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INDUSTRIAL TRAINING

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING,

WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE
CONDITIONS PREVAILING IN LONDON

15 SEP 1928

BY

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PREFACE

THIS book has gradually grown to its present scope out of an enquiry into which I originally entered as Shaw Student of the London School of Economics. A previous investigation into the problems of unemployment in the London Building Trades had impressed upon me the great importance of the question of training, and led me to start to examine it in relation to this industry. It soon became obvious, however, that the investigation required to cover a far wider field, and, as its subject-matter broadened, its title—mercifully—narrowed, till what began as *Modern Methods of Industrial Training in the London Building Trades* took final shape as *Industrial Training*.

I have attempted to describe in my opening chapter the actual methods of enquiry which I adopted ; but there is one point that requires to be emphasized here. This is that the book is mainly a description of the methods and conditions prevailing in London. I have tried, indeed, to compare and contrast them with those of other cities ; but in the main it is an investigation of London, or rather of what is known nowadays as Greater London.

This includes not only the County Area, but those surrounding districts which really combine with it to form a single whole. Its total population is just over 7,250,000, or rather more than one-fifth of the whole population of England and Wales.

In applying to other places, however, the results of an enquiry into London conditions, there are two questions which have to be answered. First, are the trades of London sufficiently varied and representative for the purpose? Here, with certain reservations, an affirmative reply can be given. It is true that a few large industries, notably coal-mining, the conversion of metals and the textiles are almost non-existent; but apart from them, London practises a very large number of trades, and, even in proportion to its size, has a greater variety of employments than almost any other English city with the possible exception of Birmingham. On this point, therefore, a satisfactory answer is possible.

Secondly, do the methods of London fairly represent those which generally prevail? To a great extent, as I have found it necessary to emphasize more than once, the special acuteness of London problems is not due so much to causes that are in operation there and nowhere else as to the fact that they are found in it in a more extreme form and to a more marked degree. Thus what has been said of the decline of Formal Apprenticeship in the Capital, by no means holds good of other places. The mix-

ture of methods, again, is in few other towns so extreme as it is in London. Still it is equally true that similar tendencies are in existence almost everywhere, though they have not been carried so far. London, therefore, appears to exhibit not the average, but the extreme, form of modern conditions, and this, in addition to its size and the variety of its industries, gives its methods of Industrial Training their very great importance. Modern problems have been developed most fully there, and their complications are the greatest. Consequently the difficulties of other places are the same, only less formidable, the remedies similar, but more simple.

In conclusion, I wish to thank most heartily all those whose generous help and assistance has been most ungrudgingly given to me. To specify them individually would be impossible, for their name veritably would be legion; but there are a few to whom I wish to accord individual mention. First of all, I would express very sincere gratitude to Professor Lees-Smith, M.P., under whom I have worked at the London School of Economics in the preparation and writing of this book, and to whose guidance and supervision I owe much; and to Mr. L. L. Price, Treasurer of Oriel College, Oxford, who has helped me in ways too numerous to mention, and not least as a ready listener to many, and, I fear, long-winded discourses. I have also to thank most cordially those who have read and criticized in manuscript various parts of the proofs: Dr. Lilian Knowles,

Reader in Economic History in the University of London, who has in many other ways also given most kind help and interest; Mr. Cyril Jackson, L.C.C.; Mr. W. H. Beveridge, Director of Labour Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance; and Mr. R. H. Tawney. Nor must I omit to mention and acknowledge the help of others, of Mr. B. M. Headicar, Librarian of the London School of Economics, for much assistance in getting the book through the press; of Mr. Kenneth Cotton, who prepared the index; and of Miss Marion Meadowcroft, who converted a particularly vile and involved manuscript into some of the clearest typing it has been my pleasure to use. To them and to all the others, who have so fully and freely helped me, I desire to express, however faultily, the gratitude that I feel, and to express also the hope that the results may be not altogether unworthy of their kindness.

Finally, great as is my debt to them, I feel it is equalled and even surpassed by that which I owe to the London School of Economics and to All Souls College, Oxford. From the former I received the gift of a Shaw Research Studentship, founded by Mrs. Bernard Shaw, to whom also I wish to acknowledge my debt, for the purpose of encouraging enquiries such as I have tried to make this. I can safely say that this book could not have come into existence at all but for the School, and it now honours me by including it in its series of studies in Economics and Political Science. To it I am indebted for a

great deal in this connection and for still more in other ways.

To All Souls I owe more than I think I shall ever be able to express, and more certainly than I can venture to try to express here. It is only of the present book, therefore, that I wish to speak now. For certainly, were it not for the Fellowship in Economics, to which I was elected in 1909, it could never have reached the dimensions it has done. It is through the College, therefore, that I was able to obtain the time and the leisure to treat the matter even as fully as I have done.

It only remains for me to leave this book, now that it at last sees the light, to the kindness of its readers. Its appearance is only after too many delays, and I can but acknowledge the patience and forbearance of those concerned. I can only hope that it may prove to have justified them.

NORMAN DEARLE.

THE LONDON SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS,

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APPENDIX I

FORMS USED AND QUESTIONS ASKED IN APPROACHING EMPLOYERS, FOREMEN, TRADE UNION OFFICIALS AND OTHERS.

A. Form of Questions adopted in dealing with Employers and showing the Chief Points on which Information was sought.¹

1. What is the policy of your firm as regards teaching boys the trade.
2. What classes of mechanics do you employ?
3. At what age does a boy usually start? Does he come direct from school.
4. What is the usual period of service? Is it sufficient?
5. Is there any recognized proportion of boys to journeymen?
6. Are any preliminary precautions taken to see that a boy is suited to his trade? If so what are they?
7. Do you give any preference to your employes' sons?
8. Do you use indentures and premiums? At what wages does a boy start? Does he get continuity of employment?
9. What part is played in teaching the boy by (a) the employer, (b) the foreman, (c) the men in the shop?
10. What work does a lad start at? How does he progress?
11. Do you insist on your boys attending Technical Schools?
12. What part do such schools play in teaching a trade?
13. Is your trade "picked up" by errand boys, improvers or labourers?
14. Is your trade recruited at all from outside London?

B. Form of Questions used in dealing with Trade Union Officials and showing the Chief Points to which Enquiry was directed.

- x. What is the usual method of teaching boys in your trade? Are any other methods adopted?

¹ The questions in this and the following table were used chiefly to form a basis for oral discussion of the subject, rather than for the purpose of obtaining written answers.

2. Does your Trade Union lay down any rules respecting apprentices and learners?

3. What is the usual age at which boys start to learn a trade and the usual period of service?

4. What is (a) the normal, (b) the recognized, proportion of boys to men.

5. Are any measures taken by the Union to assist its members in placing their sons, or to see that the lads who are put to the trade are suited to it?

6. Are indentures and premiums usual? Is there any regulation of learners' wages? Do they get continuity of employment?

7. What is the actual method of teaching usually adopted, and the part played in it by (a) employers, (b) foremen, (c) the men.

8. Are the latter favourably disposed towards the lads?

9. What attitude is adopted by the Trade Union towards the Technical Schools? Does it encourage, e.g. by means of prizes, or compel, the lads to attend?

10. What is the actual value of a Technical School to the lads? In what relation does it stand to their work in the shop?

11. Should lads move about at the close of their time?

12. Is the trade picked up in any way, e.g. by learners, errand boys or labourers?

13. Has the development of machinery influenced the methods of teaching the trade?

14. Do many provincial workmen come into your trade in London? Are they better taught than the London men?

C. List of the Chief Questions asked of the Students¹ of Trade and Technical Schools for the purpose of obtaining their Industrial Histories.

1. Method by which the boy learnt or was learning his trade, e.g. by apprenticeship, etc.

2. Age on leaving school and at the time of the interview.

3. Father's trade.

4. Boy's reasons for choosing his employment.

5. Jobs, if any, at which he worked previous to the one on which he was engaged at the time of the interview, and details of them.

6. Wages received in his present and previous jobs.

7. Continuity or discontinuity of his employment.

8. Character of the shops in which he has worked. Numbers of journeymen and learners employed.

¹ These were in all cases interviewed personally.

9. The kind of work on which the boy has been engaged. How much has he learnt? Does he actually use the tools?

10. Who is responsible for teaching him? Is he actually taught? What is the employer's attitude in this respect?

11. Attendance at Trade Schools: for how many sessions? for how many hours per week? is he let off early from the workshop? how did he come to go to such a school? what attitude have his employers adopted towards his attendance at it?

APPENDIX II.

TABLES ILLUSTRATING IN DETAIL THE TRADE DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION IN LONDON AND IN THE REST OF ENGLAND AND WALES.

A. Tables giving the number of workers employed in some of the larger industries of London. Dealers are, so far as possible, excluded.

(i.) *Industries in which the general level of skill is high and in which London has an excess, often a considerable excess, of workers.*

Industry.	London.		Rest of England and Wales.		Number in London if the proportion were the same as in the Rest of England and Wales.	Actual Excess in London.
	Number.	Per 10,000 Occupied.	Number.	Per 10,000 Occupied.		
Precious Metals, etc.	33,670	156	49,069	53	11,471	22,199
Building and Works of Construction .	217,324	1,004	728,803	785	169,903	47,421
Woodwork and Furniture	70,121	324	146,268	157	33,981	36,140
Skins and Leather .	18,597	86	47,294	51	11,038	7,559
Paper and Printing	74,520	344	100,979	109	23,592	50,928
Total	414,232	1,914	1,072,413	1,154	249,985 ¹	164,247

¹ In this table and in tables (ii.) and (iii.) the totals in this column are those obtained by adding together the separate items in it and not by taking the total number per 10,000 at the rate given for the Rest of England and Wales.

(ii.) *Industries in which the general level of skill is moderate, and in which London has some excess of workers.*

Industry.	London.		Rest of England and Wales.		Number in London if the proportion were the same as in the Rest of England and Wales.	Actual Excess in London.
	Number.	Per 10,000 Occupied.	Number.	Per 10,000 Occupied.		
Dress	89,625	414	285,710	308	66,663	22,962
Chemicals, Drugs, Dyes, etc	21,126	98	53,723	58	12,553	8,573
Production of Food Gas, Water, Electricity and Sanitary Service	33,748	156	111,201	120	25,972	7,776
	28,168	130	74,071	80	17,315	10,853
Total	172,667	798	524,705	565	122,503	50,164

(iii.) *Industries, other than those practically non-existent in London, in which it shows a considerable deficiency of workers.*

Industry.	London.		Rest of England and Wales.		Number in London if the proportion were the same as in the Rest of England and Wales.	Actual Deficiency in London.
	Number.	Per 10,000 Occupied.	Number.	Per 10,000 Occupied.		
Metals, Machines, Implements and Conveyances ¹	162,538	751	1,112,391	1,197	259,075	96,537
Bricks, Cement, Pottery and Glass	8,178	38	119,603	129	27,920	19,742
Total	170,716	789	1,231,994	1,326	286,995	116,279

¹ Excluding the Conversion of Metals.

B. Tables showing the numbers of male workers in certain individual trades in which London possesses a marked proportional or gross excess of workers.

(i) *Skilled occupations showing a marked excess (i.e. more than twice as many in proportion employed in London as in the Rest of England and Wales).*

Trade.	London.		Rest.		Relative Proportions (between the numbers per 10,000 ¹ (Rest = 100).
	Number.	Per 10,000 Occupied.	Number.	Per 10,000 Occupied.	
Electrical Apparatus Makers	27,671	128	57,075	61	210
Gold and Silversmiths and Jewellers	6,597	30	13,068	14	214
Scientific and Surgical Instrument Makers	6,985	32	7,283	8	400
Musical Instrument Makers	8,449	39	5,666	6	650
Painters, Decorators and Glaziers	61,056	282	123,507	133	212
Gasfitters	8,070	37	9,046	10	370
Cabinet Makers	19,393	90	30,617	33	273
French Polishers	8,164	38	9,187	10	380
Upholsterers	5,786	27	10,910	12	225
House and Shop Fitters	5,309	25	8,265	9	278
Wood Carvers	5,408	25	5,957	6	417
Wooden Box and Packing-case Makers	4,788	22	6,959	7	314
Printers and Lithographers	57,471	266	70,547	76	350
Bookbinders	7,248	33	5,712	6	550
Furriers and Skinners	5,605	26	2,921	3	867
Leather Goods Makers	5,252	24	5,377	6	400
Brush and Broom Makers	3,454	16	6,359	7	229
Motor Drivers	10,486	48	9,457	10	480
Total	257,192	1,188	387,913	418	261

¹ The number per 10,000 employed in the trades concerned in the rest of England and Wales is in this and the following tables taken as 100, and the number per 10,000 employed in Greater London is shown as a percentage of this.

(ii) *Occupations, predominantly low-skilled, showing a marked excess in London.*

Occupation.	London.		Rest.		Relative Proportions between the numbers per 10,000 (Rest = 100).
	Number.	Per 10,000 Occupied.	Number.	Per 10,000 Occupied.	
Porters, Messengers, and Watchmen	73,850	341	149,158	161	212
Warehousemen	3,256	15	6,538	7	214
Builders' Labourers	27,696	128	38,330	41	312
Paperhangers and White-washers	4,249	20	1,711	2	1,000
Stationery, Envelope and Paper Box and Bag Makers	5,922	27	5,836	6	450
Cellar-men	5,608	26	9,346	10	260
Barmen	13,177	61	15,516	17	359
Total	133,758	618	226,435	244	253

(iii.) *Occupations showing a smaller proportional, but a large gross, excess.*

Occupation.	London.		Rest.		Relative Proportions between the numbers per 10,000 (Rest = 100)
	Number.	Per 10,000 Occupied.	Number.	Per 10,000 Occupied.	
Cabmen and Stablemen	22,990	106	52,371	56	189
Carmen and Van-boys	84,158	389	211,120	227	171
Dock Labour	28,058	130	74,581	80	162
Plumbers	14,886	69	50,082	54	128
Total	150,092	693	388,154	418	166

C. Table showing occupations in which London has a noticeable deficiency of any kind.

Occupation.	London.		Rest.		Relative Proportions between the numbers per 10,000 (Rest = 100)
	Number.	Per 10,000 Occupied.	Number	Per 10,000 Occupied.	
Railway Engine Drivers and Stokers	9,580	44	60,103	65	68
Iron Founders	3,551	16	98,640	106	15
Blacksmiths and Strikers . .	13,006	60	112,299	121	50
Erectors, Fitters, Turners (including Labourers) . .	16,897	78	151,541	163	48
Masons and Masons' Labourers	5,125	24	57,888	62	39
Navvies and Paviours . . .	8,526	39	59,125	64	61
Brick, Plaster and Cement Makers	1,010	5	58,099	63	8
Earthenware and Pottery Makers	2,320	11	38,104	41	27
Tanners	999	5	9,570	10	50
Total	61,014	282	645,369	696	41

APPENDIX III.

TABLES ILLUSTRATING THE ATTENDANCE AT TRADE AND CONTINUATION SCHOOLS IN LONDON.

A. The Number of Classes which qualified for Grants held in the Chief Groups of Subjects in the County Boroughs and certain Administrative Counties in England in the year ending July 31, 1912.¹

Subject.	Number of Classes.	Percentage of Total Number
1. English	9,033	12·9
2. Languages	3,261	4·7
3. Mathematics	10,936	15·6
(a) Mathematics (3,027).		
(b) Practical Mathematics (7,909).		
4. Science	4,780	6·8
5. Mental Science and Psychology	206	0·3
6. Sociology	1,769	2·5
7. Industrial Subjects	7,413	10·6
(a) Engineering and Metal Trades (3,214).		
(b) Building and Woodworking Trades (1,680).		
(c) Chemical Trades (361).		
(d) Mining and Metallurgy (857).		
(e) Textile Trades (710).		
(f) Clothing Trades (245).		
(g) Book and Printing Trades (234).		
(h) Home Industries (22).		
(j) Miscellaneous Trades (90).		
8. Rural Subjects	474	0·7
9. Nautical Subjects	54	0·1
10. Commercial Subjects	13,220	18·9
11. Domestic Subjects	10,328	14·8
12. Ambulance, Midwifery and Home Nursing	1,510	2·2
13. Physical Training	1,827	2·6
14. Manual Instruction	1,749	2·5
15. Art	2,188	3·1
16. Music	1,143	1·6
Total	69,891	100·0

It should be noted that the 9,644 classes in Domestic Subjects are confined to girls.

¹ Statistics of Public Education for England and Wales. Part I, Edu-

B. Table showing the Number of Enrolments in Evening Classes and the Number and Percentage of Students who qualified for Grant, in London and elsewhere, in the year ending July 31, 1912.¹

	Boys and Men.			Women and Girls.		
	Number of Enrolments.	Number who qualified for grants.	Percentage who qualified for grants.	Number of Enrolments.	Number who qualified for grants.	Percentage who qualified for grants.
London	96,247	70,508	73.2	80,965	56,744	70.1
Other Administrative Counties (not working under Rule 34)	91,156	76,116	83.5	62,165	52,731	84.8
County Boroughs	150,456	132,206	87.9	97,598	82,926	85.0
Total	337,859	278,830	82.5	240,728	192,401	79.9

cational Statistics, 1911-12, Table 86, pp. 227-230 (Col. 6934 of 1913). The Evening Schools' Statistics for England are returned in two parts. Of these one gives the figures for the County Boroughs and for those Administrative Counties which do not work under the provisions of Article 34 of the Evening Schools Code, and the other those for the twenty-five Administrative Counties which are working under that Article. The statistics in this table are those given in the first part which includes London. It may be added that in the districts covered by it the number of students enrolled was 578,587 in 1911-12, of whom 471,231 qualified for grant, as compared with 144,189, of whom 135,349 qualified for grant, in Counties working under Article 34.

¹ Table 90 of Cd. 6934.

Table showing the Proportion of all Boys and Girls under twenty years of age in the County of London, who were enrolled as Evening Students and who qualified for Grants in the year ending July 31, 1909.

Age.	Boys.		Girls.	
	Enrolments.	Grants Earned.	Enrolments.	Grants Earned.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
12-14 . . .	10.0	2.6	23.2	14.3
14-15 . . .	48.5	26.4	59.4	36.7
15-20 . . .	22.5	15.4	16.0	10.4
14-20 . . .	25.5	16.7	19.4	12.5

D. Proportions of Students earning Grants to the Total Number enrolled at each year of age from 14 to 21, and above that age, during the year ending July 31, 1909.

Age.	Boys and Men.	Girls and Women.	Total.
14-15	54.4	61.6	57.6
15-16	64.7	66.5	65.4
16-17	68.5	64.7	67.1
17-18	69.2	64.3	67.4
18-19	71.1	64.7	68.6
19-20	71.7	64.5	68.9
20-21	71.7	64.6	68.8
Over 21	73.1	69.2	71.1
14-20	65.4	64.3	64.9
Average	68.2	66.4	67.4

E. Table showing the Number of Students engaged in certain Trades and attending Evening Schools of any kind in London in 1910-11, and the total Numbers of occupied Males in the County of London in those Trades between the ages of 14 and 20 at the Census of 1901, as given in a paper read by Sir Robert Blair, Education Officer of the London County Council in March, 1911.¹

Industry or Trade.	Total at Evening Schools.	Estimated Numbers engaged in those occupations at the Census of 1901.
<i>Building Trades—</i>		
Bricklayers	228	1,143
Carpenters and Joiners	1,492	3,834
Painters and Decorators	464	1,814
Plasterers	107	622
Plumbers	834	2,053
Masons and Stone Carvers	291	507
<i>Engineering and Metal Trades—</i>		
Electrical Instrument Makers	294	2,526
Brass Finishers	244	771
Boiler Makers, Platers and Rivetters	167	579
Fitters, Turners and Machinememen	2,201	1,517
Metal Plate Workers	341	2,645
Motor and Cycle Engineers	412	645
Blacksmiths and Strikers	346	1,274
<i>Wood and Furniture Trades—</i>		
Cabinet Makers	1,078	2,505
French Polishers	210	1,290
Upholsterers	295	802
Coach and Van Builders and Wheelwrights	269	875
Wood Carvers and Gilders	217	919
<i>Art Metal, etc.—</i>		
Gold and Silver Smiths and Jewellers	590	1,128
Optical and Scientific Instrument Makers (other than Sight-Testing Opticians)	412	843
Musical Instrument Makers	114	1,312
Horological Trades	135	359
<i>Printing and Bookbinding—</i>		
Printing and Lithography (including paper and stationery trades)	2,794	9,362
Bookbinding	511	1,033
Photographic Trades	526	352
<i>Leather Trades—</i>		
Leather Manufacture	108	1,212
Boot and Shoe Manufacture	539	2,263
Saddlery and Harness Makers	114	489

¹ The figures for the total number occupied between 14 and 20 are those of Sir Robert Blair's paper, based on the Census of 1901. In a note

introductory to the statistics, he states that "the list of occupations was not based on the classification of the Census returns, but was drawn up after consultation with the principals of various polytechnics, technical institutes . . . and represents the best that can at present be done with the information given on the students' enrolment forms." Hence the figures given in the Census of 1911 would not, owing to differences of classification, be always strictly comparable with those of the number attending evening schools. It must be remembered that in many trades, there was between 1901 and 1911 a decline, and even a considerable decline, in the numbers of youths between 14 and 20. In all Evening Schools in London, the students between these ages were in the session of 1911-12 rather less than three-fifths of the total number in the case of men and boys, and less than one-half in that of women and girls.

Sir Robert Blair also stated that students would not in all cases be attending classes bearing directly on their occupations, but that the great majority would be.

APPENDIX IV.

TABLES ILLUSTRATING THE CHANGES IN THE PERCENTAGES OF UNEMPLOYMENT FROM 1870-1909,

A. Table giving the ten-yearly averages of Unemployment from 1870 to 1909 in certain Industries and Unions.¹

Industry or Union.	1870-9.	1880-9.	1890-9.	1900-9.
All Unions making Returns (uncorrected percentage)	3.8	5.6	4.4	4.8 (a) ²
Percentage of Sixteen Trade Unions making continuous returns since 1873	4.7 ³	5.7	4.6	5.3 (b)
Engineering, Shipbuilding and Metal Trades	5.0	7.0	6.0	6.8
Amalgamated Engineers	3.6	4.4	4.3	4.9
Iron Founders	7.6	8.1	6.3	9.1
Iron Moulders (Scotland)	8.9	17.3	12.3	14.8
Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders	6.5 ³	10.3	9.1	11.2
Building Trades (Amalgamated Carpenters and Joiners only)	2.3	5.4	2.4	6.8
Woodworking and Furniture Trades	3.5	3.2	2.9	5.3
United Coachmakers	4.4	4.0	2.7	4.7
Furnishing Trades Association	0.9	2.7	1.4	5.4
Amalgamated Woodcutting Machinists	1.5 ³	2.1	1.8	5.1
Printing and Bookbinding Trades	2.4	2.5	4.1	4.7
London Compositors	2.5	3.1	3.8	5.1
Typographical Association	2.0	1.9	4.2	4.9
London Bookbinders	3.2	2.5	4.6	5.8

¹ The returns given are confined to the general percentage, the sixteen Trade Unions that have made continuous returns since 1873, and the four groups which make the bulk of the returns. The miscellaneous group of "other trades" is omitted. The way in which the returns have been made does not allow of a fair comparison over a long series of years, and no detailed figures are given for individual trades. In the returns for these trades there is not the same marked tendency for an increase in the percentages during the last decade (1900-9).

² In 1908 a change in the method of estimating the percentage was made. The new percentage (a) averaged about 0.4 per cent. a year less than the old one (b), for the years for which both were published. For purposes of comparison with earlier decades the latter is much fairer and this is available till the close of 1908, and is estimated for 1909 to complete the general percentage for the decade 1900-9.

³ 1873-9 only.

B. Table showing the Percentage of Unemployment in certain Industries and Unions during the chief periods of Good Trade between 1870 and 1909. (The averages given are for the two lowest consecutive years in each boom.)

Industry or Union.	Early Seven- ties (usually 1872-3)	Early Eighties (usually 1882-3)	About 1889- 1890.	About 1899- 1900.	About 1906- 1907.
All Unions making Returns (uncorrected percentage) .	1.0	2.4	2.1	2.2 (a) ¹ 2.6 (b)	3.6 (a) ¹ 4.1 (b)
Percentage of Sixteen Trade Unions making Continuous Returns since 1873 . . .	1.4	2.4	2.0	2.3	4.6
Engineering, Shipbuilding and Metal Trades	1.1	2.5	2.2	2.5	4.5
Amalgamated Engineers . .	0.7	2.0	1.8	2.3	2.9
Iron Founders	1.9	4.7	2.3	2.4	5.2
Iron Moulders (Scotland) .	2.2	9.5	5.9	6.1	7.9
Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders	1.1	1.2	2.7	2.2	8.1
Building Trades (Amalgamated Carpenters and Joiners only)	0.6	3.5	2.0	1.0	7.1
Woodworking and Furniture Trades	1.9	2.5	2.3	2.1	4.7
United Coachmakers . . .	2.3	2.9	2.4	2.2	3.7
Furnishing Trades Associa- tion	0.1	1.7	0.8	0.9	4.8
Amalgamated Woodcutting Machinists	0.9	1.7	0.8	1.7	4.8
Printing and Bookbinding Trades	1.4	2.1	2.3	3.8	4.4
London Compositors . . .	1.3	2.8	2.4	3.0	4.5 ^a
Typographical Association .	1.1	1.6	1.6	4.5	4.4
London Bookbinders . . .	1.7	1.3	1.2	4.0	5.5

¹ See note 2 to Table A.

^a The course of Unemployment with the London Compositors differed from that of other trades, being lowest in 1903-4.

C. Table showing the Percentage of Unemployment in certain Industries and Unions during the chief periods of Trade Depression between 1870 and 1909. (The averages given are for the two highest consecutive years in each Depression.)

Industry or Union.	Later Seventies (usually 1878-9)	Mid Eighties (usually 1878-9)	Mid Nineties (usually 1893-4) or 1894-5)	1902-5 (usually 1904-5)	1908-9 (usually 1908-9)
All Unions making Returns (uncorrected percentage) .	9.1	9.7	7.2	5.5 (a) ¹ 6.0 (b)	7.7 (a) ¹ 8.1 (b)
The Sixteen Trade Unions making Continuous Re- turns since 1873	9.3	10.1	8.0	6.9	10.9 ²
Engineering, Shipbuilding and Metal Trades	12.1	13.2	11.3	7.5	12.7
Amalgamated Engineers . . .	8.7	7.1	8.4	5.4	9.3
Iron Founders	19.2	13.0	10.8	10.1	17.7
Iron Moulders (Scotland) . .	20.3	32.9	19.0	13.7	29.8
Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders	9.4	21.9	16.6	12.8	22.1
Building Trades (Amalgamated Carpenters and Joiners only)	7.1	7.6	4.1	7.6	11.6
Woodworking and Furnishing Trades	6.3	4.4	4.2	6.3	7.9
United Coachmakers	8.7	5.2	3.4	5.1	7.6
Furnishing Trades Associa- tion	3.1	4.3	2.4	6.7	10.0
Amalgamated Woodcutting Machinists	2.5	2.8	2.5	5.4	8.4
Printing and Bookbinding Trades	3.6	2.5	5.3	4.9	5.5
London Compositors	4.1	3.3	5.1	5.0	6.1
Typographical Association . .	3.3	1.8	5.8	5.0	5.1
London Bookbinders	4.9	3.9	5.9	6.4	7.1

¹ See note 2 to Table A.² Estimated for 1909.

APPENDIX V.

THE TELEGRAPH MESSENGER AND THE VAN BOY.¹

One of the most carelessly used terms of to-day is that of Blind Alley Employment. In its usual sense, it refers to jobs which give employment from the time a boy leaves school up to the age of from eighteen to twenty, and then compel him to seek other work. Thus they only last during boyhood, and do nothing to fit him for anything else. Now, employments of this kind, which do not absorb their boys at all or only a small proportion of them, are to be regarded as Blind Alleys *par excellence*; since unless special arrangements are made, they must normally end in this way.

But the term may also be used in a wider sense. In its essence Blind Alley employment does not consist solely in lack of permanence in a particular job, but in the failure to provide boys with a definite occupation. Thus a skilled trade may generally give permanent employment to those who enter it, but for various reasons some who do so, reach manhood without learning anything. They may, for instance, be badly trained and when they are men be unable to get work. Or, they may fail to stick to their job and wander from trade to trade, and learn none of them. In either case, they grow up without having any single definite thing which they can do. Hence the job that ends at about eighteen is the chief but not the sole source of this; but Blind Alley employment covers every failure to acquire a trade or occupation, using the latter in a wide sense to include all permanent work of any kind. All boys cannot become mechanics, every boy can and should acquire during boyhood some definite job, to which he can turn his hand afterwards.

Thirdly, there is not only Blind Alley work, but what may be called the Blind Alley character. Not only must a man have learnt some definite job, but even when unskilled, he needs to be steady, regular and disciplined. Hence two questions have to be asked. First, does a job provide permanent employment for its boys? And, secondly, does it fit them to become steady and regular workmen? And its character as a Blind Alley will

¹ Reprinted from the *Clare Market Review*, November, 1913.

depend on the answer to both. In this respect, some occupations are more dangerous than others. Thus the first Report of the Standing Committee on Boy Labour in the Post Office said: "While the more or less intermittent nature of a messenger's work, and its lack of any directly educational influence, no doubt tend to reduce, they do not destroy the value of the strict discipline and physical training under which the lads pass their service." On the other hand, the van boy has little discipline and control, he has to undergo little steady exertion, and at the same time his hours are often unduly long and quite preclude attendance at evening schools. The object of this article is to consider these two occupations as Blind Alleys from each of these aspects, and to discuss the desirability of the measures proposed or adopted for removing or mitigating their Blind Alley character.

There are several alternative methods of dealing with such employments. First, in extreme cases there is absolute prohibition, on the ground that, as in the case of Juvenile Street Trading, moral and industrial results are so serious that this alone can effectively prevent them. Secondly, it may be possible to remove, partly or wholly, the Blind Alley character of a job, either by reducing the number of boys employed in it, or by increasing the openings for permanent employment. Where feasible, this is perhaps the best alternative, but in the majority of cases such complete re-organization is not practicable. A third line of policy includes regulation of hours and conditions of labour to fit the boys better for other employment later on, and proper arrangements by means of Labour Exchanges to draft them at the right time into positions suited to their capacity.

The new organization in the Post Office that is now nearly complete forms an admirable instance of the successful adoption of the second alternative. Until a few years ago, the Post Office Messenger formed a stock example of Blind Alley employment. Every year it was necessary to dismiss some thousands of boys solely for lack of prospects, and many of them found their chances of good permanent employment destroyed, or seriously injured, in spite of advantages in the occupation as regards discipline and control. Further, owing to the standard of attainment required by the Post Office, the boys thus turned adrift were those who had reached the seventh standard at the Elementary Schools. At length a popular outcry against these conditions resulted in the appointment in 1910 of a strong Standing Committee on Boy Labour in the Post Office.

On beginning its work it found an establishment of boys amounting to nearly 16,000, including, however, a certain number of them between sixteen and nineteen, who had qualified for per-

manent employment. The total numbers dismissed at or before sixteen were 6,185 in 1908-9, and 6,267 in 1909-10, or counting only those dismissed for lack of prospects, 4,322 and 4,471. The first step was to consider and adopt various means of economizing boy labour. In certain indoor work, girl probationers were substituted for boys, 485 of the former with shorter hours eventually replacing 334 of the latter. Other expedients were the increased use of cycles, the employment of Assistant Postmen in the delivery of telegrams, telephonic delivery, and the use of pneumatic tubes and other labour-saving devices. Thus from 15,790 in March, 1910, the establishment had been reduced to 14,506 in September 1911, with the prospect of further reduction to 14,000. Eventually the Third Report of the Committee, dated July 23, 1913, expressed the hope that the final figure would be 13,000 or at most 13,500. This latter means on the old basis a reduction in dismissals for lack of prospects of over 1,100 annually.

Secondly, the Committee examined the means of increasing the numbers of boys who could be absorbed either in the Post Office itself or in other branches of the Government service. The latter were found to be unlikely to provide for many; but a considerable increase is expected in those kept on by the Post Office. They estimate that eventually the total number will be some 2,275 annually, some 1,650 of these being promoted on reaching the age of nineteen, and the rest earlier. Previous to 1911 the number absorbed never reached 1,700. This will mean a further reduction in dismissals of 600 per annum.

Thirdly, the number of boys required to keep up a given establishment obviously varies with the period of service. Under the old system, when the majority were dismissed at sixteen, over 6,000 fresh boys were taken on yearly. Now, an increase of the time worked by each of them leads to a corresponding reduction in these numbers, since two working five years each are equivalent to five working only two. Moreover, many boys use the Post Office temporarily and leave it when they find better work, and this leakage increases with every addition to the period of service. The Committee propose, therefore, to extend this till nineteen, thus making it last for five years instead of two, and as a result they expect to absorb permanently every boy of sufficient character and attainments who wishes to remain in the Postal Service. Interim measures are also proposed to meet the difficulties of transition, and already the numbers dismissed from lack of prospects at sixteen have been reduced from 4,322 in 1908 to 1,227 in 1911, and 433 in 1912. Finally, when the scheme has got into full working order, the Committee expect that some 1,600 boys will require to be provided for each year on reaching the age of nineteen and that about 1,650 places will be available.

Finally, measures have been taken to organize continued education. Special classes for messengers are arranged where possible, and up to sixteen four hours attendance a week has been made compulsory for all of them. The work has always had on the whole a favourable effect on the character of those employed in it, and previous defects have been removed by better organization. Hence the Committee can justly claim that under their scheme employment in the Post Office now offers unusually good prospects, and that the problem with which they had to deal is very near complete solution. In short the result of their policy has been to turn the boy-messenger's job from a Blind Alley into an occupation that will last him through life.

Such a complete solution of the difficulty is, unhappily, not often possible, and for many reasons it is particularly inapplicable to the case of vanboy labour. The openings for the Post Office messenger are both better and more numerous than the carmen's jobs which are as a rule the best the vanguards can hope for. Hence neither can they be tied down for four or five years with nothing better to offer them at the close, nor, even if they could be induced to stay so long, would there be sufficient places to absorb them. Again the Post Office is a single undertaking organized on an enormous scale. Carrying work is divided up among a large number of businesses of varying size ; and therefore expedients for reducing numbers or increasing openings are far less easy of adoption. Hence the choice rests between the first alternative—prohibition—and the third—regulation.

On the surface there is a strong case for the former. The job is a marked Blind Alley in the first sense. For, while the Railway Companies and some of the larger carriers manage to absorb all the boys, who wish to stay, in other branches of their business, elsewhere a large proportion have to be got rid of. But further the employment produces to a marked extent the Blind Alley character. Lack of discipline and sustained exertion leads to the growth of casual and irregular habits ; and many boys stay in it long enough to acquire bad habits and otherwise injure their prospects, but not long enough to rise to be carmen. Again the hours of labour are often such as to prevent attendance at Evening Schools or self-improvement in other directions. Indeed some think the conditions under which the work is done render this last inevitable, but the Committee on Vanboy Labour hold that it can be overcome by organization, similar to that already adopted by the Railways. Other disadvantages can similarly be removed and the employment has some merits. The work, being in the open air, is healthy. In itself it is not arduous ; and it is well suited for boys who are never likely to rise beyond low-skilled labour.

But if reorganization is to be successful, it must provide for three things : first, for reducing the excess of boys to the minimum that the actual conditions will allow ; secondly, for establishing such improvements in hours and general conditions as shall give those employed reasonable opportunities both for education and for recreation ; and thirdly, for ensuring, by control and supervision, that the boys shall make the best both of themselves and of their opportunities.

As regards the first, steps are already taken by the Railway Companies and some other large employers to provide for all who wish to stay with them, and the substitution of motor lorries for horse vans is to some extent replacing boys by older youths or men. Apart from this not very much can at present be done, but as the Labour Exchange organization is improved, it should be possible to induce a larger and larger number of firms so to arrange their work as to provide permanently for a bigger proportion of their vanguards, and, as prospects are thus improved, to decrease the number required by increasing the time that each of them spends at the work.

As regards the second matter, certain difficulties arise owing to variations in the size of loads, and to the influence of the weather. These, in the view of the Committee, make the fixing of a maximum day's work impossible, but do not preclude a limitation of the number of hours to be worked per week. In both respects they are probably right : and their well-thought-out suggestions are admirably adapted to the needs of the employment. Boys under eighteen are limited to a maximum week of seventy hours, including meal times—one and a half per day, and are to receive the usual public holidays or days in lieu thereof. No boy under sixteen is to be employed between 9.30 p.m. and 6 a.m. Daily records are to be kept by employers of the hours worked by each boy and the times allowed for meals ; and local authorities are to be given the right of further regulation by bye-law. Even if, therefore, they do not go as far as some would like, these proposals should get rid of the worst cases of excessive hours and fix them at or near the limit adopted by the best firms—in this case the Railway Companies. Perhaps, however, the best hope of further reduction lies in the extension of their policy of refusing to collect after a certain hour. The evidence shows that employers would look with favour on such a regulation, and that difficulties are more likely to arise from their customers. Otherwise, further progress will probably have to come as part of a general policy dealing with boy labour as a whole.

Finally measures require to be taken to see that the boys make the best of these improved conditions, and these must take the

form of a proper system of care and control. First, such jobs should be filled by the right type of boy, that is, except where better prospects are given, either by those who in the ordinary course of events can hope for nothing better than low-skilled labour, or by those who are waiting for a better job. Secondly, provision should be made to draft them, when the time comes, into other places, for which their work at Evening Continuation Schools should so far as possible prepare them. Thirdly they must so far as may be be kept steadily at work. The occupation is liable in any case to produce casual and irregular habits and these are rendered worse by the failure of the boys to stick to it. They require to grow up regular, steady and disciplined workmen, and since the job is not favourable to this, care and control are the more essential. It may further be suggested, moreover, that the engagement of vanguards should only be carried out through a Labour Exchange, and that such engagements should be for fixed periods of not less than a year. This would increase the control over them, and check effectively the restless habits of so many, thus reducing the excessive numbers which enter the job. These proposals may appear drastic: but just as trades dangerous to health are subject to special rules under the Factory Acts, so those that are dangerous otherwise might be similarly treated. And such a comprehensive body of regulations as this would convert this employment into a form of unskilled work well suited to the less capable boys.

To sum up, therefore, these two occupations illustrate, each in its own way, the main methods of dealing with the Blind Alley. Conversion into a job with prospects is the more advantageous, but by far the less practicable; and the Post Office provides one of the rare cases where it can be carried out. In normal circumstances, however, careful regulation is the only available policy, and it can be made successful. Complete prohibition is a counsel of despair. The measures suggested above would, if successful, meet the difficulties and dangers that beset the vanguard, and of ordinary boy employments this is perhaps the most dangerous. If, therefore, regulation should in practice prove successful, there is hardly a Blind Alley job that would not yield, and yield more easily, to the same process.

APPENDIX VI.

NATIONAL INSURANCE AND BOY LABOUR¹

Upon this subject the Insurance Act raises two important questions—that of the proper age for Insurance to commence, and that of the danger of encouraging the substitution of juvenile for adult workers. In the original Bill contribution to Health Insurance began at 14, but up to 16 only medical and sanatorium benefits were paid, and a lower rate up till 21, except where the insured person had others dependent on him. In Unemployment Insurance contribution began at 18, and benefits six months later. Since then, however, the starting age has been fixed uniformly at 16, or rather within one year of attaining that age.

The Health Insurance proposals were originally attacked on the ground of the injustice of exacting contributions and not paying benefit, and on July 10, Mr. Godfrey Locker-Lampson moved an amendment providing that "in respect of employed persons under 16, the employer's contribution only shall be paid." Against this it was urged that benefits between 14 and 16 were of less value than the additional ones that would accrue when the Reserved Values deficit had been paid off. The amendment was rejected, but afterwards the even wider change described was carried out.

A bigger question is involved, however, of the effect of the contribution on choice of employment. The flat rate, exacted alike from the apprentice's 4s., the learner's 5s., and the errand-boy's 8s., pressed with greater severity on the lower wages. The number who at present deliberately sacrifice the present to the future is probably small. More often the poverty of the family compels this, especially with the elder children: or again lack of information will lead to taking the first decent job that offers. The one thing that many working-class parents do really realize is the wage offered, they do not and often cannot know the potentialities of different jobs. So the rate of wages settles the matter, not because other things are sacrificed but because they are not understood. Others again insist on getting a certain rough minimum rate, usually 5s. or 6s., and are prepared to sacrifice the extra shilling or two above

¹ Reprinted from the *Clare Market Review*, February, 1912.

this for a chance to learn a trade. In this respect it is their minimum of subsistence, from which the employed contribution means a considerable deduction. It reduces the value of the wage, therefore, and in some cases will turn the scale in favour of the better paid job of worse prospects, where the margin available for paying the contribution will be greater.

Now take the employer's contribution. Whether or not there is a shortage of labour for unskilled boys' jobs, the numbers offering for the better posts are usually far in excess of requirements. Many employers do not find learners profitable and therefore are offering pretty nearly their full value already, and owing to the present unorganized conditions of boy labour will often be in a position to offer less, whatever Juvenile Advisory Committees may do in the future. Hence not only will the employed contribution reduce the value of the wage, but the money wage itself will in some cases be lowered.

Hence the fixing of entry into insurance at 16 both for employers and employed was a thoroughly wise move. In many if not most cases, a trade is definitely selected before 16, and at 14 parents are not likely to take into account such a payment two years later; and the number who because of it will throw up good work will be small. Wages too are appreciably higher at 16, and the disparity between those of learners and boy labourers is often less and probably other children are beginning to earn. Taken all round, therefore, the arguments for the postponement of insurance were overwhelming.

The second problem is centred round the fear that the Act may encourage the substitution of younger for older labour, either at 21 when the sliding scale on low wages comes into force, or when contributions begin at 16. The danger that this would be done at 18 in the case of Unemployment Insurance was a very real one, and the reduction of the age to 16 was as wise as the raising of it in Health Insurance. But as the Act has passed, the practical danger is not great.

The demand for boy labour is roughly in inverse proportion to its age, being greatest at 14, and declining till at 18 or 19 there comes a break in the working life of many when fresh employment has to be sought. Eighteen, therefore, is a critical age, so for the reasons already given is 14, and 16 is perhaps the least dangerous.

Hence the likelihood of displacement at 16 by younger boys is not great, and those who will then be displaced are not the learners, since an employer would defeat his own object if he put them off. It would be those who would in any case have to be dismissed at 18, and of the two, 16 is the better age for it since there is a far greater chance for them still to find a decent

opening. At 18 it is often too late. To get boys out of Blind Alley jobs comparatively early therefore is really an advantage. What is needed is efficient Exchange organization to put them into the right work afterwards.

Now turn to 21. So far the employer has paid a uniform 3*d.* which will then be increased for wages below 2*s.* 6*d.* a day. Will this cause a tendency to substitute juvenile labour? In the towns the problem is rather one of low earnings. Wage rates are comparatively high, but irregular employment reduces the amount earned; and the Bill only deals with rates of wage. So far, then, the danger of substitution is not great. Secondly employment is usually fixed by the time this age is reached. The transition from boy's work to man's comes earlier, namely at 18, and by 21 they have settled down to the new occupation. In Agriculture especially, when wages are low, it would mean the substitution for a trained man of an inexperienced youth. Moreover substitution of boys for men is mainly in jobs that demand only a boy's strength.

The danger, therefore, is at a minimum at 21. To bring the sliding scale into operation earlier, therefore, is to increase the danger which reaches a maximum at 18. For it is then that youths are most likely to be replaced by younger boys, and at this age the operation of the sliding scale will have its worse effect. For it is the age too at which it is most dangerous to turn anyone adrift.

Not only, therefore, can no change for the better be made in this way, but the age of 21 seems obviously the right one for this purpose. Both the problems raised by the Act are dealt with most wisely. For entry into insurance is so fixed as to avoid both the two critical ages of 14 and 18, and is put at 16. Therefore whatever its defects in its original form, it has now found out the policy that is likely to prove far and away the best in practice, extending and amplifying the one first advocated so ably in the Lampson amendment of July 10.

APPENDIX VII.

BY-LAWS IN FORCE IN LONDON DEALING WITH THE EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN AND WITH STREET TRADING BY YOUNG PERSONS, ADOPTED BY THE LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL BEFORE AND DURING 1911.

(Reprinted by kind permission of the London County Council.)

BY-LAWS made by the London County Council, pursuant to the provisions of Sections 1 and 2 of the Employment of Children Act, 1903, regulating (a) the employment of children generally and (b) street trading by persons under the age of sixteen years within the County of London (exclusive of the City of London).

Note—By Section 13 of the Act the expression "child" means a person under the age of fourteen years.

AS TO THE EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN GENERALLY.

1. A child under the age of 11 years shall not be employed.

2. A child liable to attend school full time shall not be employed on days when the school is open in industrial work at home except between the hours of 5 p.m. and 8 p.m., or on other days, except between 9 a.m. and 12 noon and between 5 p.m. and 8 p.m., or on Sundays.

Industrial work shall mean any work in which manual labour is exercised by way of trade or for purposes of gain in making, altering, repairing, ornamenting, finishing, adapting for sale or cleaning any article.

3. No boy or girl under the age of 14 years and liable to attend school full time shall be employed—

A.—On days when the school is open—

- (1) For more than 3½ hours in any one day.
- (2) Between 8 in the morning and 5 in the evening.
- (3) Before 6.30 in the morning.
- (4) After 8.30 in the evening.

B.—On days when the school is not open—

- (1) For more than 8 hours in any one day.
- (2) Before 6.30 in the morning.
- (3) After 9 in the evening.

4. A child liable to attend school full time shall not in any week in which the school is open on more than two days be employed for more than 20 hours.

5. A child liable to attend school full time shall not in any week during which the school is open on two days only or less be employed for more than 30 hours.

6. A child shall not be employed on Sundays except between the hours of 7 a.m. and 1 p.m. for a period not exceeding three hours.

7. A child shall not be employed in or in connection with the sale or delivery of intoxicating liquors except on premises where such liquors are exclusively sold in sealed vessels.

8. A child shall not be employed in any process carried on in a laundry to which the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, does not apply.

9. No boy or girl under the age of 14 years shall be employed to lather customers or in similar work in any barber's or hair-dresser's shop.

AS TO STREET TRADING OF PERSONS UNDER THE AGE OF 16 YEARS.

10. No girl under the age of 16 years shall be employed in or carry on street trading.

11. No boy under the age of 14 years shall be employed in or carry on street trading.

12. No boy under the age of 16 years shall be employed in or carry on street trading before 6 in the morning or after 9 in the evening.

13. No boy under the age of 16 years shall at any time be employed in or carry on street trading unless—

(1) He is exempt from school attendance and

(2) He first procures a badge from the London County Council, which he shall wear whilst engaged in street trading on the upper part of the right arm in such a manner as to be conspicuous.

The badge shall be deemed to be a licence to trade, and may be withheld or withdrawn for such period as the London County Council think fit in any of the following cases—

(a) If the boy has, after the issue of the badge to him, been convicted of any offence.

(b) If it is proved to the satisfaction of the London County Council that the boy has used his badge for the purpose of begging or receiving alms, or for any immoral purpose, or for the purpose of imposition, or for any other improper purpose.

(c) If the boy fails to notify the London County Council within one week of any change in his place of residence.

(d) If the boy commits a breach of any of the conditions under which such badge is issued ; such conditions to be stated on such badge or delivered to the boy in writing.

14. A boy to whom a badge has been issued by the London County Council shall in no way alter, lend, sell, pawn, transfer, or otherwise dispose of, or wilfully deface, or injure such badge, which shall remain the property of the London County Council, and he shall, on receiving notice in writing from the London County Council (which may be served by post) that the badge has been withdrawn, deliver up the same forthwith to the London County Council.

15. A boy under the age of 16 years, whilst engaged in street trading, shall not enter any premises used for public entertainment or licensed for the sale of intoxicating liquor for consumption on the premises for the purpose of trading.

16. A boy under the age of 16 years, whilst engaged in street trading, shall not annoy any person by importuning.

17. Nothing in these by-laws contained shall restrict the employment of children in the occupations specified in section 3 (a) of the Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act, 1904, further than such employment is already restricted by statute.

Numbers 1, 2, 4 and 5 to 8 (formerly numbered 6 to 9) inclusive of the foregoing by-laws were made by the London County Council on the 31st day of July, 1906, and were confirmed by One of His Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State on 4th October, 1906. Numbers 3 and 9 to 17 inclusive of the foregoing by-laws were made by the London County Council on 21st day of March, 1911, and were confirmed by One of His Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State on 3rd June, 1911.

APPENDIX VIII.

THE MOST IMPORTANT CLAUSES OF THE CHILDREN (EMPLOYMENT AND SCHOOL ATTENDANCE) BILL, NOW BEFORE THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.¹

(Reprinted by kind permission of H.M. Stationery Office.)

1.—(1) A local education authority may make by-laws under section seventy-four of the Elementary Education Act, 1870, as amended by any subsequent Act—

(a) Requiring parents to cause their children up to the age of fifteen years to attend school, as if in that section as amended fifteen years were substituted for fourteen years :

(b) Providing for the total exemption from attendance at school of any child—

(i) who has attained the age of thirteen years or such later age as may be specified in the by-laws ; and

(ii) who is about to enter some occupation or employment which will, in the opinion of the authority, arrived at after consultation with the parent, be beneficial to him ; and

(iii) with respect to whom the authority is satisfied in such manner as may be specified in the by-laws that in view of his educational attainments and capacity he may properly be exempted.

(2) Where exemption from attendance at school is granted to any child under this section, the local education authority shall give to the child a certificate of exemption in such form as the authority determine.

(3) Where a local education authority has given to a child a certificate of exemption under this section, and has subsequently become aware that the child has either not entered or has left the employment in respect of which the certificate was

¹ Bill 190 of the present session.

given, the authority shall have power to revoke such certificate.

(4) The local education authority may make it a condition of the grant of a certificate of exemption that the child exempted shall attend continuation classes.

(5) Any by-law in force at the commencement of this Act which fixes a less age than fourteen as the age until which parents are required to cause their children to attend school, shall have effect as though fourteen were substituted for the age so fixed, and any enactment or by-law then in force so far as it provides for the exemption of children from school attendance shall cease to have effect, without prejudice to any exemption already granted :

Provided that this subsection, so far as it affects the law relating to the employment of children in factories and workshops under the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, or to the education of children so employed, shall not come into operation until the first day of January nineteen hundred and seventeen.

2. In any proceedings for the breach of any by-law made under section seventy-four of the Elementary Education Act, 1870, as amended by any subsequent enactment, the court may, instead of inflicting a penalty, make an attendance order which shall have the same effect as an attendance order made under section eleven of the Elementary Education Act, 1876.

3. The Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, shall be construed and have effect as though—

(a) the following provision were added to section sixty-two thereof—

In England and Wales a child shall not be employed in a factory or workshop unless lawfully so employed on or before the first day of January nineteen hundred and seventeen ; and

(b) the following proviso were added to the definition of " child " in section one hundred and fifty-six thereof—

Provided that in England and Wales the expression " child " means any person who is under the age of fourteen years and any person over the age of fourteen whose parent is under an obligation to cause him to attend school, but does not include a child to whom a certificate of exemption from school attendance has been granted under the Children (Employment and School Attendance) Act, 1914.

4. A local education authority may make by-laws—

(1) prescribing for all children under the age of sixteen years, or for boys and girls separately, and with respect to all occupations or to any specified occupation—

- (a) the age below which employment is illegal ;
and
- (b) the hours between which employment is illegal ;
and
- (c) the number of daily and weekly hours beyond
which employment is illegal :

- (2) prohibiting absolutely or permitting subject to conditions the employment of children under the age of sixteen years in any specified occupation.

The authority confirming the by-laws may require the local education authorities of contiguous areas to confer together for the purpose of making by-laws with respect to the matters provided for in this section when it appears to the authority that it is desirable that the by-laws should be uniform in the areas.

5.—(1) A boy under the age of seventeen or a girl under the age of eighteen shall not be employed in or carry on street trading :

Provided that—

- (a) a boy over the age of fifteen, or a boy under the age of fifteen who, before the passing of this Act, was lawfully engaged in street trading, may be employed in or carry on street trading if he holds a licence granted in accordance with the provisions of this Act ; and
- (b) the provisions of this section shall not apply in the areas of rural district councils nor in the area of any borough council or urban district council which is not a local education authority if there are in force in the area by-laws relating to the employment of children.

(2) If any person carries on trade in contravention of this section he shall be liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding twenty shillings, and in the case of a second or subsequent offence to a fine not exceeding five pounds.

(3) The expression " street trading " includes the hawking of newspapers, matches, flowers and other articles, playing, singing, or performing for profit, shoe-blackening, carrying of luggage (except in the course of regular employment), and any other like occupation carried on in streets or public places, but does not include the sale in a market or fair of agricultural or horticultural produce.

(4) This section shall not apply in respect of any person over the age of fourteen who is employed to assist his parent or guardian in street trading in any area in which by-laws under the preceding section are in force expressly permitting such employment.

6.—(1) A local education authority may grant to any boy over the age of fifteen and under the age of seventeen, or to any boy under the age of fifteen who before the passing of this Act was lawfully engaged in street trading, a licence to engage in street trading within the whole or any part of the area of the authority, and may prescribe the conditions on which such licences shall be granted, and may permit such conditions to be varied in accordance with the circumstances of each licensee.

(2) A local education authority may make arrangements with any committee constituted for the purposes of the Education (Choice of Employment) Act, 1910, or, subject to the approval of the Board of Trade, with any committee appointed by the Board of Trade to give advice and assistance to juvenile applicants at labour exchanges, whereby the committee shall undertake all or any of the duties of an authority under the preceding subsection.

(3) No licence for street trading shall be granted to a boy for whom the local education authority is able to secure more beneficial employment.

(4) No licence shall be refused on the grounds of poverty or general bad character of the applicant.

7. In considering whether any occupation or employment is beneficial to a child the local education authority shall have regard to its prospect of affording the child a useful training for permanent employment and to its compatibility with any continued education which in the opinion of the authority is available and suitable to the child.

8. A child under the age of fourteen years shall not be employed between the hours of nine in the evening and six in the morning, or, on days when he is required to attend at school, if he is not employed in accordance with the provisions of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, between the hours of eight in the evening and seven in the morning :

Provided that a local education authority may by by-law vary these hours either generally or for any specified occupation.

9. The conditions of employment imposed by by-laws made under this Act, and the conditions under which licences under this Act are granted, may, in the case of children no longer under an obligation to attend an elementary school, include a condition requiring attendance at continuation classes.

10.—(1) Where a child is required under this Act to attend continuation classes, the child shall attend up to such age, not exceeding sixteen years, and during such hours not exceeding eight in any week, as the local education authority may direct.

(2) A local education authority may on cause shown remit or modify any direction under this section with regard to attendance at continuation classes.

(3) A child who is required to attend continuation classes (other than classes for physical training) shall not be employed in any day upon which his attendance is so required for a number of hours which, when added to any time spent by him during the day in attendance at continuation classes in pursuance of that requirement, exceeds eight.

(4) If a child fails without reasonable excuse to comply with any requirement imposed upon him under this Act for attendance at continuation classes he shall be liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding five shillings, and the fact that any such failure is due to the child having been required to attend at his place of employment in a manner inconsistent with his due attendance at continuation classes shall, without prejudice to the generality of this subsection, be deemed to be a reasonable excuse.

(5) If any parent of a child by wilful default or by habitually neglecting to exercise due care has conduced to the commission of an offence under the immediately preceding subsection or otherwise to failure on the part of a child to attend continuation classes as required under this Act, he shall be liable, on summary conviction, to a fine not exceeding one pound, and, in the case of a second or subsequent offence, whether relating to the same or to another child, to a fine not exceeding five pounds.

(6) If any person employs a child in contravention of this section he shall be liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding two pounds, or in the case of a second or subsequent offence, not exceeding five pounds.

(7) The local education authority shall consult with local employers as to the arrangement of periods of attendance at continuation classes, and shall give to the employer of any child who is required to attend continuation classes under this Act particulars as to the amount and the time of attendance at continuation classes required in the case of that child.

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