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THE HISTORY OF TRADE UNIONISM: BY SIDNEY AND BEATRICE WEBB (REVISED EDITION, EXTENDED TO 1920).

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INTRODUCTION TO THE EDITION OF 1920

THE thirty years to have elapsed since 1890, down to which date we broug the first edition of this book, have been momentous in the history of British Trade Unionism. The Trade Union Movement, which then included scarcely 20 per cent of the adult male manual-working wage-earners, now includes over 60 per cent. Its legal and constitutional status, which was then indefinite and precarious, has now been explicitly defined and embodied in precise and abso-'utely expressed statutes. Its internal organisation has en, in many cases, officially adopted as part of the chinery of public administration. Most important of , it has equipped itself with an entirely new political ranisation, extending throughout the whole of Great . .ain, inspired by large ideas embodied in a comprehensive a ogramme of Social Reconstruction, which has already schieved the position of "His Majesty's Opposition," and now makes a bid for that of "His Majesty's Government." So great an advance within a single generation makes the historical account of Trade Union development down to 1020 equivalent to a new book.

We have taken the opportunity to revise, and at some points to amplify, our description of the origin and early struggles of Trade Unionism in this country. We have naturally examined the new material that has been made accessible during the past quarter of a century, in order to incorporate in our work whatever has thus been added to public knowledge. But we have not found it necessary to make any but trifling changes in our original interpretation of the historical development. The Home Office papers are now available in the Public Record Office for the troubled period at the beginning of the nineteenth century; and these, together with the researches of Professor George Unwin, Mr. and Mrs. Hammond, Professor Graham Wallas, Mr. Mark Hovell, and Mr. M. Beer, have enabled us both to verify and to amplify our statements at certain points. For the recent history of Trade Unionism we have found most useful the collections and knowledge of the Labour Research Department, established in 1913: and we gratefully acknowledge the assistance in facts. suggestions, and criticisms that we have had from Mr. G. D. H. Cole and Mr. R. Page Arnot. We owe thanks, also, to Miss Ivy Schmidt for unwearied assistance in research.

The reader must not expect to find, in this historical volume, either an analysis of Trade Union organisation, policy, and methods, or any judgement upon the validity of its assumptions, its economic achievements, or its limitations. On these things we have written at great length, and very explicitly, in our *Industrial Democracy*, and in other books described in the pages at the end of this volume, to which we must refer those desirous of knowing whether the Trade Unionism of which we now write merely the story is a good or a bad element in industry and in the State.

SIDNEY AND BEATRICE WEBB.

41 GROSVENOR ROAD, WESTMINSTER, January 1920.

PREFACE TO THE ORIGINAL EDITION OF 1894

It is not our intention to delay the reader here by a conventional preface. As every one knows, the preface is never written until the story is finished; and this story will not be finished in our time, or for many generations after us. A word or two as to our method of work and its results is all that we need say before getting to our main business.

Though we undertook the study of the Trade Union movement, not to prove any proposition of our own, but to discover what problems it had to present to us, our minds were not so blank on the subject that we had no preconception of the character of these problems. We thought they would almost certainly be economic, pointing a common economic moral; and that expectation still seems to us so natural, that if it had been fulfilled we should have accepted its fulfilment without comment. But it was not so. Our researches were no sooner fairly in hand than we began to discover that the effects of Trade Unionism upon the conditions of labour, and upon industrial organisation and progress, are so governed by the infinite technical variety of our productive processes, that they vary from industry to industry and even from trade to trade; and the economic moral varies with them. Where we expected to find an economic thread for a treatise, we found a spider's web; and from that moment we recognised that what

we had first to write was not a treatise, but a history. And we saw that even a history would be impossible to follow unless we separated the general history of the whole movement from the particular histories of thousands of trade societies, some of which have maintained a continuous existence from the last century, whilst others have cropped up, run their brief course, and disappeared. Thus, when we had finished our labour of investigating the records of practically every important trade society from one end of the kingdom to the other, and accumulated piles of extracts, classified under endless trades and subdivisions of trades. we found that we must exclude from the first volume all but a small selection from those documents which appeared to us most significant with regard to the development of the general movement. Many famous strikes and lock-outs, many interesting trade disputes, many sensational prosecutions, and some furious outbursts of riot and crime, together with many drier matters relating to particular trades, have had either to be altogether omitted from our narrative, or else accorded a strictly subordinate reference in their relation to the history of Trade Unionism as a whole. All analysis of the economic effects of Trade Union action we reserve for a subsequent volume on the Problems of Trade Unionism, for which we shall draw more fully from the annals of the separate unions. And in that volume the most exacting seeker for economic morals will be more than satisfied; for there will be almost as many economic morals drawn as societies described.

That history of the general movement, to which we have confined ourselves here, will be found to be part of the political history of England. In spite of all the pleas of modern historians for less history of the actions of governments, and more descriptions of the manners and customs of the governed, it remains true that history, however it may relieve and enliven itself with descriptions of the manners and morals of the people, must, if it is to be history at all, follow the course of continuous organisations. The

history of a perfectly democratic State would be at once the history of a government and of a people. The history of Trade Unionism is the history of a State within our State, and one so jealously democratic that to know it well is to know the English working man as no reader of middleclass histories can know him. From the early years of the eighteenth century down to the present day, Democracy, Freedom of Association, Laisser-fuire, Regulation of the Hours and Wages of Labour, Co-operative Production. Free Trade, Protection, and many other distinct and often contradictory political ideals, have from time to time seized the imagination of the organised wage-earners and made their mark on the course of the Trade Union movement. And, since 1867 at least, wherever the ideals have left their mark on Trade Unionism, Trade Unionism has left its mark on politics. We shall be able to show that some of those overthrows of our party governments which have caused most surprise in the middle and upper classes, and for which the most far-fetched reasons have been given by them and their journalists and historians after the event, carry their explanation on the surface for any one who knows what the Trade Unionists of the period were thinking. Such demonstrations, however, will be purely incidental, as we have written throughout of Trade Unionism for its own sake, and not for that of the innumerable sidelights which it throws on party politics.

In our concluding chapter, which we should perhaps offer as an appendix rather than as part of the regular plan of the volume, we have attempted to give a bird's-eye view of the Trade Union world of to-day, with its unequal distribution, its strong sectional organisation and defective political machinery, its new governing class of trade officials—above all, its present state of transition in methods, aims, and policy, in the face of the multitude of unsettled constitutional, economic, and political problems with which it stands confronted.

A few words upon the work of collecting materials for

our work may prove useful to those who may hereafter come to reap in the same field. In the absence of any exhaustive treatment of any period of Trade Union history we have to rely mainly upon our own investigations. But every student of the subject must acknowledge the value of Dr. Brentano's fertile researches into English workingclass history, and of Mr. George Howell's thoroughly practical exposition of the Trade Unionism of his own school and his own time. Perhaps the most important published material on the subject is the Report on Trade Societies and Strikes issued by the Social Science Association in 1860, a compact storehouse of carefully sifted facts which compares favourably with the enormous bulk of scrappy and unverified information collected by the five historic official inquiries into Trade Unionism between 1824 and 1894. We have, moreover, found a great many miscellaneous facts about Trade Unions in periodical literature and ephemeral pamphlets in the various public libraries all over the country. To facilitate the work of future students we append to this volume a complete list of such published materials as we have been able to discover. For the early history of combinations we have had to rely upon the public records, old newspapers, and miscellaneous contemporary pamphlets. Thus, our first two chapters are principally based upon the journals of the House of Commons, the minutes of the Privy Council, the publications of the Record Office, and the innumerable broadsheet petitions to Parliament and old tracts relating to Trade which have been preserved in the British Museum, the Guildhall Library, and the invaluable collection of economic literature made by Professor H. S. Foxwell, St. John's College, Cambridge. 1 Most important of all, for the period prior to 1835, are the many volumes of manuscript commentaries, newspaper cuttings, rules, reports, pamphlets, etc., left by Francis Place, and now in the British Museum. This unique collection, formed by the busiest politician of his time, is indispensable, not

¹ Now in the Goldsmiths' Library at the University of London.

only to the student of working-class movements, but also to any historian of English political or social life during the first forty years of the century.¹

But the greater part of our material, especially that relating to the present century, has come from the Trade Unionists themselves. The offices of the older unions contain interesting archives, sometimes reaching back to the eighteenth century—minute-books in which generations of diligent, if unlettered, secretaries, the true historians of a great movement, have struggled to record the doings of their committees, and files of Trade Union periodicals, ignored even by the British Museum, through which the plans and aspirations of ardent working-class politicians and administrators have been expounded month by month to the scattered branches of their organisations. We were assured at the outset of our investigation that no outsider would be allowed access to the inner history of some of the old-fashioned societies. But we have found this prevalent impression as to the jealous secrecy of the Trade Unions without justification. The secretaries of old branches or ancient local societies have rummaged for us their archaic chests with three locks, dating from the eighteenth century. The surviving leaders of a bygone Trade Unionism have ransacked their drawers to find for our use the rules and minutes of their long-forgotten societies. In many a working man's home in London and Liverpool, Newcastle and Dublin-above all, in Glasgow and Manchester-the descendants of the old skilled handicraftsmen have unearthed "grandfather's indentures," or "father's old card," or a tattered set of rules, to help forward the investigation of a stranger whom they dimly recognised as striving to record the annals of their class. The whole of the docu-

¹ Place's Letter Books, together with an unpublished autobiography, preserved by his family, are now in the custody of Mr. Graham Wallas who is preparing a critical biography of this great reformer, which will throw much new light on all the social and political events of Fughsh history between 1798 and 1840 [published, 1st edition, 1898; and edition, 1918].

ments in the offices of the great National and County Unions have been most generously placed at our disposal, from the printed reports and sets of rules to the private cash accounts and executive minute-books. In only one case has a General Secretary refused us access to the old books of his society, and then simply on the ground that he was himself proposing to write its history, and regarded us as rivals in the literary field.

Nor has this generous confidence been confined to the musty records of the past. In the long sojourns at the various industrial centres which this examination of local archives has necessitated, every facility has been afforded to us for studying the actual working of the Trade Union organisation of to-day. We have attended the sittings of the Trades Councils in most of the large towns; we have sat through numerous branch and members' meetings all over the country; and one of us has even enjoyed the exceptional privilege of being present at the private deliberations of the Executive Committees of various national societies, as well as at the special delegate meetings summoned by the great federal Unions of Cotton-spinners, Cotton-weavers, and Coalminers for the settlement of momentous issues of trade policy, and at the six weeks' sessions in 1892 in which sixty chosen delegates of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers overhauled the trade policy and internal administration of that world-wide organisation.

We have naturally not confined ourselves to the workmen's side of the case. In almost every industrial centre we have sought out representative employers in the different industries. From them we have received many useful hints and criticisms. But, as might have been expected, the great captains of industry are, for the most part, absorbed in the commercial side of their business, and are seldem accurately acquainted with the details of the past, or even of the present, organisation of their workmen. Of more assistance in our task have been the secretaries of the various employers' associations. Especially in the ship-building ports have these gentlemen placed at our disposal their experience in collective negotiation with the different sections of labour, and the private statistics compiled by their associations. But of all the employing class we have found the working managers and foremen, who have themselves often been workmen, the best informed and most suggestive critics of Trade Union organisation and methods. We have often regretted that precisely this class is the most difficult of access to the investigator of industrial problems, and the least often called as witnesses before Royal Commissions.

The difficulty of welding into narrative form the innumerable details of the thousands of distinct organisations, and of constructing out of their separate chronicles anything like a history of the general movement, has, we need hardly say, been very great. We are painfully aware of the shortcomings of our work, both from a literary and from a historical point of view. We have been encouraged in our task by the conviction—strengthened as our investigation proceeded—that the Trade Union records contain material of the utmost value to the future historian of industrial and political organisation, and that these records are fast disappearing. Many of the older archives are in the possession of individual workmen, who are insensible of their Fistorical value. Among the larger societies it is not uncommon to find only one complete set of rules, reports, circulars, etc., in existence. A fire, a removal to new premises, or the death of an old secretary frequently results in the disappearance of everything not actually in daily office use. The keen investigator or collector will appreciate the extremity of the vexation with which we have learnt on arriving at an ancient Trade Union centre that the "old rubbish" of the office had been "cleared out" six months before. The local public libraries, and even the British Museum, seldom contain any of the internal Trade Union records new or old. We have therefore not only

collected every Trade Union document that we could acquire, but we have made lengthy extracts from, and abstracts of, the piles of minute-books, reports, rules, irculars, pamphlets, working-class newspapers, etc., which have been lent to us.

This collection of material, and, indeed, the wide scope of the investigation itself, would have been impossible if we had not had the good fortune to secure the help of a colleague exceptionally well qualified for the work. In Mr. F. W. Galton we have found a devoted assistant, to whose unwearied labours we owe the extensive range of our material and our statistics. Himself a skilled handicraftsman, and for some time secretary to his Trade Union, he has brought to the task not only keen intelligence and unremitting industry, but also a personal acquaintance with the details of Trade Union life and organisation which has rendered his co-operation of inestimable value. We have incorporated in our last chapter a graphic sketch from his pen of the inner life of a Trade Union.

We have, moreover, received the most cordial assistance from all quarters. If we were to acknowledge by name all those to whom our thanks are due, we should set forth a list of nearly all the Trade Union officials in the kingdom. Individual acknowledgement is in their case the less necessary, in that many of them are our valued personal friends. Only second to this is our indebtedness to many of the great "captains of industry," notably to Mr. Hugh Bell, of Middlesboro', and Colonel Dyer, of Elswick, and the secretaries of employers' associations, whose time has been freely placed at our disposal. To Professor H. S. Foxwel. Mr. Frederic Harrison, Professor E. S. Beesly, Mr. Robert Applegarth, and Mr. John Burns, M.P., we are especially indebted for the loan of many scarce pamphlets and workingclass journals, whilst Mr. John Burnett and Mr. Henry Crempton have been good enough to go through one or more of our chapters in proof, and to improve them by numerous suggestions. And there are two dear comrades

and friends to whose repeated revision of every line of our manuscript the volume owes whatever approach to literary merit it may possess.

The bibliography has been prepared from our material by Mr. R. A. Peddie; to whom, as well as to Miss Appleyard for the laborious task of verifying nearly all the quotations, our thanks are cue.

SIDNEY AND BEATRICE WEBB.

41 GROSVENOR ROAD, WESTMINSTER, April 1894.

| xviii | Contents |
|---|---|
| Distribution of Tr dom—The Progres Unions—Publication | the First Trade Union Congress- rade Unionists in the United Kings in Membership of particular Trade ins on Trade Unions and Combinations Relationship of Trade Unionism to the |
| Government of Indu | ıstry |
| INDEX | |

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

ON THE ASSUMED CONNECTION BETWEEN THE TRADE UNIONS AND THE GILDS IN DUBLIN

In Dublin the Trade Union descent from the Gilds is embodied in the printed documents of the Unions themselves, and is commonly assumed to be confirmed by their possession of the Gild charters. The Trade Union banners not only, in many cases, bear the same arms as the old Gilds, but often also the date of their incorporation. Thus, the old society of "regular" carpenters (now a branch of the Amalgamated) claims to date from 1400; the "Regular Operative House-painters' Trade Union" connects itself with the Guild of St. Luke, 1670; and the local unions of bricklayers and plasterers assume the date of the incorporation of the Bricklayers' and Plasterers' Company by Charles II. (1670). The box of the Dublin Bricklayers' Society does, in fact, contain a parchment which purports to be the original charter of the latter Company. How this document, given to the exclusively Protestant incorporation of working masters, which was abolished by statute in 1840, came into the possession of what has always been a mainly Roman Catholic body of wage-earners, dating certainly from 1830, is not clear. The parchment, which is bereft of its seal and bears on the back, in the handwriting of a lawyer's clerk, the words "Bricklayers, 28th June, 1843," was probably thrown aside as worthless after the dissolution of the Company.

A search among contemporary pamphlets brought to light an interesting episode in the history of the Dublin building trades. It appears that, after the dissolution of the Company, Benjamin Pemberton, who had been Master, and who was evidently a man of energy and ability, attempted to form an

alliance between the then powerful journeymen bricklayers' and plasterers' societies and the master bricklayers and plasterers. in order to resist the common-enemy, the "foreign contractor." This had long been a favourite project of Pemberton's. Already in 1812 he had urged the rapidly decaying Company to resist the uprising of "builders," and to admit Roman Catholic craftsmen. But the Company, which then included scarcely a dozen practising master bricklayers or plasterers, took no action. In 1832 Pemberton turned to the men, and vainly proposed to the "Trades Political Union," a kind of Trades Council, that they should take common action against "the contract system." At last, in 1846, six years after the abolition of the Company. he seems to have succeeded in forming some kind of alliance. The journeymen bricklayers and plasterers were induced to accept, from himself and his associates, formal certificates of proficiency. Several of these certificates, signed by Pemberton and other employers, are in the possession of the older workmen, but no one could explain to us their use. The alliance probably rested on some promise of preference for employment on the one part, and refusal to work for a contractor on the other. This close connection between a leading member of the Company and the Trade Unionists may perhaps account for the old charter, then become waste paper, finding its way into the Trade Union chest.

Particulars of Pemberton's action will be found in the pamphlet entitled An Address of the Bricklayers and Plasterers to the Tradesmen of the City of Dublin on the necessity of their co-operating for the attainment of their corporate rights and privileges, by Benjamin Pemberton (Dublin, 1833, 36 pages), preserved in Vol. 1567 of the Haliday Tracts in the Royal Irish Academy. In no other case, either in Dublin or elsewhere, have we found a Trade Union in possession of any Gild documents or relics.

The absolute impossibility of any passage of the Dublin Companies into the local Trade Unions will be apparent when we remember that the bulk of the wage-earning population of the city are, and have always been, Roman Catholics. The Dublin Companies were, to the last, rigidly confined to Episcopalian Protestants. Even after the barriers had been nominally removed by the Catholic Emancipation in 1829, the Companies, then shrunk up into little cliques of middle-class capitalists, with little or no connection with the trades, steadfastly refused to admit any Roman Catholics to membership. A few well-to-do Roman Catholics forced themselves in between 1829 and 1838

by mandamus. But when inquiry was made in 1838 by the Commissioners appointed under the Municipal Corporations Act, only half a dozen Roman Catholics were members, and the Companies were found to be composed, in the main, of capitalists and professional men. There is no evidence that even one wage-earner was in their ranks. Long before this time the Trade Unions of Dublin had obtained an unenviable notoriety. Already, in 1824, the Chief Constable of Dublin testified to the complete organisation of the operatives in illegal associations. In 1838 O'Connell made his celebrated attack upon them in the House of Commons, which led to a Select Committee. In short, whilst the Dublin Companies were, until their abolition by the Act of 1840, in much the same condition as those of London, with the added fact of religious exclusiveness, the Dublin Trade Unions were long before that date at the height of their power.

The adoption by the Dublin Trade Unions of the arms. mottoes, saints, and dates of origin of the old Dublin Gilds is more interesting as a trait of Irish character than as any proof of historic continuity. Thus, in their rules of 1883, the bricklayers content themselves with repeating the original preface common to the Trade Societies which were formed in the beginning of this century, to the effect that "the journeyman bricklayers of the City of Dublin have imposed on themselves the adoption of the following laudable scheme of raising a Fund for friendly society purposes." A card of membership, dated 1830, bears no reference to the Gild or Company of Bricklayers and Plasterers from whom descent is now claimed. The rules of 1883 are entitled those of the "incorporated" brick or stone layers' association, and in the edition of 1888 this had developed into the "Ancient Gild of Saint Bartholomew." Finally the coat of arms of the old company with the date of its incorporation ("A.D. 1670") appear on the new banner of the society. Similarly, the old local society of "Regular Carpenters," which was well known as a Trade Union in 1824, and was engaged in a strike in 1833 (seven years before the abolition of the "Company of Carpenters, Millers, Masons, and Tylers, or Gild of the fraternity of the Blessed Virgin Mary, of the house of St. Thomas the Martyr," established by Henry VIII. in 1532), adopted for the first time, in its rules of 1881, the coat of arms and motto of the Gild, but retained its own title of "The United Brothers of St. Joseph." The card of membership, printed in 1887, boldly gives the date of establishment as 1458, whilst other printed matter places it at 1490. The Dublin painters

Appendix I

724

now inscribe 1670 on their new banner, but the earliest traditions of their members date only from 1820. In short, the Irish Trade Unionist, with his genuine love for the picturesque, and his reverence for historical association, has steadily "annexed" antiquity, and has embraced every opportunity for transferring the origin of his society a few generations further back.

APPENDIX II

- RULES AND REGULATIONS OF THE GRAND NATIONAL CONSOLIDATED TRADES UNION OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, INSTITUTED FOR THE PURPOSE OF THE MORE EFFECTUALLY ENABLING THE WORKING CLASSES TO SECURE, PROTECT, AND ESTABLISH THE RIGHTS OF INDUSTRY (1834). (Goldsmiths' Library, University of London.)
- I. Each Trade in this Consolidated Union shall have its Grand Lodge in that town or city most eligible for it; such Grand Lodge to be governed internally by a Grand Master, Deputy Grand Master, and Grand Secretary, and a Committee of Management.
- II. Each Grand Lodge shall have its District Lodges, in any number, to be designated or named after the town or city in which the District Lodge is founded.
- III. Each Grand Lodge shall be considered the head of its own particular trade, and to have certain exclusive powers accordingly; but in all other respects the Grand Lodges are to answer the same ends as the District Lodges.
- IV. Each District Lodge shall embrace within itself all operatives of the same trade, living in smaller towns or villages adjacent to it; and shall be governed internally by a President, Vice-President, Secretary, and a Committee of Management.
- V. Each District Lodge shall have (if necessary) its Branch Lodge or Lodges, numbered in rotation; such Branch Lodges to be under the control of the District Lodge from which they sprung.
- VI. An unlimited number of the above described Lodges shall form and constitute the Grand National Consolidated Trades Union of Great Britain and Ireland.

VII. Each District shall have its Central Committee, composed of a Deputy, or Deputies, from every District Lodge of the different trades in the district; such Central Committee shall meet once in every week to superintend and watch over the interests of the Consolidated Union in that District, transmitting a report of the same, monthly, to the Executive Council in London, together with any suggestions of improvements they may think proper.

VIII. The General government of the G.N.C.T.U. shall be vested in a Grand Council of Delegates from each of the Central Committees of all the Districts in the C.U., to be holden every six months, at such places as shall be decided upon at the preceding Council; the next Meeting of the Grand Council of the C.U. to be held on the first day of September 1834, and to continue its sitting so long as may be requisite.

IX. During the recess of the Grand Council of Delegates, the Government of the C.U. shall be vested in an Executive Council of Five; which Executive will in future be chosen at the Grand Delegate Council aforesaid.

X. All dispensations or grants for the formation of new Lodges shall come from the Grand Lodge of each particular trade, or from the Executive Council. Applications for dispensations to come through the Central Committee of the District or by memorial, signed by at least 20 Operatives of the place where such new Lodge is proposed to be founded.

XI. The Executive Council shall act as trustees for all Funds provided by the C.U., for the adjustment of strikes, the purchasing or renting of land, establishing provision stores, workshops, etc.; or for any other purposes connected with the general benefit of the whole of the Union.

XII. All sums for the above purposes to be transmitted from the Lodges to the Executive Council through some safe and accredited medium.

XIII. District and Grand Lodges shall have the control of their own funds, subject to the levies imposed upon them by the Executive Council.

XIV. The ordinary weekly subscriptions of members be threepence each member.

XV. No strike or turn out for an advance of wages shall be made by the members of any Lodge in the Consolidated Union without the consent of the Executive Council; but in all cases of a reduction of wages the Central Committee of the District shall have the power of deciding whether a strike shall or shall not take place; and should such Central Committee be necessitated to order a levy in support of such strike brought on by such reduction of wages, such order shall be made on all the Lodges; in the first instance, in the District in which such reduction hath taken place; and on advice being forwarded to the Executive they shall consider the case, and order accordingly.

XVI. No higher sum than 10s. per week each shall be paid to members during a strike or turn out.

XVII. All Lodges shall be divided into local sections of 20 men each, or as near that number as may be.

Miscellaneous and Auxiliary Lodges

XVIII. In all cases where the number of operatives in a particular Trade, in any District, is too limited to allow of such Trade forming a Lodge of itself, the members of such Trade shall be permitted to become Unionists by joining the Lodge of any other Trade in the District. Should there be several Trades in a District thus limited with respect to the number of their Operatives, they shall be allowed to form together a District Miscellaneous Lodge, with permission, in order to extend the sphere of the brotherhood, to hold out the hand of fellowship to all really useful Labourers employed productively.

XIX. And, in order that all acknowledged Friends to the Productive Classes may attach themselves to the C.U., an Auxiliary Lodge may be established in every City or Town in the Kingdom. The members of each Lodge shall conform to all the Rules and Regulations herein contained, and be bound in the same manner, and subject to all the Laws of the G.U.C.T.U.; and shall not, in any manner, or at any time or place, speak or write anything in opposition to these Laws or the interests of the Union aforesaid. The Auxiliary Lodge shall be liable to be dissolved according to Article XXII.

XX. Lodges of Industrious Females shall be instituted in every District where it may be practicable; such Lodges to be considered, in every respect, as part of, and belonging to, the G.N.C.T.U.

Employment of Turn Outs

XXI. In all cases of strikes or turn outs, where it is practicable to employ Members in the making or producing of such commodities or articles as are in demand among their brother Unionists, or any other operatives willing to purchase the same, each Lodge shall provide a work-room or shop in which such commodities and articles may be manufactured on account of that Lodge, which shall make proper arrangements for the supply of the necessary materials; over which arrangements the Central Committee of the District shall have the control, subject to the scrutiny of the Grand Lodge Committee of the Trade on strike.

XXII. The Grand Lodge of each Trade to have the power of dissolving any District Lodge, in that Trade, for any violation of these Laws, any outrage upon the Public Peace, or for gross neglect of Duty. All Branch, Miscellaneous, or Auxiliary Lodges to be subject to the same control.

XXIII. The internal management and general concerns of each Grand or District Lodge are vested in a Committee of Management, composed of at least Seven, and not more than 25 Members, each to be chosen by Ballot, and elected by having not less than three-fourths of the Votes of the Members present, at the time of his election, in his favour. The whole of this Committee to go out of office Quarterly, eligible, however, to re-election. The Grand Master, or President, and the Secretary, or Grand Secretary of a Grand or a District Lodge, to be considered Members of its Committee of Management by virtue of their Offices.

XXIV. Each Grand Lodge, in this C.U., to be considered the centre of information regarding the general affairs of its particular Trade; each District Lodge to communicate with its Grand Lodge at the end of each month, and to give an account to it of the number of people Members in the District Lodge—the gross number of hours of labour performed by them in that district—the state of its funds—and any local or general intelligence that may be considered of interest to the Grand Lodge.

XXV. The Committee of Management in each Lodge shall sit at least on one evening in every week for the despatch of business—and oftener if necessary.

Rules 729

XXVI. Each Grand or District Lodge to hold its meetings on one evening in every month; at which meeting a Report of the Proceedings of the Committee, during the past month, shall be laid before the Members, together with an Abstract of the state of the Funds, an account of the prospects of the Society, and any propositions or By-Laws which the Committee may have to suggest for adoption, and any other information or correspondence of interest to the Members. All nominations of fresh Officers to be made at Lodge meetings, and all complaints of Members to be considered and discussed therein.

XXVII. The Grand Master or Deputy Grand Master, President, or Vice-President, or both, shall preside at all meetings of Grand or District Lodges, to keep order, state and put questions according to the sense and intention of the Members, give effect to the resolutions, and cause them to be put in force; and they shall be addressed by Members, during Lodge hours, by their proper titles.

XXVIII. No subject which does not immediately concern the interests of the Trade shall be discussed at any meetings of Committees or Lodges; and no proposition shall be adopted in either without the consent of at least three-fourths of the members present at its proposal—the question to be decided by ballot if any Member demand it. Not less than five Members of Committee of Management to constitute a Quorum, provided the rest have all been duly summoned; no Grand or District Lodge to be considered open unless at least 30 members be present.

NXIX. Each Grand or District Lodge shall have the power to appoint Sub-Committees to enquire into or manage any affair touching their interests, of which Committees the head officers of the Lodge are always to be considered Members.

Of Secretaries

XXX. The duties of a secretary to a Grand or District Lodge are:—To attend Lodge and Committee meetings and take minutes of the proceedings, entering the same in a book to be kept for that purpose.

To conduct all the correspondence of the Society. To take down the names and addresses of parties desirous of being initiated into the Order; and upon receiving the initiation fee from each, and entering the amount into a book, he will give each party a card, by which they may be admitted into the place appointed for the ceremony.

To receive the subscriptions of members, entering the same into a small account book, numbering the Subscribers from No. 1, and following up the sequence in regulation order, giving to each Subscriber a card, on which his contribution or payment shall be noted.

To enter all additional weekly payments, and all levies, into separate small books; all subscriptions and payments to be afterwards copied into a ledger, ruled expressly for the purpose.

The Secretary to be paid an adequate weekly salary; and to be allowed an Assistant if the amount of business require it.

The Secretary of each Grand or District Lodge shall balance his books once every fortnight, and the Managing Committee shall audit them, going over each item of receipt and expenditure with strict attention, checking the same with scrupulous care; and if found correct, three of the Committee shall verify the same by affixing their signatures to the page on which the balance is struck.

Initiation

XXXI. Any of the Officers or Members of a Lodge may be appointed by the Committee of Management to perform the Initiation Service; and to have charge of the Robes, etc., for that purpose; for which the Committee may allow him a reasonable remuneration.

Any party applying to be initiated must bring forward two witnesses as to character and the identity of his trade or occupation.

Of Branch Lodges

XXXII. Branch Lodge Meetings shall be held on one evening in every week, in the respective localities; at which Lodges any motion, proposed by law, etc., may be discussed and considered by the Members previous to its being finally submitted to the Grand or District Lodge Committee.

XXXIII. The Members of each Branch may elect a President to preside at the Branch Lodge, and a Secretary to collect subscriptions or levies for their Grand or District Lodge; who shall also attend meetings of the Committee of Management for instructions and information, and to submit suggestions, complaints, etc., from his Branch Lodge. No salaries or fees

Rules 731

to be allowed to officers of Branch Lodges, unless by the unanimous consent of their Members.

Wardens, Etc.

XXXIV. In addition to the Officers before mentioned in these regulations, there shall be, in each Grand and District Lodge a Warden, an Inside Tyler, an Outside Tyler, and a Conductor, whose principal duties are to attend Initiations, and see that no improper persons be admitted into the meetings. These officers to be elected in the same manner, and at the same periods, as other officers.

Miscellaneous Articles

XXXV. Any Member shall be liable to expulsion from the Lodges for any improper conduct therein; and shall be excluded from the benefits of the Society if his subscriptions be more than six months in arrear, unless the Committee of Management shall see cause to decide otherwise.

XXXVI. The G.U.C.T.U. Gazette to be considered the official organ of the Executive Council, and the general medium of intelligence on the affairs of the Union.

XXXVII. Each Lodge shall, as soon as possible, make arrangements for furnishing the means of instituting Libraries or Reading-Rooms, or any other arrangements, affording them every facility for meeting together for friendly conversation, mutual instruction, and rational amusement or recreation.

XXXVIII. In all cases, where it be practicable, each Lodge shall establish within its locality one or more Depots for provisions and articles in general domestic use, in order that its Members may be supplied with the best of such commodities at little above wholesale prices.

XXXIX. Each District and Grand Lodge shall endeavour to institute a Fund for the support of sick and aged Members, and for defraying the funeral expenses of deceased Members, on a similar principle to that of Benefit Societies; such fund to be kept up by small monthly contributions from those Unionists who are willing to subscribe towards it.

XL. Each Grand or District Lodge to have the power of

making its own By-Laws for purposes not comprised in these Regulations; but such By-Laws or Laws must not be in opposition to, or in counteraction of, any of the Articles herein specified.

XLI. No Member can enter Lodge Meetings without giving the proper signs, and producing his card to prove his membership, and that he is not in arrears of subscription for more than one month, unless lenity has been granted by order of Committee.

XLII. That a separate Treasurer be appointed for every £20 of the funds collected; and that such Treasurers shall not suffer any money to be withdrawn from their hands without a written order, signed by at least three of the Managing Committee and presented by the Secretary, or one of the other officers of the Society

XLIII. All sums under £30 shall be left in the hands of the Secretary for current expenses; but no outlay shall be made by him without an express order from the Managing Committee, signed by at least three of its Members.

XLIV. That every Member of this Union do use his best endeavours, by fair and open argument, and the force of good example, and not by intimidation or violence, to induce his fellows to join the brotherhood, in order that no workmen may remain out of the Union to undersell them in the market of labour; as, while that is done, employers will be enabled to resist the demands of the Unionists, whereas, if no operatives remain out of union, employers will be compelled to keep up the price of Labour.

XLV. That each Member of the C.U. pay a Registration Fee of 3d. to defray the general expenses; which fee is to be transmitted to the Executive once in every month.

XLVI. That although the design of the Union is, in the first instance, to raise the wages of the workmen, or prevent any further reduction therein, and to diminish the hours of labour, the great and ultimate object of it must be to establish the paramount rights of Industry and Humanity, by instituting such measures as shall effectually prevent the ignorant, idle, and useless part of Society from having that undue control over the fruits of our toil, which, through the agency of a vicious money system, they at present possess; and that, consequently, the Unionists should lose no opportunity of mutually encouraging

Rules 733

and assisting each other in bringing about A DIFFERENT ORDER OF THINGS, in which the really useful and intelligent part of society only shall have the direction of its affairs, and in which well-directed industry and virtue shall meet their just distinction and reward, and vicious idleness its merited contempt and destitution.

XLVII. All the Rules and Regulations herein contained be subject to the revision, alteration, or abrogation of the Grand Delegate Council.

APPENDIX III

SLIDING SCALES

THE Sliding Scale, an arrangement by which it is agreed in advance that wages shall vary in a definite relation to changes in the market price of the product, appears to have been familiar to the iron trade for a couple of generations. "About fifty years ago Mr. G. B. Thorneycroft, of Wolverhampton, head of a wellknown firm of iron-masters, suggested to certain other houses that wages should fluctuate with the price of 'marked bars' -these words indicating a quality of iron that then enjoyed a high reputation. The suggestion was adopted to this extent. that when a demand was made by the men for an advance in wages, any advance that was given was proportionate to the selling price of 'marked bars.' The puddlers received, as a rule, is. for each pound of the selling price; but on exceptional occasions, a special temporary advance or 'premium' was conceded. The terms of this arrangement do not seem to have been reduced to writing, though they remained in force for many years, and were well known as the Thorneycroft scale." 1

At the time of the great strike of Staffordshire puddlers, in 1865, a local understanding of a similar nature appears to have been in existence. The joint committee of iron-masters and puddlers, which was established at Darlington in 1869 as the "North of England Manufactured Iron Board," soon worked out a formal sliding scale for its own guidance. This scale, as well as that adopted by the Midland Iron Trade Board, has been repeatedly revised, abandoned, and again re-established; but its working has, on the whole, commended itself to the repre-

¹ Statement furnished to Professor Munro by Mr. Daniel Jones, of the Midland Iron and Steel Wages Board, quoted in Sliding Scales in the Coal and Iron Industries (p. 141).

sentatives of the ironworkers, and has, so far as the principle is concerned, produced no important dissensions among them. "We believe," said Mr. Trow, the men's secretary, to the Labour Commission in 1892, "it would be most satisfactory if this principle were generally adopted. . . . In all our experience of the past we have had less trouble in the periods in which sliding scales have obtained." The cause of the exceptional satisfaction of the ironworkers with their Wages Boards and Sliding Scales is obscure, but it may be interesting to the student to note that the members of the Ironworkers Association are largely sub-contractors, themselves employing workmen who are usually outside the Union, and have no direct representation on the Board. For a careful statement of the facts as to these Wage Boards and Sliding Scales in the iron industry, see The Adjustment of Wages (by Sir W. J. Ashley, 1903), pp. 142-151, and specimen rules, reports, and scales, pp. 208-307. At present (1920) separate Sliding Scales of this nature are in force for the Cleveland and the North Lincolnshire Blastfurnacemen; the Scottish Iron and the Consett Millmen; Brown Bayley's No. I Mill; the Scottish Enginemen and Steel Millmen; the Staffordshire Sheet Trade; the Midlands Puddling Mills and Forges; and the South Wales and Monmouthshire Iron and Steel Trade.

Widely different has been the result of the Sliding Scale among the coal miners. Its introduction into this trade dates from 1874, though it was not until 1879 that its adoption became common. Since then it has been abandoned in all districts, and it is energetically repudiated by the Miners' Federation. The following table includes all the Sliding Scales in the coal industry known to us. Between 1879 and 1886 there were a number of informal Sliding Scales in force for particular collieries, which were mostly superseded by the more general scales, or otherwise came to an end. It is believed that no Sliding Scale is now in force in any coal district.

| July 24, | 1874 | South Staffordshire I. | Revised 1877. |
|-------------|------|-------------------------|---------------|
| May 28, | 1875 | South Wales I. | ,, 1SSo. |
| April 13, | 1876 | Somerset. | Ended 1889. |
| February 6, | 1877 | Cannock Chase I. | Revised 1879. |
| March 14, | 1877 | Durham I. | ., 1879. |
| November 1, | 1877 | South Staffordshire II. | ,, 1882. |
| April 14, | 1879 | Cannock Chase II. | ,, 1882. |
| October 11, | 1879 | Durham II. | ,, 1887. |
| October 31, | 1879 | Cumberland I. | Ended 1881. |

| November 3, | 1879 | Ferndale Colliery I. | Revised | 1881. |
|---------------|------|---|----------|--------|
| November 10 | 1879 | (S. Wales). Bedworth Colliery I. (Warwick). | •• | 1880. |
| November 15, | | Northumberland I. | ** | 1883. |
| December 19, | 1879 | Ocean Colliery I. (S. Wales). | •• | 1882. |
| January 17. | 1880 | South Wales II. | | 1882. |
| January 20, | 1880 | | Ended | ? |
| January 26, | 1880 | | 43114(13 | 1881. |
| February 14, | 1880 | Bedworth Colliery II. | | ? |
| January 1, | 1881 | Ashton and Oldham I. | Revised | • |
| December 31, | 1881 | Ferndale Colliery II. | | ? |
| January 1, | 1882 | SoutheStaffordshire III. | Ended | 1884. |
| April 29, | 1882 | Durham III. | Revised | |
| June 6, | 1882 | South Wales III. | ,, | 1889. |
| June 22, | 1882 | Cannock Chase, &c. III. | Ended | 1893. |
| July 18, | 1882 | Ashton & Oldham II. | ., | 1883. |
| August 24, | 1882 | South Wales (Anthracite). | | 7 |
| September 29, | 1882 | Cumberland II. | Revised | 1884. |
| March 9, | 1883 | Northumberland II. | Ended | 1886. |
| June 12, | 1884 | Durham IV. | ., | 1889. |
| November 28, | | | Revised | |
| March 12, | 1836 | | Ended | • |
| April 14, | 1886 | Altham Colliery (Northd.). | •• | ? |
| February 25, | 1887 | | Ended | 1889 ? |
| May 24, | 1887 | Northumberland III. | •• | 1887. |
| June, | 1887 | | ** | 1889. |
| October, | 1888 | | •• | ? |
| January 18, | - | South Wales IV. | ** | 7 |
| September, | 1893 | Forest of Dean. | ** | ? |

An exposition of the construction and working of Sliding Scales is contained in Industrial Peace, by L. L. Price. Details of numerous Scales are given in the report made by a Committee to the British Association, entitled Sliding Scales in the Coal Industry, which was prepared by Professor J. E. C. Munro (Manchester, 1885), and in the Particulars of Sliding Scales, Past, Present, and Proposed, printed by the Lancashire Miners' Federation in 1886 (Openshaw, 1886, 20 pp.). Supplementary information is given in Professor Munro's papers before the Manchester Statistical Society, entitled, "Sliding Scales in the Iron Industry" (Manchester, 1885), and "Sliding Scales in the Coal and Iron Industries from 1885 to 1889" (Manchester, 1889). The whole question is discussed in The Adjustment of Wages (by

Sir William Ashley, 1903), pp. 45-71; and in our own Industrial

Democracy, 1897.

The proceedings in the numerous arbitrations in the coal and iron trade in the North of England, as well as several others which are printed, furnish abundant information on the subject of their working. A table of the variations of wages under sliding scales was prepared by Professor J. E. C. Munro for the Royal Commission on Mining Royalties, and published as Appendix V. to the First Report, 1890 (C 6195).

APPENDIX IV

THE SUMMONS TO THE FIRST TRADE UNION CONGRESS

No copy of the invitation to the first Trade Union Congress has been preserved, either in the archives of the Congress, the Manchester Trades Council, or any other organisation known to us. Fortunately, it was printed in the *Ironworkers' Journal* for May 1868. But of this only one file now exists, and as the summons is of some historical interest we reprint it for convenience of reference.

" MANCHESTER, April 16, 1868.

"SIR—You are requested to lay the following before your Society. The vital *interests* involved, it is conceived, will justify the officials in convening a special meeting for the consideration thereof.

"The Manchester and Salford Trades Council having recently taken into their serious consideration the present aspect of Trades Unions, and the profound ignorance which prevails in the public mind with reference to their operations and principles, together with the probability of an attempt being made by the Legislature, during the present Session of Parliament, to introduce a measure which might prove detrimental to the interests of such societies unless some prompt and decisive action be taken by the working classes themselves, beg most respectfully to intimate that it has been decided to hold in Manchester, as the main centre of industry in the provinces, a Congress of the representatives of Trades Councils, Federations of Trades, and Trade Societies in general.

"The Congress will assume the character of the Annual Meetings of the Social Science Association, in the transactions of which Society the artisan class is almost excluded; and papers

previously carefully prepared by such Societies as elect to do so, will be laid before the Congress on the various subjects which at the present time affect the Trade Societies, each paper to be followed by discussion on the points advanced, with a view of the merits and demerits of each question being thoroughly ventilated through the medium of the public press. It is further decided that the subjects treated upon shall include the following:

- " I. Trade Unions an absolute necessity.
- " 2. Trade Unions and Political Economy.
- " 3. The effect of Trade Unions on foreign competition.
- " 4. Regulation of the hours of labour.
- "5. Limitation of apprentices.
- "6. Technical Education.
- "7. Courts of Arbitration and Conciliation.
- "8. Co-operation.
- "9. The present inequality of the law in regard to conspiracy, intimidation, picketing, coercion, etc.
- "10. Factory Acts Extension Bill, 1867: the necessity of compulsory inspection and its application to all places where women and children are employed.
- " 11. The present Royal Commission on Trades Unions how far worthy of the confidence of the Trade Union interests.
 - " 12. Legalization of Trade Societies.
- "13. The necessity of an Annual Congress of Trade Representatives from the various centres of industry.
- "All Trades Councils, Federations of Trades, and Trade Societies generally are respectfully solicited to intimate their adhesion to this project on or before the 12th of May next, together with a notification of the subject of the paper that eath body will undertake to prepare, and the number of delegates by whom they will be respectively represented; after which date all information as to the place of meeting, etc., will be supplied.
- "It is not imperative that all Societies should prepare papers, it being anticipated that the subjects will be taken up by those most capable of expounding the principles sought to be maintained. Several have already adhered to the project, and have signified their intention of taking up the subjects Nos. 1, 4, 6, and 7.
- "The Congress will be held on Whit-Tuesday, the 2nd of June next, its duration not to exceed five days; and all expenses in connection therewith, which will be very small,

and as economical as possible, will be equalized amongst those Societies sending delegates, and will not extend beyond their sittings.

"Communications to be addressed to Mr. W. H. Wood, Typographical Institute, 29 Water Street, Manchester.
"By order of the Manchester & Salford Trades Council.

"S. C. Nicholson, President. "W. H. Wood, Secretary."

APPENDIX V

DISTRIBUTION OF TRADE UNIONISTS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

WE endeavoured in 1893-94 to analyse the membership of all the Trade Unions of which we could obtain particulars, in such a way as to show the number and percentage to population in each part of the United Kingdom. The following table gives the local distribution of 1,507,020 Trade Unionists in 1892. The distribution was, in most cases, made by branches, special estimates being prepared for us in a few instances by the officers of the Unions concerned. With regard to a few Unions having about 4000 members no local distribution could be arrived at.

Table showing the distribution of Trade Union membership in 1892 in each part of the United Kingdom, with the percentage to population in each case.

| County. | | Population in 1891. | Ascertanced Trade Unionists in 1892. | Number of Trade Unschists per 100 of population, | |
|------------------|--|---------------------|---|--|------|
| Bedfordshire . | | . | 165,999 | 553 | 0.33 |
| Berkshire | | . | 268,357 | 975 | 0.36 |
| Buckinghamshire | | . | 164,442 | 720 | 0.44 |
| Cambridgeshire . | | . 1 | 100,269 | 2,855 | 1.45 |
| Cheshire | | . 1 | 707.978 | 32,000 | 4:52 |
| Cornwall | | . 1 | 318,583 | 630 | 0.20 |
| Cumberland | | . 1 | 200,549 | 10,280 | 3.86 |
| Derbyshire | | . | 432,414 | 29,510 | 6.82 |
| Devonshire | | . | 030,225 | 0,030 | 0.05 |
| Dorsetshire | | . 1 | 158 995 | 305 | 0.10 |

| County. | Population in 1891. | Ascertained Trade Unionists in 1892, | Number of Trade Umonists per 100 of population |
|---|---------------------|---|--|
| Durham | 1,024,369 | 114,810 | 11.21 |
| Essex | 396,057 | 3,370 | 0.85 |
| (without West Ham, in- cluded in London). | | | |
| Gloucestershire | 548,886 | 26,030 | 4.74 |
| Hampshire | 587,578 | 5,665 | 0.96 |
| (without Isle of Wight, treated separately). | | | |
| Herefordshire | 113,346 | 385 | 0.34 |
| Hertfordshire | 215,179 | 1,125 | 0.52 |
| Huntingdonshire | 50,289 | 20 | 0.04 |
| Isle of Wight | 78,672 | 295 | 0.37 |
| Kent | 737,044 | 12,445 | 1.69 |
| (without Bromley, included in London). | _ | | |
| Lancashire | 3.957,906 | 331,535 | 8.63 |
| Leicestershire | 379,286 | 27,845 | 7:34 |
| Lincoln | 467,281 | 9,480 | 2.03 |
| London | 5,517,583 | 194,083 | 3:52 |
| (including Bromley, Croydon, Kingston, Richmond, West Ham and Middlesex). | | | |
| Norfolk | 460,362 | 4,880 | 1.06 |
| Northamptonshire | 308,072 | 12,210 | 3.96 |
| Northumberland | 506,030 | 56,815 | 11.23 |
| Nottinghamshire | 505,311 | 31,050 | 6.14 |
| Oxford | 188,220 | 1,815 | 0.96 |
| Rutland | 22,123 | 0 | 0.00 |
| Shropshire | 254,765 | 3,225 | 1.26 |
| Somerset | 510,076 | 6,595 | 1.29 |
| Staffordshire | 1,103,452 | 49.545 | 4.49 |
| Suffolk | 353,758 | 14,885 | 4.21 |
| Surrey | 275,638 | 730 | 0.26 |
| (without Croydon, Kingston, and Richmond, included in | | | |
| London). i | • | 1 | 1 |
| Sussex | 554,542 | 2,810 | 0.21 |
| Warwickshire | 801,738 | 33,600 | 4.19 |
| Westmoreland | 66,215 | 530 | 0.80 |

| County, | • | Population in | Ascertained Trade Union.sts in 1892, | Number of Trade Unionists per 100 of population | |
|---|-----|---------------|---|---|------|
| Wiltshire | | | 255,119 | 3,680 | T-44 |
| Worcestershire | | | 422,530 | 7,840 | 1.50 |
| Yorkshire, East Riding | | | 318,570 | 23,630 | 7:42 |
| Yorkshire, North Riding (with York City). | • | • | 435,897 | 15,215 | 3.49 |
| Yorkshire, West Riding | | | 2,464,415 | 141,140 | 5.73 |
| Total, En | gla | nd | 27,226,120 | 1,221,141 | 4.49 |
| North Wales | | | 451,000 | 8,820 | 1 90 |
| South Wales and Monmon | th | • | 1,325,315 | 88,810 | 6.70 |
| Total, Wales and Monn | nou | th | 1,776,405 | 97,630 | 5.20 |
| Total, England and | Wa | les | 29,002,525 | 1,318.771 | 4155 |
| Scotland | | | 4,033,103 | 146,925 | 3.64 |
| Ireland | | | 4,706,162 | 40,045 | 0.85 |
| Isle of Man | | | 55.598 | 75 | 0.13 |
| Guernsey | | | 35,339 | 1,170 | 3.31 |
| Jersey | • | • | 54,518 | 40 | 0.07 |
| Alderney and Sark . | • | • | 2,415 | ٥ | 0.00 |
| Total, United Kin | gdo | m | 37,889,660 | 1,507,026 | 3·98 |

APPENDIX

THE STATISFICAL PROGRESS

It is unfortunately impossible to present any complete statistics appointment, in 1886, of John Burnett as Labour Correspondent statistics of the movement; and the old Unions seldom possess of Ironfounders, it is true, has exact figures since its establish-The following tables may be useful as placing on record such

- 1. Amalgamated Society of Engineers.
- 2. Friendly Society of Ironfounders.
- 3. Steam Engine Makers' Society.
- 4. Associated Ironmoulders of Scotland.
- 5. United Society of Boilermakers and Iron Shipwrights.
- 6. Operative Stonemasons' Friendly Society.
- 7. Operative Bricklayers' Society.
- 8. General Union of Operative Carpenters and Joiners.
- 9. Typographical Association.
- to. London Society of Compositors.
- 11. Bookbinders' and Machine Rulers' Consolidated Union.
- 12. United Kingdom Society of Coachmakers. 13. Flint Glass Makers' Friendly Society.
- 14. Amicable and Brotherly Society of Machine Printers. 15. Machine, Engine, and Iron Grinders' Society.
- 16. Associated Blacksmiths' Society.
- 17. Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners.
- 18. Associated Carpenters and Joiners.
- 19. National Association of Operative Plasterers.
- 20. Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association.
- 21. United Journeymen Brassfounders' Association of Great Britain and Ireland.
- 22. United Operative Plumbers' Association.
- 23. Alliance Cabinet Makers' Association.

OF TRADE UNION MEMBERSHIP

of Trade Union membership at different periods. Until the to the Board of Trade, no attempt was made to collect any a complete series of their own archives. The Friendly Society ment in 1809. No total figures can be given with any confidence. comparative figures as we have been able to collect:

- 24. United Operative Bricklayers' Trade, Accident, Sick, and Burial Society.
- 25. Amalgamated Society of Tailors.
- 26. Amalgamated Association of Operative Cotton Spinners.
- 27. Glass Bottle Makers of Yorkshire United Trade Protection Society.
- 28. Durham Miners' Association.
- 19. National Society of Amalgamated Brassworkers.
- 30. United Pattern Makers' Association. 31. National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives.
- 32. Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants.
- 33. Yorkshire Miners' Association.
- 34. United Machine Workers' Association.
- 35. National Amalgamated Furnishing Trades Association. 30. Railway Clerks Association.
- 37. Amalgamated Tramway and Vehicle Workers.
- 38. National Union of Dock Labourers.
- 39. British Steel Smelters.
- 40. National Amalgamated Union of Shop Assistants.
- 41. Amaigamated Union of Co-operative Employees.
- 42. National Union of Clerks.
- 43. Workers' Union.
- 44. Amalgamated Musicians' Union.
- 45. National Amalgamated Union of Labour.
- 46. Postmen's Federation.
- 47. Post Office Engineering Stores.

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- 15. Machine, Engine, and Iron Grinders' Society.
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- 18. Associated Carpenters and Joiners.
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- 30. United Pattern Makers' Association.
- 31. National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives.
- 32. Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants.
- 32. Amargamated Society of Ranway Servants
- 34. United Machine Workers' Association.
- 35. National Amalgamated Furnishing Trades Association.
- 36. Railway Clerks' Association.
- 37. Amalgamated Trainway and Vehicle Workers.
- 38. National Union of Dock Labourers.
- 39. British Steel Smelters.
- 40. National Amalgamated Union of Shop Assistants.
- 41. Amalgamated Union of Co-operative Employees.
- 42. National Union of Clerks.
- 43. Workers' Union.
- 44. Amalgamated Musicians' Union.
- 45. National Amalgamated Union of Labour.
- 40. Postmen's Federation.
- 47. Post Office Engineering Stores.

Table showing the Membership of certain Trade Unions at

| Number of Society, | Year of Establish- ment. | 1850. | 1855. | 1860. | 1865. | 1870. |
|-----------------------|--------------------------------|-------------|--------|-------------|--------|--------|
| ı. | 1851 * | 5,000 | 12,553 | 20,935 | 30,984 | 34.711 |
| 2. | 1809 | 4,073 | 5,685 | 7,973 | 10,604 | 8,994 |
| 3. | 1824 | 2,068 | 1,662 | 2,050 | 2,521 | 2,810 |
| 4. | 1831 | 814 | 1,381 | 2,084 | 3,046 | 2,760 |
| 5. | 1832 | 1,771 | 3,500 | 4,146 | 8,621 | 7,26 |
| 6. | 1832 | 4,671 | 8,093 | 9,125 | 15,483 | 13,96 |
| 7. | 1848 | 340 | 924 | 1,641 | 4,320 | 1,44 |
| 8. | 1827 | 53 5 | 1,180 | 2,228 | 6,986 | 8,00 |
| 9. | 1849 | 603 | 1,288 | 1,473 | 1,992 | 2,43 |
| 10. | 1848 | 1,800 | 2,300 | 2,650 | 2,800 | 3,35 |
| 11. | 1835 | 420 | 340 | 500 | 748 | 91 |
| 12. | 1834 | 1,567 | 3,040 | 4,086 | 4.599 | 5,80 |
| 13. | 1849 | 500 | 897 | 1,355 | 1,606 | 1,77 |
| 14. | 1841 | 375 | 452 | 508 | 530 | 579 |
| 15. | 1844 | 200 | 110 | 330 | 449 | 28 |
| | | 24,737 | 43,405 | 61,084 | 95,289 | 95,08 |
| 16. | 1857 | | _ | 8 56 | 1,815 | 1,590 |
| 17. | 1860 | | | 618 | 5,670 | 10,17 |
| 18. | 1861 | - | - | | 4,453 | 3,58 |
| 19. | 1862 | | - 1 | - 1 | 4,441 | 2,46 |
| 20. | 1863 | | _ | - | 4,250 | 5,32 |
| 21. | 1866 | <u>;</u> | | <u> </u> | _ | 1,45 |
| 22. | 1832 | ? | ? | ? | ? | 1,53 |
| 23. | 1865 | | _ | - | ? | 24 |
| 24. | 1832 | ? | | ? | ; | 3,85 |
| 25. | 186 6 | - | _ | - | - | 4,00 |
| 26. | 1853 | - | ? | ? | ? | 10,51 |
| 27. | 1860 | - | _ | . 7 | ? | 79 |
| 28. | 1869 | _ | _ | | | 1,89 |
| | | | | | | 142,53 |

[•] Established January 10, 1851. The membership given for 1850 is † Merged in the National Union of Bookbinders and Machine Rulers, ‡ In 1902 joined with the Operative Cabinet and Chair Makers Association.

Successive Periods, from 1850 to 1918 inclusive.

| 1875. | 1850, | 1885. | 1890. | 1900. | 1910. | 1918. | |
|---------------|---------|---------|----------------------|----------|-----------------------|---------|--|
| 44,032 | 44,692 | 51,689 | 67,928 | 87,672 | 110,733 | 298.78. | |
| 12,336 | 11,580 | 12,376 | 14,821 | 18,357 | 17,990 | 28,580 | |
| 3.871 | 4,134 | 5,062 | 5,822 | 8,566 | 14,401 | 27,206 | |
| 4,346 | 4,664 | 5,611 | 6,198 | 7,504 | 7,880 | 7,961 | |
| 16,191 | 17,688 | 28,212 | 32,926 | 47,670 | 49,393 | 95,761 | |
| 24,543 | 12,610 | 11,285 | 12,538 | 19,419 | 7,055 | 4,929 | |
| 4,832 | 5,700 | 6,412 | 12,740 | 38,830 | 23,284 | 34,44 | |
| 10,885 | 4,420 | 1,734 | 2,485 | 7.727 | 5, 65 3 | 12,000 | |
| 3,60 0 | 5,350 | 6,551 | 9,016 | 16,179 | 21,436 | 11,60 | |
| 4,200 | 5,100 | 6,435 | 8,910 | 11,287 | 12,230 | 12,940 | |
| 1,670 | 1,501 | 1,788 | 2,910 | 4,064 | 5,027 | _ | |
| 7,251 | 4,989 | 4,560 | 5,367 | 6,536 | 6,854 | 15,11 | |
| 2,005 | 1,963 | 1,985 | 2,123 | 2,409 | 916 | 77. | |
| 65 0 | 690 | 740 | ′ 86 o | 963 | 983 | 22 | |
| 39 0 | 258 | 277 | 304 | 433 | 703 | 74 | |
| 140,802 | 125,339 | 144,717 | 184,948 | 277,610 | 284,538 | 551,07 | |
| 2,113 | 2,002 | 2,335 | 2,300 | 2,933 | 2, 953 | 17,23 | |
| 14,917 | 17,764 | 25,781 | 31,495 | 65,012 | 55.7 ⁸ 5 | 124,84 | |
| 6,642 | 4,673 | 4,535 | 4,742 | 9,808 | 3,964 | } | |
| 3.742 | 3,211 | 2,110 | 4,236 | 11,009 | 6,522 | 4,11 | |
| 17,561 | 10,707 | 13,128 | 16,961 | 23,950 | 37,361 | 40,00 | |
| 1,821 | 1,890 | 2,344 | 2,162 | — | 5,241 | 7,50 | |
| 1,679 | 2,232 | 2,666 | 5,350 | 11,186 | 10,907 | 13,00 | |
| 1,965 | 1,346 | 1,246 | 4,298 | 5,270 | | | |
| 7.350 | 3,282 | 1,975 | 1,725 | 3,428 | 1,655 | 2,95 | |
| 14,352 | 12,583 | 13,969 | 16,629 | 13,439 | 12,143 | 29,42 | |
| 14.257 | 11,834 | 16,579 | 18,145 | 18,384 | 22,992 | 24,80 | |
| 1,120 | 1,061 | 1,522 | 1,899 | 2,840 | 2,450 | 2,80 | |
| 38,000 | 30,000 | 35,000 | 49,000 | 80,260 | 121,805 | 126,25 | |
| 260,321 | 227,924 | 267,907 | 343,890 | 546,135 | 559,316 | 944,99 | |

that with which the amalgamation started.

^{1911.}

of Scotland to form the National Amalgamated Furnishing Trades

| Number of Society. | Year of Establish- ment, | 1850. | . 1845. | 1860, | 1865. | 1870. |
|--------------------|--------------------------------|-----------|-----------------------|--------------|-------|------------|
| 29. | 1872 | _ | | _ | | _ |
| 30. | 1872 | <u></u> . | | | l | _ |
| 31. | 1874 | | | | | _ |
| 32. | 1872 | | - - - - 7 | | , , | 7 |
| 33. | 1858 | | l — | ? | } | 7 |
| 34. | 1844 | } | ? | } | , | 7 |
| 35. | 1902 | _ | | | | |
| 36. | 1897 | | | | | |
| 37. | 1889 | | _ | | | |
| 38. | 1889 | _ | - | | ļ | I — |
| 39. | 1886 | | ! | | | |
| .40. | 1891 | | | = | | - |
| 41. | 1891 | | _ | | _ | i – |
| 42. | 1891 | | ł — | | | |
| 43. | 1898 | | | | - | |
| 44. | 1893 | | | | - | |
| 45 | 1889 | | - | - | | _ |
| 46. | 1891 | _ | | | - | |
| 47. | 1896 | | - | _ | I — | |

[•] Amalgamated in 1913 with the United Pointsmen and Signalmen Railwaymen.

We have suggested that it is doubtful whether, in 1842, there A quarter of a century later George Howell and others could number was reached until the years of good trade that followed whether the aggregate of a million was again reached until the end of the century were two millions attained—a number increased by over fifty per cent.

[†] In 1917 the members of the British Steel Smelters were merged in

| | | i | | 1 | 1 | |
|---------|---------|---------------|---------|---------------|---------|------------|
| 1875. | 1880. | 1885. | 1890. | 1900. | 19:0. | 1918. |
| | | _ | | - | | · |
| 5.271 | 4,633 | 3,582 | 7.958 | 8,675 | 7,373 | 25,000 |
| 418 | 824 | 1,241 | 2,205 | 4,604 | 7,214 | 10,290 |
| 4, 511 | 6,404 | 10,464 | 23,459 | 27,960 | 30,197 | 83,017 |
| 13,018 | 8,589 | 9,052 | 26,360 | 62,023 | 75,153 | (*) |
| 8,000 | 2,800 | 8,000 | 50,000 | 54,475 | 88,271 | 100,400 |
| 276 | 279 | 45 5 | 2,501 | 3.769 | 4,843 | 23,374 |
| 297,615 | 251,453 | 300,701 | 456,373 | 707,641 | 772,367 | 1,187,073 |
| • | | _ | | 6,248 | 6,685 | 47,220 |
| | | | | 1,550 | 9,476 | 66,130 |
| | | | ? | 9,214 | 17,076 | 40,564 |
| | | | } | 13,388 | 14,253 | 45,000 |
| | | | ? | 10,467 | 17,491 | 40,000(?)† |
| | | | | 7,551 | 22,426 | 83,000 |
| | | | | 1.55 | 1 | (1919) |
| | | _ | | 6,733 | 29,886 | 87,134 |
| | | | . — | 82 | 3,166 | 35,000 |
| | * | | ? | 2,879 | 5,016 | 230,000 |
| | | | | 3,286 | 6,182 | 14,649 |
| | | | ? | 21,111 | 16,017 | 143,931 |
| - | | | _ | 23,180 | 37,892 | 65,078 |
| - | | | | 940 | 3,500 | 14,000 |
| | | | | 106,629 | 189,046 | 911,705 |
| | | | ļ | 814,270 | 961,413 | 2,098,779 |

and the General Railway Workers' Union to form the National Union of the Iron and Steel Trades Confederation.

were as many as 100,000 enrolled and contributing members. talk vaguely of a million members, but we doubt whether this 1871. In 1878-80 there was a great falling off, and we doubt 1885. In 1892 we recorded a million and a half. Not until doubled by 1915, and in the last four or five years again

| Year, | Building. | Mining and Quarrying, | Metal, Engineering, and Shipbuilding. | Textile. | Clothing. | Transport. | | Other Trade | es. | Total, all Unions. | 750 |
|----------|-----------|--------------------------|--|-----------------|-----------|------------|--------------------------|-------------------|------------------|-----------------------|----------|
| 1892 | 157,971 | 315,272 | 279,534 | 204,022 | 83,299 | 154,947 | | 307,313 | | 1,502,358 | |
| 1893 | 172,870 | 318,112 | 266,813 | 205,546 | 80,768 | 142,084 | | 293,224 | | 1,479,417 | |
| 1894 | 178,721 | 307,276 | 263,572 | 214,331 | 81,786 | 123,896 | • | 266,718 | | 1,436,300 | |
| 1895 | 179,283 | 280,065 | 269,169 | 218,805 | 78,560 | 120,475 | | 261,479 | | 1,407,836 | |
| 1896 | 193,341 | 279,977 | 303,518 | 217,950 | 76,997 | 134,877 | | 287,805 | | 1,494,465 | |
| 1897 | 215,603 | 283,054 | 319,745 | 218,619 | 75,852 | 183,994 | | 317,131 | | 1,613,998 | |
| <i>h</i> | | | | | | | 211111 | | | | |
| 1. | | | | | · | | Printing, Paper, etc. | Wood- working. | Other Trades. | | |
| 1898 | 232,040 | 366,731 | 312,444 | 240,895 | 69,954 | 147,957 | 54,436 | | 264,074 | 1,688,531 | Appendix |
| 1899 | 249,988 | 445,706 | 335,746 | 245,301 | 66,777 | 163,685 | 56,727 | | 284,640 | 1,848,570 | 4 |
| 1900 | 253,412 | 524,150 | 342,079 | 245,438 | 67,183 | 171,599 | 57,228 | | 294,615 | 1,955,704 | 20 |
| 1901 | 248,967 | 530,953 | 338,468 | 243,474 | 65,660 | 169,199 | 58,274 | i | 311,766 | 1,966,761 | ž. |
| 1902 | 245,141 | 532,082 | 337,064 | 246,829 | 64,094 | 158,714 | 59,062 | _ | 310,321 | 1,953,307 | ž. |
| 1903 | 238,141 | 529,028 | 337,122 | 244,081 | 61,713 | 159,051 | 60,138 | | 301,769 | 1,931,043 | ~ |
| 1904 | 225,149 | 501,764 | 334,822 | 246,473 | 58,598 | 159,788 | 62,428 | _ | 306,087 | 1,895,109 | 7 |
| 1905 | 205,179 | 496,828 | 340,364 | 266,416 | 60,394 | 167,017 | 62,368 | _ | 321,807 | 1,920,373 | 7 |
| 1906 | 196,492 | 571,336 | 361,453 | 302,968 | 59,806 | 100,155 | .64,451 | - | 367,145 | 2,113,800 | |
| 1907 | 193,190 | 703,344 | 376,805 | 354,427 | 68,810 | 238,813 | 68,221 | | 403,136 | 2,406,746 | |
| 1908 | 177,718 | 719,384 | 365,134 | 362,540 | 65,637 | 230,642 | 72,970 | 41.797 | 353,50 5 | 2,388,727 | |
| 1909 | 162,278 | 722,639 | 359,838 | 366 ,445 | 65,882 | 224,037 | 71,531 | 39,240 | 357.177 | 2,369,067 | |
| 1910 | 156,985 | 731,305 | 370,055 | 379,644 | 67,158 | 245,223 | 74.275 | 38,881 | 382,816 | 2,446,342 | |
| 1911 | 173,182 | 752,419 | 415,176 | 436,927 | 74.423 | 513,538 | 77.252 | 45,474 | 530,512 | 3,018,903 | |
| 1912 | 203,773 | 757,147 | 479.471 | 478,097 | 91,855 | 514,724 | 76,807 | 50,853 | 635,107 | 3,287,884 | |
| 1913 | 248,647 | 915.734 | 538,541 | 515,684 | 105,929 | 699,952 | 84,414 | 64,442 | 813,772 | 3,987,115 | |
| 1914 | 235,828 | 870,198 | 557.769 | 497.494 | 102,538 | 705.501 | 92,283 | 64,296 | 796,902 | 3,918,809 | |
| 1915 | 228,475 | 857,183 | 633,502 | 507,731 | 114,085 | 737,004 | 97,290 | 65,210 | 886,313 | 4,126,793 | |
| 1916 | 229,272 | 877.694 | 695.347 | 530,411 | 121,656 | 803,872 | 97,669 | 69,403 | 1,012,623 | 4.437.947 | |
| 1917 | 257.286 | 941,120 | 847,202 | 627,919 | 149.756 | 903,109 | 109,586 | 83,369 | 1,360,165 | 5,287,522 | |
| - | | i | I | | | | • | | | 1 | |

[[]From Labour Department's Reports on Trade Unions for 1900, 1905-7 and 1912, Cmd. 773, 4651 and 6109, and Labour Gazette.]

APPENDIX VII

PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO TRADE UNIONS

In the first edition of this book we gave a list, 45 pages long, of books, pamphlets, reports, and other documents bearing on the workmen's combinations. In Industrial Democracy, 1897, we gave a supplementary list, 23 pages long. We do not reproduce these lists, to which the student can always refer; nor have we attempted to bring them down to date. The really useful material for Trade Union study is to be found in the publications of the Trade Unions themselves—the innumerable editions of rules, the thousands of annual and monthly reports, the voluminous lists of piece-work prices, the intricate working agreements, the verbatim reports of conferences, delegate meetings and proceedings before Conciliation and Arbitration Boards—which are ignored by the British Museum, and are practically never preserved in local public libraries. We made an extensive collection in 1891-97, which we have deposited in the British Library of Political Science, attached to the London School of Economics and Political Science, where it has been, to some extent, kept up to date, and where it is accessible to any serious student. Some old pamphlets and reports of interest are in the Goldsmiths' Library at the University of London. Of Trade Union publications since 1913 the most extensive collection is that of the Labour Research Department, attached to the Labour Party, 34 Eccleston Square, London.

APPENDIX VIII

THE RELATIONSHIP OF TRADE UNIONISM TO THE GOVERNMENT
OF INDUSTRY

In our work on *Industrial Democracy*, published in 1897, we formulated the following tentative conclusions with regard to the participation of the workmen's organisations in industrial management, and the relation of Trade Unionism to political Democracy:

"This survey of the changes required in Trade Union policy leads us straight to a conclusion as to the part which Trade Unionism will be expected to play in the management of the industry of a democratic state. The interminable series of decisions, which together make up industrial administration. fall into three main classes. There is, first, the decision as to what shall be produced—that is to say, the exact commodity or service to be supplied to the consumers. There is, secondly, the judgement as to the manner in which the production shall take place, the adoption of material, the choice of processes, and the selection of human agents. Finally, there is the altogether different question of the conditions under which these human agents shall be employed-the temperature, atmosphere, and sanitary arrangements amid which they shall work, the intensity and duration of their toil, and the wages given as its reward.

"To obtain for the community the maximum satisfaction it is essential that the needs and desires of the consumers should be the main factor in determining the commodities and services to be produced. Whether these needs and desires can best be ascertained and satisfied by the private enterprise of capitalist profit-makers, keenly interested in securing custom, or by the public service of salaried officials, intent on pleasing associations of consumers (as in the British Co-operative Movement), or

associations of citizens (the Municipality or the State), is at present the crucial problem of Democracy. But whichever way this issue may be decided, one thing is certain, namely, that the several sections of manual workers, enrolled in their Trade Unions, will have, under private enterprise or Collectivism, no more to do with the determination of what is to be produced than any other citizens or consumers. As manual workers and wage-earners, they bring to the problem no specialised knowledge; and as persons fitted for the performance of particular services, they are even biassed against the inevitable changes in demand which characterise progressive community. This is even more the case with regard to the second department of industrial administration—the adoption of material, the choice of processes, and the selection of human agents. Here, the Trade Unions concerned are specially disqualified, not only by their ignorance of the possible alternatives, but also by their overwhelming bias in favour of a particular material, a particular process, or a particular grade of workers, irrespective of whether these are or are not the best adapted for the gratification of the consumers' desires. On the other hand, the directors of industry, whether thrown up by the competitive struggle or deliberately appointed by the consumers or citizens, have been specially picked out and trained to discover the best means of satisfying the consumers' desires. Moreover, the bias of their self-interest coincides with the object of their customers or employers—that is to say, the best and cheapest production. Thus, if we leave out of account the disturbing influence of monopoly in private enterprise, and corruption in public administration, it would at first sight seem as if we might safely leave the organisation of production and distribution under the one system as under the other to the expert knowledge of the directors of industry. But this is subject to one all-important qualification. The permanent bias of the profitmaker, and even of the salaried official of the Co-operative Society, the Municipality, or the Government Department, is to lower the expense of production. So far as immediate results are concerned, it seems equally advantageous whether this reduction of cost is secured by a better choice of materials, processes, or men, or by some lowering of wages or other worsening of the conditions upon which the human agents are employed. But the democratic state is, as we have seen, vitally interested in upholding the highest possible Standard of Life of all its citizens, and especially of the manual workers who form fourfifths of the whole. Hence the bias of the directors of industry in favor of cheapness has, in the interests of the community, to be perpetually controlled and guided by a determination to maintain, and progressively to raise, the conditions of employment.

"This leads us to the third branch of industrial administration —the settlement of the conditions under which the human beings are to be employed. The adoption of one material rather than another, the choice between alternative processes or alternative ways of organising the factory, the selection of particular grades of workers, or even of a particular foreman, may affect, for the worse, the Standard of Life of the operatives concerned. This indirect influence on the conditions of employment passes imperceptibly into the direct determination of the wages, hours, and other terms of the wage contract. On all. these matters the consumers, on the one hand, and the directors of industry on the other, are permanently disqualified from acting as arbiters. In our chapter on 'The Higgling of the Market' we described how, in the elaborate division of labour which characterises the modern industrial system, thousands of workers co-operate in the bringing to market of a single commodity; and no consumer, even if he desired it, could possibly ascertain or judge of the conditions of employment in all these varied trades. Thus, the consumers of all classes are not only biassed in favour of low prices; they are compelled to accept this apparent or genuine cheapness as the only practicable test of efficiency of production. And though the immediate employer of each section of workpeople knows the hours that they work and the wages that they receive, he is precluded by the stream of competitive pressure, transmitted through the retail shopkeeper and the wholesale trader, from effectively resisting the promptings of his own self-interest towards a constant cheapening of labour. Moreover, though he may be statistically aware of the conditions of employment his lack of personal experience of those conditions deprives him of any real knowledge of their effects. To the brain-working captain of industry, maintaining himself and his family on thousands a year, the manual-working wage-earner seems to belong to another species, having mental faculties and bodily needs altogether different from his own. Men and women of the upper or middle classes are totally unable to realise what state of body and mind, what level of character and conduct, result from a life spent, from childhood to old age, amid the dirt,

the smell, the noise, the ugliness, and the vitiated atmosphere of the workshop; under constant subjection to the peremptory. or it may be brutal, orders of the foreman; kept continuously at the laborious manual toil for sixty or seventy hours in every week of the year; and maintained by the food, clothing, houseaccommodation, recreation, and family life which are implied by a precarious income of between ten shillings and two pounds a week. If the democratic state is to attain its fullest and finest development, it is essential that the actual needs and desires of the human agents concerned should be the main considerations in determining the conditions of employment. Here then we find the special function of the Trade Union in the administration of industry. The simplest member of the working-class organisation knows at any rate where the shoe pinches. The Trade Union official is specially selected by his fellow-workmen for his capacity to express the grievances from which they suffer. and is trained by his calling in devising remedies for them. But in expressing the desires of their members, and in insisting on the necessary reforms, the Trade Unions act within the constant friction-brake supplied by the need of securing employment. It is always the consumers and the consumers alone. whether they act through profit-making entrepreneurs or through their own salaried officials, who determine how many of each particular grade of workers they care to employ on the conditions demanded. . . . Thus we find no neat formula for defining the rights and duties of the individual in society. In the democratic state every individual is both master and servant. In the work that he does for the community in return for his subsistence he is, and must remain, a servant, subject to the instructions and directions of those whose desires he is helping to satisfy. As a Citizen-Elector jointly with his fellows, and as a Consumer to the extent of his demand, he is a master, determining, free from any superior, what shall be done. Hence, it is the supreme paradox of democracy that every man is a servant in respect of the matters of which possesses the most expert proficiency. namely, the professional craft to which he devotes his working hours; and he is a master over that on which he knows no more than anybody else, namely, the general interests of the community as a whole. In this paradox, we suggest, lies at once the justification and the strength of democracy. It is not, as is commonly asserted by the superficial, that Ignorance rules over Knowledge, and Mediocrity over Capacity. In the administration of society Knowledge and Capacity can make

no real and durable progress except by acting on and through the minds of the common human material which it is desired to improve. It is only by carrying along with him the 'average sensual man, that even the wisest and most philanthropic reformer, however autocratic his power, can genuinely change the face of things. Moreover, not even the wisest of men can be trusted with that supreme authority which comes from the union of knowledge, capacity, and opportunity with the power of untrammelled and ultimate decision. Democracy is an expedient—perhaps the only practicable expedient—for preventing the concentration in any single individual or in any single class of what inevitably becomes, when so concentrated, a terrible engine of oppression. The autocratic emperor, served by a trained bureaucracy, seems to the Anglo-Saxon a perilously near approach to such a concentration. If democracy meant, as early observers imagined, a similar concentration of Knowledge and Power in the hands of the numerical majority for the time being, it might easily become as injurious a tyranny as any autocracy. An actual study of the spontaneous democracies of Anglo-Saxon workmen, or, as we suggest, of any other democratic institutions, reveals the splitting up of this dangerous authority into two parts. Whether in political or in industrial democracy, though it is the Citizen who, as Elector or Consumer, ultimately gives the order, it is the Professional Expert who advises what the order shall be.

"It is another aspect of this paradox that, in the democratic state, no man minds his own business. In the economic sphere this is a necessary consequence of division of labour; Robinson Crusoe, producing solely for his own consumption, being the last man who minded nothing but his own business. The extreme complication brought about by universal production for exchange in itself implies that every one works with a view to fulfilling the desires of other people. The crowding together of dense populations, and especially the co-operative enterprises which then arise, extend in every direction this spontaneous delegation to professional experts of what the isolated individual once deemed 'his own business.' Thus, the citizen in a modern municipality no longer produces his own food or makes his own clothes; no longer protects his own life or property; no longer fetches his own water; no longer makes his own thoroughfares, or cleans or lights them when made; no longer removes his own refuse or even disinfects his own dwelling. He no longer educates his own children, or doctors and nurses his own invalids. Trade Unionism adds to the long list of functions thus delegated to professional experts the settlement of the conditions on which the citizen will agree to co-operate in the national service. In the fully-developed democratic state the Citizen will be always minding other people's business. In his professional occupation he will, whether as brain-worker or manual labourer, be continually striving to fulfil the desires of those whom he serves; whilst as an Elector, in his parish or his co-operative society, his Trade Union or his political association, he will be perpetually passing judgment on issues in which his personal interest is no greater than that of his fellows.

"If, then, we are asked whether democracy, as shown by an analysis of Trade Unionism, is consistent with Individual Liberty, we are compelled to answer by asking, What is Liberty? If Liberty means every man being his own master, and following his own impulses, then it is clearly inconsistent, not so much with democracy or any other particular form of government, as with the crowding together of population in dense masses, division of labour, and, as we think, civilisation itself. What particular individuals, sections, or classes usually mean by 'freedom of contract,' 'freedom of association,' or 'freedom of enterprise' is freedom of opportunity to use the power that they happen to possess—that is to say, to compel other less powerful people to accept their terms. This sort of personal freedom in a community composed of unequal units is not distinguishable from compulsion. It is, therefore, necessary to define Liberty before talking about it; a definition which every man will frame according to his own view of what is socially desirable. We ourselves understand by the words 'Liberty' or 'Freedom,' not any quantum of natural or inalienable rights, but such conditions of existence in the community as do, in practice, result in the utmost possible development of faculty in the individual human being. Now, in this sense democracy is not only consistent with Liberty, but is, as it seems to us, the only way of securing the largest amount of it. It is open to argument whether other forms of government may not achieve a fuller development of the faculties of particular individuals or classes. To an autocrat, untrammelled rule over a whole kingdom may mean an exercise of his individual faculties, and a development of his individual personality, such as no other situation in life would afford. An aristocracy or government by one class in the interests of one class, may

conceivably enable that class to develop a perfection in physical grace or intellectual charm attainable by no other system of society. Similarly, it might be argued that, where the ownership of the means of production and the administration of industry are unreservedly left to the capitalist class, this 'freedom of enterprise' would result in a development of faculty among the captains of industry which could not otherwise be reached. We dissent from all these propositions, if only on the ground that the fullest development of personal character requires the pressure of discipline as well as the stimulus of opportunity. But however untrammelled power may affect the character of those who possess it, autocracy, aristocracy, and plutocracy have all, from the point of view of the lover of liberty, one fatal defect—they necessarily involve a restriction in the opportunity for development of faculty among the great mass of the population. It is only when the resources of the nation are deliberately organised and dealt with for the benefit, not of particular individuals or classes, but of the entire community; when the administration of industry, as of every other branch of human affairs, becomes the function of specialised experts, working through deliberately adjusted Common Rules; and when the ultimate decision on policy rests in no other hands than those of the citizens themselves, that the maximum aggregate development of individual intellect and individual character in the community as a whole can be attained.

"For our analysis helps us to disentangle from the complex influences on individual development those caused by democracy itself. The universal specialisation and delegation which, as we suggest, democratic institutions involve, necessarily imply a great increase in capacity and efficiency, if only because specialisation in service means expertness, and delegation compels selection. This deepening and narrowing of professional skill may be expected, in the fully-developed democratic state, to be accompanied by a growth in culture of which our present imperfect organisation gives us no adequate idea. So long as life is one long scramble for personal gain—still more, when it is one long struggle against destitution—there is no free time or strength for much development of the sympathetic, intellectual, artistic, or religious faculties. When the conditions of employment are deliberately regulated so as to secure adequate food, education, and leisure to every capable citizen, the great mass of the population will, for the first time, have any real chance of

expanding in friendship and family affection, and of satisfying the instinct for knowledge or beauty. It is an even more unique attribute of democracy that it is always taking the mind of the individual off his own narrow interests and immediate concerns, and forcing him to give his thoughts and leisure, not to satisfying his own desires, but to considering the needs and desires of his fellows. As an Elector—still more as a chosen Representative -in his parish, in his professional association, in his co-operative society, or in the wider political institutions of his state, the 'average sensual man' is perpetually impelled to appreciate and to decide issues of public policy. The working of democratic institutions means, therefore, one long training in enlightened altruism, one continual weighing, not of the advantage of the particular act to the particular individual, at the particular moment, but of those 'larger expediencies' on which all successful conduct of social life depends.

"If now, at the end of this long analysis, we try to formulate our dominant impression, it is a sense of the vastness and complexity of democracy itself. Modern civilised states are driven to this complication by the dense massing of their populations, and the course of industrial development. very desire to secure mobility in the crowd compels the adoption of one regulation after another, which limit the right of every man to use the air, the water, the land, and even the artificially produced instruments of production, in the way that he may think best. The very discovery of improved industrial methods, by leading to specialisation, makes manual labourer and brainworker alike dependent on the rest of the community for the means of subsistence, and subordinates them, even in their own crafts, to the action of others. In the world of civilisation and progress, no man can be his own master. But the very fact that, in modern society, the individual thus necessarily loses control over his own life, makes him desire to regain collectively what has become individually impossible. Hence the irresistible tendency to popular government, in spite of all its difficulties and dangers. But democracy is still the Great Unknown. Of its full scope and import we can yet catch only glimpses. As one department of social life after another becomes the subject of careful examination we shall gradually attain to a more complete vision. Our own tentative conclusions, derived from the study of one manifestation of the democratic spirit, may, we hope, not only suggest hypotheses for future verification, but also stimulate other students to carry out original investiga-

Appendix VIII

tions into the larger and perhaps more significant types of democratic organisation."

In 1920, after nearly a quarter of a century of further experience and consideration, we should, in some respects, put this differently. The growth, among all classes, and especially among the manual workers and the technicians, of what we may call corporate self-consciousness and public spirit, and the diffusion of education—coupled with further discoveries in the technique of democratic institutions—would lead us to-day to include, and even to put in the forefront, certain additional suggestions, which we can here only summarise briefly.

There is, in the first place, a genuine need for, and a real social advantage in giving recognition to, the contemporary transformation in the status of the manual working wage-earners, on the one hand, and of the technicians on the other, as compared with that of the manager or mere "captain of industry." This change of status, which is, perhaps, the most important feature of the industrial history of the past quarter of a century, will be most easily accorded its legitimate recognition in those industries and services in which the profit-making capitalist proprietor is dispensed with in favour of public ownership, whether national, municipal, or co-operative. This is, incidentally, an important reason for what is called "nationalisation." It is a real social gain that the General Secretary of the Swiss Railwaymen's Trade Union should sit as one of the five members of the supreme governing board of the Swiss railway administration. We ourselves look for the admission of nominees of the manual workers, as well as of the technicians, upon the executive boards and committees, on terms of complete equality with the other members, in all publicly owned industries and services; not morely, or even mainly, for the sake of the advantages of the counsel and criticism that the newcomers may bring from new standpoints, but principally for the sake of both inspiring and satisfying the increasing sense of corporate selfconsciousness and public spirit among all those employed in these enterprises.

In the second place we should lay stress on the change that is taking place in the nature (and in the conception) of authority itself. In our analysis of 1897 we confined ourselves unduly to a separation of spheres of authority. Whilst still regarding that analytic separation of "management" into three classes of judgements or decisions as fundamentally valid, we should

nowadays attach even more importance to the ways in which authority itself, in industry as well as in the rest of government. is being rapidly transformed, alike in substance and in methods The need for final decisions will remain, not of expression. merely in emergencies, but also as to policy; and it is of high importance to vest the responsibility for decision, according to the nature of the case, in the right hands. But we suggest that a great deal of the old autocracy in industry and services, once deemed to be indispensable, is ceasing to be necessary to efficiency, and will accordingly, as Democracy becomes more genuinely accepted, gradually be dispensed with. A steadily increasing sphere will, except in matters of emergency, be found for consultation among all grades and sections concerned, out of which will emerge judgements and decisions arrived at, very largely, by common consent. This will, we believe, produce actually a higher standard of industrial efficiency than mere autocracy could ever hope for. Where knowledge is a common possession the facts themselves will often decide; and though decisions may be short, sharp, and necessarily formulated by the appropriate person, they will not inevitably bear the impress of (or be resented as) the dictates of irresponsible autocracy. We may instance two large classes of considerations which will, we think, with great social advantage, come to be matters for mutual consultation in those committees and councils which already characterise the administration of all industry on a large scale, whether under private or public ownership, and which will, in the future, be increasingly representative of all grades of workers by hand or by brain. To such committees and councils there will come, as a matter of course, a stream of reports from the disinterested outside costing experts, which will carry with them no coercive authority, but which will graphically reveal the efficiency results, so far as regards cost and output, of each part of the enterprise, in comparison both with its own past, and with the corresponding results of other analogous enterprises. Similarly, there will come a stream of financial and merely statistical reports from equally disinterested outside auditors and statisticians, making graphic revelations as to the progress of the enterprise, in comparison with its own previous experience and with the progress of like enterprises elsewhere. Further, there will be a stream of what we may call scientific reports, also from disinterested outside experts, not only describing newinventions and discoveries in the technique of the particular enterprise, but suggesting, in the light of recent surveys of the

work, how they could be practically applied to its peculiar circumstances. These three classes of reports, all of them by disinterested experts, engaged in keeping under review all analogous enterprises at home or abroad, and having neither interest in, nor authority over, any of them, will, we suggest, be discussed by the members of the committees and councils on terms of equality; the decisions being taken, according to the nature of the case, by those in whom the responsibility for decision may be vested.

But there will be a second extensive class of reports of a different character, conveying not statements of fact but views of policy. There will, we must assume, be reports from those responsible, not merely or mainly for satisfying the existing generation of consumers, producers, or citizens, but for safeguarding the interests of the community as a whole, in the future as well as in the present. There will be the reports from the organs of the consumers or users of the particular commodity or service (such as the District Committees representing telephone users set up by the Postmaster-General as organs of criticism and suggestion for his telephone administration). Finally there will be reports conveying criticisms and suggestions from committees or councils representing other enterprises, or other sections of producers (whether technicians or manual workers), which may have something to communicate that they deem important. These reports will, none of them, come with coercive authority, but merely as conveying information, to be considered in the consultations out of which the necessary decisions will emerge.

Opinions may differ as to the competence to take part in such consultations of the selected representatives of the manual workers and the technicians respectively. We are ourselves of opinion that, taking the business as a whole, such representatives will be found to compare, in competence, quite favourably with the average member of a Board of Directors. But whether or not the counsels and decisions of great industrial enterprises are likely to be much improved by such consultations—and we confidently expect that they will be—we suggest that it is predominantly in this form that the principles of Democracy may, in practice, be applied to industrial administration; and that it will be for the Professional Associations of the technicians and the Trade Unions of the manual workers to prove themselves equal to the transformation in their status that this or any other application of Democracy involves.

763

But here we must pause. In a future work on the achievements, policy, and immediate controversies of the British Labour and Socialist Movement we shall give the historical and the psychological analysis, in the light of the experience of the past few decades, upon which we base our present conclusions.

INDEX

Aberdare, 514 Aberdare, Lord, 276-7, 285 Aberdeen, cotton-weavers of, 82; tailors of, 79 Abnormal place, 513-16 Abraham, William, 596 Acetylene Welders, 495 Acland, Sir A. H. Dyke, 308 Actions for damages, 597-634 Actors' Association, 507 Actuarial position of T.U., 267-8 Adamson, W., 699 Admiralty Constructive Engineers, 507 Agricultural Labourers, 136, 144-6, 328-34, 405, 416, 439-40, 488-9, 624, 648 Agriculture, Royal Commission on, 648 Albert Hall, 666, 669 Alison, Sir Archibald, 170, 173 " All Grades Movement," 525-6 Allan, Wm., 210-14, 232, 234 (life), 233-40, 243, 248, 350, 362, 419 Alliance Cabinet Makers' Association. See Cabinet Makers Almshouses, provided by the Liverpool Shipwrights, 39 Althorpe, Lord, 132 Amalgamated Association of Boot and Shoe Makers, 436 Amalgamated Association of Miners, 306, 349, 511 Amalgamated Engineering Union, 488, 551 Amalgamated Metal Wire and Tube Makers' Society, 359 Amalgamated Society of. See Carpenters, Engineers, Cotton-spin-

news, Cotton-weavers, Boot and Shoemakers, Builders' Labourers, Card and Blowing Room Operatives, Metal Planers, Railway Servants, Tailors, Watermen and Lightermen Amalgamated Tramway and Vehicle Workers, 7.14 Amalgamations and Federations, 546-554 American Federation of Labour, 135, 556 Amicable and Brotherly Society of Machine Printers (Cotton and Calico), 70, 75 Amicable Society of Woolstaplers, 83 Anderson, W. C., 699 Anti-corn Law League, 174, 176 Applegarth, Robert, 232, 233-40, 236-7 (life), 248, 350, 362, 391, 419, 680 Appleton, W. A., 556 Apprentices, 27, 29, 38, 45, 47, 83, 267 Apprentices, Statute of, 47, 59, 66, 250-51 Arbitration, 29, 71, 226-7, 337, 643 Arch, Joseph, 329, 334, 680, 682 Armstrong, Lord, 315 Arnot, R. Page, 489, 511, 524, 532, **633,** 662 Ashley, Sir W. J., 4. 5, 13, 15, 29, 511, 735-7 Ashton, murder of, 122 Ashton, Thomas, 311, 356 Ashton-under-Lyne, strikes at, 119,

Ashworth, 169
Asquith, H. H., 528-9, 636, 645, 692
Assinder, G. F., 599
Associated. See Blacksmiths, Carpenters, Engineers, Iron-forgers, Railwaymen, and Shipwrights
Associated Society of Locomotive Engineers and Firemen, 439, 505, 527, 530, 535, 539, 545. See also Railwaymen
Associations of Consumers, 706-18
Associations of Producers, 653-63, 704-18, 752-62
Atchison's Haven, 10
Austin, Michael, 596
Ayrshire Miners, 681

Bachelor Companies, 4, 5, 6, 7 Baernreither, Dr., 220, 300 Baker, C., 634 Bakers, 369, 438, 559 Bamford, Samuel, 96, 164 Bank Officers' Guild, 505 Barker, Ernest, 414 Barnes, Geo. N., 490, 692-3, 695, 698 Barnsley, first working-man Town Councillor elected in, 305 Basketmakers, 14, 45, 438, 552 Bass, Michael, 523 Bass-dressers, 336 Beale, C. G., 530 Beamers, 477 Beehive, the, 36, 254-5, 298 Beer, M., 131, 157, 162, 175, 414, **680** Beesly, Professor E. S., 222, 231-2, 236, 238, 246, 250, 263-4, 269, 275, 288, 293, 298, 312, 341, 362, 415, 510. See Positivists Belfast, 123, 136, 523 Belfast and Dublin Locomotive Engine-drivers' and Firemen's Trade Union, 523 Bell, Sir Hugh, xiv Bell Inn, Old Bailey, 205, 243, 245 Bell, Richard, 526-7, 601, 684 Bell, Robert, 58 Benbow, William, 163-4 Bennett, T. R., 246 Bentham, Jeremy, 96, 178 Bernstein, Eduard, 652 Besant, Mrs. Annie, 396, 399, 402

Bevan, G. Phillips, 347 Bibliography, 751 Birmingham, building trades of, 129; "Builders' Parliament " at, 130; tailors of, 32; Trade Unionism in, 358-9; Trades Council of, 280, 329-30, 399; trades procession at, 177 Birtwistle, Thomas, 309 Bit and Spur Makers, 92 Blackburn, 307, 697; riots at, 344 Blackburn List, the, 226 "Black-coated proletariat," 503-9 Blacklisting, 284, 598 Blacksmiths, Associated Society of Scotland. See Smiths Blastfurnacemen. See Ironworkers Bleachers, 478, 480 Block Printers, Glasgow, 552 Blok, P. J., 24 Boa, Andrew, 290 " Board of Green Cloth " at Dublin, 104 Boilermakers, 174, 205, 230, 247, 259, 261-2, 314, 321-2, 348, 353, 365, 378, 428-31, 490-91, 559, 744 Bolton, calico - printers at, 79, cotton operatives of, 81, 92, 307; engineers of, 207-8 Bondfield, Miss Margaret, 496 Bookbinders, 23, 77, 79, 91, 176, 188, 194-7, 201, 244-5, 437-8, 744 Boot and Shoe Operatives, 57, 68, 77, 79-80, 143, 150, 192, 228, 236, 336, 407, 436-7, 493-4, 744. See also Shoemakers Booth, Charles, 375, 380-81 Bowerman, C. W., 362 " Box Club," 36-7 Boy labour, 202 Brace, W., 692 Bradford, woollen strike of 1825, III Bradlaugh, Charles, 289, 370-71 Bradninch, woolcombers in, 34 Brainworkers, inclusion of, 697; organisations of, 503-9 Bramwell, Lord, 279, 363 Branch meeting, description of, 446-8 Brassey, Lord, 269 Brassfounders. See Brassworkers

Brass-workers, 323, 353, 358-9, 430-31, 486-8, 744 Braziers, 80, 91 Breeches Makers' Benefit Society, 24 Brentano, Dr. Luigi, 9, 12, 13, 15, 16, 25, 39, 47, 52, 209, 212, 339, 677 Brett, Lord Justice, 285 Bricklayers, 125, 169, 223, 226-32, 241, 245, 275, 282, 354, 365, 407, 428-9, 431-3, 559, 744 Bricklayers' and Plasterers' Company, Dublin, 721-4 Brickmakers, 241, 267-9; Hebrew in Egypt, 2 Brief Institution, 40, 67 Bright, John, 35-6, 178, 247, 293, 382 Brighton Trades Council, 558 Bristol, 14, 33, 35, 53, 133, 243, 252, 350 British and Foreign Consolidated Association of Industry, Humanity, and Knowledge, 167 British Association of Steel Smelters. See Steel Smelters Broadhead, W., 268-9 Broadhurst, Henry, 240, 285, 289, 295, 311-12, 325, 353, 362-3, 365, 370, 372, 395, 401, 408, 635, 680 Brontë, Charlotte, 89 Brooklands Agreement, 476 Brooks, J. G., 655 Brougham, Lord, 156, 178 Brushmakers, 14, 45, 75, 84, 91, 438 Buchez, 225 Builders' Labourers, 125, 483 "Builders' Parliament" of 1833, 130; of 1918-19, 483, 649 Building Trades, early combinations, 8-11; lock-out in 1833, 150; in 1860, 228-32; in 1912, 690; nine hours movement in, 312-17; statistics of, 407, 428-9, 431-3, 481-3 Bull & Co., 343 Bullinger, 4 Burdett, Sir Francis, 69, 109 Burgess, Joseph, 412 Burnett, John, 19, 36, 211, 314-15 (life), 316, 325, 347, 368, 423, 530 Burns, John, 298, 375, 383, 385

(life), 387-8, 396, 400, 402-3, 407-13, 419, 490, 636, 682 Burrows, Herbert, 402 Burt, Thomas, 181, 289-90, 296, 307, 340, 342, 362, 510-11, 625, 635, 680 Burton, hatters of, 53 Bussy, J. F. Moir, 524 Buxton, Lord, 404 Buxton, Sir T. Fowell, 264 Byron, Lord, 89 Cab-fare regulations, 9 Cabinetmakers, 76-8, 83-4, 136, 243, 248, 290, 389, 432-3, 481, 744-5 Cabmen, 369 " Ca' Canny," 487 Cairns, Earl, 275 Calender-men, Glasgow, 110 Calhoun, J. C., 167 Calico Engravers of Manchester, 80 Calico-printers, 45, 56-7, 70, 75, 79, 90, 121, 193, 436 Callender, W. R., 272 Cambridge, tailors of, 68 Campbell, Alexander, 30, 240, 243, 249-53 Campbell, G. L., 366 Campbell-Bannerman, Sir Henry, 635 Candidatures, independent, 287-9 Canning, 60 Capitalist, elimination of, 673-6 Card and Blowing Room Operatives, Amalgamated Association of, 435, 475-80. See also Cotton Operatives and Textiles Carlisle, cotton-weavers of, 82 Carmarthenshire, coal-miners of, 44 Carmen, 439-40 Carpenters, 18, 75, 110, 125, 169, 192, 202, 224, 228-32, 245, 254, 259, 265-7, 313, 319, 323-4, 343, 346, 354-5, 391, 415, 432-3, 481, 744; Company of London, 18; of Dublin, 721-4 Carpet-weavers, 112, 224, 435-6 Cartwright, 36 Census of Trade Unionists, 741-750-

Central Institute, 593

Chamberlain, Joseph, 370, 373

Chalmers, G., 62

Champertors, 67 Champion, H. H., 387, 400 Chandler, F., 354 Channel Isles, etc., T.U. in, 743 Chapel, 27, 74, 489 Character Note, 29, 284 Chartism, 164, 174-8, 649, 653 Checkweigher, 302, 304-6, 460, 489 Chester, hatters of, 53 Chimney-sweeps, 136 Chinese Labour, 691 Chippers and Drillers, 548 Chipping Norton case, 332 Christian Socialists, the, 215, 225, 246, 263-4, 707. See also Hughes, Ludlow and Neale Churchill, Winston, 494, 501 Cigarmakers, T.U. among, 438 "Citizen Guard," 544 City of Glasgow Bank failure, 345 Civil Service, 507-8; Arbitration Tribunal, 508-9 Clark, W. S., 601, 607, 634 Clayden, A. W., 329 Clerical Workers' Union of Ireland. 473 Clerks, 440, 473, 504-5, 744 Clode, 3, 6 Clothiers, 33-6, 40, 67-8, 151° Clothiers' Community, the, 40 Clothing Trades, statistics of, 428-429, 436-7 Clothworkers' Company, 5, 33-4 Clyde, depression on, 346; engineers on, 690; ferment on, 656, 659; shipyard workers of, 256; shorter day on, 316; strike on, in 1877, 343; "Weekly Pays" on the, 552 Clyde Workers' Committee, 488, 640, 659 Clynes, J. R., 497, 692 Coachmakers, 46, 80, 230, 423, 438, Coal Industry Commission, 511, 518-22, 648, 662-3 Coal-miners. See Miners Coal-porters, 18, 439, 500-501 Cobbett, Wm., 94, 96, 132, 154.5; the younger, 253 Cobden, Richard, 178, 382 Cohen, H., 599, 601

Cokemen, 434, 512, 549 Cole, G. D. H., 485, 524, 532, 553, 633, 637, 660 Cole, Percy, 491 Colliery Clerks, 513, 549; Enginemen, 434, 512, 549; Mechanics, 434 Combe, Delafield & Co., 150 Combination Acts, 64, 251 Committee Liquor," 203 Common employment, 364-6 Common Rules, 758 Composite Branches, 483 Compositors, 27, 57-8, 77-8, 169, 176, 181, 196, 198-9, 201, 205, 361, 389, 398-9, 415, 437-8, 492-3, 606, 606, 671, 744. See also Typographical Conditions of Employment, 754 Confédération Générale de Travail. 655 Conference of Amalgamated Trades, 263-83 Confiscation of funds proposed, 140 Congress, Trades Union, origin of, 280-81; description of, 561-0; summons to, 738-40 Congreve, Richard, 269 Connolly, T., 248, 273; James, 472-3, 655-7 Conscription, 639-40, 666-7 Consolidated Society of Book • binders, London. See Bookbinders Conspiracy, law of, 67, 367, 598; to injure, 598 Constitution of Labour Party, 607; of Trade Unions, 716 Consumers, organisation of, 762 Contagious Diseases Acts, 237 Contracting Out, 366 Cook, A. G., 309 Co-operative Employees, 504, 559, 744; Movement, 225, 647, 675, 752-62; production, 168, 194, 225-6, 335-6, 650-51, 659, 707-8; Society of Smiths. See Smiths; Union, the, 545, 691; Wholesale Society, 541; workshops, 194 Coopers, 74-5, 104, 230, 350, 423, 438, 548, 685 Co-partnership, 553 Copper-nuners, absence of T.U. among, 434

Cordwainers. See Boot and Shoe Operatives. Corn Production Act, 475, 498 Costing experts, 761 Cotton-spinners, 7, 41, 56, 81, 92, 116-24, 127, 151-2, 170-71, 176, 181, 191, 226, 259, 307-13, 415-16, 423, 435, 475-80, 744 Cotton-weavers, 56-9, 81-2, 86, 109, 307-13, 344, 435, 475-80 Coulson, Edward, 233-40, 248, 252, 255, 282, 362 Coventry, 95 Cowen, Joseph, 316 Cox, Harold, 391, 393 Craft Gilds, 4-21; \ labourers excluded from, 43 Cranmer, Archbishop) 4 Crawford, William, 296, 303-4, 391 Crayford, calico-printers of, 193 Cremer, Sir W. R., 248, 289, 682 Criminal Law Amendment Act of 1871, 282-3, 290-91, 364 Crompton, Henry, 265, 278, 282, 284, 286, 298, 338, 362, 374. See **Positivists** Cromwell, combinations reported to, 3 Crooks, W., 685 Cross, Viscount, 291, 312, 618, 624 · Cruikshank, James, 20 Cubitt's, Messrs., strike at, 150 Cunningham, Dr. William, 9, 15, 16, 49, 52, 55, 62, 308 Curriers, 37, 45, 46, 59, 90, 92, 181, 236 Customs officers, 507 Cutlers, 73, 80, 92, 108, 241 Cutlers' Company, 39

Daily Citizen, 689
Daily Herald, 502, 542, 689
Dale, David, 328, 339
Danter, 255, 318
Dartmouth, 34
Davenport, W., 30
Davis, J. E., 251
Davis, R. J., 503
Davis, W. J., 281, 324, 356, 358-9
(life), 368, 391, 395, 401, 554, 601, 680

Davitt, Michael, 473 Defoe, Daniel, 35 Delahaye, Victor, 385 De Leon, Daniel, 656 Demarcation disputes, 247, 353 Democracy, nature of, 704-18; analysis of, 752-62 Deportation of Clyde workers, 640 Deputies, 513, 549 Derby, hatters of, 53; potters of, 133; "turn-outs" of, 137-8 Devon, clothiers of, 33-5, 68 Devonport, Lord, 501-2 Dilke, Sir Charles, 238, 494, 617 Dilution, 637-43 Direct action, 663-73, 712 Directory of Trade Unions, 244-5 District Committee, 221-2, 449; Councils, 547 District Delegate, 322, 462-3 Dock Foremen and Clerks, London Society of, 440 Dockers, 401-5, 416, 420, 439, 497-502, 744 Document, the, 130, 150-51, 164, 193, 215-16, 244, 255 Doherty, John, 107, 117-18, 122, 124 Dolléans, E., 175 Dorchester labourers, 138, 144-8 Dowlais iron workers, 224 Drake, Barbara, 637 Dronfield, William, 240, 252, 257-8 Druitt, 278-9 Drummond, C. J., 398 Drummond, Henry, 277 Drury, John, 184, 186 Dublin, 14, 37, 53, 76, 104, 172, 243, 551, 721-4 Dugdale, 6 Duncombe, Thomas Slingsby, 185-7. 193-5, 277 Dundee, 136 Dunning, T. J., 23, 188, 228, 240, 243, 245, 252, 321 Dunsford, Martin, 34 Durham, coal-miners of, 44, 181-2, 186, 304, 342, 349, 386, 391-2, 511-12, 517 Dyer, Colonel, xiv Dyers, 100, 243, 436, 478, 480, 552 Eastern Counties Labour Federa-

Evans, D., 511

Evans, Frederick, 523

tion, 405. See also Agricultural Labourers Edinburgh, compositors of, 58; trade clubs of, 177; Trades Council of, 242, 252; Upholsterers' Sewers' Union at, 336 Educational Institute of Scotland, Eight Hours Bill, textile agitation for, in 1867-75, 309; general, 387, 390-92, 408, 648 Eight hours day, 402-3; demanded in 1834, 151; on the railways, Elcho, Lord. See Wemyss, Earl of Eldon, Lord, 105 Election expenses, 368 Electioneering by Trade Unions, Electrical Trades Union, 488, 551 Elizabeth, Act of, 47-9 Ellenborough, Lord, 59-60, 144 Ellicott, Dr., Bishop of Gloucester, 332 Ellis, Sir T. Ratcliffe, 530 Ely, Bishop of, 3 Emblem, 450 Emigration, 201-2, 328 Employer and Workman Act, 291. 625 Employers' Associations, service of, 479; as combinations, 73 Employers' liability, 364-6, 370, 373 Employers of Labour, National Federation of Associated, 326-7 Employment Exchanges, 646 Engels, Friedrich, 186 Shipbuilding Engineering and Federation, 552-3 Engineers, 174, 176, 178, 196-7, 201, 204-24, 230, 232-4, 245, 255, 259, 261, 313-17, 346, 348, 353, 355, 384-5, 408, 415-16, 420-21, 551, 555, 559, 636, 643, 692, 744; statistics of, 407, 428-31, 484-490; strike of 1836, 206; strike of 1852, 214-16; strike of 1897, 484-5 Enginemen, 440 Equalisation of funds, 220 Erle, Sir William, 195, 264, 279

Eversley, Lord, 228 Excess Profits Duty, 641 Excise officers, 507-8 Exeter, 34-5, 136 Fabian Research Department. See Labour Research Department Fabian Society, 375, 399, 414, 561, 642, 662, 680-82, 684 Factory Acts, 679 Factory Acts Reform Association, 310-13 Factory inspectors, 371-2 Fagniez, 3, 7, 8 Fairbairn, Sir W., 84, 205 Fair Trade League, 394-5 "Fair Wages" agitation, 398-9, 558 Farr, Dr. William, 228 Farriers, 46 Farringdon, prosecution of labourers at, 332 Farwell, Lord Justice, 627 Faulkner, H. V., 175 Fawcett Association, 508 Fawcett, Henry, 228, 238, 312 Federal Council of Secondary School Associations, 506 Federation of British Industries. Federation of the Engineering and Shipbuilding Trades, 355, 421, 552-3 Federation of Organised Trade Societies, 356 Felkin, W., 38, 52, 169 Feltmakers' Company, 28, 30, 52-3 Female Umbrella Makers, 337 Fenwick, Charles, 362 Fernehough, Thomas, 260 Ferrand, M.P., 186 Fielden, J., 132, 151, 158 Fielding, Sir John, 54 Figgis, J. N., 611 Filesmiths of Sheffield, 80 Findlay, Sir George, 525 Finlaison, 268 Flannel-weavers of Rochdale, 127 Flax Roughers, 473; workers, 133,

435-6

Fint Glass Makers, 181, 183-4, 197, Gateshead Trades Council, 561 Geddes, Sir Auckland, 536-7 199-202, 228, 230, 379-80, 423, Geddes, Sir Eric, 536-8 Fc bes, Archibald, 329 Geldart, W. M., 609, 634 General Federation of Trade Unions Foeign policy of Labour Party, 554-7, 603-4, 700 t95-6 General Labourers' National Coun-Foremen, 440, 506 Forest of Dean Miners' Association, cil, 499 434. See also Miners General Railway Workers' Union, Forster, W. E., 228 405-6, 524, 530. See also Rail-Foster, Thomas, 118-20; (another) wavmen 648 General staff, need for, 546 General Union of Carpenters. See Foxwell, Professor H. S., 58, 155, 157, 162, 308 Carpenters General Union of Sheet Metal Framework-knitters, 14, 38-9, 51, Workers. Sheet 51-2, 62, 75, 88-9, 94, 121 See Metal Franchise, 368, 372, 624, 672 Workers Franklin, Benjamin, 27 General Union of Textile Workers, Free Colliers of Scotland, 20 480 Freemasons, 19 General Workers, 497-502 French Polishers, 432-3 George, D. Lloyd, 509, 518, 522, Friendly Benefits, 222, 445, 620-21 527, 537-9, 541, 543-4, 645, 692, Friendly Societies, 19, 24; Act for, 694-5 261 George, Henry, 375-6, 389 Friendly Society of Oddfellows, 19 Gierke, O., 611-12 Friendly Society of Operative Giffen, Sir Robert, 424 Stonemasons. See Stonemasons Gig-mill, 48 Friendly Union of Mechanics, 208 Gild of St. George, Coventry, 6 Friendly United Smiths of Great Girdlestone, Canon, 329 Gladstone, W. E., 248, 262, 284-6, Britain and Ireland, 207. See also Smiths 302, 365 Glasgow, calico-printers of, 75; Friziers, 91 Frost, Williams, and Jones, Newcotton operatives of, 56, 58-9, 89, port Chartists, 177 170-71; gilds of, 14; labourers' society in, 417; stonemasons of, 347; Trades Council of, 240, Froude, J. A., 48 Furnishing Trades, 481 Fynes, Richard, 90, 124, 181, 186 242-3, 252-3, 258, 280; violent Trade Unionism of, 165 Gaevernitz, von Schulze, 339, 414 Glass-bottle Makers, 259, 423, 441, Galloway, 61, 205 744 Galton, F. W., 23, 97, 150 Glass - workers. See Flint Glass Makers and Glass-bottle Makers Gammage, R. G., 175 Garibaldi, 247 Glaziers of London, 66 Garment Workers. See Tailors Gloucestershire, clothiers of, 33-5; Garton Foundation, 648 weavers of, 50; woollen-workers Gascoyne, Colonel, 71 of, 33-4, 50 Gas-stokers, London (1872), 284-5; Glovers, 43, 437 strike of (1834), 138, (1888) Goderich, Lord. See Ripon, Mar-395. See Gas-workers quis of Gast, John, 84-5, 107, 111, 115 Gold, Silver, and Kindred Trades Gas-workers, 402, 406, 420, 439, Society, 551 Goldasti, 20 497, 499

Goldbeaters, 37, 91

Gompers, Samuel, 556 Gorgon, the, 99 Government of Industry, 752-62 Government officials, 507-8 Graham, Sir James, 60, 185 Graham, R. B. Cunninghame, 386, .682 Grain-porters, 501 Grand National Consolidated Trades Union, 125, 417; rules of, 725-Grey, Sir George, 185 Grinders, 80, 260 Gross, Dr., 15 Grote, George, 178 Guild Socialism, 548, 660-1 Guilds. See Craft Gilds Guile, Daniel, 233-40, 238 (life of), 252, 291, 362 Gurney, J. and W. B., 89 Gurney, Russell, 275 Haddleton, 197 Halévy, Élie, 648 Halifax, woollen-workers of, 35 Hall, Rev. Robert, 94 Halliday, Sir Leonard, 4 Halliday, Thomas, 289 Hallsworth, Joseph, 503 Halsbury, Lord, 610, 614 Hamilton, A. H. A., 33 Hammond, J. L. and B., 70-71, 82, 86, 89, 100, 105, 112, 115, 144 Hanley Trades Council, 558 Hansom, 130 Hardie, J. Keir, 396, 681-4, 688 Harford, E., 390 Harrel, Sir David, 530 Harrison, Frederic, 246, 262, 263, 265, 267, 270-71, 273-4, 275, 279, 284, 286, 295-7, 298, 362, 374. 610. See also Positivists Harvey, George, 511 Hasbach, Dr. W., 329, 405 Hatters, 28, 30, 45, 52-3, 68, 90, 437. See also Feltmakers' Company Headlam, Rev. S. D., 399 Heath, F. G., 329

Henderson, Arthur, 490, 529-30,

666, 669, 680, 685, 692, 694-5, 699

Henson, Gravener, 38, 77, 81, 89, 94, 100, 105 Hepburn, Tommy, 124 Herald of the Rights of Industry, "he. 158 Herbert, Hon. Auberon, 329 Hewins, W. A. S., 49 Hexham, hatters of, 53 Hibbert and Platt, 214 Hill, Frank, 14, 228 Hill, Frederic, 257, 272 Hilles, Richard, 4 Hobbouse, Benjamin, 69, 70 Hobson, S. G., 660 Hodge, John, 491, 692, 695 Hodges, Frank, 517, 673-5, 715 Hodgskin, T., 162 Holders-up. See Boilermakers Holland, John, 124 Holland, Lord, 70 Holyoake, G. J., 302 Holytown, miners of, 193 Hornby v. Close, 262 Hosiery-workers, 435-6. Framework-knitters Hour, payment by the, 245-6 House of Call, 69, 77, 445 Hovell, Mark, vi, 158, 164, 170, 175 Howell, George, 12-13, 17, 27, 30, 40-41, 65, 71, 100, 105, 139, 144, 170, 173, 188, 195, 228, 240, 245, 248, 255, 275, 281, 285-6, 289, 291-2, 295, 298, 325, 329-30, 352, 361, 370, 372, 391, 395, 416, 599, 601, 616-17, 623, 665, 682, 748 Howick, Lord, 146 Hoxie, R. F., 717 Hozier, J. H. C., 393 Huddersfield, 125 Hughes, Judge Thomas, Q.C., 216, 228, 244, 246, 265, 270, 274-5. 282, 290, 263-4, 341. See also Christian Socialists Hughson, David, 32, 34 Hull, ropemakers of, 91; Trade Unionism at, 136 Hume, James Deacon, 158

Hume, Joseph, M.P., 72, 81, 99-108, 142, 186, 251, 277, 415 Humphrey, A. W., 237, 275, 239, 604, 680
Humphries, E., 195
Hunt, D. R. C., 599
Hunt, Henry, 96, 164
Hunter, Thomas, 170
Huskisson, W., M.P., 60, 105-6
Hutchinson, Alexander, 153, 207-8
Hutton, R. H., 228, 246
Hutton, W., 177
Huysmans, Camille, 666, 669, 670
Hyde, spinners' strike at, 117
Hyett, W. H., 111
Hyndman, H. M., 376-7, 387, 400, 409-11

" Illegal men," 59 Incorporation of Trade Unions, 596 Independent Labour Party, 384, 652, 630-84, 692 Independent Order of Engineers and Machinists. See Engineers Index numbers, 339 Industrial Conscription, 639-40 Industrial Courts Act, 1919, 643 Industrial Remuneration Conference, 380 Industrial Unionism, 656-9 Industrial Unions, 548-50 Industrial Workers of the World, 655 Industries, difficulty of delimiting, 714 Ingram, Dr. J. K., 26 Initiation Parts, 149 Injunctions, 599, 600, 688 Inspectors, 504-5 Insurance Agents, 440, 507 Inter-Allied Conferences, 693-6 Interlocutor, 581 International Association of Working-men, 235-6, 248, 297, 316, 379, 396-7, 421, 666, 693-6 International Federations of Trade Unions, 555-6 Intimidation, 597 Ireland, laws in, 68-9; Trade Unionism in, 472-3 Irish Bank Officials' Association, 505 Irish Clerical Workers' Union, 505 Irish Labour Party, 473 Irish Railway Workers' Trade Union, 524

Irish Teachers' Society, 473 Irish Textile Workers' Federation, 473 Irish Trades Union Congress, 473 Iron and Steel Trades Confederation, 492, 552, 749 Iron and Steelworkers, Associated Society of. See Ironworkers Iron Forgers, Associated Fraternity of, or Old Smiths, 205 Ironfounders, 78, 121, 174, 176, 198-9, 200-203, 205, 213, 226, 233, 245, 261, 319-20, 348-9, 353, 391, 415, 429-30, 488, 685, 692, 744 Irongrinders, 744 See Ironiounders Ironmoulders. Iron shipbuilders. See Boiler makers Iron Trade-Midland Wages Board. 734-5; North of England Wages Eoard, 734-5 Ironworkers, 240, 259, 273, 324, 339, 349, 430-31, 491-2, 734-5; of Dowlais, 224; of Staffordshire, 256; sliding scales of, 734-5 Jackson and Graham, 290 Jackson, Col. Raynsford, 344 James, 37 James of Hereford, Lord, 206, 493, 610, 615-16, 618, 626 Jestrey, Lord, 72 Jevons, H. Stanley (the younger), 186, 511, 510 Jewish Unions, 478 Ioiners. See Carpenters

Jones, Daniel, 734
Jones, Lloyd, 243, 298, 329, 340-41
(life), 510
Jones, W. C., 341
Journalists, 493, 507
Journeyman Fraternities, 4-9
Journeymen Steam Engine and
Machine Makers and Millwrights
Friendly Society, 204-20. See
also Engineers
Jude, Martin, 182, 299
Junta, the, 233-98

Joint Committees. See Arbitration,

Joint Board, 700

Whitley Councils

Jones, Benjamin, 225, 708

774 Jupp, 18 Lancashire Miners, 182, 433, 511 Land Nationalisation, 389, 390, 395 Jury service, 367-8, 372 Langford, 32 Justices of the Peace, 372, 594 Lansbury, George, 689 Larkin, James, 472-3 Kane, John, 240 (life of), 273, 286, Lathom, R. M., 650 289, 299, 324, 339 Laundresses, T.U., 336 Karslake, Sir John, 275 Law, Bonar, 668 Kay-Shuttleworth, Sir James, 228 Law reforms, 367-8 Lawrence, F. Pethick, 681 Keeling, F., 500 Keelmen, 44 Lawrence, Miss Susan, 494, 496 Kenney, Rowland, 524, 527 Laws, Mr., 287 Kettel, F. E., 329 Layton, W. T., 527 Kettle, Sir Rupert, 338-9 Lead miners, absence of T.U. among. Kidderminster, 112; carpet-weavers Of, 224 Leathergrounders, 92 Kitchen-range, etc., Fitters' Union, Leatherworkers, 437, 552 Lee, H. W., 501 Knight, Charles, 141, 178 Leech, H. J., 293 Knight, Robert, 322, 324, 351, 355, Leeds, 35: clothing trade of, 35, 378, 421, 554 40, 127; Clothiers' Union, 133, Knights of Labour, 135 147 Leeds, Huddersfield, and Bradford Laboratory workers, 506 District Union, 147 Labour and the New Social Order. Legal assaults, 597-634 679, 697 Legal Minimum Wage, under Trade Labour Commission, 595-6, 602, Boards Act, 494-5; under Corn 498; under 650, 735 Production Act, Labour Department, 596 Mines Act, 514-16 Labour Elector, The, 387 Leicester, 94, 125, 137; hosiery workers of, 335; Trades Council, Labour Electoral Committee, 680 Labour League, London and Coun-558; woolcombers of, 36 Levi, Leone, 424 ties, 417, 439 Labour members, characteristics of, Levine, Louis, 655 Lewis, Sir G. C., 247 70I-2 Liberty, analysis of, 757 Labour Party, 604 Labour Representation League, Lichfield, Earl of, 254 287-9, 680 Life Assurance Agents. See Insur-Labour Research Department, 225, ance Agents Linen Weavers, 436 542, 561, 751 Labour Standard, The, 298 Link, The, 402 Labour Time, 162-3 Liquor, 448; allowance, 203-4 Labourers, no early organisation Litchfield, R. B., 246 among, 43; statistics of, 428-9, Liverpool, building trades of, 128-438-40; increase of, 497-502 130; dockers of, 405; hatters' Lacemakers, 435-6, 441, 559 Ladies' Shoemakers' Society, 238 of, 53; ropemakers of, 91; shipwrights of, 551; Trades Laisser-faire, 56 Council, 242-3, 252, 354-5 Lanarkshire, cotton-weavers of, 58, Liverpool, Lord, 105 Friendly Liverpool Sailmakers' Lancashire Federation of Protection Association of Shipwrights. See Societies, 478 Shipwrights

Liverpool, Trades Guardian Association of, 243 Lloyd, C. M., 160 Local Government elections, 305, 399, 413; employees, 508; successes, 703-4 Local versus Central Administration, 714 Lock-out, the, 255-6; of agricultural labourers, 332, 334 London and Counties League, 417, 439 London Carpenters' Company, 18; city companies of, 14; coalporters of, 18; early combinations in the City of, 2, 3; framework knitters of, 14, 38, 51-2; joiners' company of, 18; ship-wrights' company of, 18; Tracles Council, 231, 236, 238, 285, 333, 558-60; woodsawyers of, 18 London Consolidated Society of Bookbinders, 188, 196 London Society of Compositors, 181, 399, 415, 437-8, 492 London Working Men's Association, 298, 680 Londonderry, Lord, 90, 166, 186 Longe, F. D., 228 Looms, renting of, forbidden, 48 Loveless, George, John, and James, 144-6, 148 Lovett, Samuel, 96 Lovett, William, 84, 114, 145, 156, 157, 172, 174 Lowe, Robert. See Sherbrooke, Lord, 285 Lucraft, Benjamin, 235, 289 Luddites, the, 87-9 Ludlow, J. M., 14, 26, 216, 228, 246, 264, 341. See Christian Socialists Lushington, Sir Godfrey, 228, 246, 264 Lushington, Vernon, 264

Macarthur, Miss Mary, 494, 496
Macclesfield, hatters of, 30:
M'Connel and Co., 308
M'Culloch, J. R., 23, 99, 197
Macdonald, Alexander, 240, 249, 252, 277, 286, 289, 290, 299, 300

(life of), 301-7, 338, 342, 362, 393 510, 680 MacDonald, J. Ramsay, 23, 337. 529, 666, 669, 684-5, 688, 699 M'Gowan, Patrick, 118, 120 Machine, Engine, and Iron Crinders' Society, 744-7 Machine Printers, 744. See also Compositors Machine Workers. See Engineers Machinery, export of, 100, 103 M'Hugh, Edward, 582 MacManus, A., 619 Madox, T., 612 Maitland, F. W., 611-12 Maitland, General, 88 Man, The, 134 Management, analysis of, 752 Manchester-Association of T.U. Officials, Manchester and District, 324; brickmakers of, 268; building trades of, 130-31, (strike of 1846) 193; carpenters of, 343; cottonspinners of, 81; lengthening of hours at, 348; painters of, 275; Trades Council, 243, 280, 558-60, 738-40 Mandamus, 600 Manley, Thomas, 22

Manny, Inomas, 22

Mann, Tom, 383-4 (life), 396, 402, 406-7, 409, 412-14, 419, 490, 595-6, 651-2, 657-8

Manners, Lord John, 186

Manning, Cardinal, 332, 404

Marcroft family, the, 152

Marine Engineers' Union. See Engineers

Marlborough, Duke of, 332

Marshall, James, 170

Martineau, Harriet, 141

Marx, Karl, 162, 235, 297, 367, 376, 389

Masons. See Stonemasons
Master and Servant, law in 1844,
185-6; Act of 1867, 249-53
Match girls, London strike of, 402
Maudsley, 61
Maurice, Rev. F. D., 228
Mavor, James, 524
Mawdsley, James, 379, 479, 596
Mawdsley, Thomas, 311
Maxwell, William, 598

776 Index

May, John, 33 Mayhew, 11 Mechanics' Friendly Union Institution, 208 Mechanics' Magazine, the, 197 Medico-Political Union, 506-7 Melbourne, Lord, 138-48 Memorandum on War Aims, 605 Memorial of Freedom and Peace, Menger, Anton, 155, 157, 162 Mercantile Marine Offices, Superintendents of, 507 Merchant Shipping Acts, 607 Merchant Taylors' Company, 3, 6 Mersey Quay and Railway Carters' Union. See Carmen Merton College buildings, 10, 11 Mess, H. A., 500 Middleton, J. S., 691 Midland Iron Trade Board, 734 Miles, Wm., 185 Military Service Acts, 639-40 Mill, James, 96, 157 Mill, John Stuart, 287, 617 Millers, 59, 438; of Kent, 59-60 Millmen. See Ironworkers Millwrights, 45, 69, 83-4, 92, 204-6 Miners, 415, 510-22, 624, 690; Amalgamated Association of, 289; Co-operative Production and, 3352 Association of, G. B. and I., 181, 182, 186, 299, 517-18; Eight Hours Act, 686; Federation, 393-4, 408, 433-4, 510-22, 538, 549-50, 553, 555, 648, 661, 662-3, 665, 668, 673-5, 685, 715; Minimum Wage Act, 687; of Ayrshire, 681; of Carmarthenshire, 44; of Durham, 44, 124, 166, 182-3, 296, 304, 335, 338, 342, 349, 386, 391, 392, 434, 511-12, 517, 744; of Holytown, 193; of Lancashire, 111-12, 123, 143, 182-183, 188, 392-3, 433, 511; of Lothian, 434; of Midlands, 349, 393, 511; of Monmouthshire, 89; of Northumberland, 124, 127, 182, 296, 335, 338, 340, 342, 347. 349, 386, 391-2, 433, 511-12; of Nottingham, 258; of Scotland, 192, 393, 434, 511; of Somerset,

of South Wales, 89, 343, 349, 434, 511, 640, 690; of Yorkshire, 124, 182, 228, 230, 256, 301-2, 304-5, 335, 338, 349, 370, 302-3, 433, 510-11, 522, 744; reorganisation of, in 1858, 300-7; statistics of, 407, 428-9, 433-4; strike of 1810, 90. See also Iron-miners. Lead-miners, Copper-miners Miners' Attorney-General, the, 183 Miners' Next Step, the, 657 Minimum to Sliding Scale, 340-42 Minimum Wage Commission, 648 Mining Association of Great Britain, Ministry of Reconstruction, 647-8 Mogul Case, 598 Molestation, 597 Moncrieff, Lord, 343 Moore, Peter, 251 Morley, Samuel, 310, 332 Morris, William, 377 Morrison, James, 131 Mottershead, 289 Mulineaux, Thomas, 30 Mundella, A. J., 264-5, 274-5, 282, 288, 290, 310, 338-9, 362 Municipal Employees' Association, 508 Munitions, Levy, 641; Ministry of, 637-43; Munitions of War Acts, 637, 643; Tribunals, 639, 645, 646 Munro, Prof. J. E. Crawford, 308, Murphy, J. T., 490, 659 Musical Instrument Makers, 92 Musicians, 744 Mutual Association of Coopers. See Coopers Mutuality, 487

44; of Staffordshire, 124, 511;

Nash, Vaughan, 404
National Amalgamated Furnishing
Trades Association, 551, 744. See
also Furnishing, French Polishers,
Cabinetmakers, Upholsterers
National Amalgamated Sailors' and
Firemen's Union. See Sailors
National Association for the Protection of Labour, 120-24

National Association of Miners, 200-11 Neale, E. Vansittart, 210, 341 300 See Christian Socialists Neale, Professor, 204 National Association of Operative New Age, the, 660 Plasterers. See Plasterers National Association of United Tindes for the Protection of Labour, 186-95 National Association of United 1859-90, 414-21 Trades, 277 National Companies, 100 National Cordwainers' Society, 192 252 National Council of Colliery Werkers, 550 shoemakers at, 24 National Federation of Building Trade Operatives, 482-3; of Newton, George, 258 Colliery Enginemen, 550; of Colliery Mechanics, 550, of Deputies, 550; of General 243, 630 Workers, 409-500; of Mine neers of, 200-10 Managers, 550; of Professional Workers, 506-7; of Women Workers, 405 National Guilds, 600-61 National Industrial Conference, 648 Nixon, J., 340 National Insurance Act, 475, 495. 438, 503, 555, 636, 689 National Society of Amalgamated work with, 295-6 Normal Day, the, 246 Normansell, John, 305 Brassworkers. See Brassworkers National Transport Workers' Federation, 500-502, 538, 543 National Typographical Association, 181, 191 National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives. See Boot and Shoe 181-2, 186, 216 Operatives National Union of Clerks, 505; of Dock Labourers. See Dockers; 511-12, 025, 744 of General Workers, 612. See Notes and Queries, 34 also Gas-workers; of Miners, 300-307, 511-12; of Railway Clerks, 524; of Railwaymen, 530-46. See also Railwaymen; stockingers of, 62; Council, 252, 558 of Teachers, 440, 473, 506; of the Working Classes, 156 O'Brien, J. Bronterre, 178 National United Trades' Associa-Obstruction, 597 tion for the Employment of Labour, 192 Nationalisation, 651; of the coal supply, 517-22; of Mines Bill, Star 602-3; of railways, 534 Odger, George, 233-98, 258 (life), Navvies, 439. See also Labourers 243, 245, 247-8, 361-2, 680

New Sarum, Cordwainers at, 5-"New Unionism," the, of 1833-34, 153-67; of 1845-52, 195-204; of Newcastie, potters of, 133; ropemakers o, 91; Trades Council, Newcastle - on - Tyne - engineers' strike at, 315-16; gilds of, 14; Newton, William, 206-24, 234, Newton-le-Willows, trial of engi-Nine Hours' Bill, 311-12, 625 Nine Hours' Day, 245, 391, 307; attack on, 347, 355; in building trades, 228-32; movement in engineering and building, 313-17 Non-Unionists, 441, 443; refusal to North of England Manufactured Iron Board, 734-5 Northern Counties' Amalgamated Association of Weavers, 423, 478 Northern Star, The, 106, 174-7. Northumberland Miners, 181-2, 304, 340, 342, 347, 349, 386, 391-2, Nottingham, 52; framework knitters of, 52; Hosiery Board, 338; Trades O'Connell, Daniel, 148, 171, 173 O'Connor, Fergus, M.P., 174-5, 177-8, 182, 188. See Northern

statistics of, 745, 749

O'Grady, J., 683 Payment by Results, 643; in Oldham, cotton operatives of, 307; engineering, 485-7 strike of, in 1834, 151-2; cotton Payment of members, 368, 374, 631 spinners of, 41, 559; strike of, in Peasant proprietorship, 368, 389-1871, 310; engineers of, 214 390, 395 "One Big Union," 114 Pease, E. R., 414, 680 Peel, Sir Robert (the elder), 57, 60; Onslow, Serjeant, 61-2 Operative Society of Bricklayers. (the younger), 139 Pemberton, Benjamin, 721-2 See Bricklayers Operative, The, 213 Pension Committee, 594, 646 Orage, A. R., 660 Penty, A. J., 660 Osborne Judgement, 608-34, 686 Percy, M., 511 Osborne, W. V., 608-9, 628 Perthshire, 136 Ouseburn Engine works, 335 "Philanthropic Hercules," 114 Outrages, Glasgow, 165, 170-71; Manchester, 268; Sheffield, 259-Pianoforte Makers, 230 Picketing, 278, 598, 607; legalisa-260, 268 tion of, 291 Overlap. See Demarcation Picton, Sir J. A., 40 Overlookers, 477 Piecers, 435; associations of, 7 Overmen, 434, 513, 549. Piecework Lists in cotton industry, Over-steaming, 679 307-9 Pilots, 440 Overtime, 317; in Government Departments, 390-91; prevalence Pinmakers, Corporation of, 42 Pioneer, Or Trades Union Magazine, of, 348 Owen, Robert, 130, 132, 134-5, The, 131 154-64, 167-8, 177, 251, 341, Pipemakers, 91 409-10, 418-19 Pit Committee, 521 Pitt, William, 69, 71 Owenism, 653, 707 Place, Francis, 32, 61, 73, 84-5, 89, Oxford, Cordwainers at, 5 94, 96-110, 114, 117, 156, 159, Pacifists, the, 691-6 175, 251, 415, 416 Packing-case Makers, 432 Plasterers, 125, 354, 432-3, 744; of Painters, 125, 275, 432-3, 481, 548; Dublin, 172, 721-4, of Dublin, 721-4; of Liverpool, Platers' Helpers, 353-4, 360 Plimsoll, S., 354, 370 128; of London, 66 Ploughmen's Union, Perthshire, 136 Paisley, operatives at, 23; weavers Plumbers, 125, 169, 316, 348, 429, of, 23 Papermakers, 68, 77, 90, 92, 438, 493 432-3, 481, 744 Paris, Comte de, 272 Podmore, Frank, 130, 160 Parker, James, 692, 698 Police Union, 509 Parliamentary Committee of Trades Political expenditure, 632 Pollock, Sir F., 597 Union Congress, 361, 554-6, 700; cotton officials demur to alliance Poor Man's Advocate, The, 117, 120 with, 310; origin of, 281, 283 Parnell, Sir Henry, 172-3 Poor Man's Guardian, The, 114, 134. Particulars Clause, 679 136, 142-3, 155 Porters, 442 Patent laws, 368-9 Paterson, Mrs., 336-7 (life) Positivists, 246, 262-4. See Beesly, Crompton, and Harrison Patrimony in apprenticeship, 83 Post Office annuities, 248, 296-7; Patternmakers, 205, 353, 430, 488, employees, 507-8, 539; Savings 551; society formed, 322;

Bank, 262

Post Office workers, 440, 744; union of, 508, 661 Postal and Telegraph Clerks' Association, 507-8, 662 Postmen's Federation, 507-8 Potter, Edmund, 274 Potter, George, 231 Potter, George, 248, 252, 254-5, 272-3, 289, 298, 361, 680 Potters, 133, 147, 108-9, 181, 185, 192, 201, 438, 552; and cooperative production, 336; of Staffordshire, 123; of Wolverhampton, 143; Union, 181, 197 Potters' Examiner, The, 197, 202 Precious metals, workers in, 431, 551 Premium Bonus System, 643 Pressmen, 27; prosecution of, 78. See Compositors Preston, carpenters of, 75; cottonspinners' strike of 1836, 169; gilds of, 14 Price, Rev. H., 112 Price, L. L., 338, 736 Printers. See Compositors, Pressmen, and Typographical Printing Trades, statistics of, 428, 437-8, 744-9 Prior, J. D., 240, 324, 362-3, 372 Prison Officers' Federation, 507 Production for use, 709 Professional Association, 711-12 Profiteering Act, 675 Profit-sharing, 403 Publicity, use of, 222-3 Puddlers. See Iron-workers Pugh, Arthur, 491 Purcell, A., 560

Quarrymen, 433-4 Quittance Paper, 208.

Radstock Miners' Association. See Miners, Somersetshire
Rae, Sir William, 95
Railway Clerks' Association, 504-5, 523, 534, 539, 545, 661, 744
Railway Telegraph Clerks' Association, 523
Railway Working Men's Benefit Society, 523
Railwaymen, 365, 390, 407, 439,

442, 564-5, 522-46, 550, 559, 600-634, 661, 666, 684, 687, 690, 744; statistics of, 407, 744-9 Railway Women's Guild, 497 Ramsey, conference at, 117 Rattening, 260 Raynes, Francis, 89 Razor-grinders, 184, 343 Reade, Charles, 257 "Red Van "Campaign, 405 Reform Act of 1832, 155-6, 177; of 1867, 248; of 1918, 698 Registrar of Friendly Societies, Chief, 261, 423, 619 Renals, E., 339 Rennie, 84 Representative actions, 602 Restoration of Trade Union conditions, 642-3 Restraint of trade, 67, 262, 617 Revolution in Thought, 649-76 Rhondda, 514 Ribbon-weavers, Coventry, 95 Ricardo, David, 178 Richmond the spy, 89 Rick-burning, 144 Riley's Memorials, 3, 6 Ripon, Marquis of, 215, 244. Rites of admission, 127 Roberts, G. H., 666, 692, 698 Roberts, W. P., 182-5, 210, 510 Rochdale, flannel-weavers of, 127; Pioneers, 177, 225 Roebuck, J. A., 148 Rogers, J. E. Thorold, 10, 49, 56 Rollit, Sir Albert, 501 Roman Catholic Unions, 478 Ropemakers, 91, 438 Rose, George, 61, 70 Rosebery, Lord, 374 Rosenblatt, F. F., 175 Rosslyn, Lord, 108 Rotherhithe Watermen, 11 Rowlands, J., 682 Rowlinson, John, 208 Ruegg, A. H., 599 Rules, Trade Union, 651 Rutland, Duke of, 332 Ryan, W. P., 473

Saddlers, 92; of London, 3

Sadler, Michael, 123

Sailmakers, 46, 120, 430 Sailors, 405-6, 438, 440, 500-501, 607, 665; on North-East Coast, 104, 106, 108 St. Leonards, Lord, 230 Salisbury, bootmakers of, 57 Samuel, Herbert, 508 Sankey, Mr. Justice, 518-22, 668 Saturday half-holiday, 229; Oldham Spinners' strike for, 310 Saw-grinders, 260 Sawyers, 433 Scale Beam-makers, 92 Scalemakers, 92 Schoenlank, Dr. Bruno, 25 Scissorsmiths, 39, 80 Scott, W., 124 Scottish Farm Servants' Union, 498-9 Scottish National Operative Tailors' Society. See Tailors Scottish Society of Railway Servants, 524-5 Scottish Typographical Association, 181, 423, 437, 482. See also Compositors Scottish United Operative Masons, 196 Seagoing Engineers' Union. See Engineers Seabam, 166 Secondary School Teachers, 506 Secular Education, 628 Self-governing Workshops, 225 Selley, Ernest, 329, 405 Selsby, 209-10, 234 Senior, Nassau, 103, 139-41, 173 Serfdom of miners, 89 Sewing-machine, introduction of, 228 Shackleton, Sir D., 685 Shaen, Roscoe & Co., 275 Shaftesbury, Lord, 293, 434 Shale Oil-workers, 434 Shaw, Lord, 626 Shearmen of Dundee, 136; of Wiltshire, 144 Sheet Metal-workers, 431 Sheffield, 94; carpenters of, 232, 236; conference at, 257; cutlery made, 39; gilds of, 14; Mercantile and Manufacturing Union, Smart, W., 511

73, 80; outrages at, 259-61, 263, 268-9; prosecution at, 184-5; Trades Council, 242-3, 252, 280, 299; United Trades of, 184. 187 Shepton Mallet, woollen-workers of, 51 Sherbrooke, Lord, 285 Sheridan, R. B., 57, 71 Ship Constructors' and Shipwrights' Association, 551. See also Shipwrights Shipton, George, 240, 290, 298, 325, 331, 362, 395, 406, 408 Shipwrights, 45, 77, 247, 353. 429-30, 490-91, 551; of Deptford, 85; of Liverpool, 39-40, 71; of London, 104, 110; of Newcastle, 106; of the Clyde, 256 Shirland Colliery, 335 Shirt and Collar-makers, Women's Society of, 336 Shoemakers' wages in London in 1669, 21; of Wisbech, early combination of, 3 Sholl, S., 37, 55 Shop Assistants, 440, 503-4, 744; of Sheffield, 109; organisation among, 136-7; statistics of, 745-749 Shop Stewards, 488-90, 659, 690 Shopmen, Railway, 531 Shorrocks, Peter, 278-9 Short Time Committees, 194 Show Stewards, 716 Sidgwick, Henry, 308 Sigismund, the Emperor, 20 Silk-weavers, 37, 54-5, 66, 63, 98, 112, 121, 435-6; at Coventry, 95; at Spitalfields, 37; at Dublin, 37 Silversmiths, 80, 91, 551 Simpson, Mrs., 141 Six Acts, the, 95 Six Hours' Day, 517-22 Skelton, O. D., 414 Slaters, 432 Slesser, H. H., 601, 607, 634 Sliding Scales, 338-42, 391, 510. 734-7 Slosson, P. W., 175

Smillie, R., 513 Smith, Adam, 23, 49, 55, 73, 162 Smith, Adolphe, 379 Smith, Frank, 681 Smith, Sidney, 216, 287, 347 Smith, Sir H. Llewellyn, 404 Smith, Toulmin, 8 Siniths, 46, 121, 205, 207-8, 213, 323, 430-31, 487-8, 491, 744; early clubs of, 46. See Blacksmiths and Engineers Sanwden, Philip, 688, 699 Social Contract, 674, 715 Social Democratic Lederation, 376-377, 384-5, 387-9, 400, 409-14. 652, 635 Social Science Association Report, 14, 23, 227-8 Socialism, revival of, 374-414 Socialist Labour Party, 659 Socialist League, 388 Society for National Regeneration, 132 Society for obtaining Parliamentary Rehef, 62 Somers, Robert, 272 Somerset, clothiers of, 33-5; coalminers of, 44; weavers of, 49, 51, 65; woolien-workers of, 33-4, 49, 51 South Metropolitan Gas Company, 403 South Wales, depression in, 343; miners of, 511, 514, 640, 690, 692; ferment among, 657, 659 Sparkes, Maicolm, 483, 648 Spitalfields, 37, 54-5, 61, 66, 98, 112 Spyers, T. G., 596 Stabilisation of Wages, 643 Staffordshire, iron-workers of, 256 Stalybridge, cotton-spinners of, 2 Standard of Life, the, 303, 369 "Standardisation" on the railways, 535-46 Stationers' Company, 27 Stationmasters, 504-5 Statistics, 422-44, 741-56 Status, rise in, 634-6 Statute of Apprentices, 47-9; rereal of, 57-61. See Apprentices Statute of Labourers, 250

Steam-engine makers, 203, 205, See Engineers Steel-smelters, 430, 491-2, 552, 559, 692, 744 Steffen, Gustav, 86 Stephen, J. Fitzjames, 70, 279 Stephens, Rev. J. R., 302, 309 Stevedores, 403 Stockholm, 634 Stocking Makers' Association, 52 Stockingers. See Frameworkknitters Stockport, cotton-spinners of, 41 Stone, Gilbert, 511 Stonemasons, 125, 127, 149, 151. 166, 172, 176, 184, 191, 196, 199, 200, 202, 213, 223, 226-32, 241, 243, 248, 274, 277, 313, 316, 319-20, 343, 347, 348-9, 354, 383, 408, 429, 432-3, 744; early combinations among, 8; Friendly Society of Operative, 8; Scotland, 174: of Sheffield, 80 Stonemasons' Fortnightly Circular, The, 185, 196, 202 Strike, first use of the word, 46; "in Detail," 199-200; origin of the term, 46; the General, 163-4, 658, 671-3; the right to, 664 Strikes of 1876-89, 347; in 1891-99, 603; in 1900-1910, 603-4; of miners (1912), 513; of police, 509; of railwaymen, (1912) 558-530, (1919) 535-46 Stroud, woollen-workers of, 50 Sturgeon, Charles, 277 Summons to the first T.U. Congress. 738-40 Supply and Demand, 201 Surface workers, 513 Sutherland, Sir William, 541 Sweating, 371, 380-81 Swinton, Archibald, 170 Swinton, potters of, 133 Swiss Railway Management, 760 Symes, Inspector, 509 Symons, J. G., 170 Syndicalism, 654-9, 690 Taff Vale Strike and Case, 526, 600-608

Steadman, W. C., 362, 684

Tailoresses, 136

Tailors, 44, 77, 97, 192, 259, 319, 360, 369, 371, 478, 551, 555, 744;

Tiverton,

Tolpuddle, 145 Tomlinson, 139

workers of, 34, 35

early combination of, in London, 3; First Grand Lodge of Operative, 149; of Cambridge, 68; of London, 67-8; of Nottingham, 75; of Sheffield, 80; statistics of, 436-7; strike of, in London, 1833, 149; strike of, in 1867, 278 Tankard-bearers, 42 Tanners, Bermondsey, prosecution of, 143 Tape Sizers, 477 Tarleton, General, 71 Taunton, 35 Taylor, Henry, 331 Taylor, Sir Herbert, 138, 141 Taylor, W. C., 48 Taylor, William, 23 Teachers, 505-6 Teachers, National Union of, 691 Tea-workers' and General Labourers' Union, 403-4 Technical Engineers, Society of, Telegraph clerks, 440 Terra-cotta, 354 Tester, John, 127 Textile Factory Workers, United Association of, 435, 478, 623 Textile operatives. See Cottonspinners, Cotton-weavers, Woollenworkers, etc. Textile Trades, statistics of, 428-9, 434-6, 475-80, 744-9 Thomas, J. H., 524, 526, 543-4, 680 Thompson, James, 36 Thompson, J. B., 181 Thompson, Colonel Perronet, 148 Thompson, William, 116, 162 Thorne, Will, 402, 497, 684 Thorneycroft, G. B., 734 Thornton, W. T., 272 Ticket-collectors, 504 Tildsley, John, 175 Tillett, B., 402-3, 406, 414, 501 Times, prosecution by the, 78-9 Tinplate Workers, 92, 431, 492; Co-operative Production and, 336; of Wolverhampton, 243; strike of, 194-5

" Tommy Shops," 89 Trade Boards, 647; Acts, 475, 494-495, 686 Trade Disputes Act, 606-8, 686 Trade Disputes Commission, 605-6 Trade Union Act of 1913, 631-4, 687 Trade Union conditions, 637-43 Trade Union, definition of, 1; and the wage-system, 1; legal definition of, 617; life, 444-71; origin of term, 113 Trades Advocate and Herald of Progress, The, 211 Trades Councils, 242-9, 354-5, 453-7. 557-61, 685; exclusion from Congress, 557; federations of, 557; in Labour Party, 557; meetings in Municipal Buildings, 558 Trades Journal, The, 171, 208
Trades' Newspaper and Mechanics' Weekly Journal, The, 111 Trades Union Congress, 350, 358-375, 700, 738-40 Trafalgar Square, 386-8 Tramping, 451-2 Transport and General Workers' Union, 472-3, 499, 656 Transport workers, 438-40; in Ireland, 472-3 Trant, William, 3 Treasury Agreement, 637-8, 642 "Triple Alliance," the, 516, 517 Trollope & Sons, 229, 328 Trow, Edward, 735 Truck, 50, 89, 371 Trusts, 675 Tucker, 268 Tuckwell, Miss Gertrude, 494 Tufnell, E. Carlton, 141 Turner, Ben, 480 Turner, William H., 5 Tyneside and National Labour Union, 439 Typographical Association, 423, 437, 482. See also Compositors Typographical Society, 692. See also Compositors

33-5, 93;

woollen-

Unemployed agitation, 385, 387-8 Wallace, 106 Wallas, Professor Graham, vi. 32, Unemployment benefit, 644, 646 Unemployment, failure to prevent, 62, 89, 97, 175 644; prevention of, 696 Walton, A. A., 289 Wapping Society of Watermen, 11 Union Pilot and Co-operative Intelligencer, The, 124 War Cabinet Committee on Women Union of Post Office Workers, 508, in Industry, 642 551. See also Post Office Em-War Emergency Workers' National Committee, 691 ployees United Garment Workers' Trade War Office and strike-breaking, 247, Union, 551. See also Tailors nited Kingdom Alliance 332-3 United War, Trade Unions during the, 636-Organised Trades, 258-9 649 United Signalmen and Points-Warde, Mark, 128 Wardle, G. T., 689, 695 men, 524, 531 United Textile Factory Operatives' Warehousemen, 442, 503-4 Association, 478 Warpdressers, 477 United Textile Factory Workers' Waterguard Federation, 507 Watermen, London, 11, 14, 21 Association, 435, 478, 623 Watermen's Protective Society, 11 United Trades Association, 207 Watson, Aaron, 181, 296, 511, 625 United Trades' Co-operative Journal, Watson, R. Spence, 339 The, 121 United. See Boilermakers, Brass-Watts, Dr. John, 211 Weavers, an Act touching, 48, 50; workers, Bricklayers, Coachmakers, Curriers, Machine-Paisley, 23 See also Cottonworkers, Patternmakers, Pilots, weavers Plumbers, Stonemasons, etc. Webb, J. J., 37 Unskilled Labourers. See General Weeks, Joseph D., 338 Weiler, Adam, 380-90 Workers Unwin, George, vi, 5, 12, 18, 29, 30, Wellington, Duke of, 145 Wemyss, Earl of, 253 Upholsterers, 432-433; Sewers' West Bromwich Miners, 434 Society (first women's union), 336 Whewell, 617 Whitbread, W., 68, 69 Vehicular workers, 442 White, George, 40, 57, 61, 76, 77, Verinder, F., 329 81, 89, 94, 100, 105, 251 Villiers, Rt. Hon. C. P., 186 Whitley Councils, 490, 646-8, 718 Vincent, Charles Bassett, 523 Widnes election, 699 Vincent, J. E. Matthew, 329 Wilkinson, Rev. J. Frome, 128 Vogel, P., 684 Williams, John, 146 Williams, J., 387, 400 Williams, J. E., 526 Voice of the People, The, 117, 122-4 Wade, Rev. A. S., 147 Williams, R., 497, 500 Williamson, S., 393 Wage, a legal minimum in Gloucestershire, 50 Wilson, J., 511 Wage-System, relation of Trade Wilson, J. Havelock, 406, 665-6, Unions to the, I 669-70, 632

Wakefield, E. G., 35, 61 of, 65; woollen workers of, 49 Wakley, Thomas, 148, 171, 173, 186 Winters, Thomas, 195

Wilson, John, 680

Wiltshire, shearmen

weavers of, 49; woollen-weavers

of, 144;

Wages in London in 1669, 21

Wakefield, cloth trade of, 35

Wakefield, E. G., 35, 61

Waiters' Union, 684

Wisbech, sheemakers of, 3 Witanagemet, 20 Wolverhampton, 2a8, 259; Building Trades Joint Committee, 308; timplate workers of, 243; (strike), 194-5; Trades Council, 399 Women Clerks and Secretaries, Association of, 505° Women in Engineering, 638, 642-3 Women in Trade Unionism, 335-6, 424, 426-7, 474, 494-7 Women's Co-operative Guild, 497 Women's Labour League, 407 Women's Protective and Provident League, 336 Women's Wages, 424, 642 Wood, G. H., 86, 303 Woods, Samuel, 352, 684 Woodsawyers, 18 Woolcombers, 36-7, 44-5, 90, 127, 436, 430 Woollen Cloth Weavers, Act of 1756, 50-51 Woollen Cloth Weavers, Fraternity of, 66 Woollen Workers, 40-41, 435-6; of | Young, Robert, 490

Yorkalire, 123, 125; smitistics of, 480 Woolstapiers, 37, 45, 83, 00, 178, 203; London Society of, 203; Old Amicable Society of, 37 Woolwich, 697 Wordester, Gild Ordinances of, 8: Trades Council, 558 Workers' Union, 498-9, 744 Working Men's Association, 255, 298, 680 Working Rules, 228 Workmen's Compensation Act, 364-6 Works Committee, 490, 647, 707, 716 Worsted manufacture, 36-7 Wright, Justice R. S., 68, 279, 362

Yearly bond, 44, 89, 169 Yeomen, 4, 5, 6 Yorkshire, clothiers of, 35-6, 67; miners, 182, 301, 304-5, 349, 370, 433, 510-11, 522, 744 Young, Ralph, 340, 342

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