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APPRENTICESHIP IN NEW ZEALAND

Its Development, Present Organization and Administration

Military history — Parish and factory apprentices — Later modifying influences.

EARLY BEGINNINGS IN NEW ZEALAND

Submitted for the degree of
Master of Arts in Education

by

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Victoria University College
Wellington
New Zealand

1956
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"Lumen Accipe et Imperti", says the motto of Wellington College; and, in becoming a teacher, after being a pupil of the College, I fully accepted the injunction to receive the light and impart it. But it took the preparation of this thesis on the apprenticeship system to bring home to me the strength of the human impulse implied in those four Latin words.

In the ideal, the impulse is personified in Oliver Goldsmith's description of the village schoolmaster who

"... tried each art, reproved each dull delay; Allur'd to brighter worlds, and led the way."

It is this impulse to seek skills and to hand them on which helps to explain the enigma of a system apparently always on the point of being out-moded, and yet surviving time and change, depression and prosperity, wars and its greatest challenge, the machine age.

In 1898 — before the Boer War — a Member of the New Zealand Parliament announced that a pair of boots had been made in 25 minutes, passing through 53 different machines and 63 pairs of hands.¹ The tone

¹. N.Z.P.D. v 102, p 442. W.G. Buchanan
of the brief, ensuing discussion was one suited to the occasion of an imminent demise, and a Bill for improvement of the apprenticeship system then before the House quietly expired.

In much later years, no less an authority than Mr. W.S. La Trobe, who was Superintendent of Technical Education from 1919 to 1938, cited the apprenticeship system as an illustration of the tendency of old institutions to persist after they have ceased to function effectively.

"Education and the gradual raising of the school leaving age ... may be expected to continue their work", he says, "so that the time must come when apprenticeship as at present understood will disappear altogether in nearly all, if not all, industries." 1

In the advanced industrial conditions of the United States of America, the orthodox apprenticeship system has undergone great changes; and in Great Britain, variations of it are widely used. Yet, paradoxically, in New Zealand, formal apprenticeship is flourishing as never before. This year there are 16,059 contracts in force — a record figure, highlighting steady increases in the past few years.

Although the system is often criticized for its inadequacies, suggested alternatives, based on overseas practice, have not attracted any great support. New Zealand deliberately uses the workshop as the hard crucible of experience for training apprentices, and, as a result, the proud assertion "I served my time at the trade", remains an argument-clincher among men.

The thesis here presented falls into three parts. The first, which is by way of a general introduction, traces the origins of the hardy apprenticeship system, with its changing human values and its many vicissitudes. Part Two, which is the main body of the thesis, is concerned with the historical development of apprenticeship in New Zealand and with the organization and administration of the current system. It seeks to bring together, in a useful, comprehensive account, information and material not previously available in a single statement.

Part Three is concerned with attempts to adjust the apprenticeship system to modern industry and the problems that have to be faced. This section does not purport to be more than an introduction to what must be a separate inquiry. Indeed, such an inquiry would provide topics for a whole series of theses.
In so vast a field, scarcely touched in authoritative sources, my inquiry is, of necessity, limited to a path-finding role. It is based almost completely on original sources, such as Hansard, and trade and industrial journals; as well as personal interviews with employers, workers, apprentices, educationists and departmental officers.

Gathering the material for these chapters, through interviews and by delving in records, was one thing; sifting it to form a narrative, at once readable and explanatory, while avoiding a slough of minutiae, was another. The tangible results of that work are contained in the thesis; the intangible results, I hope, are the cultivation of a discriminatory sense and the benefits to be derived from the imposition of the stern self-discipline that was necessary.
Chapter

ONE

HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

The concept of an apprentice as a learner bound to serve an employer for a specified period, but entitled to instruction in a craft, goes back to antiquity. It was known in Ancient Babylon, where long apprenticeships were enforced in the skilled crafts, such as jewellery, copper- and silver-ware. The Babylonian Code of Hammurabi, of 2100 B.C., made explicit provision that artisans teach their crafts to youth.

The concept was known in England from the earliest days of what might be described as skilled work — in the production of the table, the house, the chair and other utensils of the field and home, as well as food and clothing. The English word as "aprenys" appeared in English literature for the first time in 1362, in the writings of William Langland, the author of Piers Plowman, and in those of John Wycliffe, in about 1375. The word comes initially from the Old French "aprentis", meaning "to learn".

Both the master and apprentice signed a contract, or "indenture". The name derives from the fact that the

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edge of the first forms used in England were indented, or notched, by tearing duplicate copies across the top, before the names of the apprentices and masters were inserted. This uneven edge identified the copy retained by the apprentice as a duplicate of the similarly notched copy retained by the master.

Both master and apprentice agreed to fulfil stated obligations. The master, who sometimes received a premium for accepting the apprentice, undertook to provide bed and board, technical and general instruction, sometimes a knowledge of languages and even, though rarely, a small salary in the last stages of the apprenticeship. He was expected to supervise the apprentice's clothing and was responsible for his moral and religious training and his "good demeaning and bearing". To achieve this, he was allowed, as it was euphemistically expressed, to chastise an apprentice who proved refractory.

This system whereby an apprentice was fed, lodged and clothed by his master, existed in Great Britain at least a hundred years before 1383, when apprenticeship was first noticed in an Act of Parliament.

With the permission of the trade guild (the local association of those engaged in the industry, both workers

1. Lipson, The Growth of English Society, p 37
3. See ref 1 above, p 38.
and employers) an apprentice was permitted to change his master in the event of the latter's death or prolonged illness, or non-fulfilment of contract.

The apprentice had to show self-control and faithfulness in his master's service. He was forbidden to frequent taverns or gaming houses "whereby he doth waste and embezzle his master's goods", or to play "giddye yadde or football". He was not to hold any stock of his own or marry without his master's permission, and he was to do all the servile jobs about the house.

As a rule, the apprenticeship and the date of its commencement were recorded by the town authorities, but, as fees were demanded for this service, enrolment was sometimes evaded.

The guilds of London gradually settled down to a uniform seven years' apprenticeship. Some other places and trades followed suit but, until a unifying statute appeared in 1563, there were great variations. Shorter and longer terms were quite common — with one instance of sixteen years. The determining factor was what was deemed to be the time needed for thorough training, a subject with which the guilds concerned themselves very

1. Lipson, The Growth of English Society, p 38
3. Southgate, English Economic History, p 31
4. See ref 2 above, p 315.
closely. The method of training was rigidly prescribed, even to the tools which should be used and the manner in which they should be handled.

The age at which apprentices might be taken was also determined by the guild. Among the Birmingham ironmongers, apprenticeships began at seven years of age. Occasionally, in some trades, they began at eleven, though children of such tender years were considered unsuitable for most occupations. Alternatively, it was insisted that apprentices should not be less than a certain age when they completed their term. Sticklers for experience contended that "until a man grow unto the age of twenty-four years" he has not "grown unto the full knowledge of the art that he professeth," and that was fixed as the minimum age for completion of the contract.

In the idealistic conception, apprenticeship was a process of social and Christian training which produced not only good craftsmen but also good citizens. The apprentice lived in the master's house, sat at his board, and associated with him in the workshop and the home on terms of personal intimacy. Training under these conditions was thought to ensure continuity of the reputation of the guilds for honest dealing and sound workmanship. One guild said it ensured "honest and virtuous

1. Ibid, v I, p 315.
masters to succeed us in this worshipful fellowship for the maintenance of the feats of merchandise."  

The realistic view is one of often harsher dealings than would be tolerated today. Masters beat their apprentices — they were expected to do so — and often laid angry hands on their journeymen. Conscious and organized humanitarianism arose out of the subsequent Industrial Revolution.

In the early history of the craft guilds there was no suggestion that the number of apprentices should be limited, but during the urban drift that marked the close of the Middle Ages the guilds were faced with an increasing number of candidates for membership. In some towns, only sons of guildsmen or of a burgess might be enrolled, and the practice of requiring payment of a premium grew up at this time. More frequently, the number of apprentices who might be bound to one master was prescribed by guild regulation.

Even in those days, the "simple honest craftsman", as he is so often referred to in the roseate glow of retrospect, was not averse to the benefits conferred by scarcity values. As early as 1437, a statute was prom-

ulgated against the "unlawful and unreasonable ordinances" made by the guilds "for their singular profit and to the common hurt of the people." ¹

The Statute of Artificers (Apprentices) of 1563, ² which fixed the seven-year period, also compelled every master with three apprentices to keep at least one journeyman, with an additional journeyman for each additional apprentice. In the main, this was applied only in the cloth industry.

The term "journeyman" did not originally connote a person who had completed an apprenticeship. In the Latin of official documents he was a serviens, paid "a penny a day for a penny of work" — day workman, journee man. He was not part of the master's household, as an apprentice was.

In 1408, the London Bladesmiths insisted in their rules that "no one of the said trade shall teach his journeyman ... secrets ... as he would his apprentice". ³ In other trades, however, groups of ex-apprentices who could not find a place among the masters began work as paid craftsmen. Some guilds began to require from apprentice members a spell of service as journeymen — the word was losing its original meaning — before those

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². 5 Eliz. Cap 4.
³. Clapham, Concise Economic History of Britain, p 133.
members could become eligible for admission as masters. In the course of time, even to work as a journeyman a man had first to serve a seven years' apprenticeship.

Only the sons of men who held land of the annual value of forty shillings — in some cases sixty shillings — were eligible for the crafts of merchant, mercer, draper, goldsmith, ironmonger or clothier. Occupations of a rougher type, such as bricklayer, plasterer, wheelwright and smith, besides agricultural work, were open to boys of more humble extraction. Apprenticeship in husbandry applied, with few exceptions, only to pauper children.¹

However, court decisions favoured industrial freedom and restricted the scope of the 1563 Statute. Judges looked upon it "as inconvenient to trade and ... inventions." By 1700, several decisions declared seven years' practice of a trade as good as an apprenticeship.²

¹. Southgate, English Econ Hist, p 96
². Clapham, Concise Econ Hist of Britain, p 259.
From 1597, there was legislative approval in the "poor laws" for children who came into the hands of parish overseers being apprenticed to a trade; girls until 21, boys — like other apprentices — until 24.

In 1738, one writer says, parish authorities were eager to apprentice those poor children for whom they could not deny responsibility to "no matter what master, provided he lives out of the parish." The idea, of course, was to get the children out of sight and into other areas where, no matter what happened, they would not be recurring liabilities. A parish would even pay something to get a boy or girl off its hands. Usually, this would be into some "mean" trade or, in the case of a girl, very often into the "art of housewifery", as a domestic drudge. A boy might be a helper in a stables, a pot-boy, or a chimney-sweep.

Pauper children apprenticed to the lower type of master or mistress perished as miserably as the same class of child in the worst factories of a later generation. Far from originating cruelty to children the

1. 39 Eliz. Cap 12.
2. Clapham, Concise Econ Hist of Britain, p 304
factory system called attention to the evil by concentrating it where all could see, and so stimulated indignation that brought it to an end. The fate of the unfriended child under the infamous system of appren-
ticing pauper children may be read in Crabbe's story of Peter Grimes, who kills one apprentice after another, and in authentic records of the doing to death of apprentices by Mrs. Brownrigg and others, which fully justify the poet's harrowing tale:

"Peter had heard there were in London then —
Still have they being! — workhouse-clearing men,
Who, undisturbed by feelings just or kind,
Would parish-boys to needy tradesmen bind;
They in their want a trifling sum would take
And toiling slaves of piteous orphans make."

There were no inspectors and no checks on ill-treatment.

There was all possible difference between these pauper apprenticeships and the educational apprenticeships in the skilled trades and mercantile occupations of London.

2. "The Borough" XI.
3. Trevelyan, English Social History, p 321.
THE FACTORY APPRENTICES

Another chapter in the harrowing story of destitute childhood deals with a period from about 1794, when the introduction of factories on a large scale doomed the domestic organization of industry. Such trades as spinning, weaving and frame-knitting, which had been carried on in homes for centuries, were then transferred to factories driven, at first, by water-power and later by steam.

It soon became common for employers to visit workhouses and accept batches of pauper children as "apprentices" for the cotton mills of the north. These "apprentices", the "cheapest raw material on the market", were conveyed in batches by coach, waggon or canal boat, to the scene of their labours where they were lodged in gaunt and comfortless prentice houses in the neighbourhood of the mills. 1

Forlorn and friendless, they were left entirely to the mercy of their masters, and their labour was often limited only by their exhaustion. In low, ill-ventilated rooms they were kept at monotonous tasks, sometimes for 14 - 15 hours a day, and when the mill worked through the night, as it frequently did, the day workers occupied the sleeping quarters vacated by the night shift, so the beds

1. Southgate, English Econ Hist, p 177
were never cool. Little attention was paid to their education, morals or religious training, and the strain and fatigue caused ill-health and physical deformity. The working conditions of these youngsters were indistinguishable from slavery.

The first attempt to improve conditions, was the Health and Morals of Apprentices Act of 1802, introduced by Sir Robert Peel, father of the future Free Trade Premier. Peel's first Act dealt only with apprentices in cotton and woollen factories. Their hours of work were to be limited to twelve a day, ceasing not later than nine o'clock at night. Many other rules were made on such matters as clothing, instruction, religious observances, dormitory accommodation, and the conditions of factory premises.

Some manufacturers thought it worth while to evade this Act by ceasing to take pauper apprentices, employing wage-earning children instead. To these the Act of 1802 did not apply, and when, with the adoption of steam-power, instead of water-power, factories were concentrated in towns, there was no difficulty in securing them in sufficient numbers and at exceedingly low cost.

1. Mantoux, The Industrial Revolution in the Eighteenth Century, p 423
MODIFYING INFLUENCES

The demand for cheap labour, rather than for technically proficient craftsmen, and for freedom of trade, led to the repeal in 1814 of those parts of the 1563 Statute which concerned apprenticeship. A man might now practise any trade he pleased, whether he had been an apprentice or not.

Apprenticeship continued in a modified form in the trades requiring great manual skill, but elsewhere it was too often a cloak for sweating and fraudulent indenture.

In the new trades, such as engineering, and in the older crafts which required real skill, apprenticeship continued, but with some relaxation of standards. As early as 1825, some unions in engineering and shipbuilding adopted a term of five, instead of seven, years, and came to accept five years' work as qualifying for a trade, without formal indenture.¹

After the Industrial Revolution, the trade unions — which were born of the travail — called to their aid the time honoured methods of the guilds, claiming restrictions on the numbers of apprentices and seeking

1. Perris, Industrial Hist of Modern Britain, p 30-1
conditions of employment which resembled those imposed 600 or 700 years before. The big difference was that the system had altered from "manu-facture" to "machino-facture", and industry now had a new class — semi-skill-ed machine operators — for whom long training was not required.

How the apprenticeship system developed from that stage, not in England, but in New Zealand, is the theme of subsequent chapters.
Chapter Two

EARLY BEGINNINGS IN NEW ZEALAND

The 26th October, 1846, saw an historic event in the story of apprenticeship in New Zealand, when the word "apprentice" appeared for the first time in the laws of the little colony.

The context was social rather than industrial, for apprenticeship was classed—this instance, as a possible remedy for social distress. Sections of a Legislative Council Ordinance for the Support of Destitute Families and Illegitimate Children, made it lawful:

For the Justices to consent where possible of the parents, to apprentice officially destitute children of at least fourteen, until they become eighteen, to a suitable "trade, business or employment."

The Justices were to "take care" that in the written articles of apprenticeship "reasonable provision be made for the maintenance, clothing, wages, and proper and humane treatment of the apprentice."

Complaints about the behaviour of the apprentice, or ill-wage by the master, might be heard before a Justice, and the offender might be fined £5. If the complaint was sufficiently serious, the Justice might cancel the articles.

1. 10 Vict. No 9. "Destitute Persons"
2. S. 11 - 14 inclusive.
EARLY BEGINNINGS

The 26th October, 1846, saw an historic event in the story of apprenticeship in New Zealand, when the word "apprentice" appeared for the first time in the laws of the little colony.

The context was social, rather than industrial, for apprenticeship was classed, in this instance, as a possible remedy for social distress. Sections of a Legislative Council Ordinance for the Support of Destitute Families and Illegitimate Children, made it lawful:

For any two Justices of the Peace, with the consent where possible of the parents, to apprentice officially destitute children of at least fourteen, until they became eighteen, to a suitable "trade, business or employment."

The Justices were to "take care" that in the written articles of apprenticeship "reasonable provision be made for the maintenance, clothing, wages, and proper and humane treatment of the apprentice."

Complaints about the behaviour of the apprentice, or ill-usage by the master, might be heard before a Justice, and the offender might be fined £5. If the complaint was sufficiently serious, the Justice might cancel the articles.

1. 10 Vict. No 9. "Destitute Persons"
2. S. 11 - 14 inclusive.
Where it would benefit the apprentice, Justices might, on application by a master or mistress, assign the articles of apprenticeship to another master.

Death of the master or mistress entitled two Justices to assign the articles to another master, or cancel them. 1

The system was then used mainly as a preventive of juvenile delinquency. Skilled tradesmen were emigrating to New Zealand in numbers adequate to the demand, and there was no great call here for apprentices, but those children who had become burdens on the colony might be disposed of, under the title of apprentices, in some lowly form of work. The young people's compulsory attention to work until they were eighteen years of age would distract them from anti-social activities, it was considered. The burden of providing for their health, comfort and welfare would be placed on the employer, not the colony, and they would learn to be self-supporting.

**IMMIGRANT APPRENTICES**

The first appearance of immigrant apprentices had occurred in unhappy circumstances in 1842, with the arrival in Auckland of the vessel, St. George, 2 with fifty-seven

1. S. 15 and 16.
   2nd November, 1842.
youths from the Parkhurst Penitentiary, an industrial school in Great Britain.

Only one was nineteen years old; the ages of the others ranging from thirteen to eighteen.

All of them had received instruction in either tailoring or shoemaking, and they had been accustomed to working on a farm for three hours a day for the previous two years. All were eligible for free pardons and apprenticeships of not less than two years or more than five.

Government officials were to place the boys and see they were well looked after. Remuneration was vaguely dealt with, but at least the directions on food and clothing were specific — and brief.

**CLOTHING:** Two suits a year.

**FOOD:** Biscuits, 1 lb or soft bread 1½ lb.
Meat, 1 lb. Fresh meat to be supplied not less than four days a week.
Tea, ½ oz.
Sugar, 1½ oz, and Potatoes, ½ lb.

If an apprentice died, his master was required to give him Christian burial.

A year later, in November, 1843, a further consignment of boys from Parkhurst arrived — thirty-one of them, on the vessel Mandarin.

22nd November, 1843.
The composition of this draft differed from that of the earlier, in that twenty-one of the lads were officially "free immigrants". One was twenty years old, the others ranged in age from 16 to 19. Some of them had two trades. One was a sawyer and shoemaker; another, a cooper and shoemaker; and still another, a plumber and glazier.

Then there were nine boys, one aged twelve, and the others fifteen or sixteen years of age, eligible for apprenticeships. All these boys, too, had received trade training; the waif of twelve, in tailoring.

"The greater number of these lads are available for farm service," said the New Zealand Government Gazette. One would have supposed at this distance of time that the services of youths with some skill, even rudimentary, would have been welcomed in the immature settlements of 1843. On the contrary, the newspaper, the New Zealand Gazette and Wellington Spectator, could "hardly conceive anything more heartlessly cruel or infamously immoral and unjust than the conduct of the Home Government" in — as the newspaper put it — "opening the floodgates of iniquity" and allowing "the felons of England" to be poured into New Zealand.

"Every man that engages one of them should be branded as a traitor and an enemy to his adopted country", said the scribe, warming to his task. But, as a prudent afterthought,

1. 16th December, 1843.
he added that the youths could be employed by the Government on the roads.

There was similar hostility in Auckland. It is no wonder the importation was a failure.

A year later, in London, a witness from New Zealand told a Select Committee of the House of Commons: "There was hardly a day in the police office but one of the Parkhurst boys was before the Police Magistrate. It is much worse than sending out convicts who would be able to work on the roads."

To the question, "Were they not obliged to serve as apprentices?" the witness replied, "I cannot say for certain. I know they went out to different people, but in what way, I do not know."

Thus ended the shipment of so-called apprentices from the British industrial schools.

**INDUSTRIAL TRAINING**

The first sign of legislative encouragement of training for industry appeared in 1847 in the Ordinance for promoting the Education of Youth in the Colony of New Zealand.

1. House of Commons Report from the Select Committee on N.Z., 1844. Mr. Walter Brodie, para 1033 of the Minutes of Evidence.

2. 11 Vict. No 10. "Education"
Section three reads in part:

"...religious education, industrial training, and instruction in the English language, shall form a necessary part of the system..."

This was the first mention in the statutes of industrial training.

In 1858, instruction in:

"...the English language, the ordinary subjects of primary English education, and industrial training..."

was extended to the Maoris.

THE 1865 ACT

The first attempt at comprehensive regulation of apprenticeship was made legislatively in 1865 but, in spite of twenty-one lengthy sections, the Act achieved little more than did the 1846 Ordinance. Apprenticeship was still seen, by Parliament, at least, as a remedy for social distress, and the Act was accordingly framed to provide for the welfare of orphans and destitute children. For instance, articulated clerks of attorneys or solicitors, apprentices of those teaching a professional or scientific pursuit, and

2. 29 Vict. No 45. "Master and Apprentice"
apprentices of those trades for which at least £30 as entrance premium was required, were exempt from the Act's provisions. 1

Government departments were permitted to take apprentices, a fact which many writers mistakenly attribute initially to the later 1875 Act. However, sections five and six of the 1865 Act definitely applied to Government apprentices.

The inmates of orphan and charitable schools, and deserted children, might, if twelve years of age, be indentured in writing by the school managers, parents, or Justices, to farmers, tradesmen and artisans for a term not exceeding five years, or extending beyond the age of nineteen for boys, or earlier marriage for girls. 2

Every indenture was to contain a covenant on the part of the master that he would provide the apprentice with suitable food, clothing and bedding, give particular attention to his morals, see that he attended divine service at least once each Sunday, and pay £2 into the Savings Bank for him each year, after two years of the term had been served. If the apprentice was a girl, only £1 10s. a year had to be paid into the Savings Bank. 3

The 1846 provisions for assignment of apprentices to another master were continued, with a £10 fine for unauthorized transfer or discharge of apprentices. 4

1. s 3 2. s 7 3. s 8 4. s 13.
Proof, before Justices, of ill-usage or neglect of duty by the master could entail cancellation of the indenture and discharge of the apprentice, with a £10 fine as well. This money might be given to the apprentice as compensation, or to a charitable institution.¹

For the male apprentice, over fourteen, who offended, up to three days' SOLITARY CONFINEMENT in a jail was allowed, on the order of two Justices. The apprentice who absented himself without leave might be required to make some recompense. Should he still prove fractious, up to three months' jail might be ordered.²

It seems clear in this legislation that New Zealand was pretty closely following England's master and apprentice laws with a view to coping with the problem of orphan and destitute children. According to section twenty, persons aggrieved by actions taken under the Act might appeal to the Court of General Sessions of the Peace, or the Supreme Court. Neither at that time, nor later, was there a Court of General Sessions in New Zealand.

The reference shows how close was the reliance on British precedent, while the vagueness and generality of the provisions show an unwillingness on the part of local legislators to erect too permanent a structure. Something had to be done for the orphans and destitute children, and the Act is the rather tentative result. One can see, mirrored in the Act, the public uncertainty of New Zealand's

¹ s 15 ² s 16
future development. They were indeed pioneering days, when "any householder, tradesman, farmer or other person exercising any trade, art or manual occupation" might take an indentured apprentice.\(^1\)

The vague, and from the master's point of view, innocuous, provisions against ill-usage of apprentices in the 1865 Act, were not suffered to continue for more than two years because the *Offences against the Person Act, 1867*, dealt specifically\(^2\) with wilful neglect or harm to an apprentice by a master or mistress. Conviction entailed liability to three years' penal servitude — a term long since passed into desuetude in New Zealand, if it ever had any application here at all — or imprisonment, with hard labour, for two years. A strong minded legislator must have prevailed on the Assembly to have achieved such drastic provisions, or else some shocking instance of cruelty to a child had awakened the public conscience. Two years previously, the penalty had been a fine of not more than £10.

**THE 1875 GOVERNMENT APPRENTICES ACT**

Another Act,\(^3\) passed in 1875, expanded the 1865 provisions for the apprenticing of boys to Government departments, specifying terms of not less than three, nor more

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\(^1\) 29 Vict. No 45. s 9.  
\(^2\) 31 Vict. No 5. s 23  
\(^3\) 39 Vict. No 38.
than seven years.¹ The departments available initially were Printing and Railways respectively.² Further extensions were to be announced in the New Zealand Gazette.³ Wages were to be paid, but there was no provision for board.⁴ The Act was clearly intended primarily for boys whose parents were able to look after them.

An apprentice over sixteen who grossly misbehaved was liable, by order of a Magistrate, to imprisonment in solitary confinement for seven days, and dismissal from the government service, which would automatically cancel his indentures.⁵

However barbarous the solitary confinement of a youth for seven days in a penal institution may sound today, it must be borne in mind how greatly public feeling has changed since the section was passed in 1875. That was fewer than ten years after the Howard League for Prison Reform had been founded in Great Britain to call attention to revolting jail conditions and the penal code generally. It is not remarkable then that the Minister in charge of the Bill, the Prime Minister, the Hon. Dr. Pollen,⁶ announced that the provisions were "of an ordinary character."⁷

¹. § 5.  ². First Schedule  ³. § 3.
⁴. § 5.  ⁵. § 11.
⁶. His ministry was short lived - 6 July 1875 to 15 February 1876.
On the other hand, some light relief was provided, in the Upper House, by Mr. G.M. Waterhouse, who pointed out that Ministers were authorized to take apprentices. It would be a great advantage to the country, he went on jocosely, if the range of persons available for Ministerial offices were enlarged in that way, so there would be a flock of fledgling legislators always available.

In practice, however, the Act proved far from perfect. The provisions concerning the conditions of training and the responsibility of the master were too vague. The apprenticeship provisions, never very clearly defined in any of the previous enactments, were merely transferred and adapted as hazily to the Government Service.

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1. Previously Prime Minister, 1872-73.
MARITIME APPRENTICESHIPS

Another of the many examples of England's industrial legislation being followed when New Zealand had only the scantiest background is provided in the case of apprenticeships to seafaring.

In 1858, it had been expedient for portions of the Imperial Merchant Shipping Act of 1854 to be adopted. Those sections dealing with apprenticeships were left out, but in 1869, when something like a home-based mercantile marine was taking shape, they were brought in.

In 1877, in a consolidating and amending Act, these provisions were continued, still in the words of the Imperial Act, except that references to the apprenticeship of paupers were expunged.

Within a short twenty years of this further instance of almost slavish following of British precedent, this country was to attract world attention to its advanced labour legislation. Just then it was more concerned about the domestic upheaval of the Maori Wars.

1. 17 & 18 Vict Imperial. C 104, and also C 120, s 141 - 145 inclusive.
2. 21 & 22 Vict. No 39. "Merchant Shipping"
3. 32 & 33 Vict. No 5. "M.S. Act Adoption Act"
4. 41 Vict. No 54. "Shipping and Seamen"
5. Sec 144 of Imperial Act (ref 1 above).
The disruption caused by the Maori Wars, and their cost, left New Zealand economically unsettled, but during the 1870's a period of great expansion began. The gold rushes, together with Vogel's immigration policy and his prodigious borrowing overseas, had the effect of boosting the population, and communications were extended. Almost contemporaneously — in the period between 1874 and 1895 — there was world-wide economic uncertainty, and the price of wool fell steadily. The heaviest collapse occurred in 1879. For the next ten years, New Zealand had to pay very heavily for the borrowing boom by working harder to send away more exports. She had to be content, also, to buy many fewer goods from other countries. In the long severe depression of the 1880's, unemployment became widespread and, in the four years after 1888, almost 14,000 more people left the country than came in.

1. See Appendix B, p 202  2. See App. A, p 201
During this trying time, the Government was made patently aware that many young persons, working nominally as apprentices, could not get their employers to indenture them. This left them without protection. When they had gained a little skill and they asked for more pay, their request was refused or they were actually discharged. Not having served full apprenticeships they were unable to accept work as journeymen and were to all intents and purposes flung on to the unskilled market. Industry was falling into the hands of persons who used cheap labour. The scandal came before a Royal Commission, but the Government could do nothing about it, and no legislation was put forward.

The Government was also faced with greater numbers of neglected and criminal children, and various enactments were conceived for educating and apprenticing children found begging or receiving alms, or being without proper guardianship. Reformatories and industrial schools were established. By 1879, there were two Government industrial schools, a Naval Training School, a small charitable institution at Thames for the care of children, an industrial home at Auckland, and four church orphanages.

2. The Sweating Commission, A to J's, 1890, H-5.
4. Butchers, *Education in New Zealand*, p 74
In these depressing circumstances was born the Industrial Schools Act of 1882. Its significance in this context is that inmates of these schools could be apprenticed to a trade at twelve years of age, if educated, or fourteen, if not. The period was for not more than five years, and not beyond the age of twenty-one. The approval of the Minister was necessary for the discharge of these apprentices. A boy found guilty of gross misconduct was liable — such was the temper of the time — to discharge from his apprenticeship and hard labour in jail for one month.

At the Naval Training School, set up under the Act of 1874, boys as young as ten were accepted, and were apprenticed to the sea service from the age of twelve. Boys not suited to a life at sea might be apprenticed to trades. In all cases, Ministerial approval was required before an apprentice, once assigned to a master, could be dismissed or transferred to another. Failure to obtain this consent rendered the offending master liable to a fine of £50. Likewise, inducing or assisting apprentices to abscond was punishable by a £50 fine. Obviously, the Government was determined...

1. 46 Vict. No 25. 2. s 59. 3. s 60. 4. s 65. 5. 38 Vict. No 56. 6. s 26. 7. s 29. 8. s 31.
to see that the boys from the school completed their training.

Euphemistically spoken of as apprentices, these urchins and waifs from schools for destitute children were regarded, in reality, as potential delinquents given their freedom on licence.

SEDDONIAN DAYS

In the early 1890's, in improved economic conditions, there commenced the long Liberal regime, inaugurated under Ballance, and carried on under Seddon. They were years marked by the passage of a great volume of industrial and social legislation, and years in which the master and apprentice relationship was frequently under conspicuous notice.

The Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act of 1894,\(^1\) was a milestone in labour and employer relations.

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\(^{1}\) 58 Vict. No 14.
Incidentally, the Bill was introduced by the then Minister of Labour, William Pember Reeves, poet, writer, and author of "The Long White Cloud", possibly the best book ever written on New Zealand.¹

YEARS OF UNSUCCESSFUL EFFORT

Not so successful, however, was the Master and Apprentice Bill introduced also in 1894,² by Reeves. It proposed — the Bill did not reach the statute book — that anyone "exercising any handicraft" might take, by written indenture as apprentice, any young person of at least fourth standard education.³ The term was for six years, but not beyond the age of 21, and, for payment, certain percentages of current journeymen's wages were suggested.⁴ (This method has

² No 66-1, 1894. ³ c 6 ⁴ c 8.
been adopted over the last few years). The proportions suggested in 1894, for the six years, were 14 p.c., 20 p.c., 35 p.c., 50 p.c., 60 p.c., and 75 per cent of a journeyman's wages.

Specific as this provision was, the other provisions were deemed to have failed, owing to generalities, to cover the various facets of industries developing in the peculiar conditions of the time.

During the 1890's, mechanization and specialization in industry were making rapid headway. Labour was plentiful and young people were being employed as machine tenders for a few years and then fired to make way for younger workers at lower wages.

Reeves' Bill and a revised version were both dropped.

In 1896, Seddon himself took charge of still another version, and in his forceful way attempted to push it through. The crucial clause proposed that no young person was to be employed at any handicraft unless duly apprenticed by deed. There was to be no more than one apprentice to every four journeymen in any trade.

Seddon claimed, "If you pass this measure ... tradesmen will have the assurance that every artisan,

1. 66-1, 1894.
2. 104, 1894.
4. 72-1, 1896.
5. cl 3 (1).
6. cl 17.
tradesman or mechanic ought to have, namely, that he will not be driven from his trade and his place taken by boys who receive a small pittance in the way of wages. The payments are a disgrace to many of our employers. If our industries can survive only on this footing, then the sooner those industries are closed, the better it will be. ...

There is a plethora of youths, and employers can dictate their own terms."

"There are over 500 boys and girls employed in this colony who are not receiving one penny-piece," declared Mr. Seddon. "There are another 200 employed at a paltry half-crown a week, and the great majority receive the munificent sum of 5s. a week."

Richard John Seddon

"In the subdivision of the various handicrafts these youths are able to do almost as much work as adults, after being three years at any particular class of business. After they become skilled they are discharged,
and another batch taken on. They are not fit to leave the colony and go elsewhere as first-class tradesmen or artisans; they fail to get employment at the trade partially learned, and they have passed the time when they could go into other pursuits or the country."

The Opposition took the view that the Bill would cause only widespread disaster. "One hundred and seventy-four boys and girls in the confectionary business, and 535 in printing and its kindred branches, will be thrown out of employment", declared a legislator. 1 "The Bill will cripple the industries of the colony."

The same Member of the House expressed the view of the unscrupulous employer in this way: "Other people are prepared to come and work for us for nothing. It is a question of supply and demand, and we are going to get labour at the cheapest rate."

The pervasive influence of classical economics appeared in the remarks of Captain Russell, who said, "Every Bill attempting to ... fix the rate of wages, and do all sorts of things to make everybody prosperous must be futile, for the ordinary law of supply and demand is so powerful it must override any laws we may pass in Parliament."  

And so, at the committal stage, the 1896 Bill was quashed by a majority of three. In 1897, much the same Bill was re-introduced, but dropped again. The following year, yet a further revision was brought forward. This 1898 Bill shows the first signs of the eventual development of apprenticeship control. It proposed that the Court of Arbitration, instead of the Governor, should have a limited jurisdiction over the proportion of apprentices to journeymen, working hours and holidays, and the terms of apprenticeship. Even this failed to satisfy the Upper House, and, when its Labour Bills Committee recommended that the Bill be not proceeded with that session, the Government agreed.

4. 23-1, 2, & 3. 1897. 4. 4-1, 2 & 3. 1898.
5. cl 17 (1), (2) & (3). 7. N.Z.P.D. v 105, p 752.
No further attempt to control apprenticeship through a comprehensive statute was made for the next twenty years.

**THE ALTERNATIVE METHOD**

Instead, the provisions of the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act were adapted to the purpose. Although it was ultra vires at that time for the Court to fix the age for the commencement or termination of an apprenticeship, it could fix all other conditions of apprenticeship according to the industry concerned, adjusting the conditions of the orders to local requirements.

The Canterbury Bootmakers' award, of 3rd December, 1896, has the first apprentice clauses. The term is fixed, wages are prescribed and the proportion of apprentices to journeymen is laid down. Even the method of counting journeymen for proportion purposes is dealt with, as it is in present day orders.

By the turn of the century, a number of awards with apprentice clauses had been made.

Under the 1908 amendment to the I.C. & A. Act, all restrictions on the Court's jurisdiction in apprenticeship matters were removed, allowing a system of

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2. 8 Edward VII, No 239.
complete control through its legally binding awards.

**CONSOLIDATION OF OUTMODED MEASURES**

In 1908, the statutes of New Zealand were consolidated en masse. In the field of apprenticeship legislation, the measures of 1865 and 1875 were combined into an Act of two parts, but in spite of the lapse of time and the changed conditions, no essential changes were made. The first sixteen sections came directly from the 1865 enactment, and the remaining eighteen from the other source. They were already outmoded, but they lingered on, untroubled and seldom used.

Most employers continued to ignore them, preferring to abide by the apprenticeship clauses in awards of the Arbitration Court.

Government apprenticeships were still drawn up in terms of the 1908 consolidation until 1948, when the measure was repealed.

1. 8 Edward VII, No 115.
2. 1948, No 22, Schedule.
During the war of 1914-18, the future of apprentices who had joined the colours before completing their term, and of those who were unable to sit their trade examinations before they went overseas, was discussed, and emergency provisions were adopted to see they were fully protected in their careers.

Just before the war, in the time of the Ward Government, there was an unhappy episode with immigrant boys, though not as calamitous as the one in the 1840’s.

No objection was taken to fifty boys coming out under a charity scheme known overseas as the Sedgwick plan, the object being to give poor boys of the English cities an opportunity of entering farming life in a new dominion; the trouble arose when the New Zealand Government took a hand.

It brought out 100 boys — this time lads from farms — without binding contracts. A public outcry against these so-called boy slaves was raised. Farmers to whom they were sent began to pay them more than they had been guaranteed, but nevertheless the matter reached Parliament and, to avoid further outcry, a measure was introduced, by Sir Francis Dillon Bell, which proposed

1. N.Z.P.D. v 175, p 813, Veitch.
the binding of the farm apprentices from the time they left England, even before they had been accepted by a farmer in New Zealand. It was suggested that, after the first year, these apprentices should receive wages equivalent to those being paid to other lads of a like age and capacity in the district.

Sir Francis Dillon Bell

The outbreak of war put an end to immigration and the Bill was dropped. After the war, it was reintroduced, the idea being to facilitate the apprenticing of immigrant, or New Zealand, boys between the ages of fifteen and nineteen to farming until they were twenty.

Labour Members fought the Bill, with 21 divisions, and eventually, a somewhat changed measure emerged.

1. Explanatory Memorandum, No 3-2, 1914.
4. 11 Geo V, No 36.
POST-WAR REBUILDING

In 1920, a private Member, Mr. F.N. Bartram, introduced a Master and Apprentice Bill\(^1\) which aimed to overcome the drift of young people into unskilled work by making apprenticeships more attractive and reducing the period to three years.

Long apprenticeships merely meant cheap labour, he contended, and the war had proved conclusively that it was possible to train a good mechanic in much less than five years. Hours were to be cut to eight a day and four on Saturday,\(^2\) with a minimum wage of £1 10s. per week for the first year, £2 5s. for the second, and £3 for the third year.\(^3\)

Compulsory attendance for not less than fifteen hours a week at appropriate technical classes during working hours was to be counted as work,\(^4\) and annual examinations were to be conducted by a Board of Examiners.\(^5\) Results in these examinations would determine the wage rate for the ensuing year.\(^6\)

Considered to be far ahead of its time and too big a departure from existing conditions, the Bill was dropped.\(^7\)

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1. 46-1, 1920.
2. cl 9.
3. cl 18 (e)
4. cl 11.
5. cl 18 (h)
6. cl 18 (j)
But the Government was awakened to the narrowness of the margin between skilled and unskilled work, and the consequent lack of public esteem for skilled work. In the next chapter we will trace the steps by which the present system was built up.
Chapter

THREE

BIRTH OF THE PRESENT SYSTEM

The circumstances which had prompted Mr. Bartram to introduce his unsuccessful Bill grew steadily worse, and a partial slump increased unemployment, especially for those who had entered the part "blind alley" jobs immediately after the War.

In 1923, the Minister of Labour, Mr. O.J. Anderson, convened a conference of representatives of workers and employers, and of the departments of Education and Labour, to consider a tentative Bill.

"Apprenticeships of the future will be on a different basis," said the Minister, stressing the need for skilled labour in modern competitive conditions.

It was pointed out that Germany had an elaborate system of technical education associated with the workshops. Apprentices were allowed time out of working hours to attend a continuation school, and there was a system of examination, as well as inspectors. Certificates for the grades of journeyman, foreman and even master workman, were issued as the apprentices and journeymen qualified.

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3. Page 4 of the precis.
4. Ibid, p 35, App.B.
The conference faced two important difficulties:

(a) The gradual breaking down of the skilled trades into more or less unskilled operations, and (b) The similarity of skilled and unskilled rates of pay. 1

In some cases, unskilled work commanded more money than skilled work. The award rate for skilled work was only five per cent higher. It was felt that if the margins for skill were wider — in the U.S.A. they ranged from 50 to 100 per cent higher — the whole question would settle itself. In some countries, it was said, young people actually required permission to enter unskilled work. 2

The employers' view was conservative. "We must not be too hasty. We must not do something in New Zealand merely because it has been done elsewhere." 3

But New Zealand conditions at that time were very uncertain. The wages of apprentices varied from 10s. to 30s. a week in the first year, and diverged sharply in following years. 4 In two trades, there was no limit to the number of apprentices, but in 35 other

1. A to J's, 1923, H-11, p 12.
3. Ibid, p 6, Bishop.
trades the proportion varied between one journeyman to two apprentices and four journeymen to one apprentice. 1

When discussion began, strong differences of opinion were at once apparent. The workers wanted Boards of Control, initially in each main centre, to have complete charge of apprentices, their instruction, fitness for entry and treatment by their employers. The Boards were to be representative of employers, workers, educational authorities and the Government, and independent of Arbitration Court awards. 2

The employers opposed such Boards and favoured control remaining with the Arbitration Court. 3

The workers desired school attendance to be extended compulsorily, to permit children to develop their special abilities which might then be more accurately assessed for vocational guidance. They suggested that approved technical training while at school might be accredited towards the apprenticeship period. They also favoured compulsory technical school training during working hours, with time spent at evening classes paid for as overtime and counted in the term of apprenticeship. 4 (Almost thirty years went by before any of these suggestions were adopted.)

1. Page 30-1. 2. P 6-7, Cornwall.
The employers opposed technical school instruction during working hours, on the ground that the right place to teach a trade was in the workshop. Technical classes were only an auxiliary form of education, and should deal with principles and theory, rather than practice. "Let them go to evening classes," they said. "They will learn just as well." They were firmly against evening classes being counted as overtime.

The workers wanted the progress of apprentices checked by six-monthly examinations.

No examinations, said the employers, or one after three years or the completion of the apprenticeship.

**WHAT THE ACT ACCOMPLISHED**

In spite of all the initial differences, a Bill emerged for the initiation of an Act which, at that time, was a striking landmark in its field. It provided elaborate administrative machinery to safeguard apprentices through other means than industrial bargaining.

The Court of Arbitration was to make orders regulating the wages, hours, and conditions of apprenticeship, the proportion of apprentices to journeymen that might be

2. Ibid, p 19.
4. 14 Geo V, No 41.
employed in an industry, the period of apprenticeship, and the minimum age for apprentices. It might also require employers to engage as many apprentices as it considered necessary to ensure, in the interests of the industry, an adequate supply of journeymen. This is a most difficult problem, however, for the youths who are apprenticed today will not affect the supply of journeymen for five years, or so.

The Court could order the transfer of an apprentice from one employer to another, or order the attendance of apprentices at technical classes. It could prohibit anyone employing an apprentice, and could enter premises where an apprentice was employed, in order to be satisfied as to his welfare. The Act applied to male apprentices only.

Provision was made for the modification of apprenticeship conditions, through Special contracts, in the case of those already partly trained. Joint contracts permitted employers in intermittent trades, such as building, who could not continuously employ apprentices, to take them jointly, in which case they were jointly responsible. The Act also made provision for registration of every contract of apprenticeship.

1. s 5 (1) 2. s 5 (4) (a) 3. See p 83.
4. s 5 (4) (d) & (k).
5. s 11 6. s 10. 7. s 8
The Secretary for Labour was to act as Registrar of Apprentices, and Inspectors of Factories might be appointed District Registrars. Their duties, in addition to registering contracts, were to ensure the Act was complied with, and to take proceedings for breaches. They were also given considerable scope to develop a system of vocational guidance, as they could demand reports from head teachers on the attainments and qualities of a child. Juvenile employment bureaux were opened.

The Registrar had periodically to advise the Director of Education of the number employed or required in the industries to which the Act applied, with estimates of future requirements.

The Act made provision for the setting up of apprenticeship committees composed of equal numbers of employers and workers in the various industries or groups of industries. To these committees the Court could delegate many of its powers, with aggrieved persons having a right of appeal.

EDUCATIONAL RECOMMENDATIONS

The conference issued a report, framed by a four-man committee — a worker, an employer, an educationist

1. s 7. 2. s 9. 3. s 18. 4. s 20. 5. s 6.
and a representative of the Department of Labour. On educational matters, it recommended: 1

The primary schools' curricula should not give children an academic bias away from industrial and agricultural occupations.

The junior high schools should encourage manual aptitudes, as well as intellectual interests.

A variety of secondary school courses should be offered fully to develop individual aptitudes and tastes.

Handicrafts should be a fully integrated aspect of both primary and junior high school study.

Secondary courses, leading to matriculation, or, if possible, accrediting, should be suitable preparations for industrial or professional occupations.

MODIFICATION OF THE 1923 PROVISIONS

The necessity for certain clarifications of the 1923 Act, regarded as a masterpiece at the time, became apparent in practice, and within two years, 2 a contract was legislatively defined as:

2. 16 Geo V, No 36.
"An agreement, whether expressed in writing or not, made between an employer and a worker (for immigrant farm apprentices) or between an employer, a worker and his parent or guardian, whereby the employer agrees to teach, and the worker agrees to learn, an industry." ¹

Special contracts might be arranged for adult apprentices, "whether experienced in the trade or not." This encouraged young people who had worked in unskilled occupations to begin training even as adults. ²

Country employers, with the necessary facilities, were encouraged to engage apprentices. Previously, the entire quota for a district was absorbed in cities. ³

In the progress of the years, various changes were made. In 1930, ⁴ the power of an employer to dismiss an apprentice summarily for misconduct was reduced to power to suspend the lad while applying to an apprenticeship committee for permission to discharge him.

Right of appeal to a Stipendiary Magistrate by either party was provided.

The interests of apprentices were further protected by a guarantee of three months' wages in the event of

¹. 16 Geo V, No 36, s 3.  ². N.Z.P.D. v 214, p 657.  ³. 18 Geo V, No 28.  ⁴. 21 Geo V, No 25, s 15.
an employer becoming bankrupt. The employer was also to keep a wages and time book; and a copy of the apprenticeship order was to be exhibited.

THE NOTORIOUS SECTION 56

Shortly after these enactments, the depression of the 1930's deepened, bringing with it economic stresses of the severest kind. If ever a time was unfavourable to apprenticeship, this was it. In 1931, the Court of Arbitration was empowered to vary wage rates payable under its subsequent apprenticeship orders — meaning power to cut them down — and in the following year a section of a Finance Act — the notorious section 56 — permitted either party to an apprenticeship contract to ask a Stipendiary Magistrate to have it amended, cancelled or suspended on the ground of financial inability to carry it out. The Magistrate might award the apprentice compensation money, depending on the employer's ability to pay.

There were widely different interpretations of the measure and, in the hubbub attendant on drastic decisions during the depression, Parliament heard:

1. 21 Geo V, No 25, s 14. 2. Ibid, s 17.
3. 21 Geo V, No 1, s 19. 4. 23 Geo V, No 11.
That a Christchurch magistrate had ordered a reduction of one-third in an apprentice's pay, and, when times were slack, no pay.

A Dunedin magistrate had ordered half pay when no work was available, and

A Gisborne magistrate had made a different order altogether; and generally, there was confusion. 1

Indeed, the whole apprenticeship system, in the fell grip of financial circumstances, was in serious trouble. The expiry of Arbitration Court awards automatically cancelled the apprenticeship clauses, and employers could please themselves whether they continued to observe the rules. Some apprentices were compelled to work very long hours, without overtime pay, while others, thrown out of work when their employers could no longer meet their obligations, trundled the wheelbarrows of "relief" workers.

In seven years, the number of apprenticeships dropped from 9,943 to 3,329. 2 And in those seven years, another 15,000 young people were denied entry to a trade. 3

In one year alone, seventeen petitions were presented to Parliament, 4 praying for reconstruction of the

3. On the average of 1928.
4. See Appendix C, p 203 for names of petitioners.
apprenticeship law. The names of such well-known firms as W. Cable & Co. Ltd., and the Fletcher Construction Co., appeared in the list. However, nothing was done until the long depression at last lifted. The clouds were dispersed when the Savage Labour Government, elected in 1935, restored rates of pay and repealed the 1932 provision for cancellation of apprenticeship contracts. 1 It also made partial provision for those whose contracts had been cancelled, for it permitted youths over eighteen years of age to enter special new contracts. 2 Within twelve months there were 269 such registrations.

As part of the volume of quick, restorative legislation, the Factories Amendment Act of 1936 3 provided wages for apprentices of at least £2 per week after three years' service. Times were not yet so good, however, that employers were eagerly accepting apprentices. Far from it; not after the bitter experiences in which many employers paid apprentices when there was no work for them.

Later in 1936, the administration of apprenticeship was transferred to the Department of Labour, 4 and, as industry went on gradually to reorganize itself, a

1. 1 Edw VIII, No 16, s 15 & 19 (2).
2. 1 Edw VIII, No 58, s 7.
3. 1 Edw VIII, No 7, s 12.
4. 1 Edw VIII, No 4, s 2 (2) & 1st Schedule.
brighter picture unfolded. By 1939, there were more than 1,300 adult apprentices to trades, chiefly carpentry, joinery and brickmaking. But this progress was cut short by the outbreak of war.

The war raised not only the old 1914-18 problems but also two new ones:

1. The need for increased production in certain industries, irrespective of whether they were carried on in private or public organizations, and

2. The welfare of the apprentice absent on military service for short periods.

To cope with the first problem, the Labour Legislation Emergency Regulations, 1940, were devised so that apprenticeship conditions in certain industries could be relaxed and additional apprentices engaged. The Statutes Amendment Act 1941 permitted the temporary transfer of an apprentice from Government to private employment and vice versa, subject to the consent of the apprentice and his parent.

1. 1,356 contracts: A to J's, 1939, H-11, p 12.
2. Statutory Regulations, 1940/123, s 2.
3. 5 Geo VI, No 26, s 52.
The second problem was met through the Suspension of Apprenticeship Emergency Regulations, 1939, which provided that apprentices away on military service for less than six months should have the period of absence counted as part of their apprenticeship term. Those Regulations, having served their purpose, went by the board in 1944 and were replaced by others to meet the case of men serving in the Forces, who, when demobilized, would still have two or three years of their apprenticeships to serve. Provision was made for apprenticeships interrupted by war service to be revived within six months of demobilization. The term was to continue for the unexpired period at the time of suspension, or for three years, whichever was the shorter.

The apprentice could, however, be credited with any period of his military service in which he was working at his trade. All three services provided many such opportunities. A typical case would be a motor mechanic in a transport depot.

The wages payable under revived contracts, especially for apprentices who had turned twenty-one, were quite properly the subject of special provisions.

1. Stat Regs, 1939/154, s 2 to 6 incl.
3. Ibid, s 10.
4. Ibid, s 5 (a) & (b).
On the introduction of compulsory military training in later years, some adjustments were made in order to safeguard apprentices called into camp. Men with uncompleted apprenticeships who had served in K Force were not forgotten either.

**THE 1944 COMMISSION OF INQUIRY**

In 1944, towards the end of the war, the then Leader of the Opposition, Mr. S.G. Holland, voiced public opinion when he declared:

"We have been drifting into a very simple error. The gap between the reward for unskilled and skilled labour is too narrow, and for young people leaving school there is too little incentive to go through a long period of apprenticeship. In many cases, they enter 'blind alley' occupations because they can..."

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**Mr. S.G. Holland**

2. Ibid, s 3 - 5 incl.
3. N.Z.P.D. v 264, p 969; v 265, p 273; v 267, p 769.
get adult wages long before they would have been
out of their apprenticeships. The New Zealand
system should reintroduce that incentive for men
to learn occupations."  

Shortly afterwards, a Commission of Inquiry was
appointed to investigate pre-vocational and vocational
educational facilities and to suggest ways of meeting
the present and future needs of industry. 2

Its main recommendations were:

An administrative officer, attached to the Labour
Department, should be appointed Dominion Commis-
sioner of Apprenticeship, to devote his whole
time to apprenticeship matters. He would be
chairman and executive officer of each of the
Dominion Apprenticeship Committees, which, it was
recommended, should be formed for each industry. 3

District Commissioners were to be appointed,
initially to the four main centres, as active
administrative officers to revive or set up
local committees and maintain them efficiently.
(One local committee had not met for ten years
although there were sixteen apprentices in the
district.) 4

2. Commission of Inquiry into Apprenticeship
   and Related Matters - Report, A to J's,
   1945, H-11B.
The Commission laid its finger on a weakness in the administrative machinery when it pointed out that the main function of the Court of Arbitration was judicial, and, because it was ultra vires for the Court to take the initiative, a Government officer was needed to promote and supervise apprenticeships.

Other points made by the Commission were:

Several trades which appear necessary to the national welfare are on recent trends rapidly approaching extinction.

The degree of skill required by craftsmen is much higher than was formerly the case, and consequently a higher initial standard of education and more scientific and thorough training will be necessary.

Too narrow a training limits a boy's opportunities as an industrial unit and tends to restrict his general development as a member of society. ¹

The Apprentices Amendment Act 1946 ² was the legislative outcome, following the Commission's unanimous recommendations, as one Member of Parliament put it, "almost to the letter." ³

2. 10 Geo VI, No 4.
It made provision for the appointment of a Commissioner of Apprenticeship and four District Commissioners who were to take over the functions of the District Registrars of Apprentices under the original Act. Organizations of employers and workers could set up New Zealand Apprenticeship Committees, in addition to the existing "local" committees, to supervise the flow of youths into the skilled trades.

Other functions of the New Zealand committees would be to apply to the Court of Arbitration for apprenticeship orders, to ensure proper training of apprentices, to consider whether it would be practicable and desirable to introduce educational training during normal working hours, and to consider the question of a practical test for each apprentice before the completion of his training. The Act provided that certain powers of the Arbitration Court concerning apprentices might be delegated partly to local committees and partly to New Zealand committees.

From the date of the commencement of the Act no apprenticeship orders could be made for a specified locality only; they had to cover each industry, or branch of industry, for the whole of New Zealand.

1. s 3. 2. s 4. 3. s 5. 4. s 8. - also see page 88 for details. 5. s 9.
In making the orders the Court of Arbitration is empowered under this measure to apply the conditions of an award to apprentices and to determine the wages of apprentices by reference to those of journeymen. 1

(By 1954, it was normal to set out the wages of apprentices as percentages of journeymen's rates in the relevant industries. The most commonly used scale of percentages runs by six per cent increments from 23 per cent to 77 per cent in the final period.)

A very important provision is that the Court may, in an order, require an employer to pay an apprentice for attendance at a technical school during the day. 2 Also, it may shorten the period of apprenticeship if a lad obtains special qualifications. 3

The hours of apprentices under 18 years are limited to forty a week and eight a day, and, where shift work is involved, to between 7 a.m. and 6 p.m. 4 These limits may be exceeded if an apprentice order provides for overtime by persons under eighteen years.

Financial assistance can be arranged for a youth obliged to live away from home, in that the Apprentice Regulations, 1947, 5 include a scale of lodging allowances, ranging from £65 a year for young people

1. s 10 (1) (a) & (b). 2. s 11. 3. s 12. 4. s 16
receiving up to 23 per cent of journeymen's wages, to £10 a year for those receiving between 53 per cent and 59 per cent. The money is paid by the Department of Labour.

The Court may also make an apprenticeship order covering females and, if it does, the Act applies to them, too. 1

Another important provision in the legislation of 1946 is requirement of the consent of the appropriate committee before a contract of apprenticeship is entered into. The provision for apprenticeship of persons of eighteen years or over contained in the 1936 Statutes Amendment Act was repealed, and such an apprenticeship may now be entered into, subject to the approval of the Court of Arbitration, 2 which is guided by the recommendations of the District Commissioner or local committee.

When an employer is considered unable to provide adequate training, a local committee or District Commissioner may transfer an apprentice to another employer willing and able to undertake the obligations of the original employer, notwithstanding that the second employer's proportion of apprentices to journeymen would be exceeded. If no such employer can be found, the Court may, with Ministerial consent, transfer him to a State department. 3

1. s 17. 2. s 18. 3. s 20.
Before the Commission, clear cut evidence was submitted for and against apprentices attending technical classes during working hours for what is known as daylight training.¹

For the employers, with few exceptions, the idea was strongly opposed on the grounds that:

1. In those trades involving little theory, such as plastering, there is no point in classes, day or night.

2. Many tradesmen have no use for theory, for they do routine work under the direction of foremen. Technical classes could not improve their competence.

3. It is to the worker's advantage if he can profit from technical classes, for he is seeking his own, rather than his employer's, advancement.

4. Things should not be made too easy; spare time study helps to develop character.

5. New Zealand tradesmen compete on equal terms with skilled workers from other countries, even those in which there is daylight training.

¹. A to J's, 1945, H-11B, p 11.
6. The normal five-year term of apprenticeship, in working hours, is less than it was twenty years ago. A boy must spend all his time in the workshop gaining the practical experience essential for a tradesman.

Those in favour of daylight training, mostly trade-union representatives and teachers, rested their case on the grounds that:

1. School training in daylight is really effective, whereas evening classes, after a day's work, are largely wasted on tired boys. (The British Encyclopaedia of Medical Practice supports this view. 1)

2. Technical, as well as practical, training ensures better tradesmen, and the greater competency is an advantage to the employer.

3. Other countries have instituted daylight training with advantage.

The Commission observed in its recommendations in favour of daylight training that there is justification for instruction in basic principles for all apprentices. No one can foretell which boys of a group beginning a trade will be the future leading hands and foremen. The theory-course, in conjunction with shopwork, will help to sift out the potential executives. 2

If the chosen trade is one for which the apprenticeship committee decides technical classes are necessary, boys should be compelled to attend them in daylight hours, with loss of wages for non-attendance, unsatisfactory work, or misbehaviour. Evening or Saturday morning classes should continue for those who wish to follow their studies further or for those who desire to obtain some knowledge of matters likely to be useful in other ways, such as bookkeeping.\(^1\)

The educational recommendations of the 1923 conference were further developed when the Commission asserted that the teaching of wood- and metal-work in schools unduly biased boys towards those crafts. Posters and visual aids — the report suggested — might well be used for introductory instruction in other occupations. In addition, Social Studies should cover possible careers with a broad treatment of the conditions of apprenticeship.\(^2\)

The 1942 Committee on the Post-Primary School Curriculum reported\(^3\) that Social Studies should "help to introduce the pupil to the world of work, assist him to make a wise choice of vocation, and give him a sympathetic understanding of types of work other than the one he chooses."

\(^3\) Govt. Print, 1944.
CONSOLIDATION OF LEGISLATION

In 1948, the whole of the apprenticeship legislation was consolidated into a new Apprentices Act, with small additions for smoother administration.\(^1\) Outmoded expressions that had lingered on from early days were replaced, and the term "industry" was redefined\(^2\) to correspond with the interpretation given in the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Amendment Act of 1925.\(^3\)

The constitution of apprenticeship committees was also changed. Committees appointed from a group of industries are to consist of four employers' and four workers' representatives. Other clauses limit the term of office of committee members to three years, provide for a quorum and for the replacement of members who die or resign.\(^4\) A committee may delegate its powers of inspection to two non-members of the committee at times which would be inconvenient for members.\(^5\)

The law applicable for the protection of an apprentice's continuity of employment, even in the event of his employer's bankruptcy,\(^6\) is amplified in the 1948 consolidating measure. It also affords a parent or guardian an opportunity of being heard when an application

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2. s 2.
3. 16 Geo V, No 24, s 2
4. s 8 (4), (5) & (8).
5. s 13 (4) (k).
6. s 37.
is made to discharge an apprentice. 1

SINCE 1948

Daylight classes were instituted in February, 1949, in motor engineering at five schools. 2 They were the only ones the New Zealand committee considered had the necessary equipment, staff and accommodation to meet the syllabus. Since then many other technical schools have acquired extra facilities.

In 1950, the baking industry arranged for the Wheat Research Institute, at Lincoln, to hold full-time, four-week classes. 3 This was the first attempt at block-training, a method now highly favoured.

Putting Baking Theory into Practice

A small number of daylight classes for furniture and sheetmetal workers were commenced, as well as electrical classes on Saturday mornings in twelve schools.

1. s 38 (3).
2. A to J’s, 1949, H-11, p 44.
the time counting for pay and as part of the apprenticeship term. 1

The Department of Education Report for that year, 1950, reviewed progress by saying:

"There can be little doubt that in these days of specialization in the workshops, schools can provide something for apprentices which the employer has little time or opportunity to give." 2

By 1951, there were signs that technical schools were "moving rapidly towards another stage in their evolution." Their function as technical high schools was changed with the increasing attendance of apprentices during the day and evening. 3

After the daylight training schemes had got under way in 1950, with 1,492 apprentices attending day classes, the number steadily rose to more than 6,800 in 1955.

All the major trades now have day or evening classes for apprentices. One exception, printing, is tentatively developing classes at Auckland and Wellington, and arranging block courses at Auckland.

1. A to J's, 1950, H-11, p 42.
2. Ibid, E-1, p 5.
THE TECHNICAL CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOL

This institution is a direct descendant of the war-time Army Education and Welfare Service which conducted courses in technical and agricultural subjects. One of its functions is the development of courses for apprentices who cannot obtain class tuition. Some trades make a period of study through correspondence compulsory for country apprentices, and many continue the course voluntarily in preparation for the Trade Certificate Examination. There are more than 1,600 apprentice students, chiefly motor mechanics and carpenters.

The school organizes block courses of three weeks' full-time study at Petone, where the instructors meet their students personally.

A useful indication of future trends is provided by the school, for it receives the first requests for courses from districts where there are too few students to warrant the establishment of a class in a technical school.

1. 1,248 compulsorily – as part of daylight training.
MAORIS ENTER APPRENTICESHIPS

The Maori race is a striking instance — possibly the most notable in the world — of a native race, after a heavy initial setback, adjusting itself rapidly to a European civilization. The health of the Maoris suffered greatly in the early years of colonization and their numbers dwindled, but now there is a resurgence of the race and young Maoris are actually seeking work in the cities, in preference to the traditional mode of life on farms and beaches, or beside the geyers and hot pools.

The establishment of special hostels in the larger centres\(^1\) has made it possible for Maori youths to enter apprenticeships not otherwise open to them. Particularly good reports have been received from employers of the progress and behaviour of these boys.

The topic is of strong ethnological interest.

\(1.\) A to J's, 1954, H-11, p 6.

and also 1955, H-11, p 6.
Chapter Four

Administration of the Present System

Vocational training for industry is carried on almost entirely through the national apprenticeship system, governed under the Apprentices Act, 1948. General administration is in the hands of the Department of Labour.

The Act provides for orders governing apprenticeships to be made by the Court of Arbitration, on the recommendations of the policy-making New Zealand apprenticeship committees, numbering twenty-seven.

Day by day, the technical and administrative powers of the Board... and the apprenticeship orders is carried on by local apprenticeship committees, often in the absence of the district officer.

The methods of training are traditional; the apprenticeship system is a task... education. Many orders specify the operations and skills to be taught, so defining the scope of training, and enabling local committees to assess its adequacy.

From opinions expressed by some schools and Vocational Guidance officers, few boys consult "careers" masters at their schools or avail themselves of vocational guidance. Most of them seek out occupations on their own initiative.
Vocational training for industry is carried on almost entirely through the national apprenticeship system, governed by the Apprentices Act, 1948. ¹ General administration is in the hands of the Department of Labour.

The Act provides for orders governing apprenticeships to be made by the Court of Arbitration, on the recommendations of the policy-making New Zealand apprenticeship committees, numbering twenty-seven.

Day-to-day administration of the Act and the apprenticeship orders is carried on by local apprenticeship committees, of which there are 205.

The methods of training are traditional; the apprentice learns by doing tasks under supervision. Many orders specify the operations and skills to be taught, so defining the scope of training, and enabling local committees to assess its adequacy.

From opinions expressed by some schools and Vocational Guidance officers, few boys consult "careers" masters at their schools or avail themselves of vocational guidance. Most of them seek out occupations on their own initiative.

¹. 1948, No 22.
An employer's agreement to accept an apprentice does not entitle the young man to start work right away, even on probation. The employer must first obtain written approval from the local apprenticeship committee for the industry concerned. It is given if the committee is satisfied:

That the employer is a suitable one.
That he has the facilities for properly teaching the industry or branch of industry in which the apprentice is to be employed.
That he is likely to remain in business.
That he has an adequate number of journeymen to comply with the proportion clause of the apprenticeship order.
That the apprentice has the amount of post-primary education required by the order.

These conditions have been laid down by the Court of Arbitration, on the advice of apprenticeship committees. Experience has proved that, if the conditions are not observed, young men will be inadequately trained. If the committee refuses approval, appeal may be made to the Court.

In most cases, however, approval is given and the District Commissioner of Apprenticeship prepares the contract in triplicate, sending the employer, the

1. s 19 (1). 2. s 19 (2).
apprentice and the guardian a copy each, for signature. All three copies must be returned and registered with a seal stamp within twenty-eight days. After registration, copies are sent to the employer and apprentice; the third copy is filed by the District Commissioner.

If an apprentice under sixteen is to be employed in a factory, as defined under the Factories Act, the employer must obtain a Certificate of Fitness on a prescribed form for the boy or girl concerned. This involves a medical certificate that the young person is fit for the employment, as well as declarations of age and of exemption from school attendance. A subsequent medical certificate is required when the employment ceases or the young person reaches 16 years of age.

A probationary period of three months is common to all apprenticeships, and during that time a contract may be readily terminated. When the period expires, the apprentice and his employer are committed to the full term of the contract, unless exceptional circumstances intervene. The District Commissioner of Apprenticeship must be informed of any termination, even one arrived at by mutual consent of the employer and apprentice.

On the other hand, if the two parties have mutual complaints, the trouble may be ventilated before the

1. s 20 (7). (1). 2. 1946, No 43, s 2. 3. Ibid, s 37. 4. s 20(8) of 1948 Act.
local committee. An exasperated employer may not summarily "fire" a youth on the ground of misconduct; he must restrain himself to the extent of merely suspending the boy and, within three days, if he has not cooled down, asking the committee for leave to cancel the contract. 1 The committee hears the evidence and announces a decision, against which either party has a right of appeal to a Magistrate. 2

An apprentice's remedy against what he may regard as an injustice is first to approach his employer and, if that fails, to approach the local committee. Frequently, the official decision in such cases is to transfer the apprentice to another employer. There is authority for appeal to the Court of Arbitration, though an employer is unlikely to fight for the right to retain the services of a youth with whom he is already at serious cross-purposes.

Transfers may be sanctioned on such other grounds as these:

An employer may be unable to complete a youth's training; e.g. the nature of the business may be changing.

An apprentice's parents moving to another town, and the lad wishes to accompany them.

1. s 38 (1). 2. s 38 (6).
A committee may be dissatisfied with the training in a certain workshop and may order a lad's transfer to another employer. Many changes are made with the consent of the parties. All the above happenings are the exceptions; most contracts run their course uneventfully. Just before their completion, the employer is asked to supply the District Commissioner with a statement of the apprentice's service. A Certificate of Due Completion of Apprenticeship is then sent to the young man, with a letter wishing him well in his future career. He has then served his time at the trade.

**ADMINISTRATION**

The apprenticeship system, covering 28 industries in which 16,000 apprentices are employed, is administered at four levels:

- **The Court of Arbitration**
- **New Zealand Apprenticeship Committees** — one for each industry or group of industries
- **Local committees for each industry**
- **The Apprenticeship Section of the Department of Labour.**
In one of its judgments, the Court has referred to what it calls its paternal interest in apprenticeship. One of its many important activities is the making of apprenticeship orders. As they closely affect the welfare of young people, there is bestowed on their preparation a degree of care amounting to paternal solicitude.

The orders prescribe the wages, hours and other conditions of employment to be incorporated in contracts of apprenticeship in specific industries, as well as the period of apprenticeship and the minimum age at which it may be commenced. Orders apply to the whole of New Zealand, though variations may be made to suit particular localities.

The Court hears evidence mainly from employers and workers, and is also guided by the recommendations

2. 1948 Act, s 13 (1)
3. Ibid, s 13 (1)(a),(b) & (c).  
4. Ibid, s 15.
of the New Zealand Apprenticeship Committee for the industry concerned.

The Court has said it is very loath to vary the recommendations of a committee. It has done so only on requests for assistance in making directions as clear as possible.

There are today 28 New Zealand Apprenticeship orders in force, with a possibility that sub-divisions in industry may require the making of one or two more.

An order is normally a document printed on durable paper, the size of a newspaper bill-board. A copy is displayed prominently in every workshop in which an apprentice is employed. 1

To illustrate the meticulous care with which the practical application of the system is guarded, all the following points are dealt with by the Court in making an order:

- Industry in which the order applies
- Application of order
- Interpretation
- Prior consent of committee
- Contracts to be registered
- Minimum age
- Pre-requisite education (in some orders)

1. s 40, 1948 Act.
Term of apprenticeship

Period of probation

Proportion of apprentices to journeymen

Wages

Technical classes (in some orders)

Apprentices from overseas

Deductions by employer

Hours

Overtime

Conditions of award to apply

Tool money (in some orders)

Contracts to accord with Act

Obligations of apprentices

Obligations of employers

Premiums forbidden

Special contracts

Revocation

Date of operation of order

Wages of apprentices are fixed as percentages of journeymen's rates, and are adjusted in the same proportions to any rise or fall in award rates. The usual range is from 23 per cent in the first six months of the apprenticeship to 77 per cent in the last six.
In 1955, a survey was made of apprentice wages in carpentry, motor mechanics, electrical wiring, fitting and turning, and cabinet making. Actual rates being paid were, on the average, not greatly above the minimum rates specified in apprenticeship orders. Over the whole term for all five trades the margin was 6s.7d. a week, or 5.8% per cent, above the minimum. The margins ranged from 9s.10d. for electrical wiring to 5s.9d. for motor mechanics and fitters and turners.

The amount of overtime that may be worked by apprentices is restricted during at least the first years of their service, the ruling principle being protection of the young people's health. Nevertheless, the Court takes a realistic view, and, recognizing that rush periods do occur, permits overtime within prescribed limits, varying with different industries.

Wages for overtime are calculated in the same way as for journeymen and, with the exception of a few industries, the time is credited to the term of the apprenticeship. By consistently working overtime in the later periods of training, some apprentices can gain up to six months on the calendar.

In a number of places, electrical apprentices attend technical classes on Saturday mornings during

1. See Appendix D, p 204.
2. Men's Hairdressing and Clothing
their first three years, and the time so spent is considered part of the apprenticeship term. A youth who attends regularly can gain almost three months.

The Court of Arbitration is the appeal authority against decisions of committees — all of which are subject to the right of appeal — but many appeals are, in fact, heard by a Magistrate. A frequent ground of appeal concerns refusal on the part of a committee to consent to the engagement of an apprentice.

NEW ZEALAND APPRENTICESHIP COMMITTEES

The above-named bodies — one for each industry— are a much later development than the local committees, having come into existence nine years ago,¹ as a result of early methods of administration being outdated by the rapid extension of industry.

The Commission of Inquiry into Apprenticeship and Related Matters diagnosed the trouble in 1944,² when it found a multiplicity of local apprenticeship orders distinguished by their variability and discrepancies one from another. It recommended that, instead of local committees continuing to administer district orders, New Zealand committees be instituted to deal with the

¹. First committee registered in 1947.
². See p 59.
policies underlying the orders. In this way, the highly important local committees were left with greater freedom to conduct their localised and more intimate aspects of administration; in fact, the directly personal aspects, as will be explained later. The Commission's recommendation was given legislative authority in 1946. 1

A New Zealand committee dealing with one industry consists of eight persons; if dealing with a group of industries, it consists of ten. The number of workers' and employers' representatives is equal, three or four of each. The committee also comprises a person conversant with technical education (nominated by the Director of Education) and the Commissioner of Apprenticeship as chairman. He is an officer of the Department of Labour and, by virtue of his office, is chairman of each New Zealand committee.

Committees normally meet once a year, though last year there was insufficient business to warrant meetings of some committees concerned with industries with few apprentices. Nine years ago, when the New Zealand orders were being drafted to replace the district orders, and daylight training was being introduced, meetings lasted for two days, but since then one day, or even half-day, meetings have sufficed.

Meetings have been held, on occasion, in Auckland, Palmerston North and Christchurch, but they are usually

1. 1946, No 4.
held in Wellington. Members receive £2 12s 6d a day in fees and £2 4s 6d a day extra when away from home.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF NEW ZEALAND COMMITTEES

As set out in section six of the Apprentices Act, 1948, the New Zealand committees are required, in dealing with their respective industries,

(a) to estimate the number of apprentices required to ensure the requisite number of skilled tradesmen being trained.

A difficulty here is in forecasting the needs of an industry in the future because the inflow of apprentices in any one year will provide the intake of tradesmen five years later.

(b) to recommend to the appropriate authorities and organizations the steps that should be taken to meet these requirements.

The first step is usually taken by the New Zealand committee when it recommends to the Court of Arbitration the proportion of apprentices to journeymen that should be prescribed. Usually, the committee can agree on the figure, but occasionally the desire of employers to build up the labour force conflicts with the workers' wish to avoid an excess of tradesmen. In that case,
the determination is left, if necessary, to the Court. Other functions of the New Zealand committees are:

(c) to apply to the Court for an order governing apprenticeships.

(d) to give consideration to what pre-requisite education, if any, should be laid down for apprentices wishing to enter the industry.

(e) to make recommendations to the Court respecting the making of an order.

(f) to exercise such powers in relation to apprenticeships as are delegated to it by the Court.

(g) to co-operate with the Department of Education for the purpose of ensuring that apprentices obtain the maximum amount of educational training.

This co-operation is achieved through the presence on New Zealand committees of people conversant with technical education. Liaison is maintained between the Commissioner, as chairman of the committees, and officers of the Department of Education. District Commissioners keep in close touch with schools in their areas.

(h) to consider whether educational training during normal working-hours is desirable and practicable.

1. s 9.
Daylight training has been a very contentious matter. In a few industries, notably the motor industry, employers have sought it, yet in others no one has thought it desirable. In some industries the workers have pressed for it, while the employers have opposed. In every hearing in which daylight training has been an issue, the Court has included some provision for it.

(i) to consider the introduction of a practical test for each apprentice before the completion of his apprenticeship.

All the committees agree that, under New Zealand conditions, such tests are impracticable.

(j) to exercise such powers in relation to apprenticeships as are delegated to it by the Court.

(k) to carry out such other functions as are conferred on it by Act or otherwise howsoever.

"Otherwise howsoever" gives New Zealand committees very wide scope in their affairs.

The New Zealand committees are admirable combinations of industry and government working together. The industrial and educational members determine policy by discussion, and the chairman, as a full-time Public Service officer, puts the decisions into practice and supervises the apprentices in the respective industries

1. For details, see p 146
in the intervals between the meetings. This is a case of seven or nine laymen exercising their statutory powers, with a full-time executive officer to carry out the committee's views on the adequacy of accommodation and equipment in a school determine the New Zealand committee's view on local knowledge. Committee's views on the adequacy of accommodation and decisions.

As chairman of twenty-seven New Zealand committees, the Commissioner of Apprenticeship has his hands fairly full with administrative work, and he inevitably finds himself involved with inquiries on educational and industrial matters. He is further charged by statute with seeing that everything arising from the Act is duly complied with. District Commissioners save him from being submerged in detail.

**Local Committees**

The 1944 Commission of Inquiry into Apprenticeship and Related Matters agreed "that local committees hold a very important place in the administration" and recommended their retention. They have operated since 1924, and a few original members are still active. With the virtue of local knowledge, these committees have a particular value in the close personal contacts involved. Cases of irregular attendance by apprentices and misbehaviour at classes are referred to the committees, which exercise a salutary, disciplinary effect. Members visit the schools to keep

1. s 42. 2. A to J's, 1945, H-11B, p 7
in touch with the work of the classes, and often advise on the appointment of instructors. Indeed, the local committee's views on the adequacy of accommodation and equipment in a school determine the New Zealand committee's view on the establishment of technical classes for apprentices.

There are 205 local committees, comprising some 1,400 men and a few women.

Each committee consists of eight persons — three employers, three workers, a person conversant with technical education, commonly a technical teacher, but not necessarily so, and, as Chairman, the District Commissioner of Apprenticeship, or his delegate, an officer of the Department of Labour.

A committee comes into being when the organizations of employers and workers in an industry agree in writing to its formation for a specified locality, and register the agreement with the District Commissioner. 1

Five members are a quorum, and the chairman has a deliberative vote only. Members are appointed for a period of three years, and are eligible for re-appointment.


POWERS OF LOCAL COMMITTEES

Local committees have statutory powers, and their functions under the Apprentices Act are concerned with:

1. Giving or refusing consent to an employer's entering a contract of apprenticeship. (s 19)

2. Dealing with applications for transfer of apprentices. (s 27)

3. Hearing and deciding applications by employers to discharge apprentices for misconduct. (s 38)

4. Supplying certificates of completion of apprenticeship. (s 35)

5. Giving views to the New Zealand committee on proposed recommendations to the Court for an apprenticeship order. (s 13, (5).)

6. Referring to the Court applications for adult contracts of apprenticeship. (s 25)

7. Applying for the Court's interpretation of apprenticeship orders.

8. Referring a matter to the Court when the committee cannot agree. (s 9)

Powers delegated to local committees by the Court of Arbitration\(^1\) include authority:

1. To cancel any contract of apprenticeship.

\(^1\) s 14 (2).
2. To prohibit an employer from employing or continuing to employ an apprentice.

3. To order the transfer of an apprentice.

4. To require an employer to give to an apprentice further facilities within the scope of his business to enable an apprentice to acquire a proper knowledge of the industry.

5. To order that any increase in wages due to an apprentice may be withheld for such period as the committee thinks fit.

6. To order that the period during which the increase is withheld shall not count towards the term of apprenticeship.

7. To enter at reasonable times any premises where an apprentice is employed, to inquire into his training, progress and welfare.

Certain functions stemming from apprenticeship orders also accrue to local committees:

When an order requires that a would-be apprentice should have two years' post-primary education, there is usually provision for modifications in exceptional cases. Local committees decide whether a case is exceptional and make recommendations to the New Zealand committee.
Most orders make provision for the shortening of the term of apprenticeship when there has been previous experience in a related trade. The power to shorten a term in this manner is vested in the relevant New Zealand committee, but it acts only on the recommendation of a local committee.

If an apprentice from overseas wishes to complete his apprenticeship in New Zealand, the local committee decides how much credit his overseas experience warrants.

A few orders allow for some variation in individual cases of the proportion of apprentices to journeymen. Here again, the statutory power rests with the New Zealand committee, but it acts only on the advice of a local committee.

Attendance at technical classes depends, among other things, on whether or not an apprentice lives or works "at a convenient distance". It is the local committee which advises the New Zealand committee on this point.

Apprentices are bound by their contracts not to absent themselves from work without permission. In some orders, an apprentice is given a right of appeal to a local committee against a decision of an employer about the granting of leave.

In matters not specified in the Act, the normal law of contract applies.
DISTRICT COMMISSIONERS

One of the strong points of local committees is that they have statutory powers; they can act, and not merely advise. Until 1947, they had no administrative officers, and depended almost entirely on the voluntary work of their own members elected as chairmen and secretaries, but that weakness was removed by the appointment of District Commissioners of Apprenticeship as their full-time agents.

The eight District Commissioners, stationed in Auckland, Hamilton, Napier, New Plymouth, Palmerston North, Wellington, Christchurch and Dunedin, give their whole time to apprenticeship work. They register contracts, see to all the desk work resulting from committee activities, and ensure compliance with the Act and the apprenticeship orders. They guide committees, as well as being guided by them, and take the initiative in various ways.

The District Commissioner takes the chair at committee meetings in the city which is his base. As there may be, say, twenty committees in the district, he delegates the work in other towns to departmental officers.

Apprenticeship administration, being concerned with

1. As provided in s 4 (2) of the 1948 Act.
2. s 42 (1).
human beings, must be on-the-spot. However, the Commissioner keeps in frequent personal touch.

One of the services the District Commissioners perform is that of preparing contracts (in triplicate) and sending them to all the parties for signature. All copies must then be returned for registration, after which one is sent to the employer, one to the apprentice, and the third filed.

1. s 20 (2) & (7).

Entrance to the Court
Chapter FIVE

Organization of the Present System

The normal term of apprenticeship is five years, or 10,000 working hours. Only plumbing — 12,000 hours — exceeds this period.

Seven of the councils set out the term of apprenticeship in years, the others, covering the majority of apprentices, set it out as ten "1,000-hour" periods. It is, in fact, five years of 50 weeks of 40 hours. If "1,000-hour" periods were shortened, the actual calendar time of apprenticeship would be lengthened, and vice versa.

The working week in present conditions within the lifetime of some tradesmen, the working week has been shortened several times. Last century, it was 59, even 54, hours. The eight-hour day meant a week of 48 hours. With the half-holiday, commonly Saturday, the week became one of 44 hours, later to be curtailed to the present 40 hours. A five-year apprenticeship in 1900 meant many more hours of experience than an apprentice gets in 1956.

It seems reasonable to stabilize the term of apprentice-
THE TERM OF APPRENTICESHIP

The normal term of apprenticeship is five years, or 10,000 working hours. Only plumbing — 12,000 hours — exceeds this period.

Seven of the twenty-seven orders set out the term of apprenticeship in years. The others, covering the majority of apprentices, set it out as ten "1,000 hour" periods. It is, in fact, five years of 50 weeks of 40 hours.

Fixing the length of an apprenticeship in hours could have interesting effects if the length of the working week were changed. If it were shortened, the actual calendar time of apprenticeship would be lengthened, and vice versa.

The reason for a term in hours is that, within the lifetime of some tradesmen, the working week has been shortened several times. Last century, it was 50, even 54, hours. The eight-hour day meant a week of 48 hours. With the half-holiday, commonly Saturday, the week became one of 44 hours, later to be curtailed to the present 40 hours. A five-year apprenticeship in 1900 meant many more hours of experience than an apprentice gets in 1956.

It seems reasonable to stabilize the term of apprentice-

1. Baking and pastrycooking, tailoring and clothing, men’s hairdressing, boilermaking and moulding, horticulture and gardening, boot repairing.
ship, to ensure a minimum amount of experience, however the working week may vary.

SHORTER TERMS

In a number of industries, terms of less than five years are required. Pressing, in the clothing industry, and glazing both involve 8,000 hours.

The term fixed for apprenticeship is presumed to suit the "average" apprentice. Some lads mature more rapidly than others, and master their trades more quickly. Others, slower in learning, perhaps, or later in developing, take longer than the set term to qualify as "competent tradesmen." Some recognition of apprentices as people who vary one from another appears in the various "shortenings" available. There are no "lengthenings".

A section of the Apprentices Act permits the Court of Arbitration to shorten the period of apprenticeship for those who before or during their apprenticeship gain any qualification specified by the Court. There are four ways in which this section is used.

1. Men's hairdressing and baking, both require 4½ years.

2. See p 157


2. Aircraft engineering, carpentry & joinery, electrical, furniture, and radio.

3. s 33 (1).
School Certificates: In nine industries, holders of School Certificates have their apprenticeships shortened by 1,000 hours — or six months. In bricklaying, masonry and plastering, the credit is 2,000 hours. Sometimes any school certificate merits the reduction. In other industries, the certificate must cover subjects specified by the New Zealand committees.

For example, in engineering, credit is given for three years' post-primary education in an engineering course or in subjects related to engineering. In sheet-metal working, credit is given for three years' post-primary education.

Related Experience: Nearly every apprenticeship order contains a clause like this: Where the New Zealand committee is of the opinion that time already served in a related occupation should be credited to the apprentice, it may, on application by or through a local committee, fix a term of not less than 6,000 hours.

Examination Successes: In the carpentry and joinery industry, an apprentice who passes the Trade Certificate Examination gets an immediate reduction of 1,000 hours.

2. Aircraft engineering, carpentry & joinery, electrical, furniture, and radio.
in his term. The registration examination in plumbing merits 2,000 hours' reduction. In both industries, passing the examination during the final period of apprenticeship means immediate successful completion of the contract.

**DAYLIGHT TRAINING AT TECHNICAL SCHOOLS**

The year 1949 marked the beginning of daylight classes. There has been a steady growth in their number, and also in the number of trades for which provision is made. By the end of 1955, over 6,800 apprentices were involved.

They generally attend for a period of four hours once a week or a continuous eight hours once a fortnight. There has, however, been a growing preference in some trades for "block" courses, involving continuous attendance at a school for forty hours a week during one or more weeks a year. The idea was given prominence when the 1923 Act was under discussion. The trade instructors of the Wellington Technical College, submitted to the Ministerial conference, "that the instruction will be more efficient if, instead of being given for one year on two half days a week, it is concentrated and

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4. A to J's, 1956, E-1, p 9. See also p 149 of this thesis.

2. See p 64
given during three periods of two weeks each." 1

Block courses are particularly suitable for apprentices living in remote districts, and for the smaller trades. 2

No school, by itself, can ever make a tradesman who will be at home in the hurly-burly of competition. The skilled man is made in the employer’s workshop, where he masters intractable materials and copes with awkward workmates and cantankerous bosses. In mastering these difficulties he becomes a man, and a tradesman.

Nevertheless, the technical school can offer incomparable facilities when theory must be mastered. Theory underlies the practice, and is most efficiently taught by men whose main job is teaching, as distinct from that of the men in the workshop, whose main job is production. There is an economy of effort, too, because boys from various workplaces are brought together under one instructor, instead of getting individual piecemeal instruction.

Already there are twenty-four full-time motor engineering teachers in the schools, and several schools have more than one. 4 However, no other trade has moved as rapidly as this.

2. See p148
3. "Education 49", p 5. (Sept. '49. No 4)
On the merits of the two forms of daylight training — half a day a week or full-time sessions of at least a week — there is much difference of opinion. The half-day scheme is said to provide continuity of instruction, whereas too much time is required at block courses brushing up material forgotten during the long interval.

On the other hand, it is argued that, if practical work is done, the block course allows apprentices to carry on with the job in hand, without having to put it away half-done.

The block course is well suited to the needs of country apprentices, because even where there are technical schools there are frequently too few apprentices to warrant either day or evening classes.

The Technical Correspondence School courses fill the gap to some extent, but some parts of an apprentice's training cannot be dealt with adequately by correspondence, and some trades do not lend themselves at all to treatment by words without practice.

So for lack of numbers in country districts, and to supplement correspondence school instruction in some trades, block courses began.

The building industry is an example where distance from the classes makes half-day attendance difficult. Many building apprentices work mainly in the suburbs,
and the time spent travelling to weekly classes is disproportionate to the class period. 1

Every three weeks, from February to December, a group of 16 to 20 apprentices from all parts of New Zealand attends a block course at the Wellington Technical College in painting and decorating. The work is a mixture of theory and practice, including paperhanging and signwriting. A special block containing eight cubicles has been built for practical work.

Similar block courses 3 are provided for:

- Moulding, at Petone
- Automotive Electricity and Automotive Machining, at Petone
- Motor Mechanics, at Auckland, Petone and Christchurch.

1. See p 148
2. See p 143
Electrical trade, at Petone

Plumbing, at Petone and Dunedin.

**LOCAL CLASSES**

For the majority of apprentices, attendance at a school four hours once a week, or eight hours a fortnight, is the normal pattern, with the eight-hours a fortnight the more popular, especially with employers. 1

Except in the motor trade, it has not yet been possible for all schools to provide day-time instruction, and so not all apprentices in the industries mentioned below are released by their employers to attend technical classes. A beginning has been made, however. The list gives the percentage coverage of each industry in 1954. 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Coverage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aircraft Engineering</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boilermaking</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cabinetmaking</td>
<td>73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor Trades</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plumbing</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refrigeration</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheetmetal-working</td>
<td>81%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. See p 148
2. No later figures are available.
3. Apprentices in the two largest organizations attend classes in their own workshops.
In carpentry and joinery, apprentices attend classes for a week at a time four times a year, with an alternative arrangement of two fortnights a year in some places. Under this scheme, country apprentices attend classes with the local lads. Every carpentry and joinery apprentice in Otago, Southland and Taranaki is able to receive technical class instruction during the first three years of his apprenticeship. There is an 85 per cent coverage for the whole country. 1

Except in the Auckland City area, electrical apprentices attend classes on Saturday mornings, being paid for the time at normal rates, and having that time credited to their apprenticeship terms. 2 The Auckland City scheme of training during normal working hours operates on a voluntary basis.

Apprentices who attend classes during normal working hours have no deductions made from their weekly wages. 3 If they have to attend courses away from home, accommodation is made available for them in Departmental hostels, but many stay with relatives or friends. The Labour Department provides free rail travel, as well as a small lodging allowance.

1. Printing block courses to begin February, 1957. 1
2. See p 69
3. s 32 of 1948 Act.

1. 1954 figure - latest available.
During 1955, nearly 6,800 apprentices attended day-release classes or courses. That is 42 per cent of all apprentices, excluding those in the Government's employ.

Provision for daylight classes has been made by the Court in many trades which have not so far succeeded in putting the provision into practice. They are:

- Bootrepairing
- Bricklaying
- Coopering
- Footwear manufacturing
- Gardening
- Hairdressing
- Jewellery and Watchmaking
- Lead Burning and Chemical Plumbing
- Masonry
- Mechanical Dentistry
- Plastering
- Ship, yacht and boat building
- Sundry metal trades
- Sundry furniture trades

1. Printing block courses to begin February, 1957. Baking courses have stopped temporarily.
Trades in which no provision is made for day training are:

Clothing,

Coachbuilding,

Leather, saddlery and canvas goods, and

Terrazzo.

**TRAINING ON THE JOB**

Impressive though the development of daylight training has been, the main responsibility for teaching an apprentice still falls on his employer.

To judge the suitability of a business for the training of an apprentice, most committees have sub-committees for inspection work. They consist of an employer, a worker, and the District Commissioner. Occasionally, a full committee descends on a place about which doubts may have arisen.

Specialization in industry often makes decisions very difficult, because what were once accepted as trade processes may have become sets of operations which semi-skilled men learn quickly. A question which faces local committees is whether these specialized factories are suitable for training apprentices.

2. See p. 145
3. See p. 161
The New Zealand committees help the local committees by setting out the branches of an industry suitable for apprenticeship. They also include in the apprenticeship orders lists of operations and skills from which employers select those they will teach.

**THE TRADES CERTIFICATION BOARD**

The only trades to which entrance is restricted by examination are plumbing and electrical work. It is permissible for a plumbing candidate to sit the examination after 9,000 of his 12,000 hours' apprenticeship. In the electrical trade, a candidate must pass within two years after his apprenticeship or leave the trade. Candidates may sit the examination after 4,000 hours and gain provisional registration after 6,000. Registration is a statutory obligation and is made with the Plumbers' Board or the Electrical Wiremen's Registration Board.

The special examinations in these trades are conducted by the Trades Certification Board in co-operation with the industries.

Certificates are not essential in other trades, but examinations are open to those seeking tangible proof of their ability and trade knowledge. The examining authority is again the Trades Certification Board,

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1. 1953, No 85. 2. 1952, No 73.
created in 1948, and subsidized by the Government.

Whereas in 1949 there were 1,350 successful candidates, the numbers had increased to 3,695 in 1955. In 1956, 131 papers, covering 25 trades, were set for the 6,215 entrants.

For most trades the sequence of examination is:

First Qualifying Examination - one or two years after beginning apprenticeship,

Second Qualifying Examination - one or two years later, and then,

Trade Certificate Examination - towards the end of the apprenticeship.

For some trades, there is an Advanced Trade Certificate Examination a year after completion of apprenticeship.

In 1956, papers at the following levels were set for 25 trades:

First and Second Qualifying, Trade and Advanced Trade Certificate:

Automotive Electricity
Automotive Machining
Carpentry and Joinery
Electrical Trade
Motor-cycle Mechanics
Motor Mechanics

1. No Second Qualifying.
Painting and Decorating

Tractor Mechanics

First and Second Qualifying, and Trade Certificate:

level, there is often a practical test and a written paper.

Cabinetmaking

Coachbuilding

Fitting, Turning and Machining

Hand and Machine Typography

Letterpress Machining

Plumbing

Radio

Ship, Yacht and Boat Building

Signwriting

First and Second Qualifying:

Aircraft Engineering, Panelbeating

Sheetmetal-working

First Qualifying:

Bookbinding

1. New syllabus in preparation, see p161
2. The Trade Certificate examination is, at the request of the workers' union, entitled the Final Apprentice Examination.
3. No Second Qualifying.
The junior examinations are nearly all written, but certificates of practical competence from schools or employers are required. At the Trade Certificate level, there is often a practical test and a written paper.

On official request for an examination, the Board appoints a committee of employers, workers and technical educationists to prepare a prescription. The first draft is reviewed by the Board and sent to the appropriate New Zealand apprenticeship committee for comment. The views of technical schools are also sought. When the apprenticeship committee and the Board have approved the prescription and the conditions of entry, the details are printed and the examinations instituted.

The examinations test the student's knowledge of up-to-date practices, and industry has the greatest confidence in them. It is happy to pay the increased wages provided in many orders for apprentices who pass.

Most young men who pass the First Qualifying receive 2s 6d. a week extra if it is a first-year examination, or 5s. a week if it is a second-year one. The Second Qualifying brings a further 5s., so that an apprentice who has passed both examinations receives 7s 6d. or 10s. a week above his normal wages. This
pattern is not universal but Appendix H, page 208, lists those industries where it occurs.

Since the Board commenced its activities in 1949, apprentices have shown greater interest in technical education. Many voluntarily attend classes or take correspondence courses. Among those compelled by an apprenticeship order to attend evening classes or take correspondence courses, the number disciplined for poor attendance or failure to complete assignments has diminished each year. Reasons for the increased interest are:

- **The monetary incentives,**
- **The practical nature of the prescriptions,** and
- **The increased interest of employers.**

A voluntary body set up within the motor industry is represented on the Board and prepares the examination papers for its trade. Members of the Trades Certification Board are the Commissioner of Apprenticeship, and representatives of employers, workers, technical school teachers, the Electrical Wiremen's Registration Board, the Motor Trades Certification Board, the Plumbers' Board and the Department of Education.

1. See p 70  
Chapter

SIX

TRADE PREFERENCES
OF
APPRENTICES

One boy in three — probably more — enters an
apprenticeship to a skilled trade; the figures for girls
are microscopic by comparison. \(^2\) Statistics exact to the
last digit are not given in either case, because
the thousands of young people who leave school every year
do not immediately sort themselves out into their life
vocations. A boy does not necessarily start an appren-
ticeship within a year of leaving school. However, a
very close estimate can be obtained.

In December, 1955, the post-primary schools estimated
that 1,306 post-primary male leavers would probably enter apprenticeships. \(^2\) The number of
new contracts registered during the 1955-56 financial
year \(^3\) was more than 1,306 post-primary male leavers
who entered during the 1955 calendar year.

Neither percentage really mirrors the facts.

There are no figures of how many 1955 leavers did enter
trades, \(^6\) and allowance for those who began appren-
ticeships some time after leaving school can only be an
estimate. The official Department of Labour figures

1. Post-primary schools estimated 1.7\% of 1955
girl leavers would probably enter skilled trades.

2. A to J's, 1956, N-1, p. 79.


4. Figures of those leaving primary schools for work
do not show probable apprentice numbers.
**HOW MANY BOYS ENTER APPRENTICESHIPS?**

One boy in three — probably more — enters an apprenticeship to a skilled trade; the figures for girls are microscopic by comparison.\(^1\) Statistics exact to the last digit are not ascertainable in either case, because the thousands of young people who leave school every year do not immediately sort themselves out into their life vocations. A boy does not necessarily start an apprenticeship within a year of leaving school. However, a very close estimate can be obtained.

In December, 1955, the post-primary schools estimated that more than 30 per cent of their male leavers would probably enter apprenticeships.\(^2\) The number of new contracts registered during the 1955-56 financial year\(^3\) was more than 36 per cent of the 12,306 post-primary male leavers during the 1955 calendar year.

Neither percentage really mirrors the facts. There are no figures of how many 1955 leavers did enter trades,\(^4\) and allowance for those who began apprenticeships some time after leaving school can only be an estimate. The official Department of Labour figures

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1. Post-primary schools estimated 1.7% of 1955 girl leavers would probably enter skilled trades.
2. A to J's, 1956, E-1, p 79.
4. Figures of those leaving primary schools for work do not show probable apprentice numbers.
show the number of new contracts but they do not reveal
when each boy left school. Nevertheless, during much
the same period in which 12,306 young men left post-
primary schools, 4,469 new contracts were begun. Even
accepting a lag in the commencement of training, at
least one third of the annual addition to the male
labour force is training for skilled work.

TRADE PREFERENCES OF APPRENTICES

It has been said that what attracts a boy is
either a wheel or an edged tool. 1 This is borne out in
New Zealand, where carpentry and joinery, and the motor
trade, are easily the most popular trades for young
people. 2

School experiences may influence this trend,
because woodwork is introduced into the primary school
curriculum in Form 1, and continued on into the secon-
dary school courses. This means that boys have had
about four years' introductory experience before they
leave school. Another potent reason is that a wood-
worker can ply his trade with great advantage in his
own home; in fact, he can literally build it.

1. Report on Annual Conference of the
Master Builders' Federation. March,
1955. Address by H. C. McQueen

2. They absorbed between them 46.9 %
of all new contracts, year ended
March, 1956.
The Painting and Decorating Apprenticeship Committee has suggested to the Department of Education that some work with brushes and colour be introduced into the industrial courses on the ground that a greater number of lads might then be attracted to painting and decorating. Such a scheme is very good in theory, but the introduction of snippets of every trade would destroy the body of the school curriculum.

Technical school courses are not specifically vocational, but merely a practical approach to education for boys not academically inclined. However, they do have a subtle influence in conditioning young men to careers in particular fields. Even though pre-vocational training may develop, the motor trade is the only one that has even mentioned an appropriate reduction in the term of apprenticeship for those who have done this preliminary training.

The popular trades — motor and carpentry — have so many boys offering that employers, especially the large firms, can to some extent pick and choose. For less popular trades, so few boys offer that only those patently unsuitable are rejected.

1. In a letter to the Department of Education from the N.Z. Master Painters' Federation.

2. Statements by senior executives of large city firms.
In the official list of 32 categories, seven trades were employing 79.5 per cent of all apprentices in training at March, 1956. The popular seven, with the percentage each was employing, were:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trade</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carpentry</td>
<td>27.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor</td>
<td>19.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>7.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plumbing</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furniture</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coachbuilding</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the wages in the initial stages are approximately the same in all trades, what are the factors that make a trade a popular one?

Public opinion, as well as a boy's casual impressions and school experiences, appear to be important. Public opinion, however, is frequently misinformed. Many years ago, moulding involved most strenuous work in hot, unpleasant conditions, and, not surprisingly, few boys were attracted to it. Today, although the conditions of work have improved considerably, there is still an

1. A to J's, 1956, H-11, p 45.
2. See Graph, p 115 and Appendix E, p 205, for order of popularity of all trades.
3. See Appendix D, 204 for wages of apprentices
4. See p 184.
urgent demand for moulders' apprentices. To an observer, the conditions seem no dirtier or more arduous than those of a motor mechanic; yet, whereas there are 3,092 budding mechanics, there are only forty-one moulding apprentices, half the number there were ten years ago.¹

I feel sure that many boys would not be quite so set on motor engineering or carpentry if they were to have a close look at other trades. The creative problems that moulders wrestle with, are, to my mind, more stimulating and absorbing than the difficulties of servicing a motor engine. In the course of my investigations, I watched some operations calling for resourcefulness and a high degree of skill and judgment.

Public lack of knowledge of the range of the trades is something which, I think, should be overcome by deliberate planning for improved public relations. Publicity, advertising and other ways of developing public interest

are sadly lacking in most trades. Only a few — notably the motor industry — are actively publicising themselves. The eagerness of boys to join the motor industry is one of the results of a publicity campaign, which is very effective, owing partly to the already intrinsic interest that motor engineering holds for most boys.

Some employers in other trades are keen to develop public relations and publicity methods similar to those which have proved so successful in the motor industry. They are convinced that employers acting individually cannot arrest and retain public interest.  

How curiously similar are these attitudes to some aspects of the medieval guild in which the whole trade functioned together as a corporate body with a community of interest in its welfare.

1. Statement by Mr. R. Slade, Director, E.D.A.C. Ltd., the experimental section of Philips Electrical Industries of N.Z. Ltd., Wellington, to the author.
DISTRIBUTION OF APPRENTICES

(to nearest fifty)
in the twenty most popular trades,* at 31st March, 1956.

* See Appendix E for popularity order of all trades, with exact figures.
ATTRACTIVENESS OF TRADES

The working conditions in trades may be vastly different — the scaffolding of a six-story building and the quiet of a photo-engraving camera room — but each trade has its good and bad points. Public esteem magnifies one or the other and inclines some parents and boys to consider the trade, rather than the boy's abilities. Fortunately, most boys are very adaptable, but there are such things as natural aptitudes, and they should most certainly be encouraged.

Six Floors Up:

DISTRIBUTION OF APPRENTICES

Whereas in some industries the skill of the tradesman is being supplanted by semi-automatic machines requiring little skill to operate, skill of an increasingly
high order in servicing these machines is in demand. The progress of automation may reduce employment for the traditional tradesmen, but it must increase the need for technical servicing.

If the demand is changing in different trades, is the present distribution of each year’s new apprentice labour force appropriate? Let us consider the group of trades comprising the building industry — bricklaying, carpentry, painting, plastering and plumbing — and the distribution of apprentices in the years 1928 and 1956:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trade</th>
<th>1928</th>
<th>1956</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bricklaying</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carpentry</td>
<td>52.7%</td>
<td>70.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Painting</td>
<td>14.4%</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plastering</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plumbing</td>
<td>22.3%</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table indicates an unbalance in the distribution of boys; carpentry gaining nearly twenty percent at the expense of the others. The point is illustrated diagramatically on the following page and in a graph on page 119.

1. For actual numbers, see Appendix F, p 206.
Fluctuations in the number of apprentices in bricklaying, carpentry, painting, plastering, and plumbing during the period 1928-1956.

- **Carpentry**: 1928: 52%, 1956: 72%
- **Plumbing**: 1928: 22%, 1956: 15%
- **Painting**: 1928: 14%, 1956: 8%
- **Plastering**: 1928: 7%, 1956: 4%
- **Bricklaying**: 1928: 4%, 1956: 2%

APPRENTICES IN THE BUILDING INDUSTRY

Fluctuations in the number of apprentices in Bricklaying, Carpentry, Painting, Plastering and Plumbing, during the period 1928 - 1956.

During the last five years plumbing has increased its proportion of the apprentice force within the building industry from 13.7 per cent to 15.9 per cent, and with 1,012 contracts in force in March, 1956, (619 in 1952), seems well on the way to overcoming the shortage of journeymen plumbers. The annual intake of apprentices is now over 250.

1. See Appendix G, p 207.
Painting is increasing its numbers very slowly indeed — 416 apprentices in 1947, 453 in 1952 and 493 in 1956 — which, in comparison with the other four trades, is a drop of 3.5 per cent. 1

Fluctuations in the number of Painting apprentices between 1947 and 1956.

The line (---) represents a hypothetical, proportional increase in numbers, using as an index of stability the 1947 figure, 11.2 per cent.

Changes in the Percentage of Building Industry apprentices employed as painters during the period 1947 - 1956

1. See Appendix G, p 207
Plastering is making better progress, moving from 126 in 1947, and 188 in 1952, to 282 in 1956, although in terms of the other trades this is a gain of only one per cent.

Learning to manage plaster

Fluctuations in the number of Plastering apprentices during the years 1947 to 1956.

The line (— — ) represents a hypothetical, proportional increase in numbers, using as an index of stability, the 1947 figure, 3.4 per cent.

Changes in the Percentage of Building Industry apprentices employed as plasterers during the period 1947 - 1956.

1. See Appendix G, p 207
Bricklaying advanced from 50 apprentices in 1947, and 72 in 1952, to 123 in 1956, making a gain of only point six per cent within the building industry.  

**Fluctuations in the number of Bricklaying apprentices between 1947 and 1956.**

The line (---) represents a hypothetical, proportional increase in numbers, using as an index of stability, the 1947 figure, 1.3 per cent.

**Changes in the Percentage of Building Industry apprentices employed as bricklayers between 1947 and 1956.**

1. See Appendix G, p 207
Carpentry has had a fluctuating advance. The numbers — 2,424 apprentices in 1947, 3,180 in 1952, and 4,487 in 1956 — indicate a steady climb, but, over the last four years, the proportion of carpentry apprentices dropped (as within the building industry) from 70.9 per cent to 70.1 per cent.  

Fluctuations in the number of Carpentry apprentices between 1947 and 1956.

The line (—) represents a hypothetical, proportional increase in numbers, using as an index of stability, the 1947 figure, 65.8 per cent.

1. See Appendix G, p 207
Changes in the Percentage of Building Industry apprentices employed as carpenters between 1947 and 1956.

The changes in the numbers of apprentice carpenters as compared with the changes in the numbers of apprentices in each of the four trades — plumbing, painting, plastering and bricklaying — over the years 1928, 1947 and 1956, are shown in ratio in the following tables. The figures have been rounded, for clarity, to the nearest unit.

### Plumbers : Carpenters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Plumbers : Carpenters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td>2 : 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1947</td>
<td>2 : 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1956</td>
<td>2 : 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Painting : Carpenters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td>2 : 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1947</td>
<td>2 : 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1956</td>
<td>2 : 18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. For the numbers, see Appendix F, p 206.
Plasterers : Carpenters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Plasterers</th>
<th>Carpenters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1947</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1956</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bricklayers : Carpenters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Bricklayers</th>
<th>Carpenters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1947</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1956</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An interesting sidelight on these trends is that painting, bricklaying and plastering, which require completion of Form II only, cannot get nearly enough boys. Carpentry and plumbing, requiring two years' post-primary are not really short of boys.

* See s.7 (Pre-requisite Education) of Court orders for respective industries.
Whether the recent slight decline in the carpentry percentage\(^1\) will continue, allowing the other sub-contracting trades to develop to better comparative stature, remains to be seen.

**UNDUE SHARE OF APPRENTICES**

Certainly, the building industry has been more than fairly supplied with recruits. In 1947, it was employing 23.6 per cent of all apprentices in private enterprise. Since then, it has steadily increased its share, until in 1956, it has 39.8 per cent — an increase of 11.2 per cent — absorbed almost entirely in carpentry.

In 1956, the building industry gained 39.1 per cent of all the new contracts, or 1,749 apprentices.\(^*\) Of that number, carpentry absorbed 1,205,\(^*\) or 68.8 per cent — an unduly large proportion, though not as egregiously large as the 72.2 per cent of the previous year.

There is cause for concern in these trends, as the building industry depends for its prosperity on the level of capital investment in the community, and, in times of depression, capital investment is one of the first expenses to be avoided, and one of the last to be resumed when the up-swing begins. In 1928, just prior to the

1. See graph, p 125.

\(^*\) A to J's, 1956, H-11, p 45.
depression of the 1930's, the building industry was employing 33.1 per cent of all apprentices in private enterprise. Yet by 1935, it was able to employ only 9.6 per cent.

MAJOR TRADES LOSING GROUND

A striking feature of the big post-war swing towards the building industry is that in five other major industries — motor, electrical, engineering, furniture and printing — only the motor trade has managed even to uphold its percentage of the total number of apprentices in training. Indeed, in making a gain, the motor industry has helped to reduce the other industries' percentages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1928</th>
<th>1947</th>
<th>1956</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motor</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furniture</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>3.7 *</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The appearance of separate apprenticeships in aircraft engineering and radio has contributed only slightly to the drop in engineering and electrical percentages.

* Based on figures in A to J's, H-11, of respective years.
In 1956, the aircraft engineering and radio trades were each employing only .8 per cent of all apprentices. ¹

¹. See "Contracts in Force", A to J's, 1956, H-11, p 45.
Chapter
SEVEN

SELECTION AND TRAINING

Few boys trouble to check scientifically their suitability for a trade, asking whether they should be, for instance, plumber or electrician. The Vocational Guidance Service nearly always finds their choice already fairly certain, who ask for information on single or related trades, but are unsure about widely differing ones.

Frequently, prejudice and fortuitous circumstances, such as friends’ occupations or family preferences, are deciding factors in their choice of occupation.

Many firms in New Zealand assess potential apprentices by their reactions to attitude and mental tests, although there is one firm which insists on a test for colour blindness.

Some employers rely on the kind of school a boy comes from, even though there is no evidence that the level of average attainment in one type of school is better than another. It is the average, not the brilliant, boy who seeks apprenticeship.

1. Personal statement to author by Mr. G. Innes, Vocational Guidance Centre, Wellington.
3. Coulis Somerville Wilkie Ltd.
Few boys trouble to check scientifically their suitability for a trade, asking whether they should be, for instance, plumbers or printers.¹ The Vocational Guidance Service has many callers, their choice already fairly certain, who ask for information on single or related trades, but few inquire about widely differing ones.

Frequently, prejudice and fortuitous circumstances, such as friends' occupations or family preferences, are deciding factors in a boy's choice of occupation.²

No firms in New Zealand assess potential apprentices by their reactions to aptitude and mental tests, although there is a Dunedin printing firm which insists on a test for colour blindness.³

Some employers rely on the kind of school a boy comes from, even though there is no evidence that the level of average attainment in one type of school is better than another.⁴ It is the average, not the brilliant, boy who seeks apprenticeship.

¹ Dobinson, Technical Education for Adolescents, p 50.
² Coulls Somerville Wilkie Ltd.
While R.W. Bruning found that the average IQ of furniture apprentices was only 88, there is, I feel, reason to believe that his testing procedure did not bring out the true ability of the apprentices. Data quoted by Whitford suggests that few boys below 100-105 IQ make good apprentices. It is, therefore, essential that moderately endowed boys be employed to best advantage.

Results from surveys, made by Vocational Guidance, of the average IQ of apprentices in various trades are not available to the public, but Mr. G. Innes, of the Wellington Centre, stresses that, in comparison with the differences of average IQ between trades, the range within trades is much more impressive. Apprentices at the lower end of each range may, through misplacement in industry, be unable to achieve their potential ability.

Human beings are not completely predictable as individuals, but nevertheless, considerable savings could be made in all industries through careful selection. The more advantageous the placement, the greater the economic return from each apprentice.

Small employers can least afford to pick a "dud", yet, nevertheless, they seem to make the most faulty

2. See Note 4 on previous page.
selections. 1 A large firm in which one of perhaps four apprentices turns out badly is better able to carry on than the small employer whose sole apprentice is not satisfactory.

In scientific vocational selection, three factors of predominant importance should be considered:

1. Has the boy enough practical ability to learn to use the tools and machines in the workshop?

2. Has he the intelligence to absorb the theoretical knowledge necessary?

3. Can he get on sufficiently well with foremen and workmates to make a useful member of a team?

If the selection is in the hands of a psychologist, he will possibly test for speed and accuracy in checking details and in making simple calculations. Ability to judge shapes and sizes, mechanical comprehension, and verbal and non-verbal intelligence are other points for assessment by an expert.

The Vocational Guidance Service uses:

- Otis Intelligence Tests
- Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale
- Raven's Matrices

1. Whitford, see Note 4, p 130
The Bennet Test of Mechanical Comprehension

Minneapolis Paper Form Board

A.C.E.R. Speed and Accuracy

Spelling - multiple choice type
V.G. design, influenced mainly by the Queensland version

Arithmetic - V.G. design for apprentice level assessment when School Certificate has not been obtained.

Dictation - V.G. design, for cases of low educational achievement, and used mainly in higher level occupation guidance - three page biographical questionnaire

WHAT TYPE OF APPRENTICE ARE WE TRAINING?

Secondary industries are growing, but only as they service our community, and few manufactured products are exported. Indeed, the big overseas manufacturing concerns, with the resources to carry out research in original fields, set the pace for New Zealand and supply most of our needs. The only large scale original research here is carried on by Government departments, such as the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research. The skill in design
required in such industries as we possess is directed mainly towards the adaptation of overseas products to local conditions.

Builders and cabinet-makers need designing ability to transform the sometimes vague ideas of clients into pleasing reality, but it must be admitted that in many other fields the demand for designing skill is very limited. Accordingly, apprentices tend to concern themselves mainly with the "how" of their trades, rather than the theoretical principles. Theory is employed only to make the "how" understandable. When secondary industry becomes more autonomous, the need for much greater theoretical grounding will increase immeasurably.

To this end, trade examinations are growing in number, and courses for higher qualifications are steadily appearing. Whether this is in response to the worldwide trend towards increasing technical complexity in industry, or a deliberate attempt to train higher level workers on overseas standards, is difficult to decide. It is certain, however, that the trade examinations are encouraging higher levels of trade competence.

1. See p 137
2. See p 136
4. See p 147
Even so, are they sufficient to meet future developments? Modern industry demands higher standards, but the intellectual quality of boys entering apprenticeships is improving only slowly, if at all. It is true that, today, some 6.5 per cent of all motor mechanic apprentices have a School Certificate, whereas a few years ago the number was negligible, but the trend does not necessarily apply to other trades.

The tradition that intellectually able boys enter either the professions or white collar occupations is still strong. Industry is attracting the average boy and frequently expecting him to master increasingly more complex trades.

The question must be faced: Is the average boy potentially capable of the heights to which industry could challenge him? In many cases — No! Yet, there is a demand for men with a practical grounding, who have come up from apprenticeship, to hold the middle-level technicians' appointments. As it is, professionally trained engineers are frequently employed on jobs that would be more properly assigned to middle-level technicians, but such people are few and far between.  

Courses for advanced trade certificates and New Zealand certificates of engineering have been established, and

1. Information from N.Z. Motor Trades' Board.
2. See Note 3, p 134
one for the New Zealand Technical Certificate of Automotive Engineering is in preparation. It remains to be seen whether the trades have sufficient workers capable of reaching these levels. The 1954 committee on engineering qualifications considered that technicians should outnumber professional engineers by two or three to one. This year, more than 200 are studying for the New Zealand certificates of engineering.

What is being done for engineering could be done for other occupations, if the need for it were clearly demonstrated. It seems highly probable that well-trained technicians are needed, for example, in the building, timber, food processing and hotel industries, in industrial management, and in printing and colour process work, but until men with the proper training are available, the industries may not be fully aware of what they need, while the schools will find difficulty in attracting students until a demand for their services exists in industry. The circle can be broken only at the point where the industry and the technical school come together to discuss the needs of the one and the resources of the other.

1. Sponsored by the Dept of Education, and representative of the N.Z. Inst. of Engineers, the University, the technical schools, Govt. Depts employing engineers, and the Engineers' and Assistants' Assoc.

TEACHING THE APPRENTICE

Apprentices, generally, are not well endowed with abstract reasoning ability. Their interests and thinking processes are practical, and find a natural outlet in the realistic and purposeful activities of their trades. But all trade processes have theoretical bases which tradesmen must understand in order to be competent.

Apprentices are gathered together in classes to be introduced systematically to modern trade theory, and there is a problem — theory for young people who learn best by doing. The answer, simple when generalized, is to demonstrate and explain underlying theoretical principles in a practical situation. In such a setting, apprentices can think in abstraction by, for instance, following a realistic sequence of events and learning what is happening at each stage.

But demonstrations and experiments require machinery, apparatus and material, and each trade has its own paraphernalia.

Educational finances cannot as yet provide all the facilities. Some trades, notably motor and printing, have donated machinery and materials to the schools, but many others have taken no action, and the achievements of their apprentices at classes have continued to be restricted.

Another point is that instructors face a wide range of attainment and aptitude in their classes, which vary in number up to fifteen at a time. Because the numbers in most trades are small, few attempts are made to stream.

In the largest centres, some streaming is possible, for instance, at the Wellington Technical College, the Mechanical engineering apprentices are so numerous that streaming has been possible with benefit to them all. The upper stream can be watched developing experimentally, but it is a universal problem, aggravating one of the tests, is to use the tests of newly indentured apprentices.

Registration of an apprenticeship contract, at whatever period of the year, compels attendance from then on, and the schools are not concerned with the district, or whether in the district, or even at the Technical Correspondence School; that is, of course, the trade concerned is the one for which supplementary school training is compulsory.

The Technical Correspondence School classifies apprentices in the first three years of their training as "ordered students" meaning that they have been ordered

of their apprentices at classes have continued to be restricted.

Another point is that instructors face a wide range of attainment and aptitude in their pupils, which may number up to fifteen at a time. Because the numbers in most trades are small, few attempts are made to stream apprentices into graded classes. In the largest centres, some streaming is possible, however. For instance, at the Wellington Technical College, the mechanical engineering apprentices are so numerous that streaming has been possible, with benefit to them all. The upper stream does an enriched course.

Devising practical demonstrations and experiments, meaningful for the lower end of the unstreamed class, yet interesting for the top, is a universal problem, aggravated by the addition, from time to time, of newly indentured apprentices.

Registration of an apprenticeship contract, at whatever period of the year, compels attendance from then on at daylight classes, if held in the district, or enrolment with the Technical Correspondence School; that is, of course, if the trade concerned is one of those for which supplementary school training is compulsory.

The Technical Correspondence School classifies apprentices in the first three years of their training as "ordered students", meaning that they have been ordered
by the Department of Labour to enrol under the terms of
their apprenticeship.

An apprentice indentured in, for instance, September,
must take his place in a class two-thirds of the way
through its year's work. Apprentices enrolling after
June are required, if they lack previous experience or
other qualifications, to attend the first-year classes
again the following year. Application of the law requir-
ing immediate enrolment in daylight classes involves,
except in cases of well-qualified and intellectually
able boys, an added burden for teachers, a slowing down
in the rate of progress in the class, and unnecessarily
advanced study for the late-comers.

On the other side of the picture, the practical
down to earth, man-to-man attitude the trade instructors
bring to their work can overcome erroneous notions of
new apprentices that daylight classes are dull and
academic. The flow of questions in many of the day
classes is evidence that most boys find the work stimu-
lating.
DISCIPLINE

Work is very different from school. Supervision is less strict and the interests and amusements of the 16 and 18-year-olds are not those of 12 to 15-year-olds. Technical classes have to compete with motor-bikes, dances, girls and perhaps drink.

The Principal of the Wellington Technical College considers there is a definite correlation between the behaviour in apprentice classes and the level of intellectual capacity each trade demands. There is a hierarchy of behaviour levels. Engineering classes are generally among the best behaved. Carpentry classes are average, while furniture classes are sometimes unruly.

Some District Commissioners have found the most troublesome apprentices are often those for whom the educational standards have been waived.

Occasionally, a boy, for lack of interest or some other reason, skylarks and unsettles the class, or neglects to keep up with his assignments. If he continues to be recalcitrant, the local committee is informed, and the boy appears before it. His problems are discussed sympathetically, but, if necessary, his pay increases are postponed and his apprenticeship term extended.

1. Personal statement to author.

A difficulty is that some time elapses before the matter reaches the committee — perhaps a month — during which the boy's problems become more involved and his attitude confirmed.

Although committees, through their sincere and unvarnished opinions and judgments, are remarkably successful in handling misdirected youngsters, the employers should, I feel, be informed immediately of apprentices' misdoings, as they are in England, and asked to discuss the matter sympathetically with them.

Most "bosses" have great influence with their apprentices, and although their counsels would not be official, they would probably be more timely.

Some employers informed me, in tones of alarm or resignation, that the official committee inquiry was the first notice they received of their apprentice's misbehaviour.

I would not go so far as to say I found, as R.W. Bruning did, "surprisingly little accurate knowledge of the way the several classes (in carpentry) are being conducted and even less knowledge of the Trades Certificate syllabus." But I did find some employers who related tales of skylarking at the classes, but, who, on further questioning, revealed that they knew little about class atmosphere and discipline. Employers, one would think, have a duty to inform themselves about daylight training and the way schools are tackling it. Conceivably, those employers who complain about the quality of journeymen are those who least interest themselves in the welfare of their apprentices.

**HOW ARE WE TRAINING APPRENTICES?**

Some people advocate abolishing apprenticeship training by private employers, in favour of State training schools. The advocates are mainly men who fared badly in the depression and feel that training under the auspices of the State would prevent future economic recessions interrupting training.

The suggested schools would be similar to those used for the rapid training of war-workers or in the building trade by the Rehabilitation Department. Some countries have established trade schools in which the youth learns his craft skills and the necessary technical background from teachers withdrawn from industry for the purpose. The learners do much the same as the traditional apprentice, mastering their trade while producing useful, and normally marketable, goods. The cost of their training is borne evenly by the whole community and not just by purchasers of the goods.

There are wide differences of opinion on the extent to which technical schools should be equipped for trade training. One group of trades — carpentry, electrical, engineering and furniture — expects mainly theory and laboratory work. It claims that in practical work the school is apt to teach boys old-fashioned and uneconomic methods.

Learning on the job

and urges that employers, actually working in industry, are the best teachers. In the electrical trade, for instance, practical classes are voluntary. At the wish of the New Zealand Apprenticeship Committee, the compulsory daylight classes deal only with theory and laboratory work. Engineering classes deal only with theory, and carpenters have 25 per cent practical work.

Today, after some seven years of daylight classes, several of the older "bosses" speak in derogatory terms about the practical training at the classes. But the conditions of their day are not those ruling now, and much of their opposition is ill-founded.

R.W. Bruning found that:

Employers in cabinet-making "exhibit an overall attitude towards the principle of daylight training, the training classes, and associated things. This attitude appears to be independent of what they actually know about the scheme." 1

My experience is that employers' attitudes to the scheme are directly correlated to their knowledge of it. The unfortunate thing is how little employers know of the scheme.

The other group of trades, which includes painting and decorating, plumbing and sheetmetal-working,

wants a good deal of practical work. The motor industry even asks the schools to supplement the apprentice's workshop experience. Reboring, cylinder lining, and line boring of bearings, are practised, especially for country apprentices in workshops which send such jobs to the towns.

There is no absolute standard by which either view can be classed as right. The present policy of the Department of Education is that the technical schools should not attempt to duplicate the training for which industry is primarily responsible. They should help industry to produce tradesmen with adequate theoretical knowledge and background, but leave industry to teach its own skills.¹

The amount of practical training given by the schools varies from trade to trade, depending on the extent of specialization within each industry,² how much specialized accommodation and equipment is needed to supplement workshop training, and the Department's ability to provide it.

In view of the fact that an apprentice spends ninety per cent of his time working for his employer, and is paid also for the time he spends at daylight classes, many employers consider it uneconomic to train one at

¹ A to J's, E-1, 1954, p 26.
² La Trobe, Studies in Apprenticeship, p 20-1.
all! Understandably, the employer watches the balance between the cost of training and the productivity of the apprentice.

Almost without exception, employers favour technical classes and are happy to pay increased wages to persons passing the examinations. The opposition that does exist is against classes being held during the day. Some employers claim they are under contract to teach the boy the trade but cannot do it when he is away at classes. Others feel that the apprentice is benefiting only himself, and should therefore use his own time for technical studies.

The unions strongly support daylight training. Consequently, since 1948, committees have often reported a difference of opinion on the matter in their applications to the Court for apprenticeship orders. Nevertheless, the Court has always ordered some form of daylight training, and many reluctant employers are compelled to release their apprentices for day classes. These people tend to be highly suspicious, and any suggestion of poor instruction, bad workshop methods, or bad discipline only serves to arouse their immediate condemnation. Even well disposed employers would probably — and justifiably — change their attitude if the

schools did not meet their obligations. Cost conscious employers are keeping the schools right up to the prescribed syllabi.

All is not antagonism however. My investigations indicate that many employers are gradually coming to accept the value of daylight training, because apprentices are using theoretical knowledge in their work. Standards in the Trades Certification examinations are slowly improving, and perhaps the most subtle influence of all in predisposing employers is the increasing number of new journeymen who attended daylight classes during their apprenticeships.

Although familiarity with the system is bringing home its advantages to many employers, acceptance cannot well be left to the effluxion of time. Daylight training can ill afford continued lack of support from even a minority of employers. Many would agree with A.D. Priestley, of the Wellington Technical College, that:

"We must educate the employers to the advantages of daylight training."  

1. Statement to author by W.L. Combs, Secretary of the Trades Certification Board.  
2. Statement to author.
DIFFERENT FORMS OF DAYLIGHT TRAINING

In the cities and bigger towns, most trades use half a day a week for daylight training. This arrangement takes the apprentice away from his work for only four hours at a time and offers shorter intervals between technical training periods than occur under the block-course or fortnightly methods.

On the other hand, some trades, especially carpentry, have found one day a fortnight preferable on the ground that travelling time to brief weekly classes, sometimes from distant suburbs, is disproportionate to class time.

Distinct from these regular classes are the annual block courses, of usually three weeks' duration. The work covered at these is supplemented during the remainder of the year by correspondence. Some city apprentices have supplementary evening classes.

The block courses were developed originally for:

Apprentices who lived too far from technical schools to attend classes,

1. Sent to a centre, who may never have been away from home, to a large city with all its distractions. Local centres lack the support of the activities of the bigger schools.

Those trades in which the number of apprentices is too few to justify regular classes.

2. A to J's, 1955, No.1, p.35.

3. Statement to author by Mr. E. Slade, Director, E.D.A.C. Ltd., (see earlier reference)
Early misgivings about block courses, expressed when the baking trade began them in 1950, have proved groundless; and there is a swing in their favour. Their advantages are widely held to outweigh those of the small, local teaching units which, although they admittedly have the benefit of community interest, are sometimes indifferently staffed, ill-housed and ill-equipped.

The motor trade has changed over to the block scheme at Christchurch, and will change at Petone in 1957. Similar changes are occurring in other trades, and among those contemplating a switch over are some employers in the radio industry who feel that the present brief classes break up both work and study. Better to have all the theoretical study at the same time, they say, and thus achieve continuity for fifteen consecutive days, leaving the work of the shop uninterrupted.

Other considerations in favour of the block course are:

1. Sending boys, who may never have been away from home, to a large city with all its distractions. Local communities can offer little support or even have any great interest in the activities of a school hundreds of miles away. Employer loses the services of his apprentice for a considerable time - perhaps three weeks.


3. Statement to author by Mr. R. Slade, Director, E.D.A.C. Ltd., (see earlier reference)
Expensive machinery can be used more continuously and to better advantage. The motor trade is a good example: classes require machines costing many thousands of pounds. Indeed, the motor trades were arranging, during 1956, to donate £10,000 worth of equipment.

Highly specialized instructors, working full-time, are justified, whereas, with localities, the numbers of apprentices offering for daylight classes may justify only a part-time teacher.

The educative and social benefits of bringing together from all parts of New Zealand boys interested in the same trade. 1

Although block courses a year apart may have the same numbers, the apprentices attending are frequently different, making continuity difficult for newcomers. For absentees, it may become haphazard. Sickness, military training, and varying pressure periods for employers are the diverting factors.

Attendance at technical classes is normally compulsory 2 for only the first three years of the apprenticeship. Senior apprenticeship training in the last three years, instead of the first three, has been adopted in moulding. Gardeners have provision for it in

2. In thirteen industries.
their order, but have not yet put it into operation. Many engineering employers believe that only selected senior apprentices should have daylight training, but the workers think that all junior apprentices should attend classes. The Court order is a compromise between the two beliefs, and translates into practice the observation of the 1944 Commission\(^1\) that no one can foretell which boys of a group beginning a trade will be the future leading hands and foremen.

Thorough grounding in theory is vital

INSTRUCTORS

The instructors of apprentices attending technical classes are recruited from industry, their qualifications being mainly competence at their trade. But, of course, a good tradesman is not necessarily a good teacher. Teaching is a new technique to be added to the

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1. Commission of Inquiry into Apprenticeship and Related Matters, 1944. A to J's, 1945, H-11B.
trade skill. Most competent tradesmen can discuss the facts and foundations of their trades, but skilled men, competent at their trade, who can also teach and bring out the best in the boys, are not readily obtained.

Apprentices have always been highspirited and independent in their thinking. Scott describes, in his "Fortunes of Nigel", the eagerness with which the apprentices of the day responding to the traditional cry, "Prentices! Clubs!", rushed into the fight.

Up then rose the 'prentices all,
   Living in London, both proper and tall.

While the apprentices of 1956 are seldom accused of rioting, the restiveness traditional to their age and group is often released at the technical classes, making discipline a major problem. Firm control at a man-to-man level, skilful encouragement for students only moderately endowed with abstract reasoning power, and above all, a strong personality, are essential to a well ordered class. As A.D. Priestley puts it,

A.D. Priestley

"Instructing trade classes is not the same as High School teaching."
For the training of new instructors there is no formal system. Some gain part-time experience at evening classes; others come direct from industry. The heads of departments in technical schools and the inspectors advise and assist as best they can. Where possible, the newcomer begins with a period as a student-teacher.

Special teacher training courses of a year's duration in wood and light metal-work are conducted in Auckland by the Department of Education. The majority of the trainees take up posts in primary and post-primary schools, but a few become apprentice instructors.

The Department also provides, from time to time, two-day refresher courses for instructors in motor engineering, plumbing and carpentry, at which experts give practical advice on class management and other principles of teaching.

Lack of appropriate training often gives instructors, fresh from industry, a feeling of inferiority. To compensate for this, they frequently tend to become too academic. 1

For those who serve as part-time teachers at evening classes, the introduction to daylight teaching is easier, but mere familiarity does not in itself imply

competence. In most cases, competence is evident, but experience alone has seldom developed it. Study of teaching principles and the tenets of modern education, with advice from teaching colleagues, has helped many instructors.

Four-day training courses have been attempted, though not very successfully, as few part-time instructors can afford to lose wages while attending them. The motor industry is one of the few that make up the pay of its part-time instructors while they are attending courses. Plumbing instructors are in the main employed by local bodies and so do not lose salary. Instructors in other trades, however, have no compensation for loss of wages. Out-of-pocket expenses only are paid by the Department. The general view of two and four day courses is that only small sections can be covered. Experience has shown that too much is attempted in the time.\(^1\)

It is easy to advocate training courses for every instructor, full or part-time, but they are impracticable in the absence of financial support from industry or the Government, or both.

A "pressure-cooker" course on general principles is a possibility brought to mind by the experience of the painting and decorating instructor at Wellington. Having married a teacher, he was imbued with the idea of

\(^1\) Ibid, p 9.
becoming one himself and, to that end, left his trade in order to subject himself to "pressure-cooking". When, on the completion of his course, the opportunity of becoming a trade instructor presented itself, he was appointed. Partly as a result of his professional training, his teaching, class atmosphere and discipline are excellent. The possibility of all full-time instructors being first put through a suitable pressure-cooker course is remote, but nevertheless, it is a suggestion.

Men recruited from senior positions in industry must often accept a drop in pay when they commence teaching, 1 but within a few years the drop is made up, and salaries higher than industry might offer are later open to them. Many tradesmen cannot afford to leave their jobs to attend a year's wood or metal-work course. Spending a year at Auckland on a low salary is frequently too great a financial drain for the married man with a family. 2 This is apparently the main deterrent. It is the disadvantage to which men who might possibly take up teaching attribute most importance, when questioned. 3

Some theory classes are taken by fully-trained high school teachers, who through previous experience

1. See p 177.
3. Five of 13 tradesmen, with about ten years experience as journeymen, placed it first.
are competent to teach the theory of a particular trade. For example, the Head of the Engineering department at the Wellington Technical College, Mr. Sukolski, takes the engineering apprentice theory classes.
Adaptability of the Present System to Developments of Modern Industry
HOW LONG SHOULD AN APPRENTICESHIP LAST?

There are two aspects to this problem:

Individual differences in capacity to master craft skills, and

Uncertainty of what constitutes a minimum of essential craft competence.

The plain demonstrable fact is that a quick-witted youth, with dexterous hands, may reach in three years a degree of trade competence that another youth may attain only after five years' plodding. No one doubts that, but an apprenticeship system cannot be based on anything but the needs of its potential recruits, the vast army of the ordinary — those of average intellect and average skills. The tortoise has its victories, and it is always possible that young men endowed with unusual talent may lack the sturdy qualities of punctuality and industry upon which most employers insist. The five-year term in apprenticeship simplifies the handling of a very wide system, comprising a great number of very dissimilar trades. It ensures that youths on reaching men's estate — approximately at 21 — reach men's wages, and that the least brilliant are not disgruntled in their early lives anyway.
As for craft competence, it is true that an apprenticeship contract may list certain processes to be taught and mastered, but the degree of mastery is not readily defined. Different employers may exact different standards, and certainly in times of great prosperity, when labour is scarce, the standards may be very low as compared with those displayed by a tradesman who fears he may be displaced in a time of economic stress by another more competent man.

Although competence is clearly recognized when seen, it is another matter to be precise about it in advance. Speed in an operation, whatever it may be—bricklaying, setting type, putting electric wires into position—does not necessarily connote the good tradesman in every aspect of his craft, nor the man of initiative or original ideas.

Ideally, no doubt, contracts should be tailor-made to the capacity of individual apprentices, but such idealistic considerations have little place in an industrial system controlled by practical men and involving nearly 17,000 apprentices in more than 140 branches of trade. Arbitrary limits must be imposed.

In Elizabethan times, seven years was mandatory. Industrial development upset this badly. In those trades in which true apprenticeship survived, five years became
1.59 Instruction at the Forme

The usual term, and this is now almost traditional. As late as 1949, the term of printing apprenticeships in New Zealand was reduced from six years to 10,000 hours (five years), to bring it into line with most other trades.

The change does not highlight dramatic improvement in either the quality of apprentices or of teaching methods. It merely guarantees apprentices a shorter period of training and, other things being equal, less training. Efficiency in training depends largely on the degree of specialization attempted. The young man training as an all-rounder can have only a brief contact with each aspect of his craft. The specialist can concentrate more closely on the finer details of his particular interest. Here lies the difficulty of modern apprenticeship: Most trades are becoming more complex, splitting themselves into sections created by processes of increas-
ing intricacy. In many instances, in countries of high industrial development, boys are apprenticed to these branches, or sub-trades, and in this way the day of the all-rounder tends to recede. Apparent enough in the United States of America, this trend is not as yet so discernible in New Zealand, where many trades seek to assure all-round training through technical classes. Indeed, there is a demand for more and better training during the apprenticeship period, implying that every newly-established journeyman must be competent in every phase of his trade. This is expecting too much of the average apprentice. No doubt the bright boy will acquire a maturity and competence in his craft akin to that of the average journeyman of some years' standing, but the average young man still has much to learn when he first graduates. Should the period of apprenticeship then be extended? Every indication is that it should not.\footnote{La Trobe, \textit{Studies in Apprenticeship}, p 18}

Becoming a journeyman is a milestone in the life of a young tradesman, and the early twenties appears to be the best age for this change.

An apprenticeship contract guarantees sufficient training time for the average boy to grasp essential skills and principles. More individual training is not possible in the mass scale of modern industry.
BRANCHES OF INDUSTRY

One of the marks of a developing industry is the appearance of specialist firms within it. Motor and aircraft engineering have separated themselves from general engineering, and in turn have subdivided into specialist branches. An apprentice in the motor industry now has the choice of becoming a specialist under any one of five headings: motor mechanic, automotive electrician, automotive machinist, motorcycle mechanic or tractor mechanic. Indeed, a further classification is coming into being now — the automotive diesel mechanic. This will largely replace the tractor mechanic, but will also take in other diesel driven vehicles.

When specialism appears as a separate branch of an industry, apprenticeship committees are faced with
the serious problem of whether apprentices should be allowed in the new branch. A very good example is tool-making, now recognized in the engineering apprenticeship order as a special branch of the industry.

Apprenticeship committees tend to be conservative about new branches, because members feel that sound basic training in the major industry is essential for the man in the specialist branch. But as the new branch grows, so much has to be learned about it, that men trained in the parent industry have to go through an uneconomic period of further training. The new branch then needs apprentices in its own right.

Apprenticeship orders now in force accept the development of specialist branches. Not only have some of the branches gained their own orders, such as radio manufacturing and servicing, and refrigeration servicing, but other branches are specifically recognized within a parent industry, such as chair-making in the furniture industry.

Branches which have little to do with the parent industry are another matter. For instance, a scale mechanic has little need to use, let alone understand, the machines used in an engineer's shop. And a bridge carpenter's work is quite different from a house builder's. Should young people be bound as apprentices to these
industries, and should their contracts be subject to the Apprentices Act?

The Act leaves this possibility open. Section 3(1) applies to:

All employers engaged in an industry in which apprentices are employed and who are for the time being bound by an award or agreement relating to that industry; and also to all other employers engaged in any such industry to whom this Act is applied by order of the Court.

To all apprentices employed by any such employers in any such industry.

To all contracts of apprenticeship between any such employers and apprentices.

A contract of apprenticeship may be subject to the Act, even though the particular industry has no apprenticeship order. Any industry "in which apprentices are employed", and which is covered "by an award or agreement relating to that industry", is subject to the Act. Contracts of apprenticeship for scale mechanics are now registered, bringing that industry within the scope of the Act.

What happens in a new industry — a specialist branch — in which apprentices have not hitherto been employed? For example, recent developments in silk-
screen work in the poster and display industry fall outside the apprenticeship orders of both the painting and decorating, and printing, industries. The Act cannot apply because no apprentices are employed. Someone, usually the District Commissioner, decides whether the industry is of such complexity as to warrant fully-indentured apprentices. Registration of the first contract brings the industry within the scope of the Act and makes it one in which an apprentice may be employed.

District Commissioners have first to decide whether a lad entering the new industry will undergo progressive training, constantly learning more things, and mastering increasingly complex processes.

Secondly, there has to be a future for the lad, and there should, as a rule, be more than one firm operating, so that the young man will have some choice of employment when he is a journeyman. To assure the lad's future, the District Commissioner should also limit the number of apprentices trained.

Although a District Commissioner of Apprenticeship should not be too conservative about new industries, he can justify caution in his decisions by reference to an employer's right of appeal to the Court of Arbitration.
Although many specialized firms are permitted to take apprentices, the committees have a hankering wish that these apprentices should also gain experience in other fields of the trade. The ideal of the "all round" tradesman is widely accepted. In a country with many jobbing businesses and a mobile population, a young man should be able to earn a living in his trade no matter what shop he goes to, and be able to tackle any task in his trade. The versatility of New Zealanders stems from the pioneering days and the tradition of good basic training.

Where specialized activities of the employer preclude comprehensive training, the schools are often asked to make up the difference. They must not only supply the supplementary instruction in theory, but also complementary practical work, the amount depending on the trade and the degree of specialization in the district. Many specialized firms co-operate among themselves to change apprentices around to give them added experience. A good example, in the electrical trade, would be a boy who starts with a firm dealing almost exclusively with motors and electrical machinery, and changes for a period with the apprentice of an electrician working mainly on house wiring.
THE TRANSITION STAGE

The school's role is to fill the gap between the early stage of specialization when the apprentice should know about other aspects of the trade — if he is to have every opportunity of employment as a journeyman — and the later stage, when the specialization in which he is engaged is a full-time study in itself. An example is the evolution of the specialist auto-electrician.

Industry has its traditions. The engineering industry regards brass-finishing as a quite separate branch, yet, to observers, it requires much the same work and skills as fitting and turning, except that it is applied to non-ferrous metals.

Another custom is apprenticeship in industries inside which subdivision of operations is very advanced. The footwear manufacturing industry, for example, has had apprenticeship mentioned specifically in awards since 1896. Even then, apprentices did not learn to make a whole boot, but only to perform some of the processes. Today, the sub-division is even greater.

In the clothing industry, too, apprentices learn only one of the processes — stock-cutting, machining or pressing, for example — but not how to make a whole garment. Specialization of apprenticeship can scarcely go any further in this industry either.
But almost every industry using apprenticeship must face the development of some specialization. A specialized branch of an industry, if denied the privilege of training apprentices must, of necessity, draw journeymen from firms which do train them, reducing their labour supply. Some larger firms train apprentices in jobbing work but later employ them in specialized production in a part of the workshop in which apprentices do not work. Purely specialized firms, and fringe industries, such as the repair and servicing of scales, must draw their new workers from other sources, unless apprenticeships are permitted. A limited number are permitted for scale mechanics, the training being sufficiently complex to warrant indentured conditions.

**HOW MANY APPRENTICES?**

Among employers who want to increase the number of apprentices, one of the methods advocated is an increase in the proportion of apprentices to journeymen laid down in the various orders. The unions, opposed to such a mass increase, recall that until 1937 there were always too few jobs available. Through the years, the unions have won protection for their members in the form of conditions.
conducive to permanency of employment, and they are fully alive to the fact that control of the number of apprentices entering each trade, through precise proportion clauses, is one of the forms of protection. On the other hand, the unions realize that, if few employers were to take apprentices, the potential supply, in terms of the proportions laid down, could not be realized.

In these circumstances, most unions favour a variability provision, operated by local committees, enabling the industry as a whole to cope with those employers who do not train apprentices. The method is to permit an over-proportionate number of apprentices to those employers who give good training. The local committee is in the best position to assess this.

A particularly topical illustration is provided in the hairdressing trade. In September last, the Court of Arbitration granted an amendment to the industry's apprenticeship order to provide that the New Zealand committee, on the unanimous recommendation of a local committee, might fix the proportion of apprentices to journeymen in certain hairdressing shops.

The application was made by the Commissioner of Apprenticeship (Mr. H.C. McQueen) as chairman of the New Zealand Men's Hairdressing Apprenticeship Committee.
"The basis for the application is the fact that only a few hairdressers take apprentices," said Mr. McQueen. "The majority of the committee think that when a likely boy wants to enter the trade there should be an opportunity for him — an opportunity that can be created only by a modification of the proportion clause." 1

He went on to say that, in 108 hairdressing shops in Wellington and the Hutt Valley, there were only eleven apprentices; and there was a similar shortage in Dunedin.

An exception to the general Court order is the New Zealand Painting and Decorating Apprenticeship Order, which has no proportion clause. Long experience has proved, to this industry at least, that purely local control of the number of apprentices permitted to each employer is the better system. Twenty years' experience of the method was gained in the Northern Industrial District before the coming into force of the New Zealand apprenticeship order governing this industry, when the local control method was made New Zealand-wide. This is an industry which is, however, perenially short of apprentices, and the possibility of too many trainees is remote.

CRITICISM OF ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEM

Some cost-conscious employers find fault with the administration of apprenticeship matters. For example, the Federation of Master Builders, has claimed that, in the national apprenticeship committee, the Commissioner of Apprenticeship, the educationist, and the three workers' representatives have no personal responsibility for:

- Costs incurred by decisions
- Training the apprentices
- The marketable nature of the product

The Federation asserts that the approach of these men is academic. It suggests that the Commissioner, or his deputy, be given only a casting vote and that no vote at all be allowed the educationist, who would act only in an advisory capacity. These changes would require amendment of the Apprenticeship Act.

The criticism is part of the age-old employer-worker struggle. The employers feel they have insufficient say in the management of affairs which directly affect their businesses, and are endeavouring to increase their influence. It is a natural desire, but, in the light of present functioning of the national committees, the

2. See Appendix B, p 204.
anxiety is ill-founded. Differences of opinion within
the committees are seldom clear-cut employer-versus-
worker antagonisms. Differences between the represen-
tatives of the employers, or among the workers' repre-
sentatives, are just as likely.¹

Complete unanimity cannot be expected, and it is
a tribute to the open-mindedness of the members of the
various national and local committees that sweet reason-
ableness has marked most proceedings.

PAYMENT OF YOUTHS IN TRAINING

An apprentice begins work at about £2 15s. a week,
a very small wage when compared with £6 for office boys,
and £8 or £9 for unskilled machine operators in factories.
A few firms pay apprentices above the award rates. The
"Evening Post" in Wellington, for instance, starts boys
at £5 a week, instead of the normal rate. But such high
wages are not universal, by any means. In 1955, the
Department of Labour found that the wages paid to appren-
tices were not greatly above the minimum rates. The
average margin was 6s 7d. a week, or 5.8 per cent, above
the minimum.²

Yet, during the 1955 financial year, no fewer than
4,469 boys began apprenticeships. Bernard Shaw's dictum

1. Statement to author by Mr. H.C. McQueen,
   Commissioner of Apprenticeship.

2. See Appendix D, p 204.
that the majority is always wrong can scarcely apply here. Considerations other than wages are influencing both parents and boys. One of these concerns the prospects of future employment.

At present New Zealand has a surplus of jobs, and even unskilled labour can demand high wages, but the prudent youths who seek the trades will certainly be the wiser in the long run.

Since 1945, the birth rate has been increasing steadily, and the effects will appear in the 1960's when greater numbers of young people will be leaving school. By 1963, at least 20,000 boys will be entering the labour market each year. Unless industrial expansion keeps pace, unskilled workers are apt to face a bleak future.

The House of Representatives was informed in August that in the Auckland metropolitan area, out of 318 people seeking jobs, only twenty were skilled. The large number of unskilled were at that time — an off-season period — difficult to place, said the Minister of Labour, Mr. W.S. Sullivan. 1

At present more than 16,000 boys are learning trades. This is 25 per cent above the number apprenticed ten years ago. Not only does it reveal public prudence; it also augurs well for the standards of community

(Not yet bound into volumes.)
service New Zealand may expect when the population reaches three million about 1975.

Mr. W.S. Sullivan
Chapter Nine

CONCLUSIONS

Up to this point, I have recounted something of the history of apprenticeship, particularly in New Zealand; described the present-day system, with brief comparative reviews of English and American practice, in appendices 1 and 2; and discussed some apprenticeship problems.

Repetition of the good points of our system, already embodied in the discussion, would be pointless. My main concern lies.

Some are "of the nature of the beast" — remediable only in some idealistic conception of apprenticeship — but others, I feel, could be dealt with in a practical manner. On that account, this concluding section is devoted to constructive suggestions.

ABILITY OF SCHOOLS TO TEACH TRADE METHODS

Some trades claim that the schools teach uneconomic practical methods, and insist that the study at technical classes be restricted to trade theory, with laboratory exercises.

Yet many English colleges at which apprentice classes are held, lead industry in craft methods and are
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Repetition of the good points of our system, already embodied in the discussion, would be pointless. My main concern now is with its inadequacies.

Some are "of the nature of the beast" — remediable only in some idealistic conception of apprenticeship — but others, I feel, could be dealt with in a practical manner. On that account, this concluding section is devoted to constructive suggestions.

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Yet many English colleges at which apprentice classes are held, lead industry in craft methods and are
the fountain heads from which neighbouring firms obtain information. For instance, when the dynamic balancing of motor-car wheels was first introduced, the colleges obtained the equipment and gave instruction on it before firms in the industry began using it.

Success in technical classes depends, apparently, on:

The ability of the teacher,

The equipment at his command,

The interest and backing of the trade in its instructors and classes, and

The prestige the class training enjoys in the industrial world.

In New Zealand, the motor industry is a first-class example of a trade which measures up well to these criteria. No other trades even remotely approach its concern for the
technical training of apprentices. Disparagement of the ability of schools to teach the latest methods is notably confined to those trades which give the least support.

There is no active antagonism, but many trades, if not quite passive, are only luke-warm about daylight classes. A growth of employer interest is vital if the technical classes are to realize their potential value, and there are those who discern even now, a stimulation of interest.

"The prizes will not go to the countries with the largest population," Sir Anthony Eden said last January. "Those with the best systems of education will win. Science and technical skill give a dozen men the power to do as much as thousands did fifty years ago."  

\[1\]

**INSTRUCTORS**

Although modern trade theories and practices are so complex that only highly qualified men can imbue young apprentices with an understanding and interest, there are unfortunate inadequacies in the supply and training of instructors.

For all potential full-time instructors, "pressure-cooker" courses, specializing in the teaching of apprentice classes, are needed.

One-year courses for wood and metalwork instructors are now held at Auckland. Although courses on such a scale might not be justified for the few instructors in other fields, something more substantial than the present infrequent two-day refresher courses is called for. The instructors, normally drawn straight from industry, need the assurance and preparation for teaching which only a course of professional training can give.

A difficulty is the present inadequacy of pay — £612 10s. a year — for the married men, many of whom must leave their homes and families to attend the one-year training courses at Auckland. In view of the need to attract the best possible instructors, the salaries of those attending training courses might well be subsidized by the industries concerned.

Trade instructors are paid on the normal Post-Primary pay scales, commencing at £550 a year. The maximum allowance for trade experience, for a newcomer of at least 35 years of age, is seven steps up the scale. Therefore, the most skilled and experienced tradesman, turned teacher, cannot hope to begin teaching on very
much above £350, which includes the married allowance of £62 10s.

Educational Standards of Apprentices

Men with adequate technical and management background could, I feel, be more readily attracted if salaries in teaching were closer to those industry offers to highly skilled, experienced tradesmen at the executive level.

Organized Intake for Apprentice Classes

Trade instructors are expected to maintain class progress despite additions of brand-new apprentices at erratic intervals throughout the year. A planned intake at regular intervals is obviously desirable to prevent sporadic distributions of youths at various stages of their novitiate.

The principle of the planned intake is exemplified in the classes for student nurses, which begin at regular intervals — twice a year, normally. Late-comers wait until the next class begins. Similar arrangements — with half-yearly or yearly intakes of recently-enrolled apprentices — would contribute to the success of technical class instruction.
In the discussion on page 138, it was pointed out that instructors face a wide range of ability in their classes, accentuated by the admission of boys who do not meet the minimum educational requirements prescribed for their trades. With the special permission of the New Zealand apprenticeship committee for the trade, such boys may be indentured, if they are acceptable in other respects.

But how apt are such boys? In the absence of adequate intellectual activity at school, what criteria of their potential adequacy as craftsmen can be produced?

There are a few aptitude tests available, but they are seldom used for evidence when special admission is sought. Evidence is usually limited to general statements about the boy’s interests, manual dexterity and good character. But how successfully can boys endowed with these simple qualities cope with modern trade theory? Their métier is, of course, not to be found in any but the simpler crafts.

In spite of the fact that some District Commissioners have found the most troublesome apprentices are often those for whom the educational standards have been waived, many employers are still prepared to take on
certain boys, even though they may lack the educational attainment necessary for normal entry. This, of course, can be very much a gamble for both the boy and his employer.

For the more technical trades, the assimilation of theory exacts a high degree of mental activity, so that intellectual ability is essential.

"The second year is the dangerous one", says a leader in the radio industry. 1 "During the first year, the boys work at a level they may have touched at school, with fairly simple, introductory material. In the second year, however, they tackle 'real radio', and theory and formulas begin to pile up. At this stage, some boys lose heart."

All this emphasises the need for careful placement of boys whose intellectual stature places them in the low-average range. They are seldom selected by the big firms, which normally offer the best training.

If, in addition to being forced to accept apprenticeship in a second-best firm, they enter a trade for which they are not suited, the combination of factors seriously handicaps them from the start.

1. Statement to author by Mr. R. Slade, Director of E.D.A.C. Ltd., (earlier reference).
Competitive selection will always relegate the poorly qualified boys to second-best firms. To have a reasonable chance of success, a boy needs aptitudes and interests compatible with his trade.

Vocational guidance, when highly developed, as it is in the United States of America, is a valuable adjunct to industry, and its general development to a similar degree in New Zealand is desirable. The limited functions of the "careers" master of the New Zealand school make him an ineffectual figure beside the "student counsellor" of the American high school, who can thoroughly test boys for industrial suitability while they are at school. Normally, the careers master is limited to a discussion of possible occupations suggested by the pattern of a boy's school performance. When this is of no avail, the boy is usually referred to the Vocational Guidance Service. In practice, instead of vocational guidance reaching everyone as a matter of course, it is restricted to those boys who, in a quandary, specially consult the Service.

Without professional guidance, the choosing of a suitable career will tend to remain a haphazard process, particularly for youngsters in the low-average range of intelligence.
THE PROBATION PERIOD

All apprenticeship contracts provide for three months' probation, during which time both the boy and his employer decide whether to commence a full term. It is true that running errands and making tea figure prominently in the activities of the probationary period, but the lad is also initiated into the trade and is able to form his own opinion about it at first hand. At the same time, the employer decides whether the boy shows an interest in the work and seems eager to learn. Nevertheless, a more thorough assessment would be advisable.

In this probationary period, if not before, a scientific testing of aptitudes and interests is called for. To this end, industry and the Vocational Guidance Service should work more closely together. The centres maintained by the Service could perhaps test for aptitudes at the end of the probationary period, as well as before.

Are the boy's aptitudes and interests really in line with the needs of the trade? That is the question of first importance. New Zealanders are noted for their adaptability, but placement in line with real interests and aptitudes is infinitely better than the most pliable adaptability.
PLACEMENT OF APPRENTICES TO BEST ADVANTAGE

Boys who consult neither the "careers" master at their school nor the Vocational Guidance Service are usually limiting their opportunities for employment to the restricted field they may have discovered, or heard about, in their every-day activities.

Normally, the bigger firms offer the best facilities. If all potential apprentices were aware of the whole field open to them, the bigger firms would have the opportunity of gaining the cream of those seeking apprenticeships. Every boy could at least offer himself to the best firms first — if he knew of them.

In the public interest, some form of register of employers prepared to consider boys for apprenticeship should be available to inquirers. Schools and the Vocational Guidance Service have lists of some employers who take apprentices, but few lists, if any, cover the whole range in the district.

Of the various organizations which might collate information to encourage better placement, the Apprenticeship Division of the Department of Labour is the most suitable. The Vocational Guidance Service does not specialize in trade placement, while the Employers' Federation concerns itself with labour ranging from
The 1944 Commission of Inquiry into Apprenticeship enquired whether studies in school should cover possible careers, with greater emphasis on trades. Posters and films could well be used in schools to publicize the full range of possible apprenticeships. They could compile and maintain complete registers for the use of boys, parents, schools and vocational guidance officers.

**CHOOSING A TRADE**

The factors which determine a boy's choice of a trade appear to be:

- Public opinion,
- School experiences,
- Prejudices and interests,
- Casual impressions, and
- Ignorance of other trades.

Prejudices, interests and casual impressions are usually matters of chance, and little can be done, on the large scale, to influence them. On the other hand, public opinion could be influenced through publicity and the establishment by each trade of good "public relations".
The 1944 Commission of Inquiry into Apprenticeship and Related Matters recommended that Social Studies in schools should cover possible careers, with greater emphasis on trades. Posters and films could well be used in schools to publicize the full range.

Publicity and good public relations, such as the motor trade maintain, combined with study at school of trades and apprenticeship, would encourage greater public knowledge of the importance of industry and its career possibilities.

**B**LOCK COURSES V. **R**EGULAR **D**AYLIGHT **C**LASSES

The motor trade has begun to change from regular daylight classes to block courses. In Christchurch, the change is complete, and next year, Petone will change over. This may herald similar changes in other trades. In any case, no trade is considering a change in the reverse direction.

Block courses draw on apprentices from large areas — even from the whole of New Zealand in the smaller trades — and so can be more selective than daylight classes, thus enabling the effective use of what is known in the educational world as "streaming".
This, and the other advantages of block courses for apprentices, outlined on page 149, in my opinion, outweigh the convenience to employers of regular daylight classes. On these grounds, I feel that block courses should be fostered.

PRIDE OF CRAFTSMANSHIP

This year the printing and photo-engraving trade commenced a practice — which might well be emulated by other trades — of giving diplomas to those of its members satisfactorily completing apprenticeships. The ceremony is an indication to students of the esteem in which skilled work is generally held.

That indication is very necessary, because what is needed in the modern world is a deepened sense of the significance of craft skill. A greater value should be given to it, indeed demanded by the community, so that the apprentice in training would inevitably be influenced by the esteem for craftsmanship that would pervade the community. Within such a climate of regard, his own standards and outlook would be heightened.

That pride of craftsmanship is a personal matter is well illustrated in the story of the man who stopped
to admire the work of some stone masons and bricklayers. "What are you doing?" the first worker was asked. "I am earning my living", he replied. Another worker, when questioned, said, "I am cutting stone to measure". When a third worker was questioned, he paused before saying, "I am building a cathedral."
APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

THE APPRENTICESHIP SYSTEMS IN GREAT BRITAIN

The British scene differs from the New Zealand industrial picture in its density, the severity of competition for jobs due to the pressure of a teeming population, and the variety and degree of specialization. In this great concentration of endeavour the various forms of trade training range from formal apprenticeships under indentures, through learnerships, written and verbal agreements, and trade progressions (upgrading), to "apprentices" who change round at their various employers, learning new phases of their trade at each.

Some observers see serious defects in such a diversity of training methods, and many deplore the declining master-apprentice relationship, so prominent before the growth of specialization.

Today, on account of specialization, it is an accepted practice, in many industries, for young people not formally indentured to move from place to place, gaining experience in various facets of their trades. Details of the periods served are endorsed by successive employers on appropriate records.

Written agreements binding on both sides are common in engineering and shipbuilding. They are more flexible than indentures are, for instance, in allowing apprentices to be suspended during sick periods. The agreements may contain no more than an undertaking by the employer to teach and by the employer to serve.
THE APPRENTICESHIP SYSTEMS IN GREAT BRITAIN

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Written agreements binding on both sides are common in engineering and shipbuilding. They are more flexible than indentures as, for instance, in allowing apprentices to be suspended during slack periods. The agreements may contain no more than an undertaking by the employer to teach and by the employee to serve.
In still other industries, merely verbal agreements are common. They give the learner better wages than he would get if he were indentured, but they impose on the employer less obligation to teach. This is sometimes an advantage to children of poor parents, giving those with quick, natural aptitudes a sufficient opportunity and one which they might not otherwise be able to afford.

In industries in which comparatively short periods of training are necessary, "learnership" is common. There is merely a tacit agreement that the employer will provide facilities for the learning of some branch of the trade.

Another method of qualifying for a trade, spoken of as "progression", exists in some of the laborious, heavy industries, such as coal mining, and work associated with blast furnaces and rolling mills. It is also used in the promotion of cotton spinners.

In building and woodworking, as well as painting and decorating, apprentices move about from employer to employer; and the same thing applies to manufacturing tailoring in both men's and women's garments. In these circumstances, training may be haphazard. The lure of possibly a few shillings extra may over-ride more prudent considerations. Looser relations may mean lack of control. On the other hand, however, movement does give the advantage of higher wages and variety of work. The character of the apprentice is, no doubt, the determining factor. The experiences of two young people from Glasgow, a man and a woman, are therefore relevant, though, admittedly, they both have qualities of prudence and industry.
The Girl's Story

"To become an apprentice to the clothing trade for five years, I put my name down at several Glasgow factories, all of which had waiting lists.

"When called up, I was put to work at seven shillings a week, making kilts. One night a week I went to a technical school. My mother paid for the lessons.

"After six months, I left the factory and went full-time to a school of dressmaking, partly as a helper. The wage was only £1 a week, but I was not learning to cut patterns.

"When I went back to a factory, as a third-year apprentice - the two years at the school had counted - I was given extra wages, starting at £2 10s. a week. That was in children's wear. I stayed for nine months.

"Then I went to another factory, my third, and stayed for 18 months, cutting men's suits. In the next factory, the fourth, I was on ladies' wear. In six months, I was out of my apprenticeship."

This girl, a smart one at her trade, was being paid £13 a week in a Wellington factory when she married. She says:

- Apprentices should move from factory to factory. They get a wider experience that way, and
- An apprentice should be attached as a "mate" to a senior. When the proportion of journeymen to apprentices is high, as in New Zealand, the job of teaching the young people, being everyone's business, becomes, in practice, nobody's business.

The Man's Story

"I stayed at school until I was fifteen, a year after the minimum leaving age, and worked as a message boy until the following year.

"At the age of sixteen, I was eligible for an apprenticeship, and entered one, for five years, in painting and decorating. I started with the Glasgow City Corporation. For the first year, I did nothing but paint houses, just like painting State houses here - the same colour schemes all the time. I thought it was time for a change.

"I joined a private firm then. They were very good
employers, sending me to a trade school for two days a week. On the other three days, I was given varied work, attached as a "mate" to a senior painter."

This young man made such good progress that, at the end of the fourth year, he was given the status of a journeyman — and joined the Navy!

**POST-WAR CHANGE IN ATTITUDE**

Since the Second World War, some industries have gradually come to see the need for greater planning and organization in trade training. Haphazard methods were unsatisfactory.

Despite strong tradition, one industry at least has adopted new measures. In 1955, the cutlery industry engaged its first apprentice since 1814, in which year the repeal of the 1563 Statute of Artificers made apprenticeship no longer compulsory. This is only one of the several changes designed to assure to industry a supply of competent craftsmen.

Some industries — for instance, pottery, glass, scientific instrument making, baking and ship building require formal indentures. Printing requires a seven-year term and plumbing, five. But many good employers discourage apprenticeships under conditions of indenture, as specialization often precludes general training, or, at least, makes it difficult.

In some minor branches of industry, periods of only three or four years are found sufficient, but, generally, five years is the recognized term.
Placing a boy under the direct care of a journeyman or the supervision of a foreman, or employing him as a "mate", are traditional methods of training, rapidly being superseded by blendings of technical school instruction with workshop duties.

Some big firms establish special workshops in which apprentices are taught the rudiments of their trades. Others set up training schools within their works, or send the young people for part of their time to local training schools.

Pre-vocational training up to the ages of 15 or 16 is given in a limited number of full-time trade schools.

General technical schools assist workshop training, either in co-operation with the employers or on the boys' own initiative. These schools teach, among other things, drawing and technical subjects to counter the effect of specialized training.

Some apprentices under the "sandwich" system spend alternate periods at technical schools and in the works. Others may be released on one or two half-days a week.

However, there are few industries, except building and engineering, for which daylight training is compulsory. Most firms regard it as a privilege for particularly deserving apprentices. On the evidence available, some firms believe that technical classes during working hours are a definite advantage to both the boy and his work for the firm. Indeed, the bigger firms will not accept a boy who is not prepared to
attend daylight classes. If a boy abuses the privilege, the school informs the employer immediately. If the boy persists, the employer may stop him attending classes, which is a serious consequence for the boy.

In England, the colleges at which daylight classes are conducted often lead industry in technical development. Their prestige is very high. The technical schools in New Zealand which combine high school and apprentice classes in the same, usually overcrowded, premises are not on the same level.

Dobinson considers that "The English system of day release ... works extremely well with large and enlightened employers." But many of the smaller employers in Britain, especially in the building trade, do not favour releasing their young employees one day a week and frequently forbid it. Evidence shows, in some areas at least, that some young men prefer work to study, and absent themselves from the technical classes. When this occurs, the school sends a note to the employer, but there are some employers who never reply, and others whose replies show complete indifference.

Occasionally, boys released for the whole day, arrive at the school late or leave early, using work and school as alternative alibis. Willingness to be absent from classes is usually an indication that the boys cannot cope, to their own satisfaction, with the technical studies.

Unlike the French and American school-leavers, few of these boys in Britain have had even elementary vocational
guidance. They have often entered the building trade, for example, because they "thought they'd like it", or because they "wanted an open air job", or because someone told them of a vacancy.

Some of the young men who enter crafts have altogether inadequate backgrounds of general education, despite the fact that they have been at school to the age of fifteen. A few are almost illiterate, and fail all but the simplest questions of addition and subtraction. It is difficult to bring such people up to an educational standard at which they can benefit from technical training.

Nevertheless, scientific assessment of aptitudes and attainments, including suitability for industrial work, is being developed.

Big firms thoroughly test applicants. The expense incurred is more than justified in the talent admitted. The best boys go on to technician and technological levels.

The great bulk of engineering work in England is done by small firms. As there are no indentures specifying exactly the skills to be taught, apprentices in the less scrupulous firms are liable to be treated as cheap labour and to be deprived of a comprehensive training.

No form of registration is required of tradesmen who wish to set up as electricians or plumbers, for example. So long as the tradesman can comply with the law relating to standards of work, he can continue in business.
A relatively small proportion of students enter for the craft examinations.

Wages of apprentices show variations according to the conditions of the apprenticeship. However, in many occupations, including the building trades, an apprentice receives, in his first year, one-fifth of a journeyman's wages, rising to three-quarters in the fifth year.

One difficulty in Great Britain is finding the right proportion of apprentices to journeymen. The method of adjustment by voluntary agreement between employers and workers, used in some of the engineering trades, has the advantage of flexibility and, for that reason, is possibly one of the best.
APPENDIX 2

APPRENTICESHIP IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

When stringent immigration laws enacted in the United States of America after World War I practically closed the European source of skilled workers, it was realised in the States that apprenticeship had not been given the attention it required.

Not enough apprentices were being trained, and there was no national co-ordinating agency to ensure sufficient uniformity in training.

The National Apprenticeship Programme began with the creation in 1937 of the Apprentice-Training Service, now known as the Bureau of Apprenticeship, in the Department of Labour.

The Bureau gives technical advisory assistance in setting up and maintaining apprenticeship programmes, and in many cases has given the impetus which was needed to get apprenticeship programmes started. It works closely with the State Apprenticeship Councils, workers' unions, and employer associations, and it acts as the national co-ordinating agency.

The Federal Committee on Apprenticeship, composed equally of representatives of national unions and employers, is the national policy-recommending body. The committee has established these basic standards:

a. An apprenticable occupation requires 4,000 or more hours to learn.

b. A schedule of work processes to be learned on the job must be set out.
The progressively increasing wage scale should average, over the apprenticeship period, not less than 50% of the journeyman's rate.

A minimum of 144 hours per year of related classroom instruction must be given.

The terms of employment and training of each apprentice must be stated in a written agreement, registered with a State Apprenticeship Council or, where none exists, with the Federal Committee.

Local apprenticeship programmes are subject to review by State Apprenticeship councils.

Programmes are jointly established by the employer and the employee.

The minimum age at commencement of an apprenticeship to be not less than 16.

Proper supervision of on-the-job training with adequate facilities to train apprentices.

Periodic evaluation of the apprentice's progress, both in job performance and related instruction, and the maintenance of appropriate records.

Recognition of successful completion - diplomas.

Today in the United States there are 90 basic trade classifications, and some 300 apprenticeable occupations. The training periods range from to to six years, but the majority are for three or four years. There is a steady trend towards broader training.

Indentured to these trades are more than 250,000 apprentices, watched over by some 7,000 local apprenticeship committees - 40,000 representatives of unions and employers working for the interests of the apprentices.

Of the employers in these trades, more than 150,000 have established apprenticeship programmes which conform to
the National training standards. These are the minimum criteria for setting up local apprenticeship programmes, but are flexible enough for local conditions. They embody what the top national union and employer organizations consider essential for all-round craft training - vital in the mobile population of the United States.

The care with which applicants for apprentice training are selected through entrance tests, assures, to a large extent, that those accepted for training will make the grade of true craftsmanship. Careful selection reduces the turnover of apprentices, thus cutting down the costs to the employer, saves valuable committee time, and assures qualified craftsmen to the trade. Of greatest importance is the time it saves the applicants, who may, on the test results, be guided into a more suitable occupation.

In the United States apprentices start their training at ages ranging mostly from 18 to 24. Many of them, particularly war veterans, are over 25.

A properly drawn-up apprenticeship agreement specifies the number of hours for acquiring each of the basic trade processes, the order in which they can best be learned, and what the apprentice will be working at in each three-month period.

In the United States, as elsewhere, it is one thing to get the apprentices to attend school, but quite another to get
them to apply themselves to the classwork. This is the school's problem. Even though the courses may be interestingly and capably presented, there are recalcitrant apprentices, especially those who feel they are coerced into going to school. The apprentice of today is past the age where, as the Americans put it, the hickory stick is the answer. He needs the firm, and if need be, not so gentle, persuasion of a committee.

There are various methods of this. One committee asks the union to send a different journeyman to each session of the class. Although only observers, the journeymen have a stabilizing effect on the apprentices.

Another method is regular visits by a sub-committee.

A more subtle incentive to study is regular testing of craftsmanship as the apprentices advance from one period of their training to another.

There are two kinds of apprenticeship programmes, "individual plant" and "area-wide". An area-wide programme is established in a city or larger area. Apprentices are indentured to the area apprenticeship committee, instead of to employers. The committee arranges for employment by participating companies and may, if the companies are agreeable, transfer from one to another. This assures each apprentice experience in every kind of work performed by all-round skilled workers in the trade. The construction trades and many of the metal-working trades use this method.
Owing to the fact that mass production reduces the scope for traditional apprenticeship, trade schools maintained by unions, employers' associations, or individual large firms, concentrate on producing highly skilled experts in limited fields, such as automotive brake systems.

A student enters at sixteen to eighteen years of age and according to the thoroughness of the training and the difficulty of the work remains for two to four years. Most schools put the student on part-time work in the shop after a year. It is usual to allow him a wage, part paid directly, the rest accumulating until he is a journeyman.
Changes in the Population through Immigration and Emigration during the years 1888 to 1891.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Immigrants</th>
<th>Emigrants</th>
<th>Gain or Loss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1888</td>
<td>2,174</td>
<td>11,349</td>
<td>-6 9,175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1889</td>
<td>1,236</td>
<td>1,022</td>
<td>214 -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1890</td>
<td>849</td>
<td>2,731</td>
<td>-39 -1,782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1891</td>
<td>738</td>
<td>3,928</td>
<td>-33 -3,198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1878</td>
<td>537</td>
<td>6,407</td>
<td>214 14,155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1876</td>
<td>12,987</td>
<td>6,688</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1875</td>
<td>15,154</td>
<td>6,234</td>
<td>9,920 -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1880</td>
<td>9,688</td>
<td>7,913</td>
<td>1,775 -</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Excess of Emigrants over Immigrants: 14,155 less 214 = 13,941.
### APPENDIX B

In 1924, seventeen petitions praying for repeal of the Apprentices Act, 1923, were presented to Parliament.

**Changes in the Population through Immigration and Emigration during the years 1870 to 1880.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Immigrants</th>
<th>Emigrants</th>
<th>Gain or Loss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1870</td>
<td>9,124</td>
<td>5,547</td>
<td>3,577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1871</td>
<td>10,083</td>
<td>5,297</td>
<td>4,786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1872</td>
<td>13,572</td>
<td>5,752</td>
<td>7,820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1873</td>
<td>43,965</td>
<td>4,761</td>
<td>39,204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1874</td>
<td>31,737</td>
<td>5,859</td>
<td>25,878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1875</td>
<td>18,414</td>
<td>6,467</td>
<td>11,947</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1876</td>
<td>12,987</td>
<td>6,459</td>
<td>6,528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1877</td>
<td>16,263</td>
<td>6,611</td>
<td>9,652</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1878</td>
<td>23,957</td>
<td>5,761</td>
<td>18,196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1879</td>
<td>15,154</td>
<td>5,234</td>
<td>9,920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1880</td>
<td>9,688</td>
<td>7,923</td>
<td>1,765</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In 1934, seventeen petitions praying for repeal of the Apprentices Act, 1923, were presented to Parliament. Below are the names of the petitioners:

R. Prosser and 21 others
J. Johnston and Sons, Ltd., and 16 others
Boon Brothers Ltd and 19 others
G. Syme and Co., Ltd., and 5 others
The Auckland Provincial Furniture and Furnishing Industrial Union of Employers and 188 others
S.J. Sullivan, Ltd., and 62 others
Midland Engineering Co., Ltd., and 60 others
W. Cable and Co. Ltd., and 56 others
D. Goldie and Sons Ltd., and 6 others
The Fletcher Construction Co. Ltd., and 52 others
F.M. Pearn and 4 others
Morton and Collins and another
D.H. Taylor and 11 others
H.E. Townshend and 22 others
C. Powick and 6 others
Dunedin Plumbers Industrial Union of Employers and 84 others
### APPENDIX D

**WAGES SURVEY - APPRENTICES - SEPTEMBER 1955**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TRADE</th>
<th>No. of Apprentices Surveyed</th>
<th>Weighted Average Minimum Rate (*)</th>
<th>Average Ruling Rate</th>
<th>Margin above Amount</th>
<th>Per Cent.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carpentry</td>
<td>1,943</td>
<td>£ 5.8.7</td>
<td>£ 5.15.1</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>5.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor Mechanics</td>
<td>1,566</td>
<td>£ 5.15.2</td>
<td>£ 6.0.11</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>4.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical Wiring</td>
<td>694</td>
<td>£ 5.18.4</td>
<td>£ 6.8.2</td>
<td>9.10</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fitting and Turning</td>
<td>785</td>
<td>£ 5.17.7</td>
<td>£ 6.3.4</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>4.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cabinet Making</td>
<td>369</td>
<td>£ 5.13.8</td>
<td>£ 5.19.9</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>5.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five Trades</td>
<td>5,257</td>
<td>£ 5.13.6</td>
<td>£ 6.0.1</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>5.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(*) Weighted, where necessary, according to the varying minimum rates applicable in different areas.
APPENDIX E

Popularity Order of Trades

The number of contracts in force at 31st March, 1956, in each of the 32 trade classification groups in order of numerical strength.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trade Description</th>
<th>Contracts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carpentry</td>
<td>4,487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor Trades</td>
<td>3,092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>1,260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical</td>
<td>1,166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plumbing</td>
<td>1,012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furniture</td>
<td>948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coachbuilding</td>
<td>805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing</td>
<td>593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Painting</td>
<td>493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plastering</td>
<td>282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Footwear Manufacturing</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jewellery</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheetmetal-working</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refrigeration</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bricklaying</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aircraft</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baking</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boilermaking</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photo-engraving</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shipbuilding</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bootmaking</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gardening</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moulding</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saddlery</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lead burning</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masonry</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrazzo</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coopering</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>16,059</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## APPENDIX F

### Apprentices in the Building Trades

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trade</th>
<th>1928</th>
<th>1956</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bricklaying</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carpentry</td>
<td>1,757</td>
<td>4,487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Painting</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plastering</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plumbing</td>
<td>741</td>
<td>1,012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTALS</strong></td>
<td>3,333</td>
<td>6,397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bricklaying</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carpentry</td>
<td>2424</td>
<td>2572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Painting</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plastering</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plumbing</td>
<td>667</td>
<td>623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>3,683</td>
<td>3,791</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bricklaying</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carpentry</td>
<td>65.8</td>
<td>67.3</td>
<td>68.7</td>
<td>69.0</td>
<td>70.1</td>
<td>70.4</td>
<td>70.9</td>
<td>70.4</td>
<td>70.3</td>
<td>70.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Painting</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plastering</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plumbing</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>All Trades %</strong></td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>39.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**APPENDIX G**

Apprentice Numbers in the Five Trades comprising the Building Industry — Bricklaying, Carpentry, Painting, Plastering and Plumbing — during the years 1947 to 1956, with below that, the percentage of apprentices engaged in the industry as a whole which each trade was employing. At the bottom is the percentage of all apprentices in private enterprise which the Building Industry were employing.
## APPENDIX H

**NEW ZEALAND APPRENTICESHIP ORDERS IN WHICH SPECIFIC PROVISION HAS BEEN MADE FOR EXTRA PAYMENT FOR THE PASSING OF EXAMINATIONS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Payment Per Week In Excess of Minimum Rate</th>
<th>Examinations Approved</th>
<th>Payment Per Week In Excess of Minimum Rate</th>
<th>Examinations Approved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aircraft</td>
<td>5/-</td>
<td>1st Qualifying</td>
<td>10/-</td>
<td>2nd Qualifying of N.Z. Trades Cert. Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2/6 (after 2,000 hours)</td>
<td>1st Qualifying</td>
<td>7/6 (after 6,000 hours)</td>
<td>2nd Qualifying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(after 1,000 hours for 9,000 hr contract)</td>
<td>1st Qualifying</td>
<td></td>
<td>2nd Qualifying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coach and Motor Body</td>
<td>5/-</td>
<td>1st Qualifying</td>
<td>10/-</td>
<td>2nd Qualifying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical</td>
<td>2/6</td>
<td>1st Qualifying</td>
<td>7/6 - 7th &amp; 8th Periods</td>
<td>Any Registration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>under Electricians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Act or Trade Certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>5/-</td>
<td>2nd Qualifying</td>
<td>7/6</td>
<td>2nd Qualifying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furniture</td>
<td>5/-</td>
<td>Junior Cert. of Royal N.Z. Inst. of Horticulture</td>
<td>5/6</td>
<td>Intermediate Certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gardening</td>
<td>3/6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>Payment Per Week In Excess of Minimum Rate</td>
<td>Examinations Approved</td>
<td>Payment Per Week In Excess of Minimum Rate</td>
<td>Examinations Approved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gardening</td>
<td>3/6</td>
<td>Junior Cert. of Royal N.Z. Inst. of Horticulture</td>
<td>5/6</td>
<td>Intermediate Certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor</td>
<td>5/- after 4,000 hrs</td>
<td>1st Qualifying</td>
<td>10/- after 6,000 hrs</td>
<td>2nd Qualifying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Painting &amp; Decorating</td>
<td>3/9</td>
<td>1st Qualifying</td>
<td>7/6</td>
<td>2nd Qualifying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plumbing</td>
<td>2/6</td>
<td>1st Qualifying</td>
<td>7/6</td>
<td>2nd Qualifying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing and Photo Engraving</td>
<td>5/-</td>
<td>1st Qualifying</td>
<td>7/6</td>
<td>2nd Qualifying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Third Exam. - 10/- for Trade Certificate)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Any Technical College</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Evening Class exams</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>after 3 yrs' attendance</td>
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<td></td>
<td>in any two of following:</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Trade Mathematics,</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Trade Drawing, Chemistry,</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Heat, Light &amp; Sound,</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Electrical Refrigeration,</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Electricity, Workshop Theory</td>
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<td>Any Technical College</td>
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<td>after 3 yrs' attendance</td>
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<td>in any two of the same</td>
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<td>subjects, or</td>
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<td>has passed an exam. of</td>
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<td>qualifying for limited</td>
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<td>registration of that</td>
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<td>Board.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2nd Qualifying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheetmetal-working</td>
<td>5/-</td>
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<td>10/-</td>
<td>2nd Qualifying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ship, Yacht &amp; Boat Building</td>
<td>2/6</td>
<td>1st Qualifying</td>
<td>7/6</td>
<td>2nd Qualifying</td>
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<td>(Third Exam. - 10/- for Trade Certificate)</td>
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<td>Trade Mathematics,</td>
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<td>has passed an exam. of</td>
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<td>qualifying for limited</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Board.</td>
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</table>
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