THE APPRENTICESHIP SYSTEM: AUSTRALIAN STYLE

A Brief History of the Apprenticeship System.
Department of Employment, Vocational Education and Training.

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INTRODUCTION

In 1985, a brief history of the Queensland Apprenticeship system was prepared by the then Department of Employment and Industrial Affairs. This history, written as a special project under the Community Employment Program, proved to be popular in the absence of any other single text which detailed similar information. The history covered the apprenticeship system not only in Queensland, but in Australia as a whole and provided background material to Government employees, local historians, students, as well as the general public.

The original production has now been extensively revised, updated to cover developments to mid 1988 and extended with the addition of new material. The purpose of the publication is to outline the history of the apprenticeship system and highlight the most important milestones which occurred in the State’s apprenticeship development. The publication is not intended to be the definitive history on the subject or a full analytical interpretation of it, both of which are yet to be written. In their stead, I submit that this monograph will perform a useful function in fulfilling its intended purpose as a short but detailed history of the apprenticeship system outlining the major points and trends in this vital area of Queensland’s vocational education and training advancement.

VINCE LESTER MLA
Minister for Employment,
Training and Industrial Affairs.
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Further information on this subject can be obtained from the Skills Development Branch, Department of Employment, Vocational Education and Training, State Law Building, Ann Street, Brisbane (tel: (07) 227 5621).

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ILLUSTRATIONS

The cover photograph depicts tradesmen and apprentices at the Queensland Railway Department's Ipswich workshop circa 1903. The frontispiece photograph shows tradesmen and apprentices of the Trimmers Workshop, Ipswich Railway workshop and was taken during the same period. Both photographs were supplied by the Queensland Railway Department.

The photographs which appear on pages 23 and 24 were supplied by the Premier’s Department.

The photographs on page 29 were taken by Mr Tony Alderton, Promotion Officer, Information, Communication and Promotions Unit, Department of Employment, Vocational Education and Training.

Other unacknowledged photographs are from the author’s collection.

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1. DEFINING APPRENTICESHIP

The word "Apprenticeship" originated from the French verb "apprendre" meaning to learn. Simply stated, it is the term applied to the bonding of a person, the apprentice, to an employer for a specified period of time for the purpose of learning and receiving instruction in the skills of a craft or trade. A legal contract, known as an indenture, secures the bond and ensures that both parties meet their obligations and responsibilities.

2. EARLY APPRENTICESHIP HISTORY

The development of the apprenticeship system which appears to have had its roots in the Middle East has been long and complex, punctuated by almost inseparable administrative and academic difficulties. While training by demonstration in arts and craft skills as opposed to self-teaching styles is known to have been practised in early Egyptian and Babylonian times as a means of passing on acquired knowledge to the younger generation, little is recorded of the actual methods used. It is known, however, that in Babylonia the Law of Hammurabi (1) served the purpose of enforcing artisans to teach their crafts to younger generations, such law being enacted for the specific purpose of maintaining adequate numbers of trained craftspeople within each society.

The practice of bonding an apprentice to a crafts-person at first involved verbal agreement and instruction only. As there was often no other immediately recognisable way of recording projected plans and designs, verbal instruction became crucial to the completion of expansive construction projects straddling decades or even centuries. The development of this practice was particularly important in matters such as the planning and construction of large on-going projects, an outstanding example being the building of Egypt's famed pyramids. Protracted programs of such dimension spanned many years and it was not uncommon for the designer to die before his particular project was completed. Apprentices were therefore an integral part of this extended designer/builder process.

During those early days there was not the variety of trades which exist now; the most widespread were stonemasonry and carpentry. Thus this basic method of transfer of trade information was reasonably successful. However, as other materials (e.g. glass and various metals) were progressively introduced into building construction, so new trades developed and the increasingly more complex techniques required in their use had to be passed from tradesperson to pupil. The one dimensional verbal system of both bonding and instructing an apprentice as a method of indenture therefore began to show its limitations.
3. THE MIDDLE AGES

The written indenture which sets out the terms under which an apprentice learnt “the art and mystery” of a particular trade did not appear until the 13th century. The earliest recorded indenture in British history, written in Latin, is dated 1291, and is presently preserved at Norwich in the United Kingdom. (2) From about 1300 onward, the records of London craft guilds (or gilds) freely mention apprenticeship. The master’s role as overseer of an apprentice was originally much more extensive than it is today. For example, the employer was responsible for the moral welfare of the apprentice. The behaviour of a faithful apprentice was expected to be exemplary and indulgence in any extraneous activities was seen as an insult to the “master”. As a consequence, the indenture contract included instructions along the following lines in the apprentice’s conditions of employment:

“Taverns, inns or alehouses he shall not haunt; at cards, dice, tables, or any other unlawful games he shall not play; matrimony he shall not contract”.

The 13th century craft guilds of Britain developed their own traditions of regulation for apprentices, a system which peaked between then and the 15th century. The men who united in craft guilds in the middle ages discovered that their unity could be used successfully in the harsh struggle for economic survival. The industries of the day were centred in small towns and villages, and members of the various guilds there made their own codes for the conduct of their trades. Guilds were formed initially to protect their members, to establish rules to supervise the quality and methods of production, and to regulate the conditions of employment for each occupational area. Their basic tenet was mutual protection, assistance and promotion and this in turn fostered a special camaraderie of its own.

Members’ inherent privileges were safeguarded not only by the strict regulation of hours, prices and wages but by the availability and ownership of work tools. The guilds also ensured that quality standards were maintained and that members were disciplined where and when necessary. The master craftsmen who controlled the guilds were careful to restrict membership to select numbers so that each could be certain of sustaining an equable living, profits being pooled and distributed evenly amongst members. The ultimate goal of the guilds was to make membership to recognised craftsmen compulsory and this was to be achieved by prohibiting a person from practising a craft in the town unless he had been admitted to membership. A guildsman was, in fact, said to have the freedom of the town. When this point had been reached, many parents sought to have their children trained in a particular craft to try to gain membership.

The master craftsmen also ensured that apprentices were generally allowed access to the guild only after a specified period of training (usually seven years). As a natural consequence, the training period became recognised as an apprenticeship. Traditionally, the master was not allowed to accept more apprentices than he could effectively train although abuse of the system did occur. The elitist guild members were proud of their crafts and by rigidly enforcing their own apprenticeship rules, the level of craftsmanship in their trades was maintained. The by-laws of the guilds were enforced by commune courts or justices and penalties including imprisonment were imposed on any apprentice who defied the guilds’ rules and regulations. Misdemeanours punishable by guild rules included “crimes” such as an apprentice growing his hair too long or in some other way resembling a “ruffian”. On the other hand, “street-smart” apprentices were often a problem and could bring disrepute to their masters.

By the beginning of the 14th century, master craftsmen had become very powerful and eventually government representatives had to contend with the exclusivity of the guilds which were controlled by their wealthiest members. Such members frequently misused their position of power and monopolised their trades in a particular town or province. Instead of allowing the qualified apprentices (or “journeymen”) (3) automatic membership, they often retained them as hired workers instead, while guild membership was handed down to the members’ sons or the children of relatives and friends.

This practice, together with the fact that master craftsmen made it increasingly difficult for journeymen to qualify as masters by constantly raising skill standards, encouraged journeymen to form their own yeomanry guilds. These guilds, created out of necessity and patterned on the original model, were the precursors of the present day labour unions of employees (or trade unions).

When the craft guilds were first formed, town administrators had few laws to protect either merchants or craftsmen. Those laws that did exist were usually made and enforced by the lord who owned the land on which a town or village was located. However, as townspeople gradually gained more say in governmental matters, they began to demand the rights of “self government”. Often it was a guild which forced a lord to grant the people a charter giving them certain rights of self direction. The guilds were thus in the vanguard of the fight for greater freedom for the individual and consequently, their members often became the heads of the new town administrations that followed.
Meanwhile, in both Britain and the Western Europe, the apprenticeship was developing into a recognised and respected method of passing on a craft to the next generation. The basis of apprenticeship was, as already outlined, in order that skills and knowledge of crafts and trades could be transmitted by direct instruction. Visual and verbal instruction persisted and even strengthened due to the fact that illiteracy was widespread. It was via such a rudimentary system that a process of training through which knowledge and skills were transferred to apprentices evolved in the "Western World".

As in Egyptian times, the handing-down of knowledge and skills from one generation to another was extremely important in major projects. Work began on Cologne Cathedral in Germany in the 1200's, for example, but was not completed until 1880, some six hundred years later. Even allowing for the fact that there was an interval in construction of over 300 years, generation after generation of craftsmen were required to pass on the skills, knowledge and instruction required to complete the 160 metre tall structure to apprentices who in many cases, could neither read nor write.

The 1563 Statute of Artificers signalled the British Government's first attempt to define the conditions of apprenticeship and to provide sufficient labour for craft and agricultural production. Authority to administer the statute and assess wages was entrusted to Justices of the Peace. Under the terms and conditions of the legislation, a person was not permitted to exercise a craft unless he had been apprenticed. The Act also introduced a ratio system for numbers of journeymen to apprentices a tradesperson could employ; if a master had three apprentices, he was required to employ at least one journeyman. A young person's parentage, however, remained a determining factor in his "choice" of a craft.

Throughout the Middle Ages, it was customary for the apprentice to be maintained by the master in his own residence and it was accepted that the employer had an absolute and exclusive right to the services of his or her apprentice. The indenture spelled out the relatively subservient role the apprentice was required to adopt and thereafter changed little as the following 19th century Australian indenture indicates. In essence, it was expected that the apprentice:

"faithfully shall serve, (his) secrets keep, and lawful commands everywhere gladly do; he shall do no damage to the said (employer's name) property nor see it done by others . . . ; nor from the services of said (employer) absent himself; but in all things as a faithful apprentice, he shall (himself) behave toward the said (employer) and all (his) family during the said term". (4)

Although this period was personified by the employer as the dominating factor in the apprenticeship arrangement, the agreement was not all one sided. The employer was to "... teach and instruct the said apprentice in the art and mastery of (the said trade) or cause to be taught and instructed, in the best way and manner that he can . . . ."

In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the indenture was seen as a means of both enforcing the puritan ethic of deference to the master and productive labour. Also it was a way of ensuring that young persons, sometimes only nine or ten years of age, were placed in secure surroundings and were thus neither a moral nor economic obligation to their parents.

Unfortunately, apprenticeship was also the ideal device for the utilisation of child labour which had special economic attractions and at times, was synonymous with child exploitation of the worst kind. Contrary to popular belief, child labour was not only practised during the 19th century but appears to have persisted into this century. It was so important to the British economy of the time that O. J. Dunlop, a social historian, writing before World War I stated that:

"Indeed their (children's) labour has throughout English history been so integral a factor in the country's economic development that they may be said to have contributed largely to the attainment of our position as a world wide power today". (5)

As already stated, few records remain today of how skills were passed from master to apprentice. However, it is known that to complete the apprenticeship, the young person had to prepare a "masterpiece" towards the end of the training period later to be judged by a panel of craftsmen. Once suitable standard had been attained, the apprentice was deemed to have completed his or her time and was accepted as a master "Craftsman".

Generally speaking, the apprentice was not paid formal wages but was instead paid "in-kind"; that is, fed, clothed and provided with lodging by his or her master. The consideration for this provision was instruction in, and work at, the master's craft. As well, premiums were usually payable to the master by the apprentice's parents, a practice which was still in existence in Australia in the early 20th century. In some instances a master would pass on his skills, his business and even his daughter to a man who was apprenticed to him and whom he retained in his employ as a journeyman.

Up until the end of the eighteenth century and probably beyond, it was acceptable and even expected that the master could, by his own hand, "moderately" chastise his infant (under eighteen years old) apprentice who misbehaved. However, it was also acknowledged that no apprentice was expected to remain in the service of a master who used methods of physical correction "immoderately" although abuse of apprentices was widespread. Such practices have, of course, been long rendered obsolete and today no one is expected to complete an apprenticeship under threat of physical violence.
4. THE NORTH AMERICAN SCENE

Apart from Europe, a rudimentary apprenticeship system was, in colonial times, also being forged in the United States of America. By the middle of the 18th century apprenticeships had emerged as a means of developing skills for the lower socio-economic groups amongst the American Colonies’ population. Only “land owners” could afford an education for their children and an apprenticeship was therefore an alternative for the off-springs of “common” people seeking employment in the time of the lead up to the American Revolution (1775).

Originally, however, indentured apprentices were either especially imported into North America from the United Kingdom or were enlisted from the ranks of unfinancial immigrants. Those who were unable to pay their sea passage to America from Britain or Europe were often bound to employers to “work off” the debt they had accumulated on the voyage. The resultant five or ten year “indenture” proved popular, particularly in the Southern cities. However, the importation of large numbers of Negro slaves during the 18th century was to stymie this system. Economic prospects were, by comparison, generally more favourable in the Northern Colonies with the quicker growth in population and the rapid development of industrialised cities. Accordingly, apprentice-aged youths were attracted to the northeastern seaboard in large numbers.

Overall, however, the system of apprenticeship in North America was considerably less important than in Europe largely on account of the high proportion of skilled workers readily available through the alternative offered by free immigration. Although British law prohibited the emigration of craftsmen until 1824, many such workers (and manufacturers) had left Britain for America before that date, taking with them a wealth of skilled trade work, knowledge and expertise.

The rapid expansion of secondary industry in America brought with it a new form of training known as the “factory school” where students learnt identical skills at a uniform pace. In conjunction with prolific industrial growth, came the exploitation of the apprenticeship system through the use of child labour. One result was the development of trade unions of employees and although this eventually prevented abuses of the apprenticeship, it led to the containment of the system itself. With greater controls being imposed on the use of apprentices, employers increasingly considered the time spent on their training to be less worthwhile, something that helped cause the system to stagnate.

By the 1920’s, open immigration to the U.S. had virtually ceased, resulting in a revival of interest in the training of apprentices. Growing Governmental awareness of the need to regulate the employment situation in the wake of the Wall Street collapse, led to the passing of the National Apprenticeship Act (the Fitzgerald Act) in 1937, the first U.S. Federal legislation enacted in the apprentice area.

Since then, the apprenticeship system has continued in use in the United States until the present day and conditions under which apprentices are employed in the United States are, on the whole, generally considered to be more flexible and less restrictive than those prevailing in either Britain or Western Europe.

5. THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION AND BEYOND

With the advent of the Industrial Revolution (1760-1840), trade and industry underwent a massive transformation in Britain and Western Europe. As one industry came to depend on another for essential materials, tools and equipment, the autonomy and self-sufficiency of the craft guilds was systematically eroded.

As the Industrial Revolution precipitated mass production methods and a division of labour, by necessity it also took manufacturing out of the home and workshop environment and into the factory. Such a development placed large numbers of employees under managers, and a method of factory-based training by foremen and leading hands generally replaced the traditional one of apprentices living in the master tradesman’s premises throughout the term of his or her apprenticeship. As well as greatly increasing the demand for skilled tradesmen, the Industrial Revolution also created a demand for unskilled labour. However, despite altered attitudes to training and apprenticeship, craftspeople remained.

Indirectly the apprenticeship system was strengthened as a result of the interest of trade unions in the maintaining of employment standards and in the controlling of recruitment as a means of protecting skilled workers. At the same time, the craftsman’s work also altered with the increasing use of minerals in manufacturing. By the beginning of the 20th century some of the more traditional trades had virtually disappeared and others were under threat, particularly through the onrush of the internal combustion engine into many facets of industry and transportation.

As industrialisation gained ground, employers
increasingly considered the training of apprentices to be less beneficial to their interests. Methods of instruction declined and were no longer comprehensive enough to cope with developing production methods. It also became evident that future leaders of industry would need to be instructed by people capable of bridging the gap between developing technology and their particular industry. At the same time, ideas and practices surrounding the rights and freedoms of the individual were becoming more fashionable, and apprenticeship increasingly became a private matter between the master and his apprentice instead of one of external control. Even the indenture itself was becoming optional.

In Britain during the last decades of the 18th century, the effects of the restrictions on apprenticeship caused by the clauses in the Elizabethan Statute of Artificers (1814) (in essence, the rough equivalent of section 106 of the Industry and Commerce Training Act 1979-1988) which had made it illegal for a master to employ a man in a trade who had not served an apprenticeship, were being undermined. Finally the trades were thrown open to all comers and employers were soon forced into the fiercest competition they had so far experienced.

At that time, schooling was not widely available to the general public in the United Kingdom and such establishments as mechanics' institutes and technical colleges were virtually unknown. The skill and mystery surrounding the trades therefore continued to be passed on by word of mouth and visual instruction in the workshop by the master and/or journeyman to the apprentice. By the 1820's trades varied widely in both number and status and the services of some exceptionally privileged groups (such as upholsterers), were in such demand that they could charge high premiums for admission to an apprenticeship in their trade. Such trades were thus able to maintain their position as "honourable" at a time of deteriorating standards and market saturation by mass produced goods.

During much of the late 18th century and the early 19th century, the demand for "luxury" articles which required skilled craftsmanship to produce increased, causing a corresponding need for those tradespeople with the knowledge and skills used in their production. Wages of skilled craftsmen during this period were mostly determined by local notions of social prestige or the custom of a specific trade. Tradition however, remained a governing factor in the control of prices in many industries, particularly rural ones. The craftsman (e.g. blacksmith) might earn a reduced rate for non-creative work and a higher sum for finer, intricate work.

In some industries, the craftsman's privileged position was maintained even after the transition of manufacturing to workshop or factory from the cottage industry situation. This design philosophy continued on account of the fact that the craft remained highly skilled and specialised or because of restrictions on apprenticeship. Some trades such as shoemaking, however, which were less regulated, allowed greater numbers of lower skilled people to serve an apprenticeship in them. These factors forced craftsmen into greater competition and caused a lowering of quality standards.

Between 1799 and 1824 many artisan trades (e.g. tailors) established and maintained networks of trade clubs which exercised control over apprenticeships. However the tide of "illegal" unskilled labour gradually overtook most systems of regulation which the individual trades had established. The effect of an influx of unskilled labour was different in each trade, with some trades withstanding the challenge to their position better than others. From that standpoint, the histories of various trades began to take more divergent paths.

In post World War I Britain, a number of changes occurred in the training of young people in trade areas. The tradition of apprenticeship was upheld for skilled training, but in areas requiring less skill, "learnership" became an alternative to the apprenticeship. As the term implies, "learners" were allowed to proceed to skilled work after serving as assistants to skilled workers and from the 1920's onwards, trade unions began to accept the membership of workers who had not held apprenticeships.

Up until the inter-War years, selection of apprentices was by no means a rigorous or equitable process and preference was usually given to the offspring of the employee. Training consisted of little more than working with a craftsman until the trainee was considered competent enough to carry on alone. At the same time, the term of an apprenticeship in Britain and Europe became standardised to about five years with entry at age 16, the apprentices receiving only token remuneration for their efforts.

Gradually however, the apprenticeship-based system of individual training was taken up by more professional workers. Solicitors, for example, began an "apprenticeship" by working in close association with a master of that calling. This tradition has continued to the present day with law clerks being "articled" to solicitors until they are qualified to practise on their own.

In 1948, the British Government established an Employment and Training Act. Legislation under the Act created a Central Youth Employment Executive and led to proposals for a National Joint Apprenticeship and Training Council to be set up within each industry. In 1964 the Industrial Training Act in the United Kingdom established a number of Industry Training Boards. These have subsequently been disbanded in some sectors and replaced by voluntary arrangements and to-day the Manpower
Services Commission (now the Training Commission) generally is responsible for all major training initiatives in the U.K. Apprentices now generally operate under industrial agreements in the absence of centralised legislation.

Today apprenticeship in Britain, although largely Government subsidised, still plays an important role in industry and currently, the aim is to make the apprenticeship system more flexible.

Appendix 1 provides details of some famous apprentices.

*Queen Street Saddler. Employees including some apprentices at work in the Uhl and Sons, Queen Street saddle factory, circa 1915.*
*(John Oxley Library)*

*A group of modern day apprentices reflect the changed mood of their calling.*
The development of the apprenticeship system in Australia has involved a substantial and complex legislative, industrial and administrative system devised to regulate contractual arrangements between the employer and the beginner. At the same time, it has sought to ensure that industrial award conditions are maintained and that industrial harmony prevails.

Throughout the Commonwealth, the Federal Government had direct administrative responsibility for apprentice training in Commonwealth Departments and Instrumentalities, the Defence Forces and the Australian Capital Territory. However, the main administrative and legislative responsibility for apprenticeship comes within the judicial competence of the State and Territory Governments. Within each State, the apprenticeship or training authority administers the general management of trade training. Such administration includes the proclamation of occupations suitable for apprenticeship, establishing entry standards and regulating on-the-job training and attendance levels at technical education colleges. Supplementary functions in each State include the technical education authorities which provide technical education for apprentices released during working hours to attend formal classes at an educational institution. This situation has not been achieved overnight and to reach such a degree of relative sophistication, the historical development of the apprenticeship in Australia has gone through a long involved evolutionary cycle dating back almost to the first fleet.

The apprenticeship system was first introduced to Australia in the early nineteenth century in response to the demand for trade skills in the developing Colonies. During the initial years of settlement in Australia, the population of the new colonies was generally divided into two groups, the convicts and the military. Free settlers were few in number and as a consequence, tradesmen were very much in demand. Many convicts who had, in fact, been tradesmen before transportation, were offered a pardon in return for their labour in one form or other. The Australian situation is well illustrated by a quote from the findings of the Select Committee on Transportation which in 1838 reported that:

"As every kind of skilled labour is very scarce in New South Wales . . . (a skilled convict) is worth three or four ordinary convicts."

The assignment of convicts to private employers was commenced by Governor Phillip in 1789. To encourage the (military) officers and later the settlers to employ convicts, those convicts so assigned were fed, clothed and housed by the Government. However, when the flow of convicts diminished after 1794, regulations were introduced under which the convict in assignment was to be fed, clothed and housed by his employer. It was not until 1804 however, that this principle was effectively enforced when Governor King published an order which required all persons applying for convicts to sign an indenture.

Private employers were then responsible for clothing and maintenance of the convict in accordance with the previous Governmental allowance. In return, the convict had to labour for ten hours a day, five days a week and six hours on Saturday.

Another incentive for convicts to climb towards affluence and respectability was the ticket-of-leave system. The ticket-of-leave was issued "at the Governor's pleasure" and allowed the convicts to engage in any lawful occupation within any given district subject to certain restrictions. Tickets were also granted for industry and good conduct. By the early 1800's Governor Macquarie had reportedly commented that some of the men who had originally been sent to Australia as convicts had, "by long habits of industry and total reformation of manners, not only become respectable but by many degrees, the most useful members of society". (6)

However, in the early 1840's, the British discontinued the transportation of convicts to the Eastern Australian seaboard, ending the supply of tradesmen from that source. Fortunately, the discovery of gold in New South Wales in 1851 brought a flood of free immigrants to Australia and when this was followed several months later by the unearthing of an even richer goldfield in Victoria, the number of miners attracted to this country multiplied again. The publication "Book of the Bush", written by George Dunderdale, depicted in colonial terms just how difficult it was for the gold seeker in Australia.

"...Philip inspected Ballarat gold diggings and spoke to a prospector who was down on his luck.

Philip: 'Not very lucky today mate?'

'Lucky be blowed. I wish I'd never seen this blasted place'.

'I am a mason and I threw up twenty-eight bob a day to come to this miserable hole ... Ain't you got any trade to work at?'

Philip: 'No. I never learned a trade, I am only a gentleman'.

'Well that's bad . . . Fact is if you are really hard up, you can be a peeler. Up at the camp they'll take on any useless loafer.'"

Among the prospective miners who came to Australia seeking their fortune were, of course, many tradespeople. The majority of "diggers" did not strike it rich and upon departing the gold fields, could not even afford their return fare to their country of origin.
For these men, the only alternative was to settle in Australia and in the case of tradesmen, attempt to revert to their previous occupation. By this round-about method, relatively large numbers of tradespeople became available in the Colonies.

During the mid 1800’s, apprenticeship legislation was drafted in Australia mirroring the British model of the time and in 1894, the **Apprenticeship Act** was passed in New South Wales. This Act established a three month probationary period before indenturing was instituted. Upon continuation of the apprenticeship, written indentures were drawn up and signed by the parties involved. Under the provisions of the Act, work hours were limited to forty-eight a week and allowance was made for the assignment of the apprentice. Penalties were also prescribed for a master discharging a young person without his or her consent. By the turn of the century, the term of apprenticeship in Australia was limited to seven years maximum from the age of 14 years. After World War I the term was reduced to five years and indentures expired either at 21 years of age or upon the apprentice marrying.

Despite these notable milestones, the development of apprenticeship systems has by no means been uniform throughout the Commonwealth. Since Federation, the apprenticeship system of each Australian State has progressed independently, albeit, along broadly similar lines. Nor has uniformity of growth in technical education been evident in Australia due largely to the fact that education as a whole has generally remained in the hands of the individual State Governments. Although the Commonwealth has no specific powers in regards to the training of apprentices except in its own Defence Forces, the Australian Capital Territory and Public Service, the Constitution does confer other powers which allow involvement in the apprenticeship area generally.

Through the Australian Conciliation and Arbitration Commission, the Commonwealth Government has powers to administer provisions relating to apprentice training within relevant Federal industrial awards. In cases where provisions within Federal awards conflict with those within State awards or legislation, the Federal award provisions prevail.

The Commonwealth also has powers to make money available to apprentices or employers and exercises these powers through a number of programs of direct financial support. The principal program of apprenticeship support funded by the Commonwealth is the Commonwealth Rebate for Apprentice Full-Time Training (CRAFT), about which more details are later provided. $98 million was allocated during the 1985-86 fiscal year to this Scheme. It also funds special measures in support of apprentice training through such Schemes as the Group One Year Apprentice Scheme (which ran-out on 1 January, 1988) and the Special Assistance Program.

As well, the Commonwealth’s responsibilities in terms of national economic management and social equity enable it to influence the quality and provision of apprentice training. To this extent, the Commonwealth Government is vitally concerned with the effect the availability of skilled labour has upon the state of the economy in terms of national production, overseas trade, defence potential, employment rates, wage rates and price inflation. This concern underlies the increase in its direct involvement in apprenticeship since the Second World War and the exercise of powers and influence in a variety of ways. These include the granting of money to the States for specific purposes to encourage the States and Territories to consider alternative approaches to apprenticeship training. Also, its social security powers enable it to determine the level of assistance provided to different categories of trainees. Finally, immigration policies can affect the level and pattern of domestic provision of skilled labour, and taxation laws and concessions influence the cost/benefit aspects of training.

In 1957, the National Australian Apprenticeship Advisory Committee was formed with a view to the examination of the implementation of a uniform system on the matter of apprenticeship among the States. The Committee consisted of representatives of the State Departments of Labour and Technical Education and Apprenticeship Authorities. As an outcome of the Committee’s recommendations, the term of indenture was, during the nineteen sixties, reduced to four years in all States and Territories and apprentice wages and conditions were also improved. As had happened elsewhere, however, those improvements to the apprentices’ position tended to cause some employer resistance, and since that time various Commonwealth and State Governments have sought to increase the appeal of apprentice training through subsidies and promotional programs.

In 1974, the Commonwealth Government set up the Kangaroo Committee to examine technical education. On the recommendation of that Committee, the Federal Government established the Technical and Further Education (TAFE) Commission in 1975. Further, in 1981 the (TAFE) National Centre for Research and Development was established in South Australia. In Queensland the TAFE Division of the Queensland Department of Employment, Vocational Education and Training (DEVET) is a vital part of the State’s educational and therefore apprenticeship system, servicing over 127,000 people annually at a large number of colleges and centres throughout the State.

The Commonwealth/State Apprenticeship Advisory Committee (COSAC) established in 1978, replaced the Australian Apprenticeship Advisory Committee. COSAC, which now operates as COSTAC (Commonwealth/State Training Advisory Committee), includes representatives of the
Commonwealth, State and Territory Governments, industrial training authorities, TAFE, employers and employee organisations. The Committee continues to meet annually so that members can exchange information and discuss matters relative to the administration and training of apprentices.

National co-ordination of apprenticeship programs is also fostered by the Conference of Commonwealth and State Labour Ministers chaired by the Commonwealth Minister for Industrial Relations. The Conference is supported by the Departments of Labour Advisory Committee (DOLAC) and is comprised of permanent heads of the Commonwealth and State Departments of Labour. Such permanent heads in Queensland include those concerned with employment, training and industrial affairs. The Commonwealth Government also provides financial assistance to apprentices for their employers and implements such assistance via a number of programs of direct or indirect support.

The training and employment conditions of apprenticeship covered by State and Federal awards, however, remain regulated by legislation and administered by the State Apprenticeship/Training Authorities. Both employers and trade unions can influence the conditions of training provided for in Federal and State awards and affect the outcome of policies on apprenticeship.

Another development was the introduction of the Commonwealth Rebate for Apprenticeship Full-time Training (CRAFT) program in 1977. CRAFT is a national apprenticeship scheme implemented by the then Commonwealth Department of Employment and Industrial Relations. It operates to support apprenticeships through a series of rebates and allowances for employers and apprentices including subsidies for technical education, off-the-job training and living away from home allowances.

Briefly, the Technical Education Rebate was a subsidy paid to an employer against wages during full time attendance by his or her apprentice at a College of Technical and Further Education. Depending on the trade, year of apprenticeship and length of course, an employer may receive compensation for his or her apprentice attending a compulsory basic trade course during standard day-time working hours.

As from January 1, 1988, employers accepting new first year apprentices in an approved trade became eligible for Commonwealth support under the CRAFT Apprentice Training Incentive (ATI). This new system is intended to replace the CRAFT Technical Education Rebate, however, apprentices who began before that date continue to come under the Technical Education Rebate.

Funding is also available to employers whose apprentices attend an approved course in an off-the-job training centre during the first year of training, (and possibly second and third years) depending on the trade and length of the course. Off-the-job training is defined as practical skill training in an industry-orientated training establishment. Further, if an employer provides approved training for another firm's apprentices as well as his or her own, that employer may be eligible to claim a proportion of some prescribed costs. The amount is based on the ratio of visiting apprentices “hosted” to the total number of apprentices attending the course. If, however, a firm is too small to consider courses alone, the management may join with others in a group co-operative. Depending on the size of the contribution made to the training costs, the management may become eligible for an additional Commonwealth rebate in proportion to the contributions being made.

A Living-Away-From-Home Allowance (LAFHA) designed to assist apprentices who are required to seek residence away from home to pursue the apprenticeship of their choice, is also available. Under this provision, those apprentices who move away from home to gain an apprenticeship of their choice, are entitled to an allowance for the first two years of their apprenticeship.

Finally, apprentices who are required to live away from home in order to undertake Technical College Courses during their apprenticeship can obtain accommodation and travel assistance (depending on certain prescribed criteria) from the Queensland Department of Employment, Vocational Education and Training.
7. QUEENSLAND’S APPRENTICESHIP HISTORY

On the establishment of the colony of New South Wales in 1788, the statute law and the common law of England were applied to the new Australian Settlement. By 1856, Britain had granted self government to all Australian Colonies with the exception of Western Australia. Internal affairs of each Colony were, by the following year, administered by its own Parliament and the duly appointed Governor.

Queensland became a State independent of New South Wales in 1859 and operated (as did all Australian States), on the English example, with an apprenticeship remaining a voluntary contract between master and apprentice. Technical education was primarily the responsibility of private bodies which were subsidised by the Government and many people were employed in the various trades without ever signing indentures of apprenticeship.

In 1874, a Royal Commission into education was held in Queensland. The Commission found that the existing education system generally fitted school leavers for employment in institutions such as banks, mercantile houses and branches of the civil service. There was, however, little preparation for the more “practical” occupations. The Commission's findings argued that forms of Technical Education should be introduced in Queensland for pupils from the age of 12 years onwards. However, its recommendations were met with “fire and forget” and for thirty years, the supervision of Technical Education remained in the hands of private bodies subsidised by Government funding.

Prior to 1915, apprenticeship in Queensland continued to be covered by a private tripartite contract between the employer, the guardian and the apprentice. Apprentices attended technical classes but there was practically no direction regarding their courses of study and they generally exercised their own discretion in selecting subjects.

In 1915, four Trade Advisory Committees were inaugurated in Queensland to administer apprenticeship matters in the categories of carpentry, joinery, electrical work, fitting and machining and plumbing. The following year, The Industrial Arbitration Act of 1916 made provision for the initial regulation of the apprenticeship system by inserting provisions relating to apprenticeships in certain industrial awards. The Act gave the Board of Trade and Arbitration power to cancel or vary contracts for labour, including apprenticeships. In addition, it prescribed that a copy of the indenture be registered with the State Industrial Court.

Also under the Act, provision was made for the regulation of apprenticeship wages on an industry by industry basis. For example, the wages payable to an apprentice indentured to the carpentry and joinery trade under the Award for the Carpentry and Joinery trade at the time were:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR OF EMPLOYMENT</th>
<th>RATES PER WEEK</th>
<th>% OF JOURNEY-MAN'S RATE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st Year</td>
<td>L.S.D.</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Year</td>
<td>0.10.0 ($1.00)</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Year</td>
<td>0.15.0 ($1.50)</td>
<td>29.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th Year</td>
<td>1.5.0 ($2.50)</td>
<td>38.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th Year</td>
<td>1.12.6 ($3.25)</td>
<td>46.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journeymen Carpenters or Joiners</td>
<td>2.0.0 ($4.00)</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix 2 provides further details.

From 1919, a Central Apprenticeship Committee accepted responsibility for the supervision of apprenticeship training and the conducting of examinations for those young people wishing to enter into an apprenticeship agreement. The Committee held biannual entrance examinations and selected applicants for apprenticeships from those candidates who succeeded in passing them. Group Apprenticeship Committees were also established for the various trade areas with similar responsibilities.

By 1923, State Government representatives decided it was appropriate for the apprenticeship system to be placed on a more formal footing. The investigation which followed resulted in the implementation of The Apprenticeship Act of 1924 (which was assented to on 28 October 1924), an Act which was to furnish the basis for the present Queensland apprenticeship scheme. Initially the provisions of the Apprenticeship Act related only to Queensland’s South Eastern corner, but by 1924, it had been extended to include the cities and towns of Ipswich, Toowoomba, Cairns, Townsville, Charters Towers, Rockhampton, Bundaberg, and Maryborough insofar as they referred to trades for which instruction was provided in the Technical Colleges in those centres.

The Act dealt specifically with the indenturing and training of apprentices in Queensland. Basically, it covered the co-ordination of all activities of apprenticeship training and the formation of the Apprenticeship Executive, Group Apprenticeship Committees for individual trades and Apprenticeship Advisory Committees in country areas. Under its provisions, the indenture system and attendance at technical classes became compulsory; fifth grade standard qualifications were introduced, employers could choose the apprentice they wanted, and the powers of the Apprenticeship Executive were clearly defined.

With the restructuring of the apprenticeship scheme and the degree of control which occurred with the
introduction of the 1924 Act, administration came within the jurisdiction of the Minister for Works. Maintenance of apprenticeship matters was placed with the Labour Branch of the Department of Works and an Apprenticeship Executive, comprised of interested parties, was appointed. During this period of restructuring, the entrance examination was also abolished and a system of registration was adopted whereby "boys" desirous of becoming apprentices were required to register at the Apprenticeship Office. Employers who wished to engage an apprentice, were then allowed to do so on application to the Apprenticeship Committee.

In 1927, Apprenticeship Executive members agreed that the apprenticeship system should be extended to include the State of Queensland as a whole. Subsequent research and investigation resulted in the introduction of The Apprentices and Minors Act of 1929 enacted specifically for the printing trades, but later extended to include other trade callings. The subsequent Amending Act of 1934 gave the Apprenticeship Executive the authority to prepare draft regulations with respect to rates of pay and other conditions of employment.

Following those developments, The Apprentices and Minors Act Amendment Act of 1945 (the Act was amended in 1934, 1945, 1954 and 1959) prescribed the minimum weekly wage rates payable to apprentices in Queensland as percentages of the journeyman’s wage in the award for a particular trade. For instance, a fifth year apprentice’s wage was prescribed at seventy-two and a half percent of that of the journeyman’s. While the Amendment Act of 1945 did not actually spell out the minimum age when a young person could begin an apprenticeship, it did (under Section 12) peg it to that of the school-leaving age as prescribed by the State Education Acts, 1875 to 1940 (14 years at that time).

The Apprentices and Minors Acts carried on until being eventually repealed in 1964. The Apprenticeship Act of 1964 was then introduced and although it contained many of the provisions of the old Act, it also prescribed new ones such as a shorter term of apprenticeship, (not to exceed four years), mandatory educational standards, provisions for day-time technical training for apprentices and other refinements which are still in operation today. A minimum age (15 years) was now actually prescribed in the legislation divorcing it from The Education Acts although that year the school-leaving age under The Education Acts was also increased to 15 years).

Up until 1964, the Apprenticeship Office was included in the portfolio of the Minister for Education and both apprenticeship and technical education systems were co-ordinated within the Education Department. The new Act brought the Office under the administration of the Minister for Labour and Industry (subsequently Employment and Industrial Affairs) and in late 1987, responsibility for the technical tuition of apprentices came within the jurisdiction of the restructured Department of Employment, Vocational Education and Training.

It was also under The Apprenticeship Act of 1964 that the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Commission was given power and jurisdiction to prescribe a percentage proportion of a tradesman’s minimum wages for apprentices in various trade callings according to the year of the apprenticeship. From 1964 to 1979 in Queensland, all apprenticeships were controlled by the Apprenticeship Executive.

Prior to the change to "Block Release Training", (which began in 1972 as a pilot scheme in the printing industry) a system of "Day Release" operated, whereby the apprentice was granted leave from employment to attend college one day a week for the first two years of his or her apprenticeship, and thereafter one day a fortnight. In most trades, the Block Release system involves seven weeks of continuous full time education and training at college in each of the first two years and up to seven weeks in the third year. Since 1972, trade courses have been progressively converted from day to Block Release college attendance and by 1977 the Block Release system was operative in all apprenticeship areas except that of hairdressing. By 1984, due to objections being lodged by a number of employer groups, Block Release training and pre-vocational courses were under review and as an outcome some trades converted back to a trial period of shorter "split blocks", a conversion which is still being monitored.

In 1979 the Industry and Commerce Training Commission replaced the Apprenticeship Executive. The Commission, a tripartite body, was brought into existence under the provisions of the Industry and Commerce Training Act administered by the then Department of Employment and Industrial Affairs. The Commission was responsible for the training systems such as apprenticeship, traineeship and pre-employment training.

The minimum age provision was deleted from the Industry and Commerce Training Act and today there is no prescribed minimum (or maximum) age limit for apprentices in Queensland and adults are subject to the same wage rates and working conditions as adolescent apprentices. In general practice, the minimum age to enter an apprenticeship is the school leaving age (15 years) unless a special exemption is granted for a student to leave school and enter an apprenticeship at an earlier age.
Early Apprenticeship Indenture signed in 1843.
(See Appendix 3 for details)

The Apprenticeship Executive — 1933
("Queenslander" photo)
THE EVOLUTION OF THE QUEENSLAND SYSTEM
OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION

The story of the coming of systematic technical education in Queensland is, unlike some other States, one of evolution rather than revolution. There are quite a number of focal points in the developmental pattern but none of the real signposts so easily located in other parts of Australia. This is not to say that Queensland did not reach similar goals to the rest of Australia, for it did develop a system of technical education in keeping with a basic pattern and supported by almost identical assumptions as did the other States. It is merely to suggest that the development was somewhat less dramatic in that at no stage does there appear to have been a detailed and co-ordinated plan of attack put forward for a complete reorganisation of the educational system in response to the need for education applicable to an industrial age.

It was to satisfy a requirement for a centre for teaching young mechanics and tradespeople the elements of practical arts and sciences that the technical colleges emerged in this State, the first being the Queensland Mechanics Institute which was opened in Brisbane in 1849. The Technical "Colleges" which followed the Institutes were, for the sake of convenience, initially attached to various local Schools of Arts facilities and were largely administered by private councils.

The first technical courses which commenced in the early 1870's in Brisbane with a series of evening classes, were held in the "garret" of the Brisbane School of Arts building in the inner city area. They covered such subjects as drawing, bookkeeping and mathematics. The classes were financed from a mix of student fees and Government grants, a system of funding which led to somewhat indifferent results. For a short time technical instruction also existed outside Brisbane, but there was little co-ordination between them and there was no State-wide control, and by 1872 technical classes in Queensland ceased.

By 1881, however, technical education began in earnest when regular classes in mechanical and free hand drawing were held for students studying in fields such as architecture, carpentry, skills-building, surveying and engineering. The following year the Brisbane Technical College began on a firmer basis due largely to the efforts of the President of the North Brisbane School of Arts, the Honourable J. Douglas, a former Queensland Premier. It too, was affiliated with the Brisbane School of Arts, although in 1889 the College's activities had grown to such an extent that its accounting and business transactions had to be separated from those of the School of Arts.

The courses which mushroomed were those attracting large numbers of students and requiring little equipment; for example, typewriting and shorthand. Being the most cost-effective, they were therefore most profitable while the more scientific courses tended to be neglected.

By the turn of the century, technical courses were being conducted in School of Arts facilities at South Brisbane, Ipswich, Toowoomba, Gympie, Maryborough, Bundaberg, Rockhampton, Mackay, Charters Towers and Townsville. Subjects being taught included machine construction and drawing, wood carving, applied mechanics, electrical engineering, carpentry, joinery, cabinetmaking, woodwork and cookery. During the first decade of the 20th Century, the Queensland Government initiated a series of reforms designed to integrate a more efficient form of technical education into the general education system.

Meanwhile under the provisions of The Brisbane Technical College Incorporation Act of 1898, the Brisbane Technical College became an independent body and its administration passed to the control of a council of 12 members. Subsequently the Charters Towers School of Mines, established under the administration of the Department of Mines, became the first technical college which claimed to prepare students for a specific industry-oriented vocation. The following year, a special Board of Technical Education was created to advise the Minister for Education on matters relevant to the operations of the Technical Colleges. Although it operated for only a few years, the Board's place was taken by a separate branch of the Department of Public Instruction created to exercise a greater degree of control over technical education generally. Following that development, courses at the various Colleges became more uniform in terms of their syllabi, examinations and allowances. Attempts were also made to disassociate country Technical Colleges from the School of Arts affiliation.

In 1905, a separate Technical Education Branch of the Education Department was established. Under the management of the Branch, the technical training for apprentices reportedly improved and the Branch administered technical education until The Apprentices Act of 1924 was introduced, and control of the apprenticeship scheme passed to the Public Works Department.

With the introduction of The Technical Instruction Act of 1908, the North and South Brisbane and West End Technical Colleges were amalgamated. Together, those two educational institutions formed the Central Technical College (C.T.C.) which came directly under
By 1908, there was an additional 17 country Technical Colleges operating in Queensland. The provision of the 1908 Act placed them under closer control of the Government and the teaching and technical subjects were consolidated. Through an amendment to the Act in 1918, the direct control of the Colleges was eventually transferred to the Department of Public Instruction.

In 1914 the Central Technical College was constructed on the site now occupied by the Queensland Institute of Technology (QIT) at the lower end of George Street, central Brisbane area. Five years later in 1919, a number of day release classes of four hours per week were introduced for college attendance allowing much more flexible training. Previously only evening classes were offered.

At the end of World War I in 1918, the Technical Colleges began providing rehabilitation or refresher trade courses for men leaving the armed forces and entering or re-entering the workforce. The popularity of these courses among ex-servicemen led to an expansion of adult education retraining programs. With all these developments, Queensland had, by the early 1920's built up a comprehensive system of technical education. This success resulted in the evolution of a system similar to that of the more heavily populated southern States.

The World Depression of the early 1930's brought large levels of unemployment to Australia. The State Government attempted to alleviate the situation in Queensland for unemployed persons through the provision of open classes in trade skills. Out-of-work youths in particular were encouraged to attend free classes at Technical Colleges which were aimed at teaching them various work skills applicable to the prevailing conditions. The courses targeted areas where work was still available or was expected to become available in the foreseeable future.

The outbreak of World War II in 1939 saw a large expansion of industrial activity in Australia. The entry of the Japanese into the War in December 1941, put Australia on a total war footing whereby all able-bodied persons were registered either for military induction or essential services employment. The Manpower Commission was created to ensure the work-force was fully utilized for war-production with all workers being required to go wherever the Commission so directed. Much of the work they did was on production lines, being repetitive and boring and required little skill or training. On the other hand, skilled tradesmen were also required in large numbers and during the War, the Technical Colleges turned thousands of civilians into competent tradespersons who were then able to undertake vital war-work in aircraft factories, munitions works and technical branches of the American and Australian armed services. Many of these workers were able to carry their skills over into private enterprise when Australia reconverted to peace.

By 1944 the Australian war effort was winding down and from then through the immediate post-war period of 1945 to 1949, the Colleges were involved with the Commonwealth Reconstruction Training Scheme and correspondence centres established under it. To meet this increased demand, a separate Brisbane Technical Correspondence School was opened in 1945.

As a result of the post War population explosion, the "baby boomers" of the nineteen forties were, by the nineteen sixties, reaching working age and with the influx of immigrants, causing a large increase in the demand for both secondary and technical education. In August 1961, the Prime Minister of the day appointed the Committee on the Future of Tertiary Education in Australia "to consider the pattern of tertiary education in relation to the needs and resources of Australia and to make recommendations to the Australian Universities Commission on the future development of tertiary education". The resulting "Martin Report" (Sir Leslie Martin was the Chairman of the Committee involved) made many recommendations including one that efforts be made to strengthen and raise the status of Technical Colleges. In this regard, it suggested that selected institutions should be encouraged to offer post-diploma courses leading to a degree in technology.

While the Martin Report received an adverse press reaction (one editor labelled it "A degree of Distortion") it had a significant impact on the curriculum of Queensland Technical Colleges. In particular, the Report recommended that State Governments form a central authority to co-ordinate the work of the Technical Colleges. The Education Act of 1964 therefore brought about the formation of the Technical Education Advisory Council which was responsible for informing the Minister for Education on the development of technical education in Queensland. Also in 1964, legislation allowed apprentices absence from (day-time) employment to attend Technical College for both instructional and examination purposes.

The following year the Central Technical College (CTC) was phased out and its operations were taken over by the Queensland Institute of Technology (QIT). Subsequently, over a period of several years, the C.T.C.'s responsibility was replaced by a number of Technical Colleges each of which incorporated specialised courses. These Colleges were decentralised in various Brisbane suburbs, viz: Yeronga, Eagle Farm, South Brisbane, Ithaca, Kangaroo Point, Coorparoo, Seven Hills and Milton. (8)

In the early days of apprenticeship in Queensland, the apprentices attended evening Technical College classes outside their normal working hours. An improvement in this system came with the introduction of legislation
which provided for training within the hours of employment. The Apprentices and Minors Acts Amendment Act of 1945 provided for trade instruction at a Technical College “during the same ordinary working hours per week as may be prescribed by an industrial award applicable to the calling in which he is employed”. Furthermore, the apprentice was to be paid normal remuneration during College attendance. This was extended under The Apprenticeship Act of 1964 which prescribed that Technical College training had to be conducted in the employer’s time. In only a limited number of trades was evening Technical College attendance still required. The introduction of Block Release Training in 1972 already described, significantly altered the then Technical and Further Education Division of the Department of Education’s contribution to apprenticeship in Queensland.

From the mid 1970’s on, an increase in funding, enrolments and course status have given TAFE a higher profile and increased both credibility and acceptance as an educational/training institution. There has been paralleled growth in trade-based pre-employment courses, particularly in Queensland. At the same time there has also been an increase in the number of TAFE Colleges being constructed and brought on line throughout the State.

To encourage co-operation between State TAFE authorities, particularly in curriculum development, a National TAFE Centre in Adelaide was opened in 1981 and today TAFE representatives work closely with the Queensland Employment, Vocational Education and Training Board, Industry Training Councils and various community and industry representatives.

The TAFE system, attached to the new Department of Employment, Vocational Education and Training in late 1987, has provided, and continues to provide structured vocational education opportunities for many young people.

The role of the Technical College has now evolved to the point where it is an indispensable ingredient in the apprentice system. Previously the College concentrated almost exclusively on teaching trade theory with the employer being expected to teach all the practical skills as well as social aspects of life. Today, the employer provides practical implementation of those skills now taught in formal technical classes and the education system is an equal partner in training the skilled labour force.

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Dressmaking Class. Brisbane Technical College, circa 1911
(Department of Education Photo)

A selection of the staff of the Brisbane Technical College, 1919
(Department of Education photo)
9. TRAINING COMMISSION (ICTC) IN QUEENSLAND

The introduction of Government legislation and regulations has played an important part in development of the sophisticated apprenticeship system which now operates in Queensland. The system has a relatively recent history, the first apprenticeship authority in the State being established in 1920 following a conference attended by representatives of the Trades Hall Council, employer's associations, officers of the Department of Public Instruction and the President of the Arbitration Court. From that conference, the Central Apprenticeship Committee was convened in Brisbane and Group Committees were formed to provide recommendations to individual trades.

The Central Apprenticeship Committee began its operations by arranging interviews bi-annually with young applicants wishing to enter apprenticeships, so as to select the trade to which each was most suited. It was also responsible for conducting the mandatory twice yearly examinations with Group Committees and then placing successful applicants in workshop situations. Despite such progress, numbers of employers who considered that their autonomy was under threat, were not in agreement with aspects of the developing system. Some placement problems therefore initially occurred due to this factor and the generally depressed state of the manufacturing industries which followed the boom years of World War I.

Up until 1921, the Central Apprenticeship Committee was responsible for only the Brisbane and Ipswich districts. However, during the next two years, applicants from many other areas displayed keen interest in participation in the scheme and in 1923, Apprenticeship Advisory Committees were established for a number of country areas. Group Committees continued to deal with the training of apprentices in the various trades.

By 1923 a full-time chairman had been appointed to the Central Apprenticeship Committee. He supervised the secretary, a typist (appointed in 1921) and a small number of clerks. The same year, The Apprentices Act of 1924 provided for the establishment of the Apprenticeship Executive, a tripartite body consisting of representatives of employer and employee groups and the officers of the then Department of Public Instruction. The Apprenticeship Executive was to remain in operation for many years. Following the enactment of The Apprenticeship Act of 1964, the Executive's formation was altered to that of the chairman and seven other members, including the Director of Technical Education, and equal representation from employer and employee groups.

With the introduction of the Industry and Commerce Training Act 1979, administered by the then Department of Employment and Industrial Affairs, the Industry and Commerce Training Commission (ICTC) became the body responsible for the regulation and training of apprentices in Queensland. Such responsibility included the control of indenture contracts and technical training.

The ICTC also had jurisdiction over the administration and development of vocational training up to the para-professional level in Queensland. As well, it reviewed training methods used in all occupations ensuring that techniques kept pace with new technological developments. As a further function, the Commission sought to evaluate the existing skills of employees in view of changed work procedures and, in consultation with management and employers, was involved in training programs designed to up-date skills wherever it is considered necessary or appropriate. In early 1988 the ICTC became the Queensland Employment, Vocational Education and Training Board (QEVET Board) which retains the fundamental tenet of the original Commission.

The Industry and Commerce Training Act has continually been reviewed in order to address the need for skilled workers to meet the future requirements of industry and commerce. One outstanding and desirable aim has always been to provide greater flexibility to training programs in order to improve training standards in all trade sectors.

The Act, amongst other things, provides for and gives extensive powers to a Field Service Branch attached to the Office of the Queensland Employment, Vocational Education and Training Board. The function of the Branch is to represent the Board in the field, to promote, facilitate and monitor the quality and quantity of training in industry by using industry, institutional and other training opportunities as they are identified.

Consultancy, advisory, supervisory, promotional, welfare, training and legal activities are undertaken throughout Queensland by a network of Training Consultants based in all major coastal cities and certain western centres.

The Industry and Commerce Training Act has now been replaced by the new Employment, Vocational Education and Training Act 1988.

Apprenticeship Awards:

As part of its ongoing promotional program, the QEVET Board issues awards to Queensland employers, apprentices and trainees who have achieved a level of excellence in their field including Employer of the Year, Apprentice of the Year and Trainee of the Year. These
awards aim to develop training standards, encourage employers to accept and train apprentices, give instruction and practical assistance to employees and in certain instances, reward those employers who offer quality training programs.

The first Apprentice of the Year award (together with a prize of a Silver Medallion and a Certificate of Merit) was made by the Apprenticeship Executive in 1962 to Eric King, an apprentice electrical mechanic from the Queensland Railways Department. Mr. King was also rewarded with a cheque for seventy-five pounds ($150). Forty-two other apprentices also received awards of a Bronze Medallion, a Certificate of Merit, and a cheque for ten pounds and ten shillings ($21.00) each at the inaugural function held by the Executive. In addition to the awards, employer and employee organisations donate prizes to apprentices who attained the highest marks at the annual apprenticeship examinations.

The Employer of the Year Award was introduced in 1981, the first being presented to the manager of the Bundaberg Sugar Company. The purpose of that award is to express appreciation to employers who have, over a protracted period, provided above average training to apprentices, implemented a high apprenticeship intake, displayed outstanding business incentives and generally supported the apprenticeship system.

The Minister for Employment, Training and Industrial Affairs, the Honourable Vince Lester MLA, presents the 1985 finalists in the Employer of the Year (Above) and (Below) Apprentices of the Year with their well earned awards
A Craftsmanship Competition for apprentices and trainees was introduced in 1985 and held throughout Queensland after being piloted in the Central Highlands District the previous year. It was aimed at encouraging creative imagination, artistic flair combined with technical expertise and entries were judged on such things as initiative, ingenuity, creativity, originality and neatness. A third year apprentice boilermaker an employee of Utah Development Co. Pty. Ltd., Lance Matschoss, produced an original sculpture called “Eagle in Flight” using his newly acquired welding skills and won the “Vince Lester Craft Award”. As a result of this Competition, a Queensland Craftsmanship Competition for apprentices and trainees was introduced in 1985. The Queensland winner over 97 other countries of the award was Mr. Tus Van Genderen, a fourth year fitter and turner with a sculpture of a sword and scabbard.

In 1985 a special encouragement award was also made to an apprentice, John Sharpe, who had completed only five months of his Boilermaking apprenticeship. John entered a replica of the tin man from the “Wizard of Oz” entitled “Man Without a Mask”.

Other prizes were presented to regional and State winners in various industry categories and the artefact created by State finalists was displayed at the Careers Market held annually in Brisbane and major provincial cities throughout the State. There were also 17 industry categories for awards, including engineering building and construction and the tourism and hospitality industries.
Industry and Commerce Advisory Committees:

Group Apprenticeship Committees were first formed in 1920 under the umbrella of the Central Apprenticeship Committee. Their purpose was to control the entrance of apprentices into the various trades within the area of their responsibility, to supervise apprenticeship matters in such trades generally, and to make recommendations to the then Arbitration Court on matters relevant to apprenticeships. The Group Committees also oversaw the placement and training of young people in workshops and in Technical Colleges during their apprenticeship.

The Committees consisted of equal numbers of representatives from employers and employees associations within the Central Committee, the Principal of the Central Technical College being the chairman of each. The size of each Group Committee varied according to the number of trades it covered. For example, the Mechanical Engineering Group in the nineteen fifties, included four representatives of employers and employees from Fitting and Turning, Motor Mechanics, Boilermaking and Moulding.

By 1952, the Group Committees were dealing mostly with the practical and technical training of apprentices in their respective industries. This involvement included prescribing courses of instruction and syllabi for the trades and approving annual examination papers for apprentices drafted by the Technical Branch of the old Department of Public Instruction.

Finally, under conditions prescribed by the Industry and Commerce Training Act 1979, the Group Apprenticeship Committees were renamed Industry and Commerce Advisory Committees. Today each Committee consists of a Chairman (Deputy Commissioner for Training or his nominee), a TAFE Division representative and equal numbers of employer and employee group delegates. Members are presently appointed for a term of three years.

The Regional Advisory Committees:

A further example of the growth of the apprenticeship system in Queensland has been illustrated by the inauguration of Regional Advisory Committees in the State's cities and larger towns.

The Apprenticeship Advisory Committees were first established under The Apprenticeship Act of 1964. By 1970, Advisory Committees were functioning in Bundaberg, Cairns, Gympie, Innisfail, Ipswich, Kingaroy, Mackay, Maryborough, Mount Morgan, Mt. Isa, Rockhampton, Toowoomba, Townsville and Warwick. Their functions were primarily concerned with the administration of apprenticeship matters in their local areas. Under the terms of the Industry and Commerce Training Act 1979-1988, the Committees became Regional Advisory Committees (RAC's).

The new RAC's were given extended responsibilities to fulfill the requirements of the new legislation extended to cover all technical training including apprenticeships. Each Committee was headed by a Chairman (generally the District Industrial Inspector) and with representatives of both employee and employer associations. The Principal of the local College of Technical and Further Education is an ex-officio member.

Present arrangements allow for a minimum of four members to be appointed for a term of three years. Under a new system of classification introduced in the nineteen eighties, Committee boundaries were defined by Local Authority boundaries instead of by geographical degrees of longitude and latitude as was the previous case.
10. FEMALE EMPLOYEES AND THE APPRENTICESHIP SYSTEM

There has, for many years, been a general assumption among both managers and various apprenticeship committee members that most traditional trades did not involve suitable work for women. In some instances this was because of the heavy work involved, uninviting conditions of employment, as well as restrictive legislation, but it was also an outcome of the attitudes of the predominantly male Australian workforce. In this regard many managers were of the opinion that either females were incapable of carrying out the work involved, or that it would be unproductive to train them in preference to males when there was a strong possibility they would marry at an early age and be lost to their industry forever. The attitudes and interests of young women themselves in long term training has also been a factor. In her book Apprenticeship in Europe: The Lesson for Britain (1963), Professor Gertrude Williams wrote of the position in the United Kingdom that:

"Only about 7 percent of girls serve an apprenticeship and the principal skilled trades are predominantly male. This is not because of any inability on the part of girls to acquire skills but is the direct result of the expectation of marriage. Most women marry and nearly all expect to. Even before the present trend towards early marriage, few girls thought it worthwhile to spend five years learning a trade which they were unlikely to practice for more than a year or two before giving up paid employment . . . . Although very many married women return to the paid work when their children are old enough to go to school, they often prefer part-time employment which can be fitted in with their domestic obligations."

The decline of male dominance in the workforce began during World War II when large numbers of females were employed in munitions and aircraft factories where it was discovered they were often more meticulous and could concentrate for longer periods than men. Today most industry representatives and employers realise that trade work can be accomplished by women as well as men in most instances and the proportion of young women in apprenticeships is said to be increasing in all Western countries. (In West Germany, female apprentices in industrial and commercial trades and occupations increased from 37% in 1950 to 44% in 1962). (9)

Apprenticeship training in Australia is an area in which women have long been under-represented and with the exception of the hairdressing trade, few women had ever gained apprenticeships in this country. This has occurred despite the fact that an occupational census of women in employment in Britain during 1841 found that almost 10,000 women were employed in trade areas. (10) For instance it was not until January 1983, that the Commonwealth Public Service accepted its first two female apprentices into its Queensland workforce, both girls being employed as apprentice electrical fitters/mechanics in the then Department of Transport and Construction at its Eagle Farm Depot. (11) Their work included repairing electrical motors and undertaking day to day maintenance duties at the site.

Initially, the Commonwealth Government was responsible for introducing special measures aimed at encouraging the increased participation of females in new and existing pre-employment programs in Australia. These measures included the establishment of training assistance programs for females. To help accelerate matters, the Commonwealth Government in collaboration with State Governments, announced in 1984 that special action would be taken to increase the number of women employed in a broad range of apprenticeships (other than hairdressing where employment of women was already acceptable). A tax exemption was offered to employers who accepted female apprentices in non-traditional areas under the Commonwealth Rebate for Apprentice Full-Time Training (CRAFT) Scheme. Also that year, the Special Additional Employment Incentive for Female Apprentices was introduced, designed to increase the overall apprentice intake.

As well as the tax exempt bonus being made available to the employers who accepted female apprentices under these Schemes, a further payment was offered if the female apprentice represented an addition to the total number of apprentices already accepted. Employers who qualified for such allowances were also eligible for financial assistance if their facilities had to be altered to accommodate female workers. These special incentives were introduced for a year to stimulate industry's interest in employing young women in apprenticeship training and increase their participation in a wide-range of trade areas.

There was also a tax exempt Pre-Vocational Graduate Employment Rebate for the employment of TAFE pre-employment graduates. This provision could be exercised by an employer who accepted a female apprentice after 1 January 1984 who had graduated from a trade-based pre-employment course at a TAFE College, and was made conditional that the female apprentice be subsequently indentured for at least six months less than the normal period. Also she was to receive credit for at least one year of the prescribed Technical College trade course. These initiatives were also designed to familiarise employers...
with the concept of employing female apprentices in a broader range of trades and to provide a more equitable basis for the choice of apprentices as the years went by.

The ICTC, as part of its program for encouraging industry to employ greater numbers of females, released a brochure entitled "Jobs for the Girls". The publication explained in general terms what an apprenticeship was and how young women should go about gaining access to a trade apprenticeship as an alternative to a more traditional occupation in an office or shop floor situation. It was considered that the increase of the numbers of women in those trades where they were least represented (building, metal, electrical and vehicle trades), would improve and assist in breaking down the well documented occupation segregation within the Australian labour market. It was also expected to tap into a huge human resource potential greatly neglected.

The targeting of young women as potential apprentices has, however, been slow and although the number of female apprentices in training in the Queensland workforce has increased, it was still only 15.9% of overall numbers in the 1986/87 fiscal year (or an increase of 2.4% over the previous year). (12)
11. GROUP APPRENTICESHIP SCHEMES

In recent years, the increase in demand for skilled tradesmen and women has revealed the need for larger numbers of apprentices to be recruited and trained. Often, however, employers do not have sufficient resources themselves to train the number of tradespeople required for the future. Research has revealed that a continuation of this trend could, in the long term, lead to deficiencies in skilled workers in a number of trade areas. To combat such a situation, both State and Federal Governments have initiated schemes to restore and maintain a flow of apprentices to Australian industry.

Group Apprenticeship training is a system by which apprentices are indentured to a central sponsoring body, (for example an employer or industry association, regional group or training company). Apprentices are then “leased” to participating employers on a rotational basis to provide a wider but more balanced variety of training experiences commensurate with the apprentice’s year of training. This results, as far as is practical, with the apprentice acquiring all the skills necessary for his or her trade which would not otherwise be obtained.

Generally, Group Schemes are most suited to smaller employers who, because they are only able to offer training in particular aspects of their trade, are unable to employ an apprentice in their own right.

Both the State and Commonwealth Governments provide support for Group Apprenticeship Schemes and each contribute to the administrative costs on a dollar for dollar basis. Field Officers are responsible for the co-ordination and monitoring of these Schemes. Queensland currently has some twenty Group Apprenticeship Schemes in progress which have been operating throughout the State since 1981 and they employ apprentices in a variety of trades.

At a Ministers for Labour Conference on 4 April 1986, Group Apprenticeship Scheme arrangements were extended to include trainees under the Australian Traineeship System, a joint State/Commonwealth Government vocational training initiative aimed at providing an additional employment entry point for young persons. A number of Group Apprenticeship Schemes have been extended to include Trainees while others such as the Northern College Traineeship Inc. and the Industry and Commerce Group Training Schemes have been established exclusively for Trainees.

12. THE WORK SKILL AUSTRALIA FOUNDATION

The Work Skill Australia Foundation is fundamentally concerned with the promotion of the pursuit of excellence by young Australians working in various sectors of industry and commerce. The Foundation has its origins in the Skill Olympics which were first held in Western Europe during 1949. At that time, a number of Spanish tradesmen involved in vocational training invited their counterparts in Portugal to participate in a competition based on skill standards in the workplace.

The competitions were expanded to include other nationalities and entailed the promotion of work skills in a variety of categories for apprentices and tradespersons. They are now held at regional and national levels, with finalists taking part in a worldwide competition, the International Skill Olympics. Australians participated for the first time in 1983 and the first Australian national finals were held in Melbourne’s World Trade Centre 6-9 May, that year.

Queensland began conducting regional trials for participation in the national finals for each round of the competitions in the mid nineteen eighties. In June 1985, the Australian National Finals were conducted at the Chandler Sports Complex in Brisbane and involved 285 contestants from 26 regions throughout the Commonwealth. At the complex, spectators were able to see representatives of all trade categories competing daily while the finals were being held.

Queenslanders took part in the Skill Olympics for the first time in October 1985 when they were held at Osaka, Japan. On that occasion a gold medal was won by Glenn Brasen, an apprentice bricklayer from Northern New South Wales, who competed in the Gold Coast Regional Competition; a silver medal for industrial wiring by Steven Clark of Rockhampton; and a bronze medal for cooking by Carolyn Ruddy of Brisbane out of a total of six medals won by the Australian contingent. Of the 18 countries competing in the Olympics, Australia was placed equal fifth with Austria.

Subsequently, Australia has increased its award winning capacity. At a two hour presentation held at the Darling Harbour Complex, Sydney in February, 1988, Australian competitors were presented with four gold, five silver and three bronze medals to be placed a record third overall in the 29th International Skill Olympics. By achieving third placing, Australia bettered its previous best result of 5th place achieved at the 28th International Skill Olympics, 1985.
Despite the fact that the practices and social mores concerning apprenticeship training have changed drastically down the years, the system itself has stood the test of time and has consistently strengthened its position in the general Australian industrial environment. The number of apprentices has increased almost every year and together with the increase in numbers, there has been a vast improvement in the style of service offered to them. Not only has there been greater emphasis on the introduction of training programs for apprentices and not only have their needs been catered for to a larger extent by the continual development and elaboration of support facilities, but their Technical College training has greatly improved over the years.

The apprenticeship system has undoubtedly served Australia well over the years, and it continues to evolve in terms of flexibility and responsiveness in order to meet the rapid growth and change in industry and technology. Research has shown that training in the future will be more broadly-based and multi-skilled in format, and become a component in the chain of skills developments rather than the whole. The system is moving to meet this need.

The apprenticeship system will also continue to involve substantial Government initiated support which will include encouragement to employers to maintain or increase their level of apprentice intake, simplification of the procedures whereby employers gain assistance when using the apprenticeship system, and the rationalising and mainstreaming of support programs.

Concerted attention will need to continue to be paid by a wide range of parties, including both State and Commonwealth Governments, employers, unions, and legislative and arbitral authorities to these and other factors in order to address the challenges of the future. In that way the apprenticeship system will remain a major source for the provision of training and full-time employment for young Australians and its importance will continue to increase in the years ahead.
Born on 6 January 1706 into a pious puritan household in Boston U.S.A., Benjamin Franklin was the 15th child in a family of 17. His father was a soap and candle maker and at the age of ten, Benjamin ceased schooling and remained at home to help cut wicks and melt tallow in his father's workshop. However, despite having had only two years of formal schooling due mainly to family poverty, the largely self-taught Franklin soon became an avid reader and writer.

When he was just twelve years of age, his father persuaded him to become an apprentice to his older brother James, the printer and publisher of a Boston newspaper. Benjamin was thus apprenticed, his indenture papers stating in part that: '...with the consent of his parents, doth put himself apprentice to his brother to learn his art and with him, after the manner of an apprentice, to serve'. (13) Under James' tuition, Benjamin soon became a skilled printer, at one time being described as '...having the best mind in Boston and was the best apprentice in the world'. As such, he was soon writing his own articles, which he signed "Silence Dogood" satirizing the Boston establishment.

Relations between the two brothers, however, deteriorated and James would often physically attack his younger sibling. Apart from that, Benjamin rejected the Calvinist theology of his father and brother and opened himself to the more secular view of the world of Sir Isaac Newton and John Locke. It was not surprising therefore when at the age of 17, Benjamin set out alone for Philadelphia where he soon gained employment as a printer. In 1724, he travelled to England where he lived among the aspiring writers of London and became a master printer. On returning to Philadelphia he worked for several printers, and at age 24, became the owner of his own printing shop and was soon publishing his own newspaper, the "Pennsylvania Gazette".

For a time, Franklin involved himself in civic improvement, and following that turned to science. After making the Pennsylvania fireplace (a form of fire stove) he became one of the first people ever to experiment with electricity. In 1752, he conducted his famous kite experiment when, during a thunderstorm, he flew a home-made kite to prove that lightning is electricity. Lightning struck the wire holding the kite aloft and travelled down to a key fastened at the end, where it caused a spark.

His letters and papers concerning his discoveries and theories on electricity to the Royal Society in London brought him fame and his invention of the lightning rod, which soon appeared on buildings all over the world, added to his stature.

Following these activities came a growing involvement in politics. Franklin's election to the Pennsylvania Assembly in 1751 began a career of nearly 40 years as a public figure. In this capacity, Franklin was to help draft the Declaration of Independence of which he was a signatory and later, the Treaty of Paris.

After his death, part of a bequest from Franklin's will was used to establish the Franklin Technical Institute, a trade school in Boston which conducts trade courses for young apprentices. Benjamin Franklin is said to be unsurpassed by any man in the range of his natural gifts and of the important uses to which he put them.

Michelangelo - Artist

Michelangelo Buonarroti, born in Italy in 1475, was destined to become one the most famous people of all time. Although he is best remembered as one of the greatest painters in history, he was also an accomplished sculptor, architect, and poet.

The son of a government agent and from a respectable family background, Michelangelo received a brief classical education, terminated when he reached 12. At the age of 13, he became apprenticed to Domenico Ghirlandaio, then the most renowned painter in all Florence. However, before his apprenticeship was completed, Michelangelo gave up painting and began work as a sculptor. Still a teenager, he was taken under the wing of the retired sculptor Lorenzo De'Medici, something quite unprecedented at the time. Lorenzo died in 1492, the Medici fell from power, and Michelangelo fled to Florence. In Rome, where he lived for 5 years, he executed a Bacchus for the Garden of Ancient Sculpture of a prominent banker. In 1498 however, came his first important commission, the Pieta. (14) His sculpture of the traditional Pieta was carved when he was only 23, and established him as a leading European sculptor.

Painting, however, remained his first love and in the early 16th century Michelangelo was commissioned to paint the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel in the Vatican which was to become his most famous masterpiece. He began work on the ceiling in 1508 and finished during the first half of 1510. The whole project was completed in 1512 when he returned to work on the Pope's tomb.

When the Medici family regained control in Florence, Michelangelo returned there and his projects included designing and carving tombs for two Medici princes as well as designing the architecture of the Medici Chapel in which the tombs were placed.
Subsequently, he was appointed supervising architect of St. Peter’s Basilica, part of his duties entailing construction of the dome of the Church, the largest of any church at that time. Other projects he carried out included the planning of a square for the civic centre of Rome and the designing of the buildings which surround it. The complex was completed after his death.

Michelangelo’s genius was such that its impact on the host of younger artists who tried to copy his successive styles was immense but crushing. It was not until the emergence of the great baroque artists of the next century, such as Peter Rubens and Gian Bernini that his work and ideas could be studied at a distance without damage being done to their artistic autonomy.

Michelangelo produced many famous works which were not only considered masterpieces during his lifetime, but which continue to be admired and worshipped by modern craftsmen and women and lovers of art the world over.

Josiah Wedgwood - Potter

Wedgwood lends his name to Wedgwood Ware, the distinctive high quality chinaware which he originated.

Born in 1730 in Staffordshire, a district rich in pottery clays, Wedgwood grew up in an environment where he was able to learn and develop his skills as a potter. By the age of 29 he had become a master potter and was soon to become the recognised leader of the British pottery industry.

Initially successful in his own business in Burslem and later in partnership with a London merchant named Thomas Bentley, Wedgwood established the famed Etruria factory at Hanley. It was there that the Wedgwood Ware clays, glazes and processes were perfected, improving on the process in use at that time.

As a result of his experiments in 1772, Wedgwood developed Queen’s Ware in honour of Queen Charlotte, wife of King George III. Other work by Wedgwood also became important. It included besets (Egyptian black), Rosso antico (red ware), white semiporcelain (fine stoneware) and jasper, each type having a specific use. Medallion portraits, vases, busts, seals and similar objects were made from besets; cameo reliefs were made from Rosso antico.

The two products of the Etruria factory which became most fashionable, were the besets and jasperware objects. The jasperware, perfected by Wedgwood about 1775, is a fine stoneware with a solid body colour in blue, soft green, lavender, pink or black and generally decorated with delicate low-relief designs in white adopted from Greek vase paintings, Roman relief designs and similar antique sources.

Wedgwood’s pottery productions, which began on a modest scale, expanded dramatically, and the work of the master potter is still being manufactured using his original techniques and marketed under his name, a name to this day synonymous with excellence.

Wedgwood died in January 1795 and on his tombstone is carved an inscription stating that he “converted a rude and inconsiderable Manufactory into an elegant art and an important part of National Commerce”.

Pieta, circa 1546-1555, Florence Cathedral
Thomas Chippendale - Cabinetmaker and Woodcarver

Thomas Chippendale who was born at Otley, Yorkshire, England in 1718 and from an apprentice, was to become one of the most distinguished furniture designers of all time. The son of a cabinet-maker and woodcarver, he worked firstly with his father but while still a youth, moved to London to start a new life.

In London he went into partnership with James Jemmie and took premises in St. Martin’s home where he was to live all his life. In 1748 at the age of 30, he was married.

Although many of the details of Chippendale’s life have not been recorded, it is known that by the time he was 36, he had become the most distinguished cabinetmaker in London.

In 1754, Chippendale’s famous book “The Gentleman and the Cabinet-Maker’s Director” was produced. The work contained 160 plates and descriptive notes and was originally intended as a trade catalogue and guide for clients. However, its special importance became its expression of the lively rococo style of furniture design so fashionable in mid 18th Century England, this form of expression being a reaction against the somewhat ponderous character of early Georgian design.

The Director, as the book was to become known, was recognised as the principal inspiration of the characteristic mahogany furniture designs of the mid 18th Century and Chippendale’s works were copied, usually in much simplified form, by immensurable provincial and rural craftsmen.

One of Chippendale’s early important commissions was the furnishing of Dumfries House in Scotland in 1759. The House’s design was the first independent work of the architect Robert Adams and thus began the long association between the two men. Both were members of the Society of Arts to which Chippendale was elected in 1760.

Chippendale died in London in November 1779. His eldest son, Thomas, continued the family business.

Paul Revere - Silversmith

Although Paul Revere (1735-1818) remains best remembered for his famous horseback ride to Lexington to warn American patriots that British troops were on the march, he was in fact a master silversmith. Born in Boston, as Paul De Revoire, Revere was the third of twelve children and, as was the custom of the day, learned the trade of his father, that of silversmithing.

The zeal of the Boston silversmith, however, soon caused him to expand his activities beyond the limits of his trade. After serving for a short time in the French and Indian Wars, he returned to Boston in August 1757 and there married Sarah Orne. By 1765 he was experimenting with engraving on copper plate and was producing portraits through this medium. Revere also wrote and that year, had a song book published.

However, his intense interest in the protracted problems between Great Britain and the American Colonies was soon obvious in his political cartooning which was providing propaganda for rebellion.

When the North End Caucus, the most influential of all American political clubs, decided to oppose the vending of tea by the British East India Company, Revere was one of the 51 Bostonites who put on war-paint and feathers and took part in the famous Tea Party. His involvement in the independence movement led him to become one of the official couriers for the Massachusetts Provincial Assemble. It was in that capacity that he rode to Lexington, the ride which Longfellow’s poem of the incident put into every textbook covering early American history.

Revere however, did not receive commission in the Continental Army and instead of a military career, he set to work at designing and printing the first issue of Continental money. He also designed and printed the first official seal for the colonies and was sent to Philadelphia to learn to manufacture gunpowder. For a time he directed the process at a rebuilt mill in Canton, Massachusetts which provided munitions to the fledgling American Army.

By the age of 35, Revere had retired from his political activities after taking part in the ill-fated Penobscot expedition and was busy establishing his reputation at his original chosen trade. He discovered a process for rolling sheet copper and in 1808-9, made copper plates for boilers of a steam ferryboat for Robert Fulton and found time to begin casting bells and making cannon.

He was however, still deeply involved in civic duties, especially in agitating for the ratification of the Federal Constitution.

Much of Paul Revere’s work can still be seen in New England, and its grace and style continue to be admired and copied by craftspeople everywhere.
James Watt - Engineer

Contrary to popular belief, the Scottish born engineer James Watt (1736-1819) did not invent the steam engine. Instead he transformed an engine already constructed by Thomas Newcomen into an economical and efficient commercial machine. His invention of a "separate condenser" made steam engines more practical and rendered obsolete their crude predecessors which burned large amounts of coal and produced little energy.

Watt, who as a child, reportedly discovered for himself the power of steam by watching the lid rise on a kitchen kettle, moved to Glasgow at the age of 18 to learn the trade of a mathematical instrument maker. Shortly after that, he decided he should go to London to expanded his career prospects, and after unsuccessfully seeking employment for some time, was eventually apprenticed to John Morgan of Finch Lane, Cornhill. Morgan took him in for one year in return for a fee of 20 guineas and use of his services. After his year in London, armed with twenty pounds worth of material and some home made tools, Watt returned to Scotland.

The power of the craft guilds was such, that in 1756, the representatives of the city guilds of Glasgow refused to recognise the inventor because he had not served his full term as an apprentice. However, this did not deter Watt and by the following year, he was working as an instrument maker at the University of Glasgow. He also practised professionally as a surveyor and construction engineer.

James Watt went on to carry out scientific research in chemistry and metallurgy and by the time of his retirement, was a wealthy man. In his honour, the power unit called the watt still carries his name.

William Blake - Engraver

Born in London in 1757, William Blake is most widely known as a poet and a painter. However, he made his living as an engraver and a book illustrator. At the age of ten, young William began his training at a drawing school.

Blake belonged to the dissenting masters and men, by trade, by stock, and by tradition. Although more mystical than Prisley, he shared the same Christian zeal. While he was probably more famous as a poet and painter, Blake's work as an engraver was prolific, skillful and proved to be the mainstay of his existence.

Blake was originally indentured, at the age of 14, to William Ryland who had the misfortune later to be hanged for forgery. The era in which Blake grew up was one when English magistrates had their courts full of the complaints of apprentices. In most cases their masters had accepted them only to collect the binding money and taught them no craft except to steal, at the same time, constantly harassing them in order to drive them away. After working for Ryland, Blake was apprenticed to another engraver, James Basire one of a family of craftsmen, engravers to the Society of Antiquaries. The boy was taken on for the usual term of seven years, but the style of engraving he was taught was rapidly becoming obsolete.

Blake completed his apprenticeship in 1778 and made his living by painting and engraving for a number of publishers. A poet from childhood, he now had his first small book of poems published by one of his publisher friends. After his father's death in 1784, Blake with his brother and a fellow engraver, jointly established a print shop in London. Although it did not prosper, Blake continued to make a reasonable living through engraving. He was most interested in the process to engrave poems and related pictures on metal plates and then hand-coloured the prints made from them. Almost all his published poetry appeared in this form.

A gentle man, Blake lived through one of the most violent periods in British history and it was during his lifetime that industry moved from cottage to factory, farming enlarged its scale and iron and coal gave England its new backbone. The two Revolutions which shook the world, the Industrial and American, were actually in his life and his writing. Blake, one writer said, was "a craftsman in a world worked by women and children, a dissenter in the world of Holy alliance; a workman in a world of booming profits; he was such a poet as no age before his could have made, and no age since has made". (15)
Appendix 2.

QUEENSLAND WAGE RATES CHRONOLOGY

1916 — Provision was made for the regulation of apprenticeship.

e.g.
Brisbane Mechanical Engineers Award - gazetted on 11 January 1916 (and first under the Industrial Peace Act of 1912) fixed rates of wages as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Probationers</th>
<th>1/6d</th>
<th>Per day (8 hours)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Years 1 —</td>
<td>2/-d</td>
<td>Per day (8 hours)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years 2 —</td>
<td>3/-d</td>
<td>Per day (8 hours)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years 3 —</td>
<td>4/-d</td>
<td>Per day (8 hours)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years 4 —</td>
<td>5/-d</td>
<td>Per day (8 hours)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years 5 —</td>
<td>6/-d</td>
<td>Per day (8 hours)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years 6 —</td>
<td>7/-d</td>
<td>Per day (8 hours)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A journeyman’s rate at that time was 13/- per day.

1929 — Section 13 of The Apprentices and Minors Act 1929-1945 set minimum wage rates for apprentices, based on a journeyman’s wage. Separate regulations were made for different classes of trades:

| Year 1 — | 17½% |
| Year 2 — | 30%  |
| Year 3 — | 45%  |

1949 — The year one percentage increased to 20% (from 17½%).

1951 — Further percentage increases were:

| Year 1 — | 22½% |
| Year 2 — | 32%  |
| Year 3 — | 45%  |

1959 — The Apprentices and Minors Act 1929-1959

Acts and regulations under this Act prescribed the percentage of tradesman’s rates to be used in calculating wages for apprentices as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5 year apprenticeship</th>
<th>4 year apprenticeship</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year 1 — 30%</td>
<td>Year 1 — 37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 2 — 37%</td>
<td>Year 2 — 47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 3 — 47%</td>
<td>Year 3 — 67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 4 — 67%</td>
<td>Year 4 — 83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 5 — 83%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1964 — Prior to the Apprenticeship Act of 1964, four year apprenticeship percentage wage rates varied from trade to trade due to industrial agreements.

This Act set the year one percentage at a minimum 32% in the case of four year apprenticeships.

1965 — Under the Apprenticeship Act of 1964 the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Commission was given the power and jurisdiction to fix the percentage proportions of tradesman’s minimum wage rates for apprentices in different trade callings at different stages of completion. They were:

| Year 1 — 35% |
| Year 2 — 45% |
| Year 3 — 65% |
| Year 4 — 83% |

— For a three year apprenticeship (e.g. Roof Tiler and Floor Specialist), percentages were:

| Year 1 — 36% |
| Year 2 — 50% |
| Year 3 — 73% |

1973 — New wage percentages were ordered:

| Year 1 — 40% |
| Year 2 — 55% |
| Year 3 — 75% |
| Year 4 — 90% |

These percentages are still current.
THIS INDENTURE WITNEFSETH THAT William Laws of Gosport in the Parish of Alverstoke in the county of Southampton and Orphan Minor of his own free Will doth put himself Apprentice to William Camper of the same place Shipwright to learn his Art and with him after the Manner of an Apprentice to serve from the day of the date of these present for during and unto the full End and Term of Seven Years from thence next following to be fully complete and ended DURING which Term the said Apprentice his Masters faithfully shall serve his secrets keep his lawful commands every where gladly do. He shall do no damage to his said Master nor see to be done of others but to his Power shall tell or forthwith give warning to his said master of the same. He shall not waste the Goods of his said Master nor lend them unlawfully to any. He shall not commit fornication nor contract matrimony within the said Term. He shall not play at Cards or Dice Tables or any other unlawful Games whereby his said master may have any loss with his own goods or others during the said Term without Licence of his said Master. He shall neither buy nor sell. He shall not haunt Taverns or Playhouses nor absent himself from his said Masters service day or night unlawfully. But in all things as a faithful Apprentice, he shall behave himself towards his said Master and all times during the said Term AND the said William Camper for and in Consideration of the true and faithful Service of the said apprentice, both hereby Convenant and promise with and to his said apprentice that — he the said William Camper his said APPRENTICE in the art of Shipwright which he useth by the best means that he can shall teach and Instruct or cause to be taught and instructed Finding unto the said Apprentice sufficient Meat, Drink, Apparel of every description, Lodging and all other necessaries during the said Term of his apprenticeship.

AND for the true performance of all and every the said Convenants and Agreements either of the said parties bindeth himself unto the other by these Present. IN WITNEFSETH whereof the Parties above named to this indenture have put their Hands and Seals the Twenty eighth day of September and in the Seventh year of the Region our Sovereign Lady Victoria the first by the Grace of God of the united Kingdom of GREAT BRITAIN and IRELAND QUEEN Defender of the Faith and in the year of our LORD One Thousand Eight Hundred and Forty Three.

NB The Indenture Convenant Article or Contract must bear date the day it is executed and what money or other thing is given or contracted for with the Clerk of Apprentice must be inserted in Words at Length or otherwise the Indenture will be void the Master or Mistress forfeit Fifty Pounds and another Penalty and the Apprentice be disabled to follow his trade or be made Free.

Signed, sealed and delivered in the Presence of —

William Laws

W. Camper

FOOTNOTES

(1) Persian King: 201-199 B.C.
(2) Cathedral City N.E. of London.
(3) Qualified artisan (or mechanic) who works for another. The term was often applied to a reliable but not outstanding worker.
(4) Queensland Indenture signed in 1985.
(5) O. J. Dunlop English Apprenticeship and Child Labour. Dunlop and Duncan 1912.
(7) In some trades, the Block Release time has been extended to 8 weeks of College attendance.
(8) The optical, dental and jewellery centre then at Milton is now located at Kangaroo Point.
(9) U. Foster: Changing Choices - Girls School and Work, Hale and Hemonger, 1984
(11) The name of the Commonwealth department of Transport and Construction was changed to the shorter Department of Transport after the Federal election in March 1983.
(13) C. Van Doven; Benjamin Franklin. The Viking Press New York, N.Y. 1938. p. 12.
(14) The term Pieta refers to a type of image in which Mary supports the dead Christ across her knees.
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Personal interviews with officers and ex-officers of the Department of Employment, Vocational Education and Training, the Department of Industrial Affairs and the Department of Education. Interviews were also conducted with a number of Queensland apprentices.

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Published Material
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