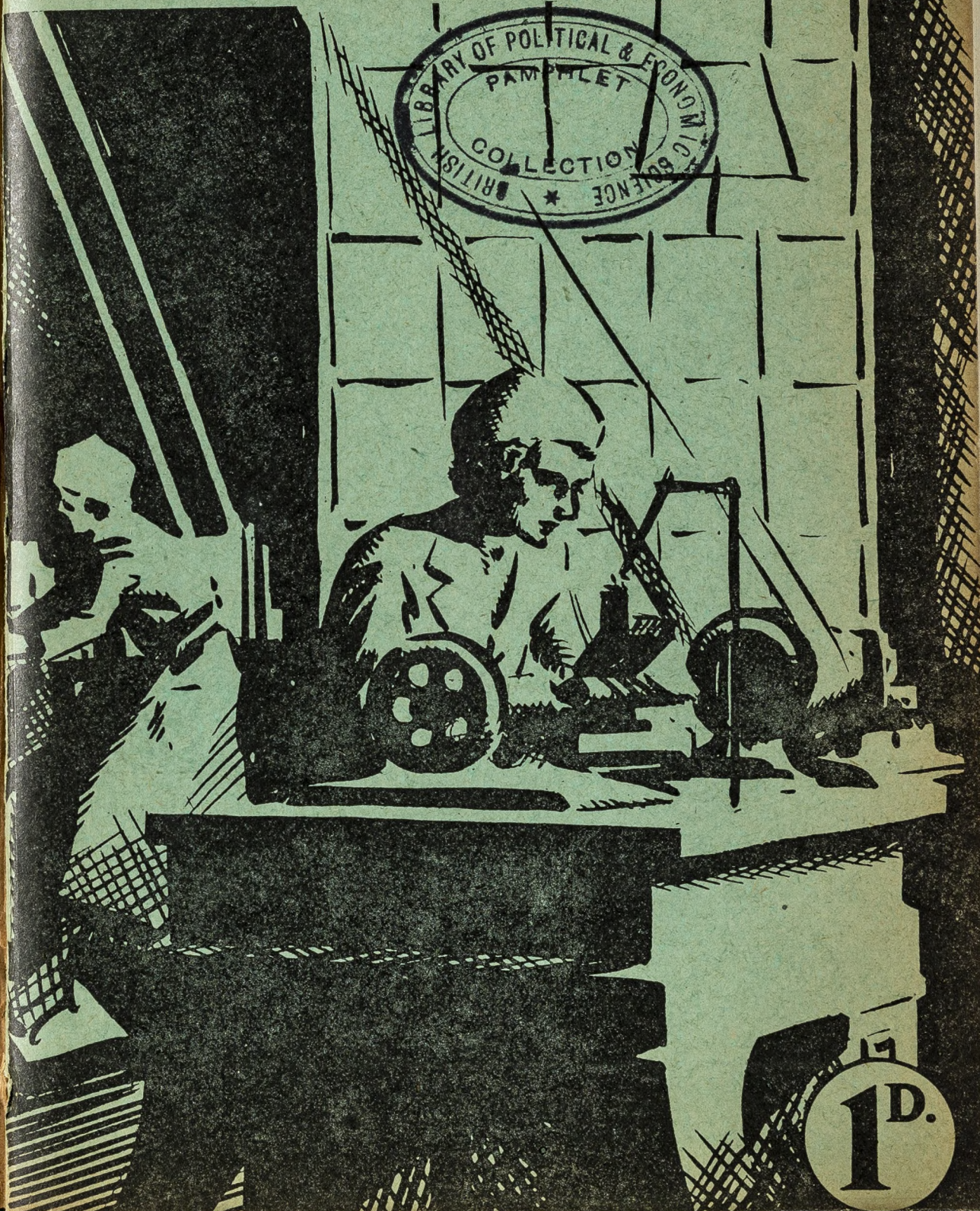


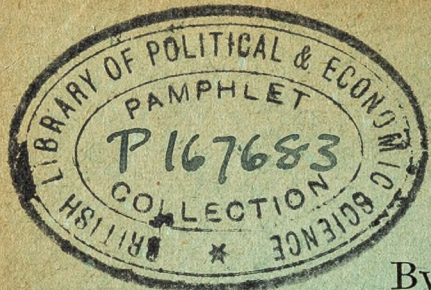
WOMEN IN INDUSTRY

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FOREWORD

By SIR WALTER CITRINE,
Secretary, Trades Union Congress General Council.

“**K**NOWLEDGE is the key to power.” For this reason I welcome the publication of this illuminating account of women in industry.

During the past year there has been an encouraging increase in Trade Union membership, particularly among women. But the unfortunate fact remains that a large number of women workers remain unorganised.

We must take our message that “unity is strength” into every workshop and factory and into offices and shops as well as into every home. The Trade Union side of the organised working-class movement confidently counts upon the active co-operation of the individual members of the Labour Party throughout the country.

Every member of the Labour Movement should regard himself or herself as a missionary whose duty it is not only to win converts for Socialism but also to ensure that the workers shall continue to improve their standards of life and the conditions of their employment.

To this end collective bargaining is essential, and the concessions which workers can win from their employers will depend in the ultimate resort upon their organised strength in terms of Trade Union membership.

We must educate, agitate, organise. The widest possible circulation of this pamphlet will aid us in our task.

This pamphlet was presented by the Standing Joint Committee of Industrial Women's Organisations, which is the Labour Party's Advisory Committee on Women's Questions, to the Sixteenth National Conference of Labour Women in May, 1935, and was endorsed by that Conference.

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY

I—PRE-WAR AND PRESENT-DAY NUMBERS

A survey of pre-war and present-day figures shows that in Great Britain at the 1911 census 5,423,944 women were gainfully employed; at the census of 1931 there were 6,265,100, an increase of 841,156.

Prior to 1914 few women were engaged in occupations formerly confined to men, but a change took place during the war period when there was an increase of one and a quarter million in the number of employed women. In many occupations these women replaced men, and a large number were married women who gave up industrial work when their menfolk were demobilised.

Trade Unions attempted to safeguard the men's position and secured agreements with Employers' Associations, or through the Treasury Agreement, for the reinstatement of men after the war. Although the Unions honoured the agreement, in fact many men never returned to work.

Women had established themselves and their number has increased steadily. The most reliable figures for the purpose of comparison appear to be for the period 1923 to 1934. The former year was immediately after the post-war slump, when drastic changes in methods of production and mechanisation were speeded up.

A very interesting and significant survey* has been published by the Ministry of Labour of changes in the last eleven years in the number of persons employed in the various industries, and the distribution of male and female labour in them. One fact which the survey reveals very clearly is that the industries in which employment has declined during the period 1923-1934 are industries in which the workers are predominantly male, while the expanding industries are those which give employment to growing

* The survey related to work covered by insurance and excluded persons working for public authorities and statutory companies, and servants, teachers, railway servants, agricultural workers, domestic servants, banking and insurance.

numbers of women. This does not necessarily mean that more women than men are finding opportunities of employment or—to put the point properly—that women are finding employment at the expense of men; but what it does show is that the new and expanding industries are providing employment more for women than for men.

From 1923 to 1934 the employment of women has expanded to a greater extent than the employment of men. Over the whole period of eleven years it is shown that the number of males in employment increased by 6·3 per cent. while the number of women and girls increased by nearly 18 per cent. Of the total number of insured workpeople, aged 16 to 64, in employment, the proportion of women and girls was 27·4 per cent. in 1923; 28·5 per cent. in 1929; 30·8 per cent. in 1932; and 29·4 per cent. in 1934. In actual numbers, 483,440 women and girls were taken into industry, and 455,430 males, during these eleven years.

The survey gives figures which show that in many trades less employment is being provided for men and more for women, particularly in the following groups of industries: light engineering, electrical apparatus, ready-to-wear garments, hosiery, silk, artificial silk, bread, biscuits and confectionery, cardboard box and chemical industries, musical instruments, explosives, oil, glue, wire, hand-tools, leather goods, wood boxes, railway carriage, and miscellaneous. In this group the number of males employed fell by more than 106,000—from 808,430 in 1923 to 702,240 in 1934; whereas the number of women employed increased by more than 30,000—from 286,180 in 1923 to 316,980 in 1934. And of this increase of women in employment, more than half was in the tailoring trades, in which the number of women and girls increased by practically 15,000.

A total increase numerically of 600,000 is shown in the distributive trades, 200,000 being women.

With the following exceptions women are employed to-day in every branch of industry or commerce—mining (underground), quarrying, boilermaking, heavy engineering, blacksmiths, foundry work, iron and steel, building trades, and blast furnaces.

The development of mechanisation and the use of the automatic machine in the new industries means not only the increase of employment of women, but also that in many

areas young boys and girls find it comparatively easy to obtain employment at 14, but almost impossible to retain employment on reaching the age of 18. Indeed, under Part I of the new Unemployment Insurance Act, 864,688 books have been issued to employed boys and girls under 16 years of age. Out of this total 480,455 are boys and 384,233 are girls.

Juvenile employment has a direct bearing on adult employment and unemployment—whether of men or women. It has been found, for example, that the risk of unemployment amongst young persons engaged in the distributive trades shows a marked increase as approach is made to adult years; the risk jumps fourfold three or four years from the time of leaving school. In other words, the services of young boys and girls are used for a few years after they leave school, but when the time comes for an advance to adult wages, they are dismissed, in many cases without any sort of proper training and with no prospect of a career, to make room for another generation of cheap youngsters straight from school.

II—WAGES AND HOURS OF WORK

There are three main methods of regulation of women's wages:—

- (1) Trade Boards.
- (2) Joint Industrial Councils.
- (3) Collective Bargaining: that is, direct negotiation between the Trade Unions and the Employers' Organisations.

There is a fourth group of women's industries in which wages are so far practically completely unregulated, so that the subject can be divided into four main headings:—

(1) Trade Boards

The minimum hourly time-rates for women in Trade Board trades vary from 5¼d. to 10¼d.; the great majority are 7d.

Most of the rates mentioned are time-rates based upon a 48-hour week. The majority of the girls and women employed in Trade Board trades are piece workers and invariably Boards fix slightly higher rates for workers employed on piece. All rates are on an hourly basis and workers are

paid only for actual hours worked. More than half the Boards have rates for "special classes"; for example, *Learners' rates* are based upon either age or experience, according to the nature of the trade; alternatively, learners can be employed as piece workers governed by the adult piece-rate price and receive wages only for the hours actually worked.

There are approximately 92,000 establishments on the Trade Boards list, and the number of inspectors at the disposal of the Boards is only 62. This fact is a reminder of the need for Trade Union organisation and for vigilance on the part of the Unions.

Over a period of years a great deal of criticism had been directed against the Boards, which culminated in an inquiry by the Trades Union Congress in 1930.

It will be seen at a glance that it is a practical impossibility for adequate inspection and enforcement to take place with the small number of inspectors at the disposal of the Boards; at a generous estimate only a small percentage of the establishments on the list can be visited in a year, and less than a quarter of the wages can be examined.

It is in relation to the possible effect of Trade Boards on Trade Union organisation that the most serious criticism is directed against the Boards. It is alleged that the Boards weaken Trade Union membership. Difficult though it is to form any exact estimate of the effects of Trade Boards on Trade Union organisation, the T.U.C. Committee were unable to dismiss the body of criticism directed against the Boards in this connection. Large numbers of workers argue that because their wages are protected by a Trade Board there is no need for Trade Union organisation, and many employers encourage this view. Whether these workers would appreciate the need for organisation were the Trade Boards withdrawn it is impossible to say; they would possibly find some other reason for not joining a Trade Union. *Experience over a lengthy period of years proves that without adequate Trade Union organisation evasions and infringements of the Acts take place.*

The T.U.C. Committee arrived at the conclusion, since endorsed by Congress, that for varying reasons existing Trade Boards must for the time being continue, and it was decided it would be well if the Unions concerned in each

Board met periodically to consider whether the circumstances of the trade warranted the continuation of the Board, or whether the workers' interests might be better served by the operation of normal Trade Union methods or some other form of negotiating machinery with or without legal enforcement of wages.

The Trade Union Movement is watching with interest the development of the negotiating machinery presently operating in the cotton industry, and it may be that other Unions in the course of time may welcome the extension of such machinery to sections of workers at present covered by Trade Boards.

Many Unions have agreements or other arrangements either individually or collectively with employers' associations for the payment of rates above the minimum: for example, laundry, ready-made and wholesale bespoke tailoring, and retail bespoke tailoring; and it cannot be too strongly emphasised that there is great scope for Trade Union activity in Trade Board trades in securing rates of pay higher than the minimum, payment for holidays, better control by the workers of speeding up processes and piece prices.

(2) Joint Industrial Councils

In a number of industries women's wages are regulated by Joint Industrial Councils, for example, cocoa and chocolate, sugar confectionery and jam, and municipal workers in non-trading services.

The minimum time-rates vary from 7d. per hour to 9½d. per hour; piece-rates are fixed so as to yield 25 per cent. above the time-rates.

Some Joint Industrial Councils have introduced a shorter working week. For instance, a forty-hour week has been established in the match industry, forty-four in some sugar confectionery firms, and in the municipal services the women cleaners and lavatory attendants have a week varying from forty-eight to thirty-four, or even less. This reduction of hours has in the main only taken place where the weekly pay has been maintained.

In addition to a reduction of hours, holidays with pay have been agreed in a good many cases, varying from two weeks with pay to one week, or Bank Holidays only.

(3) Trade Union Agreements

The main groups of such trades are engineering and allied industries, silk and artificial silk, biscuits, canteen workers, brewery workers, textiles, metallic capsules, drug and fine chemicals, and fancy leather.

In addition to these main groups, there are also cases where agreements are in operation in Trade Board trades, already referred to, whereby considerably higher rates are paid and payment for holidays secured.

The wages in the trades covered by agreements vary mainly according to the strength of Trade Union organisation. In the great engineering group the time-rate varies from 24s. to 28s. a week, piecework basis 25 per cent. above the time-rates, for a working week of forty-seven hours.

Silk rates vary from 29s. to 35s. ; artificial silk from 25s. to 32s., for forty-eight hours.

(4) Unorganised and Unregulated Trades

It is impossible to give an accurate picture of the wages and conditions of work in occupations which are not covered by Trade Boards, Industrial Councils or Trade Union agreements, and where the workers are not organised. These include bakelite, cellulose paint spraying, fancy leather goods, wireless, including battery service, gramophone, wire mattresses, vacuum cleaners, silk stockings (unregulated in the South), catering, toilet accessories.

In many of these trades wages are lower and hours worked are longer than in trades which are organised or where wages are regulated by Trade Boards or otherwise. In addition, there is no control of speeding up or of the various methods of payment by results which in organised and regulated trades can to a certain extent be controlled by agreement with the firm. There is also continual petty tyranny under which the dismissal and engagement of workers becomes a completely haphazard process.

Scandalous conditions exist in the catering trade which is almost entirely unorganised, and in the distributive trades which, outside the Co-operative Societies and a few private and multiple firms, are also unorganised. Information, for example, from the confectionery, drapery, grocery and boot and shoe trades shows that wages ranging from 7s. 6d. to 10s. per week are frequently paid. Distributive

workers over the age of 18 years are still entirely unprotected by any statutory limitation of working hours. The consequence is that, as with men, women employed in distribution are too often worked long hours with no payment whatsoever for overtime. Indeed, cases have been exposed where the total weekly hours worked have amounted to 80 and 90 per week and where Sunday labour is an accepted feature of the employment.

Promotion of Women

A point to be noted in any survey of the conditions of women's employment is the tendency to confine women almost entirely to routine work and to exclude them from posts of higher rank and responsibility, technical or professional, so that there are few prospects of promotion for the women who remain in industry. Experience among women who are promoted to certain of the higher-paid posts in various occupations often reveals that such women are even more exploited than their poorer wage-earning sisters, who more often are wise enough to be organised.

III—SOCIAL INSURANCE

National Health Insurance and Old Age Pensions

The main condition for National Health Insurance and Old Age Pensions is the same for men and women. Insurance is payable by employed persons between the ages of 16 and 65 in all occupations classified as manual, irrespective of earnings. In non-manual occupations a salary limit of £250 operates.

A contribution of 9d. is payable by insured men which is allocated as follows: N.H.I., 4½d.; O.A.P., 4½d. The women's contribution is 6d., which is allocated: N.H.I., 4d.; O.A.P., 2d.

From the inception of National Health Insurance in 1911, the liabilities arising from men's and women's claims have been assessed separately. The level of women's claims has been shown in actuarial reports to be higher than that of the men.

The system of separating the risks of men and women was carried a step further in the 1932 Act when a reduction was made in the benefits payable to married women on the grounds that their claims exceeded those of single men.

At the present time male contributors receive benefit at the rate of 15s. per week, on a contribution of 4½d.; single women receive 12s. per week on a contribution of 4d.; married women receive 10s. per week on a contribution of 4d. Disablement benefits show a similar differentiation.

This policy of differentiation between men's and women's sickness risks would be more readily understood if it could be shown that the risk among all sections of male workers are lower than the risks among all sections of female workers. In point of fact, the risks of certain groups of male workers exceed the risks of either single or married women, but these abnormal risks are accepted as a part of the general liability on the male side.

In considering the heavy claims of married women, it is impossible to ignore childbirth and the sickness and disablement which unfortunately must be associated with childbirth at the present time. Figures covering the whole subject are not available, but statistics collected by some of the cotton Unions immediately prior to the 1932 Act are sufficiently revealing. As the result of a test carried out among their married women members, it was shown that out of 5,724 weeks of incapacity, 3,625 weeks were due to childbirth.

The effect of separating men's and women's funds can be seen also in the additional benefits paid by the Approved Societies from their declared surpluses. On the last valuation, 88 per cent. of insured men benefited from surpluses, but only 38 per cent. of insured women were brought in.

On the Old Age Pension side, the contribution of 2d. per week, payable by the insured woman, effects an insurance only for her own old age. It is asserted that the contribution is assessed at a higher rate than is necessary to cover the benefits received in her own right, on the grounds that she should be prepared to contribute towards the benefits which she may receive as a future widow, mother of fatherless children or wife of an insured man.

Unemployment Insurance

Under the Unemployment Insurance scheme a contribution of 10d. is payable by men and 9d. per week by women. Benefits are payable as follows:—

Men, 17s. per week; women, 15s. per week. In addition dependants' benefit is payable in certain cases.

Payments are made into a common fund and there is no separation of risks, such as exists under Health Insurance. The Ministry of Labour gives the figures of insured unemployed persons at February, 1935, as follows: males, 19·8 per cent.; females, 9·7 per cent.

At no period since the establishment of Unemployment Insurance has the level of women's unemployment risen to the level of men's, and it is obvious that a system of assessing separately the risks of men and women, such as exists under Health Insurance, would, if applied to Unemployment Insurance, benefit women contributors. Differentiation between men and women does exist, however, under Unemployment Insurance in regard to the conditions under which benefit is payable.

No difference is made between the conditions applicable to men and single women, but there are now embodied in the Unemployment Insurance Act stringent conditions, formerly operated as Anomalies Regulations, which apply to married women only. A woman who has less than fifteen contributions since marriage or less than eight in the preceding benefit quarter must prove (a) that she is normally insured and normally seeking insurable work and (b) that in all the circumstances she has reasonable expectation of securing work. During 1934 alone, the claims of 36,867 married women have been disallowed under these conditions.

IV—INDUSTRIAL LEGISLATION

During the past hundred years there has been a considerable volume of industrial legislation designed to protect workers in regard to such matters as safety, health, and reasonable working conditions. In most of this legislation women and girls are protected in the same way as men and boys, but there have been certain special measures for the protection of women and girls.

The main Acts laying down standards for workers generally in regard to safety, health and welfare in factories are the Factory Acts which cover a wide range of safeguards against unhealthy and dangerous conditions, and prohibit overtime in excess of 55 hours in textile factories. The last Factory Act was passed in 1901, and there is

urgent need for an up-to-date measure. There have been a number of Shops Acts to regulate conditions in shops, but there is no restriction of working hours for shop workers beyond 18 years of age. The new Act, passed last year, regulated working hours for juveniles under 18. Besides these Acts there are numerous others which contain protective measures, even though it is not apparent in the title that they deal with industrial employment.

Special Legislation for Women

Special measures for the protection of women are included in the Factory Act of 1901, which prohibits the employment of women within four weeks from childbirth, and imposes restrictions on the number of hours which women may work in factories. The Shops Acts laid it down that seats should be provided for women shop assistants, but until last year's Act there was no provision that the seats should be *used*.

The Employment of Women, Children and Young Persons Act, 1920, gave effect to an international convention agreed to in 1919 prohibiting the night work of women and making provision for two-shift orders. An amendment to that convention was adopted last year to permit night work in the case of women holding responsible positions of management who are not ordinarily engaged in manual work, but it has not been ratified in Great Britain.

The Women and Young Persons (Employment in Lead Processes) Act prohibits the employment of women in processes using lead, and a Coal Mines Act prohibits the employment of women underground.

We believe that further protective legislation is necessary for both men and women workers and that in certain directions the additional protective legislation is necessary in the interests of women workers. It is impossible to ignore the differences in physique between men and women, when we are considering certain forms of employment, or to ignore the fact that the function of child-bearing falls entirely on women. Without special protective legislation, employers would have greater freedom, especially in unorganised industries, to exploit women workers, with damaging results to health sooner or later and particularly to maternal health.

V—WOMEN IN TRADE UNIONS

In 1914 there were 437,000 women in Trade Unions, and in 1933 the numbers were 737,000. During the war period women were encouraged by their men colleagues to join Trade Unions. The women learnt to appreciate the fact that non-unionists undermined the wage standards which had been established in many trades and to understand the value of collective bargaining.

Since the industrial depression in 1920 there has been a tendency among many classes of workers to think only of their job and not to bother about its conditions, and Trade Union membership generally has decreased. But it is imperative that we should endeavour to bring all employed workers, men, women or juveniles, into the ranks of the Trade Unions.

The first function of the Trade Union to-day is, as it has always been, collective bargaining in regard to wages and working conditions. Where organisation is good a trade union is able to secure agreements on wage rates and on hours and conditions of labour in the workshop or factory.

The work of a trade union is not confined to negotiating wage agreements. Very few people realise the enormous amount of day-to-day work which trade unions, through their branch officials and full-time organisers, are performing on behalf of their members. They deal with National Health Insurance and Unemployment Insurance; they appoint delegates to various Trade Boards in which they may be interested and discuss the policy to be pursued on matters that arise there; they take action in political matters that affect their members; they secure the representation of their members on Courts of Referees, &c.

The unorganised worker is always at a disadvantage as compared with the organised worker in protecting her interests. Without the knowledge of trade conditions and legal regulations such as can be obtained only from a trade union, she is always at the mercy of her employer in any legal action that may be necessary, for example, under Workmen's Compensation law. Many women workers, because they are not trade union members, must have been deprived of their rightful compensation in cases of accident arising in the factory or workshop. Legislation for the improvement of the conditions of industrial workers has been

obtained only through the pressure of the workers themselves, and the workers who are able to exert pressure on Parliaments and Governments are the *organised* workers.

VI—MARRIED WOMEN IN INDUSTRY

It is impossible to give exact figures as to the proportion of married women among the total number of insured women, but in the evidence submitted to the Royal Commission on Unemployment Insurance it was estimated that the proportion of married women was no more than 30 per cent. As this was an estimate made in a time of depressed trade and of unemployment among men, when there is always a tendency for married women to remain in or to enter into industry to a greater extent than in normal times, it may be taken that the percentage in normal times would be less than 30.

Many private firms make it a rule to dismiss women after marriage, and Municipal Authorities, with few exceptions, and the Civil Service operate this rule. In the higher paid ranks the rule is applied, but in some of the lower paid jobs a means test has been instituted; for example, a cleaner employed by an education authority, although already submitted to a means test when first employed, has, after several years, received notice of dismissal with the explanation that many are worse off than she is, who are at present on the waiting list. Yet her position has not altered since she was first employed. Another authority waives the rule when they cannot get sufficient labour from the single women and widows. Expediency rather than principle appears to dictate this policy.

When a man applies for a job under any of these authorities he is not asked "What is your income?" or "Are you married or single?" but "What are your qualifications?" This should be the employer's only concern.

It is sometimes argued that the only ambition of the average girl is to marry for a home and then leave industry. This may be true of some, but with the desire for a higher standard of living, amongst lower paid as well as skilled workers, women realise that they must take their share in the maintenance of the standard. Hence, we have what seems to be an increase of married women in employment, although the figure estimated at 30 per cent. does not, on

investigation, represent so great an increase as might at first appear. In this percentage are included the textile, laundry, hat and millinery and some other trades, in which married women have always been employed. Further, as we have already pointed out, part of the increase in women's employment is in new trades.

Married women are penalised in the Health Insurance and Unemployment Insurance Acts, and the suggestion is frequently made that the dismissal of married women from industry would relieve unemployment among men and unmarried women. It must be noted that criticism of married women's work does not as a rule extend to the large number of married women who work in their own homes, taking in boarders, making their own clothes, etc.

At a time when unemployment is severe the argument against the employment of married women may seem plausible, but if we look at the experience of Germany, where married women were first singled out for attack, we find that this was merely the prelude to an attack on the single woman, and statistics from Germany do not show either an increase in the employment of men or in their wage rates; in fact the reverse is shown.

The dismissal of the married woman would not necessarily mean the employment of a man or a single woman in her place. On the contrary, it would probably mean the employment of a machine and a child straight from school. In any case, the exclusion of married women as a class would not in the end reduce unemployment; it would merely shift its incidence. It would certainly lead to lower standards in many homes, and it would lower the industrial status of women workers generally.

Discrimination against married women or any other particular section of workers is no cure for the injustices of a profit-making economic order. We believe that the freedom to work should not be denied to a woman simply because she is married, and that fitness for the job should be the test in regard to the employment of the women, just as it is the test usually applied in the case of men.

VII—EQUAL PAY FOR EQUAL WORK

It is comparatively simple to claim equal pay for equal work where men and women are working on the same

jobs, especially in the professions, such as teaching, medicine, law, etc. In industry the suggestion is more complicated, because of the large increase in the employment of women that has taken place in the new industries, where new processes have been introduced and there are no comparative rates as between the sexes.

It is difficult to summarise the exact position, but it seems to be broadly true in industry that women working on jobs where they do not come into competition with men are paid substantially lower rates than where they do compete with men for similar jobs.

It is sometimes argued that it is not worth while training girls because they are likely to be in industry only for a short period and should, therefore, be kept to the lower-paid jobs. But with the increased mechanisation of industry this argument no longer holds good as most processes can be very quickly learned.

The main argument for different rates of pay between men and women has been that a man is regarded as having family responsibilities and a woman as having none. This of course, is not by any means true, but so long as it is normally the fact that the provision for his children falls on a man, there will be a tendency to pay what is regarded as a married man's wage to all men and a single woman's wage to all women.

Owing to modern development of industry, the problem is no longer simply a sex problem, but of how to get a fair rate fixed for the job, irrespective of who is working on it—man, woman or juvenile. In many occupations men's rates are so depressed that equal pay for equal work if applied in the old sense of the phrase would actually mean reductions for women.

VIII—WOMEN WORKERS IN OTHER COUNTRIES

The status of women workers of all grades in most industrial countries advanced during the war and in the early post-war period they showed little sign of losing their foothold. In endeavouring to make a comparison, even of the most general kind, it is necessary to remember that the Southern and Eastern European countries were less advanced in pre-war days than the Northern and Western countries.

Of the European countries the Scandinavian countries are the most advanced both in regard to the political and economic position of women, but these countries are not to any great extent industrial.

In the Fascist countries the position of women, particularly in Germany, has been put back a hundred years. In Italy, before the advent of Fascism, there had been very little movement towards the emancipation of women and the task of the Fascist Government has been to keep women down. In Germany, however, where the 1918 Constitution gave women political freedom and established the principle of equal pay for equal work, there has been a great advance in the economic position of women for fifteen years. The advent of the Nazi Government meant the complete degradation of women.

Marriage loans were promised as a means of removing women from industry, and extensive propaganda initiated with a view to confining women to child-bearing and the kitchen. Some of the most popular Nazi slogans are: "A woman's occupation is the recreation of the tired warrior"; "To every true German a job; to every loyal woman a good German husband"; "Woman's sphere should be Church, Children, Kitchen." These slogans, of course, have been accompanied by pressure on employers to dismiss women and replace them by men, but there seems to have been sufficient protest to cause the Government later to send a circular to the effect that "while men are preferable there is still a use for women in employment." Bitter suffering has been caused in homes which were dependent on the wages of women as a result of dismissals.

Prior to the advent of the Clerical-Fascist dictatorship in Austria in February, 1934, women had the right "to live and work on equality with men." Since then a decree has been issued forbidding a wife to hold an office in paid State or public service if her husband holds one. There has not been the same ruthless suppression of women's freedom that we have seen in Germany, but there is much bitterness among many women workers who have been deprived of their livelihood, and at the assumption of the present regime that woman is an inferior worker.

WOMEN MUST ORGANISE

From whatever angle we look at the position of women in industry there are two points which it is important to emphasise :—

- (1) Women have established themselves in the industrial life of this country. To say that they are "competing" with men is to imply that a man is more important as a human being than a woman and has a prior right in industry.
- (2) The protection of women's standards cannot be separated from the protection of wage standards generally and the only means of protection is a strong Trade Union Movement.

We, therefore, urge all sections of the Labour Movement constantly to use their influence to secure the better organisation of women workers in industry, and particularly of those young girls who are entering industry in such large numbers. We believe that many of the women represented at our Conference can give effective help in this work, not only in meetings and at the work-gate, but inside their homes, where they should try to make their daughters and other young women workers with whom they are in contact see clearly that both bread and self-respect depend on Trade Union organisation.

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY

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