

Chapter 1 : Hours of Work in U.S. History

The late 19th-century United States is probably best known for the vast expansion of its industrial plant and output. At the heart of these huge increases was the mass production of goods by machines. This process was first introduced and perfected by British textile manufacturers. In the century.

Only a small minority of people worked in industry. Most of the Celts, who lived in Britain from BC onward were farmers although there were also many skilled craftsmen. Some Celts were blacksmiths working with iron, bronze smiths, carpenters, leather workers and potters. The potter's wheel was introduced into Britain c. Celtic craftsmen also made elaborate jewelry of gold and precious stones. Furthermore objects like swords and shields were often finely decorated. The Celts decorated metal goods with enamel. The Celts also knew how to make glass and they made glass beads. Roman Britain was also an agricultural society where most men made their living from farming although there were many craftsmen. Anglo-Saxon England was a very different place from what it is today. It was covered by forest. Wolves prowled in them and they were a danger to domestic animals. The human population was very small. There were perhaps one million people in England at that time. Almost all of them lived in tiny villages - many had less than 10 inhabitants. Each village was mainly self-sufficient. The people needed only a few things from outside like salt and iron. They grew their own food and made their own clothes. On a Saxon farm up to 8 oxen pulled plows and fields were divided into 2 or sometimes 3 huge strips. One strip was plowed and sown with crops while the other was left fallow. The Saxons grew crops of wheat, barley and rye. They also grew peas, cabbages, parsnips, carrots and celery. They also ate fruit such as apples, blackberries, raspberries and sloes. They raised herds of goats, cattle and pigs and flocks of sheep. However Saxon farming was very primitive. Farmers could not grow enough food to keep many of their animals through the winter so as winter approached most of them had to be slaughtered and the meat salted. The Saxons were subsistence farmers. Farmers grew enough to feed themselves and their families and very little else. At times during the Saxon era there were terrible famines in England when poor people starved to death. Some Saxons were craftsmen. There were blacksmiths, bronze smiths and potters. At first Saxon potters made vessels by hand but in the 7th century the potter's wheel was introduced. Other craftsmen made things like combs from bone and antler or horn. There were also many leather workers and Saxon craftsmen also made elaborate jewelry for the rich. In the Middle Ages the land was divided into 3 huge fields. Each year 2 were sown with crops while one was left fallow unused to allow it to recover. Each peasant had some strips of land in each field. Most peasants owned only one ox so they had to join with other families to obtain the team of oxen needed to pull a plow. After plowing the land was sown. Men sowed grain and women planted peas and beans. Most peasants also owned a few cows, goats and sheep. Cows and goats gave milk and cheese. Most peasants also kept chickens for eggs. They also kept pigs. Peasants were allowed to graze their livestock on common land. In the autumn they let their pigs roam in the woods to eat acorns and beechnuts. However they did not have enough food to keep many animals through the winter. Most of the livestock was slaughtered in autumn and the meat was salted to preserve it. A history of farming However life was not all hard work. People were allowed to rest on Holy days from which we get our word holiday. In Medieval towns there were many craftsmen such as glovers, tailors, fletchers, barber-surgeons, tanners, needle makers, turners who made bowls, skinner, butchers, bakers and brewers. Often craftsmen of one kind lived and worked in the same street. In the Middle Ages it was not unusual for middle class women to run their own businesses. In England the mystic Margery Kempe ran a brewery and later a horse mill, using horses to grind corn. Life in the Middle Ages After industry gradually grew but most people continued to live by farming. Even children who did not go to school were expected to work. They helped their parents by doing tasks such as scaring birds when seeds were sown They also helped to weave wool and did other household tasks. Work in the 19th Century During the 19th century the factory system gradually replaced the system of people working in their own homes or in small workshops. In England the textile industry was the first to be transformed. In the early 19th century the textile industry boomed. However when children worked in textile factories they often worked for more than 12 hours a day. In the early 19th century parliament passed laws to

curtail child labor. However they all proved to be unenforceable. The first effective law was passed in 1802. It was effective because for the first time factory inspectors were appointed to make sure the law was being obeyed. The new law banned children under 9 from working in textile factories. It said that children aged 9 to 13 must not work for more than 12 hours a day or 48 hours a week. Children aged 13 to 18 must not work for more than 69 hours a week. Furthermore nobody under 18 was allowed to work at night from 8. Children aged 9 to 13 were to be given 2 hours education a day. In coal mines children as young as 5 worked underground. In a law banned women and boys under 10 from working underground. In a law banned all children under 8 from working. Then in a Factory Act said that women and children could only work 10 hours a day in textile factories. In the law was extended to all factories. A factory was defined as a place where more than 50 people were employed in a manufacturing process. An act of said women in any factories could not work more than 56 hours a week. In the 19th century boys were made to climb up chimneys to clean them. This practice was ended by law in 1875. In the 19th century many women worked as domestic servants. Many others worked at home finishing shirts or shoes. Some made boxes or lace at home. Married working class women often worked - they had to because many families were so poor they needed her earnings as well as her husbands. In the 1840s and 1850s skilled craftsmen formed national trade unions. In a group of them formed the TUC. However unskilled workers did not become organized until the late 1800s. Life in the 19th Century Work in the 20th Century In the years the economy was stable and unemployment was quite low. However during the 1890s there was mass unemployment. Then, in the early 1930s, the economy was struck by depression. By the start of unemployment among insured workers was 12%. However unemployment fell substantially in 1932, and By January it stood at 25%. However although a partial recovery took place in the mid and late 1930s there were semi-permanent depression areas in the North of England, Scotland and South Wales. On the other hand new industries such as car and aircraft making and electronics prospered in the Midlands and the South of England where unemployment was relatively low. The problems of depression and high unemployment were only really solved by the Second World War, which started industry booming again. Unemployment remained very low in the late 1940s and the 1950s and 1960s were a long period of prosperity. However this ended in the mids. However shortly afterwards a period of high inflation and high unemployment began. In the late 1970s unemployment stood at around 5%.

Women's occupations during the second half of the 19th and early 20th century included work in textiles and clothing factories and workshops as well as in coal and tin mines, working in commerce, and on farms.

I begin with a brief summary of the history of the emergence of the middle and working classes in America in the 19th century. I then turn to a discussion of how these cultural trends have in some cases intensified and in other cases fragmented and blurred during the 20th century. Before that time, there were what Blumin called "middling" folks: These "middling" folks were of modest means compared to the elite citizens of their day, their relatively low social status deriving not only from their limited income but also from the fact that they generally engaged in manual labor. By the middle of the 19th century, however, pressures of industrialization had begun, slowly, to dissolve this "middling" group. As firms grew larger and more complex, specializing different functions, local manufactories and home-based businesses were replaced by companies and corporations Porter, ; Trachtenberg, As firms grew in size and complexity, they began to separate manual laborers from "clerks" and other non-manual workers who handled paperwork and sales, among other duties. First, in small concerns, they simply worked in separate rooms. As cities became more spatially specialized, however, they increasingly worked in completely separate locations. Over time, this distinction between manual and non-manual labor became the key indicator of class 19th century class status. By the s, manual and non-manual workers increasingly inhabited "separate social world[s]" as cities became segregated by class Blumin, p. The increasing complexity of the world being created by industrialism was very confusing for an evolving middle class. Partly in response to the loss of this network of personal relationships, the middle class developed more objective standards and qualifications for particular jobs allowing people to act more autonomously. At the same time, the middle class created a range of associations, evolving new discursive processes within these organizations "to deal with their increasing size and impersonality" Mahoney, , p. These changes required the development of a broad new set of social practices and self-understandings to help members of the middle class successfully orient themselves in this new "impersonal" world. Increasingly, "one had to forge a self-reliant, confident, and independent sense of identity cut free from reliance on the approbation, support, or referencing of friends, for such contacts were short-lived and less reliable through time" Mahoney, , p. There was increasing criticism of nepotism and cronyism. Similar processes of industrialization also molded a new working class. At the beginning of the 19th century, an enormous class of wage laborers had been almost unthinkable. The conditions of industrial work, which by had captured "more than one third of the population" Trachtenberg, , p. Furthermore, in contrast with the clean offices of the non-manual class, working class labor "was often dirty, backbreaking, and frustrating" Trachtenberg, , p. Factory workers at the end of the 19th century increasingly worked under the "clock," laboring in settings ruled by "compulsion, force, and fear" Pollard cited in Braverman, , p. The uncertain existence of manual workers was made even more difficult by the fragility and unpredictability of the economy of the 19th century. The nation stumbled from depression to depression. In , for example, only one fifth of the population could find regular work Raybach, As has always been the case, those on the bottom suffered the most through these tumultuous times, as wages in real terms for manual workers fell see Raybach, Workers throughout the century responded to these challenges with expressions of solidarity, seeing to contest the predations of the industrial age. They fought in firms for wages and other concessions and in the political realm for favorable legislation. Despite some successes, however, labor mostly faced defeat. At times, an incipient working-class consciousness sometimes seemed to be emerging. But a sense of common cause did not ultimately coalesce in America. Despite these internal differences, class distinctions between workers and the more privileged classes became increasingly evident, especially in the burgeoning cities. In contrast with an emerging middle-class culture of domesticity, individualism, and restrained association, the working class necessarily depended upon very different forms of collective solidarity--of families, of communities, of trades, and more. Whereas the middle class increasingly lived in a world of acquaintances and strangers, then, workers depended on their embeddedness in long-term relationships, extended families, and closely knit communities for

survival. In fact, efforts to assert middle-class forms of individual and nuclear family autonomy were often seen as threatening to the survival workers as a collective and in the extended relational ties of working-class communities. For the working class, the most important shift, as Braverman noted, was probably the growth of a broad range of non-middle-class service jobs whose work embodied many characteristics of working-class labor but looked very different from manual labor in factories and elsewhere. Initially most visible as a vast increase in low-level office workers mostly women, a vast army of low-pay positions emerged in sales, food service, hospitals, janitorial services, and, more recently, call-centers Benson, ; Kanter, ; Leidner, ; Newman, In recent years there has been some effort around or at least rhetoric about providing opportunities for more individual discretion and encouraging more collaboration among nonmanagement workers. Nonetheless, this new focus on encouraging teamwork at all levels of a firm may also contribute to a progressive blurring of clear distinctions between middle- and working-class jobs and discursive practices. Although the experience of work among lower level employees has fragmented to some extent, evidence indicates that the importance of middle-class practices of teamwork for managers and professionals has only increased. For example, the strong local working-class communities that provided an important grounding for earlier working-class cultures have largely disappeared in many areas. This loss of community is especially evident in the impoverished, segregated areas of our cities. Despite these challenges, the social survival traditions of the working class still represent important potential resources for a broad range of impoverished groups in America. Ultimately, the poor and marginalized seem to have little choice but to cling to local relationships, however weak, as one of their few supports in a world where independence may be desired but is rarely realistically achievable Schutz, For managers and professionals, the growing fluidity of postmodern life and their progressive loss of connections to particular places and communities of people seem, for most, to have largely magnified cultural trends already visible at the end of the 19th century.

Chapter 3 : Class History - Education Action

WORKING CONDITIONS IN FACTORIES (ISSUE). During the late nineteenth century the U.S. economy underwent a spectacular increase in industrial growth. Abundant resources, an expanding labor force, government policy, and skilled entrepreneurs facilitated this shift to the large-scale production of manufactured goods.

By about two thirds of the population lived in towns. Furthermore in the majority of the population still worked in agriculture or related industries. Most goods were made by hand and very many craftsmen worked on their own with perhaps a laborer and an apprentice. By the late 19th century factories were common and most goods were made by machine. Unrest in the Early 19th Century The early 19th century was an era of political and social unrest in Britain. In the early 19th century a group of Evangelical Christians called the Clapham Sect were active in politics. They campaigned for an end to slavery and cruel sports. They gained their name because so many of them lived in Clapham. He was the only British prime minister ever to be assassinated. Bellingham was a lone madman but in there was a plot to kill the whole cabinet. Arthur Thistlewood led the Cato Street Conspiracy but the conspirators were arrested on 23 February Thistlewood and 4 of his companions were hanged. Meanwhile in textile workers in the Midlands and the north of England broke machines, fearing they would cause unemployment. The wreckers were called Luddites and if caught they were likely to be hanged. In March textile workers from Manchester tried to march to London to petition the Prince Regent. They were called blanketeers because many of them carried blankets. However even though the march was peaceful the blanketeers were stopped by soldiers at Stockport. Even though the crowd were unarmed and the peaceful the authorities sent in soldiers. As a result 11 people were killed and hundreds were wounded. In farm laborers in Kent and Sussex broke agricultural machinery fearing it would cause unemployment. The riots were called the Swing Riots because a man named Captain Swing supposedly, led them. As a result of the riots 4 men were hanged and 52 were transported to Australia. In 6 farm labourers in Tolpuddle, Dorset tried to form a trade union. However they were prosecuted for making illegal oaths. Not for forming a union, which was legal. They were sentenced to transportation to Australia. The case caused an outcry and they returned to Britain in Political Reform In a Tory government was formed which introduced some reforms. At that time you could be hanged for over offences. Although the sentence was often commuted to transportation. In the death penalty was abolished for more than crimes. Peel also formed the first modern police force in England in London in From to the Duke of Wellington was prime minister. He introduced the Catholic Emancipation Act Since the Reformation Catholics had been unable to become MPs or to hold public office. The Act restored those rights to them. However Wellington was strongly opposed to any change to the electoral system. At that time there were two types of constituency, country areas and towns or boroughs. In the countryside only the landowners could vote. In boroughs the franchise varied but was usually limited. However the constituencies had not been changed for centuries and they no longer reflected the distribution of the population. Industrial towns like Birmingham and Manchester did not have MPs of their own. On the other hand some settlements had died out but they were still represented in parliament! In the early 19th century there were increasing demands for reforms. However in the Whigs formed a government and they tried to introduced reform. The House of Commons eventually voted for a reform bill but the House of Lords rejected it. The King, William IV, warned that he would create more peers, who favored the bill unless the Lords agreed to accept it. It received the royal assent on 7 June The franchise was only extended slightly but much more importantly the new industrial towns were now represented in parliament. Before Britain was ruled by an oligarchy of landowners. After the urban middle class had an increasing say. However the working class were excluded from the reforms. From a working class protest movement called the Chartists was formed. The Chartists had several demands. They wanted all men to have the vote. Furthermore at that time you had to own a certain amount of property to become an MP. Chartists wanted the property qualification abolished. They also wanted MPs to be paid. Chartists also wanted all constituencies to be equal in size and they wanted voting to be by secret ballot. The first Chartist rally was held in Manchester in In the Chartists delivered a petition to parliament, which was rejected out of hand. Another petition delivered in was

also rejected. Finally in another great petition was sent to parliament but it turned into a farce. Some of the signatures were obvious fakes. Chartism then fizzled out. For one thing it lacked middle class support and had no support among MPs. For another in the late 1830s conditions for the working class in Britain were improving and discontent was declining. However further reform did eventually follow. In 1832 more men were given the vote and in the Ballot Act introduced voting by secret ballot. In 1832 still more men were given the vote. However not all men in Britain could vote until 1872. Meanwhile in the Municipal Corporations Act reformed town governments. A uniform system of town government was formed. That all changed in 1846. British landowners feared that cheap foreign grain would be imported so they passed the Corn Laws. However from a sliding scale was used. Import duties were gradually increased as the price of British grain fell. Prime Minister Peel finally abolished the corn laws in 1846. Robert Peel lived from 1788 to 1842. He was prime minister in 1834 and 1841. Meanwhile by the 1840s public opinion changed in favor of free trade. Most people believed that government should interfere in the economy as little as possible. They also believed that countries should trade without import duties. So in the early 1840s Peel abolished many tariffs. The Railways The first passenger railway opened in 1825 between Stockton and Darlington. In 1825 a line was opened between Manchester and Liverpool. William Huskisson MP for Liverpool was killed but nothing could stop the growth of the railways. By 1840 there were 5,000 miles of railways in Britain and the network continued to expand rapidly in the later 19th century. Railways provided a great boost to other industries such as iron. They also revolutionized transport. Journeys that would have taken days by stagecoach took hours by train. The Factory Acts The industrial revolution created an unprecedented demand for female and child labor. Children had always worked alongside their parents but before the 19th century they usually worked part time. In the new textile factories women and children were often made to work very long hours often 12 hours a day or even longer. The government was aware of the problem and in 1833 they passed an act that made it illegal for children under 9 to work in cotton mills. Another act was passed in 1844 but this time inspectors were appointed. Children under 9 were banned from working in textile mills. Children aged 9 to 13 were not allowed to work for more than 12 hours a day or a total of more than 48 hours a week. Children aged 13 to 18 must not work for more than 69 hours a week.

Chapter 4 : Women's Work in the 19th Century

The Conditions For Factory Workers In Nineteenth Century Britain In the nineteenth century some people thought that factories were the best thing that ever created in Great Britain, however, workers inside them thought differently.

Far from becoming a land of leisure, however, the abundant resources of British America and the ideology of its settlers, brought forth high levels of work. Rodgers argues that this work ethic spread and eventually reigned supreme in colonial America. The ethic was consistent with the American experience, since high returns to effort meant that hard work often yielded significant increases in wealth. In Virginia, authorities also transplanted the Statue of Artificers, which obliged all Englishmen except the gentry to engage in productive activity from sunrise to sunset. Likewise, a Massachusetts law demanded a minimum ten-hour workday, but it is unlikely that these laws had any impact on the behavior of most free workers. The Revolutionary War Period Roediger and Foner contend that the Revolutionary War era brought a series of changes that undermined support for sun-to-sun work. Simultaneously, the development of merchant capitalism meant that there were, for the first time, a significant number of wageworkers. The strike was unsuccessful. The Shorter Hours Movement Begins Changes in the organization of work, with the continued rise of merchant capitalists, the transition from the artisanal shop to the early factory, and an intensified work pace had become widespread by about 1800. These changes produced the first extensive, aggressive movement among workers for shorter hours, as the ten-hour movement blossomed in New York City, Philadelphia and Boston. Rallying around the ten-hour banner, workers formed the first city-central labor union in the U. Early Debates over Shorter Hours Although the length of the workday is largely an economic decision arrived at by the interaction of the supply and demand for labor, advocates of shorter hours and foes of shorter hours have often argued the issue on moral grounds. Detractors countered that workers would abuse leisure time especially in saloons and that long, dedicated hours of work were the path to success, which should not be blocked for the great number of ambitious workers. During the 1820s, an increased work pace, tighter supervision, and the addition of about fifteen minutes to the work day partly due to the introduction of artificial lighting during winter months, plus the growth of a core of more permanent industrial workers, fueled a campaign for a shorter workweek among mill workers in Lowell, Massachusetts, whose workweek averaged about 74 hours. This agitation was led by Sarah Bagley and the New England Female Labor Reform Association, which, beginning in 1825, petitioned the state legislature to intervene in the determination of hours. However, these laws also specified that a contract freely entered into by employee and employer could set any length for the workweek. Hence, these laws had little impact. Legislation passed by the federal government had a more direct, though limited effect. On March 31, 1868, President Martin Van Buren issued an executive order mandating a ten-hour day for all federal employees engaged in manual work. Grand Eight Hours Leagues As the length of the workweek gradually declined, political agitation for shorter hours seems to have waned for the next two decades. However, immediately after the Civil War reductions in the length of the workweek reemerged as an important issue for organized labor. The new goal was an eight-hour day. The leading proponent of this idea, Ira Steward, argued that decreasing the length of the workweek would raise the standard of living of workers by raising their desired consumption levels as their leisure expanded, and by ending unemployment. The hub of the newly launched movement was Boston and Grand Eight Hours Leagues sprang up around the country in 1840s and 1850s. The leaders of the movement called the meeting of the first national organization to unite workers of different trades, the National Labor Union, which met in Baltimore in 1869. The passage of the state laws did foment action by workers especially in Chicago where parades, a general strike, rioting and martial law ensued. In only a few places did work hours fall after the passage of these laws. Many become disillusioned with the idea of using the government to promote shorter hours and by the late 1850s, efforts to push for a universal eight-hour day had been put on the back burner. It covered only female workers and became fully effective by 1868. This legislation was fairly late by European standards. Britain had passed its first effective Factory Act, setting maximum hours for almost half of its very young textile workers, in 1833. Year of Dashed Hopes In the early 1850s organized labor in the U. Meanwhile, the Knights of Labor, which had begun as a secret fraternal society and evolved a labor union,

began to gain strength. It appears that many nonunionized workers, especially the unskilled, came to see in the Knights a chance to obtain a better deal from their employers, perhaps even to obtain the eight-hour day. The Knights mushroomed and its new membership demanded that their local leaders support them in attaining the eight-hour day. Powderly reasoned that low incomes forced workmen to accept long hours. Nelson points to divisions among workers, which probably had much to do with the failure in of the drive for the eight-hour day. Lack of will and organization among workers was undoubtedly important, but its collapse was aided by violence that marred strikes and political rallies in Chicago and Milwaukee. The public backlash and fear of revolution damned the eight-hour organizers along with the radicals and dampened the drive toward eight hours — although it is estimated that the strikes of May shortened the workweek for about , industrial workers, especially in New York City and Cincinnati. It held shorter hours as a high priority. The inside cover of its Proceedings carried two slogans in large type: In the aftermath of , the American Federation of Labor adopted a new strategy of selecting each year one industry in which it would attempt to win the eight-hour day, after laying solid plans, organizing, and building up a strike fund war chest by taxing nonstriking unions. The United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners was selected first and May 1, was set as a day of national strikes. It is estimated that nearly , workers gained the eight-hour day as a result of these strikes in . Instead, the length of the workweek continued to erode during this period, sometimes as the result of a successful local strike, more often as the result of broader economic forces. By , 26 percent of states had maximum hours laws covering women, children and, in some, adult men generally only those in hazardous industries. The percentage of states with maximum hours laws climbed to 58 percent in , 76 percent in , and 84 percent in . Steinberg calculates that the percent of employees covered climbed from 4 percent nationally in , to 7 percent in , and 12 percent in and . In addition, these laws became more restrictive with the average legal standard falling from a maximum of . According to her calculations, in about 16 percent of the workers covered by these laws were adult men, 49 percent were adult women and the rest were minors. Court Rulings The banner years for maximum hours legislation were right around . In the Court upheld a maximum eight-hour day for workmen in the hazardous industries of mining and smelting in Utah in *Holden vs. The defendant* showed that mortality rates in baking were only slightly above average, and lower than those for many unregulated occupations, arguing that this was special interest legislation, designed to favor unionized bakers. Several state courts, on the other hand, supported laws regulating the hours of men in only marginally hazardous work. By , in *Bunting vs. Oregon*, the Supreme Court seemingly overturned the logic of the *Lochner* decision, supporting a state law that required overtime payment for all men working long hours. The general presumption during this period was that the courts would allow regulation of labor concerning women and children, who were thought to be incapable of bargaining on an equal footing with employers and in special need of protection. Men were allowed freedom of contract unless it could be proven that regulating their hours served a higher good for the population at large. A new cadre of social scientists began to offer evidence that long hours produced health-threatening, productivity-reducing fatigue. In addition, data relating to hours and output among British and American war workers during World War I helped convince some that long hours could be counterproductive. Businessmen, however, frequently attacked the shorter hours movement as merely a ploy to raise wages, since workers were generally willing to work overtime at higher wage rates. The law set eight hours as the basic workday and required higher overtime pay for longer hours. These forces put workers in a strong bargaining position, which they used to obtain shorter work schedules. The move to shorter hours was also pushed by the federal government, which gave unprecedented support to unionization. At the end of the war everyone wondered if organized labor would maintain its newfound power and the crucial test case was the steel industry. Blast furnace workers generally put in hour workweeks. These abnormally long hours were the subject of much denunciation and a major issue in a strike that began in September . The move came after much arm-twisting by President Harding but its timing may be explained by immigration restrictions and the loss of immigrant workers who were willing to accept such long hours Shiells, *The Move to a Five-day Workweek* During the s agitation for shorter workdays largely disappeared, now that the workweek had fallen to about 50 hours. However, pressure arose to grant half-holidays on Saturday or Saturday off — especially in industries whose workers were predominantly Jewish. By at least large establishments had adopted the

five-day week, while only 32 had it by Even the reformist American Labor Legislation Review greeted the call for a five-day workweek with lukewarm interest. Changing Attitudes in the s Hunnicutt argues that during the s businessmen and economists began to see shorter hours as a threat to future economic growth. It replaced the goal of leisure time with a list of things to buy and business began to persuade workers that more work brought more tangible rewards. Many workers began to oppose further decreases in the length of the workweek. Hunnicutt concludes that a new work ethic arose as Americans threw off the psychology of scarcity for one of abundance. By about half of American employers had shortened hours. Amid these developments, the AFL called for a federally-mandated thirty-hour workweek. The bill was sponsored in the House by William Connery. Roosevelt originally supported the Black-Connery proposals, but soon backed off, uneasy with a provision forbidding importation of goods produced by workers whose weeks were longer than thirty hours, and convinced by arguments of business that trying to legislate fewer hours might have disastrous results. Hunnicutt argues that an implicit deal was struck in the NIRA. Business, with the threat of thirty hours hanging over its head, fell raggedly into line. Despite a plan by NRA Administrator Hugh Johnson to make blanket provisions for a thirty-five hour workweek in all industry codes, by late August , the momentum toward the thirty-hour week had dissipated. About half of employees covered by NRA codes had their hours set at forty per week and nearly 40 percent had workweeks longer than forty hours. Federal Overtime Law Hunnicutt argues that the entire New Deal can be seen as an attempt to keep shorter-hours advocates at bay. After the Supreme Court struck down the NRA, Roosevelt responded to continued demands for thirty hours with the Works Progress Administration, the Wagner Act, Social Security, and, finally, the Fair Labor Standards Acts, which set a federal minimum wage and decreed that overtime beyond forty hours per week would be paid at one-and-a-half times the base rate in covered industries. With the postwar return of weekly work hours to the forty-hour level the shorter hours movement effectively ended. Over the course of the next decade, however, the tide turned. By most departments had opted to switch to 8-hour shifts, so that only about one-quarter of the work force, mostly women, retained a six-hour shift. Finally, in , the last department voted to adopt an 8-hour workday. Workers, especially male workers, began to favor additional money more than the extra two hours per day of free time. In interviews they explained that they needed the extra money to buy a wide range of consumer items and to keep up with the neighbors. Several men told about the friction that resulted when men spent too much time around the house: In addition, the rise of quasi-fixed employment costs such as health insurance induced management to push workers toward a longer workday. Some Americans complain about a lack of free time but the vast majority seem content with an average workweek of roughly forty hours – channeling almost all of their growing wages into higher incomes rather than increased leisure time. Causes of the Decline in the Length of the Workweek Supply, Demand and Hours of Work The length of the workweek, like other labor market outcomes, is determined by the interaction of the supply and demand for labor. Employers are torn by conflicting pressures. Holding everything else constant, they would like employees to work long hours because this means that they can utilize their equipment more fully and offset any fixed costs from hiring each worker such as the cost of health insurance – common today, but not a consideration a century ago. On the other hand, longer hours can bring reduced productivity due to worker fatigue and can bring worker demands for higher hourly wages to compensate for putting in long hours.

Chapter 5 : 19th and early 20th century | Striking Women

This collection of documents gives a picture of the life of the workingman in the nineteenth century—his conditions of work, his housing, diet, health, and recreations, the way he viewed his problems (and was viewed as a problem by the upper classes), and his gradually developing interest in unionism.

These values are still encouraged by most media print, television, etc. Sexuality Most doctors of the period believed that "true" women felt little or no sexual desire, and that only abnormal or "pathological" women felt strong sexual desire. Marriage was seen as the only proper locale for moderate sex. Same sex sexual relationships or frequent sex were seen as being unnatural and evil. William Acton who wrote in the 1850s that the "majority of women happily for them are not very much troubled with sexual feelings of any kind. No nervous or feeble young man need, therefore, be deterred from marriage by an exaggerated notion of the duties required from him. The married woman has no wish to be treated on the footing of a mistress. Women were not supposed to have any real sexual contact before their marriage, especially if they were from the upper and middle-classes. Consequently, most women of these classes learned about sex from their husbands on their wedding nights. Additionally, the death rate for a woman delivering a child was 1 in 10. So sex for women could be psychologically traumatic. The sexual double standard still exists; men would have pre-marital sex with servants or prostitutes. Homosexuality, in England, was punishable by death from until 1861, when a new law made it punishable by up to two years in prison. Fashion Fashion evolves to complement this view of sexuality and control. Women began to wear long skirts with layers of petticoats and then crinolines, which made it both difficult for woman to dress and undress by herself and time consuming. Fainting as a reaction to excitement or an "improper" situation is acceptable and frequent, as it denotes that a woman is truly a lady. Employment Lower-class women could be servants, domestic help, factory workers, prostitutes, etc. Middle- and upper-class women could help, in some cases, with a family business, but generally, the economy and the society dictated that women should work in the home, taking care of home and hearth. They could be educated and could study, as long as it did not interfere with their housework. Any serious or passionate study of any subject was seen as harmful to the family, unless that serious and passionate study dealt with a social or religious issue, or to the woman, herself. Physicians believed that if a woman became too scholarly, her uterus would become dysfunctional, possibly leading to madness. Even when women wrote and were popular, they were not well-received by the critical literary establishment. Nathaniel Hawthorne bemoaned the mass "of scribbling women" whose works the popular culture preferred to his "serious" and "literary" works.

Chapter 6 : A History of Work

Growing differentiation in the 19th century between men's and women's spheres of activity ironically gave women more power and influence in religious, social, and cultural matters, because these things were part of their sphere.

During the winter months inmates were allowed to rise an hour later and did not start work until 8: Some workhouses operated not as places of employment, but as houses of correction, a role similar to that trialled by Buckinghamshire magistrate Matthew Marryott. Between and he experimented with using the workhouse as a test of poverty rather than a source of profit, leading to the establishment of a large number of workhouses for that purpose. Known as Home Children , the Philanthropic Farm school alone sent more than boys to the colonies between and , many of them taken from workhouses. In Maria Rye and Annie Macpherson , "two spinster ladies of strong resolve", began taking groups of orphans and children from workhouses to Canada, most of whom were taken in by farming families in Ontario. The Canadian government paid a small fee to the ladies for each child delivered, but most of the cost was met by charities or the Poor Law Unions. They might alternatively be required to chop firewood, clean the wards, or carry out other domestic tasks. Although slow to take off, when workhouses discovered that the goods being produced were saleable and could make the enterprise self-financing, the scheme gradually spread across the country, and by there were more than branches. Issues such as training staff to serve and weigh portions were well understood. They were laid out on a weekly rotation, the various meals selected on a daily basis, from a list of foodstuffs. For instance, a breakfast of bread and gruel was followed by dinner, which might consist of cooked meats, pickled pork or bacon with vegetables, potatoes, yeast dumpling , soup and suet , or rice pudding. Supper was normally bread, cheese and broth , and sometimes butter or potatoes. The master and matron, for instance, received six times the amount of food given to a pauper. Poorly paid, without any formal training, and facing large classes of unruly children with little or no interest in their lessons, few stayed in the job for more than a few months. At St Martin in the Fields , children were trained in spinning flax , picking hair and carding wool, before being placed as apprentices. Some parishes advertised for apprenticeships, and were willing to pay any employer prepared to offer them. Such agreements were preferable to supporting children in the workhouse: Supporting an apprenticed child was also considerably cheaper than the workhouse or outdoor relief. Historian Arthur Redford suggests that the poor may have once shunned factories as "an insidious sort of workhouse". Religious services were generally held in the dining hall, as few early workhouses had a separate chapel. But in some parts of the country, notably Cornwall and northern England , [69] there were more dissenters than members of the established church; as section 19 of the Poor Law specifically forbade any regulation forcing an inmate to attend church services "in a Mode contrary to [their] Religious Principles", [70] the commissioners were reluctantly forced to allow non-Anglicans to leave the workhouse on Sundays to attend services elsewhere, so long as they were able to provide a certificate of attendance signed by the officiating minister on their return. But although almost all restrictions on Catholics in England and Ireland were removed by the Roman Catholic Relief Act , a great deal of anti-Catholic feeling remained. Girls were punished in the same way as adults, but boys under the age of 14 could be beaten with "a rod or other instrument, such as may have been approved of by the Guardians". The persistently refractory, or anyone bringing "spirituous or fermented liquor" into the workhouse, could be taken before a Justice of the Peace and even jailed. It now houses a museum. Simon Fowler has commented that "it is clear that this [the awarding of contracts] involved much petty corruption, and it was indeed endemic throughout the Poor Law system". At their head was the governor or master, who was appointed by the board of guardians. His duties were laid out in a series of orders issued by the Poor Law Commissioners. As well as the overall administration of the workhouse, masters were required to discipline the paupers as necessary and to visit each ward twice daily, at 11 am and 9 pm. Female inmates and children under seven were the responsibility of the matron, as was the general housekeeping. To add to their difficulties, in most unions they were obliged to pay out of their own pockets for any drugs, dressings or other medical supplies needed to treat their patients. A second major wave of workhouse construction began in the mids, the result of a damning report by the Poor Law inspectors on the

conditions found in infirmaries in London and the provinces. Of one workhouse in Southwark, London, an inspector observed bluntly that "The workhouse does not meet the requirements of medical science, nor am I able to suggest any arrangements which would in the least enable it to do so". About new workhouses were built mainly in London, Lancashire and Yorkshire between 1830 and 1840, in architectural styles that began to adopt Italianate or Elizabethan features, to better fit into their surroundings and present a less intimidating face. One surviving example is the gateway at Ripon, designed somewhat in the style of a medieval almshouse. A major feature of this new generation of buildings is the long corridors with separate wards leading off for men, women and children. It was provided free in the workhouse but had to be paid for by the "merely poor"; [23] free primary education for all children was not provided in the UK until 1870. The Diseases Prevention Act of 1854 allowed workhouse infirmaries to offer treatment to non-paupers as well as inmates, and by the beginning of the 20th century some infirmaries were even able to operate as private hospitals. The "deterrent" workhouses were in future to be reserved for "incorrigibles such as drunkards, idlers and tramps". There is grinding want among the honest poor; there is starvation, squalor, misery beyond description, children lack food and mothers work their eyes dim and their bodies to emaciation in the vain attempt to find the bare necessities of life, but the Poor Law authorities have no record of these struggles. Writing in 1845 Patrick Colquhoun commented that: "However this group hardly existed outside the imagination of a generation of political economists". To do this they treated the poor with incredible savagery. A Scene in the Westminster Union workhouse, 1845, by Sir Hubert von Herkomer. The "dramatic possibilities" of the workhouse provided the inspiration for several artists including Charles West Cope, whose Board Day Application for Bread, depicting a young widow pleading for bread for her four children, was painted following his visit to a meeting of the Staines Board of Guardians. In an early version of this account had already been published as an essay The Spike in an issue of The New Adelphi.

Chapter 7 : "Nineteenth Century French Working Women: Love, Marriage & Children" by Kelly Grear

Gender roles in the 19th century As the 19th century progressed men increasingly commuted to their place of work - the factory, shop or office. and working.

Bring fact-checked results to the top of your browser search. Revolution and the growth of industrial society, 1848-1914 Developments in 19th-century Europe are bounded by two great events. The French Revolution broke out in 1789, and its effects reverberated throughout much of Europe for many decades. World War I began in 1914. Its inception resulted from many trends in European society, culture, and diplomacy during the late 19th century. In between these boundaries—the one opening a new set of trends, the other bringing long-standing tensions to a head—much of modern Europe was defined. Europe during this year span was both united and deeply divided. A number of basic cultural trends, including new literary styles and the spread of science, ran through the entire continent. European states were increasingly locked in diplomatic interaction, culminating in continentwide alliance systems after 1871. At the same time, this was a century of growing nationalism, in which individual states jealously protected their identities and indeed established more rigorous border controls than ever before. Finally, the European continent was to an extent divided between two zones of differential development. Changes such as the Industrial Revolution and political liberalization spread first and fastest in western Europe—Britain, France, the Low Countries, Scandinavia, and, to an extent, Germany and Italy. Eastern and southern Europe, more rural at the outset of the period, changed more slowly and in somewhat different ways. Europe witnessed important common patterns and increasing interconnections, but these developments must be assessed in terms of nation-state divisions and, even more, of larger regional differences. Some trends, including the ongoing impact of the French Revolution, ran through virtually the entire 19th century. Other characteristics, however, had a shorter life span. Some historians prefer to divide 19th-century history into relatively small chunks. Thus, 1789-1848 is defined by the French Revolution and Napoleon; 1848-1871 forms a period of reaction and adjustment; 1871-1914 is dominated by a new round of revolution and the unifications of the German and Italian nations; and 1914-1918, an age of imperialism, is shaped by new kinds of political debate and the pressures that culminated in war. Overriding these important markers, however, a simpler division can also be useful. Between 1789 and 1848 Europe dealt with the forces of political revolution and the first impact of the Industrial Revolution. Between 1848 and 1914 a fuller industrial society emerged, including new forms of states and of diplomatic and military alignments. The mid-19th century, in either formulation, looms as a particularly important point of transition within the extended 19th century.

Chapter 8 : Women in the Nineteenth Century

In which John Green finally gets around to talking about some women's history. In the 19th Century, the United States was changing rapidly, as we noted in the recent Market Revolution and Reform.

It also funded the Women to the Top program in 1991 to bring more women into top management. Members are from all areas of business, education, politics and culture. Women who are born into the upper class rather than the middle or lower class have a much better chance at holding higher positions of power in the work force if they choose to enter it. Some examples of the ways in which gender affects a field include: Prohibitions or restrictions on members of a particular gender entering a field or studying a field; Discrimination within a field, including wage, management, and prestige hierarchies; Expectation that mothers, rather than fathers, should be the primary childcare providers. Note that these gender restrictions may not be universal in time and place, and that they operate to restrict both men and women. These barriers may also be manifested in hidden bias and by means of many microinequities. Many women face issues with sexual abuse while working in agriculture fields as well. Many of the women who work in these fields are undocumented and so supervisors or other male workers may take advantage of that. These women may suffer sexual abuse in order to keep their jobs and they cannot report the incident to the police because the fact that they are documented will be brought up and may be deported. A number of occupations became "professionalized" through the 19th and 20th centuries, gaining regulatory bodies, and passing laws or regulations requiring particular higher educational requirements. For instance, women were completely forbidden access to Cambridge University until 1869, and were encumbered with a variety of restrictions until when the university adopted an equal opportunity policy. Gender pay gap, Glass ceiling, and Sexual harassment The idea that men and women are naturally suited for different occupations is known as horizontal segregation. Specific to women, since employers believe that women are more likely to drop out of the labor force to have kids, or work part-time while they are raising kids, this tends to hurt their chances for job advancement. They are passed up for promotions because of the possibility that they may leave, and are in some cases placed in positions with little opportunity for upward mobility to begin with based on these same stereotypes. An Anthology, women are at a higher risk of financial disadvantage in modern day society than men. Statistical findings suggest that women are under paid for similar jobs men complete despite having the same qualifications. The statistical data collected by the U. Department of Labor suggests that women are discriminated against in the workforce based on gender. Anderson clearly demonstrates a significant difference between men and women in the workforce in regards to pay. Women are left more exposed to financial devastation and unemployment. The textbook also mentions that women are often give public positions versus private or leadership positions despite having appropriate work experience, higher education, or necessary skills to qualify. In other words, unmarried women who are the head of household are more vulnerable to financial disadvantage than married men or women. The unemployment rate of women compared to men suggests that single women are discriminated against based on gender. The statistical information illustrates the dramatic difference between men and women in regards to finances. It can be inferred that men are favored in the workforce over women. Women are discriminated against based on their gender and thus are more likely to struggle financially because of discriminatory employers. Actions and inactions of women themselves[edit] Through a process known as "employee clustering", employees tend to be grouped throughout the workplace both spatially and socially with those of a similar status job. Women are no exception and tend to be grouped with other women making comparable amounts of money. They compare wages with the women around them and believe their salaries are fair because they are average. Some women are content with their lack of wage equality with men in the same positions because they are unaware of just how vast the inequality is. Furthermore, women as a whole tend to be less assertive and confrontational. One of the factors contributing to the higher proportion of raises going to men is the simple fact that men tend to ask for raises more often than women, and are more aggressive when doing so. School-age boys and girls have been noted as enacting the same aggressive and passive characteristics, respectively, in educational settings

that we see in adults in the workplace. Boys are more likely to be pushed competitively in school, and sports, to be dominant. When a woman in this scenario re-enters the workforce, she may be offered a smaller salary or a lower position than she might have merited had she remained in the workforce alongside her colleagues both male and female who have not interrupted their careers. Gender inequality by social class[edit] Mechanic working on a motorcycle, United States. In the last 50 years there have been great changes toward gender equality in industrialised nations such as the United States of America. With the feminist movement of the s, women began to enter the workforce in great numbers. Women also had high labor market participation during World War II as so many male soldiers were away, women had to take up jobs to support their family and keep their local economy on track. Many of these women dropped right back out of the labor force when the men returned home from war to raise children born in the generation of the baby boomers. In the late s when women began entering the labor force in record numbers, they were entering in addition to all of the men, as opposed to substituting for men during the war. This dynamic shift from the one-earner household to the two-earner household dramatically changed the socioeconomic class system of industrialised nations in the post-war period. Effects on the middle and upper classes[edit] The addition of women into the workforce was one of the key factors that has increased social mobility over the last 50 years, although this has stalled in recent decades for both genders. Female children of the middle and upper classes had increased access to higher education, and thanks to job equality, were able to attain higher-paying and higher-prestige jobs than ever before. Due to the dramatic increase in availability of birth control , these high status women were able to delay marriage and child-bearing until they had completed their education and advanced their careers to their desired positions. In comparison with other sectors, IT organisations may be offering equal salaries to women and the density of women in technology companies may be relatively high but this does not necessarily ensure a level playing field. For example, Microsoft US was sued because of the conduct of one of its supervisors over e-mail. The supervisor allegedly made sexually offensive comments via e-mail, such as referring to himself as "president of the amateur gynecology club. E-harassment is not the sole form of harassment. In , Juno Online faced two separate suits from former employees who alleged that they were told that they would be fired if they broke off their ongoing relationships with senior executives. Pseudo Programs, a Manhattan-based Internet TV network, was sued in January after male employees referred to female employees as "bimbos" and forced them to look at sexually explicit material on the Internet. In India HR managers admit that women are discriminated against for senior Board positions and pregnant women are rarely given jobs but only in private. In addition to this, it has been suggested that there are fewer women in the IT sector due to existing stereotypes that depict the sector as male-orientated. In a recent book, Own It: The judgment equates a hostile work environment on the same plane as a direct request for sexual favors. The judgement mandates appropriate work conditions should be provided for work, leisure, health, and hygiene to further ensure that there is no hostile environment towards women at the workplace and no woman employee should have reasonable grounds to believe that she is disadvantaged in connection with her employment. This law thus squarely shifts the onus onto the employer to ensure employee safety but most mid-sized Indian service technology companies are yet to enact sexual harassment policies. When I point to the need for a sexual harassment policy, most tend to overlook or ignore it. Earlier the draft proposal was rejected by the company. The lax attitudes transgress the Supreme Court judgment wherein the Court not only defined sexual harassment, but also laid down a code of conduct for workplaces to prevent and punish it, "Employers or other responsible authorities in public or private sectors must comply with the following guidelines: Express prohibition of sexual harassment should be notified and circulated;private employers should include prohibition of sexual harassment in the standing orders under the Industrial Employment Standing Orders Act, The complaint committee should include an NGO or other organization that is familiar with the issue of sexual harassment. When the offense amounts to misconduct under service rules, appropriate disciplinary action should be initiated. When such conduct amounts to an offense under the Indian Penal Code, the employer shall initiate action by making a complaint with the appropriate authority. However, the survey by Sakshi revealed 58 per cent of women were not aware of the Supreme Court guidelines on the subject. A random survey by AssureConsulting. Surprisingly, certain HR managers were also ignorant of the Supreme

Court guidelines or the Draft Bill by the National Commission of Women against sexual harassment at the workplace. Not surprisingly many cases go unreported. However, given the complexities involved, company policy is the first step and cannot wish away the problem. Also the company will not tolerate any case that comes to its notice. But the man at home is no different from the person at the office," thus implying the social mindset that discriminates against women is responsible for the problem. Women would rather brush away the problem or leave jobs quietly rather than speak up, even in organizations that have a zero tolerance policy. Says Chandan, "I do not have exact statistics but from my experience as an advocate one in 1, cases are reported. The social stigma against the victim and the prolonged litigation process for justice thwarts most women from raising their voice. Purports K Chandan "It may take between three and five years to settle a case, and in a situation where the harassment is covert, evidence is hard to gather and there is no guarantee that the ruling would be in favour of the victim. In one of the rare cases I handled a Country Manager was accused and the plaintiff opted for an out of court settlement. They are more likely to bring home far less than their male counterparts with equal job status, and get far less help with housework from their husbands than the high-earning women. Women with low educational attainment entering the workforce in mass quantity lowered earnings for some men, as the women brought about a lot more job competition. The lowered relative earnings of the men and increase in birth control made marriage prospects harder for lower income women. Women who were now attaining high status jobs were attractive partners to men with high status jobs, so the high earners married the high earners and the low earners married the low earners. In other words, the rich got richer and the poor stayed the same, and have had increased difficulty competing in the economy. At 60 days or more, men and women were equal in terms of sick leave. The Family and Medical Leave Act of has allowed for workers to have up to 12 weeks a year to leave work.

Chapter 9 : Commitment to Privacy - Virginia Commonwealth University

In the last three decades of the nineteenth century, the industrial city in the United States was characterized by: A) a decrease in the number of people living in the slums. B) the poorest people living near the center of the city.

Abundant resources, an expanding labor force, government policy, and skilled entrepreneurs facilitated this shift to the large-scale production of manufactured goods. The expansion of manufacturing created a need for large numbers of factory workers. Although the average standard of living for workers increased steadily during the last decades of the nineteenth century, many workers struggled to make ends meet. Factory workers had to face long hours, poor working conditions, and job instability. During economic recessions many workers lost their jobs or faced sharp pay cuts. New employees found the discipline and regulation of factory work to be very different from other types of work. Work was often monotonous because workers performed one task over and over. It was also strictly regulated. Working hours were long averaging at least ten hours a day and six days a week for most workers, even longer for others. For men and women from agricultural backgrounds these new conditions proved challenging because farm work tended to be more flexible and offered a variety of work tasks. Factory work was also different for skilled artisans, who had once hand-crafted goods on their own schedule. Factory conditions were also poor and, in some cases, deplorable. Lack of effective government regulation led to unsafe and unhealthy work sites. In the late nineteenth century more industrial accidents occurred in the United States than in any other industrial country. Rarely did an employer offer payment if a worker was hurt or killed on the job. As industries consolidated at the turn of the century factories grew larger and more dangerous. By industrial accidents killed thirty-five thousand workers each year and maimed five hundred thousand others, and the numbers continued to rise. The general public became concerned with industrial accidents only when scores of workers were killed in a single widely reported incident, such as the many coal-mine explosions or the tragic Triangle Shirtwaist Company fire in In one year alone workers in steel and iron mills were killed in Pittsburgh , Pennsylvania. In order to save money many employers hired women and children to work in factories because these workers would work for lower wages than men. Some women were paid as little as six dollars per week, a sum much lower than a male would have received. Most female workers performed unskilled or semi-skilled machine work but some worked in industries that demanded heavy labor. Some women, for instance, worked on railroads, while others were employed as machinists. Children also worked long hours for low wages. The number of children employed in factories rose steadily over the last three decades of the nineteenth century. By roughly 1. Under pressure from the public many state legislatures passed child labor laws, which limited the hours children could work to ten hours per day, but employers often disregarded such laws. In southern cotton mills children who operated looms throughout the night had cold water thrown in their faces to keep them awake. Long working hours for children also meant that accidents were more likely to occur; like adult workers, many children were injured or killed on the job. Worker responses to poor factory conditions and low wages were varied. Some employees intentionally decreased their production rate or broke their machines, while others quit their jobs and sought work in other factories. Other workers resorted to a more organized means of protest by joining labor unions although most industrial workers were not union members. Most workers, having few alternatives, simply endured the hardship of factory work. In response to the problem of poor working conditions and the apparent indifference of industrial barons, membership in the American Federation of Labor AFL , a union for skilled workers formed in , grew rapidly from , members in to 1., in More radical and politically active trade unions often had even larger memberships, mostly because they were not as exclusionary as the AFL and because they welcomed unskilled labor, like those who worked in factories. One of the most radical, the Industrial Workers of the World IWW , founded in and popularly known as the Wobblies, recruited primarily among the unskilled immigrants but also competed with the AFL to attract skilled laborers. Less radical than the Wobblies and more successful at recruiting supporters were the socialists, who gained political strength because of the growing numbers of immigrants and disenfranchised unskilled laborers. Despite growing union activism the vast majority of workers remained unorganized

throughout the first decade of the twentieth century. Trying to prevent legislation to provide job security, guarantee a minimum wage, or ensure the safety of the workplace, most businessmen and conservatives argued that wages were set by the marketplace and that higher wages and worker protection would lead to higher prices for consumers. Government had long supported business using court injunctions and armed troops to put down strikes and break unions. In the 1890s, ruling that unions operated as "combinations in restraint of trade," the federal government used the Sherman Antitrust Act against unions more often than against businesses. Ironically, organized labor opposed minimum-wage laws for women because it preferred to win such measures through collective bargaining or strikes rather than through legislation. Businessmen wanted the plans to protect themselves against the large payments that courts sometimes awarded in injury cases. In a group of reformers established the National Child Labor Committee, an organization that dedicated to investigating the problem of child labor and lobbying state-by-state for legislation to end the abuse. It was, however, not effective because each state feared restrictive legislation could give other states a competitive advantage in recruiting industry. In a federal law against child labor, sponsored by Senator Alan Beveridge of Ohio, went down to defeat and three years later there were still an estimated two million children employed in factories. Only when the loopholes in state laws become apparent to reformers did they lobby for federal legislation, most of which did not come until the end of the 1890s. Its mandate was to examine "all matters pertaining to the welfare of children," which included child labor, and it was led by Julia C. Lathrop, the first woman to head a federal agency. Progress, however, was still slow. In 1906 senators Robert L. Owen and Edward Keating sponsored a bill that restricted child labor; the bill passed both houses of Congress with the strong support of President Woodrow Wilson. The law was based on a recommendation of the National Child Welfare Committee but it only prevented the interstate shipment of goods produced in factories by children under 14 and materials processed in mines by children under 16. In 1918 the Supreme Court declared this law unconstitutional because it was directed toward the regulation of working conditions not the control of interstate commerce. In 1938 Congress passed the Child Labor Act, which placed a tax on companies that used child labor, but the court again overturned the law. In 1941 there was an attempt to amend the Constitution to prohibit child labor but it never received approval from the required number of states.

Women in Modern America: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, *Industrialism and the American Worker*, "Work, Culture, and Society in Industrializing America. Women and the Law: University of New Mexico Press, *The Work Ethic in Industrial America*, "University of Chicago Press, Cite this article Pick a style below, and copy the text for your bibliography. Retrieved October 18, from Encyclopedia. Then, copy and paste the text into your bibliography or works cited list. Because each style has its own formatting nuances that evolve over time and not all information is available for every reference entry or article, Encyclopedia.