Amount.	Number of women for whom amount specified was weekly rate and number for whom it was actual earnings in—													
	Manufacturing industries—Con.						Stores.							
	Textiles—Continued.				Other manufacturing.		All stores.		General mercantile.		5-and-10-cent stores.		Laundries.	
	Knit goods.		Yarn and twine.											
Weekly rate.	Actual earnings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earnings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earnings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earnings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earnings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earnings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earnings.	
Total... Median	44 \$8.25	44 \$7.00	134 \$10.45	134 \$8.60	77 \$8.55	77 \$7.90	970 \$11.05	970 \$11.05	780 \$12.45	780 \$12.45	190 \$8.45	190 \$8.10	56 \$12.10	56 \$11.00
Under \$4....		5	2	15		9		41		28		13		4
\$4 and under \$6....		6	2	16		20	6	38	6	17		21		6
\$6 and under \$8....	19	16	26	29	30	10	120	102	51	45	69	57	7	7
\$8 and under \$10....	19	12	31	24	20	7	236	194	149	124	87	70	10	5
\$10 and under \$12....	5	4	41	29	2	8	163	152	138	131	25	21	10	10
\$12 and under \$15....			28	17	18	14	155	153	149	148	6	5	22	19
\$15 and under \$18....	1	1	4	4	6	8	143	125	142	125	1		6	5
\$18 and under \$25....					1	1	81	95	79	93	2	2	1	
\$25 and over.							66	70	66	69		1		

1 Not computed, owing to small number involved.

TABLE VII.—Year's earnings of women for whom 52-week pay-roll records were secured, by industry, 1921-22 (white women).

Year's earnings.	Number of women earning each specified amount in—													
	All industries.	Manufacturing industries.									Stores.			Laundries.
		All manufacturing.	Food.	Garments.	Printing and publishing.	Textiles.				Other manufacturing.	All stores.	General mercantile.	5-and-10-cent stores.	
						All textiles.	Cotton goods.	Knit goods.	Yarn and twine.					
Total... Median earnings..	961	734	11	70	10	634	353	112	169	9	208	172	36	19
	\$502	\$472	(¹)	\$683	(¹)	\$453	\$456	\$459	\$440	(¹)	\$668	\$731	\$438	\$675
Under \$300...	80	78	6			72	35	12	25					2
\$300 and under \$400....	180	161		3		156	90	25	41	2	15	7	8	4
\$400 and under \$500....	217	183		7		175	97	32	46	1	33	11	22	1
\$500 and under \$600....	160	127	1	12	2	112	64	25	23		32	27	5	1
\$600 and under \$700....	127	94	2	16	2	72	40	13	19	2	31	30	1	2
\$700 and under \$800....	78	41	2	10	4	23	14	4	5	2	33	33		4
\$800 and under \$900....	53	26		8	2	15	11	1	3	1	25	25		2
\$900 and under \$1,000....	26	14		10		4	2		2		10	10		2
\$1,000 and under \$1,200....	22	7		3		3			3	1	14	14		
\$1,200 and over.....	18	3		1		2			2		15	15		

¹ Not computed, owing to small number involved.

TABLE VIII.—Week's earnings, by time worked, January, 1922 (negro women).

A. Women whose time worked was reported in hours.

Week's earnings.	Number of women reported.	Number of women earning each specified amount who worked—										
		Under 30 hours.	30 and under 44 hours.	44 and under 48 hours.	48 hours.	Over 48 and under 50 hours.	50 and under 55 hours.	55 hours.	Over 55 and under 60 hours.	60 hours.	Over 60 hours.	48 hours and over.
Total.....	437	26	55	59	44	14	60	119	9	41	10	297
Median earnings.....	\$6.10	\$2.65	\$4.80	\$6.00	\$6.65	(¹)	\$5.90	\$6.60	(¹)	\$5.90	(¹)	\$6.35
Under \$4.....	43	26	13	1		1				2		3
\$4 and under \$6.....	160		35	29	6	7	33	16	6	19	9	96
\$6 and under \$8.....	209		5	22	34	6	23	97	3	18	1	182
\$8 and under \$10.....	17			4	3		3	5		2		13
\$10 and under \$2.....	6		2	2	1							2
\$12 and under \$15.....	2			1			1	1				1
\$15 and over.....												

TABLE VIII.—*Week's earnings, by time worked, January, 1922 (negro women)*—Contd.

B. WOMEN WHOSE TIME WORKED WAS REPORTED IN DAYS.

Week's earnings.	Number of women reported.	Number of women earning each specified amount who worked on—					
		1 and under 3 days.	3 and under 5 days.	5 days.	5½ days.	6 days.	5 days and over.
Total.....	202	8	56	27	10	101	138
Median earnings.....	\$5.50	(¹)	\$3.80	\$4.60	(¹)	\$6.50	\$6.30
Under \$4.....	49	8	34	7	7
\$4 and under \$6.....	72	21	16	35	51
\$6 and under \$8.....	50	1	2	6	41	49
\$8 and under \$10.....	22	2	3	17	22
\$10 and under \$12.....	5	1	4	5
\$12 and under \$15.....	4	4	4
\$15 and over.....

TABLE IX.—*Week's earnings of women who worked 48 hours and over or on 5 days and over, by industry, January, 1922 (negro women).*

Week's earnings.	Number of women reported.	Number of women earning each specified amount in—						Laundries.
		Manufacturing industries			Stores.			
		Total manufacturing.	Textiles.	Other manufacturing.	All stores.	General mercantile.	5-and-10-cent stores.	
Total.....	435	184	167	17	39	32	7	212
Median earnings.....	\$6.35	\$6.15	\$6.05	\$7.65	\$7.40	\$7.00	(¹)	\$6.35
Under \$4.....	10	3	3	7
\$4 and under \$6.....	147	81	79	2	4	2	2	62
\$6 and under \$8.....	231	85	77	8	18	18	128
\$8 and under \$10.....	35	13	7	6	11	7	4	11
\$10 and under \$12.....	7	2	1	1	3	2	1	2
\$12 and under \$15.....	5	3	3	2
\$15 and over.....

¹ Not computed, owing to small number involved.TABLE X.—*Week's earnings, by time in the trade (negro women).*

Week's earnings.	Number of women reporting.	Number of women who had been in the trade—									
		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.	5 and under 10 years.	10 and under 15 years.	15 and under 20 years.	20 years and over.
Total.....	374	24	26	56	61	53	43	64	30	11	6
Per cent distribution.....	100.0	6.4	7.0	15.0	16.3	14.2	11.5	17.1	8.0	2.9	1.6
Median earnings.....	\$6.20	\$5.70	\$5.90	\$6.05	\$6.25	\$6.00	\$6.30	\$6.65	\$6.25	(¹)	(¹)
Under \$4.....	41	3	3	9	6	5	6	3	4	2
\$4 and under \$6.....	119	12	11	18	17	22	11	14	8	5	1
\$6 and under \$8.....	182	8	10	26	33	24	22	37	15	4	3
\$8 and under \$10.....	21	1	1	3	3	2	3	6	1	1
\$10 and under \$12.....	8	1	2	3	2
\$12 and under \$15.....	3	1	1	1

¹ Not computed, owing to small number involved.

TABLE XI.—Weekly rates and actual week's earnings, by industry, January, 1922 (negro women).

Amount.	Number of women for whom amount specified was weekly rate and number for whom it was actual earnings in—															
	All industries.		Manufacturing industries.						Stores.						Laundries.	
			All manufac- turing.		Textiles.		Other manufac- turing.		All stores.		General mercan- tile.		5-and-10-cent stores.			
	Weekly rate.	Actual earn- ings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earn- ings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earn- ings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earn- ings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earn- ings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earn- ings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earn- ings.	Weekly rate.	Actual earn- ings.
Total.....	586	586	218	218	205	205	13	13	49	49	40	40	9	9	319	319
Median.....	\$6.40	\$6.05	\$6.35	\$5.70	\$6.25	\$5.60	(¹)	(¹)	\$6.95	\$6.80	\$6.90	\$6.80	(¹)	(¹)	\$6.35	\$6.10
Under \$4.....	17	90	8	30	8	30				8		6		2	9	52
\$4 and under \$6.....	175	195	80	94	80	91		3	5	5	2	3	3	2	90	96
\$6 and under \$8.....	343	257	118	84	107	76		11	8	19	25	19	1		199	154
\$8 and under \$10.....	34	29	10	8	9	7		1	1	11	11	7	4	4	13	10
\$10 and under \$12.....	10	9	2	2	1	1		1	1	4	3	3	2	1	4	4
\$12 and under \$15.....	5	5							3	3	3	3			2	2
\$15 and over.....	2	1													2	1

¹ Not computed, owing to small number involved.

TABLE XII.—*Week's earnings, by industry, January, 1921 (white women).*

Week's earnings.	Number of women earning each specified amount in—													
	All industries.	Manufacturing industries.								Stores.			Laundries.	
		All manufacturing.	Food.	Garments.	Printing and publishing.	Textiles.				Other manufacturing.	All stores.	General mercantile.		5-and-10-cent stores.
						All textiles.	Cotton goods.	Knit goods.	Yarn and twine.					
Total..	4,277	3,068	76	166	42	2,735	1,657	355	723	49	1,120	929	191	89
Median earnings..	\$9.15	\$8.30	\$9.00	\$9.45	\$17.65	\$8.10	\$8.25	\$7.60	\$8.00	\$12.25	\$11.75	\$12.50	\$8.70	\$12.80
Under \$4.....	379	335	3	7	2	319	167	57	95	4	43	26	17	1
\$4 and under \$6.....	499	459	11	14	1	432	258	62	112	1	38	29	9	2
\$6 and under \$8.....	753	636	14	37	583	351	76	156	2	107	60	47	10
\$8 and under \$10.....	783	568	16	29	1	517	323	61	133	5	206	138	68	9
\$10 and under \$12.....	655	460	10	19	4	415	241	62	112	12	179	150	29	16
\$12 and under \$15.....	577	352	18	35	6	285	182	25	78	8	204	189	15	21
\$15 and under \$18.....	333	142	3	14	9	108	72	12	24	8	176	171	5	15
\$18 and under \$25.....	232	112	1	11	17	74	62	12	9	106	105	1	14
\$25 and over.....	66	4	2	2	1	1	61	61	1

TABLE XIII.—*Week's earnings, by industry, January, 1921 (negro women).*

Week's earnings.	Number of women earning each specified amount in—							
	All industries.	Manufacturing industries.			Stores.			Laundries.
		All manufacturing.	Textiles.	Other manufacturing.	All stores.	General mercantile.	5-and-10-cent stores.	
Total.....	883	326	285	41	51	42	9	506
Median earnings.....	\$6.20	\$5.55	\$5.50	\$6.05	\$7.60	\$7.25	(¹)	\$6.35
Under \$2.....	30	18	13	5	1	1	11
\$2 and under \$4.....	74	46	44	2	2	2	26
\$4 and under \$6.....	288	133	120	13	7	7	148
\$6 and under \$8.....	386	94	79	15	21	20	1	271
\$8 and under \$10.....	71	27	22	5	12	6	6	32
\$10 and under \$12.....	15	6	5	1	3	1	2	6
\$12 and under \$15.....	12	2	2	3	3	7
\$15 and over.....	7	2	2	5

¹ Not computed, owing to small number involved.

TABLE XIV.—Weekly rate, by industry, January, 1921 (white women).

Weekly rate.	Number of women receiving each specified amount in—													
	All industries.	Manufacturing industries.									Stores.			Laundries.
		All manufacturing.	Food.	Garments.	Printing and publishing.	Textiles.				Other manufacturing.	All stores.	General mercantile.	5-and-10-cent stores.	
						All textiles.	Cotton goods.	Knit goods.	Yarn and twine.					
Total.....	1,882	708	26	3	42	610	442	22	146	27	1,100	920	180	74
Median rate.....	\$11.40	\$10.30	\$11.20	(¹)	\$18.45	\$9.85	\$9.70	\$11.00	\$10.25	\$15.50	\$12.20	\$12.65	\$9.25	\$12.70
\$4 and under \$6.....	30	18	18	6	12	12	10	2
\$6 and under \$8.....	176	90	88	67	3	18	77	34	43	9
\$8 and under \$10.....	457	223	2	219	178	4	37	221	144	77	8
\$10 and under \$12.....	356	143	8	1	133	81	4	48	200	166	34	13
\$12 and under \$15.....	387	123	7	2	109	69	11	29	1	236	218	18	23
\$15 and under \$18.....	242	45	5	5	20	18	2	9	188	184	4	9
\$18 and under \$25.....	166	52	3	8	22	22	14	102	100	2	12
\$25 and over.....	68	4	1	2	24	1	1	3	64	64

¹ Not computed, owing to small number involved.

TABLE XV.—*Weekly rate, by industry, January, 1921 (negro women).*

Weekly rate.	Number of women receiving each specified amount in—							
	All industries.	Manufacturing industries.			Stores.			Laundries.
		All manufacturing.	Textiles.	Other manufacturing.	All stores.	General mercantile.	5-and-10-cent stores.	
Total	677	234	226	8	50	41	9	333
Median rate	\$6.70	\$7.00	\$6.95	(¹)	\$7.65	\$7.25	(¹)	\$6.50
Under \$4	18	8	8	1	1	9
\$4 and under \$6	134	43	43	1	1	90
\$6 and under \$8	401	124	120	4	27	26	1	250
\$8 and under \$10	93	51	49	2	13	7	6	29
\$10 and under \$12	15	4	2	2	3	1	2	8
\$12 and under \$15	13	4	4	3	3	6
\$15 and over	3	2	2	1

¹ Not computed, owing to small number involved.

APPENDIX C.

SCHEDULE FORMS USED IN THE COURSE OF THE SURVEY.

Form I.—Data from pay rolls; one card made out for each woman employee who appeared on the plant books during a normal week in January, 1922, and one in January, 1921.

F 8

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, WOMEN'S BUREAU.

Establishment.		Employee's No.		Department.					
Name.						Male.	Female.	Age.	
Address.						Conjugal condition.			
Occupation.						S.	M.	W.	N. R.
Rate of pay.	Piece.	Hour.	Day.	Week.	$\frac{1}{2}$ month.	Month.	Additions.		
		\$0.	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$		
Days worked.	Regular weekly hours.	Hours worked this period.	Overtime hours.	Undertime hours.	Earnings.		Deductions.		
					This period.	Computed for regular time.	\$		
Country of birth.		Began work.		Time at work.		In this trade.		This firm.	
		Age.							
At home.		Board.		Pay-roll period.					
			 Days ending.					

Form II.—Data from pay rolls; blanks made out for from 15 to 20 per cent of the women employed during the week scheduled in January, 1922; showing weeks' wages of the steadier worker over a period of 12 months, from January, 1921, to January, 1922.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, WOMEN'S BUREAU.

Agent Firm.....
 City.....
 Employee.....
 Occupation.....
 M..... F..... Race..... Earnings each week from to.....
 Rate: Piece Time Piece and time

	Date.	Wages.	Hours or days worked during week.	Hours or days paid for.	Slack or shut down.		Date.	Wages.	Hours or days worked during week.	Hours or days paid for.	Slack or shut down.
1	27
2	28
3	29
4	30
5	31
6	32
7	33
8	34
9	35
10	36
11	37
12	38
13	39
14	40
15	41
16	42
17	43
18	44
19	45
20	46
21	47
22	48
23	49
24	50
25	51
26	52

Total.....
 Av. weekly wage..... No. weeks worked.....
 Av. weekly wage for 52 weeks.....

Form III.—Data from women employees; the personal history material secured from these cards, which were filled in by the women in the plants scheduled, is transferred later to Form I, so as to make possible such correlations as age, experience, marital status, and nativity with wage and rates.

F. 10 U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, WOMEN'S BUREAU.

Establishment _____ Employee's No. _____ Department _____

Name _____ Male or Female _____

Address _____ Single, Married, Widowed, Separated, or Divorced _____

Country of Birth _____ Age _____

How old were you when you began to work for wages _____

How long have you been in this trade or business _____

How long have you been working for this firm _____

What is your regular work here _____

Schooling—Last grade completed _____

Do you live with your family _____ With other relatives _____

Do you board or room with persons not relatives _____

Form IV.—Data secured from each firm scheduled, indicating certain plant policies.

F. 12 U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR—WOMEN'S BUREAU.

Firm _____ Product _____

1. Wks. closed _____ 2. Lgth. pay per _____ 3. Vac. pay* _____

4. E. P. Date _____				L. P. Date _____			
5. Hours: { Day _____ Sat. _____ Wk. _____				Hours: { Day _____ Sat. _____ Wk. _____			
{ Night _____ Wk. _____				{ Night _____ Wk. _____			
6. Bonus* _____ Ovtme.* _____ Fines* _____				Bonus* _____ Ovtme.* _____ Fines* _____			
7. Basis payment irrg.* _____				Basis payment irrg.* _____			
8. Day—				Day—			
	Wht.	Col.	Tot.		Wht.	Co.	Tot.
Men	_____	_____	_____	Men	_____	_____	_____
Women	_____	_____	_____	Women	_____	_____	_____
Minors	_____	_____	_____	Minors	_____	_____	_____
Total	_____	_____	_____	Total	_____	_____	_____
Night—				Night—			
Men	_____	_____	_____	Men	_____	_____	_____
Women	_____	_____	_____	Women	_____	_____	_____
Total	_____	_____	_____	Total	_____	_____	_____

Form V.—Data secured from plant inspections.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, WOMEN'S BUREAU,
FACTORY SCHEDULE (ALABAMA).

1. Name of factory..... Address.....
Person interviewed.....
2. Product..... Position.....
3. Number employed: Day. Night.
 White. Colored. Total. White. Colored. Total.
Men..... Men.....
Women..... Women.....
Minors.....
Total..... Total.....
4. Firm's schedule hours:
Daily: Begin..... End..... Lunch period..... Rest period..... Total.....
Saturday: "..... "..... "..... "..... ".....
Regular weekly number of day..... Total weekly hours.....
Daily: Begin..... End..... Lunch period..... Rest period..... Total.....
Saturday: "..... "..... "..... "..... ".....
Regular weekly number of days..... Total weekly hours.....
5. Seasonal:
6. Employment policy:
Employment manager.... Centr. method, supt, foreman other.... Records... Lab. Trnv.....
7. Subcontract shop.....
Home work process..... In plant..... Same rates..... Var.....

BUILDINGS.

8. Number..... Mat..... Entire..... Part.....
Special roof construction.....
9. Stairways:

No.	Location.	Open.	Encl. Wall.	Wind-ing.	Nat. lt. adqt.	Hnd.r.l. O. K.	Nar.	Mat.	Clean.	Rpf. O. K.	Other.

10. Exists: Outside no..... Open out..... In..... Slide..... Obst..... Indr..... Ext.mrkd
Well..... Firedoor..... Where..... Spklr..... Extg.....
Bkt..... Hose.....
11. Elevators:
Passenger: No..... Guard..... Oprt..... Empl. Rstret.....
Freight: No..... Guard..... Oprt..... Empl. Rstret.....
Agent..... Date.....

WORKROOMS.

12. Dept.	Fl.	A. Floors.				B. Walls.			C. Ceilings.			Crdng.
		Mate-rial.	Repair.	Cln.	Other.	Repair.	Col.	Cln. Frq.	Repair.	Low.	Cln. Frq.	

24. Toilets: Kind..... Sep..... Flush, hnd... Auto. seat... Repr... Plb. cl... Pap... Inst...
 Description.....

No. rooms.	Total No. seats.	Fl.	Loc.	Mat. fl.	Sern.	Deg.	Sngl. seat rm.	Row in room.	Room ceil.	Seat encl.	Nat. vent. O. K.	Vent. oth. room.	Art. vent. O. K.	Lgt. nat. O.K.	Lgt. art.	Clean.
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

24a. Total number seats..... Number women per seat.....
 Cng: by girls..... Men..... Jant..... Jantrs..... Special person..... No. resp.....
 Swpt. reg..... Freq..... Wrk. hrs..... : Scrub reg..... Freq..... Wrk. hrs.....
 Special note.....

SERVICE AND WELFARE.

25. Lunchroom..... Combined with..... Location..... Kind.....
 Equipment..... Cln..... Lt. nat..... Art..... Vent. O. K.....
 Prov. hot food, drink only..... Ckng conv.....
 Supr..... If none,..... Description.....

26. Rest room..... Combined with..... Location..... Equip.....
 Cln..... Lt. nat..... Art..... Vent. O. K.....
 Supr..... If none,..... Description.....

27. Cloakroom..... Combined with..... Loc..... Conv..... Lkr..... Shlv.....
 Hngr..... Wl Hk..... Seats..... Cln..... Lt. nat..... Art..... Vent. O. K..... Supr.....
 If none,..... Lkr..... Shlv..... Hngr..... Wl Hk.....
 Description.....

28. Health Service: Hosp..... Chg. of..... Dr. reg..... On call..... 1st aid.....
 Chg. of..... Med. exam..... Health rec.....
 Acc. rec..... Comp..... Nature acc. to wm.....
 Special note.....

29. Other welfare:



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. (Illustrated by colored maps.) 51 pp. 1921. (Supplement, 1923.)
- No. 17. Women's Wages in Kansas. 104 pp. 1921.
- No. 18. Health Problems of Women in Industry. (Reprint of paper published in the Nation's Health, May, 1921.) 11 pp. 1921.
- No. 19. Iowa Women in Industry. 73 pp. 1922.
- 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. 72 pp. 1923.
- No. 26. Women in Arkansas Industries. 1923.
- No. 27. The Occupational Progress of Women. 37 pp. 1922.
- No. 28. Women's Contributions in the Field of Inventions. 51 pp. 1923.
- No. 29. Women in Kentucky Industries. 114 pp. 1923.
- No. 30. The Share of Wage-earning Women in Family Support. 170 pp. 1923.
- No. 31. What Industry Means to Women Workers. 10 pp. 1923.
- No. 32. Women in South Carolina Industries. 128 pp. 1923.
- No. 33. Proceedings of the Women's Industrial Conference. 190 pp. 1923.
- No. 34. Women in Alabama Industries.
- No. 35. Women in Missouri Industries.
- No. 36. Radio Talks on Women in Industry.
- No. 37. Women in New Jersey Industries.
- No. 38. Married Women in Industry.
- No. 39. Domestic Workers and Their Employment Relations.
- First Annual Report of the Director. 1919. (Out of print.)
- Second Annual Report of the Director. 1920.
- Third Annual Report of the Director. 1921.
- Fourth Annual Report of the Director. 1922.
- Fifth Annual Report of the Director. 1923.