CLOTHING AND STYLE

CHAPTER I

SOCIAL VALUE OF CLOTHING

Clothing. When we use the terms "clothing" and "wearing apparel" we mean the entire covering of the body. That is, clothing includes the head covering (hat), body covering, hand covering (gloves), foot covering (shoes), etc.

Dress means the adjustment or arrangement of clothing in an orderly and artistic manner. Clothing may be used to cover the body and for the sake of modesty and still fail to be arranged artistically. So we may say that clothing, in order to give the highest service, should be arranged as dress. Disraeli, the English statesman, said that dress does not make a man, but it often makes a successful one, showing that the artistic arrangement of clothing gives one a degree of confidence that contributes more or less to success. Style consists of changes in dress due to human desires. This subject will be discussed in Chapter IV.

Importance of Clothing. The subject of clothing and style is an important feature in the life of everyone. We all live in communities, large or small, having a spirit of friendship and coöperation. These communities are called society, and the needs of the members are called social wants. Since everyone uses clothing, the problem of supply is one of the great industries of human society, and therefore a social industry. The desire of everyone is to appear to advantage and make a good impression on others. This gives clothing and style distinct social value or importance.
Individual Responsibility. Everyone has two responsibilities: responsibility to himself and to the community in which he lives. The responsibilities in regard to clothing are various and important. For example, our individual responsibility requires us (1) to be as attractive and well-groomed as possible in order to appear to advantage and to win the respect of those with whom we live, (2) to form habits of efficiency in the selection and wearing of clothing, (3) to cultivate an appreciation of dress which will contribute to our enjoyment of well-dressed people, well-costumed plays, etc., and (4) to develop the ability to plan and construct our clothing artistically and economically.

Neatness and Order. Habits of neatness and order in the matter of clothes will contribute to making life simple and pleasant. Compare the conditions of different wardrobes, bureaus, and dressers of different people. Note the orderliness of some and the chaotic condition of others. The person whose wardrobe is not neatly arranged finds it difficult to select at a glance what is appropriate for the day, and often selects at random and feels uncomfortable during the day, because she has not chosen the proper wearing apparel, when in fact she possesses the proper clothes but failed to find them readily or neglected to keep them in condition for wearing.

It is a well-known fact that one person will often obtain twice as much wear as another from the same kind of costume or garment by (a) hanging the article on hangers or folding it and (b) wearing protective coverings when practical, such as apron, scarf, collar, cuffs, etc.

Responsibility to the Community. The responsibility one owes to the community in regard to wearing apparel involves: (1) interest in community needs, such as the clothing necessary for charitable institutions, hospitals, the poor, Red Cross activities, etc., (2) relation of consumer and producer, (3) conditions and efficiency of manufacturing plants, (4) types of workers, conditions, and efficiency, (5) trade organizations and unions, (6) the place of textile industry in the business world.
SOCIAL VALUE OF CLOTHING

When one considers the fact that everyone uses clothing and that several million people are, in addition, engaged in the manufacturing, buying, and selling of clothing, it is not surprising to find that the clothing of the human race is second among the great industries and necessities of human life.

Aim of Business. Originally each family made all the clothing for its particular needs. The implements were crude; the operators were slow. Only the nobility and the wealthy could secure the full amount of clothing. The poorer classes did not have sufficient to meet their needs even when clothing was handed down from one generation to another. Later, groups of people became highly trained in the manufacturing and selling of clothing, and devoted their whole time to this activity, which was called business. Thus we had people engaged full time in manufacturing cloth or costumes; others in buying clothing in large quantities and selling it in smaller quantities, etc. All of these people undertook business to render service to the community in order to "make money," or profit. Some business men, of course, gave better service and thus made more profit than others. Business men are interested in producing goods — i.e. clothing or services — which have value, that is, which meet a definite demand.

Production and Demand. When we purchase clothing or anything else we create a demand for that article. Even if the clothing or article is not worth while, we have created a demand for it. On the other hand, if we simply examine the article and pass it over without a purchase, the salespeople know that we are not interested. If many people did the same thing, the article of clothing would soon be removed and orders given to purchase no more because of lack of demand. The consumer can, therefore, actually dominate, if he wishes, the kind of clothing offered for sale. This indicates that consumers should be trained to appreciate good quality in articles of clothing, and thus be in a position to dictate not only the style but the quality of wearing apparel.
The mill that manufactures the cloth or the factory that manufactures the wearing apparel is called the producer, and the process is called production. The cloth is purchased in large quantities from the mill by selling agents, wholesalers, and sometimes retailers, from whom you purchase the cloth by the yard. The dry goods or cloak store buys a large number of costumes or suits from the manufacturer, and then you buy a single suit from the dry goods or cloak store, which is called one of the distributors of costumes. These processes or operations of transferring the article from the manufacturer to the one who buys it may be considered for brevity as distribution. The one who purchases the suit is called a consumer. The process of using, or (one might say) "robbing" the article of its usefulness, is called consumption.

**Dignity of the Worker.** The manufacture of clothing involves a tremendous amount of work and detail, and demands high standards of coöperation between the designers, manufacturers, and consumers, as well as high standards of production. The people employed are in a very important and artistic industry. They should work under proper hygienic conditions and receive a compensation that will afford more than a living wage, which will stimulate them to do their best work, and attract a highly skilled class to the industry. A fair wage means an annual wage sufficient for the worker to live, bring up a family economically, and have a thrift account. The legislatures of many states, like Massachusetts, have appointed a commission with power to establish a minimum wage for each class of workers. The consumer pays for the cost of manufacturing plus the cost of selling and a fair profit.

**Buyer and Seller.** For centuries there has been antagonism between the business man who sells cloth or clothing and the consumer who purchases the fabric or the wearing apparel. This is due to the narrow point of view of both. The business man wants a high price while the consumer wishes to purchase at a low price. That is, the business man would like to have the production or output of clothing restricted so that the price would be increased,
while the consumer would like the production or output increased so that there would be an excess and he would secure the article at a lower price. A broader and bigger conception of the relation between the buyer and seller should prevail. The business man must realize that he is not in business merely to earn a living for himself and his family — to make profits — but to satisfy human wants. He should realize that a larger volume of business will allow him to sell at a minimum price and that he will receive higher net returns than he did on the former scale. On the other hand, the consumer must realize that a business man is entitled to a fair profit — one which allows him to secure a living for himself and his family in a station of life that will make them contented; a profit above his wages of management, which will enable him to maintain his standard of living. If he is obliged to sell clothing at a loss then he must make up the difference in other merchandise or he will be discouraged and go into some other business. This condition applies especially to the clothing trades, where the risks are very great, due to the frequent changes of style.

Relations of Labor and Capital. Labor includes all forms of human effort directed toward producing or distributing the goods required by society. Wages is the amount paid for labor, as $8 per day. Salary is a form of wages and consists of a definite amount, as $50 per week, regardless of holidays, etc. Wages and salaries range from those paid the most unskilled workers to those of the highest directors of industry or business.

Wages of workers were originally set by the manufacturer, who paid as little as possible. As time went on the workers organized into unions, and a representative of the union met the manufacturers and agreed on a wage. This method of adjustment is called collective bargaining. If they were unable to agree, a strike was called and the workmen refused to go to work.

Sometimes the question of wages is left to arbitration by a committee composed of a representative from the union, one from the manufacturers, and a third party agreed upon.

Differences between the manufacturers and employees, particularly of the manufacturers of costumes, frequently arise which cause a “shut-down” of the plants for weeks. Of course these frequent shut-downs add to the cost of manufacturing because the
cost of the overhead remains the same as when the plant is busy. This added expense, of course, eventually is passed on to the consumer.

Despite the labor upheavals in the trade, which receive so much publicity from time to time, a more comprehensive and better understanding exists between workers and employers than formerly. This sometimes takes the form of profit-sharing for workers, the fundamentals of which have already been applied to other industries. A certain percentage of the profits is turned over to meritorious workers. Half of this amount is given in cash and the other half in stock, so that the recipients become participants in the business.

The workers are rated with merits and demerits as their performance warrants, much in the same way that the merit card system is applied in schools. If at the end of the year one employee receives more than another, he knows why. All in all, the scheme puts the employees on their mettle. They take more interest in the business because they know it will benefit them as well as their employers.

**Consumer’s Protection.** In order to protect the consumer in the purchase of clothing, various attempts have been made to have laws passed compelling all manufacturers to label fabrics or clothing with information regarding the composition of the fabric, costume, etc., in a manner similar to the labelling of the composition of food products. Thus far no success has been attained in this direction, although all consumers should support such a measure.

Consumers in some parts of the country have organized an association called the Consumers’ League, which publishes a list of firms with the names of fabrics and costumes that measure up to standards of durability, etc., and also either approves or disapproves of the wages and working conditions under which the articles are manufactured.

Well-established firms or mills that manufacture fabrics and wearing apparel have recognized the value of establishing standards for their product and have named the fabrics or wearing apparel by a special term called a *trade name*. These trade names
may be registered with the United States government, and no one except the firm registering it is allowed to use the trade name for a product.

Thus in the purchase of wearing apparel the consumer is protected by the Consumers' League, by trade names, and by the good name of a well-established firm.

**Clothing Establishments.** In order to turn out the greatest amount of wearing apparel, the clothing industry is highly organized and standardized, so that each worker is a specialist in one phase of production. The organization of the industry requires: (a) owners or proprietors, (b) general manager of the whole plant, (c) designers and stylists, (d) superintendent and assistant superintendents of each department or room, (e) examiners and shrinkers of fabrics, (f) cutters, (g) operators of machines, (h) inspectors, etc. Each one is trained in one phase of the work, so that he becomes skillful in that branch. Some specialize on high-grade and others on low-grade clothing.

**Factory Inspection.** Within the last generation a tremendous change has taken place in the manufacturing of clothing. Originally clothing was made on a large scale in congested old buildings and tenements, called "sweat shops," where the workers toiled long hours, sometimes under unsanitary conditions. Part of the manufacturing was sent out to poor families who did a great deal of the stitching. But today things have changed. Special buildings for the manufacturing of clothing have been erected, with up-to-date, well-lighted work rooms, with all sanitary conveniences, and automatic machinery, so that we may say that manufactured clothing today is made under the best possible conditions.

To illustrate: In the cloak factories the fabrics are received and every piece of cloth is thoroughly examined by experts in regard to measure, texture, and color, and then it is sponged by special machinery. All "smooth" cloths and those with finished faces are sponged by copper rollers, and the machinery is so arranged that from the time the cloth starts until it is folded dry, it is
not touched by the operator. The cloth is then ready for the cutters, with all its imperfections marked. Each cutter has a separate check upon which have been entered the particulars about the cloth, style, and proper patterns. If the quantity is large enough for the cutting machine, the cloth is marked and laid in folds, but small pieces are cut by hand with shears. After the cloth has been cut according to the provided patterns, the bundles are carefully compared with the orders, and then a ticket is made for each garment, on which is a place for each worker to put his or her number, so that a complete record is kept of every hand that works on the garment. The garments then go to the seamers, who seam them on machines specially adjusted for that particular work, being provided with a fixed gauge that insures a perfectly uniform seam. Expert seamers can work at machines that make 3000 stitches a minute. For the detection of any possible mistakes and imperfections in the fit, the garments are tried on models before being sent to the trimmers. The collars, cuffs, facings, etc., of each garment are cut according to the style designed, and, with the "body," sent to a workman who particularly excels in that branch of the work. After leaving the finisher the garment is inspected again by the foreman, and if it is not satisfactory, it goes back to the workman for alterations. After the making of buttonholes and the sewing on of buttons and ornaments, the garment goes to the presser, and from the presser, it passes to a final examiner and model, who are responsible for the fit and workmanship, and who see that the materials and trimmings are right, and that any changes that may have been ordered to suit certain customers have been properly made. Then the garment is ready for packing and shipping.

Records of the shape, cloth, trimmings, and buttons, or any other parts of the garment, are kept in duplicate, so that a copy of any garment can be made at any time. Sometimes cloaks that are in fashion in the East for a year do not reach the far West until weeks afterward, when some particular style may be favored more than another, and the orders will be larger for that style than for any other. By turning to the records, exact duplicates of any style can be made at any time, provided the material is in the market. One of the most responsible positions in a cloak factory
is that of the model or "figure," and upon securing good ones depends the prosperity of the establishment.

**Textile Industries.** A knowledge of the history and development of the textile industry makes possible a better understanding of the phase of production and marketing. Few people realize the magnitude and importance of the industries for manufacturing wearing apparel. Since cloth is the principal item in clothing, it may be well to consider this one item alone — number of people employed, etc. The textile industry alone gives employment to over a million people, paying them more than five hundred million dollars annually in wages and salaries; producing nearly one and three-quarters billion dollars in gross value, and giving a livelihood to at least three millions of our population.

**Periods of Textile Manufacture.** During the history of mankind, the manufacture of material into cloth has passed through four periods: first, the family system; second, the guild system; third, the domestic system; and fourth, the factory system.

**The Family System.** Under the family system the work of spinning and weaving was carried on by members of the household for the purpose of supplying the family with clothing. There were no sales of the product. Each class in society, from the peasant class to that of the nobleman, had its own devices for making clothing. This was the system that existed up to about the tenth century.

**The Guild System.** As communities became larger and cities sprang up, the textile industry became more than a family concern. There was a demand for better fabrics, and to meet this demand it became necessary to have a large supply of different parts of looms. The small weaver who owned and constructed his own loom was not able to have all these parts, so he began to work for a more prosperous weaver. The same conditions applied to spinning, which in time came to be carried on by a class distinct from the weavers. As a result the small weaver was driven out by the growth of organized capital, and a more perfect organization, called the guild system, arose. By this system, the textile industry was carried on by a small group of men called masters, employing two, three, or more men (distinguished later as journeymen and apprentices). The masters organized associations called *guilds*
and dominated all the conditions of the manufacture to a far greater extent than is possible under present conditions.

The family system existed in the American colonies at the beginning of the settlement, and for many years after. The guild system was not adopted in America because it was going out of existence on the Continent.

The Domestic Period. By the middle of the 18th century the textile industry began to break away from the guilds and spread from cities to the rural districts. The work was still carried on in the master's house, although he had lost the economic independence that he had under the old guild system, where he acted both as merchant and manufacturer. He now received his raw material from the merchant and disposed of the finished goods to a middleman, who looked after the demands of the market.

The Factory System. The domestic period was in turn followed by the factory system. A factory is a place where goods are produced by power for commercial use. The factory system first came into prominence after the invention of the steam engine. No record has been found showing its existence prior to this invention. English weavers and spinners became highly skilled and invented different mechanical aids for the production of yarn and cloth. These mechanical aids enabled one man to do twenty men's work, and further utilization was made of water and steam power in place of manual labor. Then began the organization of the industry on a truly gigantic scale, combining capital and machinery and resulting in what is known as the factory system.

As a result, fabrics and costumes are made very quickly, and men and women have the opportunity of selecting the fabric and costume that meets their wishes. Up to 1870, women's clothing was made by dressmakers and men's clothing by tailors. After 1870, factories for the manufacture of costumes began to develop.

Organization of a Textile Mill or Factory. The factory was organized so that the processes of manufacturing were arranged systematically and labor minimized in passing from one process to another. A large amount of money or capital was necessary, and this was raised by issuing stock; usually each share was worth $100. If a mill or factory cost $1,000,000 then 10,000 shares of stock would be issued. Each one who owned stock became a
stockholder. The stockholders held an annual election and chose a group of men, called president, treasurer, and board of directors, to conduct the mill or factory. The treasurer was the executive head of the factory or mill, and had the responsibility of buying the raw material and disposing of the finished product. The president was chairman of the board of directors. The stockholders received a dividend, usually six per cent, although it might be more or less, on the money invested. The mill or factory was separated into subdivisions, such as carding, spinning, warp dressing, weaving, and sometimes dyeing and finishing. Each subdivision was in charge of an overseer. A superintendent supervised all the overseers, and had charge of the employees and their operators. A master mechanic had charge of the buildings and machinery. Both the superintendent and master mechanic were responsible to either a resident agent or a resident treasurer. The mill or factory in some cases became large, employing from 500 to 18,000 operatives, and specialized on a certain grade of cloth. As a result of this specialization and organization, the cost of manufacturing textiles was reduced to a minimum.

Comparison between Foreign and Domestic Organizations. Textile mills or factories in Europe are not organized on such a large scale. Each subdivision of the above constitutes a mill, such as a spinning, weaving, or finishing mill. There are certain advantages and disadvantages in American and European organizations. For example, while the cost of production in a large American mill is small, the mill is so large that it must have large orders, such as 50,000 or 100,000 yards, etc. There are times when hand to mouth buying takes place, which means that small orders are frequently given every month. A small mill can execute small orders more economically than a large mill. On the other hand, the cost of production is usually greater in a small mill than in a large one.

Of course, we must bear in mind that production or manufacture on a large scale means standardization or a uniform product. Most textiles and clothing in this country can be standardized and made on a factory basis. In Europe, there is a tendency for each country to have its own standards, hence it is not possible to standardize to the same extent as in this country. Even in America there are certain qualities of high-grade fabrics and costumes that must be manufactured on a small scale.
To illustrate: Tailor-made clothing, made according to individual measurement, is made in a small shop, while the ready-made clothing, made from a few measurements, is standardized and is made in a factory. In the custom-made suit, every suit is different, while in the ready-made suit there is standardization for a certain group or class. The same condition applies to high-grade fabrics, where the quantity of each pattern is limited by the trade. That is, articles of clothing wanted by a few people must be made by small-scale methods. Articles of clothing wanted by many people must be standardized before they can be made with profit on a large scale.

Factory Organization on a Large Scale. Organization means coöperation or team work on the part of everyone from the unskilled worker to the president. Due to specialization, the production per operator or machine is very large. Good transportation is necessary for a factory organization because it opens the extensive markets needed in order to dispose of the great quantity of product made on a factory basis.

Capital for a Factory. In order to do or establish business, let us say the raw cloth or clothing business, it is necessary to have a factory — the whole or a part of a building which will be suitably located. In addition, we must have machinery, furniture, display rooms with fixtures, as well as raw stock or cloth for the manufacture of clothing. All the items are essential in order to manufacture clothing on a large scale and are classified under the head capital.

The capital for the plant or factory is obtained from the sale of the stock. The success of the manufacturing or production depends upon: (1) skill of the workers, (2) ability of the managers in directing the workers, (3) up-to-date efficient equipment, (4) manufacturing a product that has a market or is in great demand. The capital necessary to buy raw material, pay the workers, and provide the necessary expenses to run the plant until the sale of the product, is usually obtained from bankers on notes.

Efficient Textile Organization. The history of the manufacture of clothing shows that prosperity can be increased greatly by (1) selecting and producing the right kind of raw materials, (2) manufacturing these more efficiently into finished fabrics and costumes,
(3) more economical distribution of both the finished fabrics and the finished costumes, and (4) making every effort to secure economical consumption.

While the first condition is more important than the second, the third and fourth are more important than the others at the present time. Hence they will be considered more in detail than the others.

Disposing of the products to the consumer, called marketing, existed back in the domestic and guild periods, but business became a tremendous force in society during the factory period. With this development came the need for extensive markets to dispose of cloth products, due to the high production and the sub-division of labor. Hence the need of a large force for the proper distribution of clothing arose with the development of the factory.

Overproduction. As the result of the introduction of machinery, especially automatic machinery, the production per operative or worker has become so great as to give us great benefits, such as: (a) the hours of labor have been reduced, (b) the cost of production is less because the production per worker becomes much greater, (c) increase in the quantity of production, allowing more people to use better wearing apparel. On the other hand, the introduction of the factory system and highly specialized machines has certain handicaps.

One disadvantage of the factory system of organization is that the mill or factory is equipped to make certain textiles and no others. In other words, machines are devised to do a special operation on a certain kind of material, and no other. For example, a worsted mill can produce either English hard-twisted worsted or soft (French) twisted worsteds used mostly for women's wear, but not both. It cannot produce woolens. The same is true with cottons. A mill may be equipped to produce medium-grade, but not high-grade cottons. It often happens with the change of styles that worsteds may be more popular than woolens, and the result will be that the worsted mills will be running overtime while part of the woolen mills will be idle. Then again a mill is laid out with a large number of machines which require a large order to start the mill and keep it running from day to day. After the World War, automatic machinery had been invented in such form that more fabrics were made than society could use, giving us overproduction, which lowered prices and caused mills and factories to shut down.
Mass Distribution Needed. With the development of mass production and distribution in America, businesses are growing larger year by year, and the nation today is passing through a period of industrial revolution. Business has passed through and out of the pioneer stage. A new kind of leadership is required by the new kind of business. Mass production calls for mass distribution, which, too, implies more than mere quantity. It means that the large quantities of goods turned out by the factories shall be put into the hands of the consumer at the lowest possible price. This involves the elimination of every possible waste in handling and selling.

Advertising. One of the most effective means of increasing the sales of clothing is through advertising. Examine carefully the advertisements of fabrics and clothing. Notice that they bring out the characteristics or qualities by pictures or printed information that appeals to one's taste or needs. In the beginning of this chapter it was shown that any agency can justify itself if it contributes to the increase in circulation of textiles from the mill to the consumer. Advertising is one of the most effective means of arousing the public to the value of textiles and thereby creating a demand for them. Most people do not realize the need of a fabric until its advantages are presented to them. These qualities are called "selling points."

Advertising also associates the name of a firm with a textile of a certain kind. In this way the good name or goodwill of a firm or fabric is established and increases the sales. The association of quality with certain firms is reported from customer to customer and from family to family, and becomes part of the assets of a firm and is known as its "goodwill." The name of the textile becomes the trade name or trademark, and may be copyrighted; that is, the United States Government will allow a firm to register at the Patent Office at Washington the name of a textile. If any other firm uses this name it may be prosecuted in the courts and made to pay damages due to loss of sales.

There are many methods of distributing textiles, such as commission merchant, jobber, etc.
Commission Merchant. In order to sell textiles on a commission basis a district distributor arose, called a commission merchant. This distributor may be an individual or a firm authorized to sell textiles in its own name or in the name of the foreign or domestic manufacturer. This agent is entrusted with the possession, management, control, and disposal of the goods to be sold.

Jobber. Selling agents usually exact very strict terms from the purchaser. Many dealers in textiles are unable to make quick payments, and consequently they are willing to pay a higher price for textiles provided they receive better terms of payment. Therefore an agent called a jobber has arisen, who buys textiles in bulk from the mills and resells them to smaller dealers at a higher price, in smaller quantity, and with long-term payments.

Broker. Textile manufacturers often authorize an agent to make a bargain and contract for raw material, unfinished cloth, etc. There are cotton brokers who purchase raw cotton for mills, also cotton brokers who sell raw cotton for the farmer. The same practice applies to textiles, etc. The broker differs from a commission merchant in having less power.

Converter. This term is applied to agents who purchase cloth (either cotton or silk) in the grey, that is, as it comes from the loom. This cloth is finished by the converter; that is, made white (bleached), printed, dyed, etc., according to demands of customers.

Retail Salesman. The final sales of textiles must naturally be in small units. Since most wholesalers tend to specialize, it is natural that there must be some agency that will bring together textiles of all kinds and dispose of them in small quantities. The retail dry goods store has undertaken this task.

Reducing Cost of Distribution. Various attempts have been made to reduce the tremendous cost of distribution, particularly in wearing apparel, by eliminating the expense of the distributing agents, such as commission merchants, jobbers, and in some cases the converters, with their large staff of traveling sales force. The principal means introduced to eliminate the cost of distribution is the substitution of (a) direct selling, (b) resident buyers, (c) chain stores, (d) group buying.
Traveling Salesmen. Most distributors have introduced their merchandise in the different parts of the country by means of traveling salesmen. The cost of maintaining a traveling sales force is large, due to the expenses and salary of each member. This is the old method of direct selling. Can this means of distribution be eliminated? An investigation by the National Credit Office shows that there are 95,000 small villages with a population of not over 500 now consuming 42 per cent of all cotton goods made in this country, and 3,750 small towns with populations of 500 to 10,000 consume 16 per cent. This means that 99,000 villages and towns with populations of less than 10,000 use 58 per cent of all the cotton goods produced by our mills, and most of the 95,000 rural places can be reached only by salesmen traveling in automobiles carrying samples of such goods as are generally found in country stores.

One of the methods of selling wearing apparel is by means of house to house canvassers, selling in direct competition with retail stores. Upward of 200 different articles are being sold by this method at the present time, including practically all of the staples dealt in by retail stores, and stopping only at the point where the initial payment required becomes so high as to discourage the housewife from buying.

Mill-Selling Force: Direct Selling. Many large mills find they can develop a more effective selling field by becoming their own merchandising and marketing agent. In other words, under the old organization of a separate selling agent the mill found it was not getting all the business that might be secured from present customers. Many were being sold only one or two of the company's lines, when they could readily use three or four. It also became obvious that the company was not getting the amount of business possible to be obtained in the territories in which it had no branch offices. The old, loose form of organization characteristic of the textile industry was not geared either for thorough merchandising or thorough marketing of goods. Therefore a new section was created in the mill, called a merchandising and marketing department.

The organization is as follows: First, a general merchandising manager, to whom all the individual merchandising managers report, is appointed. This makes merchandising a separate function
of the mill. Then a style director, who functions in an advisory staff position, is engaged. He brings in style ideas, lays out designs, goes over them with the merchandise managers, helps them to make selections and style their lines. Following this a sales promotion department is organized with a manager in charge. This department forms a contact and coöperates with both the merchandising phase of the business and with the general trade. An advertising department is an auxiliary of the sales promotion department. The office of general sales manager is created for the cotton goods department. This executive exercises central control and proper supervision over the activities of the sales force.

**Resident Buyers: Group Buying.** Group buying in clothing owes its existence to the rapid changes of styles of costumes. So rapid are the changes in style that selling style merchandise on the road is fast becoming a lost art. It is not always safe for a retail buyer to purchase apparel from a traveling salesman. Styles often change from month to month, and by the time the dresses are delivered they may be a month out of style. Then again, the cost of sending salesmen to call on individual stores is very expensive, while buying in large quantities by a single agency means a better price for the retailer of a small store. This group buying is normally carried on in the style center, New York City, by a resident buyer, who buys for many stores in the country, thus saving the expenses of the store.

As to the question of whether a local resident buyer is competent to select merchandise for sale in Ohio or Oregon, the manufacturer should remember that all sections of the country are linked by a similarity of tastes which is growing more uniform and changing less every day. Any successful retail buyer of style merchandise should be able to come to New York and buy for any other store in the country with success.

**Retail or Dry Goods Store.** The dry goods store is found in every village and hamlet, and is the center of trade in all communities. In the larger towns and cities the dry goods interest forms one of the most important departments of business, and greatly helps in sustaining all other branches of trade. The consumptive demand for dry goods increases in ratio corresponding with the increase of population. A business of such magnitude, involving so much
capital, and so intimately interwoven with the wants of our modern civilization, requires the best management possible to make it successful. Year by year dry goods stores are growing larger and larger with added lines of merchandise, until it is now possible to procure at the large department stores almost any article in common use by mankind.

**Need of Coöperation.** We have seen that the price that the consumer pays is based upon production and distribution costs. Therefore, in order that the price may be as economical as possible, it is necessary to have economical production and distribution. This can be done only when the consumer coöperates with both the producer and distributor so that they will not have to tolerate any such abuses as too rapid changes of styles, purchase of foreign-made goods, cancellation of orders, returning of goods, labor difficulties causing a shut-down, wasteful advertising, etc.

A course in clothing aims to develop ideals of dress, of community service, and of productive service, in addition to giving the student a knowledge and understanding of the worker as well as showing the place and value of the textile industries in the commercial world. This knowledge assists us in selecting the best standards (called ideals) and fosters correct ideals of beauty and proportion.

**QUESTIONS**

1. What is meant by (a) clothing, (b) dress, (c) wearing apparel?
2. What is the purpose of (a) clothing, (b) dress, (c) style?
3. Why is the question of clothing of importance to all?
4. What is meant by the expression "social value of clothing"?
5. What is the individual responsibility toward clothing?
6. What is the responsibility to community as regards clothing?
7. What is meant by (a) production, (b) distribution, (c) consumption as applied to clothing?
8. How can the consumers dictate or dominate the kind of clothing?
9. What is the aim of the clothing business?
10. Explain the difference between labor and capital as applied to the clothing industry.
SOCIAL VALUE OF CLOTHING

11. Why is there antagonism between the consumer and man who sells clothing? Should this feeling exist?
12. What is meant by the "Consumers' League"?
13. What means has the consumer at his disposal to assist him in the proper purchase of wearing apparel?
14. What is meant by (a) labor and (b) wages as applied to the clothing industry?
15. Why should the consumer be interested in the workers upon wearing apparel?
16. Illustrate some of the grievances between capital and labor and state the effect on the consumer.
17. Explain the organization of a wearing apparel factory.
18. State the magnitude of the textile industry.
19. Name and describe the different periods of textile manufacture.
20. Describe briefly the organization of a cloth mill.
21. What is meant by an efficient textile organization?
22. What causes over-production of clothing or fabrics? Illustrate.
23. Why is distribution or marketing of such importance to the consumer?
24. Name and define the function of different selling agents.
25. How may cost of distribution be reduced?
26. Describe briefly the retail dry goods store and the methods of selling, including charge account.
27. What are the advantages and disadvantages of advertising?
28. What are the common abuses of the consumer that react eventually on him or her?
29. How are correct standards or ideals of clothing reached in a community?