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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BULLETIN OF THE WOMEN'S BUREAU, NO. 89

**THE INDUSTRIAL EXPERIENCE
OF WOMEN WORKERS AT THE
SUMMER SCHOOLS, 1928 TO 1930**

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[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.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

W. N. DOAK, SECRETARY

WOMEN'S BUREAU

MARY ANDERSON, Director

BULLETIN OF THE WOMEN'S BUREAU, No. 89

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BY

GLADYS L. PALMER, Ph. D.



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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

WOMEN'S BUREAU

BULLETIN OF THE WOMEN'S BUREAU, No. 24

THE INDUSTRIAL EXPERIENCE
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SUMMER SCHOOLS, 1928 TO 1930

BY
GLADYS F. PALMER, Ph.D.



UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

WASHINGTON, D.C.

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR,
WOMEN'S BUREAU,
Washington, June 10, 1931.

SIR: I have the honor to submit herewith a report on the industrial experience of women students at the four summer schools for women in industry—at Bryn Mawr, Barnard, Wisconsin, and the Southern School in North Carolina—prepared by Dr. Gladys L. Palmer, under the direction of the Affiliated Summer Schools for Women Workers in Industry.

The report constitutes an account of the work history and economic status of 609 women whose presence at the summer schools in itself testifies to their having experiences, and perhaps personalities, of more than ordinary interest. A considerable number were foreign-born garment workers in New York City; another group were southern textile workers. Thus the report is recognized as covering one phase of the bureau's many-sided interests and a phase not easily covered in any other way.

Respectfully submitted.

MARY ANDERSON, *Director.*

Hon. W. N. DOAK,
Secretary of Labor.

FOREWORD

During the changes characteristic of its growth, industrial society has continually endeavored to analyze the workings of its own intricate mechanisms and to gage its performance in terms of human values. This task of self-analysis, by whatever name we may call it, is urgent and essential if the members of industrial society are to learn to control intelligently the system of which they are a part. Workers' education plays a significant rôle in this continuous process of research. The value of this experimental study of the industrial experience of a small group of women workers must be judged in terms of its usefulness to the educational process in the participating schools no less than by its contribution to our knowledge of the workers' lives and of their economic and social status.

The following monograph furnishes little basis for broad generalization. To understand the mechanisms of modern economic life requires investigation on a much broader scale into the technical workings and interrelations of organized institutions—of shops, factories, farms, markets, and financial institutions—of large industrial groups, of whole industries, and of the State itself in its economic aspects. For this task there are required the mass measurements and descriptions made possible by the statistical method and the broad generalizations of economic theory. Economic statistics is making gradual progress toward the more adequate measurement of the trends and mass movements which alternately disturb and restore the "economic balance," frequently bringing to naught many hard-won achievements and well-laid plans. In studying the problems of labor, statistical tools have been employed on a large scale in the accumulation of vast stores of data on wages, hours, employment, costs and standards of living, and industrial relations. The scientific use of this information is making us increasingly aware of the rate and direction of the changes to which we must adjust. As the quality of information improves, there is reason to believe that in striving for control we may in part be able to anticipate these industrial changes.

Yet it seems clear that an evaluation of the technical efficiency of industrialism must be supplemented by analysis in terms of human values. These values can not be determined exclusively by inference from mass statistics. The attempt to discover the human significance of modern economic institutions does not end with census volumes, with tabular reports, or with statistical compilations. The meaning of individual experience is largely lost in the midst of the artificial constructs of averages and aggregates. A more intimate type of examination and portrayal of individual behavior is needed to supplement researches into broad economic and social movements. Yet nothing in social science is more elusive than the experience of the

individual. Clearly this experience is both unique and typical. To bridge the gap between these two is always difficult; we fall into error when the unique is lost in the typical, and likewise when it is confused with the typical.

Detailed studies of the individual experience of industrial workers are few in number.¹ The problems in such studies are those of the psychologist and sociologist as well as of the economist. An interesting psychological approach has been made recently by Hersey in an intimate study of the work experience of a group of Pennsylvania shopmen.² The present monograph on workers' experiences is one of the growing group of studies which illuminate and correct our impressions of mass movements.

This study was proposed and carried through for both pedagogical and scientific reasons by the cooperating industrial summer schools. It was initiated in 1928 by the economics faculty of the Bryn Mawr Summer School in recognition of the need by both instructors and students for more intimate and systematic knowledge of the experience of the industrial women composing the summer-school group. After the preliminary schedule was developed by the instructors and tested out in the classes, the Wisconsin, Barnard, and Southern Summer School groups agreed to participate in the venture as an interschool project. It is not claimed that the data represent anything beyond the experience of the particular group of workers studied. The reader can scarcely examine these materials, however, without obtaining a more vivid picture of the meaning of industrial employment in the lives of the girls whose experiences are recorded. Many of the questions touched are in the twilight zone in which little or nothing is known. The data in this study are strongly colored by the subjective, but this very quality lends a special significance to the testimony presented.

The summer-school study is of some importance as a methodological experiment, although this phase of the project has not been stressed in the present manuscript. The questionnaire was revised repeatedly during its use for three successive years by the summer-school economics faculties, and there is available a substantial body of information regarding the relative precision of the questions asked. Each schedule was filled out in a personal interview or in a small group conference. The instructors enjoyed unique personal contacts with the students, and the check-ups on the reliability of memories and inaccuracies of verbal statements furnished excellent opportunity for determining the value of information obtained in this manner. It is to be hoped that further analysis of the methodology of such studies will be made in order to generalize the experience of various investigations. Com-

¹ A recent detailed study of the individual and family experience of workers was undertaken by Dr. Ewan Clague for the Yale Institute of Human Relations. For a partial report in advance of a forthcoming bulletin, see Clague and Couper, "The Readjustment of Workers Displaced by Plant Shutdowns," *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Vol. XLV, pp. 309-346, February, 1931. For reports on similar studies concerned principally with the unemployed, Isador Lubin, "The Absorption of the Unemployed by American Industry," *Brookings Institution Pamphlet Series*, Vol. 1, No. 3, 1929, and Robert J. Myers, "Occupational Readjustment of Displaced Skilled Workmen," *Journal of Political Economy*, Vol. XXXVII, No. 4, pp. 473-490, August, 1929. Numerous studies of unemployed groups during the past year have made use of questionnaires comparable in many respects with the summer-school schedule. An interesting collection of individual-experience records has been brought together under the auspices of the National Federation of Settlements in "Case Studies of Unemployment," edited by Marion Elderton, University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1931.

² See Rex B. Hersey's forthcoming book to be published by the Industrial Research Department, Wharton School of Finance and Commerce, University of Pennsylvania. See also Hersey's various articles, including "Cycles in Workers' Efforts and Emotions," *Engineers and Engineering*, Vol. XLVI, July, 1929, No. 7, pp. 162-166, and "A Monotonous Job in an Emotional Crisis," *Personnel Journal*, Vol. IX, No. 4, December, 1930, pp. 290-296.

parisons of questionnaire and interview experience among groups of workers selected in other ways should be made.³ It would be interesting to try a similar schedule among the more random selection of workers in an operating shop or factory, or among a group of the unemployed.

So far as I know, this study represents the first experiment in this country with this type of questionnaire as an integral part of an instructional plan in workers' education. Direct participation in the fact-finding process emphasized to each student how untrustworthy the individual's untutored perception of her own experience is likely to be. Each student compared her recollections of her own experience with the assembled memories of the group, and the sharp distinction between belief and impression on the one hand and verifiable fact on the other was brought out in bold relief in the discussion sections. Difficulties in verification of impressions emphasized the relativity of facts themselves.

The participating schools and the many persons who shared in this study are deeply indebted to Doctor Palmer and to her associates for their efforts in the preparation of the following report. The sponsoring committee and the administrative staff of the affiliated summer schools regard the present monograph in some measure as a progress report on the continuing research efforts of the schools. Although the scientific value of the conclusions reached is limited by the small size and special character of the group of workers studied, there is strong agreement among the economics staffs of the several schools that the venture has been well justified from the educational point of view.

MEREDITH B. GIVENS,
Chairman of Subcommittee Sponsoring this Study,
Educational Council, Affiliated Summer Schools.

Social Science Research Council,
230 Park Avenue, New York City, July, 1931.

³ Methodologically this study and many of its findings may be compared with various well-planned community labor surveys. For a good example, see "A Community Labor Survey," *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. XXVIII, No. 24, February, 1931. See also a study of "The Occupational Experience of One Hundred Unemployed Persons in Bloomington," *College of Commerce and Finance, Indiana University*, July, 1931, and a forthcoming report by Charlotte Carr covering the experience of a representative group of unemployed to be published by the Charity Organization Society of New York City.



A UNIT GROUP ON THE CAMPUS, BRYN MAWR SUMMER SCHOOL, 1930

THE INDUSTRIAL EXPERIENCE OF WOMEN WORKERS AT THE SUM- MER SCHOOLS, 1928 TO 1930

Part I.—PURPOSE OF THE STUDY¹

Few studies have been made of workers' industrial experience over a period of years, probably because the material is difficult to obtain and even more difficult to interpret. The way was pointed to the possibilities of studying the trade experience of women workers in the summer schools by Dr. Amy Hewes in an analysis of the job histories of 97 students at the Bryn Mawr Summer School in 1925.² The present study has been undertaken with two purposes in mind: First, to assist the teachers of the summer schools in understanding the background experience of the students with whom they are working and thus to adapt their program and teaching methods to the problems at hand; and second, to build up a body of information concerning the trade experience of a selected group of women workers from the important women's trades and from all parts of the country. It may be interesting to note that a similar analysis of industrial experience on a more elaborate scale is used by teachers of workers' classes in the Academy of Labor at Frankfort, Germany, as a basis for planning the entire curriculum and activities of worker-students. In line with other groups experimenting with modern educational methods, the summer schools have attempted to group students in terms of their industrial experience, to develop classes, forums, and dramatic work around projects of special interest arising out of that experience, and to link the work of the schools with the activities and opportunities available in the communities from which students come and to which they return. Such a program requires a continuous analysis of the problems of women workers in industry and the relation of those problems to their background experience.

The statistical sample, so to speak, was set by the admissions committees of the four summer schools for industrial workers covered in this study: The Bryn Mawr Summer School at Bryn Mawr College, the Barnard Summer School at Barnard College, the Wisconsin Summer School at the University of Wisconsin, and the Southern Summer School at Arden, N. C. The schools recruit students from

¹ This study is essentially a joint product. It was sponsored by the educational department of the Affiliated Summer Schools and the members of the economics faculties at all the summer schools for workers in industry. I am indebted to Dr. Meredith B. Givens, of the Social Science Research Council, who proposed the study, and to Miss Hilda W. Smith, director, and Miss Eleanor Coit, educational secretary, of the Affiliated Summer Schools for Women in Industry at 218 Madison Avenue, New York City. I am also indebted to Miss Ernestine Friedmann, Dr. Alice Shoemaker, Dr. Theresa Wolfson, Mrs. Louise Leonard McLaren, and Dr. Lois MacDonald, of the Affiliated and Southern Summer Schools, for their interest and cooperation.

The assistants at the 1930 Bryn Mawr summer school helped in preparing the schedules for statistical analysis. I am especially indebted to Miss Halo Chadwick, Miss Elizabeth Bruce, and Miss Helen Herrmann for the major work of compilation of tables, and to Mrs. George Hourwich for assistance in preparing the material for publication.—Gladys L. Palmer.

² Hewes, Amy. Changing Jobs. U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Bul. 54, 1926.

all the women's industrial occupations and to a smaller extent from domestic service, trade, clerical work, and other lines of employment. Students must have shown some qualities of leadership and interest in workers' education or other community activities to be sponsored as candidates by local committees. The schools attempt to get a wide range of occupations, nationalities, trade-union or other community organization affiliations, and political opinions. Scholarships are raised to help to cover the expenses of students while at the schools, but practically all the workers must sacrifice earnings while they are there, and a significant number of them have to lose their jobs and often experience some difficulty in getting other jobs when they return. On the whole, therefore, the group studied is a selected but widely varied group of women workers who have shown an intelligent interest in their own economic problems.

There were, in all, 609 students at the four summer schools whose interest and cooperation made this study possible. They ransacked their memories to bring to light what they could of interest on the questions asked. Workers are not given to the keeping of records, so a high degree of precision is not attained in the schedules. No check-up through pay-roll figures or other records was possible. Although an effort was made to secure uniformity of interpretation, each year and from year to year, faculty changes naturally caused some differences in this respect. The study, therefore, is not presented as a statistical picture of exactly what happened in all the details of the lives of 609 industrial workers but as a general view of working conditions and experience—or what is equally important, the workers' mental picture of that experience—for as interesting a group of 609 women workers as ever could be brought together.

Part II.—BACKGROUND EXPERIENCE OF SUMMER-SCHOOL STUDENTS

The story of the development of summer schools for women workers has been told elsewhere,³ but a brief statement of the sectional, occupational, and nationality differences found in the four summer schools studied will aid in an understanding of the background experience of these women workers and of the larger groups they represent.

The Barnard Summer School is a nonresident school, drawing its students entirely from the metropolitan area of New York City. The needle trades furnish a majority of the workers at Barnard, together with a group of workers from scattered miscellaneous trades. Almost all the Barnard students are foreign born or of foreign parentage, and they constitute a special teaching problem from the point of view of language handicap. The trade-union and political affiliations of this largely Russian Jewish group and its breadth of industrial experience abroad as well as in this country add unique problems to classroom work. Possibly no group of women workers in American industry more clearly illustrates the influence of childhood backgrounds and emotional experiences on later industrial activity and attitudes.

Excerpts from two autobiographies are quoted here to aid in an understanding of the psychology of this large group of women workers who have come from eastern European countries.⁴ The first draws an interesting contrast between two Russian groups:

When I was a child my parents lived in a small village in Russia. As a rule the Jews of old Russia did not mingle with Gentile people. But I, a child full of play and with no other playmates, became attached to a peasant family who had five children.

This family lived in a house consisting of one room with an earthen floor and with an oven dug out of the ground. They used to sleep all together on piles of hay spread out on the ground. Their food consisted of boiled cabbage with black bread and a lot of onions.

Now, although I did not get any luxuries in my home, yet we lived in a 3-room apartment and had furniture and better food. Nevertheless, I spent all my time with my peasant friends. My parents, being religious, did not like this idea at all, yet they tolerated it.

What I liked most about this family was the freedom they gave their children. For instance, the children could go around barefoot, and my friend, Marutka, used to wear just a half skirt without a shirt or blouse. Her brothers wore just pants and no shirts. I, like all children, was foolish and envied them so.

³ Smith, Hilda W., *Women Workers at the Bryn Mawr Summer School*, published by the Affiliated Summer Schools and the American Association for Adult Education, 1929; Eager Feet, *Journal of Adult Education*, October, 1930; The Bryn Mawr Summer School of 1929, *American Federationist*, September, 1929. Hill, Helen D., *The Effect of the Bryn Mawr Summer School as Measured in the Activities of its Students*, published by Affiliated Summer Schools and American Association for Adult Education, 1929. Friedmann, Ernestine L., *Our City Has Its Own Summer School for Workers*, *American Federationist*, November, 1930. Schwartztrauber, E. E., *A Workers' Summer School (Wisconsin)*, *The American Teacher*, November, 1930. Herstein, Lillian, *The Significance of the Southern Summer School for Women Workers in the Workers' Education Movement*, *The American Teacher*, January, 1931. Bonner, Marion, *Behind the Southern Textile Strikes*, *The Nation*, Oct. 2, 1929. Coit, Eleanor G., *Industry Goes to School*, *The Woman's Press*, December, 1929; *Six Little Schools at Bryn Mawr*, *The American Teacher*, February, 1931.

⁴ "Misery Awakened Me," *Barnard Record*, 1930. "My Childhood," *Bryn Mawr Outcrop*, 1929.

One day the girl, Marutka, got sick. Now when a child was sick in my family we used to have doctors and medicines and my parents would be up nights, whereas there the mother and father went to work in the fields early in the morning and left that poor friend of mine alone without any medicine, baths, or food until she died of neglect. The loss of my friend, Marutka, made me miserable, and in my misery I despised the ignorance of those free peasants.

The second makes equally clear the differences in character and temperament within a family:

I was born in Kalarash, Bessarabia, which was then one of the Russian States, in the house of a middle-class family. My parents were comparatively comfortable.

We were 8 children—1 boy and 7 girls, of whom I am the fifth.

My father was a very tall, handsome, broad-shouldered, stern man. I remember whenever some of our neighbors' children and ourselves would play in our house when my father was away, our childish little voices could be heard all over the house. My mother, who was quite a young woman, helped us with our games. Also my father's mother, who lived with us and was rather old but very good natured and humorous, would tell us tales which were very amusing, but when father was at home we were restricted. He thought on different lines. He trained us to respect our elders, especially our parents. His way of teaching made us fear him.

Not so my mother. She was very young, and beautiful in soul as well as in body. She was not very religious, but fine in character. Whenever father would scold us she would leave the room, for she could not stand his severity. He had quite a large business, which he practically conducted alone. When he came home after a bad day's business, he always yelled and scolded us for every little offense. When I grew older, it dawned on me that business troubles must have been the cause of my father's strictness.

He was a very religious, learned, orthodox man, who had peculiar ideas. He believed in educating boys, and since he had an education he gave all that was in his power to my brother. My older sisters received a very limited education. My younger sisters, who did not come to America, were given a fairly good education, whereas I received next to nothing, because of conditions that arose then.

My father's sisters had emigrated to America long before. When they learned of certain discriminations in Russia, they asked father to come to America. Since he had very little money left, he decided to send three of his older children. He could not think of parting with his only son, who was older than I. I, therefore, was the victim. I say the victim, because it robbed me of my childhood, which had a tremendous effect on my life.

Denial as a child had filled me with slow accumulating rage. Later discipline in the shop had found me utterly intractable. I never formed any personal bonds with humanity in particular. I had grown into a solitary being. The spontaneous expressions of self that bind men into a solidarity of common understanding and hope were locked away. I never offered, nor apparently returned, any marks of sympathy. I rarely expressed anything except occasional irrepressible scorn, lashing at individuals or acts that conspicuously displeased me. This had occurred more than once, whenever I found myself among a group of people. However, now that I am at my full matured age, this feeling recurs against my will.

The Southern Summer School, on the other hand, draws its students exclusively from the Southern States, and all but a few of these are native born of native parentage. They work for the most part in the textile industry, and they receive low pay and have the longest hours of all the groups studied. Their industrial experience records are unusually interesting, for many of them went to work while very young at low wages, and their maximum earnings after years of experience are below the average in the older industrialized communities where more job opportunities obtain. There is no language handicap at the Southern Summer School, but the wide difference in point of view between the workers from such metropolitan centers as Richmond and Baltimore, with their varied social and economic opportunities, and the workers from isolated mill

villages constitutes a special problem. The southern workers come predominantly from isolated rural communities. A picture of the difficulties under which some of them grew from childhood to enter industry is given in the following autobiographical sketch:⁵

I was born on a farm in western North Carolina. We raised corn, potatoes, cane, and tobacco. We also had lots of hay to take care of. My two older sisters married and my two older brothers got jobs and left home to make wages. That left just my younger sister and me out of a family of eight large enough to work. My mother's health failed her and so my sister and I had most of the housework to do and to help father on the outside. We got up at 3.30 or 4 o'clock every morning to get the housework done, the cows milked, and the chickens fed, to get to the field early. We would hoe corn all day long, come home at night and help mother get supper, and very often she would have beans picked or apples gathered so we could string beans after supper or peel apples to dry. I have helped father saw wood time after time and I have driven his team of horses day after day, hauling rock, hay, corn, and other things. After we got our crop planted father would get a job somewhere and he would tell us what he wanted done. So mother, sister, and I would do the work.

The Wisconsin Summer School draws students from the Middle West; the majority are native born of native or foreign parentage. Almost half of the women students at Wisconsin work in occupations in the miscellaneous trades, and almost one-fourth are in the clothing trades. Their experience in industry has usually been shorter and less varied and they have entered industry at a later age than students from the other schools. They form a small but active industrially-minded community in the larger summer session of the University of Wisconsin. Like many of the southern workers they, too, have recently come from rural communities and have a background experience that is different from that of workers in the older industrial and metropolitan centers. The poverty of many rural communities may be fundamentally the same, but a western frontier farm offers some interesting differences from those of the small upland farms of the South.⁶

I was born on a farm near Pine City, Minn. My parents are both Swedish. They came to the United States and bought 80 acres of unbroken land in the northern part of Minnesota, which then was a vast wilderness with the Indians roving through the woods. My father cleared enough land to build a log cabin. In this work my mother helped him. It was necessary for him to earn money to pay for land and improvements; so he left home and obtained employment on one of the railroads which were being built throughout the country. This left my mother alone, without friends or neighbors, excepting the Indians. By hard work and perseverance my parents now have a comfortable farm home.

My education was very limited. I attended the district school until I completed the seventh grade. At the close of school I obtained employment at a hotel as waitress. This was new and interesting to a young girl from the country. I made new friends and came in contact with different kinds of people. I recall my overwhelming joy and pride when I received my first check of \$20 for one month's wages. I remained in this employment for one year. Then I ventured to St. Paul, where employment was more available.

For five years I drifted from one occupation to another, but never felt satisfied. One day I read an advertisement in the newspaper, reading as follows: "Will teach beginners to operate power machine." I applied for the position and was accepted. At first I found the work very difficult, but as the days went by, I became more capable of handling the work and controlling my machine. I was soon taught how to make pockets, which is one of the most complicated operations on the coat. I took a great interest in my work and learned the different models very rapidly. I found the work I enjoyed, and I have been employed at this trade for eight years. But I find that my lack of education has put me at a

⁵ Southern Summer School Scrapbook, 1929.

⁶ "My Autobiography," Wisconsin Script, 1929.

disadvantage, both in my work and in my play. My aim now is to pick up my studies where I left them 12 years ago and continue my education.

While the experiences of foreign-born workers abroad and in this country are often the same, some differences arise when one compares the record of the Scandinavian groups who predominate in the Middle West with the eastern and southern European groups found in a community like New York City:⁷

My childhood was spent in a community in Milwaukee which was known for many years as Holland Hill. The inhabitants who had settled here had come to America from the Netherlands under practically the same circumstances as my grandfather and his family. My grandparents, not unlike many of their friends, owned a comfortable little home, a big garden, and some livestock, in a section of the Netherlands known as Zeeland. They were quite prosperous and happy.

One day my grandfather received a letter from his brother, who had journeyed to America a few months before. He wrote glowingly of the prosperity awaiting the immigrant in the "land of promise." Immediately a great unrest and a desire to emigrate to this new country of opportunity seized my grandfather and some of his friends and they formed immediate plans for departure.

My grandmother was not easily reconciled to the breaking up of her comfortable home, and protested vigorously, but to no avail—grandfather was adamant. So the property and livestock were sold, rare pictures which had been in the family for years were auctioned off to the highest bidder, locks of my grandmother's heavy, dark hair were cut off and sold, and even the gold clasps on her Sunday mantle had to be parted with. In Holland, a woman's station in life is determined by the fastenings on her cloak. If she is poor, these may be only ribbons; if she is in ordinary circumstances, the clasps may be brass or gold plated; but my grandmother had accumulated some worldly store, and so hers were gold set with garnets. She was very proud of them and it almost broke her heart to sell them, but even they had to go to get money for the new venture.

After three weeks on the ocean, and one week by rail from New York, grandfather and his friends, with their wives and families, arrived in Milwaukee, city of opportunities. The only opportunities for the accumulation of huge fortunes, however, were the jobs of sewer digging in the summer and wood cutting in the winter. Indeed, grandmother soon decided that America was the land of—promises.

They lived with friends on Holland Hill for a short time, and then rented a small cottage, which was nothing like their old home in Holland. Meanwhile, their resources dwindled rapidly, and soon they were merely existing "from hand to mouth." But in the summers they saved a little money and preserved food and meat to tide them over the coming winter. In a few years the demand for work improved; men went into carpentry and sod laying, worked in the railroad yards, and went into various other trades. Working and home conditions improved generally and the future looked brighter than it had since their arrival.

The little group of Hollanders decided that they would remain in the new country and began to establish their community institutions. They organized the Presbyterian Dutch Reformed Church and it immediately became the center of interest. Services were held five times on Sunday, the longest one lasting about two and a half hours. As soon as the children were able to talk they were taken to church and literally grew up under the wing of Gabriel. All this proved irksome to most of the small devotees who had to sit through these long services under the vigilant eyes of their elders; in summer they shifted perspiringly within the narrow confines of the seat, and in winter they huddled together with a hot brick at their feet to keep warm.

Meanwhile, the community prospered very slowly. The children went out to work as soon as they were old enough to do so. I remember my mother telling me that she went to work at 13 in a tailor shop, working from 7 in the morning until 6 at night.

The years have brought many changes. The Hollanders have gradually ventured beyond the confines of the Hill; to some degree the people have intermarried and moved away. Homes have deteriorated and families have moved to houses where there are modern conveniences. A few families still remain, but Holland Hill is no more, and many people do not even know where it was. The little "wooden shoe district" of Milwaukee is gone forever.

⁷ "Holland Hill," Wisconsin Script, 1928.

These three workers' summer schools serve particular communities or sections of the country, while the Bryn Mawr Summer School recruits students from all geographical sections of the country. It also brings students from abroad on foreign scholarships to exchange industrial experience and philosophy. Almost half of the Bryn Mawr group are foreign born. Somewhat more than half work in the needle trades. Less than one-fourth of the group are in the miscellaneous trades. In a sense, the Bryn Mawr group presents a composite picture of American women workers in industry, since it draws from such a variety of nationalities and trades and so many industrial communities. Wages, hours, and other conditions of employment for the Bryn Mawr students tend to be average in comparison with the other summer-schools studied. Many of the workers at Bryn Mawr as well as at the other schools have had interesting trade experience in some of the most critical economic situations where women have worked. Since the Bryn Mawr school aims to recruit half of its students from the organized trades, it has a wide representation from all the trade-unions in which women are active members. This makes for an interesting exchange of industrial and trade-union experience. All the sectional and nationality backgrounds found in the other schools are represented at Bryn Mawr. A group not illustrated before is especially typical of the eastern part of the country, the New England textile workers, whose trade experience may be illustrated in the following excerpts from autobiographical material:⁸

I got my first job when I was 14, in a Rhode Island silk mill once reputed to be the largest under one roof in the world. I was very proud to be working and contributing \$7.50 to the family income, for that was hastening the time when my mother, who was weaving in a cotton mill, could stay at home. I enjoyed my work as a quiller (making filling for the weavers) and remember how I used to hurry to fill as many boxes as the other girls. I also remember that I early learned to be frightened by anyone in a supervisory capacity and was appalled at having to use a toilet which exposed one's feet and legs to every passer-by.

A new department was being installed and I was sent to work there. Here I learned to reel silk into skeins and found it difficult but enjoyed the easier discipline. For about nine months I worked here, then left when my mother decided to teach me to weave.

Young boys and girls under 15 were not allowed to weave, so I, not yet being 15, was put to filling batteries; that is, putting bobbins in an automatic device at one side of the loom which feeds them into the shuttle as it empties. The weave shop was very large, which gave me a feeling of being lost, at first; the noise was tremendous, but I soon became accustomed to that. I enjoyed the jolly "comraderie" of the older weavers and made many friends among the younger ones. Then after five weeks "standing in" with my mother, I became eligible for looms of my own.

It was during those first few weeks of weaving that I learned, unconsciously, what skill meant. To do this job well, I must work hard, conscientiously, and be very painstaking. I envied the apparent ease with which the older women weavers did their work and wondered if I would ever attain that stage.

Many things I accepted unquestioningly as part of the job: The long work week (54 hours); the faulty humidifiers, which often threw off sprays of water instead of steam; the "blower" used to remove the lint which collected like snow on and under the looms. The English and Belgian weavers seemed to be immune from the evil effects of these things, perhaps through generations of factory workers before them, but the Italians often seemed languid and wan-faced, and the German woman who worked next to me complained that the humidifier made her shoulder ache, and often with an angry gesture she shut it off.

My mother had learned of the better working conditions in the silk industry; wages were higher, hours shorter, and the jobs were cleaner. After two years of

⁸ "My Autobiography." Bryn Mawr, 1928.

work in the woolen mill, I left with no regrets when the opportunity came to learn silk weaving. Because the industry is newer, sanitary conditions are usually better, and by far the largest majority of silk mills run only 48-hour shifts. After learning that I must acquire a delicate and lighter touch necessary in handling silk than in cotton and something of the complicated mechanism of the silk loom, I was put to run two looms, then three. Here I worked for six years, always conscious that I must acquire, and always striving for, greater skill, not so much because I wanted to become skilled, but because there was a constant demand on the part of the management for the elimination of imperfections.

It was here I was working when I took my first summer off to attend Bryn Mawr Summer School. Since my health was not good, upon returning I decided that I would look for an easier job. I applied at the employment office of a great cotton mill and after having my eyes examined and found good was given a job in the spinning room at \$12.50 a week. Knowing the wages were much less than I had received for weaving, I thought the work would be less fatiguing and less exacting. I had great difficulty in learning to keep a small leather pad in place over my right knee, this being used to protect the knee when it was brought into position to stop the spindles spinning at a rate of 8,000 revolutions a minute, in order to piece the broken ends. Within a few days I was able to run three sides; these being near the door, I was instructed to keep them well cleaned in order to make a good impression upon visitors entering the room for the first time. After four weeks of this work I decided that it was just as strenuous, if not more so, than silk weaving and the compensation far too small, so I gave up the job.

Through my studies in economics at Bryn Mawr I had become interested in discovering for myself just what conditions in Rhode Island industries were, so while I was unsettled I thought I would try night work. I applied at the office of a silk plant, one of the large factories on the river bank, which ran three and four shifts, for a job on the night shift. I was informed that they employed no women at night, but was offered a job on the afternoon shift. This meant working from 3 in the afternoon to 11 at night, on Saturday nights till 12. This I did for one year.

It was a joyous thing to have my mornings free. I learned to swim, I worked in the garden, and did many other things I had always wanted to do. Then thinking this time too precious to spend on such trivialities I spent my morning hours in school for a few months. I found, however, that in order to keep fit and well I must live a very regular life, also that one loses contact with one's friends and that there is little or no social life. Absences were allowed occasionally but these gotten with difficulty, for too frequent absences from this shift would break down the discipline, resulting in too large a labor turnover. Sanitary conditions were good: White-tiled lavatories with hot water, weave-shop floors washed at least once a week, machinery kept clean, and a cafeteria where hot food could be bought; no interval provided while eating it, however.

What of the workers? The majority were Polish and French Canadians, with a goodly number of Syrians—a typical silk-mill crowd. The men, mostly married, seemed indifferent as to what hours they worked as long as they made a fairly decent wage. And the women—Mary, who worked next to me, said: "Workin' dis way, I can do my wash and sew for my kids." Her husband had only one eye, was unskilled, and was unable to find a job. He cared for the children while she worked "afternoons." Several widowed mothers found this shift convenient. Usually the children "stayed with the lady downstairs" or were "old enough to take care of themselves." A little widowed Polish mother very proudly one night showed me a photograph of her daughter who was attending high school. I never saw a more woe-begone face than hers when one day she passed my looms on her way to the first-aid room. She had been hit in the chest with a flying shuttle. What was she thinking? Perhaps what so many workers often think with terror. "Suppose some day something happens to disable me permanently, so that I can not work any more, what shall I do?" The courage and patience of these women is great to stand these hours day after day and year after year. When a year later I was offered a job on the day shift, I took it gladly.

After working some months on the day shift, running four looms, the mill closed for a 2-week period. When the workers went for their wages, a notice was posted on the door to the effect that workers desiring a job after that period must reapply to the employment manager. This meant the "stretch-out" system, only the most efficient workers would be given employment on six looms, whereas formerly they had run only four. There was much talk against this and much harsh criticism, but the system was being introduced into other shops and the workers thought it useless to make a formal protest. Gradually the

shop resumed the 3-shift schedule, with the 1,000 looms running with a diminished labor force.

The first few days under this system I remember very clearly. One day I had mastered those six looms and I stood for a moment watching them run. All in good order, all running smoothly. At a moment such as this there is a rhythm to the clattering thunder of a thousand looms that is music to a weaver's ears. As I stood listening, watching, I became conscious that my body was wet with perspiration, every muscle taut, every pulse beating hard, and my heart pounding within my breast. I felt for a moment that I wanted to shriek and make my voice heard above the clattering thunder. A suggestion of a thought—"I can't stand this long"—but my mind does not dwell on it for my trained eye went instinctively back to the loom where I saw work to be done. And so it was day after day, a constant effort to master the machine.

Perfect cloth was not demanded at first under this new system, but as the weavers became more accustomed to operating more looms the managers became more exacting until perfect cloth was demanded constantly. Weavers were fined for imperfections, often they were told not to report for work for one day, two days, and sometimes more, this being the manager's method of teaching the weavers to be more careful. Oftentimes the imperfections were not the fault of the weavers but of the loom—but this was not always taken into consideration. Fines and lay-offs were imposed just the same and weavers were often fired.

For two years I worked under this strain (as did every other worker) of fear of being laid off, fear of losing my job, and the constant physical effort necessary to keep the looms running. Finally, having difficulty with two of my looms, which caused imperfections for which I was repeatedly blamed, I told the foreman that I had done my best and could do no better and "walked out."

I soon found employment in a small shop, where I am still employed. There were then 10 other weavers, each operating four looms. Recently several new looms have been installed and now 4 of the 10 weavers are operating five looms each. My work pleased my new employer and his appreciation stimulated an effort on my part to always do my best. Nevertheless, the story is the same in every silk shop to-day. The workers are constantly beset with fears of the "stretch-out" system, wage cuts, and the ever-present demand for perfection and production. Each realizes that eventually some of their number will have to go—all will have to concede to the demands of the industry. On the outskirts of the town, the clatter of the fifty-odd looms of this little factory lustily echo the roar of the machines in the factories on the river bank: "Industry is all important, Production is all important, Production, Production!"

Part III.—GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE WOMEN STUDENTS AT THE SUMMER SCHOOLS⁹

Although the workers who attend the summer schools are a selected group of relatively mature and experienced industrial workers who have shown qualities of leadership in their home communities, their problems are typical of the problems of women workers in the country as a whole. A wide geographical distribution is found in the student group, although practically half of them come from the older industrialized communities in the New England and Middle Atlantic States. Over two-thirds of the students are foreign born or of foreign extraction. Only a small percentage of the group studied are married, but this is due to the fact that married women workers often are not in a position to attend workers' classes rather than to any discrimination by the schools against married workers.

The schools were established, first of all, to offer educational opportunities to workers in industry, and they have included only small groups of workers in the occupations in domestic and personal service, clerical work, and other employment. It is not surprising to find, therefore, that about nine-tenths of the entire group are in manufacturing industries, and over one-half of these are employed in the clothing trades. The range in occupations in the four different schools reflects interesting differences in the localization of industry and the rapid industrialization of parts of the South and West. About two-fifths of the students reporting in this study are union members, a proportion much higher than that found for women workers in the country as a whole. This is a result of conscious policy in the admission of applicants to the schools.

In general, the group may be said to be composed of experienced workers, since the average (median) for the group is 8 years in industry, and probably half of them would be classified, on the basis of wage rates, as semiskilled or skilled. The workers studied averaged more than 4 jobs each, in a range of from 1 to 30 jobs. A significant number of girls reported "too many jobs to count." They had left their jobs for a variety of reasons, chief among which were low wages or long hours, and lay-offs on account of slack work. Almost half of them had entered industry before they were 16 years of age. No study of their schooling is available except for the Bryn Mawr Summer School students. Of this group, from two-thirds to four-fifths of the students in the years 1928, 1929, and 1930 had had no American high-school training.

Every conceivable permutation in job history in women's trades is represented in this group, from the girl who started to work in Russia at 10 years of age without the opportunity of any schooling, and who has now become an expert sample maker at a high wage, to the southern textile worker who has been on the same job in a cotton mill for

⁹ The male contingent at Wisconsin and the foreign students coming to Bryn Mawr Summer School on special scholarships have been excluded from this study.

six years, who went to work at \$3.50 a week and after years of experience makes \$10 or \$12. There is the older girl who has never lost her Lancashire brogue and who has spent a lifetime in cotton weaving in England and New England; she is a union weaver, as her father and mother were before her. Nor is there lacking the "flapper," of native-born or foreign parents, probably not a union member, but with knowledge through her experience of a variety of different shops and trades where she has worked. There are some workers like the girl who has packed cigars in the same factory for 14 years, and others who have had "too many jobs to count." The workers' own story of lives spent in industry is still to be told. Perhaps the pages that follow will help to create the picture.

Geographical distribution.

The summer schools for women workers in industry tend to recruit students from industrial centers where workers' education is already a functioning part of community activities. The Bryn Mawr school is organized to receive students from all over the country. Barnard, as a nonresident school, accepts students only from New York City and near-by communities. Wisconsin draws from the Middle West heavily, because of its location, and the Southern Summer School accepts students only from the Southern States. Almost half of the group studied (Table I, p. 35) are from the New England and Middle Atlantic States. The Middle West contributes 28.5 per cent of the total number of students, the Pacific Coast 2.2 per cent, and the Southern States 19.4 per cent. Thus a wide geographic distribution of typical industrial communities where women work in large numbers is represented in this study. The Northeastern States are more heavily represented in this analysis than is the country as a whole, because of the more widely developed interest in workers' education in this section of the country and the chance location of the first summer school at Bryn Mawr.¹⁰

Nativity.

The students at the summer schools are predominantly of foreign birth or foreign extraction. Of the total group, 43.6 per cent are foreign born and 24.1 per cent are native born of foreign parentage; less than one-third (32.3 per cent) are native born of native parentage. (Table II.) Sectional differences are interestingly shown in the fact that the Southern Summer School reported only 3 students of foreign birth or foreign parentage, and Barnard reported only 5 students of native parentage in the three years covered by the study. The majority of the foreign-born students attended summer school at Bryn Mawr and Barnard. Almost two-thirds of these came from Russia and Poland. (Table III.) The proportion of foreign-born women among the summer-school students is larger than among women workers in the country as a whole.¹¹ This probably is due to the fact that the schools recruit from trades and sections of the country where

¹⁰ According to the 1920 census figures for these States, all women 16 years of age and over gainfully occupied were distributed in these groups as follows: New England, 6.9 per cent; Middle Atlantic, 25.1 per cent; Middle West, 26.4 per cent; Pacific, 4.6 per cent; and South, 20 per cent. Thus, of the large groups, the South is represented in the schools in almost exact proportion, the so-called Middle West has a little larger per cent in the schools than in all employments, and New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, as is natural from the location of the two largest schools, are much more than proportionately represented.—See U. S. Bureau of the Census. *Women in Gainful Occupations, 1870 to 1920*, by Joseph A. Hill. Monograph IX. 1929. p. 230.

¹¹ In 1920 only 13.4 per cent of the gainfully-employed women 16 years of age and over in the United States were foreign-born white.—*Ibid.*, p. 106.

foreign-born women predominate, or organizations in which members of this group are especially active. The schools also offer special teaching facilities for the language-handicapped student and thus attract a large number of applicants who are foreign born. To some extent this difference represents a difference in the psychology of the native-born and foreign women workers with regard to activity and interest in their own economic problems, for the American worker is more optimistic than is the foreign worker, and frequently is less interested in problems of industry.

Age.

The policies of the four schools differ slightly with respect to the age at which applicants are accepted. In general, preference is given to students ranging from 18 to 35 years of age. Exceptions are made, however, to this general policy. As a result, there are no students under 17 years of age, and over half (51.2 per cent) are 18 and under 25.¹² The median age is 24.6 years, the students at Barnard being older (with the median about 26) and those at Wisconsin younger (with the median under 23). (Table IV.) This means that the students at the summer schools would appear to be a relatively mature and experienced group of women workers at the probable height of their earning power in industry.

Marital status.

The data on the marital status of summer-school students (Table V) do not give a complete picture. On some of the early test schedules the question was omitted, and on others sufficiently detailed information was not obtained. There was also, at first, a feeling among the students that there might be some discrimination against married women in the schools, and the question was not answered frankly. This is reflected in the large number of "unknown" in 1928 and 1929, and therefore the apparent increase in the number of married women in 1930 does not represent a real increase but rather greater accuracy and frankness in answering the question. It would be safe to assume that the figures for 1930 are more typical than are those for other years, and that therefore about 14 per cent of the summer-school students are married.¹³

Occupational classification.

It has been the policy of the summer schools to accept primarily industrial workers, and therefore the occupational classification is not typical of the distribution of women wage earners as a whole, although it is typical of the manufacturing industries in which women work.¹⁴ Of the summer students, 87 per cent are in the manufacturing and mechanical industries, 6.1 per cent in domestic and personal service, and the others in trade, transportation, clerical work, and professional work. The professional workers, and to some extent these others, are not typical of the schools nor of industrial workers in general. They have been admitted because of their work in connection with the labor movement.

¹² 39.3 per cent of the women 16 years of age and over gainfully employed in the United States in 1920 were under 25 years of age.—*Ibid.*, p. 67.

¹³ In 1920, 23.4 per cent of the gainfully-occupied women 16 years of age and over in the United States were married.—*Ibid.*, p. 75.

¹⁴ In 1920, 22.5 per cent of all gainfully-employed women 16 years of age and over in the United States worked in manufacturing and mechanical industries, 10.5 per cent in trade and transportation, and 26.2 per cent in domestic and personal service.—*Ibid.*, pp. 188-190.

Forty-seven per cent of the total group, and well over half of the manufacturing group, are in the clothing trades (Table VI), including the making of men's, women's, and children's clothing and underwear (except knit goods), millinery, and a variety of other goods. Over one-half (51.4 per cent) of the clothing group work on women's clothing, with dresses predominating, and over one-fourth (26.2 per cent) work in the men's clothing division of the trade. Nearly one-fifth of the clothing group (18.9 per cent) work in millinery.

The textile industries are represented by almost 16 per cent of the students, who make silk, cotton, rayon, and wool goods, knit goods, and hosiery, with cotton and hosiery manufacture predominating.

The miscellaneous trades, comprising 24 per cent of the students, cover a wide range of occupations in the metal, paper, printing and publishing, leather, food, tobacco, chemical, and novelty industries. One-fourth of the students in this group work in the metal trades. The occupations in the miscellaneous trades range from linotype operating to pretzel making, from artificial fish-bait manufacturing to cigar making, from assembling Ford parts to painting lamp shades.

There is considerable variation in the distribution of occupations in the different schools, a distribution that reflects sectional differences in industrial localization and development. The Bryn Mawr Summer School, which draws students from all parts of the country, had one-half of its students for the three years combined from the clothing trades and almost one-quarter from the miscellaneous trades. At Barnard almost three-fourths of the students came from the clothing trades, about 14 per cent were from the miscellaneous trades, and less than 2 per cent from textiles. Wisconsin, since it draws students primarily from the Middle West, had 44 per cent of its students from the miscellaneous trades and less than 24 per cent from the clothing trades. The Southern Summer School, as might be expected, drew almost one-half its workers from the textile trades, one-fourth from the clothing trades (mostly the manufacture of cheap grades of work clothing), and about 14 per cent from the miscellaneous trades.

Union membership.

It has been the policy of the summer schools to recruit their students from various community organizations interested in workers' problems, such as the trade unions and industrial clubs of the Young Women's Christian Association. Bryn Mawr is the only school that consciously attempts to have a half-and-half division between union and nonunion workers. Most of the trade unions in the women's trades are represented in this study. (Table VII.) Of the total group reporting, 39.3 per cent are union members. The "unknown" in this case probably do not belong to unions, which would make the proportion of union membership lower. Even allowing for this, the proportion of union members in the summer schools is considerably higher than among women workers as a whole, as a result of the recruiting policy of the schools.¹⁵

There is a higher percentage of union membership among the students at Bryn Mawr and Barnard, near the older and more highly

¹⁵ It is estimated that in 1927 about 3 per cent of all women workers in the country were organized. The Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America, the International Ladies' Garment Workers, and the United Garment Workers of America are the three unions having the largest woman membership.—T. Wolfson, in "Women in the Modern World," *Annals of the American Academy*, May, 1929, pp. 120-122.

organized clothing markets in eastern cities, than among the students from the more recently industrialized communities, though the South follows closely. No attempt has been made to compare union and nonunion conditions in different trades, because the cases are too few to make valid comparisons, but this type of comparative analysis is very much needed for the women's trades.

Weekly wage rates on last job.

Wage rates are summarized here not to give a picture of earnings but to give some indication of the general level of skill of the group studied. In more than half the cases they represent average earnings for piecework. The median wage rate—half receiving more and half less—for all students from 1928 through 1930 is \$21.38. By years, the medians show interesting variation: For 1928 the median is \$21.67, for 1929 it is \$23.15, and 1930 has the lowest of all, \$20.15. (Table VIII.) These medians are higher than those of any general studies of industrial women's wage rates because of the selected character of the group.¹⁶ The wage group occurring most frequently is the \$18-\$18.99 modal group.

If half the students reporting received more than \$21.38 a week on full-time work, it seems fair to assume that they are semiskilled or skilled workers. The range of wage rates for the entire group is wide, from \$8 to \$75 a week, but neither extreme is typical and probably the designer, who received \$75 a week, should be excluded from consideration. The other skilled workers, receiving from \$22 to \$52 a week, are more typical of the summer schools' student groups. Many of them are employed as operators, finishers, and sample makers in the organized clothing markets. Some are in custom-dressmaking establishments, and others are in the printing and metal trades.

At the other end of the scale, in the groups receiving from \$8 to \$12 a week, are the unskilled operators or semiskilled and skilled workers in low-wage communities. Here are found paper-box and laundry work, machine operating on overalls in nonunion centers, and hosiery looping, rayon reeling, and cotton spinning and weaving in communities paying lower rates. Girls from the textile mills of Marion, N. C., and Elizabethton, Tenn., reported some of the lowest wage rates of all, and these frequently represented their maximum rates, after years of industrial experience. In the low-wage group are found also waitresses and domestic workers, who received some additional compensation in board or board and room.

A comparison of range of wage rates by school will show that the Wisconsin and Southern girls from the miscellaneous trades and textiles are in the lower wage groups, and the organized garment and clothing workers at Barnard and Bryn Mawr, largely from metropolitan centers, raise the levels considerably for those two schools. Only 4 out of 85 students at the Southern Summer School in three years reported a wage rate of over \$25 a week. The highest of these (\$35) was received by a hairdresser, hardly typical of southern industry in

¹⁶ The highest median earnings reported in the studies of the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor are \$16.85 (Rhode Island, 1920) and \$16.50 (Flint, Mich., 1925).—Bul. 58, p. 22, and Bul. 67, p. 19.

Weekly earnings for women in New York State factories for October, 1930, were reported as averaging \$18.47 (\$22.28 in New York City and \$14.37 in remainder of State).—New York State Industrial Bulletin, November, 1930, p. 43.

general. It should be added that many of the southern students at the schools live in cotton-mill villages, where they receive house rent, fuel, and light at what is claimed to be reduced cost.

One point needs emphasis in the discussion of wage rates. For most of the workers reporting, the wage rates given are maximum full-time wage rates, although few of them enjoyed full-time employment. Students on piecework (more than half of the total) reported an average of their earnings. Reference to the tables on earnings XIX to XXI will give a more accurate picture of the wages of the summer-school students.



SEAMING IN A SHIRT FACTORY

Room well lighted and ventilated, but chairs not adjustable.

Part IV.—THE EXPERIENCE IN INDUSTRY OF SUMMER-SCHOOL STUDENTS

The experience in industry of the women workers at the summer schools is the most interesting part of their record. An attempt was made to secure information on the age at which they entered industry, the number of years of industrial experience they had had, the number and kinds of jobs held, beginning and quitting wage rates, and reasons for leaving jobs. Much of this material is difficult to interpret, because the students were depending on their memories and were often inaccurate or insufficiently detailed in recording their job histories. The detailed data on job histories will be used for more extensive analysis at another time, and only the more general tables and a few typical or especially interesting job histories will be presented here.

Sixteen duplicate or partially duplicate records have been identified in this analysis of industrial experience. These belong to second-year students who returned to the same school or who went to another one of the four studied during the 3-year period in which the information has been collected. There is no reason to believe that these duplications give any bias to the data, since they take the place of other first-year or second-year applicants representing the same variety of trades in the same or similar sections of the country, having, in other words, the same industrial experience.

Age at entrance into industry.

Almost half (47.1 per cent) of the students reporting age at the summer schools entered industry before they were 16 (Table IX), although there are sectional differences relative to this point that are of interest. Only 28.1 per cent of the students at Wisconsin entered industry before 16 years of age, while almost half or slightly more than half of the students at the other three schools began working before they were 16. Over 5 per cent of the group of students reporting age began work before they were 13 years of age. Those who reported beginning work under 10 years of age were all born in eastern European countries, but the majority of those who started work from 10 to 15 years of age were born in this country, many of them in the Southern States. The higher educational requirements and better legal protection against child labor in some of the Western States may be reflected in the small proportion of Wisconsin students who began work before 16 years of age.

Years in industry.

The students in the summer schools are, as might be expected, an experienced group of industrial workers. They have had on the average (median) 8 years of industrial work—one-half of those reporting working a longer period, ranging as high as 32 years, and one-half working from 1 to 7 years (Table X). In terms of percentages, 30 per cent have worked 1 to 5 years, 37 per cent 6 to 10 years, 19 per cent 11 to 15 years, and 12 per cent 16 years and over. This record includes working experience in the United States only (where this fact was

indicated). There are a number of foreign-born students at Bryn Mawr and Barnard who worked before coming to this country.

Interesting sectional differences appear if one compares the percentage of students in the four schools who have had less than six years' industrial experience. At Barnard a little over one-fifth of the students and at Bryn Mawr almost one-fourth have worked less than six years, while at the Southern Summer School a little over two-fifths have worked less than six years and at Wisconsin almost one-half of the entire group have worked this shorter period. Again students from the more recently industrialized sections of the country report a shorter industrial experience, although all schools report a few cases with work experience of 21 to 32 years.

Industrial experience.

The number of jobs held by students at the summer schools varies considerably among trades, sections of the country, and individuals. Twenty-seven students reported "too many jobs to count." These girls worked for the most part in the clothing trades—in dresses, millinery, men's clothing, neckwear—and one was a textile weaver. A few took jobs "to investigate conditions," but in general the short seasons of the clothing trades led to an attempt to get a different job with the hope that this would be more permanent. Excluding 28 students who held an indefinite number of jobs (see footnote 2 of Table XI), there were 2,671 jobs reported by 581 students, or an average of 4.6 jobs per student, with a range of from 1 to 30 jobs.¹⁷

Interesting sectional differences appear in the comparison of the tables for Barnard and Bryn Mawr on the one hand and Wisconsin and the Southern Summer School on the other hand. A larger proportion of western and southern students have held few jobs, partly because they work in trades other than clothing, where job changes are less frequent, and partly because there are fewer job opportunities in these more recently industrialized sections of the country. The larger number of jobs per worker is found among the Bryn Mawr and Barnard students.

Reasons for leaving jobs.

Although more than 2,700 jobs have been held by workers at the summer schools, only 1,988 reasons for leaving jobs were given. More reasons were reported by students in the years 1928 and 1930 than in 1929. (Table XII.) The reasons given are the workers' own explanations as to why they left their jobs. In spite of inevitable rationalizing, these reasons may furnish explanations of labor turnover at least as adequate as those that emanate from factory personnel offices. There may be, however, a tendency to minimize the number of discharges, since only 41 of the 1,988 reasons are so called.

Only seven students reported specifically that they were displaced by the introduction of machinery, including one "movie organist" who lost her job when the "talkies" came in. This does not represent a complete picture of the situation, however, because most of the students work in the clothing and textile trades, where changes of process or style, rather than the introduction of machinery as such, have displaced workers. The "stretch-out system" in textiles, changes in style in millinery and such garments as beaded and em-

¹⁷ No attempt was made to distinguish between regular and temporary or irregular jobs, because in most cases workers took the temporary jobs hoping that they would be permanent, and were laid off or left because of bad conditions.

broidered dresses, and rearrangements in the processes of work probably account for considerable job insecurity—recorded under lay-offs.

Lay-offs and slack or seasonal work account for more than 19 per cent of the reasons for leaving jobs. As one girl reported it, "I was given more vacation than I could afford." Low wages and long hours are the cause in 20.3 per cent of the cases. Combining dislike of work, "better job elsewhere," and unhealthful or disagreeable working conditions, it is found that this group accounts for about 17.4 per cent of the total number of reasons for leaving jobs. Disagreements or "arguments with the boss" over rates or overtime work and personal differences account for 64 reports of job shift. Among these are recorded such illuminating statements as "the boss got fresh," "the boss tried to cheat me out of my pay," and "we had a mean boss."

It is interesting to see that in 110 cases of labor turnover the plant moved or was burned or the business failed. This figure may be high because of the large number of small shops, requiring little capital, that are characteristic of many of the clothing trades. Change of residence of the worker herself or of her family accounts for 122 job shifts. Losing one's job for union activity, union politics, or because one wanted to get work in a union shop was reported in 66 instances, and strikes and lockouts necessitated job changes in 90 instances. Illness was reported as the cause of 80 job shifts.

The reports of leaving job "to go to school" refer in most cases to workers' schools such as those under consideration. Many girls had their jobs held for them, but in about one-sixth of the total number of reported cases jobs were not held and students had to give them up in order to attend a workers' summer school.

In Doctor Hewes' study of the industrial experience of 97 students attending the Bryn Mawr Summer School in 1925, it was found that lay-offs were a more frequent cause of change in the garment industry than were wages and hours together, although they were equally important in the case of textiles. She also found that more than half of the group studied had held their jobs on an average less than two years, and that garment workers, in contrast with textile workers, for example, were "conspicuous as a group of short-job workers."¹⁸ The short duration of jobs for workers in the school as a whole is probably explained by the preponderance of clothing workers in the group. Although the clothing trades have been notorious for short jobs and highly seasonal work, a special study of the effects of this characteristic problem on the industrial experience of such an important group of women workers is needed.

Typical job histories.

As one associates with workers or teaches workers' classes, certain nationality groups, types of temperament, or attitudes of mind tend to become identified with specific economic situations or occupations. The following case histories have been chosen on a purely subjective estimate of what constitute typical case histories, in the absence of any scientific criterion for making such a selection. They have been checked by the opinions of faculty members in the various schools.

Clothing trades.—In the clothing trades there are at least two fairly well-defined types of Jewish and Italian women workers. One

¹⁸ Hewes, Amy. Changing Jobs. U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Bul. 54, 1926, pp. 6 and 10.

type is ambitious to succeed, and if she can not become a "boss" she hopes to become at least a sample maker or a designer. The other type is socially-minded, with a radical economic philosophy that makes her strongly class-conscious and a good union fighter. She makes sweeping condemnation of all "bosses"; all working conditions are "terrible"; usually she is willing to have an argument with the boss over a vital issue at the risk of being discharged. Both may be excellent workers from the point of view of skill and speed; both may be excellent union members, at least for a period. Both types are to some extent the result of religious and social prejudices and the economic conditions in the industries in which they work.

As an example of the first type may be cited a worker on women's dresses who started in 1912, at the age of 12 years, as a trimmer on men's shirts at \$2.50 a week. Except for two jobs as a cash girl and sales clerk in a store, she has stayed in the needle trades, holding 10 jobs in all. She was promoted rapidly during the war period, when she made her highest wages, and is now a designer of women's dresses, earning \$75 a week. Although her wage rate is not typical, her psychological attitude represents a well-defined type. Another worker of the same type has had 20 years' experience in the neckwear trade. She started at \$1.25 a week at a job that she left because she was "overworked and underpaid." Since then she has been a finisher and end turner on neckwear, instructor, inspector, and forewoman, averaging \$30 a week when she works full time. In the year immediately before her first summer-school work she had been employed 25 weeks full time and 13 weeks part time and was out of work 14 weeks. This worker has been the main support of her family for many years and has helped to give her brother a college education and professional training.

The other type may be represented by an operator on men's clothing who started in 1908 at \$1 a week, probably the current rate for "greenhorns" who had just come to this country. She has had 13 jobs in 21 years, and all of these have been in men's clothing except one attempt at selling in a store. Her wages averaged less than \$5 a week until 1911, and less than \$20 a week until 1917. Since that time she has averaged \$33 a week, a condition that illustrates the results of trade-unionism in the men's clothing industry. She too suffers from irregular work. In the year before her summer-school experience she had had 32 weeks of full-time work and 10 weeks of part-time work and had been out of work 8 weeks and on strike 2 weeks.

These three girls came from metropolitan areas of the East, but a like case may be cited for a garment worker in a mid-western city. She started at millinery in 1909, at \$3.50 a week, and tried several other trades. She was a sales clerk, she worked in a canning factory, she assembled Ford parts, then she became a pocket maker on cloaks and in 1923 an operator on dresses, making the whole garment. She left some of the jobs because of low wages, wage cuts, or unfair division of work. As the union developed in her industry, she became an active member and was twice discharged from her jobs for union activity. In the year before she entered summer school she was on strike 23 weeks, and permanently impaired her health on the picket line in a very cold winter. She is now blacklisted and may never be able to get work again in her market. Another worker started in the paper-box industry and had held 11 jobs in as many years. She left her first job to learn a trade and went into the chil-

dren's dress industry. She has been an examiner, a button sewer, an operator, and a novelty stitcher, with occasional jobs at packing biscuits and acting as a cashier and waitress in a restaurant to fill in the dull seasons in clothing. The reasons she cited for leaving jobs were lack of work, wage cuts, and "end of season." In the year before she entered summer-school she had worked full time 20 weeks and part time 16 weeks, and had been unemployed 16 weeks.

In a sense, these five cases, that in some respects might be duplicated again and again in the schools, depict not only the history of interesting individuals but the history of their trades. The clothing trades in 1909, when many of these girls started to work, were characterized by sweatshop conditions of the worst kind. It has been only in recent years and after prolonged struggle that the trade unions in the needle trades have been able to secure a living wage and decent working conditions, and the matter of short seasons and irregular work and income still appears to be an unsolved economic problem in the trade. The story of the origin of the movement to better conditions in the garment trades is well told in the trade history of a girl who came to America in 1909 and went to work in a dress shop where her sister had been working for three years.

The shop was small and dingy. We had to work the whole day by electric light. The front part of the shop was the office, on the other side stood the cutting tables, and the operators, finishers, and pressers were cramped in the middle of the shop. We worked 59 hours a week. I do not care to describe the impression that the old sweatshop made on children of that age. (She was 15 at that time.)

A meeting was called to organize the industry, and I was inspired by the group of young people I saw, determined to win for themselves and their fellow workers a better living and a more respectable position in the industry. * * * For years after that I could not pass that street without getting a thrill. At that very meeting plans for the general strike of the ladies' waist and dress industry were laid. We were so few in numbers that each and every one of us was an important member of the organization. We practically had no experience at all. Even our leaders were for the most part on the battlefield for the first time. In a very short time our strike machinery was in full speed, and the winter of 1909 saw the most successful strike of the workers in the dress industry. * * * The response was overwhelming; the first couple of days saw the entire trade practically at a standstill. * * * Thus I was privileged to participate in and witness the birth of the Ladies' Waist and Dressmakers' Union in the city of New York.

Miscellaneous trades.—The typical worker in the miscellaneous trades is the young "flapper" type or the restless American-born girl seeking variety of location or occupation. She is likely to be fairly independent and to move on if she does not like the boss or the work. She will "try anything once." The job story is the same, although the local setting may vary. There is the girl who started in leather goods in a large eastern city in 1915 at \$3 a week. She has had 9 jobs in 13 years, in as many industries—the needle trades, department store, a printing press, a munitions factory, a steel mill, an upholstery shop, and radio and other metal-goods manufacture. She was paid her highest wages during the war, and now averages \$30 a week. Another worker started stamping linings in a mid-western shoe factory in 1908 at \$3.50 a week. She has had 11 jobs during the 21 years of varied industrial experience. She found the shoe factory "tiresome" and left to clerk in a store, and went back to the shoe factory later. Then she was in a cigar factory for over 6 years, but found herself affected by nicotine. After this she tried housework and then department-store work. Later

she went back to domestic work and then department-store work. Again she tried domestic service and left to take a business-college course. After trying office work for a few months, she went back to domestic service. During this long period she has never made more than \$17 a week and usually she has averaged between \$5 and \$10.

Another mid-western girl has worked almost wholly in the metal trades. She started in 1915 as a punch-press operator at \$8, but she "had a mean boss and got mad and quit." Then she did grinding and press feeding, but was laid off. Next she tried battery assembly but "didn't like the work." Then she worked on chain assembly but she "got into a jam over working overtime and quit." Later she worked as a time clerk but had to leave on account of illness. While working as a hosiery looper she went out on strike on account of a wage cut and lost her job. Since then she has made Christmas wreaths, sold drugs, operated a drill press, and inspected metal goods. In all, she has had 13 jobs in 15 years and has averaged about \$15 a week. She has made \$25 at times.

The greatest variety was found in the industrial history of a woman who held 30 jobs, all in different trades, over a period of 20 years. To mention but a few: She had started as an errand girl, then worked as a hosiery looper, she had packed candy and tin cans, worked in a bakery shop, and made powder in a munitions factory during the war. Most of these jobs she left because she "didn't like them" or they "didn't pay enough." She was a street-car "conductorette" but gave that up because it was too cold. She had worked on dolls, electric ball bearings, victrolas, neckwear, and chemicals. She had made \$23 a week during the war, but otherwise averaged from \$15 to \$18. Her feeling about these jobs was that if she "liked the crowd" she would like the work, otherwise not.

The miscellaneous trades pay low wages relative to other trades except for special semiskilled or skilled operations. Speed or dexterity are to some extent transferable from one industry to another. If you can assemble Ford parts, you probably can assemble radio or victrola parts or pack candy. So if you are a girl who likes to see the world, you will not "join the Navy" but will pick up a job in the miscellaneous trades. The choice of the first job frequently is accidental, depending upon the location of the girl in a 1-industry town or a metropolitan center. Many girls choose their first jobs from the occupation that has the current reputation of paying well. Once started, it is hard to move out and learn a trade at the bottom of the scale, and the large number of experienced workers available in the skilled trades makes it difficult for an inexperienced worker to get a start.

The number of workers in the miscellaneous trades is affected, too, by general industrial changes that are eliminating quality products and skilled processes. Of what use is it to learn a trade if, at best, it may serve you only 10 years and possibly less? One student at the summer schools found upon two occasions that she had acquired a skill that later was eliminated from the industry by style changes in women's garments. She was forced to drift from occupation to occupation in the miscellaneous trades, after leaving the skilled trades in the clothing industry, and philosophically summarized her experience in her trade history thus:

Essentially my experience in the industry is that of hosts of other women and girls. Undoubtedly this constantly varying means of earning my livelihood did

not contribute much toward my material growth. Yet I question the possibility of my being any better off had I managed to adhere to one particular trade. Personally, I sometimes feel that this has been a blessing in disguise, for it accorded me the opportunity of viewing life from various angles, at least as far as the worker is concerned.

Textile trades.—The textile workers, either because their working conditions make them so or because they choose that work by reason of temperament, are less restless and more patient than the worker on radio parts, for example, and less intense emotionally than the garment worker. They are not fatalistic about changing things. This is not because their working conditions are better than those in other trades, for this and other studies confirm the general opinion that, on the whole, textile workers receive less pay and have a longer week than do many other workers. Many textile workers, both North and South, live in 1-industry towns and are influenced by the tradition of families working in the mill. They are frequently isolated from contacts with other workers and other industrial conditions. The more prosperous branches of the textile industry, hosiery and silk mills, have offered opportunity for the ambitious skilled worker. Some cotton and woolen mills, on the contrary, have not conformed to the accepted standards of better wages and working conditions in this country.

One southern textile worker started by helping her mother as a cotton winder at 10 years of age but was forced out when a child-labor law was passed. Later she tried housework, clerking in stores (two), restaurant work, and hosiery seaming and looping, and she was a warper in a silk mill when she entered summer school. In all, she had had 9 jobs in 12 years, ranging from \$10 to \$30 after 1917. Another southern textile worker had had 4 jobs as a cotton spooler in 6 years, starting at \$6 a week in 1923. The highest she had ever made was \$16, and she averaged \$10.50 a week for 64 hours of work in the year before entering summer school. Twice she left jobs because she "didn't like night work," and once she was "discharged for taking three weeks' vacation." Possibly more typical of southern cotton-mill workers is the girl who had held 9 jobs at spinning or spooling cotton yarn in 6 years. She had started work at 11 years of age, and had made \$8 on her first job and \$10 on her last job. The highest wage she had ever made was \$13. She had "moved" from every job except one. Moving about from mill village to mill village is typical of certain cotton-mill workers in the South. All three of these girls worked an 11-hour or 12-hour day the year before they entered summer school.

Two textile workers described the jobs they held before going to the Southern Summer School in these words:¹⁹

In the Georgia cotton mill where I work the conditions are not good. The average wage is about \$12 a week for 60 hours a week. We do not have any seats where I work. I don't think they have any in the other departments. We have running water in the toilets but do not have any rest room. The ventilation is good in some departments but some are very hot. We have a swimming pool, theater, two churches. The company pays part of the minister's salary. We also have a grammar school. After a child has finished grammar school he can go to high school without paying tuition if he lives in the village. You can have insurance if you want it. You have to pay 60 cents a month and the company has to pay the balance. The Bedaux system (task and bonus) is causing

¹⁹ Southern Summer School Scrapbook, 1929.

trouble now. People don't want to work so hard for such low wages. The company is also having trouble with the United Textile Workers. The employer is firing all the employees he finds belonging to the union.

In the rayon mill where I work the wages are low. When I began to work I made \$8.96 a week. I worked for three weeks and then was put on piecework. Then my wages were increased to \$10.08 a week with what I made on premium work, which was not very much, for the rate was low and I could not make much more than my day's work. We had to lace 60 reels a day for \$1.80. For all over 60 reels laced we received 3 cents a reel. It kept me very busy to get 60. I work from 7 in the morning until 5.30 in the afternoon. I work six hours on Saturday.

My work is very tiresome because I have to stand up all the time and have very little time for moving around. We can go to the wash room twice a day, once in the morning and once in the afternoon. We have very good sanitary conditions but there is something in the air that makes the girls faint.

Hosiery workers, both North and South, have had a somewhat different type of experience because their industry has been prosperous in recent years. One western girl had had 9 jobs in 7 years, starting in underwear in 1923 at \$5.50 a week. She had left 8 of them for better jobs, and in the year before she entered summer school she was making \$24 a week as a forelady in a western hosiery mill. Another hosiery worker had started working summers at doffing yarn and making paper boxes, for \$5 a week. She learned hosiery topping, beginning at \$3 a week, and had had 10 regular jobs in a period of 14 years. At one time she had been out on strike for a year and a half, during which she picked up 6 odd jobs in as many trades instead of taking strike benefits. Before entering summer school she averaged \$30 a week, with full-time employment in a union mill, as a topper on fine grades of full-fashioned hosiery.

Domestic and personal service.—The job histories of two girls of Scandinavian extraction are chosen as typical of certain of the workers' problems in household employment, although this important group of women workers has smaller representation in the schools, and less is known about their working conditions despite their numerical importance for women wage earners as a whole. One girl had had 15 years' experience as a household employee, holding 6 jobs in all, as a nursemaid, housekeeper, and cook. She left the first job she had at \$3 a week "to get better wages." The second and third jobs paid \$4 and \$6, but she "wanted a change." The other jobs she left because she could get better wages. In the year before entering summer school she had made \$11 a week (in addition to room and board). Her hours were reported as "unlimited," with a lunch period of 15 minutes. Another general household worker had started work in summers in a canning factory. Her first job as a household employee had paid \$5 a week. After 8 years of experience she was making \$12 a week (in addition to room and board), and was on duty from 6.45 in the morning to 7 in the evening. She had left two of the jobs because of not getting a raise in wages or because she "did not like the small town."

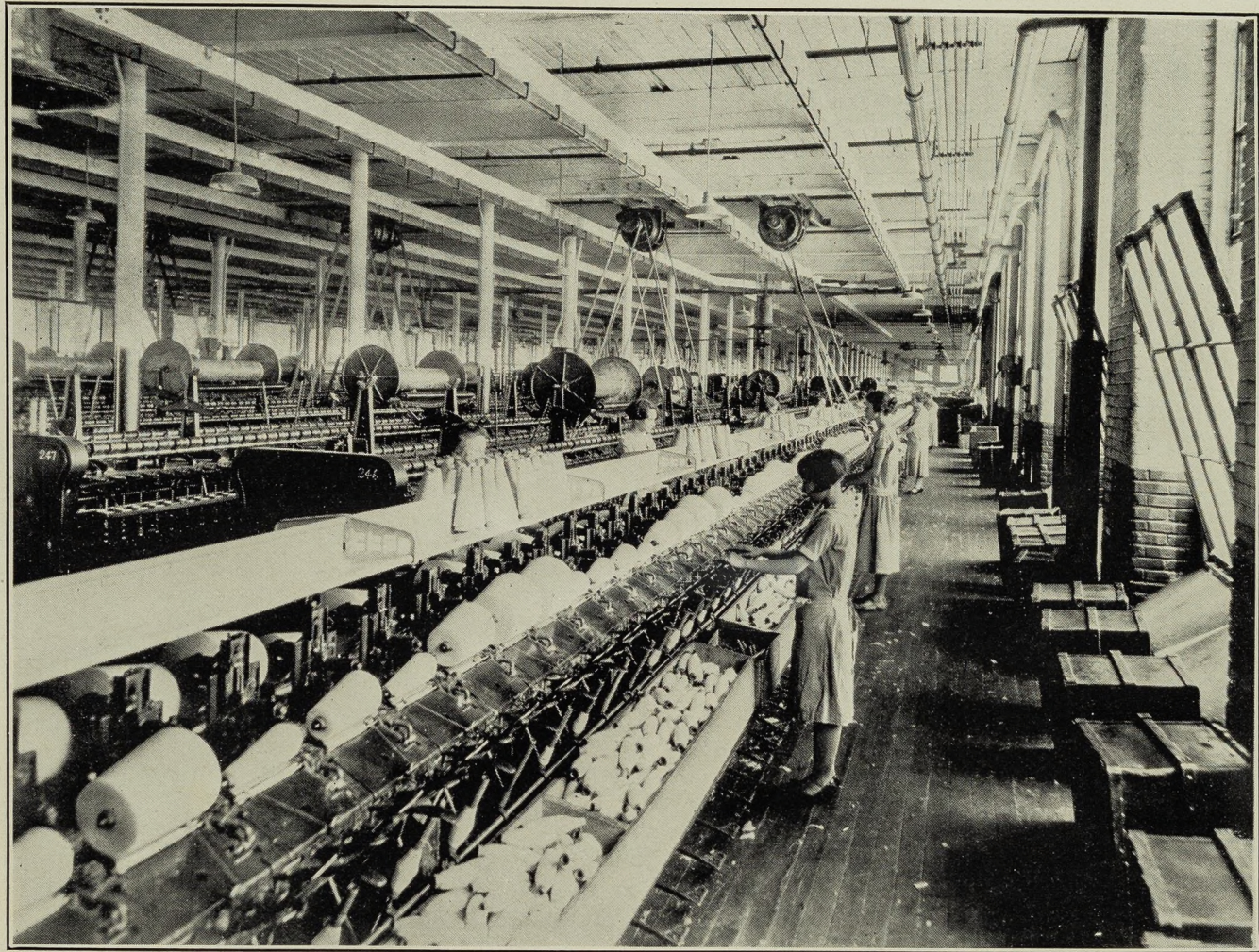
Both of these job histories illustrate the problem of long hours as it affects working conditions in household employment. More data are needed, however, on the results of long experience in this field of employment and the general problem of employer-employee relationships in the household.²⁰

²⁰ The National Committee on Employer-Employee Relationships in the Home has recently been organized to consider problems in this field. A Philadelphia study by Amey E. Watson is shortly to be published by the Women's Bureau.



TOPPING IN A HOSIERY MILL

An unusually good work room, with excellent natural light, slat shades to prevent glare, window boards for ventilation without draft, localized and adjustable artificial light, and adjustable chairs.



WINDING IN A COTTON MILL

Light walls and ceiling, natural ventilation and light, clear aisles; a walking job, but there should be seats for occasional use.

Part V.—WORKING AND LIVING CONDITIONS IN THE PREVIOUS YEAR

Summary.

In addition to general data on industrial experience, the students at the summer schools were asked to give detailed information about their working and living conditions in the year (beginning in June) prior to their entering school. Questions were asked on the amount of full-time and part-time employment, the extent and causes of unemployment, hours of work, earnings and savings, and contribution to family support.

Although the years covered by this study were, in general, years of business prosperity, women workers at the summer schools have suffered in considerable measure from part-time employment and unemployment. In the year before entering school a small but significant group had no full-time employment and were out of work or on part-time work the whole of the year. Only 36 per cent of the entire group reporting worked more than 40 weeks full time during the year reported upon. Although there was considerable unemployment and part-time employment reported, there was also an average (median) of as much as five weeks' overtime worked by the students during the year. Some evidence of the effects of business depression in the year 1930, in contrast with the other two years, is shown in the drop of about \$100 in average (median) annual earnings for this year.

The majority of the students (77 per cent) were in employment having a workday of 9 or 10 hours, including the lunch period, and a small but significant group of workers were employed on longer shifts. Since 68 per cent of the workers had an over-all day of 9 hours or less, and more than half of the workers had at least an hour for lunch and 44 per cent had 30 or 45 minutes, it seems safe to assume that roughly two-thirds of the entire number had actual working hours not in excess of 8½ and probably 8 or less. This again is an unusual condition and undoubtedly due to the large numbers in the clothing industry.

The earnings figures are interesting because they reflect sectional variations in income as well as trade and employment conditions. For the three years combined, the median of the year's earnings figures is \$838 in a range from \$157 to \$2,270. The modal group is the \$800 to \$899 group and the arithmetic average is \$881.97. One-fourth of the entire group studied received less than \$643, and three-fourths received less than \$1,061 in the year. Although these figures are higher than those found in many studies of a less select group of women workers, they are very low in terms of the standard of living this group is anxious to maintain. The median of the year's earnings of the New York City students at Barnard was highest (\$913), that at Bryn Mawr next highest (\$852), that at Wisconsin next (\$850), and that at the Southern Summer School lowest (\$688). Considerable variation was found also among occupations; the clothing-trades workers had the highest and the textile workers the lowest average earnings.

Almost four-fifths of the workers reporting on this subject had no other source of income than wages. Slightly over one-fifth received small amounts through extra work, sickness or accident compensation, strike benefits, and in other sundry ways. Almost one-half of the students were able to save during the year for which they were reporting, the average (median) amount saved being \$71.81. Over one-half of the group, however, were unable to save, and almost one-fourth had to borrow in amounts that ranged from \$1 to \$500. The median amount borrowed was \$80 and the borrowings thus tended to offset the savings. Insurance was carried by over three-fifths of the group studied. A majority of the workers (69.5 per cent) lived at home and about four-fifths of these contributed to the family support. Of those reporting on percentage of earnings contributed, nine-tenths contributed definite amounts and only one-tenth made no contribution.

Because the figures on full-time employment and earnings are for the most part estimates not based on accurate records, and because a smaller number of students have answered these questions, no extensive statistical analysis of these data has been attempted. The other data, although not so fully answered as the questions on age and nativity, are relatively accurate.

In the two years (1929 and 1930) for which it was possible to secure accurate information on this point, 74 students had worked on more than one job during the 12 months for which they were reporting. Twenty-four of these had worked in more than one industry.

Full-time and part-time employment and unemployment.

The years covered by this study, from June, 1927, to June, 1930, were, in general, years of business prosperity. The data available on unemployment and irregular employment should, therefore, be useful in giving a picture of regularity or irregularity of work for women workers in prosperous times. Practically full-time employment (49 to 52 weeks) was enjoyed by 17.8 per cent of the entire group reporting on this point. (Table XXI.) Although the students in this particular group are from all parts of the country, the highest percentage of full-time employment during the year is found among Wisconsin students and the lowest percentage among those at Barnard. It is probable that the preponderance of clothing workers at Barnard Summer School accounts for this difference.

Thirty-six per cent of the entire group* reporting worked over 40 weeks full time, and 60 per cent worked more than 28 weeks full time during the year. At the other end of the scale, 13.2 per cent of the group reporting had less than 13 weeks of full-time work during the year.

In the three years studied, 37 per cent of all the students reporting on part-time employment in 12 months had no part-time work, but a few (1.3 per cent) were on part-time work practically the entire year. (Table XIII.) These came from all sections of the country. About one-fourth of all reported part-time employment lasting 17 weeks or more.

The figures on unemployment (Table XIV) show that 17.5 per cent of the entire group reporting had suffered no unemployment during the year. Of those reporting number of weeks of unemployment, 71.2 per cent were unemployed less than 13 weeks and slightly over half (51.8 per cent) were unemployed less than 9 weeks. At the other

end of the scale, a small group of girls were unemployed the entire year. Students reported unemployment by cause, and the tabulations of the major causes of unemployment (Tables XIV and XV) show that lack of work was responsible for most of the unemployment in half of the cases reporting (51.6 per cent). Vacations without pay were the major cause for a little over one-sixth of the group reporting, and the remainder indicated that their unemployment was primarily due to personal illness, strikes or lockouts, and other causes.

Workers who indicated that lack of work was the major cause of idleness were unemployed from 1 to 40 weeks during the year, although the majority (61.5 per cent) were unemployed less than 13 weeks. Workers who stated that vacations without pay were the major cause of their unemployment obviously were not out of work for a long period; the majority of these were unemployed less than 4 weeks. Illness was associated with total unemployment that extended from 1 to 48 weeks. Strikes as a major cause of unemployment also were associated with a total unemployment that extended from 5 to 48 weeks.

Overtime.

About 60 per cent of the students reporting on this subject worked some overtime during the year. (Table XVI.) Half of these worked overtime for less than 5.3 weeks. The students who reported working overtime from 42 to 52 weeks in the year were employed in laundries, beauty parlors, and a southern cotton mill.

Hours of work.

The questions on hours of work asked for daily hours including the lunch-hour period, with a separate question for the length of the lunch period. More than half of the students reporting on daily hours had an over-all, including lunch period, of nine hours, and an additional 16 per cent had shorter hours than that. (Table XVII.)

The lunch period was one hour in half the cases reported, and it was at least half an hour in almost all the other cases. (Table XVIII.) Correlating such lunch periods with an over-all of nine hours or less for the majority of the students indicates that actual working hours not in excess of eight or eight and a half a day were the rule. This uncommon condition, due to the overweighting in the clothing industry, is further evidence of the select character of the group studied.

In addition to the women reporting daily hours, a few reported irregular hours or were unemployed. The 39 cases of shifts of 11 hours and over were in textiles, clothing, and domestic service, 1 of the last named being the child's nurse who reported her hours as 24; they were found in largest numbers among the students at the Southern Summer School and at Bryn Mawr. Few long shifts were found at Barnard or at Wisconsin.²¹

Earnings.

Most workers do not keep a record of year's earnings, and the estimates tabulated here, even when made with expert assistance, have not the same significance as pay-roll figures. (Table XIX.) For the 3 years combined, the median of the earnings figures for the

²¹ In surveys by the Women's Bureau of 2,599 establishments, employing more than 233,000 women, the daily hours were 8 or less in 533 establishments, affecting nearly 49,000 women, or 21 per cent of the total. An additional 24 per cent had a day of over 8 and under 9 hours. These figures are exclusive of lunch period.—U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Bul. 65, 1928, p. 24.

12 months prior to entering summer school was \$838, in a wide range from \$157 to \$2,270. One-fourth of the workers reporting received less than \$644 in the year, one-half received less than \$838, and three-fourths received less than \$1,061. The arithmetic average for the entire group reporting is \$881.97. When one bears in mind that these figures represent the average earnings for an older and experienced group of women workers who receive more than women workers usually get, their significance becomes more apparent.²² There was some variation in the average earnings for the three years studied, as might be expected; the median rose from \$861 in 1928 to \$887 in 1929 and dropped to \$793 in 1930—a drop of almost \$100.

Interesting sectional differences appear in the variation among the schools in year's earnings (Table XX). Barnard had the highest average (median) earnings, \$913, Bryn Mawr and Wisconsin the next highest, \$852 and \$850, respectively, and the Southern Summer School the lowest median, \$688. The earnings of students at Bryn Mawr and Barnard ranged over the widest scale, including some of the lowest and some of the highest paid workers in the entire group. Forty-eight per cent of Barnard students and about 55 per cent of Bryn Mawr and Wisconsin students earned less than \$900 in the year. In the highest range of earnings (\$1,700 to \$2,300) are found 5.7 per cent of Barnard students and 2.3 per cent of Bryn Mawr and Wisconsin students. The students at the Southern Summer School, however, are concentrated in the lower earnings levels. Over one-fourth (27.6 per cent) received less than \$500 in the year and practically nine-tenths (89.7 per cent) received less than \$900. Only one Southern Summer School student reported an income of over \$1,200.

In some cases, low earnings were reported by students who had been ill or out on strike a larger part of the year previous to entering summer school. Other low earnings were the result of lack of full-time employment in the better-paid trades, or regular earnings in the low-wage trades and sections of the country. Correlation of earnings with amount of full-time employment (Table XXI) shows how necessary it is in many cases for women to work full time to receive earnings that at best are inadequate. Sixteen per cent of the group earning less than \$900 worked practically full time (49 to 52 weeks) throughout the year. There might be expected a higher degree of correlation between low earnings and undertime employment and high earnings and full-time employment. Two factors tend to offset this association. One is the presence of a large number of workers from low-wage communities who have to work full time to make even low earnings, and the other is the large percentage of garment workers who receive fairly high rates of pay but seldom work more than 40 weeks even in the more prosperous years. Year's earnings above \$1,500 were reported by operators on pocketbooks, garments, and men's clothing, operators and trimmers on neckwear, a sample maker on dresses, a multiplex operator, a furniture decorator, a drawer-in (textiles), and a weaver in silk goods. It is interesting to note that clothing-trades workers were among the lowest and among the highest earnings groups, depending on the amount of full-time employment they had had.

²² The highest median year's earnings reported in the studies of the Women's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor is \$829 (Rhode Island, 1920). Bul. 21, p. 36.

Earnings by major industrial groupings for the three years combined show interesting variations. (Table XX.) Although the range of earnings in the needle trades is very wide, the highest median earnings of \$888 is found here. Clothing-trades workers in the sections represented at Bryn Mawr and Barnard had higher earnings than those at Wisconsin and the Southern Summer School. The scattered individuals in trade, transportation, clerical work, and professional work had the next highest median earnings, \$842, but the number of cases in this group and in the group of domestic and personal service workers is too small to warrant generalization. Twenty-eight domestic and personal service workers averaged \$757 in year's earnings for the period studied. This figure does not take into account the additional compensation in room and board that usually accompanies household work, nor the meals in hotel and restaurant work. The lowest average year's earnings are found in the textile industries, with a median of \$745. In this group the higher earnings are found in hosiery, silk, and rayon manufacture, and the lower earnings in the operations on cotton products.²³ Taking \$900 as a dividing point near both median and mean of the earnings figures, it is found that 51.6 per cent of all the clothing workers, 62.4 per cent of all workers in the miscellaneous trades, and 64.4 per cent of all textile workers received less than \$900 a year. The highest earnings (\$1,700 to \$2,300) were made by 4 per cent of the clothing workers, slightly over 1 per cent of the textile workers, and less than 1 per cent of the workers from the miscellaneous trades.

Almost one-fourth of the entire group of workers at the summer schools did not answer the question as to year's earnings or stated that their earnings were too irregular to estimate. In many occupations, uncertainty as to the year's income probably is as disturbing a feature of women's work as are low rates. When it is realized that these income figures are characteristic of a selected group of experienced women workers, at the probable height of their earning power, one questions what share of industrial prosperity is enjoyed by women workers in industry.

Deductions from pay.

Deductions from pay were reported by more than one-fifth (22.4 per cent) of the group answering this question. (Table XXII.) Such deductions ranged from a few cents to \$138, but more than one-half were for amounts of less than \$8. More than one cause for deduction was given in some cases, and 107 causes were given for a total of 95 deductions. In about one-half of the cases cited, the deductions were made for insurance or employee-benefit schemes. Fines for tardiness or poor work were next in importance. The highest deductions from pay (over \$25) were made for the purchase of company stock, insurance, or savings funds. One student reported fines for tardiness totaling as high as \$21.

Income from sources other than wages.

An attempt was made to secure data on sources of income in addition to wages. This question was answered by more than 60 per cent of

²³ Brissenden reports average yearly earnings (1925) for women workers in the clothing trades as ranging from \$593 to \$963, in textiles from \$771 to \$974, in miscellaneous trades from \$540 (glass) to \$1,033 (printing and publishing, book and job).—Earnings of Factory Workers, 1899 to 1927, Census Monograph X, 1929 p. 110.

the entire group studied. One-fifth of these reported having such other income; four-fifths reported that they had no source of income other than their wages. (Table XXIII.) The 81 students reporting specific amounts of additional income received from \$1 to \$450, half receiving more and half less than \$76.79. A wide variety of sources of extra income is found. To some extent this represents savings or borrowings, and in a few cases it is rent and interest on investments. Six students received strike benefits; one sold cake; one did extra work in a tea room; another did extra work for her union. Others received gifts, among which wedding gifts were prominent. Several married students had roomers. A number of workers received extra income from unemployment and sickness insurance or from accident compensation. In addition to the group reporting amounts, there were 27 students who reported help of indefinite value, such as maintenance from family when out of work or help from brothers or other relatives.

Amounts borrowed.

On the 1929 and 1930 schedules a question was asked concerning amounts borrowed during the year. (Table XXIV.) Over three-fourths of the students answering the question reported that they had borrowed nothing. The 22 per cent who had resorted to borrowing reported amounts that ranged from \$1 to \$500. The average (median) amount was \$80, but six students had borrowed from \$300 to \$500.

Savings and insurance.

More than half of the students reporting on savings during the year had saved nothing. About 45 per cent had saved, in amounts ranging from \$1 to \$700. Half of these had saved more and half less than \$72. (Table XXV.) Of those saving nothing there were larger proportions in Barnard and the Southern school than in Bryn Mawr or Wisconsin. With two exceptions, the 21 Southern Summer School students who had saved reported amounts under \$80.

An illustration of the selective character of the group is that there were several married women workers who reported savings of \$300 or more, two of them specifically reporting that they had saved all their earnings. One of the latter was a Southern student who had saved \$500. This is an uncommon condition among employed married women.

Among the trades represented in the high-savings group (over \$300) were printing, domestic and personal service, men's clothing, women's clothing, millinery, silk twisting, and telephone operating. One girl had saved \$300 "to get married," another saved \$700 to help to pay for the "white elephant" (her house). Many of these larger amounts appear to have been saved for specific purposes, to meet the high cost of living or of marrying, and can in no way be considered typical of the savings of the average worker in the schools. The group reporting the highest savings is partly offset by the group that borrowed in equally large amounts.

Insurance was carried by about 64 per cent of the students reporting on this point, of whom four-fifths paid premiums of less than \$50 a year. The median amount paid in premiums was \$25.35. (Table XXVI.)

Share in family support.

The majority of the workers at the summer schools (almost 70 per cent of those reporting definitely on this subject) live at home or with relatives, and of these almost four-fifths contribute to the family support. (Tables XXVII and XXVIII.) The proportion of earnings thus contributed varies. Naturally, those who do not live at home pay less than those who do. Many do not pay regular and definite amounts to their families but "help pay bills," "help brother through college," or "support daughter." A large group of foreign-born workers send money to the old country to help their families. In any case, the amounts contributed are dependent on earnings and are paid "when working," or "when I have the money." Of the 459 students reporting specifically on this question, almost 90 per cent contributed something regularly to the family support.²⁴ Of the group making regular contributions, 22.9 per cent contributed all their earnings and 33.4 per cent contributed half or more than half of their earnings.²⁵

The group studied obviously has few or no workers who are so burdened with financial responsibilities that they are not able to take some time off for educational activities, but it has few workers who do not assume some share of family support in addition to individual support. If criticism of the pin-money fallacy of women's employment needs any further evidence, these data from a selected and relatively highly paid group of women workers should be useful.

²⁴ Not including irregular and indefinite amounts.

²⁵ Data from 22 studies by various groups, from 1888 to 1923, of the share of women in family support, have been assembled by the Women's Bureau. These show that 53.2 per cent of the women studied contributed all their earnings to the family, 37.5 per cent contributed part of their earnings, and 9.3 per cent contributed nothing.—United States Department of Labor. Women's Bureau Bul. 75, 1929, p. 12.

...to family support.

The majority of the workers in the summer schools (about 70 per cent of those reporting a family in the subject) live at home or with relatives and in these cases the family contribute to the family support. Tables XXVII and XXVIII. The proportion of summer school workers who do not live at home is about 30 per cent. Naturally, those who do not live at home pay less than those who do. Many do not pay regular and definite amounts to their families but "help pay bills," "help brother through college," or "support daughter." A large group of foreign-born workers send money to the old country to help their families. In any case, the amounts contributed are dependent on earnings and are paid "when working" or "when I have the money." Of the 1,191 summer school workers, 32.9 per cent contributed to family support. Of the group making regular contributions, 33.9 per cent contributed all their earnings and 33.4 per cent contributed half or more than half of their earnings.

The group studied obviously has few or no workers who are so burdened with financial responsibilities that they are unable to take some time off for education and activities, but it has few workers who do not receive some form of family support in addition to individual support. If criticism of the high money theory of women's employment is to be based on further evidence, these data from a selected and relatively highly paid group of women workers should be useful.

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Appendix A—TABLES

Appendix B—FORM OF QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX A—TABLES

TABLE I.—Geographic distribution of students, by school—3-year totals

State of residence	4 schools combined		Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern
	Number	Per cent				
Total.....	609		277	131	116	85
Unknown.....	6		3		2	1
Reporting.....	603	100.0	274	131	114	84
New England.....	34	5.6				
Massachusetts.....	25		25			
Rhode Island.....	9		9			
Middle Atlantic.....	266	44.1				
New Jersey.....	7		7			
New York.....	202		70	131	1	
Pennsylvania.....	57		55		2	
Middle West.....	172	28.5				
Colorado.....	6		6			
Illinois.....	50		38		12	
Indiana.....	9		2		7	
Iowa.....	1				1	
Michigan.....	21		3		18	
Minnesota.....	24				24	
Missouri.....	2				2	
Ohio.....	23		12		11	
South Dakota.....	1				1	
Wisconsin.....	35				35	
Pacific.....	13	2.2				
California.....	7		7			
Washington.....	6		6			
South.....	117	19.4				
Alabama.....	2					2
Georgia.....	11		3			8
Kentucky.....	5		2			3
Maryland.....	11		6			5
North Carolina.....	30		8			22
South Carolina.....	2		1			1
Tennessee.....	14					14
Texas.....	1					1
Virginia.....	41		13			28
Canada.....	1	.2	1			

TABLE II.—Nativity, by school—3-year totals

Nativity	4 schools combined		Bryn Mawr		Barnard		Wisconsin		Southern	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Total.....	609		277		131		116		85	
Unknown.....	8		6				1		1	
Reporting.....	601	100.0	271	100.0	131	100.0	115	100.0	84	100.0
Native born of native parentage.....	194	32.3	67	24.7	5	3.8	41	35.7	81	96.4
Native born, one foreign parent.....	52	8.7	16	5.9	4	3.1	30	26.1	2	2.4
Native born, two foreign parents.....	93	15.5	63	23.2	10	7.6	20	17.4		
Foreign born of foreign parentage.....	262	43.6	125	46.1	112	85.6	24	20.9	1	1.2

TABLE III.—Country of birth of foreign born, by school—3-year totals

Country of birth	4 schools combined				
	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern	Total
Total	125	112	24	1	262
Unknown		2			2
Reporting	125	110	24	1	260
Argentina	1	1			2
Armenia	1	1			2
Austria	6	6	1		13
Belgium	1			1	2
Bessarabia	1	1			2
Canada	3	2	1		6
Costa Rica	1	1			2
Czechoslovakia	1				1
Denmark	1	1			2
Dutch Guiana	1				1
England	10	3			13
Galicia	2	2			4
Germany	3	2	3		8
Holland	1		1		2
Hungary	4	1			5
Ireland	2				2
Italy	4	2			6
Latvia	4				4
Lithuania	4	1			5
Mexico	1	1			2
Poland	16	26	5		47
Rumania	1	5			6
Russia	63	51	12		126
Scotland	1				1
Sweden			1		1
Syria	3				3
Turkey	1	1			2
West Indies		2			2

TABLE IV.—Age, by school—3-year totals

Age (in years)	4 schools combined		Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern
	Number	Per cent				
Total	609		277	131	116	85
Unknown	23		18	2	3	
Reporting	586	100.0	259	129	113	85
17	9	10.4			1	8
18	20		1	2	11	6
19	32		12	5	10	5
20	51		21	9	14	7
21	43	42.3	21	7	10	5
22	53		28	9	13	3
23	58		30	11	8	9
24	43		16	8	7	12
25	55	28.3	24	14	13	4
26	44		24	11	3	6
27	26		12	9	2	3
28	22		8	11	3	
29	19	13.8	10	5	2	2
30	25		8	8	3	6
31	21		13	4	2	2
32	20		12	5	3	
33	7	3.8	3	3		1
34	8		4	2	1	1
35	5		3	1	1	
36	5			2	2	1
37	8	1.4	5	2		1
38	2		1	1		
39	2				1	1
40	4		1		1	2
42	2	1.4	2			
45	1				1	
51	1				1	

TABLE V.—Marital status, by year¹—four schools combined

Marital status	3-year total		1928	1929	1930
	Number	Per cent			
Total	609		160	228	221
Unknown ²	79		26	51	2
Reporting	530	100.0	134	177	219
Married ³	46	8.7	6	9	31
Not married ⁴	484	91.3	128	168	188

¹ The question on marital status was "Are you married?" in 1928 and 1929 and "Are you married, single, widowed, or divorced?" in 1930.
² Includes 19 schedules from Bryn Mawr, 1928, on which the question was not asked, and many schedules on which the question was answered indefinitely.
³ The larger number of married in 1930 reflects not so much a change in the policy of the schools as greater accuracy and frankness in answering the question.
⁴ "Not married" includes six cases in 1930 and at least two in 1929 who were widowed or divorced.

TABLE VI.—Industry in last regular job, by school—3-year totals

Industry	4 schools combined		Bryn Mawr		Barnard		Wisconsin		Southern	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Total	609	100.0	277	100.0	131	100.0	116	100.0	85	100.0
All manufacturing	530	87.0	247	89.2	116	88.5	91	78.4	76	89.4
Men's clothing	75	12.3	38	13.7	8	6.1	14	12.1	15	17.6
Suits and coats	35		22		3		7		3	
Work clothing	16		2				4		10	
Other ¹	24		14		5		3		2	
Women's clothing	147	24.1	67	24.2	67	51.1	7	6.0	6	7.1
Dresses	115		53		55		7			
Underwear	20		9		7				4	
Other ²	12		5		5				2	
Children's dresses and suits	10	1.6	5	1.8	4	3.1			1	1.2
Millinery	54	8.9	31	11.2	17	13.0	6	5.2		
Textiles	97	15.9	40	14.4	2	1.5	13	11.2	42	49.4
Cotton	28		6						22	
Rayon	14		5						9	
Silk	10		8						2	
Hosiery	24		8				12		4	
Knit goods	10		4		1		1		4	
Other ³	11		9		1				1	
Miscellaneous	147	24.1	66	23.8	18	13.7	51	44.0	12	14.1
Food	13		6		2		4		1	
Leather	11		4		5		1		1	
Metal	37		15				22			
Paper	12		4				7		1	
Printing and publishing	14		9		1		3		1	
Tobacco	11		5				1		5	
Other ⁴	49		23		10		13		3	
Domestic and personal service	37	6.1	17	6.1	7	5.3	9	7.8	4	4.7
Housework	14		5				8		1	
Restaurants	9		4		2		1		2	
Laundries	8		5		3					
Other ⁵	6		3						1	
Trade	12	2.0	2	.7	1	.8	9	7.8		
Transportation	8	1.3	2	.7			4	3.4	2	2.4
Clerical	20	3.3	8	2.9	6	4.6	3	2.6	3	3.5
Professional ⁶	2	.3	1	.4	1	.8				

¹ Shirts and neckwear.
² Suits, coats, fur, and embroidering.
³ Wool, jute, thread, and quilts.
⁴ Chemicals, pianos, buttons, novelties, and optical instruments.
⁵ Beauty parlor, child's nurse, and not reported.
⁶ Factory inspector and chorus girl.

TABLE VII.—Union membership,¹ by school and year

Union membership	3-year total— 4 schools com- bined		1928					1929					1930				
	Num- ber	Per cent	4 schools com- bined	Bryn Mawr	Bar- nard	Wis- con- sin	South- ern	4 schools com- bined	Bryn Mawr	Bar- nard	Wis- con- sin	South- ern	4 schools com- bined	Bryn Mawr	Bar- nard	Wis- con- sin	South- ern
Total.....	609		160	85	39	12	24	228	94	47	52	35	221	98	45	52	26
Unknown.....	52		8	1	4	1	2	26	8	1	10	7	18	5	4	9	
Reporting.....	557	100.0	152	84	35	11	22	202	86	46	42	28	203	93	41	43	26
Union members.....	219	39.3	54	33	15	1	5	79	31	29	7	12	86	42	21	12	11
Not union members.....	338	60.7	98	51	20	10	17	123	55	17	35	16	117	51	20	31	15

¹ Union membership recorded for last job only, thus excluding many students who had formerly been union members but were not union members at the time of the last job held before entering summer school. This is not a record of union shops, since some union members worked in nonunion shops.

UNIONS REPRESENTED IN SCHOOLS

Clothing:

Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America.
Cloth Hat, Cap, and Millinery Workers' International Union.
International Fur Workers' Union of the United States and Canada.
International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union.
Needle Trades Workers' Industrial Union.
Neckwear Workers.
United Garment Workers of America.
United Hatters of North America.

Textile:

American Federation of Full-fashioned Hosiery Workers.
United Textile Workers of America.
Weavers' Union.

Miscellaneous:

Boot and Shoe Workers' Union.
Hotel and Restaurant Employees' International Alliance and Bartenders' International League of America.
International Brotherhood of Bookbinders.
International Typographical Union of North America.
Laundry Workers' International Union.
Pocketbook Workers' Union.
Tobacco Workers' International Union.

Clerical:

Bookkeepers, Stenographers, Typists, and Assistants.
Brotherhood of Railway and Steamship Clerks.

TABLE VIII.—Weekly wage rate on last job,¹ by school and school year

Amount	3-year total— 4 schools com- bined		1928					1929					1930							
	Num- ber	Per cent	4 schools		Bryn Mawr	Bar- nard	Wis- con- sin	South- ern	4 schools		Bryn Mawr	Bar- nard	Wis- con- sin	South- ern	4 schools		Bryn Mawr	Bar- nard	Wis- con- sin	South- ern
			Num- ber	Per cent					Num- ber	Per cent					Num- ber	Per cent				
Total.....	609		160		85	39	12	24	228		94	47	52	35	221		98	45	52	26
Unknown ²	15		1			1			7		4		3		7		1	2	4	
Reporting ³	594	100.0	159	100.0	85	38	12	24	221	100.0	90	47	49	35	214	100.0	97	43	48	26
\$8 to \$9.99.....	8	6.1	1	4.4				1	3	7.2			3	4	6.1	2		1	1	1
\$10 to \$11.99.....	28		6				2	4	13		2		3	8	5	1		2	1	1
\$12 to \$13.99.....	28	16.0	8	13.8	4		1	3	9	13.6	3		4	2	11	20.1	4	1	3	3
\$14 to \$15.99.....	67		14		8		3	3	21		9	1	6	5	32	13	6	1	9	4
\$16 to \$17.99.....	57		14		8	1	5	5	23	17.6	10		5	8	20	9	1	7	3	3
\$18 to \$19.99.....	64	20.4	19	20.8	11	3	2	3	16		8		7	1	29	12	4	7	6	6
\$20 to \$21.99.....	65		21		11	4	3	3	18		9	1	5	3	26	6	10	7	3	3
\$22 to \$23.99.....	41	17.8	7	17.6	6	1			13	14.0	3	3	4	3	21	12	3	4	4	2
\$24 to \$25.99.....	55		20		8	9	1	2	20		12	4	4		15	7	3	4	1	1
\$26 to \$27.99.....	21	12.8	3	14.5	2	1			8	12.7	6	1	1		10	11.7	6	2	4	2
\$28 to \$29.99.....	19		2		2				11		6	5		6	8.4	4	1	1		
\$30 to \$31.99.....	51	11.8	18	12.6	11	7			21	14.5	9	6	5	1	12	8	3	3	1	
\$32 to \$33.99.....	21		6		4	2			11		5	5	1	4	4	2		2		
\$34 to \$35.99.....	37	9.8	9	9.4	6	3			20	14.0	5	10	4	1	8	5.6	3	5		
\$36 to \$37.99.....	2								2		2									
\$38 to \$39.99.....	6	1.3							6	3.6		6								
\$40 to \$41.99.....	4		2			2			2		2									
\$42 to \$43.99.....	3	1.2	1	1.9	1					.9				2	.9	1	1			
\$44 to \$45.99.....	10		6		2	4			1			1		3		2	1			
\$50 to \$51.99.....	6	2.9	2	5.0	1	1			2	1.8		2		2	2.3	1	1			
\$75.....	1								1		1									
Median.....	\$21.38		\$21.67						\$23.15						\$20.15					

¹ Wage rate at quitting last job. This is usually a full-time wage rate. Students on piecework (more than half of the total) reported an average of their earnings. If the report for the last job was not available, the median of the highest and lowest weekly earnings in the previous year was used.

² Includes 1 student who apparently was working for her family, and reported "no wages," and 5 unemployed students.

³ One student in the \$20-\$21 group reported board and room in addition, 1 in the \$14-\$15 group reported lunch in addition, and 2 in the \$10-\$11 group reported respectively 3 meals and 1 meal per day, in addition.

TABLE IX.—Age at entering industry, by school—3-year totals

Age at entering industry (in years)	4 schools combined		Bryn Mawr		Barnard		Wisconsin		Southern	
	Num- ber	Per cent	Num- ber	Per cent	Num- ber	Per cent	Num- ber	Per cent	Num- ber	Per cent
Total.....	609		277		131		116		85	
Unknown.....	27		23		1		2		1	
Reporting.....	582	100.0	254	100.0	130	100.0	114	100.0	84	100.0
Under 13 ¹	33	5.7	14	5.5	10	7.7	3	2.6	6	7.1
13 to 15.....	241	41.4	120	47.2	54	41.5	29	25.4	38	45.2
16 to 18.....	242	41.6	100	39.4	48	36.9	64	56.1	30	35.7
19 to 21.....	51	8.8	15	5.9	16	12.3	14	12.3	6	7.1
22 to 24.....	13	2.2	5	2.0	2	1.5	4	3.5	2	2.4
28 to 30.....	1	.2							1	1.2
31 to 33.....	1	.2							1	1.2

¹Includes 1 woman in Bryn Mawr, 2 in Barnard, and 1 in Wisconsin who reported having begun work for wages before 10 years of age.

TABLE X.—Years in industry,¹ by school and year

Years in industry	4 schools combined—3-year total		Bryn Mawr				Barnard				Wisconsin				Southern			
	Number	Per cent	3-year total	1928	1929	1930	3-year total	1928	1929	1930	3-year total	1928	1929	1930	3-year total	1928	1929	1930
Total.....	609		277	85	94	98	131	39	47	45	116	12	52	52	85	24	35	26
Unknown.....	1		1	1														
Reporting.....	608	100.0	276	84	94	98	131	39	47	45	116	12	52	52	85	24	35	26
1.....	13	30.4	1			1	3	2	1		7	1	2	4	2	2		
2.....	44		5	2	3		7	2	2	3	15	3	6	6	17	1	13	3
3.....	31		5	1	3	1	6	4	1	1	12	1	5	6	8	2	5	1
4.....	54		30	10	12	8	7	2	3	2	12	2	4	6	5	4		1
5.....	43	37.7	25	11	6	8	5	3	1	10	2	6	2	3			2	1
6.....	60		27	6	10	11	14	3	3	8	14		9	5	5	1	2	2
7.....	62		37	11	9	17	10	5	1	4	6		1	5	9	2	4	3
8.....	37		17	6	7	4	8	1	6	1	7		5	2	5	3	1	1
9.....	35	19.7	19	3	7	9	5		2	3	7	1	2	4	4	2	2	2
10.....	35		15	3	9	3	9		5	4	6	1	3	2	5	1	2	2
11.....	26		13	5	4	4	5	2	1	2	4		1	3	4	2	1	1
12.....	30		10	4	3	3	15	6	4	5	1		1	2	4	1	1	2
13.....	20	9.2	8	2	2	4	8	2	4	2	2	1	1	2				
14.....	21		10	2	5	3	8	2	4	2	2		1	1	1	1		
15.....	23		13	6	4	3	8	3	2	3	1		1	1	1	1		
16.....	25		10		3	7	5	1	3	1	4		1	3	6		2	4
17.....	9	3.0	5	2	1	2	4	1	2	1								
18.....	10		8	4	2	2	1			1					1		1	
19.....	2		2	1	1	1												
20.....	10		8	2	2	4	1		1		1			1				
21.....	5	3.0	3	2		1	1		1				1				1	2
22.....	5						1			1			1		3		1	
23.....	2		2	1	1													
24.....	1		1			1									1			1
26.....	1	3.0	1												1	1		
28.....	1														1			
30.....	1					1												
31.....	1										1				1			
32.....	1		1		1													

¹ If the years in the job history reported did not tally with the difference between the age at entering industry and present age, the latter figure was tabulated, as more accurate. Only years in industry in the United States were counted. Many students at Barnard and Bryn Mawr reported industrial experience abroad, in addition.

TABLE XI.—Number of jobs held,¹ by school and year

Number of jobs per student	4 schools combined—3-year total		Total jobs held by 581 students ²	Bryn Mawr				Barnard				Wisconsin				Southern			
	Number	Per cent		3-year total	1928	1929	1930	3-year total	1928	1929	1930	3-year total	1928	1929	1930	3-year total	1928	1929	1930
Total.....	609		2,671	277	85	94	98	131	39	47	45	116	12	52	52	85	24	35	26
Indefinite number ³	28			16	4	9	3	10	3	1	6	2			2				
Reporting.....	581	100.0	2,671	261	81	85	95	121	36	46	39	114	12	52	50	85	24	35	26
1.....	74	12.7	74	25	2	13	10	9	1	4	4	22	2	13	7	18	5	10	3
2.....	96	16.5	192	35	12	11	12	10	4	3	3	33	4	15	14	18	5	9	4
3.....	98	16.9	294	41	11	17	13	21	5	13	3	16	4	6	6	20	4	8	8
4.....	90	15.5	360	40	16	12	12	21	5	13	3	18		7	11	11	4	2	5
5.....	57	9.8	285	27	6	8	13	22	7	7	8	6		2	4	2	1	1	
6.....	52	9.0	312	27	10	3	14	12	3	2	7	8	1	5	2	5	1	1	3
7.....	27	4.6	189	17	9	3	5	6	2		4	1			1	3	2	1	
8.....	19	3.3	152	10	1	4	5	3			2	2			1	4	1	1	2
9.....	21	3.6	189	11	4	4	3	3		3		4		1	3	3		2	1
10.....	9		90	7	3	2	2	2		1									
11.....	10		110	5	1	2	2	2	2			2		1	1	1	1		
12.....	8	6.2	96	5	2	2	1	2	1		1	1			1				
13.....	7		91	3	1	1	1	3	3			1							
14.....	2		28	1			1	1			1								
15.....	3		45	2	1	1		1	1					1					
16.....	1	1.2	16	1		1													
17.....	2		34	1	1			1			1								
18.....	1		18					1			1								
20.....	1	.3	20					1			1								
21.....	1		21	1	1														
25.....	1	.2	25	1		1													
30.....	1	.2	30	1			1												

¹ A record of all jobs of which a report was made.

² Excluding 28 students holding an indefinite number of jobs (more than 4 each), the average number of jobs per student is 4.6.

³ Twenty-seven of these reported four and more jobs, saying that they had held too many to count. The other, in one of the printing trades, reported that she had worked at her trade 17 years but did not give a record of jobs held.

TABLE XII.—Cause of leaving job, by year—four schools combined

Cause	3-year total		1928		1929		1930	
	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent
All causes.....	1,988	100.0	689	100.0	485	100.0	814	100.0
Low wages, long hours.....	404	20.3	163	23.7	87	17.9	154	18.9
Lay-off, slack or seasonal work (temporary job).....	380	19.1	127	18.4	97	20.0	156	19.2
Discharged.....	41	2.1	8	1.2	13	2.7	20	2.5
Strike or lockout.....	90	4.5	30	4.4	28	5.8	32	3.9
Business failed, moved, burned.....	110	5.5	36	5.2	25	5.2	49	6.0
Introduction of machinery.....	7	.4	1	.1	4	.8	2	.2
Dislike of management, "disagreements with boss".....	64	3.2	22	3.2	14	2.9	28	3.4
Dislike of work, better job elsewhere.....	186	9.4	40	5.8	31	6.4	115	14.1
Unhealthful, disagreeable working conditions.....	159	8.0	52	7.5	44	9.1	63	7.7
Illness.....	80	4.0	33	4.8	24	4.9	23	2.8
To go to school.....	132	6.6	50	7.3	24	4.9	58	7.1
Change of residence (family or individual).....	122	6.1	49	7.1	35	7.2	38	4.7
Marriage and family.....	23	1.2	1	.1	3	.6	19	2.3
Union activity, union politics, to get into union shop.....	66	3.3	19	2.8	24	4.9	23	2.8
Other reasons (including multiple).....	124	6.2	58	8.4	32	6.6	34	4.2

TABLE XIII.—Part-time employment in previous year,¹ by school and school year

Number of part-time weeks worked	3-year total— 4 schools combined		1928				1929				1930									
			4 schools combined		Bryn Mawr	Bar- nard	Wis- consin	South- ern	4 schools combined		Bryn Mawr	Bar- nard	Wis- consin	South- ern	4 schools combined		Bryn Mawr	Bar- nard	Wis- consin	South- ern
	Num- ber	Per cent	Num- ber	Per cent					Num- ber	Per cent					Num- ber	Per cent				
Total.....	609		160		85	39	12	24	228		94	47	52	35	221		98	45	52	26
Unemployed.....	5		1			1			2		1		1		2			1	1	
Unknown.....	53		14		12			2	13		4			9	26		5	6	8	7
Reporting.....	551	100.0	145	100.0	73	38	12	22	213	100.0	89	47	51	26	193	100.0	93	38	43	19
0.....	206	37.4	63	43.4	31	13	11	8	88	41.3	44	3	28	13	55	28.5	24	10	14	7
1 to 4.....	44	38.1	13	33.1	7	3	1	2	13	37.1	5	4	3	1	18	43.0	10	2	4	2
5 to 8.....	65		15		9	3	3	21	5		5	3	29	13	6		6	4		
9 to 12.....	54		14		8	6		24	6		10	5	3	16	3		7	6		
13 to 16.....	47	16.0	6	17.2	2	2		2	21	14.1	6	12	3		20	17.1	13	4	2	1
17 to 20.....	30		6		2	2	2	13	6		5	1	1	11	7		3	1		
21 to 24.....	21		9		4	3		6	4		1	1		6	4		1	1		
25 to 28.....	18	7.3	6	4.8	1	3		2	5	7.0	2	2	1		7	9.3	3	1	2	1
29 to 32.....	19		4		3	1		6	2		4		9	5	2		2			
33 to 36.....	7		2		2			2	1			1	3	3						
37 to 40.....	19	1.3	2	1.4	1	1			9	.5	4	1	3	1	8	2.1	3	1	2	2
41 to 44.....	7		1		1			2	1			1	4	2						
45 to 48.....	7		2		1	1		2	3			2	3	1	1		1	1		
49 to 52.....	7	2	1			1	1		1			1	4	2	2	1	1			
Median, all reporting.....	6.7 weeks		4.0 weeks						6.2 weeks					8.4 weeks						
Median, those with some part time.....	13.8 weeks		12.7 weeks						13.9 weeks					14.2 weeks						

¹ Only those reports were tabulated that tallied to 52 weeks' record. 24 students worked in more than 1 industry in the year prior to entering summer school.

TABLE XIV.—Extent of unemployment in previous year,¹ by major cause—3-year totals, four schools combined

Major cause of unemployment	Total		Num- ber not re- porting on ext- ent of un- em- ploy- ment	Num- ber re- porting on ext- ent of un- em- ploy- ment	Num- ber with no un- em- ploy- ment	Num- ber re- porting weeks of un- em- ploy- ment	Number with weeks of unemployment as specified												
	Num- ber	Per cent					Un- der 5 weeks	5 to 8 weeks	9 to 12 weeks	13 to 16 weeks	17 to 20 weeks	21 to 24 weeks	25 to 28 weeks	29 to 32 weeks	33 to 36 weeks	37 to 40 weeks	45 to 48 weeks	49 to 52 weeks	
Total—Number.....	609		66	543	95	448	139	93	87	42	31	9	18	11	2	6	4	6	6
Per cent distribution.....						100.0	31.0	20.8	19.4	9.4	6.9	2.0	4.0	2.5	0.4	1.3	0.9	1.3	
Not reporting on cause of unemployment ²	53		53																
Reporting on cause of unemployment.....	556		13	543	95	448	139	93	87	42	31	9	18	11	2	6	4	6	
No unemployment.....	95			95	95														
Major cause not separable.....	27		1	26		26	12	8	4	2									
Cause unknown ³	6			6		6			1										5
Reporting cause of unemployment as specified.....	428	100.0	12	416		416	127	85	82	40	31	9	18	11	2	6	4	1	
Lack of work.....	221	51.6	8	213		213	32	42	57	25	24	6	15	7	2	3			
Vacation without pay.....	76	17.8	2	74		74	58	15	1										
Vacation not reported whether with or with- out pay ⁴	22	5.1		22		22	16		4	1	1								
Illness, personal or in family ⁵	64	15.0	1	63		63	19	22	10	5	2	1		1		2	1		
Strike or lockout.....	24	5.6		24		24		3	5	4	3	2	2	2			3		
Other ⁶	21	4.9	1	20		20	2	3	5	5	1		1	1		1			1

¹ Only periods of 1 week or more counted as unemployment. Vacation or illness with pay not counted as unemployment. (See Note 4.)

² Includes a large group of students whose tally of 52 weeks was not accurate.

³ Includes 5 students unemployed all previous year.

⁴ 1928 figures.

⁵ Includes only 2 cases of illness in family.

⁶ Includes several cases of students unemployed because attending school.

46 WOMEN WORKERS AT SUMMER SCHOOLS, 1928 TO 1930

TABLE XV.—Major cause of unemployment in previous year,¹ by school year—four schools combined

Major cause of unemployment	3-year total		1928		1929		1930	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Total.....	609		160		228		221	
Not reporting on cause of unemployment ²	53		14		13		26	
Reporting on cause of unemployment.....	556		146		215		195	
No unemployment.....	95		26		35		34	
Major cause not separable.....	27		9		9		9	
Cause unknown ³	6		1		3		2	
Reporting cause of unemployment as specified.....	428	100.0	110	100.0	168	100.0	150	100.0
Lack of work.....	221	51.6	60	54.5	89	53.0	72	48.0
Vacation ⁴	98	22.9	22	20.0	40	23.8	36	24.0
Illness, personal or family ⁵	64	15.0	19	17.3	29	17.3	16	10.7
Strike or lockout.....	24	5.6	5	4.5	8	4.8	11	7.3
Other ⁶	21	4.9	4	3.6	2	1.2	15	10.0

¹ Only periods of one week or more counted as unemployment. Vacation or illness with pay not counted as unemployment. (See Note 4.)

² Includes a large group of students whose tally of 52 weeks was not accurate.

³ Includes five students unemployed all previous year.

⁴ In 1928 not reported whether with or without pay.

⁵ Includes only two cases of illness in family.

⁶ Includes several cases of students unemployed because attending school.

TABLE XVI.—Number of weeks of overtime work in previous year, by school year—four schools combined

Number of weeks of overtime work	3-year total		1928	1929	1930
	Number	Per cent			
Total.....	609		160	228	221
Unknown ¹	187		46	77	64
Reporting.....	422		114	151	157
No overtime.....	170		60	54	56
Overtime ²	252	100.0	54	97	101
1 to 2.....	40	15.9	12	13	15
3 to 4.....	80	31.7	23	28	29
5 to 6.....	38	15.1	11	10	17
7 to 8.....	29	11.5	1	14	14
9 to 10.....	17	6.7	2	8	7
11 to 12.....	14	5.6	3	5	6
13 to 14.....	5	3.6	1	1	3
15 to 16.....	2			2	
17 to 18.....	2	3.6			2
19 to 20.....	4			3	1
21 to 22.....	1			1	
23 to 24.....	4	2.4		2	2
25 to 26.....	5			1	2
27 to 28.....	1	1.2		1	
42 to 43.....	2			2	
44 to 45.....		2.8			
46 to 47.....	1			1	
48 to 49.....	1				1
50 to 51.....	2			1	1
52.....	4			3	1

¹ "Unknown" includes indefinite answers.

² Overtime worked 42 to 52 weeks in the year was reported by students working in laundries and beauty parlors, and by two students from a North Carolina cotton mill, who apparently counted their long shift as "overtime."

TABLE XVII.—Daily hours of work in previous year, by school and school year

Daily hours (including lunch period)	3-year total— 4 schools combined		1928					1929					1930							
			4 schools combined		Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	South-ern	4 schools combined		Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	South-ern	4 schools combined		Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	South-ern
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent					Number	Per cent					Number	Per cent				
Total.....	609		160		85	39	12	24	228		94	47	52	35	221		98	45	52	26
Unknown.....	26		3		2	1			3		1		1	20		7	4	7	2	
Reporting.....	583		157		83	38	12	24	225		93	47	51	34	201		91	41	45	24
Unemployed.....	5		1			1			2		1		1	2			1	1		
Hours unlimited.....	2								2				2							
Varied shifts.....	3								3		2		1							
Reporting hours.....	573	100.0	156	100.0	83	37	12	24	218	100.0	90	47	47	34	199	100.0	91	40	44	24
6.....	2	15.9	1	19.9		1			2	10.6	1				1	18.6		1		
7.....	3		30		21	4	1	4	21		10	4	3	4	35		22	6	6	1
8.....	86	52.5	88	56.4	46	29	6	7	105	48.2	42	41	18	4	108	54.3	52	28	22	6
9.....	301		30		13	2	4	11	66		30	1	22	13	46		14	3	16	13
10.....	142	24.8	5	19.2	3	1		1	18	30.3	6	1		11	4	23.1	2	1		1
11 ¹	27		1					1	5				3	2	3					
12 ¹	9	6.8	1	4.5						11.0						4.0				
13 ¹	1		1					1												
14 ¹	1																			
24 ²	1								1		1			1			1			

¹ The working days of from 11 to 14 hours were reported in textiles, clothing, and domestic service.

² The 24-hour day was reported by a child's nurse.

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APPENDIX A—TABLES

TABLE XVIII.—*Duration of lunch period in previous year—3-year totals, four schools combined*

Duration of lunch period (in minutes)	3-year total—4 schools combined	
	Number	Per cent
Total.....	609	
Unknown.....	18	
Reporting.....	591	
Unlimited and irregular.....	8	
Reporting duration.....	583	100.0
0.....	3	.5
15 to 29.....	14	2.4
30 to 44.....	130	22.3
45 to 59.....	131	22.5
60 to 74.....	298	51.1
75 to 89.....	7	1.2

TABLE XIX.—Earnings in previous year,¹ by school and school year

Amount	3-year total—4 schools combined	1928					1929					1930				
		4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Bar-nard	Wiscon-sin	South-ern	4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Bar-nard	Wiscon-sin	South-ern	4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Bar-nard	Wiscon-sin	South-ern
Total	609	160	85	39	12	24	228	94	47	52	35	221	98	45	52	26
Unknown ²	143	49	27	16	1	5	41	22		13	6	53	14	9	14	16
Reporting	466	111	58	23	11	19	187	72	47	39	29	168	84	36	38	10
Under \$200	1											1	1			
\$200 to \$299	7	2	1			1	1				1	4		2		
\$300 to \$399	17	2		1		1	8	3	2	2	1	7	4	1	1	1
\$400 to \$499 ³	41	10	6		2	2	16	4	1	3	8	15	6	5	3	1
\$500 to \$599	30	11	4	3		4	5	1		2	2	14	7	3	4	
\$600 to \$699	47	7	3	3		1	23	10	2	5	6	17	10	3	3	1
\$700 to \$799	67	15	7		4	4	24	9	7	3	5	28	18	3	5	2
\$800 to \$899	61	14	6	2		6	19	8	4	4	3	28	11	9	6	2
\$900 to \$999	57	16	9	4	3		29	12	8	8	1	12	3	3	5	1
\$1,000 to \$1,099	35	7	5	1	1		18	9	7	2		10	3	1	2	1
\$1,100 to \$1,199	26	4	3	1			12	3	6	2	1	10	5	1	3	1
\$1,200 to \$1,299	22	6	3	2	1		8	2	5	1		8	6		2	
\$1,300 to \$1,399	16	5	3	2			7	2	3	2		4	1	1	2	
\$1,400 to \$1,499	8	1	1				5	3	1		1	2	1	1		
\$1,500 to \$1,599	11	2	1	1			6	4	1	1		3	3			
\$1,600 to \$1,699	7	3	3				3	1		2		1	1			
\$1,700 to \$1,799	4	2	1	1			1			1		1	1			
\$1,800 to \$1,899	2						1			1		1		1		
\$1,900 to \$1,999	2	1		1			1	1								
\$2,000 to \$2,099	2	1		1								1		1		
\$2,200 to \$2,299	3	2	2									1		1		
Median	\$838	\$861					\$887					\$793				

¹ Few students keep accurate records of earnings. About half of the figures given are estimates based on wage rates and number of weeks of full-time and part-time employment.

² Many of the "unknown" are students whose earnings were reported as "too irregular to estimate." This group also includes 5 girls unemployed during the previous year and 3 girls on strike more than half the year, who did not answer.

³ In the \$400 to \$499 group there are 2 domestic servants who received board and room in addition to wage and 1 soda-fountain clerk who received board.

TABLE XX.—Earnings in previous year, by industry¹ and school—3-year totals

Earnings	All industries					Clothing manufacturing																			
						Total ²					Men's					Women's					Millinery				
	4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern	4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern	4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern	4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern	4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern
Total	609	277	131	116	85	286	141	96	27	22	75	38	8	14	15	147	67	67	7	6	54	31	17	6	-----
Unknown	143	63	25	28	27	61	36	11	4	10	21	10	2	2	7	32	20	8	1	3	5	3	1	1	-----
Reporting	466	214	106	88	58	225	105	85	23	12	54	28	6	12	8	115	47	59	6	3	49	28	16	5	-----
\$100 to \$199	1	1	-----	-----	2	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	4	1	2	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$200 to \$299	7	1	2	2	2	5	1	2	1	1	1	-----	-----	-----	1	4	1	2	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$300 to \$399	17	7	4	3	3	7	3	3	1	1	1	-----	-----	-----	3	1	2	2	-----	-----	3	2	-----	-----	-----
\$400 to \$499	41	16	6	8	11	14	6	5	2	1	3	1	-----	-----	1	7	4	4	-----	-----	4	2	1	-----	-----
\$500 to \$599	30	12	6	6	6	12	5	4	2	1	3	2	-----	-----	1	4	1	2	-----	-----	1	4	1	-----	-----
\$600 to \$699	47	23	8	8	8	20	10	7	2	1	5	3	1	-----	8	3	4	1	-----	-----	4	3	1	-----	-----
\$700 to \$799	67	34	10	12	11	29	15	8	2	4	10	5	-----	2	3	16	8	8	-----	-----	4	2	-----	-----	-----
\$800 to \$899	61	25	15	10	11	29	11	11	3	4	6	2	-----	1	3	16	6	7	2	1	6	3	3	-----	-----
\$900 to \$999	57	24	15	16	2	23	8	13	2	-----	6	4	1	-----	1	11	3	7	1	-----	5	4	4	-----	-----
\$1,000 to \$1,099	35	20	9	5	1	26	15	8	3	-----	5	3	1	-----	12	9	4	1	-----	-----	9	5	3	-----	-----
\$1,100 to \$1,199	26	11	8	5	2	14	7	7	-----	-----	1	1	-----	-----	9	3	6	-----	-----	-----	4	3	1	-----	-----
\$1,200 to \$1,299	22	11	7	4	-----	12	8	3	1	-----	3	2	-----	1	-----	2	2	-----	-----	-----	2	2	-----	-----	-----
\$1,300 to \$1,399	16	6	6	4	-----	13	5	5	3	-----	4	1	-----	3	-----	7	5	-----	-----	-----	2	2	-----	-----	-----
\$1,400 to \$1,499	8	5	2	-----	1	4	2	2	-----	-----	1	1	-----	-----	1	1	1	-----	-----	-----	2	1	-----	-----	-----
\$1,500 to \$1,599	11	8	2	1	-----	4	3	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	3	2	1	-----	-----	-----	1	1	-----	-----	-----
\$1,600 to \$1,699	7	5	-----	2	-----	4	3	-----	1	-----	2	1	-----	1	-----	2	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$1,700 to \$1,799	4	2	1	1	-----	2	1	1	-----	-----	1	1	-----	-----	1	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$1,800 to \$1,899	2	1	1	1	-----	1	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	1	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$1,900 to \$1,999	2	1	1	-----	-----	2	1	1	-----	-----	1	1	-----	-----	1	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$2,000 to \$2,099	2	-----	2	-----	-----	2	-----	2	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$2,200 to \$2,299	3	2	1	-----	-----	2	1	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	1	1	-----	-----	-----
Median	\$838	\$852	\$913	\$850	\$688	\$888	-----	-----	-----	-----	\$867	-----	-----	-----	-----	\$897	-----	-----	-----	-----	\$930	-----	-----	-----	-----

50 WOMEN WORKERS AT SUMMER SCHOOLS, 1928 TO 1930

Earnings	Textile manufacturing					Miscellaneous manufacturing					Domestic and personal service					Clerical and professional, trade, transportation				
	4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern	4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern	4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern	4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern
Total	97	40	2	13	42	147	66	18	51	12	37	17	7	9	4	42	13	8	16	5
Unknown	24	5	2	5	12	38	16	4	14	4	9	5	3	1	-----	11	1	5	4	1
Reporting	73	35	-----	8	30	109	50	14	37	8	28	12	4	8	4	31	12	3	12	4
\$100 to \$199	1	-----	-----	-----	1	1	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$200 to \$299	4	2	-----	-----	2	4	2	-----	1	1	1	-----	1	-----	1	1	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$300 to \$399	17	7	-----	1	9	3	2	-----	1	2	4	-----	3	-----	2	3	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$400 to \$499	3	1	-----	-----	2	9	4	-----	1	2	2	-----	2	-----	1	1	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$500 to \$599	7	1	-----	-----	6	17	10	-----	6	1	6	-----	1	-----	1	2	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$600 to \$699	10	5	-----	-----	5	17	11	-----	3	1	3	-----	3	-----	1	4	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$700 to \$799	5	4	-----	-----	1	17	5	-----	2	6	4	-----	4	-----	3	6	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$800 to \$899	14	7	-----	5	2	14	5	-----	8	-----	3	-----	1	-----	3	3	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$900 to \$999	3	2	-----	-----	1	5	3	-----	1	-----	2	-----	-----	-----	1	1	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$1,000 to \$1,099	4	2	-----	1	1	5	1	-----	3	-----	2	-----	-----	-----	1	1	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$1,100 to \$1,199	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	7	1	-----	4	-----	1	-----	-----	-----	1	1	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$1,200 to \$1,299	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	2	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	1	1	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$1,300 to \$1,399	1	1	-----	-----	-----	1	1	-----	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$1,400 to \$1,499	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	3	2	-----	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	2	1	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$1,500 to \$1,599	2	2	-----	-----	-----	3	2	-----	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$1,600 to \$1,699	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	3	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$1,700 to \$1,799	1	1	-----	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$1,800 to \$1,899	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$1,900 to \$1,999	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$2,000 to \$2,099	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	-----	-----
\$2,200 to \$2,299	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	-----
Median	\$745	-----	-----	-----	-----	\$821	-----	-----	-----	-----	\$757	-----	-----	-----	-----	\$842	-----	-----	-----	-----

¹ In the years 1929 and 1930, 24 students worked in more than one industry. They are classified by industry of latest employment. See also footnotes to Table XIX.
² Includes 10 students in the manufacture of children's clothing, not shown separately.

APPENDIX A—TABLES

TABLE XXI.—Earnings in previous year,¹ by number of full-time weeks worked—3-year totals, four schools combined

Number of full-time weeks worked	Total		Total not reporting earnings		Total reporting earnings		Women who earned—									
							Under \$500		\$500 and under \$700		\$700 and under \$900		\$900 and under \$1,100		\$1,100 and over	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Total.....	609		143		466		66		77		128		92		103	
Unemployed.....	5		5													
Unknown.....	52		34		18		8		4		2		3		1	
Reporting.....	552	100.0	104	100.0	448	100.0	58	100.0	73	100.0	126	100.0	89	100.0	² 102	100.0
0 to 4.....	24	4.3	6	5.8	18	4.0	3	5.2	6	8.2	5	4.0			4	3.9
5 to 8.....	16	2.9	4	3.8	12	2.7	4	6.9	3	4.1	1	.8	2	2.2	2	2.0
9 to 12.....	33	6.0	8	7.7	25	5.6	10	17.2	4	5.5	7	5.6	2	2.2	2	2.0
13 to 16.....	23	4.2	4	3.8	19	4.2	7	12.1	2	2.7	5	4.0	3	3.4	2	2.0
17 to 20.....	40	7.2	9	8.7	31	6.9	6	10.3	8	11.0	12	9.5	4	4.5	1	1.0
21 to 24.....	35	6.3	3	2.9	32	7.1	2	3.4	5	6.8	9	7.1	11	12.4	5	4.9
25 to 28.....	50	9.1	10	9.6	40	8.9	11	19.0	4	5.5	10	7.9	9	10.1	6	5.9
29 to 32.....	49	8.9	7	6.7	42	9.4	1	1.7	8	11.0	9	7.1	8	9.0	16	15.7
33 to 36.....	28	5.1	7	6.7	21	4.7	1	1.7	4	5.5	4	3.2	5	5.6	7	6.9
37 to 40.....	53	9.6	13	12.5	40	8.9	3	5.2	7	9.6	15	11.9	8	9.0	7	6.9
41 to 44.....	40	7.2	6	5.8	34	7.6	2	3.4	7	9.6	6	4.8	4	4.5	15	14.7
45 to 48.....	63	11.4	7	6.7	56	12.5	5	8.6	5	6.8	14	11.1	17	19.1	15	14.7
49 to 52.....	98	17.8	20	19.2	78	17.4	3	5.2	10	13.7	29	23.0	16	18.0	20	19.6

¹ See footnote 1 to Table XIX.

² Includes 48 students at \$1,100 and under \$1,300, 23 at \$1,300 and under \$1,500, 18 at \$1,500 and under \$1,700, 6 at \$1,700 and under \$1,900, 4 at \$1,900 and under \$2,100, and 3 at \$2,200 and under \$2,300.

TABLE XXII.—Deductions from pay in previous year,¹ by school and school year

Deductions from pay	3-year total— 4 schools combined	1928					1929					1930				
		4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern	4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern	4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern
Total.....	609	160	85	39	12	24	228	94	47	52	35	221	98	45	52	26
Unknown.....	184	40	16	22	1	1	84	34	30	12	8	60	15	18	21	6
Reporting.....	425	120	69	17	11	23	144	60	17	40	27	161	83	27	31	20
No deductions.....	330	94	54	15	8	17	120	49	17	32	22	116	65	22	13	16
Amount unknown.....	9	4	3	1								5	1	2		2
Amounts.....	86	22	12	1	3	6	24	11		8	5	40	17	3	18	2
\$0.01 to \$1.99.....	7	1		1			3	3				3			3	
\$2.00 to \$3.99.....	20	6	4			2	4	2		2		10	5		4	1
\$4.00 to \$5.99.....	7	5	4			1	1	1				1			1	
\$6.00 to \$7.99.....	16	3	1		1	1	3	1		1	1	10	5	2	3	
\$8.00 to \$9.99.....	8						5	2		1	1	3	2	1		
\$10.00 to \$11.99.....	4	1			1		2	1		1		1				1
\$14.00 to \$15.99.....	6	1			1		1				1	4	2		2	
\$16.00 to \$17.99.....	1						1				1					
\$18.00 to \$19.99.....	4	2	1			1	1	1				1			1	
\$20.00 to \$21.99.....	3	1	1				1			1		1			1	
\$24.00 to \$25.99.....	1											1	1			
\$31.00 to \$40.99.....	1											1	1			
\$41.00 to \$50.99.....	2						1				1	1			1	
\$51.00 to \$60.99.....	2	1	1									1	1			
\$71.00 to \$80.99.....	2	1				1	1			1						
\$100 and \$138.....	2											2			2	

¹ 107 causes cited for deductions: Insurance, 47; fines for tardiness, leaving early, and poor work, 26; community chest and hospital funds, 14; union dues and assessments, 9; materials and company store, 4; gifts, 2; purchase of company stock and savings funds, 5.

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TABLE XXIII.—*Money from sources other than wages in previous year, by school year—four schools combined*

Money from other sources	3-year total	1928	1929	1930
Total.....	609	160	228	221
Unknown.....	227	50	79	98
Reporting.....	382	110	149	123
No other income.....	301	88	125	88
Reporting amount ¹	81	22	24	35
\$0.01 to \$24.99.....	14	4	2	8
\$25 to \$49.99.....	14	2	7	5
\$50 to \$74.99.....	12	5	4	3
\$75 to \$99.99.....	7	1	3	3
\$100 to \$124.99.....	9	2	3	4
\$125 to \$149.99.....	3	—	1	2
\$150 to \$174.99.....	7	5	1	1
\$200 to \$224.99.....	6	2	2	2
\$225 and over (to \$450).....	9	1	1	7

¹ In addition, there were 27 reports of "maintenance" or "help" from family while out of work; indefinite amounts.

TABLE XXIV.—*Amount borrowed in previous year, by school year ¹—four schools combined*

Amount borrowed	2-year total	1929	1930
Total.....	449	228	221
Unknown.....	132	65	67
Reporting.....	317	163	154
Nothing borrowed.....	243	126	117
Borrowed but amount unknown.....	4	2	2
Reporting amount.....	70	35	35
\$1 to \$9.99.....	2	—	2
\$10 to \$19.99.....	4	4	—
\$20 to \$29.99.....	13	6	7
\$30 to \$39.99.....	2	1	1
\$40 to \$49.99.....	2	2	—
\$50 to \$59.99.....	10	3	7
\$60 to \$69.99.....	1	—	1
\$70 to \$79.99.....	1	—	1
\$80 to \$89.99.....	1	1	—
\$90 to \$99.99.....	1	1	—
\$100 to \$109.99.....	9	6	3
\$150 to \$159.99.....	6	3	3
\$160 to \$169.99.....	1	1	—
\$200 to \$209.99.....	11	4	7
\$300.....	2	—	2
\$400.....	1	—	1
\$500.....	3	3	—

¹ Question not asked on 1928 schedule. Figures apparently have been estimated, as they tend to cluster at the round numbers.

TABLE XXV.—Savings in previous year, by school and school year

Amount of savings	3-year totals—four schools combined		1928					1929					1930				
	Number	Per cent	Four schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern	Four schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern	Four schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern
Total.....	609		160	85	39	12	24	228	94	47	52	35	221	98	45	52	26
Unknown.....	159		25	14	10	1		84	25	34	17	7	50	20	8	15	7
Reporting.....	450		135	71	29	11	24	144	68	13	35	28	171	78	37	37	19
Nothing saved.....	247		68	31	22	5	10	72	31	3	14	24	107	41	31	20	15
Saved, amount unknown.....	3		3	2			1										
Reporting amount.....	200	100.0	64	38	7	6	13	72	37	10	21	4	64	37	6	17	4
\$1 to \$19.....	10	5.0	2	1			1	4	2		2		4	4			4
\$20 to \$39.....	27	13.5	8	5		1	2	12	5		6	1	7	2	2	1	2
\$40 to \$59.....	50	25.0	19	10	1	2	6	21	11	4	4	2	10	6	1	2	1
\$60 to \$79.....	22	11.0	6	2	2		2	7	3	1	2	1	9	5	1	2	1
\$80 to \$99.....	10	5.0						8	5	2	1		2	2			
\$100 to \$119.....	23	11.5	8	5	1	2		1			1		14	8	2	4	
\$120 to \$139.....	4	2.0	3	2		1							1			1	
\$140 to \$159.....	15	7.5	5	3	1		1	5	4		1		5	3		2	
\$160 to \$179.....	2	1.0						1	1				1	1			
\$180 to \$199.....	3	1.5						3	3							3	
\$200 to \$219.....	10	5.0	4	4				1	1				5	2			
\$220 to \$239.....	1	.5											1	1			
\$240 to \$259.....	3	1.5	2	1	1								1			1	
\$300 to \$319.....	9	4.5	2	1	1			5	1	2	2		2	1			1
\$340 to \$359.....	2	1.0						2	1		1						
\$360 to \$379.....	1	.5	1	1						1	1		1	1			
\$400.....	4	2.0	1	1				2									
\$500.....	2	1.0	2	1			1										
\$600.....	1	.5	1	1									1	1			
\$700.....	1	.5															
Median.....	\$72		\$70					\$59					\$100				

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TABLE XXVI.—Amount paid in insurance premiums in previous year, by school year—four schools combined

Amount paid in insurance premiums	3-year totals—four schools combined	1928	1929	1930
Total.....	609	160	228	221
Unknown.....	214	35	105	74
Reporting.....	395	125	123	147
Paying no premiums.....	141	46	28	67
Reporting amounts paid.....	254	79	95	80
\$0.01 to \$9.99.....	38	11	12	15
\$10 to \$19.99.....	65	18	28	19
\$20 to \$29.99.....	45	13	15	17
\$30 to \$39.99.....	31	11	15	5
\$40 to \$49.99.....	26	8	11	7
\$50 to \$59.99.....	21	8	9	4
\$60 to \$69.99.....	12	3	2	7
\$70 to \$79.99.....	4	3		1
\$80 to \$89.99.....	2		1	1
\$100 to \$109.99.....	5	2	1	2
\$120 to \$129.99.....	1			1
\$140 to \$149.99.....	1			1
\$160 to \$169.99.....	1	1		
\$220 to \$229.99.....	1		1	
\$250 to \$259.99.....	1	1		
Median.....	\$25.35	\$28.10	\$25.00	\$23.55

TABLE XXVII.—Living condition and family responsibility in previous year, by school and school year

Living condition	3-year totals— 4 schools com- bined		1928					1929					1930				
	Num- ber	Per cent	4 schools com- bined	Bryn Mawr	Bar- nard	Wis- con- sin	South- ern	4 schools com- bined	Bryn Mawr	Bar- nard	Wis- con- sin	South- ern	4 schools com- bined	Bryn Mawr	Bar- nard	Wis- con- sin	South- ern
Total.....	609	-----	160	85	39	12	24	228	94	47	52	35	221	98	45	52	26
Unknown.....	41	-----	5	2	3	-----	-----	23	10	11	2	-----	13	5	1	5	2
Reporting.....	568	100.0	155	83	36	12	24	205	84	36	50	35	208	93	44	47	24
Living at home or with relatives.....	395	69.5	111	59	24	8	20	142	60	21	33	28	142	73	22	29	18
Contributing to family support.....	¹ 313	-----	82	43	22	5	12	117	51	21	27	18	114	58	22	² 24	10
Not contributing; indefinite reply.....	² 82	-----	29	16	2	3	8	25	9	-----	6	10	28	15	-----	5	8
Not living at home or with relatives.....	173	30.5	44	24	12	4	4	63	24	15	17	7	66	20	22	18	6

¹ 79.2 per cent of those reported as living at home.

² 20.8 per cent of those reported as living at home.

TABLE XXVIII.—Percentage of earnings contributed to family support in previous year,¹ by school and school year

Percentage of earnings contributed to family support	3-year totals— 4 schools combined		1928					1929					1930				
	Number	Per cent	4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern	4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern	4 schools combined	Bryn Mawr	Barnard	Wisconsin	Southern
Total.....	609		160	85	39	12	24	228	94	47	52	35	221	98	45	52	26
Indefinite or unknown ²	150		38	21	12	2	3	39	20	4	10	5	73	25	20	20	8
Reporting.....	459	100.0	122	64	27	10	21	189	74	43	42	30	148	73	25	32	18
Not contributing.....	49	10.7	10	4		4	2	31	2	15	9	5	8	3	2	1	2
Contributing all earnings ³	94	20.5	26	13	4	3	6	24	13	3	5	3	44	23	9	5	7
Contributing 50 per cent or more of earnings.....	137	29.8	36	18	14	1	3	54	23	15	12	4	47	22	8	14	3
Contributing less than 50 per cent of earnings.....	179	39.0	50	29	9	2	10	80	36	10	16	18	49	25	6	12	6

¹ Includes board and lodging expenses if living at home or with relatives

² "Indefinite or unknown" includes irregular and occasional amounts difficult to estimate as a proportion of earnings, or regular amounts difficult to estimate, such as "support daughter," "help pay bills." It also includes a large number of those who answered the question with a check or line, probably making no contribution.

³ Includes girls who gave all but an allowance for lunches and car fare.

APPENDIX B.—FORM OF QUESTIONNAIRE

[FRONT]

SUMMER SCHOOLS FOR WOMEN WORKERS IN INDUSTRY INDUSTRIAL EXPERIENCE RECORD

Date..... Number.....
 1. Residence..... Name of school.....
 (City)..... (State)
 2. Present age..... 3. How long have you lived in the United States?.....
 (years)..... (years)
 4. Your birthplace..... 5. Birthplace of father..... 6. Of mother.....
 (Country)..... (Country)..... (Country)
 7. Occupation of father..... 8. Occupation of mother.....
 9. Are you married?..... Single?..... Widowed or divorced?.....
 10. How old were you when you entered industry?.....
 (years)

RECORD OF JOBS:

Put in the table below a record of all the jobs you have held, even if you can not supply all the details requested in the columns, in the order in which you have held them, including your first job and all others up to June, 1930.

Num- ber (11)	Industry (12)	Process or operation (13)	Give year of—		Length of time job was held (16)		State spe- cifically why you left this job (17)	Wages per week at—		Was the shop union? (20)	Were you a union mem- ber? (21)
			Begin- ning (14)	Quit- ting (15)				Begin- ning (18)	Quit- ting (19)		
					Yrs.	Mos.					

[BACK]

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR EMPLOYMENT DURING THE PAST YEAR

FROM JUNE 1, 1929, TO MAY 31, 1930

22. During how many weeks of the year were you employed full time?
23. During how many weeks of the year were you employed only part time?
24. During how many weeks of the year were you entirely out of work on account of—
- (a) Illness or accident (with pay)
 - (b) Illness or accident (without pay)
 - (c) Lack of work
 - (d) Vacation (with pay)
 - (e) Vacation (without pay)
 - (f) Strike
 - (g) Lockout
 - (h) Other causes
25. If you have been laid off during the year, how much notice have you been given?
26. What were the regular opening and closing hours at your last job? On week days
- On Saturdays
27. How much time was allowed for lunch?
28. During how many weeks of the year were you paid on a piecework basis?
29. If you worked some overtime on your last job, at what rate were you paid beyond the regular rate?
30. During how many weeks of the year did you work some overtime?
31. What were your highest full-time weekly earnings during the year?
- Lowest?
32. What were your total earnings (without bonus) during the year?
33. Did you receive any bonus during the year?
- How much?
34. Have there been deductions from your pay during the year?
- How much?
- Why?
35. If married, what was your husband's income during the year?
36. How much money did you receive last year from sources other than wages?
37. From what sources did this extra money come?
38. Did you borrow money last year?
- If so, how much?
39. Do you live at home?
- If so, do you pay for board and room?
- How much weekly?
40. How much do you contribute toward the family budget besides board and room?
- (Give total amount during the year)
41. If you do not live at home, what did you pay for room?
- (dollars per week)
- For board, including lunches?
- (dollars per week)
42. How much have you saved from your own earnings this year?
43. How much did you pay out from your own earnings in insurance premiums this year?
44. What is the principal product of the shop in which you work?
45. Describe briefly what you do at your present job.

(Use new sheet of paper and attach.)

PUBLICATIONS OF THE WOMEN'S BUREAU

[Any of these bulletins still available will be sent free of charge upon request]

- *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. 1919.
- No. 3. Standards for the Employment of Women in Industry. 8 pp. Fourth ed., 1928.
- 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. 1921.
- No. 7. Night-Work Laws in the United States. (1919) 4 pp. 1920.
- *No. 8. Women in the Government Service. 37 pp. 1920.
- *No. 9. Home Work in Bridgeport, Conn. 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. 1921.
- *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. 1921.
- *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. (See Bulletin 63.)
- No. 17. Women's Wages in Kansas. 104 pp. 1921.
- No. 18. Health Problems of Women in Industry. 6 pp. Revised, 1931.
- 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. 86 pp. 1923.
- No. 27. The Occupational Progress of Women. 37 pp. 1922.
- No. 28. Women's Contributions in the Field of Invention. 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. 86 pp. 1924.
- No. 35. Women in Missouri Industries. 127 pp. 1924.
- No. 36. Radio Talks on Women in Industry. 34 pp. 1924.
- No. 37. Women in New Jersey Industries. 99 pp. 1924.
- No. 38. Married Women in Industry. 8 pp. 1924.
- No. 39. Domestic Workers and Their Employment Relations. 87 pp. 1924.
- No. 40. (See Bulletin 63.)
- No. 41. Family Status of Breadwinning Women in Four Selected Cities. 145 pp. 1925.
- No. 42. List of References on Minimum Wage for Women in the United States and Canada. 42 pp. 1925.
- No. 43. Standard and Scheduled Hours of Work for Women in Industry. 68 pp. 1925.
- No. 44. Women in Ohio Industries. 137 pp. 1925.
- No. 45. Home Environment and Employment Opportunities of Women in Coal-Mine Workers' Families. 61 pp. 1925.
- No. 46. Facts about Working Women—A Graphic Presentation Based on Census Statistics. 64 pp. 1925.
- No. 47. Women in the Fruit-Growing and Canning Industries in the State of Washington. 223 pp. 1926.
- *No. 48. Women in Oklahoma Industries. 118 pp. 1926.
- No. 49. Women Workers and Family Support. 10 pp. 1925.
- No. 50. Effects of Applied Research upon the Employment Opportunities of American Women. 54 pp. 1926.

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- No. 51. Women in Illinois Industries. 108 pp. 1926.
 No. 52. Lost Time and Labor Turnover in Cotton Mills. 203 pp. 1926.
 No. 53. The Status of Women in the Government Service in 1925. 103 pp. 1926.
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 No. 58. Women in Delaware Industries. 156 pp. 1927.
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 No. 60. Industrial Accidents to Women in New Jersey, Ohio, and Wisconsin. 316 pp. 1927.
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 No. 62. Women's Employment in Vegetable Canneries in Delaware. 47 pp. 1927.
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 *No. 65. The Effects of Labor Legislation on the Employment Opportunities of Women. 498 pp. 1928.
 No. 66. History of Labor Legislation for Women in Three States; Chronological Development of Labor Legislation for Women in the United States. 288 pp. 1929.
 No. 67. Women Workers in Flint, Mich. 80 pp. 1929.
 No. 68. Summary: The Effects of Labor Legislation on the Employment Opportunities of Women. (Reprint of Chapter 2 of bulletin 65.) 22 pp. 1928.
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 No. 92. Wage—Earning Women and the Industrial Depression of 1930. A survey of South Bend. (In press.)
 Pamphlet. Women's Place in Industry in 10 Southern States. 14 pp. 1931.
 Annual reports of the Director, 1919*, 1920*, 1921*, 1922, 1923, 1924*, 1925, 1926, 1927*, 1928*, 1929, 1930, 1931.

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PAMPHLET