CHICAGO SCHOOL OF CIVICS AND PHILANTHROPY
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL INVESTIGATION
(Russell Sage Foundation)

FINDING

Employment for Children who Leave the Grade Schools to go to Work

Report to the Chicago Woman's Club, The Chicago Association of Collegiate Alumnae and The Woman's City Club

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THE SCHOOL AND THE WORKING-CHILD

A PLEA FOR EMPLOYMENT SUPERVISION IN CITY SCHOOLS

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While it is generally known that the Illinois law requires that all children between the ages of seven and fourteen shall attend school unless excused on the various grounds enumerated in the statute, many people do not know that on the fourteenth birthday the child may demand an age and school certificate and go to work, subject of course to the limitations of the Child Labor Law upon his hours and time of work and kind of employment, and subject also to the provision of the Compulsory Education Law that, until he is sixteen, he must be either at work or in school. Still less, perhaps, do people know the consequence to the child who is thus deprived of further schooling on the one hand and made to assume the heavy burden of responsibility on the other. For to most of these children leaving school means much more than a loss of opportunity. It means being placed in the way of great and varied temptations, while the will is weak and the mind not yet intelligent. Work is not always easy to find, and desirable work, which offers even a small amount of training and awakens ambition and interest, seems hopelessly scarce.

Every year, thousands of children in Chicago take advantage of the privilege which the law gives them and leave school on the very day when they reach the age of fourteen and can legally obtain their working-papers. On this day the child is suddenly released from the discipline of the school and thrown on his own resources to find a job in any way he can and to become an independent wage-earner making a much-needed contribution to the family income. This sudden transition from school to work must necessarily be a difficult time of readjustment for the child, and the question of the kind of work which is undertaken is one of serious importance. The "first job" or the first year of work will often have a decisive influence on his whole working life and may make or mar his character.

There are many important questions which should be considered when a child leaves school to go to work, such as the kind of occupation to which he is best adapted, the industry which holds the best

promise for the future, how to find the employer who is "good to boys and girls" and is willing to give them proper training, sympathetic oversight, and a chance for promotion in the shop or factory, and, finally, the critical question of how to find the vacant job which most nearly answers all of these demands. At present the child faces this problem quite alone and unaided, with no broader object in mind than that of an immediate contribution to the family income. His parents may be zealous for his welfare, but they are quite unable to help at this crisis in his life. For the boys and girls who go to work are not the children of intelligent skilled working-men. Men in skilled trades do not take their children out of school at fourteen, for they know that a boy of that age must wait two years before he can be apprenticed, that the girl of that age is not strong enough to work and not yet able to protect herself, and that the years from fourteen to sixteen are wastefully spent by the child in work. These boys and girls who go to work, then, are children of parents who are either very poor and in urgent need of the small wage which the child may earn, or unintelligent with reference to the importance of further education and therefore not willing to sacrifice their standard of immediate comfort for the child's future; in the majority of cases, they are immigrants, frequently unable even to speak our language, almost uniformly ignorant of industrial conditions and quite unable to advise their children wisely with reference to the beginning of their working-lives.

The result is that at the age when children in a well-to-do family are still treated as children and are never allowed to make any important decision about their future careers, the boy or girl in a poor family is turned loose to find work alone. It is obvious that these children are not competent to distinguish the good employer from the bad or the occupation with a future from the blind-alley employment that leads nowhere and leaves them stranded at the age of seventeen or eighteen, not merely untrained but demoralized.

At present there is no organized effort made on the part of the community to protect these boys and girls, who are leaving the schools every week and starting forth alone, timid and eager, on a discouraging hunt for a first job; no serious effort is being made to prevent the wastage that comes from the child's haphazard choice of a job. The theory has been that the responsibility of the school to the child comes abruptly to an end when he obtains his working-papers. Picture the child who is facing the problem of finding work. A boy will usually trudge through the business or factory streets looking for the magic card "Boy Wanted" in the window—in any window without regard to the character of the work or of the employer; or he follows the more demoralizing habit of loafing about the newspaper offices in a crowd of idle men waiting for the most recent "Want Ads" to appear. Small wonder that after he gets work he finds it hard to "settle down." The young girl who goes forth alone to hunt a job may find much graver perils before her. It is only necessary to recall the successful prosecution in 1908 of seventeen men and three women who had built up a profitable business in leading astray young girls in search of work who made use of the department store waiting-rooms to read advertisements in the newspapers and to rest during the intervals between unsuccessful applications for "jobs."

The difficulty in finding work means of course that a child usually takes the first job that is offered him without any regard to the

industry, occupation or employer, without any regard to his interest in the work or his fitness for it. His whole future may be decided by the merest chance, and he may take the most temporary kind of job in a most undesirable place, when on the same street a good firm offering permanency and every opportunity of advancement may have been looking for just such a boy or girl. It is, of course, an inevitable result of this careless and accidental hunt for "any kind of job" that temporary jobs are frequently taken and children easily get into casual habits, and, in fact, become confirmed "casual laborers" before they are sixteen, shifting from job to job with an interval of unemployment between each.

It is now becoming generally recognized that the result of this neglect of the child by the school and by the community during the critical period between fourteen and sixteen, when the schoolboy or schoolgirl suddenly becomes a working "man" or a wage-earning "woman," has far-reaching social consequences—a small army of boys and girls going into the street-trades, which are demoralizing, and into occupations and industries which profit by boy or girl labor, but have no responsibility to the boy and girl beyond the weekly wage, no care for their health or training.

Attention has already been called to the fact that, although the law gives the child his working-papers at fourteen and does not provide for any supervision or protection during the critical years which follow, still the law does not entirely take its hands off. It regulates the hours of labor for children under sixteen; it at the present time excludes them from certain physical dangerous trades and doubtless will soon exclude them from morally dangerous trades as well. Even more important, perhaps, is the provision of the Compulsory Education Law that boys and girls between fourteen and sixteen shall not be absolutely idle but that they must return to school if they are not at work.

Unfortunately, no adequate machinery for enforcing this provision of the law exists, and the problem of the child between fourteen and sixteen is still a serious one. The Parental School is restricted to the care of boys under fourteen; there is no similar institution for older boys and no provision at all for girls who refuse to go to school. The last report of the Superintendent of Compulsory Education strongly emphasizes "the necessity for better provision for the correction and care of children between fourteen and sixteen years of age who are beyond parental control and who prefer idleness to school attendance or employment. The only recourse under present conditions against a fourteen-year-old truant who has committed no other offense than truancy, is to charge him with incorrigible or delinquent conduct and ask his commitment to the John Worthy School or St. Charles. The former is a prison school where the worst type of delinquent boys is sent. St. Charles has not sufficient capacity to provide for urgent delinquent cases. It is therefore a question of consistency for one state law to provide for compulsory attendance up to the age of sixteen while another state law—the Parental School Law—provides for truants only between seven and fourteen years, and bars the truant between fourteen and sixteen." [1]

Ever since the year 1905, the Department of Compulsory Education has called attention in every succeeding annual report to the

[1] Chicago Board of Education. Fifty-Seventh Annual Report: "Report of Superintendent of Schools for the year ending June 30, 1911," p. 56.

necessity for better means of protecting and disciplining boys between fourteen and sixteen, not merely because they become demoralized themselves, but because they encourage smaller boys to become truant and delinquent.[2] As a result of a recent study of the statistics of the Juvenile Court relating to delinquent children, it appeared that the great majority of boys who were brought to court as delinquent were boys who left school to go to work when they were fourteen. After that time they were often out of work as well as out of school and were given special opportunities to become delinquent. More than half of all the delinquent boys brought into court come in at the age of fourteen or in the two years immediately following their withdrawal from school. If the provision in the state law which requires the compulsory school attendance of boys between the ages of fourteen and sixteen who are not working could be rigorously enforced, the number of delinquent boys of these ages would undoubtedly decrease. There is, however, a method, which might be adopted, of meeting this problem which would be preventive rather than corrective, and that is for the school to assist these boys in finding the right kind of work. It would seem to be wiser for educational authorities to take steps to help children to get the right kind of work, rather than to punish them for being idle.

In this connection we should like to quote from the recent report of the Department of Compulsory Education.[3] "The social waste in a boy's life between fourteen and sixteen often determines his future career and citizenship," writes the Superintendent. "Many employers do not want a juvenile employee under sixteen years of age; they cannot become apprentices. Principals do not care to have the irregular attendance of the fourteen-to-sixteen-year-old pupil who alternates between school and work so much, seeking employment. These older boys influence younger ones—and herein lies a great handicap to truant officers. It accounts, in a large measure, for the increase in truancy in some districts, although many of the fourteen-to-sixteen-year-old boys are repeatedly taken from the streets, and some remain in school. There is no central juvenile employment agency, and conditions could be better if one were established, to expedite the employment of boys and girls as soon as possible after they secure their age and school certificates."

It is evident too that if work is recognized by the law as the alternative to school, it should be on the ground that the work will give the child the needed training or preparation for what is to come after. That is, the implication in the law is that either in school or in work will be found the preparation for that later period in the child's life in which the law wholly ceases to exercise control. The problem of adequately protecting children who leave school to go to work has

[2] See Chicago Board of Education. Fifty-First Annual Report, 1905, in which the following statement appears in the report of the Superintendent of Compulsory Education: "There are many idle boys between the ages of fourteen and sixteen on the streets of Chicago. . . . . Many of these boys do not go to work because employers, as a rule, prefer a boy who has attained the age of sixteen years in order that they may have employes whose employment and hours are not regulated by the Child Labor Law. These idle street boys, over compulsory education age, frequently encourage smaller boys to become truants and delinquents."

[3] Chicago Board of Education. Fifty-Seventh Annual Report: "Report of the Superintendent of Schools for the year ending June 30, 1911," p. 56.

then three important aspects: (1) the question of what opportunities for employment that are educational and disciplinary instead of demoralizing are open to children of fourteen and fifteen; (2) the question of devising some machinery for ascertaining good vacancies and fitting the right boy or girl into the right job; (3) the development of some method of supervising the boy or girl after a job has been found in order to ascertain whether the job proves suitable on the one hand, and to see that the child is supported against temptation to change his job frequently on the other. In the solution of this problem we have at once an important duty of the school and a unique opportunity to render a most difficult and delicate service to the child, to the family, and, in the long run, to the community, in saving the health and character of the working-child.

EXPERIMENTAL WORK DURING THE YEAR 1910-1911

In the autumn of 1910, this Department of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, supported by a grant from the Russell Sage Foundation, undertook a study of truancy in Chicago.[4] As one phase of this study we became interested in the problem of the children between fourteen and sixteen. In Chicago during a single year 7,978 boys and 4,560 girls under sixteen years of age were granted working-certificates; of these children 8,985 were only fourteen years of age, and 1,557 had not yet reached the fifth grade.

It has already been pointed out that in Illinois these children are required by the Compulsory Education Law to be either at work or in school, but that there is no provision for helping children to find work and no institution to which they can be sent if they refuse to return to school. Attention has also been called to the fact that the Parental School, an admirable institution maintained by the Board of Education for truant boys,[5] cannot legally receive any boy over fourteen nor retain any boy already committed to the school after he reaches the legal working-age. Here, however, as in the ordinary school, nothing is done to help the boy find suitable work or to make the transition from school to work easy for the child. The plight of the boy discharged from the institution merely because he is fourteen and therefore a legal wage-earner is apparent. Boys are sent to the Parental School only when they are in special need of the training and of the disciplinary life which that school is so well equipped to provide. The boy so released when he has no "job" in sight and no one at home able or interested to find him one, is in grave danger of losing all that the school may have done for him.

These Parental School boys are, therefore, in much greater need of supervision than the majority of children who leave school to go to work. They have been uncontrollable at school and they come for the most part from homes that are, to say the least, unfavorable

[4] This study was undertaken as part of the Juvenile Court inquiry on which the Department had been engaged for several years. The first volume dealing with the results of this inquiry, The Delinquent Child and the Home, is now in press and will shortly be issued by the Charities Publication Committee for the Russell Sage Foundation.

[5] It may be well to call attention here to urgent need for a similar institution for truant girls, or girls who are incorrigible at school.

to their right development. In some cases they come from homes in which the father drinks or in which the mother is shiftless and incompetent; in a few cases the mother herself is a drinking-woman or worse; when there are degraded conditions in the home the degradation is accompanied by poverty; and in still other cases there is poverty alone, poverty which is honest and respectable but which means pressing need for what the child can earn. It was found, for example, in a study of truant cases last year that out of 579 boys who were brought to court for the first time on a truancy charge, 157 belonged to families which had at some time been on the records of the United Charities. It is obvious that to return to these homes children released from all effective control on the part of the school authorities and unaided by any sympathetic, firm and intelligent guidance, is to run the risk of undoing all that has been gained by sending them away. On the other hand, if the boy can be persuaded voluntarily to return to school, or if he can be found the right job and persuaded to stick to it, if misunderstandings with the foreman can be explained and adjusted, if there is some one at hand to give him encouraging and sturdy advice when he wants to "chuck the job and try something new" or "loaf for a bit," the succeeding months may continue the discipline and right development begun in the Parental School.

These children, then, who according to the statute must be released on their fourteenth birthday from the Parental School, have again after their return home the alternative under the law of returning to school or of finding a job. To undertake to advise these children with regard to their choice of work and to assist them in finding jobs if they were unwilling to return to school opened an interesting opportunity to combine investigational with practical work. To attempt to understand the problem of employment as they faced it seemed to be not only germane to our truancy inquiry but likely to be of some immediate practical value. We attempted to serve, in short, as a sort of employment agency for these boys, believing this to be one of the best methods of understanding the questions connected with their finding work, the kind of positions open to them, the case or difficulty of finding "vacant jobs," their treatment by the employer and their conduct in work after they were placed.

In other words to get directly from and with them the employment experience of these boys dismissed from the Parental School solely because of their age seemed relevant to an inquiry into the adequacy of the Compulsory Education Law, the effectiveness of the court as a device for strengthening the school, and the reasonableness of accepting "lawful employment" as a substitute for schooling during these two important years of the child's life.

To try to assist boys or girls in finding work is a task not to be lightly undertaken. It means not only a thoroughgoing investigation into opportunities of employment open to children under sixteen but a careful study of the particular child. On the one hand, it means interviews with employers and foremen, and on the other, interviews with the child before he leaves school, with his teachers and with parents in the home—interviews which give as complete information as can be gained of what the boy wants to do and thinks he can do, of what his teachers believe him to be fitted for physically and men-

tally, and most important of all, the judgment of his parents, their hopes and fears if they will share them, and such light as his home circumstances and relationships throw on the possibilities of his working career. This is, of course, only half the battle. There is also the selection from among all of the available jobs that can be found, the one to which the boy seems best adapted, and then frequently the difficult task of persuading the boy to give up being a messenger boy or some other wasteful occupation on which he may have set his heart, convincing the parents perhaps to take a lower wage at the start in a job which is going to mean learning as well as earning, and, finally, constant communication with the boy after he is placed. For watching the child after a job has been found is as important as finding the job. The temptation to leave one employer and "try another" is in the air. Boys give up their jobs on the most trivial pretexts and often without telling the employer they intend to leave. One boy left a good job with a good firm and became a telegraph messenger because he did not like the shape of the packages he was asked to carry; a Bohemian boy left a shop where he was being taught a trade, and went into a large factory which offered only unskilled work for either men or boys because he resented having a Polish boy in the shop, and said it was nicer when he was "the only boy." Other boys leave because they like a change and can usually "pick up some kind of work." In such cases it is often possible to persuade the employer to give the boy another trial, to show the boy how much he may gain by working steadily for the same firm, and to explain to the parents the dangers of casual habits. The task is not a simple task. It involves often many interviews, much firm but gentle dealing with boy and parents and close co-operation with employer; but it also means a knowledge of the chaos by which fourteen-year-old children are allowed to enter the wage-earning market unguarded and unguided, which is worth all it costs. The effort to find good places for boys or girls who leave school to go to work shows as nothing but direct practical experience can show, the great dearth of educational or disciplinary work for children under sixteen. It shows in the most unmistakable terms that the serious study of this question is the duty of the schools unless they are willing to sit by and take no notice as the child goes forth to unlearn what the school has taught.

It was realized, of course, that the same problem presented itself to the fourteen-year-old girls who are leaving school to go to work and that the same method would be of even greater value in the case of girls than of boys; because, few as are the opportunities of an industrially promising kind for boys, they are fewer for girls, since most employments for women today are in fact "blind-alley" or "dead end" employments. Moreover the problem of school attendance for girls is one to which much less attention has been given. The number of girls whose attendance is so irregular or whose conduct so bad as to call for action on the part of the Compulsory Education Department is almost negligible; and these are not brought into the Juvenile Court. There is no Parental School for girls. We therefore had no opportunity to undertake in connection with our Juvenile Court inquiry the same investigational experiment for girls which we undertook for the Parental School boys. But by the intelligent co-operation of three women's organizations, the Chicago Woman's Club, the Chi-

cago Association of Collegiate Alumnæ, and the Woman's City Club, this work was made possible. Through their joint gift we were enabled to obtain for four months the service of a special investigator who was peculiarly fitted for the work. Miss Davis had been engaged with the Department in an earlier study of the delinquent wards of the court, and had been especially skillful and successful in obtaining data concerning delinquent girls and in understanding the needs and difficulties of those girls. She had more recently been for two years in the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society, in charge of the work for homeless girls, and she came directly from that position to this undertaking. She seemed to have the training, sympathy, experience, and resourcefulness needed in this work; and the results of her brief inquiry will, we believe, justify the confidence placed in the Department by the three co-operating organizations and in turn the confidence of the Department in her.

Toward the end of the school year, as the knowledge of trade conditions accumulated and the connection with good employers became gradually established, we were able to take care of a very considerable number of children sent to us by the settlements who knew of our experimental work, and by the United Charities and some other organizations. In particular, especially handicapped children were sent to us, a one-armed girl, a lame boy, a deaf and dumb girl, and undersized or delicate children who were in work that was too hard for them or unsuitable for other reasons.

A few illustrations will perhaps be of interest in showing that the "better job" did not always mean lower wages, though whenever possible it meant a chance to learn and a chance of promotion as a result of steady, faithful work:

Emma C——, a girl of fifteen, who had finished the seventh grade, had been employed in a department store as "inspector" earning $2.50 a week. She was a capable, promising girl; and employment was found for her in a braiding and embroidery shop where she is learning hand and machine embroidering, and where she earns $5 a week. Her sister, a bright girl of sixteen and an eighth-grade graduate, who had been working in a department store for nine months as "wrapper" and earning $4.50 a week, was placed in an office position where she is earning $6 a week.

Lena S——, a little girl of fourteen, who had finished the sixth grade and who knew how to sew, had found a job for herself in a tailor shop "finishing pants" at $2.50 a week. She was placed in a Michigan Avenue shop where good needlewomen are in demand, at an initial wage of $4 a week.

Elizabeth B——, a bright little girl of fourteen, had "done well" in the seventh grade and should have gone on to the eighth, but her father was an epileptic and she was the eldest of eight children. On the day she was fourteen therefore she became the "sole support of the family." She was sent to us by the United Charities from a place where she had been earning $3.50 a week folding circulars and she was placed in the filing department of a large commercial agency where she was paid in the beginning $4 a week. In six months she was earning $5 a week, and the forewoman reports that she is learning typewriting in her "spare time" and is going to make a good office assistant.

Steve H——, who was sent by the United Charities, was an eighth-grade graduate and another "sole support" of a family of eight, in this case deserted by the father. The boy was sixteen years old, extremely small for his age and was "carrying boards" in a box factory, earning $6 a week. He was a very eager, ambitious boy and as he was sixteen years old it was not difficult to find a chance for him as a compositor's apprentice with a good printing firm. His initial wages in this case were only $4, but it was not difficult to raise a small fund to pay the family the difference between his apprenticeship wage and his box factory wage until he had been "raised." He has been in the shop nearly a

year now, his wages have been raised three times, he enjoys his work and his foreman speaks well of him.

Albert Z——, who is fifteen and had finished sixth grade, worked for a year in a box factory "carrying boards," and earned $4 a week. Fortunately he was laid off when the work became slack. Employment was found for him in a printing shop where he has an opportunity to learn the trade and where his initial wage was $4.50 a week.

James R——, a bright Bohemian boy of fifteen, who had finished the seventh grade, worked in a department store nearly two years as messenger boy. He had begun at $4 a week, and his wages had not been raised during that time. He left because he "wanted to learn something." He was placed in a printing shop where he is learning the trade, and where his initial wage was $4.50 a week.

Salvatore, an Italian boy of fourteen, the "sole support" of a fatherless family of six, was sent to us because he was "working too hard" and often "fell asleep at his work." He was working in a department store as a "cash boy" earning $2.50 a week and earning an extra $2 by working on a milk wagon from three to six in the morning. It was possible to place him with an engraving company where the prospects to learn the trade were good and where his wages were $4.50 a week at the start.

In the month of June we undertook to interview and to place all of the children who were planning to go to work at the end of the school year in the Washburne School, one of the largest schools on the West Side. Office hours were kept in a neighboring settlement, the Henry Booth House, which generously offered space, and the principal, Mr. Thompson, was glad to co-operate by sending the children to us and by giving his personal advice. Besides interviewing the children, the homes were all visited, and when the parents seemed able to keep the child in school longer, they were strongly urged to do so.

By way of summary a few brief tables are presented to show the practical results of this very humble attempt of the Department to serve as an informal employment agency for these boys and girls. During the year 254 children, 80 girls and 174 boys were interviewed.[6] Of the boys 50 were still in the Parental School but about to be discharged when interviewed. The following tables summarize the actual work done.

WORK FOR BOYS WHO WERE INTERVIEWED
OCT. 1,1910, TO OCT. 1, 1911

Number of boys placed	59
Number who secured work themselves or through parents or friends	29
Number returned to school	43
Number for whom nothing could be done	6
Number who moved away and were lost	3
Number now waiting for positions	34
Total number of boys interviewed	174

The ages of these boys were as follows:

Age	Number of boys
14 years	105
15 years	31
16 years	18
over 16 years	20
Total	174

[6] Miss Davis was assisted in this work by Miss Edith Foster. Further assistance in the preparation of the report has been given by Miss Grace P. Norton and Miss Maud E. Lavery.

LIST OF INDUSTRIES OR OCCUPATIONS IN WHICH 59 BOYS WERE PLACED

Commercial engraving	14
Printing	13
Bookbinding	6
Metal trades	9
Electrical work	3
Commercial lithography	2
Jewelry work or manufacturing	1
Box factory	2
Wood-working	1
Farm work	4
Office-work	3
Clipping bureau	1
Total	59

WORK FOR GIRLS WHO WERE INTERVIEWED OCT. 1, 1910, TO OCT. 1, 1911

Number of girls placed	49
Number who secured work themselves or through parents or friends	4
Number returned to school	7
Number for whom nothing could be done	5
Number now waiting for positions	15
Total number of girls interviewed	80

The ages of these girls were as follows:

Age	Number of Girls
14 years	23
15 years	21
16 years	23
over 16 years	13
Total	80

LIST OF INDUSTRIES OR OCCUPATIONS IN WHICH 49 GIRLS WERE PLACED

Sewing trades	5
Engraving	9
Bookbinding	18
Office-work	10
Millinery	2
Weaving	3
Sample-work	2
Total	49

It should, perhaps, be pointed out that we have never been willing to assume the responsibility of placing girls in offices where only one or two girls were employed. We have used large commercial houses where there were a large number of girls where the dangers of isolated employment were avoided and where there was at the same time greater opportunity for a bright girl to "work up."

In connection with the problem of girl employment which has been of special interest to the members of the organizations which provided for the appointment of Miss Davis and the special investigation into girls' trades, it may be pointed out that in addition to the information obtained and the experience gained there have been

results of a definitely practical kind; first, the data gathered by Miss Davis were placed at the service of Miss Wells, principal of the new Lucy L. Flower Technical High School, so that various questions connected with the curriculum of that school could be determined with reference to trade opportunities for girls; and second, at the request of Mrs. Young, the superintendent of schools, Miss Davis has been authorized by the School Management Committee of the Board of Education to hold office hours in the school building in order to advise the girls, who have entered upon a course of technical training there, with reference to their more intelligent and deliberate selection of a trade and their more advantageous placing at the end of their course.

The results of the investigation which Miss Davis has carried on are presented here in a separate report. It is hoped that the information which is published will be valuable in many practical ways. Details given regarding wages, hours, possibilities of training and prospects of advancement should prove useful not only to teachers but to the directors of girls' clubs in settlements, to district visitors in the offices of the United Charities, and to other persons who come in close contact with girls whose home conditions force them to leave school early and go to work. Information is also given as to shop conditions, the kind of girls who go into the trade, their nationality and age and such practical details as could be obtained.

Some word should perhaps be said with regard to the limited scope of Miss Davis's report. It is in every respect very incomplete; it covers only a small number of trades, and in most cases the reports for these trades are based on a relatively small number of interviews. A complete report on the opportunities of employment open to girls would mean an investigation into all trades in which women are employed. The report which Miss Davis submits represents the work of a single investigator for four months only. If it is possible to continue her work, we look forward to the publication of a more complete report at a later date. It seemed worth while however to publish a preliminary report in order that such information as had been gained might be of immediate service. It should be pointed out too that further investigation will make possible not only an increase in the number of trades for which information is available but more complete and detailed reports of the trades which have already been covered in this preliminary investigation.

A word should perhaps be said with regard to the basis on which the trades included in this report were selected. It will be remembered that this investigation went hand in hand with a search for actual places for girls who wanted work. Since we could not cover the entire field, we started with trades which seemed to promise fairly good openings, trades which we had reason to believe offered some skilled work and opportunities of advancement. In general, we omitted the large factory industries, such as box or candy making, where girls easily found work for themselves and where the work for girls seemed to be largely unskilled. Some trades were selected because of a definite application from a girl who wanted that special kind of work. For example, when a girl who wanted to learn hairdressing was sent to us, we found it necessary in trying to find a shop where we could place her, to visit thirty-eight different hairdressing establishments.

We have, as the report shows, interviewed 80 girls, 44 of whom

were under sixteen years of age. The question that we had to face was what was the best that could be done for the girl, considering her school grade, her health, and her general ability. In many cases—one might almost say the majority of cases—the girls under sixteen seemed hopelessly unfitted for any good place. They needed to be taught and trained, and yet we were asking employers to pay for their labor. At the time this investigation was made, there were no day trade classes in Chicago for girls of this sort. In order to find out what the possible value of a day trade school might be, the question was definitely put to each employer or employer's representative who was interviewed, "How far would a trade school be of value in the industry you represent?" We have published the answers to this question in some detail because there is sure to be in the near future a larger provision in the way of day trade classes for girls, and any information relating to the subject will be useful. The opening of the new Lucy L. Flower Technical High School will undoubtedly serve as a pioneer and guide to those interested in industrial training for girls. Hull House is about to offer a day class in trade dressmaking which will be open to girls who are too ill equipped to enter the Technical High School. It is for girls of this sort that a special appeal must be made—girls who have left school from the lower grades, who are not fit to go to work, but whose parents need to utilize their slight wage-earning capacity at the earliest possible moment. While the parents of such girls are unwilling to let them go back to school unless they are given some definite preparation for work, permission could often be obtained for them to attend a day trade class which would give in six months a definitely better chance of entering a trade and of earning more money than they would otherwise have. In large settlements where the girls would also have the benefit of day classes in cooking, gymnastics or dancing, which would give them discipline and training of another sort, the girl would undoubtedly have a much better chance in the industrial world.

A study of Miss Davis's report shows that even in the best trades there is very little educational work for girls under sixteen. Employers do not like to be bothered with an arrangement which means having part of the force on a different time-shift. The thorough study of this question will, we believe, demonstrate the fact that machinery is taking the place of the unskilled work of children in modern industrial and business organization, and that it will be much better for industry in the long run if children spend the years between fourteen and sixteen in definite preparation for their industrial life. If there is so little work that is good for them to do, is it not the duty of the community to face the fact and make some provision for these two years that are being wasted in the lives of thousands of children who are every year going into unprofitable work? This is not the place to discuss the questions connected with trade or industrial training for girls. It may be worth while, however, since it is so closely connected with questions before us here in Chicago to quote from a very remarkable report of the Education Committee of the London County Council submitting some reports on Women's Trades compiled by the late Mrs. Oakeshott when she was inspector of women's trade and technical classes for the London County Council. In considering opportunities which a girl had of learning a trade in

the workroom, the need of trade classes for girls became apparent. Entirely apart from the fact that it was difficult to find suitable apprenticeships for girls, it was pointed out that the trade school had certain definite advantages.

"The Trade School," Mrs. Oakeshott explained, "aims at making a worker of a kind such as the workroom rarely if ever can make. By means of its carefully selected trade teacher and Advisory Committee of Experts, it gives the child a thorough all-round rudimentary knowledge of the industry she is to enter. That is the basis of the Trade School. And if this were all, a carefully arranged apprenticeship might be as good. The Trade School has other objects in view. The girl who enters such a school spends two years more in all the wholesome influences of school life. The child of 14 is not at once placed in a workroom where hours of work are from 8:30 a. m. to 7:30 p. m. She spends these two years gaining strength morally and physically while her industrial training is secured. The whole spirit of the school is intended to encourage the esprit de corps which is lacking in women engaged in industrial work. General education is continued and the subjects chosen are those which are calculated to quicken the intelligence and interest of the girl in the active life she is to enter. Artistic training in relation to each trade is given, and the young worker has an opportunity of experimenting, planning and trying to produce original work. In the Trade School it does not matter if the material is spoiled provided a lesson has been learned. Lastly, it gives a hint that when the drudgery has been mastered there is responsible work to come. And this is where workroom training often deadens keenness and interest. It does not exist to teach, it exists to get work turned out as quickly and as cheaply as possible. Therefore the worker is often kept to the one process that she can perform quickly and well, thereby originality and interest are frequently killed."

Other countries are considering this problem with greater seriousness; and trade and technical schools, continuation schools, juvenile labor exchanges, juvenile advisory committees, apprenticeship and skilled employment committees have been successfully organized. In order that the opportunity before us in Chicago may be more evident, a report upon the experiments now under way in Germany and England is included in this report.

In conclusion we may perhaps repeat that the fourteen- or fifteen-year-old child is very helpless and ill equipped to enter alone and unguarded upon her wage-earning life; the parent is unable to advise or guide; the private employment office is a wholly unsuitable agency; and up to the present the school has been inactive. This means that there is a rich opportunity for constructive work and a clear field of service. We feel ourselves most fortunate in having been allowed to suggest, through this investigation, the great need of undertaking the delicate task of employment supervision; the fact that it is a proper function of the school; and the method which we believe to be the right method, involving as it does close co-operation with the parents, the employers and the other agencies which have been concerned in the problems of the individual family, and based on accurate knowledge of the wage-earning opportunities and industrial possibilities for children of this group.

PRELIMINARY REPORT

ON THE

OPPORTUNITIES OF EMPLOYMENT IN CHICAGO OPEN TO GIRLS UNDER SIXTEEN

ANNE S. DAVIS

LIST OF TRADES

Sewing Trades: Dressmaking; Millinery; Lingerie, Women's Waists and Dresses; Braiding and Embroidering; Corset-making; Tie-making; Cap-making; Suspender-making; Glove-making.

Boot and Shoe Industry.

Artificial Flower-making.

Bookbinding.

Engraving.

Photography.

Stenography, Typewriting and General Office-work.

Telephone Operating.

Laundries.

Dyeing and Cleaning.

Hairdressing and Hairmaking.

THE SEWING TRADES

I. DRESSMAKING

Dressmaking is perhaps the largest industry open to women. Managers of twenty-five workrooms in the business district were interviewed. In most of these shops a high grade of work was done, and a high order of needle-work was required. The girls employed were usually of a good class and evidently from good homes. The shop conditions were generally good.

The employers require that a girl entering these shops shall be neat above all things. She must like to sew and have a real aptitude for it if she wishes to succeed. There is no definite educational requirement, but a grammar-school education at least will be greatly to a girl's advantage. Swedish and Norwegian girls usually do well; and girls of these nationalities are preferred by some establishments. Others have found Bohemian and Polish girls very successful, and in two shops colored girls were employed.

METHODS OF TRAINING

There is little opportunity for a girl of fourteen or fifteen years to enter a shop as a learner; for although dressmakers will occasionally take a sixteen-year-old girl to learn the trade, most of them demand trained helpers. They complain that they are too busy to take the time to teach girls who have no knowledge of sewing, and that, moreover, few young girls are willing to serve an apprenticeship.

In case an untrained girl does enter an establishment, she is given a good deal of errand-work at first and but little sewing. She is gradually taught to bind seams, to run seams, to sew on buttons and hooks and eyes, and to make button-holes. In dressmaking as in most other trades, the work has become specialized, so that there is little chance for a girl to learn to make an entire garment. She finally becomes a sleeve-maker, a skirt-maker, a waist-draper, or a waist-finisher. Several managers stated that a girl has the privilege of learning all the branches if she wishes, but usually, when she has learned to make a sleeve or a skirt well, she is content to go no farther. Cutting and fitting are never taught. The result of these methods is that a girl rarely receives in a shop, training sufficiently thorough to enable her to work independently.

REQUIREMENTS, WAGES, HOURS AND SEASONS

Wages.—A learner receives anywhere from carfare to $3 or $4 a week. Usually she is paid $1.50 a week for the first two or three months. At the end of a year, if she has shown any aptitude, she is paid $5 or $6; at the end of two years, from $6 to $8. The wage usually paid to so-called "skilled workers" is $10 or $12. In a few high grade shops, waist-drapers earn as much as $35 a week.

Hours.—The hours in most establishments are from 8 a. m. to 5:30 p. m., with half an hour at noon. The work is continuous for six days of the week; in a few cases, however, the shops are closed an hour or

two earlier on Saturdays. During the busiest seasons the girls are sometimes required to work overtime, for which they are paid a certain per cent of their weekly wage or allowed to go home early another time to compensate.

Seasons.—Dressmaking is one of the seasonal trades. There are during the year about nine months of work. Most firms are busy from September to January and from March to July. At the end of each of these periods the inefficient workers are laid off. Many of the shops are fairly busy except for a month or six weeks in the summer when they are closed. From the latter part of March to the first of May the season is at its height, and skilled workers are in great demand.

DEMAND FOR SKILLED WORKERS

The general opinion seems to be that there is a growing demand for skilled and intelligent workers and that it is quite difficult to get efficient help. The manager of a shop where twenty-five girls were employed said she could use sixty girls but that she could not get them. Other dressmakers stated:

"Girls are very scarce in this trade; we could use experienced girls now."

"I have fewer applications each year for dressmakers and I can get fewer skilled workers."

"It is very hard to get girls who can sew well."

"I can't get efficient girls. They are careless and take no interest in their work."

"I had an 'ad' in the paper four weeks for an expert sleeve-maker and did not receive an answer. I can use thirty-five girls usually but I can't get them."

The heads of some establishments complained that fewer girls are entering the trade. They thought it was due to the fact that the American girl craves excitement, and that dressmaking is too confining for the average girl. The girls of today are not taught sewing in their homes, and without some knowledge of sewing a girl will not turn to dressmaking. One manager said that the teaching of sewing in the public schools seemed to be helping a little.

NEED FOR TECHNICAL TRAINING

The great demand for skilled workers points to the need of a trade school, but the opinions of employers as to the practicability of a trade school vary. Nearly all the dressmakers believe that more girls should be taught so-called "sewing" and that a trade school might be a great help in some respects, but that no school could give the training which is given in a workroom. The following opinions are given:

"A trade school would be a great help if it could interest more girls in dressmaking."

"If a trade school would teach just the rudiments, a girl would have no trouble finding work."

"A trade school would be a great help, as few dressmakers are willing to take apprentices—moreover only a very few girls are willing to serve an apprenticeship. The sewing in the public schools has helped a little, and a trade school ought to be a great advance."

"A school would be a great help to a girl who wants to go into dressmaking. She could learn so much more than she could in any

dressmaking establishment, where the work is so specialized. But unless it were specialized, we should never accomplish anything."

"A trade school would be quite an advance if it were run on an extremely practical basis."

"Technical training would be of little value without the workroom experience."

"If a teacher who had had workroom experience were employed, a trade school might be of some value."

No very definite suggestions for teaching dressmaking in a technical school were given. Most of the dressmakers interviewed did not favor the teaching of cutting and fitting. It was suggested that designing might be taught. One dressmaker thought that draping could be taught in perhaps two years in such a school. But the majority seemed to think that button-holing, seaming, binding, tucking, and the more elementary parts of dressmaking would be sufficient for the girl who expects to enter a workroom. It was thought that a woman who had had workroom experience would be more successful in teaching dressmaking in such a school.

THE SEWING TRADES

II. MILLINERY

Eighteen shops were visited in this inquiry; seven wholesale shops employing from one hundred to three hundred and fifty girls; nine small shops employing from three to thirty girls; two employing about thirty men and girls. In these last two establishments wire hat-frames were manufactured; this is not a desirable trade, for the work is unskilled and very seasonal, and a number of rather low-grade men are employed, who are gradually displacing the girls in the trade; and as the wire and clipper cut and callous the hands, few girls who are employed remain long at the job.

In some of the wholesale houses a rather cheap grade of work was done. The work of the small shops on the other hand was superior in quality, and in them the general conditions were good.

The girls who enter millinery are perhaps of a more select class of girls than those in any other industry. This industry is still so exclusively a woman's trade that the best positions are open to women.

METHODS OF TRAINING

In the small shops girls at the age of fourteen or fifteen are engaged as learners. As the short hours disorganize the work, the wholesale shops will only occasionally employ girls under sixteen, and there are shops which employ only experienced girls. In a wholesale house which takes apprentices, an apprentice at first prepares trimming and is "helper" to a "maker." If she is observing she may learn a little by watching. In some of the large shops, a designer will have a group of twelve girls working with her; two or three out of the group will be apprentices, who learn by watching their more or less skilled neighbors. In many of the wholesale houses the work is very specialized, and a girl may do such routine work as sewing in lining for months at a time. So the prospects for a girl to learn the trade in these shops are

very slight. Several managers stated that girls who wished to learn the trade should enter the small shops and come to them later as trimmers or designers. The period of apprenticeship in small shops is two seasons. Some firms pay no wages during the first six months, others pay one or two dollars for two seasons, and at the end of that time, if the girl has shown any aptitude she may earn from $6 to $8 a week. The wholesale houses usually pay apprentices from $1.50 to $3.

Wages.—The wages vary greatly in different shops and in different occupations. Designers are the best paid and receive from $25 to $50 a week, the usual wage being about $35. Trimmers receive from $15 to $35; makers, from $10 to $20. Girls who assist and prepare trimming earn from $5 to $10. Much of the work in the wholesale shops is paid on a piece basis, and the slow worker cannot earn much more than $6 or $8. In fact, only girls of artistic ability and unusual creative power can hope to command the higher salaries, and the usual wage for the trade as a whole is about $12.

Hours.—The hours are usually from 8 a. m. to 6 p. m., varying half an hour in some cases. In a few wholesale houses where piecework is done and in the smaller shops in outlying districts, girls are required to work overtime when the season is at its height.

Seasons.—The great disadvantage of millinery is its extremely seasonal character. The wholesale houses are usually busy during September, October, and November, and in March, April, and May. In some houses the season may begin earlier and last a little longer, but practically the busy season does not last longer than seven months. From June through part of August the agents are getting orders for fall and winter hats; and from December to February, for the spring and summer hats. Then the force of workers is greatly decreased. One house which employs one hundred girls during the busy season decreases the force to twenty when the work becomes slack. Only the most competent—the skilled designers and trimmers—are employed throughout the year.

In the retail trade the busy season begins in March and is over by June, and again September, October, and November are busy months.

No milliner can expect more than six or eight months of work during the year.

Employers generally seem to have no trouble in securing girls in spite of the seasonal character of the work, but they complain of their lack of artistic appreciation and creative ability. They thought that if a technical school could give training in color and form and teach the sewing required in millinery, it might be helpful; otherwise as there is no principle to follow in millinery and as the styles are changing every season, there would be no advantage in technical training. Moreover the technical training must be supplemented by workroom experience, as the workroom only can give certain kinds of training which are necessary to a successful milliner.

THE SEWING TRADES

III. LINGERIE, WOMEN'S WAISTS AND DRESSES

This report covers three branches of the ready-made clothing industry which includes, in Chicago, not only lingerie and women's waists and dresses but women's coats and skirts, men's ready-made clothing, and children's dresses and coats. We hope during the coming winter to extend the report to all branches of the trade and to the cheaper as well as to the better-grade firms.

Up to the present time fifteen firms in the three branches designated, employing about three hundred girls, have been visited. Conditions in these establishments varied. Two or three firms had small workrooms. In factories where the lighting was poor, the ventilation bad, and the space not ample, the wages were usually low, and a lower type of girl was employed. The conditions in the large workrooms were generally good.

The following groups of workers are found:

Cutters.—Patterns are cut in large quantities by a machine. Men cutters are always employed, but there is no reason why a woman could not do the cutting.

Designers.—In this particular line of work women are employed more often than men. A designer must be able to draw so that she may make her plan of the garment clear to the cutter. She must have some creative power.

Sample-hands.—These workers put together the first sample garment, after it has been designed and cut, and plan the work in sections for the machinists.

Machinists.—The greater number of girls employed in the ready-made clothing trade are machinists. The machines are run by power and are started and regulated by the pressure of the girl's foot on a lever, while her hands guide the work.

METHODS OF TRAINING

As a girl cannot legally run a power machine until she is sixteen, and there is little handwork to be done, few factories employ girls under sixteen years. Some shops employ girls of fourteen and fifteen as finishers—cutting threads, sewing on buttons, cutting the goods under the lace, and preparing the trimming. After they are sixteen, they may be put at machines. The necessary qualities for a good machinist are speed and intelligence. A girl usually learns machine-operating by sitting next to an experienced machinist and receiving a little help from the forewoman. The work is highly specialized and for the beginner it is rather discouraging. She is usually the one who is first discharged when the work becomes a little slack; and if she has learned only one simple stitch and has no idea how to put together any garment, or if she is accustomed to one particular machine, she may find it difficult to secure another place. One employer said that he preferred girls who could make an entire waist or dress so that he could change them from one machine to another; but the girls are

usually satisfied if they know only one process. Several employers stated that they had urged girls to change their machines; but they will leave rather than learn another branch. In several shops girls have an opportunity to learn machine embroidery on waists and dresses. In some instances machine-operators have risen to positions of designers and sample-hands.

WAGES, HOURS AND SEASONS

Wages.—A girl under sixteen years may earn from $3.50 to $4.50 a week. A machine-operator usually starts at $4.50 or $5 a week and works for that amount until she learns or until her piecework exceeds her weekly wage. Then she is paid on a piece basis. The average wage for a machinist is $10; though in some factories girls are earning from $15 to $20. In two factories where a high grade of work was done, the machinists were paid by the week. The more skilled ones received $10 to $15 in one factory, and in the other some were paid as much as $20.

Hours.—The hours are generally from 8 a. m. to 5:30 p. m. for girls over sixteen years, varying a quarter- or a half-hour in some cases—with half an hour at noon and Saturday afternoon off, excepting in two shops where they were closed only during the summer months.

Seasons.—The majority of these firms were busy through the year with the exception of two months during the summer when they were compelled to decrease their force of workers somewhat. One large factory where dresses were manufactured was planning to introduce the manufacture of negligee wear during the slack season in order to retain the workers.

NEED FOR TECHNICAL TRAINING

All the employers interviewed were in favor of training in this line of work. The following opinions were expressed:

"A school would be a great benefit in teaching the girl to make an entire garment. The girl who knows how to do everything is the valuable one. It's very hard to get good machinists. Not more than five out of a hundred who answer our advertisements can sew."

"There are few skilled workers. A school would bring more competent girls into the field."

"If a girl were taught all the processes of machinery she would have no trouble getting a position."

"If girls were given technical training they could do their work more intelligently, and there would be a greater opportunity for them to become designers and sample-hands."

One employer had proposed to the manufacturers' association to which he belonged the establishment of a trade school where the girls might be taught seaming and how to put together a garment; but many of the firms thought it was cheaper to employ inexperienced girls at lower wages even if it did take longer to teach them in their shops.

It was suggested: (1) That an all-round knowledge of machine-operating be given; (2) that drawing and designing of garments be taught; (3) that a course in drafting and cutting of patterns be offered, though men are generally employed as cutters; (4) that teachers who have had factory experience should be employed.

THE SEWING TRADES

IV. BRAIDING AND EMBROIDERING

The establishments visited were those in which exclusive work is done in braiding and embroidering waists and dresses. Some of these are small shops employing from four to fifty girls. These embroider for the private dressmakers. Larger factories employing as many as two hundred and fifty girls receive their orders from the large dressmaking establishments.

The work in these shops consists in braiding, embroidering, beading, appliqueing dresses, waists and coats, and making buttons and dress-trimmings. Much of the work is done by machine, but there is also a little handwork.

The work is varied and interesting and offers good opportunities under favorable shop conditions.

METHOD OF TRAINING

Few girls under sixteen are employed. At first they wind spools, match silks, and learn the simple stitches in hand embroidery. Sometimes they are employed to make buttons. At sixteen they may learn the machining, which requires accuracy and good eyesight. As a rule, employers cannot spare the time to teach girls and consequently are demanding workers already trained. Several employers prefer to employ foreign girls, thinking that they make better embroiderers and that they are less restless and less likely to leave than the American girls usually are.

WAGES, HOURS AND SEASONS

Wages.—Girls under sixteen generally receive from $3.50 to $5 a week. Skilled workers can earn as much as $20. The usual wage for an experienced girl is about $12. In all except two shops, the wages are paid on a time basis.

Hours.—The hours are from 8 a. m. to 5:30 p. m.

Seasons.—The seasons generally correspond to the seasons in the dressmaking trade. The summer months are slack, and girls are often laid off during that time.

Employers find it difficult to secure girls who can do the work accurately. Few are intelligent enough to detect a flaw in their work, and the girls who seek employment are generally lacking in originality, with little appreciation of symmetry and color. Skilled embroiderers either by hand or machine are scarce. One manager of a shop said that she had to send some of her work to New York because she could not find any expert hand embroiderers here.

All the employers except one thought that their work might be taught with success in a technical school, particularly if special attention is given to designing. It is claimed that skilled machine embroiderers are always in demand and that they can command high wages.

THE SEWING TRADES

V. CORSET-MAKING

There are two branches of corset-making, the wholesale or factory work and the custom-work. Two factories were visited and ten small shops where corsets are "made to order."

The factory work to some extent is unskilled and mechanical. The work is largely power machining and offers no inducement to the girl who wishes to learn a trade. Girls under sixteen are employed to cut and tie threads and to insert the bones in the casings. These factories employ many immigrant girls.

The custom or "made-to-order" corset trade is interesting and highly skilled. The trade is at present small but it is growing, and each year there is a greater demand for intelligent corset-makers.

METHODS OF TRAINING

The custom-shops do not like to take apprentices. Managers of these shops say that if they take a girl who knows nothing of the trade she may work six months, and then they may find that she is not adapted to the work and their time has been wasted. They are compelled to take untrained girls occasionally, however, because of the difficulty in getting skilled workers. The apprentice learns the different branches of putting the pieces together, button-holing, trimming, fitting in the bones, binding and machining. Seaming requires the greatest care and preciseness. Cutting is seldom taught, and fitting is acquired only after years of experience. Only one shop visited takes learners under sixteen.

WAGES, HOURS AND SEASONS

Wages and Hours.—The wages of learners run from $3 to $5 a week at the start. After three years' training a girl should be earning from $8 to $12. The usual wage of a skilled worker is $15. Hours are usually from 8 a..m. to 5:30 p. m. with one hour at noon.

Seasons.—The work is not seasonal. Unlike most branches of the sewing trades there is no slack season in corset-making.

NEED FOR A TRADE SCHOOL

The general opinion in the custom trade was to the effect that corset-making could be well taught in a trade school. A school would give an all-round training which few of the shops have time to give. Some of the employers who favored a trade school expressed the following opinions:

"I class corset-making with dressmaking. People are beginning to see that it is as necessary for a corset to fit well as it is for a dress. The custom-work is growing, and there will be a need for more skilled workers. A school would bring more workers into the field."

"It is hard to get girls in this trade; but if they once learn corset-making they like it. A trade school would be a help, for the trade is

growing, and in the next few years there is going to be a great demand for skilled workers."

"It is extremely difficult to secure girls. I have fifteen girls and I could use twenty-five. A trade school would be a splendid thing if it set out to teach only the simplest things in corset-making. I suggest that hygiene be taught in connection with corset-making."

"Corset-making requires preciseness to a greater extent than dressmaking. There are few skilled girls in this trade and there is a demand for them. If a school would teach binding and eyeletting there would be plenty of openings for girls. Send such girls to me, and I will pay them from $8 to $10 a week."

"A trade school would be a good thing. The work is very particular and trained girls are needed. Though there is not a great opening now, there surely will be in a few years. Everything could be taught in such a school except fitting, and that takes years of experience."

On the whole the prospects in the corset trade are good, though the industry is as yet small. The work is steady, the shop conditions are excellent, and skilled workers are well paid.

THE SEWING TRADES

VI. TIE-MAKING

As tie-making offers no inducement to the girl under sixteen, only a few firms, seven in all, were visited. The trade is easy to learn, and, though not complicated, the work is considerably subdivided. The machinist runs together the long straight ties, which are passed on to the girls who turn them and insert the lining. In some cases girls do only the hemming. Other girls work on bow ties, which are put together by hand.

As any ordinary machinist can do the work, most establishments employ only girls who have learned operating elsewhere. One employer, however, who preferred taking girls under sixteen and training them in his own way employed seven girls of this age. All these little girls are engaged to cut threads, turn ties, run errands and pack boxes, and they are usually paid from $3 to $4 a week while they are doing this unskilled work.

Wages.—The work is on a piece basis and the usual wage is from $8 to $10 a week. Few girls are said to be able to earn as much as $15 a week.

Seasons.—Tie-making is not a regularly seasonal trade; the busy seasons vary according to orders. The months of July and August are, however, usually slack, and during these months the less efficient girls are laid off.

Hours.—The hours are from 8 or 8:30 a. m. to 5:30 p. m. In some shops the girls work an hour overtime during the busy season.

The shop conditions were generally fair, and in one factory the conditions were excellent. The employer seemed interested in the welfare of the girls, who were neater and more prosperous looking than the girls in other shops. The prospects in the trade are not favorable for the girl who has no knowledge of machining.

THE SEWING TRADES

VII. CAP-MAKING

Cap-making is not a large industry in Chicago, but it includes the making of caps of all description. Some factories manufacture only caps to go with uniforms, and in most of these shops there is an embroidery department for embroidering badges and banners in gold and silver and silk. The embroidering is usually done by hand; the work is interesting; and a rather good class of girls is employed at this particular branch, which does not, however, offer openings for many girls.

The prospects in the trade are not good, and girls cannot be advised to enter. There is a strong union among the men, and, as most of the shops manufacture uniform caps for conductors and motormen who will buy only from strictly union shops, union men are displacing girls in the trade.

In those shops where ordinary caps are made the work is greatly subdivided. Men are employed to do the cutting and blocking and machining. Girls do only the machining. No girls under sixteen are employed.

Wages.—The wages are paid on a piece basis, the maximum wage being $15 a week. The usual wage is probably not more than $8 or $10. The beginner is paid $5.

Hours.—The hours are from 8 a. m. to 5:30 p. m.

Seasons.—The seasons vary, but there are likely to be long slack periods.

The conditions are very unfavorable in many of the shops. In the shops where girls may enter, a rough class of men are employed.

THE SEWING TRADES

VIII. SUSPENDER-MAKING

Suspender-making, like tie-making, ordinarily requires girls who are experienced machine-operators. In only one shop visited were girls under sixteen employed. There the work was mechanical, such as sewing on tags and "packing," for which they were paid $3 to $3.50 a week. If they remain until they are sixteen they are taught to use the power machines. But several shops will take girls of sixteen as learners.

Wages.—Learners who are sixteen receive $5 a week. Experienced workers can rarely earn more than $10. The usual wage is probably not more than $8.

Hours.—The hours are from 8 a. m. to 5:30 p. m. The girls are required to work overtime in some shops when business increases.

Seasons.—The trade is seasonal; the busiest time for all firms is in December; during the summer months work is usually slack and the force is decreased.

On the whole the suspender industry does not seem to offer many inducements to a girl. The work is easy but uninteresting, and a girl usually remains at one process. Wages are not as high as the wages of operators in some other lines of work. The shop conditions in many cases are not very favorable.

THE SEWING TRADES

IX. GLOVE-MAKING

The glove-making industry in Chicago consists largely of the manufacturing of men's working-gloves. There are three or four small shops where women's gloves are made. Altogether about six hundred or seven hundred women are employed in the trade.

Few girls under sixteen are employed, since the work is almost entirely stitching seams on power machines. The only work that a fourteen- or fifteen-year-old girl can do is inspecting gloves or cutting threads.

Girls of sixteen are taught how to use power machines. The work is subdivided; and girls usually know only one process. Sewing finger seams is the most skilled branch of the work and is the best paid. Men are employed to do the cutting.

Wages.—Girls under sixteen receive $3.50 a week. Machine operators are paid $4 or $5 while learning. After a girl has learned to run a machine the work is piecework and wages vary; the average skilled girl can earn from $10 to $12, while a few girls may earn as much as $20 a week.

Hours.—The hours are usually from 7:30 a. m. to 5:30 p. m., but they vary a little in some shops.

Seasons.—The work for the most part is steady and not seasonal, but during the last two or three years the trade as a whole has been slack.

The shop conditions vary, but the union is improving conditions in the trade; and the prospects are fairly good.

THE BOOT AND SHOE INDUSTRY

Boot and shoe making is a large industry in Chicago. For the purposes of this investigation the five largest establishments in the city were visited. These factories employed from four hundred to one thousand men and women.

There are a large number of women in the boot and shoe industry employed in the stitching room, where a good deal of the work requires some degree of skill. Girls are also engaged in sorting various pieces of lining, pasting parts of the lining and leather together, and turning the edges of the leather. Girls are found, too, in the finishing rooms, where they "touch up" the shoes.

There are endless subdivisions in the trade. A shoe passes through one hundred and six pair of hands and conforms to the requirements of fifty-eight different machines before it becomes the perfect product.

The simplest seam is stitching the tongue to a piece of lining. "Vamping," or sewing on the uppers, is the most skilled process. A vamper needs to be very accurate. "Skiving" or thinning down the leather to a beveled edge also requires a high degree of skill.

Few girls under sixteen years are employed. About forty were found in the factories visited. They tie and cut threads, do some other mechanical work and they usually leave before they are placed in charge of a machine.

It takes from one to two years to learn to operate one of the power machines skillfully, and under the present system it is almost impossible for a girl to learn the boot and shoe trade. She may stay at one machine for a year or two and still not master it, because no one could spare a little time to show her. Only after years in the trade may a girl become a vamper or an operator of the more difficult machines. Better manufacturers do not want learners; and girls must often begin in factories which make the poorer grade of shoes.

Wages.—The wages vary but do not exceed $4 a week for the beginner. The unskilled work such as sorting and pasting is paid on a time basis. When a girl is given a stitching machine she is paid by the piece. The best workers earn from $14 to $18 a week; and a vamper sometimes earns as much as $20 to $25. The usual wage, however, is not more than $12.

Fines.—If there is a defect in a pair of shoes, the person who is responsible has to purchase the shoes at cost. This is said to be no loss to the worker, who, it is claimed, can sell the shoes at a profit.

Hours.—The hours are from 7:30 a. m. to 5:30 p. m. with half an hour at noon and Saturday afternoons off.

Season.—The trade is not seasonal. Sometimes the factories close for a week during the year, but the work is never slack enough to necessitate laying off a large number of workers.

NEED FOR TRADE CLASSES

There are numerous openings for skilled workers, but employers state that it is very difficult to secure competent or even intelligent girls

for the trade. The employers were heartily in favor of a technical school. They thought that, if girls received some knowledge of the boot and shoe industry in a school, more of them would enter the trade and that they would remain longer. They would have an opportunity to become masters of their craft and would look at their work from a different standpoint from that of the girl who punches eyelets or sews a tongue to a shapeless piece of lining month after month and knows nothing else. One employer thought that a trade school would solve the problem for the girl who must go to work immediately after leaving school. Few workrooms now offer facilities for teaching beginners, and, even if opportunities were offered, few girls would enter regular apprenticeships.

The manufacturers were of the opinion that a school would have to be well equipped and that, in addition to teaching the various parts of the trade, arrangements would have to be made for practical work in some factory.

ARTIFICIAL FLOWER-MAKING

Artificial flower-making is a poor trade in Chicago. The finer grades of flowers are all imported or made in the East. There are only three or four places in the city where any manufacturing is done, and in these the shop conditions are unfavorable.

Girls under sixteen are frequently employed as apprentices, but they have no prospect of advancement or steady work. After a girl has served her apprenticeship of a few weeks and has learned the trade, she may be discharged and a new apprentice taken on in her place. The work is really not skilled, and a girl can learn "branching," which is about the only process that is done here, in a few days.

The wages are very low, a beginner receiving $2 or $3, and wages rarely exceed $8 even for skilled workers.

The work is very seasonal. There are not more than seven months of work during the year.

BOOKBINDING

This report is based on interviews with employers, foremen and forewomen, in twelve different shops, ten of the establishments visited being large shops employing from thirty to four hundred girls.

The general conditions in the trade seem to be good. Most of the large establishments have clean, well-ventilated workrooms. Two or three of the large shops, and one or two of the smaller ones, were too crowded, and the light was poor. The ventilation, too, was not adequate. For the most part, however, the shops seemed well supervised.

The trade is large in Chicago and offers fairly good opportunities for girls who have not finished the elementary schools but who are quick and accurate in using their hands.

The work varies a great deal in different establishments. Some firms do regular bookwork, others blankbook work, while many do chiefly pamphlet and circular work. Some firms that do catalogue work for the large mail-order houses also do sample-book work and

the addressing and mailing of catalogues. The pamphlet and circular work is the lightest kind of binding.

The following processes are done by girls:

Folding.—Folding consists in folding the sheets to the size of the pages. The folded sheets are known as sections. This process is done by machinery in some shops. This, however, works no hardship to the girls in the trade, since folding is a purely mechanical process which should be paid on a time basis because the piecework schedule is far too low.

Gathering.—Gathering is the process of collecting the folded sections and arranging them in complete book-form.

Collating.—Collating is the process of checking and correcting the work and seeing that it is complete.

Stitching.—Stitching is the most skilled process and is usually done by machine. It consists in sewing the sections to a tape or cord and requires a knowledge of the machine and a certain amount of experience in feeding.

Preparing the leather back and putting the pages into the case is rather heavy work and is usually done by men. All the processes of the trade represented in these shops require speed and accuracy rather than skill. While there are not many opportunities for a girl under sixteen years to enter a bindery, a few large union shops employ enough girls to make it profitable to run an eight-hour shift for apprentices under sixteen. These are said to be good places for a girl to learn the trade, and at sixteen she may join the union with her apprenticeship completed. But the number of girls under sixteen employed in binderies is small. Some forewomen seem to be more willing than others to transfer girls from one process to another in order to make them thoroughly skilled in all parts of the trade within one and a half years. In other shops the worker may be kept for long periods on one particular kind of work. But usually the term of apprenticeship is two years.

WAGES AND HOURS

A girl under sixteen years usually starts at $3.50 or $4 a week and works on a time basis for several months, or until her piecework rate exceeds the time rate, when she is put on piecework schedule. Wages of apprentices sixteen years and over in union shops are $5 a week for the first year and $6 for the second year. The unions now have a forty-eight-hour week and a minimum wage of $8 after a two years' apprenticeship. Employers say that the average bindery girl after two years of experience earns $9 to $14 a week. Many are able to earn from $20 to $25. The regular hours in union shops are eight to eight and one-half hours a day and in non-union shops eight and one-half or nine hours a day.

SEASONS

The trade is seasonal in some of the shops which do special work. This is most marked in those which do catalogue work. Busy seasons occur twice a year and last about three months. The most efficient and skilled workers are given employment all the year round in these shops, which usually have some sort of regular work which alternates with the special work. Throughout the city the trade is not considered seasonal, for an experienced bindery girl can always find employment in some bindery because of the diversified character of the work done.

DEMAND FOR SKILLED WORKERS

The employers in the union shops say that they have great difficulty in getting union help. The trade is understocked with workers with any degree of skill; and many shops are obliged to train all their help. This, of course, interferes with union rules which restrict somewhat the number of apprentices. So many of the bindery girls are leaving the trade to get married that it is impossible to fill all the places with experienced girls.

It is evident from the complaints of the employers regarding the scarcity of experienced bindery help that a trade school would be a benefit. Employers and forewomen do not say that a trade school could be easily conducted; but if the trade school could be equipped fairly well, the trade could be well taught.

ENGRAVING

FEEDING, STAMPING, EMBOSSING AND GOLD LEAF WORK

Girls are employed as feeders in copper-plate engraving. This work consists in laying the card on the copper plate which is inked and polished by the engraver whose hands are too soiled with ink to touch the card. The work is very simple and does not tire the girl since the speed required is not great. No experience is necessary, and in this particular work there is no opportunity for advancement. In nearly all copper-plate engraving establishments, however, the firm also does the stamping and embossing of stationery and gold-leaf work. These latter processes are more or less skilled and require a good deal of accuracy and neatness. The places at the benches in the stamping, embossing and gold-leaf rooms are usually filled by promoting girl feeders from the engraving room.

WAGES, HOURS AND SEASON

The wages of the copper-plate feeders range from $4 to $5 a week, girls under sixteen years seldom being paid more than $4.50. The girls who do stamping, embossing and gold-leaf work earn from $10 to $15 per week, the usual wage being about $11. The hours are eight to eight and one-half. The trade is not seasonal enough to necessitate laying off any workers. The holiday season is unusually busy.

PROSPECTS

Conditions seem to be fairly good in these lines of work in comparison with other lines of industry which girls may enter, but promotion is likely to be slow. The work makes no educational demands, and for the girl who does not finish the eighth grade and has no special aptitude for sewing, this offers easy work under favorable shop conditions, all of the shops investigated being well lighted, well ventilated and having ample space.

PHOTOGRAPHY

Photography is a trade that offers good openings for girls. The general opinion is that women are adapted to all the skilled branches of the trade. The different processes are:

1. **Operating.**—This is highly skilled work. There are few women operators, but there is no reason why a woman would not make as successful an operator as a man. One photographer thinks women would be especially good in photographing children, and believes there is a future for women in children's work.

2. **Developing and printing.**—This is work done both by men and women, but men are usually employed.

3. **Retouching.**—Retouching is the process of touching up the negative with a pencil wherever necessary. This work requires a high degree of skill, and it seems to be the general opinion that women are very successful retouchers.

4. **Spotting.**—This consists in taking out spots and blemishes on the print with a brush. This work is not skilled and it is usually done by women.

5. **"Working up" backgrounds.**—This is done with an air brush and requires a good deal of artistic ability.

6. **Mounting and finishing.**—This is not highly skilled work but requires care and precision.

OPPORTUNITIES—PRESENT METHODS OF TRAINING

There are few of the large photographers who will bother with apprentices. Sometimes girls of sixteen are employed to sort photographs, do reception room work, and in time they may learn "spotting." But it takes too much time to teach them the more skilled branches. The outlying studios which are small and employ only two or three persons will occasionally take a learner and teach her all of the processes. But such opportunities are rare. Most of the large photographers, however, seem to have received their early experience and training in these smaller studios. In only one studio was a girl under sixteen employed. This girl ran errands and sorted photographs. There are very few openings in any branch of the work for girls between fourteen and sixteen.

Wages and hours.—Printers and developers usually earn from $15 to $20 a week; spotters earn from $8 to $12; retouchers earn from $15 to $50 a week; and operators may earn as much as $100 a week. Mounting is of course the most poorly paid as it is the most unskilled branch of the work. Hours are usually from 8:30 a. m. to 5:30 p. m.

Seasons.—The work is generally slack one or two months in the summer and in January. Large studios seldom lay off their employees during the slack season, for there is such a dearth of skilled workers that the photographers seek to retain them at all costs.

All the employers interviewed with one exception were of the opinion that there is a great opportunity for a trade school which

would give practical training to the boys and girls. There is no branch of the work that cannot be taught: "photographers are not born, they are made."

The plan for teaching photography as suggested by the head of the largest studio in the city, was that a small studio be fitted up and that every process of photography be taught by a competent photographer; that practical work be given and along with it perhaps a little chemistry. He suggested that platinum prints be used if possible, as the work on platinum prints is done by hand. He also said that photography could be taught to grammar-school children with good results, but that girls and boys of high-school age could take it up more intelligently.

STENOGRAPHY, TYPEWRITING, AND GENERAL OFFICE-WORK

Anyone who has to do with finding work for girls is likely to be somewhat dismayed at what seems to be an almost universal longing for "office-work." This is, of course, due to the fact that the work is usually light, the workrooms pleasant, the hours short. To many girls, too, it seems "more ladylike."

Office-work for girls under sixteen may be considered under several different heads:

1. **Office stenography and typewriting.**—Girls who have not had some high-school work should not be encouraged to take business "college" courses in stenography and typewriting. An exception might possibly be made in favor of an unusually bright eighth-grade graduate, but in general there seems to be little hope for the grammar-school girl who has gone to "college." After a weary and most discouraging search for a position, the best that is open to her is an undesirable place at a low wage from which she cannot advance. Good stenographers are always in demand, but the girl who has not had the proper educational background can never become a good stenographer and she should not be encouraged to waste time or money on a "business course." The market is flooded with inefficient girls, who are too incompetent to be recommended for good positions and who are lowering standards of work and wages.

2. **General office-work.**—General office-work consists of such work as filing, entry-work, compiling and typewriting. The prospects for a girl who has not had a good education are fairly good in such work as this, especially if she enters a large commercial or mercantile establishment where a large number of girls are employed. In these large offices typists are usually in demand, and the girls at the files often have an opportunity to practice on the machines during their spare time, and many go to the public evening schools to learn typewriting. As soon as a girl can operate a machine sufficiently well to copy a letter she is promoted to a position as typist. As her speed increases and she becomes more competent, her wages are raised. A skillful typist can earn as much as the stenographer of average skill.

3. **The operation of comptometers, adding, billing and bookkeeping machine.**—There seems to be a growing demand for girls who are

able to operate comptometers, adding, billing and bookkeeping machines. These machines are easily learned, and the prospects seem favorable.

There are two or three schools in the city where girls may learn to operate these machines in seven or eight weeks for a small fee. But in offices where these machines are installed the girls can readily learn to use the simpler machines with practice.

Wages.—The wage which girls under sixteen receive at the beginning is $4 a week. Those over sixteen receive $5 and $6. A typist may earn as high as $15. Adding and billing machine operators receive from $6 to $15, and operators of bookkeeping machines receive as high as $18.

Hours.—The hours are generally from 8 a. m. to 5 or 5:30 p. m.

The office managers seem to think that the greatest service a school would render would be in teaching more English and more arithmetic to the girls who wish to enter offices. Some firms thought that it would not be practical to teach any branch of office-work. It was stated that bookkeeping as taught in most schools is useless. Some employers thought that typewriting and the card filing systems might be taught.

Intelligent and capable girls seem to be scarce. The majority have not a thorough enough knowledge of the elementary subjects to be come efficient workers.

TELEPHONE OPERATING

In the Chicago Telephone Company 4,900 girls are employed. Operators must be sixteen years of age and girls older than this are preferred. All applicants for positions are given a physical examination by a medical nurse.

The company has a school where beginners receive a four-weeks' course of training, and are paid $5 a week while learning. No girl at the end of her training is skillful enough to handle a day board; and all new girls are put on a five-hour evening shift. Girls on the evening shifts are paid at the rate of eleven cents an hour for eight hours' work.

The eight hours daily include a luncheon period of forty minutes, two relief periods of fifteen minutes each, and a twenty minute period for gymnastics on the roof.

Wages.—The average girl rarely earns more than $8 a week, but it is said that expert operators are paid $95 a month.

If one is considering the work from the point of view of advising young girls to enter it, there seems to be a great many disadvantages connected with it. All the beginners are compelled to work at night until they become expert enough to handle a day board, and sometimes they are never transferred to a day board. Work at night is always bad for young girls, and in the case of work in telephone exchanges located, as many of them must be, in undesirable parts of the city, the temptations confronting the girls are very great. Moreover, the work involves a continual nervous strain and the wages are not high.

LAUNDRIES

Five of the largest laundries in Chicago were visited, and, while this is a very small number in proportion to the total, it seemed to be unprofitable to continue the investigation, since it appeared to be quite clear that girls under sixteen are almost never employed. In rare instances they may be used for sewing on buttons and shaking out clothes, but the trade is really one for older women. When girls under sixteen are employed they are paid $4 a week.

There are great disadvantages in the trade. The long hours of standing, the heat, and the inadequate ventilation in many laundries are without doubt injurious to the health of the girls who work in them. Although employers say that there is no overtime work, it seems to be clear that the girls must be capable of doubling the output of work if occasion demands; the girl who ordinarily irons 650 shirt bosoms a day must be able to run as many as 1,000 through her machine if business increases. The trade is not well organized, and the employers claim that the work is not uniform enough to justify the establishment of a uniform wage.

Nearly all of the work is done by machinery and is subdivided into many branches. One shirt may go through ten or twelve processes before it is ready for packing.

The most skilled branch of laundry work is "sorting" which requires quite a little intelligence. This is the process of sorting the clothes according to texture and color.

WAGES, HOURS, SEASONS

Wages.—The usual wage for a good sorter is $15 a week. After sorting, the hand ironing on fine dresses is the most skilled branch of the trade. Hand ironers usually receive from $12 to $15 a week. The most skilled and highest paid machine work is on shirt bosoms, which pays $11 a week. The girls at the mangle earn $7 and $8. In this process one girl "feeds" and one "receives." The girls on the collar and cuff machine receive $5 and $6.

The work is usually paid on a time basis.

Hours.—The hours are from 7:30 a. m. to 6 p. m. At 10 o'clock a recess of fifteen minutes is given for lunch, and half an hour at noon. There is no work Monday morning or Saturday afternoons when the laundry is being collected and delivered, so that there are only five working days.

The trade is not seasonal, but the summer months are, of course, the busiest.

Though the conditions in some laundries are good, it does not seem to be advisable for a young girl to enter this trade. She should certainly be discouraged from going into work of this sort until she has grown stronger and is better able to endure the standing and the long hours.

DYEING AND CLEANING

Dyeing and cleaning, like laundry work, requires very strong girls, but it has certain advantages over the laundry. The hours are very much shorter, wages are higher, and the general conditions are better.

Men are employed in the cleaning rooms, as the fumes from the chemicals are too strong for the girls. Men also press the heavier

garments. Women are employed in ironing and finishing the more delicate garments and lace and in sorting and marking the fabrics. The pressing is very careful work, and a good deal of skill is needed to know just the amount of steam and pressure required for different kinds of fabrics.

Girls under eighteen are rarely employed and there is no chance in this trade for girls under sixteen. A girl must have some knowledge of ironing to enter this trade, for learners are never employed.

Wages.—Most of the women employed earn about $10 a week and probably none earn more than $15.

Hours.—The hours are from 8 a. m. to 5 p. m.

Seasons.—The trade is not considered seasonal. In mid-summer and mid-winter there is likely to be less work, but girls are rarely laid off.

HAIRDRESSING AND HAIRMAKING

Of the thirty-eight places visited, eleven only manufactured hair, wigs, puffs, etc.; seven rendered personal services only, such as shampooing, hairdressing, and manicuring; and twenty were both hairmaking and hairdressing establishments. Three establishments employed fifty girls; thirteen employed ten or more; and twenty-two employed less than five. The shops or factories which only make hair are so different in the opportunities of employment offered from those in which hairdressing is carried on that it seems best to consider them separately.

I. HAIRMAKING AS A SEPARATE INDUSTRY

In the factories where false hair, wigs, etc., are manufactured the work is rather unskilled, and each girl works at one process. The girls are paid by the piece and sometimes earn as much as $10 a week; but there are slack seasons which make it unprofitable a good part of the year. In general there is so little opportunity of advancement that it cannot be considered a good trade for girls to enter.

II. HAIRDRESSING AND SHAMPOOING

In many of the hairdressing "parlors" there are openings for girls to learn the trade. In some shops a beginner is paid, but her wages range from carfare to $2 a week; others pay nothing for three months and a few shops charge a regular stipulated sum for the first six months of apprenticeship. Managers say that it takes from two to three years to learn the trade thoroughly in one of these shops. There are several schools in the city where hairdressing, manicuring, facial massage, etc., are taught, but as a rule the tuition is rather high.

Girls should not be encouraged to go into this trade, however, unless they are very neat in their dress and personal habits and unless they can be taken into the best shops, where the work is on the whole light and pleasant. A girl who is tall and strong as well as neat makes the best worker. Great care should be taken to place a girl in a shop where the influences are sure to be good, for conditions in the lower-grade shops are most unfavorable.

Wages.—Girls who are more or less expert in this line of work can earn from $10 to $25 a week, but very few receive more than $15.

Seasons.—The work is not seasonal.

Hours.—The hours vary in different shops. There is usually a nine-hour day.

PUBLIC CARE OF WORKING-CHILDREN IN ENGLAND AND GERMANY

SOME NOTES ON JUVENILE LABOUR EXCHANGES*

EDITH ABBOTT

In the first part of this report, we emphasized the fact that in Chicago no organized work is being done at the present time to prevent the wastage that comes from the child's walking the streets in search of a job and still more from his haphazard choice of work. It has seemed therefore appropriate to give a brief account here of some important work in this direction that is being done in England and Germany. Although in both of these countries the work is now carried on chiefly by national, state, or municipal authorities, very valuable experimental work was carried on by private organizations for many years before the State realized what a serious problem it was facing. Several years ago, the Women's University Settlement in London began to help crippled or handicapped children to find suitable work; and out of this grew a so-called "skilled employment committee" which undertook to find work for normal children also. The work done by this committee proved to be so valuable that the Charity Organization Society began to form apprenticeship and skilled employment committees in connection with the work of its various district offices. In time these committees became organized into an independent society, the Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association, an organization which has undoubtedly been largely responsible for focusing attention on the need of public protection for the child just leaving school to go to work. The establishment of a national system of labour exchanges with juvenile departments has meant the development of the work of advising children and finding suitable vacancies on a much larger scale than was possible with any private organization; but the association still finds a large field for supplementary work and still maintains some twenty-one committees in the different parts of London.[1]

*These notes were made during two visits to England in successive summers, 1910 and 1911, and a visit to several German cities in which interesting experiments were being made. (E. A.)

[1] It is not possible in a brief note to give any adequate account of these committees, of the thorough and careful work done for each child, of the constant supervision of the child who has been placed, of the admirable handbooks the Central Committee has issued, and of the other intelligent and well-organized work that is done. See, for example, Trades for London Boys and How to Enter Them, and Trades for London Girls and How to Enter Them; compiled by the Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association. See also The Work of an Apprenticeship Committee (Leaflet 8 pp.) by M. K. Bradby, and Suggestions to Skilled Employment Committees Newly Starting (Leaflet), as well as the Annual Reports of the Association. All of these may be obtained from the Headquarters of the Association, Denison House, Vauxhall Bridge Road, London, S. W.

During the last few years, it has become customary in England to trace the problem of unemployment, which has reached so acute a stage in that country, directly to the neglect of boy labour. The Majority Report of the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws in 1909 called boy labour "the most serious of the phenomena which we have encountered in our study of unemployment."[2] The Minority agreed with the Majority on this point and pointed out that "one of the most prolific sources of casual labour with its evil of chronic under-employment, is the employment of boys in occupations which afford them no industrial training, and which, whilst providing them with relatively high wages during youth, leaves them stranded when they reach manhood."[3] Both reports quote from the testimony of Mr. Sidney Webb of the London County Council, who was called before the Commission to give evidence on this point. He spoke of "the growing-up of hundreds of thousands of boys without any sort of industrial training, specialized or unspecialized, as a perpetual creating of a future pauperism and a grave menace;" and called attention to the fact that even when parents were anxious to give their boys a good start in life, they faced "the difficulty of discovering any situation in which the boy can become a skilled worker of any kind, or even enter the services of an employer who can offer him advancement. We have, on the one hand, a great development of employment for boys of a thoroughly bad type, yielding high wages and no training. We have, on the other hand, a positive shrinkage—almost a disappearance—of places for boys in which they are trained to become competent men."[4]

With such definite recommendations from the Commission it was not possible in England to make any definite plan for dealing with unemployment unless there were included as an integral part of that plan some proposals for dealing on a large scale with children who were going into unskilled trades and ultimately drifting into the casual labour market.[5] It was to be expected, therefore, that when the national

[2] See the Majority Report, Part VI, Chap. I, Sec. 141.

[3] Minority Report (Longman's edition), II, 269.

[4] Quoted from the testimony of Mr. Sidney Webb, Majority Report, Part VI, Chap. I, Sec. 142. See also Minority Report (Longman's edition), II, 269.

[5] A very important contribution to this subject was also made by Mr. W. H. Beveridge (the present head of the Labour Exchanges) in his very widely-read book, Unemployment: A Problem of Industry. See, for example, p. 212, as follows: "There can be no question but that unemployment today is swollen as a consequence of some of the conditions of youthful labour. In any thorough-going attack upon unemployment there must be included, on the one hand, the better guidance of boys and girls in the choice of careers and, on the other hand, the extension of industrial training." Mr. Beveridge also plainly pre-shadowed the possible field for a national labour exchange in the solution of the problem of boy and girl labour. "The guidance of boys and girls in the choice of careers means simply the extension of labour market organization in connection with the schools. It means substituting for the haphazard entry into industrial life—the taking of the first job that offers—entry informed by wider knowledge of possibilities and prospects. Moreover, in order to be effective this guidance must be fairly general. It implies a juvenile Labour Exchange dealing with a substantial portion both of the supply and of the demand for boys and not one starting out with the ideas of rigidly proscribing all but the best employments. No general effect can be produced by sending a few selected boys to the best employers and ignoring all the other employers. The latter simply get their boys in other ways; the evil is ignored not cured. So long

system of labour exchanges was organized some special provision would be made for dealing with juvenile labour. Separate juvenile departments were immediately established wherever a local exchange was opened. This meant that the nation was undertaking to do on a large scale what the Skilled Employment Association had been doing on a much smaller scale through private funds.

The establishment of a juvenile department in a labour exchange, however, will not in itself protect the children who are going to work. The closest co-operation with the schools is absolutely essential. In England ever since Parliament passed the Education (Choice of Employment) Act in November, 1910, the local education authorities have had "power to make arrangements, subject to the approval of the National Board of Education, for giving to boys and girls under seventeen years of age assistance with respect to the choice of suitable employment by means of the collection and the communication of information and the furnishing of advice; and on January 3, 1911, the President of the Board of Trade and the President of the Board of Education issued a joint memorandum outlining a scheme which provided for co-operation between local authorities exercising their powers under the new Act and the Board of Trade working through the Labour Exchanges."

CO-OPERATION BETWEEN THE BOARD OF TRADE (LABOUR EXCHANGES) AND LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL

A report issued March 23, 1911, by the Education Committee of the London County Council on the subject of After-Care and Juvenile Employment [6] shows how much careful attention has been given to this problem. In this report the purpose of the Juvenile Advisory Committees which are under the joint direction of the London County Council and the Board of Trade is explained as follows:

(a) "To see that the children on leaving school enter, as far as possible, the trades for which they are best suited. This involves a knowledge of the child's educational qualifications, physical condition, and his own and his parents' wishes as to employment.

(b) "To see that children who enter "blind-alley" employment qualify themselves when possible to undertake other work by attendance at evening continuation schools and classes, clubs and similar societies.

(c) "To provide for each child who is in need of advice and guidance a friend, who will endeavor to keep the child in touch with healthy ideals and pursuits and watch over his industrial progress."

The final sentence of the memorandum should also be quoted: "as this system is perfected the parents of all children should have the opportunity of obtaining expert advice as to suitable openings, while

as "blind-alley" openings for boys are not absolutely illegal—which they never can be—the choice of them can only be discouraged generally by bringing them into direct competition with better openings at a general Exchange. A boy choosing a career now often becomes a vanboy without ever having any idea that better careers are possible. If he came to an Exchange he might still become a vanboy, but he would at least learn that other occupations existed, and he might be advised—he could not be compelled—to choose them." W. H. Beveridge, Unemployment: a Problem of Industry, p. 212.

[6] Report No. 5443.

the future of every child will be a matter of active concern to those who have been interested in his education."

An American observer cannot fail to be impressed with the serious and careful attention which has been given both by the Board of Trade acting through the Labour Exchanges and the London County Council acting through its Educational Committee to working out the details of this great plan of protecting the industrial future of the children of London, involving as it does the supervision, during the first three years of their working lives, of the vast majority of children who leave the elementary schools. The work is obviously still in an experimental stage but the following outline will serve to show how thoroughly the details of method are being worked out.[7]

1. At a convenient date before a child is expected to leave school the head teacher prepares a school-leaving form which gives information regarding the child's record in school and fitness for work. Care is taken not to disturb the child by inquiries which may suggest to him the possibility of leaving school before it is absolutely necessary.

2. The parents of the child are either seen at the school or visited by a member of the children's care committee connected with the school in order to discover whether

(a) there is any need for outside advice;

(b) any friendly oversight is likely to be necessary.

3. In all cases where the parents do not wish to make use of the local juvenile advisory committee or other agency, and there is no need for supervision, the form is filed at the school.

4. In the remaining cases the child is referred, and the school-leaving form sent to the local juvenile advisory committee or other employment agency (e. g., Metropolitan Association for Befriending Young Servants, Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association, etc.).

5. In all cases where it has been considered advisable to arrange for friendly oversight, someone (e. g., from among managers of boys' and girls' clubs, settlement or church workers) is found by the children's care committee to undertake this duty.

6. In cases where children are not placed through the local juvenile advisory committee an extra copy of the school-leaving form is kept at the school, and it can be sent to the local juvenile advisory committee should the child subsequently (i. e. during the next three or four years) apply for work at the labour exchange.

7. The local juvenile advisory committees have arranged subcommittees of their members, which meet on several days during the week (either in the morning, afternoon or evening), at which meetings the children are, in suitable cases, encouraged to attend with their parents immediately on leaving school.

8. The secretary of the local juvenile advisory committees makes inquiries as to the reported vacancies for boys and girls.

The powers conferred on the local boards of education by the Choice of Employment Act, to which reference has been made, have been used not merely in London but in a large number of cities in different parts of England. A recent circular issued on the 17th of of last August by the national Board of Education[8] calls the attention

[7] This outline is quoted almost verbatim from After-Care and Juvenile Employment, p. 5.

[8] Circular 782.

of the Local Education Authorities "to the very great importance of the field of activity open to them under this Act." The Board points out that although in many places "much valuable work has been and is being done by voluntary agencies and by individuals in giving advice, information and assistance to boys and girls during the critical period covering the end of their school career and the beginning and earlier years of their employment," that such activities, "though widespread, are as yet by no means universal; and in the opinion of the Board it is of the first importance that in urban areas, and, where possible, in county areas, Local Education Authorities, should take the opportunity afforded by the Act of initiating such work where it is not at present carried on, of co-ordinating and organizing the existing voluntary agencies in a single coherent scheme, and of linking the whole with the work of the juvenile departments of Labour Exchanges in such a way that the moral and educational influences, which naturally center round Elementary Schools and Continuation Schools, should play their proper part in the transition from school life to the life of adult employment." The circular also suggests that the exercise of powers under the Choice of Employment Act should be entrusted to a committee of the Local Education Authority and that "in constituting the Sub-Committee provision should be made for securing an adequate number of members possessing experience or knowledge of educational and industrial conditions." The work of these sub-committees in the various cities is also outlined in this carefully prepared document. Their duties are said to be:

(a) "To arrange for suitable information and advice with regard to the choice of employment to be given to boys and girls, directly or through their parents, both before and after they leave school.

(b) "To co-operate with the Local Labour Exchange Officers in registering applications of boys and girls for employment, and in selecting applicants for suitable vacancies.

(c) "To advise the Board of Trade with regard to the management of the Labour Exchange in relation to juvenile applicants for employment."

"In carrying out their duties the Sub-Committee shall

(a) "Take every opportunity of encouraging boys and girls to continue their education after leaving the Elementary School.

(b) "Study the conditions of employments as these affect the prospects of boys and girls and the need and facilities for continued education; for which purpose the officers of the Labour Exchanges will furnish the Sub-Committee with all the information in their power with regard to the prospects and conditions of employments.

(c) "Use as far as possible the services of Apprenticeship Committees and other organizations for promoting the welfare of boys and girls, and of individual voluntary workers; for which purpose they may, where they think fit, organize Care Committees or After-Care Committees of Teachers, School Managers, and others, whose duty it shall be to keep in individual touch with boys and girls both before and after they leave School."

CO-OPERATION BETWEEN THE EDUCATION COMMITTEE AND THE BOARD OF TRADE (LABOUR EXCHANGE) IN BIRMINGHAM

Some of the large provincial towns of England already had carefully prepared plans under way before the circular of the Board of

Education was issued. In Birmingham, a city of 570,113 inhabitants, the Education Committee had published in the autumn of 1910, an extremely interesting report on the Institution of a Juvenile Employment Bureau in Birmingham. This report, which was adopted by the Education Committee, provided for the closest co-operation between the schools and the Juvenile Department of the Labour Exchange. It was pointed out on the one hand that the school authorities were in a peculiarly favorable position for giving information and advice about the children who wanted work, and that subsequent supervision "in advising children to go to evening classes, properly concerns the education authority which also needs the fresh knowledge so gained to keep such classes and technical schools abreast the needs of the times;" on the other hand it was pointed out that the necessary investigation of industrial conditions and the collection of information regarding vacant situations was properly the work of the Board of Trade. The scheme which was adopted proposed therefore a Children's Employment Bureau under the joint control of the Education Committee and the Board of Trade, the work of the Bureau to be carried on in offices provided by the Education Committee.

METHODS OF EMPLOYMENT SUPERVISION IN LEEDS, DEWSBURY AND HALIFAX (YORKSHIRE)

In Leeds, a great industrial city in the north of England, with 490,985 inhabitants, a still different system exists. There no child is given an employment certificate until a job has already been found for him: that is, the employment certificate must be actually signed by an employer who pledges himself to give employment to the child before the Education Office will officially issue the certificate. The Juvenile Department of the Labour Exchange has a special office opposite the Education Office, where the work certificates are issued, and every child, and frequently the parents of the child as well, comes to the Juvenile Exchange as a matter of course before the certificate is issued.

At Dewsbury, a smaller town in Yorkshire, the Secretary of the Juvenile Advisory Committee visits every elementary school once in three months to register all of the children who are within three months of the school-leaving age. "The great advantage of this system of registration is that it brings the Secretary into touch with every child about to leave school. When registering the children the Secretary is very careful not to suggest employment but points out the advantage of remaining at school."

In Halifax, a Yorkshire town near Leeds, another interesting system has been worked out which follows the plan of interviewing the child and the parents if possible before the child has actually left school or even determined to leave, so that the advantages of a longer period of school attendance may be presented. The Secretary of the Juvenile Advisory Committee of the public Labour Exchange makes periodical visits to the school to interview children before they actually reach the school-leaving age and to advise with them, with their parents, and with their teachers as to the best available vacancy for them when they do leave.

THE EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION AND EMPLOYMENT BUREAU OF EDINBURGH

In 1908, the school boards of Scotland were empowered by Parliament to make appropriations for the establishment of agencies "for collecting and distributing information as to employments open to children on leaving school." The Edinburgh School Board drew up a scheme almost immediately which provided for an Educational Information and Employment Bureau to be opened in the School Board offices under the direction of a standing committee of seven members of the Board and an advisory committee "consisting of the Members of the School Board and such representatives of public bodies and trade associations as the Board may from time to time co-opt, due regard being had to securing representation of the principal trades and of women's occupations."[9]

The duties of the Director of the Bureau were outlined in the original scheme as follows:

(a) "To interview boys and girls and their parents or guardians and advise them with regard to further educational courses and most suitable occupations.

(b) "To prepare leaflets and pamphlets or tabulated matter giving information to the scholars about continuation work.

(c) "To keep in touch with the general requirements of employers and revise from time to time the statistics about employment.

(d) "To prepare and revise periodically statements of the trades and industries of the district, with rates of wages and conditions of employment.

(e) "To keep a record of vacancies intimated by employers, and to arrange for suitable candidates having an opportunity of applying for such vacancies.

(f) "To report periodically on the work of the Bureau."[10]

JUVENILE LABOUR EXCHANGES AND CONTINUATION SCHOOLS IN GERMANY

In Germany it is "the fear of the future," rather than present dire conditions of unemployment, that has led to the various efforts which have been made to conserve the first working-years of the men and women on whom the future of the state is to depend. A recent report to the London County Council on methods of dealing with Juvenile Labour in Germany explained that in different German cities, the matter of boy and girl labour was "receiving attention not only for the sake of the individual prosperity of the town concerned, but as part of the national policy of securing the future greatness and prosperity of the Empire."

In most of the large German cities a close system of co-operation has been worked out between the labour exchange, the schools and the Handwerkerskammer. The survival of the apprenticeship system with the supervisory control of apprentices by the Handwerkerskammer has simplified the problem of dealing with boy labour. The most important factor in the German situation, however, is the system of continuation schools at which attendance has been made compulsory in so many parts of the empire. A system of compulsory attendance

[9] Frederic Keeling, The Labour Exchange in relation to Boy and Girl Labour, p. 30.

[10] Ibid., p. 31.

upon such schools means that the schools automatically retain control over the children after they go to work, they know whether the children are employed or not, and, if employed, where they are working and what kind of work they are doing. Where, as in many cities, the continuation schools are fast developing into trade schools, the school is also making a positive contribution to the child's industrial development. The London County Council Report on Juvenile Labour in Germany, to which reference has been made, declares that "the imperial law for compulsory continuation schools is by far the most important contribution that has been made to the problem of boy labour in Germany." The report also calls attention to a memorandum issued in 1908 by the Minister of Commerce and Industry which "lays special stress on the importance of after-care work among youths and girls who have left school, and says that, much as can be achieved by compulsory attendance at a continuation school, the work cannot be successful without voluntary friendly aid. He urges the formation of after-care committees, in which educational authorities and teachers as well as other volunteers should be associated in social friendly work with the youth, and encourages the establishing of reading rooms, free libraries, boys' clubs and recreative evening classes."

This statement regarding the work of the public authorities in England and Germany in behalf of children leaving school to go to work has been necessarily made in very brief compass for this report. It is hoped, however, that the account has been sufficiently detailed to show that, although a great variety of methods are being worked out, the important fact is that, whatever the method, the care and supervision of juvenile labour both in England and Germany is looked upon as a national responsibility; and however that responsibility be divided among labour exchanges, school authorities, private philanthropies, societies or industrial organizations like the German Handwerkerskammer, and no matter whether exercised by local or national authorities, it is universally recognized that the care of the working-child must be under the supervision of the State.

TRADE AND TECHNICAL CLASSES FOR GIRLS IN CHICAGO

The opening of the Lucy L. Flower Technical High School in September of this year is an event of such importance to those interested in the better training of girls for wage-earning that we feel sure the somewhat detailed account of the work of the school, which has been kindly furnished by the principal, Miss Dora Wells, will be of interest and value. Attention should, however, be called to the fact that this school is almost exclusively for grammar-school graduates and leaves the little girl from the lower grades—the girl with whom this report is chiefly concerned—still largely unprovided for.

LUCY L. FLOWER TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL

The courses of study which are offered in the Lucy L. Flower Technical High School are designed to give girls a technical training in the fundamental employments of women which shall parallel the training given in the technical high schools open only to boys. The curriculum contains a four-year course of study which will meet the entrance requirements for the course in Household Arts and Science at the Chicago Teachers' College, and prepare students for the scientific courses of non-professional colleges.

There is also a two-year course arranged so as to give such preparation as is possible in that length of time to girls who must become self-supporting at an early age.

The more advanced and specialized work in the Departments of Household Science and Household Arts will prepare young women for managing institutional kitchens and lunch rooms, for dressmaking and millinery, and in general for applying their knowledge and training in activities that will be financially remunerative.

For those whose tastes do not lie in the field of household activities, the school authorities intend to supply training in other occupations, so that girls who need or desire to become wage-earners outside the home may have a marketable skill in some healthful employment suitable for women. At the present time, photography, typesetting, bookbinding, and other crafts which require both artistic and manual dexterity are under consideration for this end. It is the intention of the school management to extend the course of study to two years of graduate work which shall be of college rank and quality.

At present the school contains a limited number of girls who have been admitted by examination from the 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th grades of the public elementary schools of Chicago. These girls are for the most part those who for one reason or another are behind the average girl of their age in acquirement. To these girls a large amount of motor work is given, in the hope that they will respond to such stimulus more readily than they have responded to the more generally academic instruction of the regular elementary schools. The pleasure and interest which these girls take in the more active employments offered to them is evident, and a resulting quickening along academic lines is beginning to be apparent.

The classes in dressmaking and millinery listed below are chiefly domestic and not trade classes, that is, they are classes which teach girls how to make their own blouses and trim their own hats but do not train them for work in a shop.

EVENING TECHNICAL CLASSES IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The schools are open two hours an evening from 7:30 to 9:30 on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday of each week.

SEWING.—This course includes hand sewing, use and care of the sewing-machine, exercises in making patterns, fitting and designing, and talks on the elements of good taste in dressing, selection of suitable material, calculation of amount necessary, and the proper laundering of the garments.

Bowen, *89th Street and Manistee Avenue;* **Burley,** *Barry Avenue near Ashland;* **Burns,** *25th Street and Wabansia Avenue;* **Burr,** *Ashland and Wabansia Avenues;* **Dante,** *DesPlaines and Forquer Streets;* **Foster,** *Union and O'Brien Streets;* **Froebel,** *21st and Robey Streets;* **Garfield,** *Johnson Street and 14th Place;* **Goethe,** *Rockwell Street between Fullerton and Milwaukee Avenues;* **Hamline,** *48th and Bishop Streets;* **Jackson,** *Sholto and Better Streets;* **Lake,** *47th Place and Union Avenue;* **Lane,** *Division and Sedgwick Streets;* **McAllister,** *36th and Gage Streets;* **Medill,** *14th Place near Throop;* **Nash,** *49th Avenue and Erie Street;* **Phillips,** *39th Street and Prairie Avenue;* **Pullman,** *Morse Avenue and 113th Street;* **Walsh,** *20th and Johnson Streets;* **Washington,** *Morgan Street and Grand Avenue.*

MILLINERY.—Trade millinery is taught. Practical milliners have charge of these classes.

Crane Technical High School, *Oakley Avenue and Vanburen Street;* **Englewood High School,** *62d Street and Stewart Avenue;* **Lake High School,** *47th Place and Union Avenue;* **Lane Technical High School,** *Division and Sedgwick Streets;* **Phillips,** *39th Street and Prairie Avenue.*

STENOGRAPHY.—The progress of the pupils in this course depends largely on their previous preparation.

Bowen, *89th Street and Manistee Avenue;* **Crane,** *Oakley Avenue and Vanburen Street;* **Burr,** *Ashland and Wabansia Avenue;* **Englewood,** *Stewart Avenue and 62d Street;* **Foster,** *Union and O'Brien Streets;* **Goethe,** *Rockwell Street between Fullerton and Milwaukee Avenues;* **Lake,** *47th Place and Union Avenue;* **Lane,** *Division and Sedgwick Streets;* **Medill,** *14th Place near Throop Street;* **Phillips,** *39th Street and Prairie Avenue;* **Pullman,** *113th Street and Morse Avenue;* **Tuley,** *Potomac and N. Claremont Avenues;* **Waller,** *Orchard and Center Streets;* **Washington,** *Morgan Street and Grand Avenue.*

TYPEWRITING.—Special emphasis is laid on the course in typewriting, in recognition of the fact that there is a growing demand for typewriter operators, irrespective of whether or not they are also stenographers. Instruction will be given in the proper use of the machine, spacing, capitalizing, fingering the keys, words and exercises, gradually introducing the use of the entire keyboard.

Bowen, *89th Street and Manistee Avenue;* **Crane,** *Oakley Avenue and Vanburen Street;* **Burr,** *Ashland and Wabansia Avenues;* **Englewood,** *Stewart Avenue and 62d Street;* **Foster,** *Union and O'Brien Streets;* **Goethe,** *Rockwell Street between Fullerton and Milwaukee Avenues;* **Lake,** *47th Place and Union Avenue;* **Lane,** *Division and Sedgwick Streets;* **McAllister,** *36th and Gage Streets;* **Medill,** *14th Place near Throop Street;* **Phillips,** *39th Street and Prairie Avenue;* **Pullman,** *Morse Avenue and 113th Street;*

Scammon, *Morgan and Monroe Streets;* Tuley, *Potomac and N. Claremont Avenues;* Waller, *Orchard and Center Streets;* Washington, *Morgan Street and Grand Avenue.*

BOOKKEEPING.—In the elementary department a simple but thorough course is given. In the high school department a more advanced course is given, including the handling of a complete set of books of entry and business forms of all kinds, and the carrying on of actual transactions in various departments of business.

Bowen, *89th Street and Manistee Avenue;* Burley, *Barry Avenue near Ashland Avenue;* Burns, *25th Street and Wabansia Avenue;* Burr, *Ashland and Wabansia Avenues;* Crane, *Oakley Avenue and Vanburen Street;* Englewood, *62d Street and Stewart Avenue;* Foster, *Union and O'Brien Streets;* Garfield, *Johnson Street and 14th Place;* Goethe, *Rockwell Street between Fullerton and Milwaukee Avenues;* Hamline, *48th and Bishop Streets;* Hammond, *21st Place near California Avenue;* Harrison, *23d Place near Wentworth Avenue;* Jackson, *Sholto and Better Streets;* Lake, *47th Place and Union Avenue;* Lane, *Division and Sedgwick Streets;* McAllister, *36th and Gage Streets;* Medill, *14th Place near Throop Street;* Phillips, *39th Street and Prairie Avenue;* Pullman, *Morse Avenue and 113th Street;* Scammon, *Morgan and Monroe Streets;* Tuley, *Potomac and N. Claremont Avenues;* Waller, *Orchard and Center Streets;* Washington, *Morgan Street and Grand Avenue.*

LEWIS INSTITUTE EVENING CLASSES

Sewing and millinery.—Cutting and making plain garments, shirt-waists, thin gowns and dressing jackets; practical millinery.

Course.—Three terms, Tuesday and Thursday, 7:00 to 9:00.
Tuition.—Term of ten weeks, $5.

TRADE CLASSES IN SETTLEMENTS

Chicago Commons

Shirt-waist class. Tuesday evening, 7:30.

Eli Bates House

Sewing; practical work. Three evenings a week.

Emerson House

Trade dressmaking. One evening a week.

Henry Booth House

Sewing; practical. Thursday afternoons. Girls eight to fourteen.
Embroidery class.

Hull-House

Dressmaking for beginners. Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, 7:30 P. M. Wednesday, 2:30 to 4:30 P. M.
$1 ten lessons.

Graded dressmaking, shop:
Beginning classes. Monday, 1:30 to 4 and 7 to 9 P. M.
Intermediate classes. Thursday, 1:30 to 4 and 7 to 9 P. M.
Advanced classes. Friday, 1:30 to 4 and 7 to 9 P. M.
$2 ten lessons.

Plain sewing, shop. Wednesday, 1:30 to 4 and 7 to 9 P. M.
Millinery. Thursday, 7:30 P. M.

Neighborhood House

Sewing and dressmaking. Saturday, 9:30 to 11:30 A. M. Girls nine to sixteen. This class gives practical training in hand sewing only. Each girl is required to make a dress entirely by hand before she receives a diploma. After four or five years' training girls are prepared to enter dressmaking establishments and high-grade tailor-shops.

Northwestern Settlement

Sewing. Wednesday, 7:30 P. M. Girls over fourteen.
Dressmaking. Monday and Wednesday, 7:30 P. M.
Millinery. Monday, 7:30 P. M.

University of Chicago Settlement

Dressmaking. Monday afternoon.
Shirt-waist making. Monday afternoon.
Weaving and basketry. Monday afternoon.
Millinery. Thursday.

Other settlements have numerous classes in sewing but they cannot be called trade classes.

DRESSMAKING SCHOOLS

Fashion School of Dressmaking, *4715 Lake Avenue.*

A general course in cutting, fitting and sewing; training girls for tailor shops. Classes meet three days a week from 9 A. M. to 1 P. M. Tuition $1 for a four-hour lesson; 20 lessons in a course.

Valentine Dresscutting School, *116 N. State Street.*

Instruction given in designing, cutting and sewing. Tuition, 22 lessons, $8.

McDowell's Dressmaking School, *209 S. State Street.*

Course offered in dresscutting, dressmaking and ladies tailoring. Tuition, $20.

The School of Domestic Arts and Science, *177 N. State Street.*

Courses offered in plain sewing and dressmaking for home use, including draughting, cutting and fitting, making fancy waists and dresses. Terms of 20 lessons, $7.50 and upward.

MILLINERY SCHOOLS

The School of Domestic Arts and Science, *177 N. State Street.*

Courses in home and trade millinery. Terms of 20 lessons, $12.

Madam Hunt's Millinery School, *159 N. State Street.*

Practical course in millinery. Term six to eight weeks. Tuition $25.

Patterson School of Millinery Design, *81 E. Madison Street.*

Technical courses in designing, making and trimming hats. Tuition, ten weeks' course, $40; eight weeks' course, $25.

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