

Tribhuvan Makumart

January, 1930

LOCAL GOVERNMENT

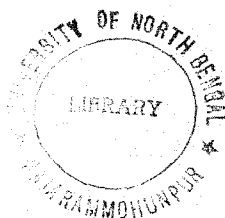
LOCAL GOVERNMENT

A SIMPLE TREATISE

BY

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PREFACE

THIS little book is intended as a skeleton which may be clothed by a varied reading in books, many of which I have given in the bibliography, combined with experience in local government work. I have endeavoured to keep only to facts, dull as they may appear to be, for unless based upon facts, discussion, experience, or reading of local government questions is of little avail.

I have not given the sources of my information, for so often numbers of footnotes in a book of this size add to the monotony of a text which must consist largely of "potted" statutes. All will be found in one or other of the books or reports in the bibliography, but I must specially mention the latest edition of Wright and Hobhouse's "Local Government" which Mr. Cecil Oakes has lately brought out, to which I owe many of my figures, and the two books, "Public Health," and "The Local Government Act, 1929," by Mr. Randolph A. Glen, M.A., LL.B., Barrister-at-Law, whom I must thank also, as well as Sir Wilfrid Hart Sugden, Barrister-at-Law, for many helpful suggestions.

I take upon myself all responsibility for any shortcomings due to haste in preparation. I could not

begin the book until I knew that the Local Government Act of 1929 would remain as it reached the Statute Book, and I wished to finish in time for it to be read before October, when so many societies will be beginning their autumn activities.

E. B. A.

*New Court,
Temple,
September, 1929.*

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LOCAL GOVERNMENT

CHAPTER I

Introduction.—Local Government in England has been one long conflict between two ideals, the one representing local sentiment, individuality, amateur work done by elected and unpaid workers, the other defined by such words as efficiency, uniformity, co-ordination, central control. Can two such ideals be combined? The answer is our local government system of to-day.

Since Saxon times England has been divided into counties or shires. The fifty-two that we know have existed as they are now from the time of Henry VIII. Except for the King's representative, the Shire-reeve, or Sheriff, the counties administered their own justice, looked after bridges and fortifications and provided men for the army. Two knights from each shire and two burgesses from each borough were summoned to what is generally known as the "first parliament" of 1265. In 1360 an Act of Edward III laid down the duties of Justices of the Peace thus: "In every County of England shall be assigned for the keeping of the Peace, one Lord, and with him three or four of the most Worthy in the County with

some learned in the Law, and they shall have power to restrain the Offenders . . . and duly punish according to the Law and Customs of the Realm." The Justices met in Quarter Sessions and carried on the administration of the county, supervising the work of the parishes by controlling their officers, as the Poor Law Act of 1601 enacts, "the Churchwardens of every Parish to be nominated yearly in Easter week . . . under the hand and seal of two or more Justices of the Peace in the same County . . . whereof one to be of the Quorum . . . dwelling in or near the same Parish or Division in which the same Parish doth lie." The work in Quarter Sessions included the building and repairing of bridges and shire-halls, the maintenance of gaols, the fixing of wages and the licensing of various trades. To this was added in 1808 the provision of lunatic asylums, in 1835 the diversion of highways, and about the same time the control of the police. In 1888 the Justices were replaced for administrative work by elected representatives, and the County Councils were formed.

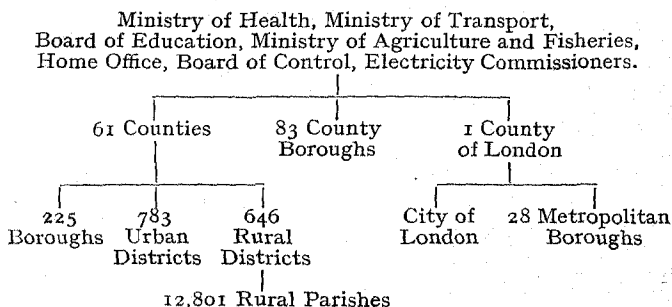
Within the counties were towns or boroughs, which had grown up for military or trade purposes, or round an Abbey. They had at some time or another received a charter from the King, enabling them to have their own officers and to collect their own taxes. The largest of all was, of course, London, and in 1066 William I. wrote, "William the king greets William the Bishop and Godfrey the Portreeve, and all the Burghers within London, French or English, friendly. And I make known

to you that I will that ye be law-worthy, as ye were in the days of King Edward. And I will that each child be his father's heir after his father's days. And I will not suffer that any man command you wrong. God keep you." The boroughs ruled themselves by various close corporations till, in 1835, their government was made uniform, under the Municipal Corporations Act. Some of the largest were "counties of cities," or "counties of towns," or "counties corporate," and these became county boroughs under the Local Government Act of 1888.

The smallest unit was the parish, its boundary defined by custom, by means of yearly perambulations. The householders met in the vestry of the church, to elect their yearly officials—the "Waywarden," or "Surveyor," who looked after the roads, the "Hay-warden," who watched the fences, the "Churchwarden" and "Overseers" for the care of the poor. As population increased, the parishes grew larger and the Vestry Meeting became "select" or representative. More duties were thrust on them, and parishes were united to carry them out into Unions or Boards. Every new Act in the early nineteenth century seemed to create a new authority, formed of different combinations of parishes. There were Unions for poor law purposes, Highway Boards, Improvement Commissioners, Paving Commissioners, Burial Boards, and, later, School Boards. Central authorities grew up to control them, the Poor Law Commissioners became the Local Government Board, and combined with the General Board of Health; Inclosure Commissioners became the

Board of Agriculture, both later to become Ministries. The Board of Education was formed, and still remains. The police were placed under the Home Office. Other central authorities have been formed since.

All the other authorities except the School Boards and Poor Law Unions were collected in 1872 into Sanitary Districts, governed under the Local Government Act of 1894 by Urban and Rural District Councils. The School Boards were merged into the counties in 1902, and at last, in 1929, the Unions are disappearing, leaving the following authorities—



CHAPTER II

Registration.—Local authorities are to-day elected on a very wide franchise, though not quite so wide as that for parliamentary elections, in that a tenant of furnished rooms is not included. Both men and women, married and single, over twenty-one, not subject to any legal incapacity, can be placed on the register, if they are owners or tenants of any land or premises in a local government area, or have been so for three months ending on June 1st. Tenant includes any person who occupies unfurnished rooms as a lodger or occupies a house by virtue of service or employment if the employer does not reside there, but does not include the residents of a workhouse, prison or lunatic asylum. Legal incapacity includes being an infant, an alien, an idiot, a lunatic or an imbecile, and having been convicted of certain offences, or of certain illegal practices at elections. A wife is qualified in respect of her husband's business and residential premises, and vice versa.

The County.—There are sixty-two administrative counties in England and Wales, fifty-two of which are the old geographical counties.

For judicial purposes the county has a Lord-Lieutenant, a Sheriff, an Under-Sheriff, and Justices

of the Peace, who have as their Chief Officer a Clerk of the Peace, who is ex-officio Clerk to the County Council. There is a Standing Joint Committee representing Quarter Sessions and the County Council in equal numbers. This Committee appoints the Clerk of the Peace and the Chief Constable, and controls the police of the county, and on it rests the decision whether to employ women in the county police.

County Councils were first established by the Local Government Act of 1888 to carry on the work of administration in the counties in place of the Justices. They consist of a Chairman, Vice-Chairman, Aldermen and Councillors. The Chairman and Vice-Chairman are chosen from among the members of the Council or from outside, by the Aldermen and Councillors, and hold office for one year. The number of Aldermen is one third that of the Councillors, and they are elected by the Councillors, and sit for six years, one half retiring every third year. The Councillors are elected by the local government electors every third year, in March. Each county is now divided into a number of single-member divisions, but under the Local Government Act of 1929 these divisions must be reviewed before 1933, and suggestions made for alterations, if necessary. The qualification for membership is either that of owning property in the county, or residing in the county for twelve months. A woman may hold any office on the Council, and so now also may a clergyman or minister, but anyone is disqualified who has an interest in any contract with the Council, and after

1930 anyone who, by himself or his family, has received public assistance except under the Blind Persons Act or the Lunacy Act. •

The County Council must hold at least four meetings every year. The Chairman is ex-officio a Justice for the county during his office. The chief officers, after the Clerk, are the Medical Officer of Health, the Treasurer, the Surveyor, the Director of Education, and there are many inspectors. The work is carried on by means of committees, of which the following are compulsory—Finance, Education, Insurance, Agriculture, Public Health, Visiting and Mental Defective, and Public Assistance. Others may be formed for various services, sometimes jointly with other counties or county boroughs. Co-opted members may be appointed on the Public Health, Education, Agricultural, Insurance, and Public Assistance Committees, and on the Tuberculosis and Midwives Committees, if they are formed. Under the Local Government Act of 1929 County Councils will take over the work done under the Birth, Deaths and Marriages Registration Acts, and the Vaccination Act.

Apart from the specialised work done by the Committees the Council makes bye-laws for the good government of the county, for the suppression of nuisances, the regulation of advertisements and petrol-filling stations, and the conduct of nursing-homes, and it may promote bills in Parliament, and take legal proceedings where necessary; it also manages all county property.

Under the Local Government Act of 1929 the

Council is empowered to pay the expenses of members attending meetings of the Council.

The County Borough.—These, as well as the administrative counties, were formed by the Local Government Act of 1888, from municipal boroughs of over 50,000 inhabitants, and some old “county corporates,” or “counties of cities” whose population was less. The size of the population necessary has since been raised to 75,000, and new county boroughs have been formed, so that while in 1888 there were sixty-one, there are now eighty-three. County Borough Councils have the powers and duties both of a county and a municipal borough. The election qualifications for membership of the Council, and the constitution of the Council are those of a municipal borough, and the election takes place every third year, in November, one third of the Councillors retiring annually. Their work, however, includes all that done by the County Council, but they have their own Rating and Valuation and Assessment Committees, like the boroughs. Some county boroughs are called Cities, and their Councils are called Corporations, and some have the right to call their Mayor a “Lord Mayor.”

The Municipal Borough.—The borough or town has at some time received a charter of incorporation, and its government has been regulated by the Municipal Corporations Acts of 1835 and 1882. There are now 255 municipal boroughs, as well as eighty-three county boroughs. New boroughs are incorporated from the larger urban districts. The

council of a town or borough is sometimes called a Corporation. It consists of Mayor, Aldermen, and Burgesses or Councillors. Men and women are eligible if they are local government electors or owners of property in the borough, or have resided there twelve months, and they have the same disqualifications as those for County Councillors.

Councillors are elected, three or a multiple of three for each ward, in November of every year. They sit for three years, one third retiring annually. The Mayor and Aldermen may be chosen from among the Councillors or from outside. The Mayor is chosen every year, and the Aldermen sit for six years, one half retiring every third year. They work by means of committees, one of which must be for finance, and they appoint officers, the chief being the Town Clerk, the Medical Officer of Health, the Treasurer or Accountant, and the Surveyor or Engineer. The Town Clerk is also registration officer and has to prepare voters' and jurors' lists and act as returning officer at municipal and parliamentary elections.

There is a special Watch Committee in county boroughs and also in some boroughs to provide and control the police force. A Mayor is ex-officio a Justice of his borough for his year of office and for one year after, and the mayor of a borough (other than a county borough) is a County Justice. Some boroughs (116 out of 338) have separate Courts of Quarter Sessions, and a salaried Recorder instead of a Chairman. The work of the Council includes the management of corporate land and buildings,

and the making of bye-laws for the good government of the town.

The Urban District.—These were first formed as Sanitary Districts in 1872 to replace Local Boards of Health, but have since become almost identical with non-county boroughs, except that they have a Chairman instead of a Mayor, and no Aldermen. New Urban Districts can be formed by County Councils from large urban parishes, and an urban district with a large population can receive a charter and become a borough. Women are eligible for all offices in the Council. Elections take place in April, one-third of the members retiring every year, though the county may, by request of the District Council, order that all retire every third year. The qualifications for Councillors are the same as those for municipal boroughs. The Council must meet at least once a month, and it acts through committees. A Chairman (who need not be a Councillor) is chosen by the Councillors every year, and is ex-officio a Justice of the Peace for the county during his year of office.

The chief work for which the Urban District was formed was to carry out the Public Health and Highway and certain adoptive Acts, and to this have been added the Housing and other Acts. Those Urban Districts with a population of over 25,000 can petition the King for a Stipendiary Magistrate. The number of Urban Districts is 783, and in the 1921 Census 153 of these had populations below 3500, and 149 others between 3000 and 5000.

The Rural District.—By the Public Health Act of

1872 Rural Sanitary Districts were formed, and defined as "the poor law unions taken as an area for sanitary administration." Later, in the Local Government Act of 1894, the Rural District was described as "the poor law district except so much of it as was contained in Urban Districts." Roughly, it is a division of the county, after county boroughs, boroughs and urban districts have been cut out, and a few are still not co-extensive with poor law unions, or even with counties. By the Local Government Act of 1929 counties must make schemes for defining or altering the boundaries of districts, for combining them when too small or dividing them if too large. The Rural District Councils, of which there are 646, carry out their duties in the same way as other Councils. Their work in future will be mainly concerned with public health and housing, as the care of the roads is being taken from them, but they will still have special duties with regard to the protection of rights of way and roadside waste.

The Parish.—This was revived as a unit of civic administration by the Local Government Act of 1894, when parish meetings and councils (where the population is over 300) were established in rural parishes. The parishes now number 14,251, of which 12,801 are rural parishes. In the Census of 1921 about 2000 parishes had a population of less than 100, about 6500 had less than 300, and about 4600 had between 300 and 1000. On the other hand, 266 had a population of over 20,000. Parishes may be divided or united with others by order of the County Council, confirmed by the Minister of Health.

There are still urban as well as rural parishes, but the functions of an urban parish are now mainly ecclesiastical.

The rural parish may have a meeting or a council. If it has a population of less than 300, it has a meeting. A Chairman is elected from those present, and questions of local interest are discussed. There must be at least two such meetings in the year.

The Parish Council is elected every three years in April. Local government electors, owners of property in the parish, and residents within the parish or three miles out may be elected. The number of Councillors is from five to fifteen, and is fixed by the County Council. There must be at least four meetings of the Parish Council in a year, and the Chairman is elected each year by the Councillors from within or without the Council. The Council is a corporate body, and one of its chief duties is to hold and administer property belonging to the parish, and to care for the parish records and documents. In parishes where there is no Council, parish property is held by a representative body, or body of trustees, usually the Chairman of the Parish Meeting and the parish representatives on the Rural District Council. The Parish Council may appoint a salaried clerk, or an unpaid Councillor may perform the work.

Since the Poor Law Act of 1601 the chief officers of the parishes have been the Overseers of the Poor, who prepared the valuation lists and collected the rates, but that work has now passed over to the district, under the Rating and Valuation Act of 1925.

The Parish Council has the care of all parish property, including village greens, recreation grounds and allotments, and it has to repair and maintain public footpaths. There are often, too, ancient parochial charities, on the Board of Trustees of which the Parish Council has representation.

Certain Acts, such as those for Lighting, Baths and Wash-houses and Libraries have been adopted by some of the larger Parish Councils, and they may complain to their Rural District Councils or, in their default, to the County Council, of unhealthy dwellings or bad water supply.

CHAPTER III

THE Finance Committee has been called the "Watch-dog of the Council," for it has not only to settle the disputing claims of other Committees, who are naturally eager to do their work in the best possible way, but has also to avoid spending so much that the rates are increased to a point where the prosperity of the area is jeopardised.

The money for local government services is derived from five sources :—

(1) *Civic Property*.—This varies from place to place, and is mainly in the hands of old corporate towns, who own property for which they obtain rent, and land for allotments and markets for which they get fees, and sometimes legacies are left to towns for the relief of the rates. In modern times Councils buy land for development purposes and let part of it on building leases, such as the London County Council property on the Aldwych site.

(2) *Profits from Municipal Trading*.—These depend on the number of services undertaken, such as gas, electricity, tramways, and the efficiency with which they are run, and the amount varies from year to year. Some Councils do not use their profits for relief of the rates, but lower the price of the commodity.

(3) *Rates*.—The rating and valuation of the whole country have been altered, so as to make them

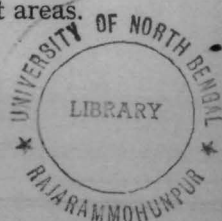
more uniform, under the Rating and Valuation Act of 1925 and the Local Government Act of 1929, and they are based on the system that has existed in London since 1899. Rating areas, consisting of county boroughs, boroughs, urban and rural districts, have each a Rating and Valuation Committee. The duty of these Committees is to make a list of all the properties or "hereditaments" in their district, and to give them a rateable value. These rateable values are based on the amount which an imaginary (called "hypothetical") tenant taking the property from year to year would give as rent. The hereditaments may be either residential, agricultural, transport (such as railways, docks, canals), or industrial. After a gross value is estimated on the basis of the hypothetical tenant's rent, a proportion is deducted for repairs and outgoings, and the remainder is the rateable value. All such rateable values added together make up the district rateable (called "assessable") value, and those of the boroughs and districts together make up that of the county.

By the Local Government Act of 1929 certain concessions were made to the productive industries—agricultural hereditaments are freed from all rates (except for farmhouses and cottages), industrial hereditaments (mines, factories, and workshops, but not warehouses and shops) are assessed at one quarter of their rateable value, and freight transport hereditaments also at one quarter, but the saving must in the case of freight transport be passed on to industry by lowered rate of carriage.

As well as rating areas, there are assessment areas.

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County boroughs, metropolitan boroughs and some other boroughs may be assessment areas in themselves, while most districts are joined together by the County Council to form one assessment area. In these areas committees are formed from the councils, with not more than one-third outside members, save in London, where all are members of the Metropolitan Borough Councils except for one member in each such borough nominated by the London County Council. No one who is a member of a Rating and Valuation Committee may also sit on an Assessment Committee. The duty of an Assessment Committee is to hear the case of anyone who considers himself aggrieved by the incorrectness or unfairness of his valuation, and they may alter the figure assessed. Anyone still aggrieved may appeal to Quarter Sessions.

The rate to be made depends on the amount to be spent by a local authority in proportion to its rateable value, and this is most easily followed when the produce of a penny rate is worked out. Thus suppose the rateable value of a district (that is, the sum of the rateable value of all the properties in it) is £240,000, then a penny rate will bring in 240,000 pence, or £1000. Every committee in the district estimates how much money it will need for the next half-year, and these are added together. Suppose in our case they amount to £10,000. The County Council estimates also its expenses, and finds the proportion which the rateable value of our imaginary district bears to the rateable value of the whole county. Based on that proportion, the county

precepts (or sends in a demand) to the district for their share of the total; in this case suppose it is £30,000. There is now £10,000 + £30,000, or £40,000 to be collected in the district, and to this must be added, say, £2000 more for special rates in certain districts and joint expenses. Thus £42,000 must be found, and as the penny rate brings in £1000, there must be forty-two pence collected, or a rate of 3s. 6d. in every pound of rateable value. For a house rated at £50, therefore, the rates will amount to $50 \times 3s. 6d.$, or £8 15s. for the half-year.

In the future, valuation lists will be reviewed every five years, and new assessments added to the list. Alterations in the meantime will go into what are called "supplemental" valuation lists. It is interesting to note that the rateable value of England in 1890-91 was £120,520,000, when a penny rate produced £452,000, in 1905-6 the corresponding figures were £160,700,000 and £558,000, and in 1927-28 they were £221,400,000 and £790,000. The average rate in 1913-14 was 6s. 8½d., in 1921-22 it was 14s. 7¼d., in 1924-25 11s. 8¾d., and in 1926-27 12s. 5½d.

(4) *Exchequer Grants*.—Large sums also are granted to the local authorities by the Exchequer from taxes. Until April 1st, 1930, these are made to the authority only if they carry out certain work, often permissive, and in proportion to the amount they spend on it. After that they will be discontinued and a block grant each year will be made to all counties and county boroughs as follows:—

- (1) An amount equal to the rates lost to the local authority by the de-rating of agricul-

tural, freight transport and industrial hereditaments.

- (2) An amount equal to the total of the discontinued percentage grants.
- (3) An additional amount of £5,000,000.

These latter grants will be divided between county and county boroughs on a basis of "weighted population," based on :—

- (a) The proportion of children under five years to the population of the county or county borough.
- (b) The rateable value per head of population.
- (c) The proportion of unemployed.
- (d) The population per mile of road in counties.

The total sum expended in the year ending March 31st, 1927, as shown in Appendix XIV of the Minister of Health's Report for 1928-29, from rates was £177,559,501, and from grants £81,062,511.

These sums were spent on the following services among others :—

	Rate.	Grants.
Education	£32,587,275	£39,798,066
Public Libraries and Museums	1,546,300	5,378
Public Health	27,005,399	3,405,103
Lunatics	5,728,546	1,062,089
Mental Defectives	506,912	521,579
Housing	2,379,723	8,545,684
Highways and Bridges	32,862,732	13,896,630

(5) *Loans.*—Local authorities, with the permission of a Government Department, can obtain loans,

chiefly for trading concerns and for works which last for a long period and should not therefore be paid for out of revenue in one year. These loans are sanctioned by the Minister of Health, or Minister of Transport, or another Minister for a term of years, fifteen, thirty or sixty, and in some cases, *e.g.* housing loans, up to eighty years. The borrowing is done on the security of the rates, and the interest and part of the capital are paid off each year. Loans outstanding on March 31st, 1927, on some of the services were as follows :—

Education	£46,039,772
Public Health	£84,947,891
Lunatics	£7,859,628
Mental Defectives	£345,133
Housing	£319,803,206
Highways and Bridges	£91,858,022
Waterworks	£155,706,281

The total loan outstanding was £1,027,857,547.

Audit.—The accounts of local authorities are audited by District Auditors appointed by the Minister of Health. They have power to disallow where money has been spent "*ultra vires*," *i.e.* not according to law, and to surcharge those members of the Council who voted for the spending of the money wrongly spent. The Minister of Health has power to sanction the spending of money in some cases even where it is *ultra vires*. Persons surcharged more than £500 are disqualified for membership of a local authority for a period of five years.

CHAPTER IV

Public Assistance.—The Local Government Act of 1929 has been said to “break up the Poor Law,” and after April 1st, 1930, both Unions, as areas of local administration, and Boards of Guardians will cease to exist. To understand the change, one must look back at the work under the poor law in the past. It has been an established principle of English law since 1601 that every person who is unable to support himself has a right to relief under the Poor Law Act of that year. This relief was to be given in the parish where the poor person lived, out of rates collected from the inhabitants by Overseers of the Poor. Their duties were set out thus in the Act: “They . . . shall take order from Time to Time . . . for setting to worke the Children of all such whose Parents shall not . . . be thought able to keep and maintain their children: And also all such Persons, married or unmarried, as having no Meanes to maintain them, and using no ordinary and daily Trade of Life to get their living by; and also to raise weekly or otherwise (by Taxation of every Inhabitant . . . in the said Parish) a convenient stock of Hemp, Wooll, Thread, Iron and other necessary Ware and Stuff to set the Poor on Work: and also competent sums of money for and towards the necessary relief of the lame, impotent, old, blind, and such other among them being

Poor and not able to work, and also the putting out of such Children the Apprentices. . . ." This shows the various classes of what were called indigent poor, and they still exist at the present time—the aged, the infirm, the lunatics, the children, and the able-bodied without work.

Changes since have developed in two directions. The first has been so to differentiate between the treatment of the various classes as to prevent, where possible, the increase of dependency, instead of granting it mere temporary relief, and the second, by increasing the area of administration from the parish to the union and from the union to the county, to specialise the institutions and to spread over a larger area the cost which bears unfairly on places where there is greatest need of relief. The work, since the Unions were formed of unions of parishes by the Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834, has been done by elected bodies, Boards of Guardians, in each Union, generally co-terminous with the Districts, who worked through committees under an annually elected Chairman. The number of Boards of Guardians in 1928 was 625, and there were over 20,000 guardians, of whom about 2000 were women. Some Unions have united in order to build larger and more specialised institutions, and many of their infirmaries have reached a high standard of efficiency and usefulness. In the same way they have united to provide schools for children. For the last century, however, other local authorities have been growing up, and in their hands have been placed functions dealing with the same problems of persons in the

same classes that came under the Poor Law, but who were not destitute. Thus, the Public Health Acts placed the care of infectious diseases in the hands of the District Councils, and the Education Act put the care of children under the Boards of Education, and later the County Education Committees. The Old Age Pensions Acts relieved the aged poor, and various remedies and insurances for unemployment helped the able-bodied. More hospitals and asylums, too, have been built.

After April 1st, 1930, neither a special area nor a special authority for poor law purposes will exist. The work is to be done by County and County Borough Councils, except where they delegate it to the smaller authorities. Every county and county borough, by a scheme approved by the Minister of Health, must make arrangements for the discharge of its poor law functions. Each county and county borough must have a Committee, which will be called the Public Assistance Committee, and members outside the Council, including women, may be co-opted. In order to obtain local help, the Committees will be divided into areas comprising one or more districts. In each of these a sub-committee, called a Guardians' Committee, will be set up, comprising from twelve to thirty-six members, some members of the District Councils in the area, the local members of the County Council, and others, up to one third, appointed by the County Council from local people experienced in poor law work, of which some must be women. These Guardians' Committees are to examine applicants and to determine the nature and amount of relief, and visit and

fix the proportion of relief to be repaid by the applicant, or those liable to maintain him, or may manage institutions at the request of the Public Assistance Committee. They must not, however, appoint or dismiss officers; this is reserved for the Public Assistance Committee. The value of relief can be recovered from the person relieved, or from those liable to maintain him, if their means permit.

In county boroughs the Guardians' Committees will not be formed, but Public Assistance Committees there will form local committees with co-opted members, including women, to work in different areas.

For some functions, such as running large specialised institutions, county and county boroughs may be combined by order of the Minister of Health.

Those classes of the destitute which can be transferred to other Committees of the County and County Borough Councils will be so transferred, *i.e.* the tuberculous to the Public Health, or to the Tuberculosis Committee if there is one, the mothers and infants to the Maternity and Child Welfare Committee, the children of school age to the Education Committee, and lunatics to the Asylums or Visiting Committee, leaving in the hands of the Public Assistance Committees the actual giving of relief, outdoor or institutional, the care of casuals and of the aged too ill and infirm to live alone on their old age pensions, and the care of institutions not under any of the other Committees.

Vaccination has been in the hands of the Guardians in the past, and in future will be under the care of the Public Health Committees of the counties and county

boroughs. So also, under some other Committee, will be the work under the Acts for the Registration of Births, Deaths and Marriages. This has been done by officers appointed by the Guardians, under the Registrar-General, who were paid by fees charged for their work. In future they will be salaried officers of the County and County Borough Councils. The work of valuation and assessment and the collection of rates, formerly done by the Overseers of the Poor, will in future be done by District, Borough, and County Borough Councils, as regards rating, and as regards assessments by Assessment Committees in areas formed under the Rating and Valuation Act of 1925.

The cost of the care of the poor in the future will be spread over the whole county or county borough area. The total expenditure on relief in 1926-27 was £49,774,916 in England and Wales, and in 1927-28 £40,890,000, as shown by the Report of the Ministry of Health. The total number receiving poor relief on March 31st, 1929, was 1,106,673, and during the year ending March 31st, 1929, there was a weekly average of 281 per 10,000 of the population, compared with 301 in 1927-28. The capital expenditure of the Boards of Guardians in 1928-29 was £1,281,977, loan sanctions amounted to £985,598, and there are outstanding loans of £7,400,000.

In this way the old poor law has been broken up, and the only remaining "*ad hoc*" authority has been merged with the Councils of the county and county boroughs.

CHAPTER V

London.—The study of London government forms in itself a mass of historical and local interest. From Roman times London has been a centre of municipal rule; now, with a population of 4,500,000, while that of the whole of Australia is only 6,500,000, it is a conglomeration of towns, most of them as large in area and population as some of the chief boroughs in the country. To understand the government of London one must realise its growth. The old London is still with us as “the City”—it is about one square mile in area, surrounded by the memories of a wall three miles round, with many gates, still known by their ancient names as Ludgate, Bishopsgate, Aldgate. This city had a charter in Saxon times, which was frequently renewed by the Norman kings. From the “Liber Albus,” a compilation of the rules and methods of government in the City made by the clerk, when Dick Whittington was Mayor in 1419, we know how the Mayor, Aldermen, and Councillors were then elected, and the work they did. We learn, too, of the regulations regarding health and the prevention of fire, the cleansing of the streets and the treatment of vagrants and thieves. The relation of the City with the Crown has always been a jealous one, and still the King must formally demand permission to enter

the City from the Mayor when he passes east of Temple Bar.

As one came out of "Ludgate" in the old days, and walked a couple of miles along the Strand by the river, one reached the village of Westminster, at first a few houses built round the monastery and church of St. Peter, later to emerge as the home of the King and Court, and the Royal Courts of Justice. Westminster was for many centuries a collection of parishes belonging to the Manor of Westminster in the hands of the Abbey. It was later governed by a Vestry, till the London Government Act of 1899 formed it into a borough, and by a royal charter in 1900 it was created a city.

If one left the City by the "New Gate" and journeyed towards Oxford along the old Roman road, now Oxford Street, one could turn to the north to the old village of St. Pancras, and further on to St. Marylebone and to Paddington. If one crossed old London Bridge to the south one reached Southwark, and the Abbey of Bermondsey. Other villages around grew up, Fulham, Islington, Holborn, and to the east Stepney and Shoreditch, until by the nineteenth century the intervening fields were disappearing and a huge town was emerging as one whole. Still each village or parish governed itself, some well, some badly, like the rest of the country by means of parish Vestries, open or select, and since 1835 by the Boards of Guardians also, who were elected to care for the poor and collect the rates through the Overseers. The City of London continued to carry on its corporate life. The parishes

round the City, not being municipal boroughs, were not affected by the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835, and their Vestries, carrying on by means of many local Acts the work of paving, lighting and sanitation, remained in control. It was found, however, that some co-ordinating authority was necessary, and the Metropolitan Board of Works was formed in 1855 to unify and supervise the work of the Vestries, and the Metropolitan Asylums Board in 1867 to look after the institutional side of the many Boards of Guardians. In 1888 the County of London was formed of the area under the Metropolitan Board of Works and the Council took over the work, while the Vestries remained the governing bodies of the various parishes till 1899, when, by a London Government Act, they were formed into twenty-eight metropolitan boroughs, under the administration of Councils based on the Councils of other municipal boroughs.

The County of London consists therefore of the City and twenty-eight boroughs, ranging in population from Wandsworth, with 341,300 inhabitants, to Holborn, with 41,470. A third London has been formed since, the Metropolitan Police District, sometimes called Greater London, and consists of the area of a circle of fifteen miles radius drawn from Charing Cross. A fourth may be said to exist in the area under the Metropolitan Water Board, which extends into parts of the counties of Middlesex, Surrey, Hertford, Essex and Kent, and was formed when the Metropolitan Water Board bought out various private companies in 1902.

The County of London.—An area of 117 square miles is administered by the Council of the County of London, whose powers and duties are to some extent the same as those of other County Councils. It shares, however, with the City of London and the metropolitan boroughs work that is not left by other counties to the boroughs and districts, and it is unlike county boroughs in that it does not form one homogeneous town.

The Council consists of a Chairman, Vice-Chairman, Aldermen, and Councillors. There are 124 Councillors, two being elected for each of the other parliamentary divisions and four for the City. As many of the metropolitan boroughs have two or more parliamentary divisions, the large number is accounted for. Elections take place in March every third year, when the whole Council retires. Aldermen are elected by the Councillors to the number of twenty for six years, from within or without the Council. The Councillors and Aldermen together elect a Chairman and Vice-Chairman every year.

The London County Council, like other Councils, works through Committees, of which there are many very important ones, among them being :—

*The Education Committee (with many sub-committees).

The Finance Committee.

The Fire Brigade Committee.

The Highways Committee (with Tramways as a sub-committee).

The Housing Committee.

*The Public Assistance Committee.

- *The Public Health Committee.
- *The Mental Hospitals Committee.
- The Parks and Open Spaces Committee. •

and among Special Committees are *The Midwives Committee, a Committee for the Welfare of the Blind, for Traffic and for Unemployment. Those marked with an asterisk have co-opted members, the Public Assistance Committee and enlarged Public Health Committee being in the process of formation. The Chief Officer is the Clerk of the Council, and under him are the Engineer, the Architect, the Solicitor, the Education Officer, the Medical Officer of Health, the Chief Officer of the Fire Brigade, and very many of their subordinates. The County Hall is a fine building on the south side of the Thames, and contains a very large number of administrative offices, as well as the Council Chamber and committee rooms. The amount of money spent by the London County Council in 1927-28 was £35,059,577, on the following services, among others:—

Education	£12,450,154
Mental Hospitals	£1,588,020
Housing (including clearance)	£2,670,781

A penny rate over the whole county area brings in £237,241, as the rateable value—that is, the sum of the rateable values of the City and metropolitan boroughs—is £56,937,854. There are loans outstanding of £59,784,264, for:—

Education	£9,898,139
Tramways	£8,692,987
Housing	£26,970,700

The Education Committee is a most important one, as it now educates 609,067 children of elementary school age, besides 24,707 in central schools, 12,058 in special schools, 1506 in open-air schools, and 31,450 in secondary schools, besides others in technical and higher schools. The amount spent on education in 1927 was £12,764,595, being a rate of 2s. 2½d. over the area of the county. There are 29,000 teachers, 100 school doctors, 60 school dentists, and 350 school nurses. In spite of the size of the population and the consequent overcrowding, there are many fine open spaces in the County of London, such as Hyde and Regent Parks, Hampstead Heath, Hackney Marsh, and Alexandra Park. The area of open space per thousand of the population for the county is 2.57 acres, and of playing fields 1.84 acres, and the open spaces form under 2 per cent. of the areas in Shoreditch, Finsbury and Southwark, while in Hackney they form 19 per cent., in Hampstead 14.9 per cent., and in Wandsworth 14.3 per cent. The minimum aimed at by the National Playing Fields Association is five acres per thousand of the population.

The County of London has neither a Watch Committee, like the county boroughs, nor a Joint Standing Committee, like the counties, but is policed (except for the City, which has its own) by the Metropolitan Police under the Home Office.

The London County Council, in the same way as other County Councils, estimates the costs of its various services and precepts for them, in the future including poor relief services, on the City and

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Metropolitan Boroughs, and so do the Metropolitan Police and the Metropolitan Water Board.

Public Assistance.—Until April 1st, 1930, poor relief in the County of London remains under the care of the Boards of Guardians, which exist in each metropolitan borough (with one or two exceptions), and of the Metropolitan Asylums Board, which forms a joint body to control the institutions for them all, and also provides institutional treatment for infectious diseases, a function of the Health Authorities in other counties. After April 1st, 1930, the work of all these authorities will pass to the London County Council, who are proposing to work under the following scheme. They will enlarge their Public Health Committee to twenty-five members, seventeen of them Councillors and eight co-opted, and they will form a Public Assistance Committee of forty-eight members, thirty-two of them Councillors and sixteen co-opted. The City and the metropolitan boroughs will be grouped into ten administrative areas (one being the City, Stepney and Poplar together), and a local committee, consisting of not more than fifty members or less than thirty-two, will be formed in each, consisting of members of the Public Assistance Committees and co-opted members. They will supervise and co-ordinate the work of District Committees, which will be formed in their area of from eight to ten members, as the Public Assistance and local committees think fit. The District Committee will investigate the circumstances of applicants and make orders for relief and co-operate with voluntary

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agencies where possible. The Mental Hospitals Committee, the Education Committee, and the Committee for the Welfare of the Blind will take over the care of their classes of the destitute.

Parish property will pass to the Metropolitan Borough Councils, and the Vaccination Acts will be administered by their Health Committees, and they will take over, too, the work of Registration of Births, Deaths and Marriages.

Most of the Metropolitan Borough Councils have been both Rating and Valuation Areas and Assessment Areas since they were formed in 1899, and all of them will be so in the future.

The City.—The City of London still adds to the joy of nations by keeping up the pomp and ceremony of its ancient customs. Every November 9th the Lord Mayor's Show impresses on the Londoner and many visitors the importance of the election of London's leading citizen, and in the evening of that day the Lord Mayor's Banquet, attended by the Prime Minister, leading members of the Government and all the new metropolitan Mayors, provides speeches that are now broadcasted to listeners all over the world.

The work of government in the City is still carried on by the City Corporation, the only one in the country that excludes women. It consists of the Lord Mayor, Sheriffs, the Court of Aldermen and the Court of Common Council. They work by means of Committees, those usual to all boroughs, and special ones such as the Bridge House Estate Committee, which holds property the rents of which

provide funds to keep up the present bridges and to build new ones, and the Coal, Corn and Finance Committee, which used to own funds for City improvements, but has passed them over to the Corporation as a whole, and acts now as Finance Committee to the Corporation.

The City has its own police, unlike the metropolitan boroughs. Its elementary schools are under the charge of the London County Council, like those in the rest of the County of London, but the City itself owns very fine secondary schools belonging to the City Companies, and also the City of London Schools for both girls and boys, and Gresham College and the Guildhall School of Music.

The City Corporation is responsible for the sanitary condition of the Port of London, and is a large market authority owning such markets as Billingsgate, Smithfield and Spitalfields. It has done much work, too, in providing open spaces outside its own area for the recreation of Londoners, and owns such beautiful spots as Epping Forest, Burnham Beeches, Highgate Woods, West Wickham Common and others. Last, and not least, it is always to the "Lord Mayor's Fund" that we look when money is needed for the relief of distress in any emergency in any part of the country.

The Metropolitan Boroughs.—The metropolitan borough is a cross between a county borough and a borough. It is governed by a Council consisting of a Mayor, Aldermen, and Councillors, each borough being divided into wards, in which three or a multiple of three Councillors are elected every third year, in

November, all retiring together. The Councillors elect Aldermen from among their own number for six years, and half of these retire every third year. The Mayor is elected annually on November 9th by Mayor and Councillors together. Westminster is a City and has a Corporation, and Kensington is a Royal Borough, but the constitution of their governing bodies and the work they do are no different from those of other metropolitan boroughs. The chief officers are the Town Clerk, the Treasurer or Accountant, the Medical Officer of Health, and the Engineer or Surveyor. There are Committees for Finance, General Purposes, Works and Highways, Public Health and Housing, Maternity and Child Welfare, Baths and Wash-houses, Cemeteries and others as they are needed.

The rateable value of the metropolitan boroughs varies greatly, that of Westminster, the highest, being £9,612,489, and that of Stoke Newington £400,774, the penny rate in Westminster bringing in £40,052, and in Stoke Newington £1670. The maintenance of main roads in London is not in the hands of the County Council, as it is in other counties, but is under the care of the Metropolitan Borough Councils, who may make agreements with each other in regard to certain streets which form their boundaries. The Metropolitan Borough Council Rating and Valuation Committee has all the work in connection with the assessment and collection of rates, and the London County Council, the Metropolitan Police Force, and the Metropolitan Water Board precept upon them for their expenses.

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In this way the government of the largest town in the world is carried on so quietly and smoothly that the ordinary citizen takes scarcely any interest until, should something go wrong, he is at once filled with surprise and criticism.

CHAPTER VI

Education.—In the year 1405 a law was passed which stated: "No Man shall put his Son or his Daughter to be an Apprentice, unless he have 20 shillings in Land or Rent, but every Person may put his Son or Daughter to School" (7 Henry IV. ch. xvii.). The inference is that at that time there were plenty of schools for both boys and girls, but we hear nothing further, and only hear of the schools in connection with the monasteries and those few endowed ones that have grown into our public schools.

For the masses of the population, educational facilities may be said to have begun during the Industrial Revolution, when, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, voluntary schools were started, some by Mr. Bell and Mr. Lancaster, called "British Schools," others by members of the Church of England, called "National Schools." Parliament first recognised the importance of the work in 1832, and granted £20,000 to the societies for school buildings every year till 1839, when the amount was increased to £39,000. A special department of the Government was then formed to watch over the expenditure, and this has since become the Board of Education. A Select Committee on Education in 1838 found that only one in twenty-four of the population was getting a useful education. In 1843 a

grant in aid was given for the training of teachers, and from 1847 onwards State grants were also given to Roman Catholic and Wesleyan schools, which had been established.

It was mentioned in Parliament in 1853 that of a jury of thirteen, only five could sign their names, and that in 1844, of 130,000 couples married, more than 40,000 bridegrooms and more than 60,000 brides did not sign their names, but made a mark. In 1857 of 2,000,000 children at school, 42 per cent. attended less than one year, 22 per cent. attended less than two years, and 15 per cent. less than three years. The majority left at ten years of age, and the average attendance was so bad that 25 per cent. were absent every day.

In 1870 there was started a State system of schools. An Act was passed dividing the country up into areas, generally consisting of one or more Unions, and in each of these areas a School Board was elected to provide and maintain schools on an undenominational basis where there were not enough voluntary ones. A small fee was charged, but was abolished when attendance at school was made compulsory in 1876.

A further important Act was passed in 1902, when the School Boards were abolished and their work was passed over to the Education Committees which were formed in every county and county borough, in boroughs of over 10,000, and in urban districts of over 20,000 inhabitants. The County and County Borough Education Committees were from this time empowered to provide secondary and higher

education, but the smaller authorities may only control elementary education. The Education Committees took over the schools of the School Boards and built some of their own, and they have maintained the voluntary schools, since that time called non-provided schools, while the religious bodies, who provided the schools, have looked after the buildings.

Various changes have taken place since then, and many Acts were passed which were consolidated into one, the Education Act of 1921. These deal not only with the education, but also the health and recreation of the children, and regulate their employment. Some of them were as follows :—

In 1877 and in 1884 Acts were passed to include children in canal boats in the educational system. Special schools for the blind and the deaf were started in 1893, for defectives and epileptics in 1899, and in 1918 for children suffering from tuberculosis. County secondary schools were established, or places were paid for in private schools, and central and technical schools were started by the Education Committees after 1902. Under the Education Act of 1918 vocational schools were opened, and camps were run in the holidays, excursions were made to places of interest, and lessons in swimming were given in the baths. The Factory and Workshop Acts in 1901 dealt with the hours of labour of children and so did the Employment of Children Act in 1903, while in 1904 the Act for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children gave the Education Authorities power to prosecute in cases of cruelty. Medical inspection was first started in 1907, and

medical treatment in 1909, and by the Children Act of 1908 verminous children could be cleaned. In 1906 Education Committees were first enabled to provide meals, working where possible through voluntary associations.

Under the Act of 1870 the school leaving age was thirteen years, but any child over ten could leave if he had a certificate from H.M. Inspector that his education was up to the standard necessary. In 1900 the age was raised to fourteen, and in 1918 to the end of the term in which the child was fourteen, and no exemption could be given. The age of leaving special schools has always been sixteen. Education Authorities were enabled in 1918 to make bye-laws raising the age to fifteen.

The present position under the Act of 1921 is as follows. The Board of Education is the Central Authority in charge of education, and inspects the schools of the local authorities, gives them grants, and sanctions loans. The rest of the money spent comes from the county rate and from fees from schools other than elementary schools. No fees may be charged in elementary schools, but a small charge can be made for medical treatment and school meals for elementary scholars.

The local authorities are the Education Committees as established by the Act of 1902. The Education Committees are composed of members of the Councils with co-opted members, who are experienced in education, including some women.

There are two classes of elementary schools, "provided" or Council Schools, and "non-pro-

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vided" or Voluntary Schools. The Council schools are entirely under the control of the Education Committees, who appoint managers for each school. In county boroughs and smaller areas who control their own elementary education, the Committee appoints all the managers, in counties it appoints two-thirds, and the Council of the district or parish in which the school is situated appoints one-third. In London two-thirds are appointed by the metropolitan boroughs and one-third by the Education Committee of the London County Council.

The owners or trustees of non-provided schools have to provide the buildings of their schools and keep them in good repair, while the local authority bears the other expenses. The managers consist of four members appointed by the owners or trustees of the school, and two appointed by the Education Committee. The managers appoint and dismiss teachers subject to the consent of the Education Authority. There is a Director of Education for each area, and under him are teachers, inspectors, doctors, dentists, nurses and school attendance officers. In 1926-27 there were 39,657 certificated and 29,849 non-certificated teachers in the administrative counties, and 62,666 certificated and 12,315 non-certificated in the county boroughs.

Parents can be summoned if a child between the ages of five and fourteen years does not attend school, but reasonable excuses are (1) that he is ill, (2) that there is no suitable school within three miles, (3) that efficient education is provided in some other way. On a second conviction of the parent the child

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may be sent to an industrial school, or boarded out with some suitable relative or other person.

The duties of the Education Committees with regard to higher education are to provide training colleges for teachers, secondary and technical schools. Grants may be made to universities and scholarships given, both for study and research, Arts and Science Schools too may be carried on. Central Schools for the practical instruction of children from twelve to sixteen years have been instituted in some areas to give industrial and commercial instruction, and many authorities are reorganising their elementary schools into junior and senior departments with better provision for the children in the higher classes. Authorities may make bye-laws to raise the school-leaving age to fifteen, and may pay maintenance grants to help to keep children over twelve, and may contribute towards travelling expenses.

Nursery Schools for children of from two to five years are being started in many areas.

Special schools now number 124 for the deaf and blind and 431 for the defective and epileptic, while the number of open-air schools for those suffering from tuberculosis is continually increasing. School Authorities work in conjunction with the Mental Defective Committees for the care of the mentally defective and epileptic in institutions. The Education Authorities too of counties are the authorities under the Libraries Acts in small urban districts and parishes where these Acts are not adopted.

Health.—The provision of treatment as well as the inspection of school children has increased greatly

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since it was started, and dental treatment has been added. Care Committees may be appointed in the various areas in connection with each school, and the members visit and help the parents to carry out the treatment, and Juvenile Advisory Committees advise them as to employment on leaving school. The provision of meals may also be considered a health service, also the vacation classes and other means of recreation, such as the keeping of school playgrounds open as play centres in the holidays, and the cleansing of verminous children.

Employment.—It is now the duty of Education Authorities to issue bye-laws as to the hours of work done by school children, and as to street trading, and they may inspect premises where children are employed, and prosecute if necessary. They may also grant children licences to take part in entertainments or to be trained to act in circuses, and may also prosecute in cases of cruelty to children. They often act as guardians *ad litem* to children under the Adoption Act.

Industrial and Reformatory Schools, now called Home Office Schools, are provided by the local authority with a licence from the Home Secretary, who has power to inspect them. The Industrial Schools are for the reception of children found begging, or whose parents are not considered fit to bring them up, and they can take them from the age of three years. Reformatory Schools are for young offenders from twelve to sixteen years of age. They may be provided by the local authority or by other persons or bodies, and are certified and visited by

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HOME OFFICE AND POOR LAW SCHOOLS 43

officials of the Home Office. In 1926 there were twenty-eight reformatory and eighty-one industrial schools, and 2114 children were in the reformatory, and 4757 in the industrial schools.

Poor Law Schools have been founded by Guardians for the children under the poor law in their Unions. These will pass over to the County and County Borough Education Authorities after April 1st, 1930.

CHAPTER VII

Public Health.—It is easier to keep a record of public health services than that of most others, because so much can be shown by statistics. These have been kept increasingly carefully during the last hundred years. In 1349 we only know how many must have died during the “Black Death” from the frequent changes in writing in the old records of the bailiffs of the manors. At the time of the plague of 1666 Bills of Mortality were compiled, and it is possible to find out the numbers who died in many of the parishes in London and in some of the larger towns. The actual death-rate of the whole population was not recorded, however, till 1801, but from that time on we can trace a very encouraging fall :—

1801	24·5	1871-1880	21·0	1924	12·2
1830	20·0	1881-1890	19·1	1926	11·6
1839	22·4	1901-1910	15·0	1927	12·3
1850-1860	22·1	1911-1920	14·3	1928	11·7

Some Acts of Parliament dealing with sewers were passed in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth, but these had to do with the draining of land, and were for agricultural rather than public health purposes. During the middle of the nineteenth century a great attempt was made to cope with unhealthy

surroundings, and an Act in 1848 established Local Boards of Health in united parishes, under a Central Board, which combined with the Poor Law Commissioners in 1871 to become the Local Government Board, and in 1919 the Ministry of Health. From 1848 onwards there was an Act nearly every year dealing with nuisances and sewers, lodging-houses, and the inspection of houses, disease prevention, or the provision of water. These were consolidated in the great Public Health Act of 1875, and the work was continued, with other Acts on infectious diseases, by the Public Health Acts of 1890, 1907 and 1925.

Public health work is now in the hands of the District Councils, and in this connection county boroughs and boroughs count as urban districts. Some of the Acts or parts of the Acts are adoptive by urban districts, but by rural districts only under an order from the Minister of Health. Each district has its officers, the chief of whom is the Medical Officer of Health, some have an assistant medical officer, often a woman, a tuberculosis doctor and officers, sanitary inspectors and health visitors. At the present time some Medical Officers of Health in smaller areas have private practices as well as their public appointments, but under the Local Government Act of 1929, districts may be grouped so that each doctor is a whole-time officer. The work of public health under the various Acts may be described as follows :—

Sewers and Nuisances.—All sewers belong to the District Authorities, and it is their business to keep

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them clean and efficient. Sanitary inspectors supervise the sanitation of the area, and may prosecute for causing a nuisance anyone whose drains are in a foul state, or who allows his gutters to drip, his pipes to be leaky, or accumulations of filth to remain near his house. The local authorities make regulations with regard to water-closets in houses and factories, privies and cesspools, and prosecute if these are transgressed. No petrol, steam, or refuse from chemical works may be poured into sewers.

One of the most expensive works of a health department is the provision for the disposal of sewage, and some districts unite to keep up a joint sewage farm. The authorities have power, too, to see that regulations are kept with respect to overcrowding, ventilation and sanitation in factories and workshops, in cellars, and in common lodging-houses. They may also seize unsound meat and other articles of food in shops and markets, and carry out regulations with regard to offensive trades. They also inspect tents, vans, and sheds and make rules as to the housing of hop-pickers and fruit-pickers. As regards houses, they may clean them if verminous, remove verminous articles, and, with an order from a Justice of the Peace, may forcibly clean verminous persons. Under the Rats and Mice Act of 1919 it is the duty of the Health Authority to destroy rats and mice in their district.

House Refuse.—The collection and disposal of house refuse is a vexed question with all Health Authorities. Urban districts *must* make arrange-

ments, rural districts *may*, either to do the work themselves or contract with some private firm to do it. No payment must be asked for collecting house refuse, but arrangements may be made for the local authority to collect trade refuse for a fee, and this is done, especially with regard to fish and meat, in many of the larger boroughs. The weight of house refuse collected in the year ending March 31st, 1928, was 16 cwts. a day for every thousand of the population. The cost of collecting and disposing of this was £192 per thousand of the population.

With regard to collection the problems are: (1) how often in a week the collection shall be made, (2) the best time for collection in order not to interfere with traffic, and for æsthetic reasons, (3) the shape and covering of the cart, both for efficient collection and to prevent the refuse blowing about. The difficulties of disposal are even greater at the present time; the great majority of authorities merely dump their rubbish crudely in, if possible, land leased to them in some other area. Another method is that of building destructors to burn up all the refuse. This is expensive, and forms much clinker and smoke, so that a further system has developed, whereby all that is useful is picked out, such as tins, paper, breeze, coal dust and bones, and these are sold, while only the residue goes into the furnace. With the latest furnaces it is possible to use the heat for making electricity to run the plant for separating the other products. It is possible, too, where rubbish must be dumped, to treat it so that it no longer attracts rats or flies, and to dump it in

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layers with earth over it, so that it does not make an offensive heap. The Minister of Health reports that in London "every year about 320,000 tons of usable fuel, or more than one quarter of the total quantity of refuse collected, are thrown into dustbins, in value to the householder about £160,000, and as a charge on the rates for collection and disposal of £290,000."

Contagious Diseases.—It has always been a custom among civilised people to try to isolate those they know to be suffering from an infectious disease, and we read of lazar houses for lepers, and of pest houses for those suffering from plague, in all early books on social life. So effective have been the attempts made since 1875 to deal with the subject that some diseases, such as typhus, have already become almost a thing of the past. Under the Public Health Act of 1875 and other Acts isolation hospitals are provided by all local authorities, alone or jointly, and regulations are made with regard to the spreading of disease, and the authority may disinfect houses where there has been disease. Such regulations forbid persons knowingly suffering from an infectious disease to walk about or to enter a public carriage, or to carry on business, or to send washing to a laundry, or to borrow a book from a library, or, if a child, to attend school. Certain diseases are compulsorily notifiable, and statistics are kept of their prevalence, others may be made notifiable on a sudden outbreak. The percentages per thousand deaths from notifiable diseases since 1871 are as follows :—

	1871- 1880.	1881- 1890.	1891- 1900.	1900- 1910.	1911- 1920.	1928.
Diphtheria	0.12	0.16	0.26	0.18	0.14	0.08
Influenza	0.01	0.02	0.36	0.21	0.50	0.19
Whooping-cough	0.51	0.45	0.38	0.28	0.18	0.07
Measles	0.38	0.44	0.41	0.31	0.27	0.10
Small Pox	0.24	0.05	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.001
Enteric Fever	0.32	0.20	0.17	0.09	0.035	0.011
Scarlet Fever	0.72	0.34	0.16	0.11	0.04	0.015
Typhus	0.06	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Water supply.—Drinking water used to be obtained from rivers, streams and wells, and though they were far cleaner than they are at present, most people preferred to drink ale. In London conduit pipes, hollowed out of trees, brought water from the streams in Highgate and Hampstead. An Act of 1543 (35 Henry VIII. ch. x.) reads: “The Mayor and Commonality, etc., of London may amend decayed Conduits and dig and lay Pipes, and create new ones, etc., making Recompense for the same. A remedy for the Party whose Ground is broken to recover the Money taxed, against the Mayor, etc. The Forfeiture of him who molesteth the Mayor or any of his Workmen in digging. No Water may be conveyed away that is brought to any Person’s house. No digging in the King’s Ground without a licence. A Pound of Pepper shall be paid for fetching Water from Hampstead Heath. A Spring at the Foot of Hampstead Heath saved.” It is now the duty of all Health Authorities to supply, either by themselves or a private company, enough water for the population in their district, for which they may charge a reasonable amount. In urban areas water must be fixed

in every house, and any part of a house let separately; in rural areas there must be a supply reasonably near to every house. Grants are made from the Minister of Health, and also under unemployment schemes, to further the supply of water in rural districts. In urban districts the authorities must supply fire plugs with enough water at hand for putting out fires.

River Pollution Acts have been passed to try to maintain rivers in a pure state, for obtaining water from them, for keeping fish alive, and for the sake of their beauty. It is forbidden to drain crude sewage into a river, and also acids from works, or any offensive matter from factories.

Smoke is another of the evils that the health authorities have tried to abate. An Act of 1853 first made it illegal to allow the emission of so much black smoke as to cause a nuisance, and this Act was incorporated in that of 1875. In 1891 a special Act was passed for London, making it an offence to emit smoke, so as to be a nuisance, from furnaces or from steamboats on the Thames. The last Smoke Abatement Act—that of 1926—does away with the necessity of proving *black* smoke, and applies to all but domestic fires.

The health authorities—sometimes, though, other committees of the Council—have also the following powers and duties. They license places used for music and dancing and cinemas, make regulations to prevent overcrowding, and ensure ventilation and means of egress, and proper supervision where children are admitted. They do the same for public

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assemblies, and also see to the safety of platforms therein. In streets they have control of the height of chimneys, the safety of hoardings, the provision of cabmen's shelters, and of islands for crossing roads. They also license registry offices for domestic servants and can refuse to continue a licence if the office is not kept satisfactorily.

The health authority must make arrangements also for cemeteries and mortuaries, and may provide crematoria. They enforce, too, the closing of churchyards or cemeteries that are full, or are too near populous districts.

In many urban areas they must license and control the street-traders in the specified parts of the town in which they are allowed to sell their wares.

CHAPTER VIII

Maternity and Child Welfare.—While the average death-rate was steadily going down with the improved health administration of the nineteenth century, that of infants showed no corresponding decrease. In 1750 it had been reckoned that half the children born in London died before the age of three years, but statistics were not regularly kept till 1870. The following decade, 1870–1880, showed a death-rate of an average of 149 per thousand births, and in 1898–1902 it was 152. Various societies were started to deal with the subject of infant mortality about the beginning of this century, and we can see from their Annual Reports how the work gradually developed. The St. Marylebone Health Society, one of the earliest, was formed in 1906. From the beginning, the Medical Officer of Health for the borough was its chairman. Visitors, unpaid at first, then trained and paid, visited and instructed the mothers of newly-born infants. Then consultations were held at the St. Marylebone Dispensary, with doctors in attendance, and the babies were weighed, and the mothers given advice, and the Centres we know so well grew up. In 1907 the first Notification of Births Act was passed. This was adoptive, and placed a duty on the father or the person in attendance on the mother of a newly-born

child to give notice of the birth to the local Medical Officer of Health within six hours. In a circular issued just after the passing of this Act, the Local Government Board stated :—

“ There is no occasion for imposing upon parents and others the obligation of notifying births unless steps are taken to carry out the ultimate objects of the measure, namely, to the giving of advice and instruction to those who had charge of the infant . . . and these arrangements will generally be best carried out by local agencies under the local medical officer of health.”

Local Authorities then established a system of health visitors, and by 1913 the Notification of Births Act had been adopted by 390 districts. The Government gave grants to help both for payment of part of the salaries of health visitors and to the voluntary societies who were undertaking maternity and child welfare work. In some places children up to school age were dealt with, and in July 1914 the Local Government Board proposed in a circular that the following was a scheme at which local authorities should endeavour to aim :—

1. Arrangements for the local supervision of midwives.

2. *Ante-Natal.*

(a) An ante-natal clinic for expectant mothers.

The home visiting of expectant mothers.

(b) A maternity hospital or beds at a hospital, in which complicated cases of pregnancy can receive treatment.

3. *Natal.*

(a) Such assistance as may be needed to ensure the mother having skilled and prompt attendance during confinement.

(b) The confinement of sick women, suffering from any condition involving danger to the mother or infant, at a hospital.

4. *Post-Natal.*

(a) The treatment in a hospital for complications in the mother or the infant.

(b) Provision of systematic advice and treatment for infants at a Baby Clinic or Infant Dispensary.

(c) The continuance of these Clinics or Dispensaries so as to be available for children up to the age when they are entered on a school register.

(d) The systematic home visitation of infants and of children not on a school register.

This the Local Government Board in 1914 considered a comprehensive scheme, and also asked for attendance at the centre of members of the staff engaged in home visiting, and for careful records to be kept, so that they might be available for the School Medical Officer when the child entered school.

The next advance was the Notification of Births (Extension) Act of 1915, which made notification compulsory instead of adoptive in all areas. By

this Act also, local authorities were empowered to appoint a Committee to supervise the maternity and child welfare work in the district, and it was suggested by the Local Government Board in a circular that these Committees should consist of

- (1) A majority of direct representatives of the Council.
- (2) An adequate representation of working women.
- (3) An adequate representation of voluntary agencies.
- (4) An adequate representation of medical practitioners, or, where there is a maternity hospital, a member of the board.

The work gradually developed on these lines until, in 1918, the Maternity and Child Welfare Act was passed. By this Act, local authorities, in this case County and County Borough Councils, as well as Borough, Urban and Rural District Councils must appoint a committee to carry out all duties under the Act. This may be a Sub-committee of one of the other Committees of the Council, and must not establish a general domiciliary service of medical practitioners. An increased grant from the Central Government was to be given.

As well as the work to be carried out in the scheme set up in 1914, the following suggestions were made in a Ministry of Health Circular in 1918 :—

Hospital treatment for children up to school age.

Lying-in Homes and Convalescent Homes for nursing mothers and children.

- The provision of home-helps.

The provision of nursing in the home for expectant mothers and for children with certain ailments.

Provision of food for expectant and nursing mothers and for children under five years of age.

The provision of crèches and day nurseries.

Homes for the children of widowed and deserted mothers and for illegitimate children.

The provision of a midwifery service.

Experimental work for the health of expectant and nursing mothers.

Fixed qualifications for health visitors, and arrangements in country districts with the visitors of the Nursing Associations.

With regard to the provision of food, this had been very important in the rationing period during the war and the years after. Arrangements had been made with the Ministry of Food for an increased supply of sugar to welfare centres, and a larger supply of milk. In 1920 it was decided that only milk should be provided, and many orders and circulars have been issued since on the questions of the provision of milk, its quality and quantity. In 1926-27 the expenditure of local authorities in England and Wales on maternity and child welfare work was £1,585,972, and the Government grant to voluntary societies was £217,554.

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Under the Act of 1929 grants will be made by the county and county boroughs to the Maternity and Child Welfare Committees in their areas out of the block grant from the Central Government, and the work must be carried on to the satisfaction of the Ministry of Health.

The infant death-rate has decreased very satisfactorily, showing the value of the work done.

Deaths under one year per thousand births.

1906.	1910.	1919.	1923.	1927.	1928.
132	127	89	69	69	65

Meanwhile the rate of maternal mortality had not decreased. Puerperal sepsis is one of the notifiable diseases, and, since 1926, puerperal pyrexia as well. From 1919 to 1926 the average number of women dying from these diseases was over 1000 every year.

In 1921 the Ministry of Health sent circulars to the Medical Officers of Health in all places where there were Maternity and Child Welfare Committees, pointing out the position and asking them to undertake inquiries into maternal mortality and puerperal fever, and a Central Committee was set up by the Minister. In 1928 another communication was sent to the Town Clerks asking for further investigations.

After the passing over of the functions of the Guardians to the County and County Borough Councils, the care of mothers and babies now under the Poor Law will also be in the hands of the maternity and child welfare authorities, and the institutions of the Guardians will be available for maternity hospitals and homes. This work may be delegated

by the counties to those urban and rural districts which have Maternity and Child Welfare Committees.

Midwives.—Midwives have been subject to a certain degree to the supervision of the local authorities since the Midwives Act was passed in 1902, and this was amended in 1918. A Central Midwives Board has been formed to regulate the training and certification of midwives, and, if efficient, to place their names on a roll. Midwives wishing to practise must give notice to the local authorities, in this case all but the Parish Councils. The local authority then supervises their work and investigates in cases of alleged negligence or misconduct, and reports to the Central Board. The Board has the power of suspending or removing a midwife from their roll, but she has a right of appeal to the High Court if she thinks she is aggrieved.

In 1926 an Act was passed for the registration of nursing and maternity homes and their consequent inspection. The authorities under whom this work is placed are the County and County Borough Councils.

This Act also amends the Midwives Act of 1918, by permitting persons not certified under the Act to attend a woman in child-birth (except in cases of urgent necessity) only under the direction and personal supervision of a qualified doctor, and allows compensation to a midwife who has been suspended from practice in order to prevent the spread of infection.

With regard to nursing and maternity homes,

local supervisory authorities may at any time cancel the registration of any home if they think it necessary, but they must give due notice, and the owner may appeal to a Court of Summary Jurisdiction. The local supervising authority may also make bye-laws with respect to the keeping of records of the patients and the children born in the home and as to the notification of any death and the cause of it. These records may be required by the officer inspecting, and no obstruction must be offered to his effective inspection of the premises.

The Blind.—Many voluntary societies, particularly the National Institute for the Blind, have existed to help those who are blind. In 1920 an Act was passed to co-ordinate such work with the rest of the health work of the country, and to give grants from the central authority in connection with it. Every county and county borough may provide and maintain workshops, or contribute to the maintenance of workshops, hostels, homes or other places for the reception of blind persons, and may do such other things as appear desirable for the welfare of the blind. The local authority may itself make the necessary provision or may work through a voluntary agency.

Under the same Act, the old age pension for blind persons may be given at the age of fifty, and with this it is often possible for the blind person to live at home, under the inspection of the local authority. After April 1st, 1930, under the Act of 1929, all those blind persons in receipt of poor relief will also come under the care of the local authorities re-

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sponsible for the work under the Blind Persons Act. "After-care" work is usually carried on by voluntary agencies, but by the Public Health Act of 1925 a County or Borough Council has power to assist in the prevention of blindness and in the treatment of residents in their homes. Blind persons certified by the local authority may own a wireless set without paying for the licence.

According to the Ministry of Health Reports the amount spent on the care of the blind since the Act of 1920 is as follows :—

	Exchequer Grant to Local Authorities and Voluntary Agencies.	Local Authorities' Expenditure.	Voluntary Associations' Expenditure.	Number.
1921-22	£69,886	£14,671	—	34,894
1922-23	75,445	47,106	£378,535	—
1923-24	83,470	71,805	401,701	36,518
1924-25	94,970	102,910	420,463	—
1925-26	103,994	135,946	—	42,140
1926-27	112,510	173,828	—	46,822
1927-28	£326,799		—	—

Tuberculosis.—The care for those suffering from tuberculosis grew up in much the same way as that for maternity and child welfare. If we look again at the 1906 Annual Report of the St. Marylebone Health Society we find visitors who give advice in the homes of the tubercular, and funds collected for helping families if the wage-earner is placed in a hospital or infirmary. The first local authorities to

deal with the problem were the Insurance Committees formed under the Insurance Act of 1911, when sanatorium benefit was one of those given. Under an amending Act in 1913 the county and county boroughs were also enabled to help with home treatment and in 1920 all the work in connection with tuberculosis was put under their care, and they took over the Sanatoria provided under the Insurance Acts. In 1921 an Act imposed on all County and County Borough Councils the work of making arrangements for the treatment of tuberculosis at or in dispensaries, sanatoria or other institutions approved by the Minister of Health. Arrangements were to be made for the "after-care" of tubercular patients, and committees to be formed by the local authorities for tuberculosis work, including outside members and some members of the Insurance Committees. County and county boroughs may form joint committees. The death-rate since 1871 has improved thus :—

Respiratory.	1871- 1880.	1881- 1890.	1891- 1900.	1901- 1910.	1910- 1920.	1923.	1926.	1928.
Respiratory system .	2.13	1.73	1.39	1.16	1.07	0.83	0.77	0.75
Other than respiratory system .	0.75	0.70	0.63	0.50	0.35	0.22	0.19	0.17

The expenditure each year since 1924 has been :—

1924 . . .	£2,884,062	1927 . . .	£3,294,991
1925 . . .	£3,034,600	1928 . . .	£3,209,544
1926 . . .	£3,157,694		

The grant from the Exchequer was £1,400,000 in 1927 and £1,450,339 in 1928.

Insurance.—Every county and county borough under the Insurance Act of 1911 and its amendments, which include all employed persons who earn less than £250 per annum, must have an Insurance Committee. The work of this Committee is to administer “medical” benefits for all insured persons, and “sickness,” “disablement” and “maternity” benefits for these insured persons who have not joined an approved society. It must report to the Minister of Health on the health conditions of the district, and give lectures and issue pamphlets on health. This Committee is composed as to one-third of members (of whom two at least must be women) appointed by the County or County Borough Council, one doctor appointed by them, as to three-fifths by representatives of the insured persons and deposit contributors, with two members appointed by a local Medical Committee and the rest appointed by the Ministry of Health (consisting of at least one doctor and two women).

Pensions.—The old age pension was first given in 1908, and changes as regards amount and age have been made since. Local Pensions Committees in every county borough, borough and urban district with a population of over 20,000, with some co-opted members, have been formed, and they investigate claims for old age pensions in conjunction with a Pensions Officer appointed by the Treasury. All expenses are paid out of Government grants, and the pensions themselves are paid through the Post Office.

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Certain duties under the Widows and Orphans Pensions Act of 1925 also fall on local authorities, both county, county borough, and borough and urban districts that are both education and maternal and child welfare areas. These may complain to the Ministry of Health if a mother has deserted, or ceased to maintain a child, and may ask that the pension may be administered by them or some suitable person, for the benefit of the child. The Minister of Health, too, may ask for a report from the local authority on any matter relating to a widow or child.

Local Committees were formed too to help the Ministry of Pensions in the administration of war pensions. By an Act of 1921 these may be superseded by "Regional" Committees. The Ministry of Pensions has also appointed Appeal Tribunals throughout the country, and the expenses of these and of the local War Pensions Committees are paid out of money provided by the Central Government.

CHAPTER IX

Lunatics.—Under a law passed in the reign of George II. it was enacted that lunatics were to be “apprehended and kept safely locked up in some secure Place . . . and if the Justices of the Peace find it necessary, then to be chained. . . .” There was, however, no provision made for the “secure place,” and voluntary societies were formed to build asylums. This led in 1808 to another Act empowering the Justices of the Counties to build and maintain asylums at the cost of the rates. Pauper patients were admitted from the various parishes and a charge was made on the overseers of the parish, and sometimes one wing was set aside for paying patients. Private asylums also were started to take in paying patients, and as the process of certification was almost, and inspection quite, non-existent, with the growth of humanitarianism sentiment inquiries began to be made. In 1859 a Lunacy Commission was appointed to inspect both public and private asylums, and rigid rules were afterwards made as to certification and inspection. Under the Local Government Act of 1888 the County and County Borough Councils took over the lunatic asylums from the Justices.

The laws as to the care of lunatics were consolidated in the Lunacy Act of 1890, and since that time

much has been done to provide better accommodation and curative treatment. In 1913 the Lunacy Commissioners became the Board of Control; twelve paid and three unpaid Commissioners, two of whom are women, forming the Board. A Royal Commission which reported in 1926 has made recommendations outlining a new code for the treatment of lunacy, but these have not yet been embodied in an Act. Quarter Sessions in counties still license private asylums, but they are under the care of the Board of Control, who visit all paying patients. The local authorities work by means of Visiting Committees, consisting of not less than seven members annually appointed by the authority, or, if in a joint area, by both authorities. The Council of a county borough may make arrangements with a County Council to receive its destitute lunatics, and must then see that they are visited. Private paying patients may be received in separate wards or blocks.

There are two classes of private asylums, "licensed houses" and "registered hospitals." Unless they existed before 1890, no new houses can be licensed, and those existing must apply annually to the Board of Control for new licences. The hospitals are registered and licensed to receive mental patients by the Board of Control.

Criminal lunatics are entirely under the control of the Home Office, and are paid for directly from central funds. On January 1st, 1928, there were 611 men and 195 women inmates in criminal lunatic asylums. On January 1st, 1927, there were ninety-

seven county, county borough, borough, or joint asylums, now called "mental hospitals." There were thirteen registered hospitals with 2074 patients and fifty-five licensed houses, with 2637 patients. The number of patients in mental hospitals is shown thus :—

	1894.	1906.	1913.	1921.	1927.
Pauper . . .	60,456	87,895	101,158	85,202	101,031
Non-pauper . .	7,743	9,058	10,773	13,685	14,299
	68,199	96,953	111,931	98,887	115,330

Mental Defectives.—Mental defectives were first dealt with under an Act of 1913, and were defined as idiots, imbeciles, feeble-minded, and moral defectives. Councils of counties and county boroughs are the authorities under the Act, under the Board of Control. It is their duty to ascertain what persons in their area are defective and to maintain them in suitable institutions or approved homes with suitable supervision and protection. These may be provided by societies or by private persons, and the local authority has power to contribute towards their expenses. The Board of Control certifies and inspects these institutions, and may certify and approve buildings of the Boards of Guardians, which in April 1930 will pass to the County Councils. The Board of Control may itself provide institutions for dangerous defectives.

The local authority must form a Committee, partly of its own members, partly of outside

persons, with knowledge of defectives, including some women. This Committee may be the same as the Visiting Committee under the Lunacy Acts, with the addition of at least two women.

Joint Committees of two or more local authorities may be formed, and may themselves build institutions or contract with the managers of institutions for the reception of their defectives.

The Mental Defective Committee acts in conjunction with the Education Committee of the area to deal with children between the ages of six and sixteen, where the Education Committee considers them to be unfit to receive benefit in special schools and in need of institutional treatment.

On January 1st, 1927, the numbers of institutions for mental defectives were as follows :—

State	2
Certified institutions	75
Certified houses	11
Approved homes	24
Poor Law institutions that had been certified	142

and the total number of patients was 22,739.

Venereal Disease.—During and after the War a determined attempt was made to deal with venereal disease. An Act of 1917 made it illegal for anyone not a duly qualified medical practitioner to treat a patient for venereal disease. It also prohibited the issuing of advertisements on the subject except those published by local authorities with the sanction of the Ministry of Health.

By regulations the Ministry required county and county boroughs to formulate schemes to prevent the spread of venereal disease. These schemes led to the provision of voluntary treatment centres with expert medical advice, to the issuing of advertisements and leaflets giving advice, and to research into medical treatment of the disease. There is a Government grant of 75 per cent. for this work, and after April 1st, 1930, this will be included in the block grant to Councils. The Councils must, however, satisfy the Minister of Health that they are continuing the work satisfactorily. On April 1st, 1929, the number of Venereal Disease Centres was 178. Comparing 1928 with 1920, there was a reduction of 47 per cent. in the number of cases of syphilis and of 24 per cent. in the total number of cases of venereal disease.

CHAPTER X

Housing.—They were not going to be troubled with the housing question in Queen Elizabeth's time. London appeared to be growing too quickly, so in 1593 an Act was passed (35 Eliz., ch. vi.) which stated: "No new Buildings shall be erected within three miles of London or Westminster. One Dwelling-house in London, Westminster or three Miles thereof shall not be converted into more. No Inmates or Undersitters shall be in the places aforesaid. Commons or waste Grounds, lying within three miles of London, shall not be enclosed." Since 1923 1,275,000 houses have been built, 169,532 in the year 1928-29.

Local Government interest in housing may be said to have started with the Small Tenements Act of 1850, which first allowed the rates of small houses to be collected with the rents. The next year the inspection and regulation of lodging-houses were introduced, and from that time nearly every year an Act was passed in connection with labourers' dwelling-houses, and these were collected, the health provisions into the Public Health Act of 1875, and the housing provisions into the Housing Act of 1890. Further Housing Acts passed since then, and particularly those in 1919, 1923, 1924, with the Act of 1890, have now been consolidated in the Housing

Act of 1925, and the various provisions dealing with town planning in the Town Planning Act of the same year.

The Housing Act of 1925 is divided into three parts, the first dealing with the repairs, maintenance and sanitary condition of houses, the second with improvement and reconstruction, or what are generally called slum-clearance schemes, and the third with the provision of houses for the working classes.

Part I. The Conditions of Houses.—It is an implied condition in the letting of any house in London for less than £40 a year, elsewhere for less than £26 a year, and for rural cottages let to employees, that they should be in all respects reasonably fit for human habitation. The landlord is responsible for keeping them so, and if he does not do so the local authority may step in, do the work and charge him, or if the condition is too serious, may make a closing order. The local authority in this case is that for the health area, *i.e.* the Borough, Urban and Rural District Councils, and in London, the City and Metropolitan Borough Councils. The Medical Officer of Health for these authorities is responsible for the inspection of the houses, and his name and address must be printed on all rent-books. He has to see that the regulations of his Council are carried out as to the number of persons in houses let in lodgings, the drainage, water-supply, ventilation and lighting of houses, or parts of houses let to separate tenants; the provision of water-closets, and of washing accommodation, the lighting of common staircases and their hand

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rails, provision for the cooking and storing of food, and for the prevention of fire. Back-to-back houses are prohibited, and so are underground living-rooms.

Obstructive Buildings.—Some houses are not unhealthy in themselves, but they are built in such a position that they obstruct the lighting or ventilation of other houses. They may in such a case be pulled down by order of the local authority and the owner compensated. The space where the house is pulled down may be used as part of a highway, or kept as an open space, or sold for the erection of more suitable premises. If the authorities responsible for Part I of the Housing Act do not carry out its provisions, four electors and a Justice of the Peace may complain to the County Council, and in a rural district the parish may complain to the County Council, and if the County Council does not take action, they may complain to the Ministry of Health. In 1927 the number of houses demolished under closing orders was 1106.

Part II. Slum Clearance.—The authorities responsible for this part of the Act are the County Councils as well as the other Health Authorities. Where a medical officer reports to his Council that in a certain area (1) the majority of houses are unfit for human habitation, and (2) that, because of the narrowness and closeness of the streets, their bad arrangement, want of light, air, ventilation, or proper conveniences, it is unhealthy for people to live there, the Council may make a scheme, and, with the consent of the Minister of Health, may carry it out as an "improvement" scheme or a "reconstruc-

tion" scheme. First they must find accommodation for the people who will be displaced, either temporarily, during the building, or permanently. An "improvement" scheme will rebuild on the same site the same lay-out as the area has already, but a "reconstruction" scheme will have a new lay-out, with different planning of the roads, widened approaches, fresh sanitary arrangements and provision for open spaces. Compensation must be made, unless the buildings are in such a condition that they are only fit for a closing order. The schemes must be approved by the Minister of Health, who then grants a contribution from central funds up to one-half the expected annual loss. If the local authority does not make a scheme where the Minister thinks it necessary, he can act himself, and charge the cost, less the grant, to the Housing Authority. Since 1919, 133 schemes have been submitted by ninety-two authorities, and 111, involving the demolition of 13,705 houses, had been confirmed by March 31st, 1928.

Part III. Provision of Houses.—All local authorities except Parish Councils are responsible for the carrying out of this part of the Act. They may buy land or acquire it compulsorily, and prepare a scheme for building houses or flats upon it. Urban authorities may buy land outside their district, and two or more authorities may make a joint scheme. The buildings may consist not only of houses and flats, but also of shops or other premises needed in a working-class neighbourhood, and open land may be left for a recreation ground. If an authority

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takes part of a common for a building scheme, it must give as much land in exchange, in some other part of its area, and it must not take an ancient monument. Roads may be laid out, and a water supply and drainage obtained and facilities for lighting and transport. The local authority must make regulations as to the management of the housing scheme, the rents (subject to rules for the "appropriate normal rent" issued by the Minister of Health), and as to questions of sub-letting, and may sell or lease land that is not required for the scheme. Building bye-laws may be relaxed with the consent of the Minister; and a County Council, at the request of a District Council, may vary the terms of a restrictive lease in order to allow a house to be turned into two or more tenements or flats. They may grant a loan to the owner for the construction or alteration of such a house, up to the value of £1500, and they then make regulations as to the rent and management of it.

Besides building new houses, the local authorities may convert old ones and alter, enlarge, or improve them, and may provide lodging-houses and also cottages with gardens up to one acre in extent. They may also promote and assist public utility societies by grants, by buying shares, or by guaranteeing a loan.

The money for these schemes is provided (1) from the rates, (2) by borrowing for a term of eighty years, (3) from grants from the Minister of Health. Since the end of the war over £74,000,000 has been paid in grants, in 1928-29 amounting to

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£10,669,974. From 1923 to 1928 1,275,000 houses have been built, 829,000 of these with State assistance; of those without, approximately 321,000 were of not more than £26 rateable value (or £35 in the metropolitan district).

Housing of Rural Workers.—In 1926 an Act was passed to help with the housing of rural workers. Where a country cottage of less than £400 value needs reconstruction, a grant or loan may be made to the owner on condition that he spends £50 on the work himself. The owner must be a freeholder or leaseholder with an unexpired lease of at least thirty years. For twenty years after the making of the grant the dwelling must be occupied by an agricultural worker, an employee of the owner, or by a person whose income is such that he would not ordinarily pay a rent above that of an agricultural worker in the district. The number of such dwellings finished by 1928 was 836, and unfinished was 594.

Small Dwellings Acquisition Act.—This Act was passed in 1899 to permit local authorities to assist persons of small income who wish to own their own house. They might lend up to the value of £800 (raised in 1923 to £1200), the advance to be returned within thirty years. By the Act of 1899 it was laid down that the person borrowing must reside in the house during the currency of the loan, but this has since been reduced to a period of three years.

From 1923 onwards a subsidy from the State has been paid to the builders of small houses. Regulations are laid down as to the size of the house (it must be neither too large nor too small), the price,

and the necessity for a bathroom. The local authority with the grant from the Treasury pays either (1) a lump sum to the builder on completion, or (2) an annual sum for a fixed number of years to the person paying the rates, or (3) part of the charges of interest and capital in respect of advances made by a building society or other body. The subsidy may be paid by the State to local authorities themselves who are building working-class houses, or to public utility societies.

Town Planning.—In 1909, when town planning was first established by law, the local authorities to carry it out were the Councils of boroughs and urban districts with a population of over 20,000. They might act jointly, but it was impossible for them to take a wide enough outlook without covering more than their own areas. The Local Government Act of 1929, therefore, made the counties also authorities under the Acts which had been consolidated in 1925, and the schemes for town planning may in the future provide for large areas of county districts, in conjunction with the built-over areas of the towns. The local authority makes a scheme for the development of an area, or for any land which is in the course of development. This scheme includes :—

(1) Proper sanitary conditions.

(2) Amenities. This word has been a very difficult one to define. Lord Justice Scrutton has defined it, in a case which came before him, as “pleasant circumstances or features, advantages.”

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- (3) Convenience in connection with the laying out and the use of the land or of any neighbouring land.

This may be done by

(a) Prescribing the space about buildings, and limiting the number of buildings to the acre and their height.

(b) Limiting the character of buildings in certain areas.

(c) Controlling the making of new roads, and the stopping up or diverting of old ones.

(d) The preservation of open spaces, both private and public.

(e) The preservation of objects of historical interest or natural beauty.

When the scheme is prepared it is sent up for the sanction of the Minister of Health, and maps are prepared for examination by the public. A local inquiry may be held, and a Development Order is then made by the Minister. Meanwhile, until the scheme is ready to be carried out, anyone wishing to build or alter a building can only do so with the consent of the local authority, in accordance with their scheme. The number of town-planning schemes finally approved by March 31st, 1929, was thirty-two, which were sent up by twenty-one local authorities. The number of acres involved in these schemes was 50,360, while 4,456,712 acres are in some way or another under process of town planning at the present time.

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CHAPTER XI

Highways.—A highway is a right of passage over private or common land that has at some time or another been irrevocably granted by the owner or owners to the public. The public may pass and re-pass, but they must not stop more than a reasonable time. Highways may be footpaths, bridle-ways (for horses), drift-ways (for cattle), and carriage-ways. It has been decided that a perambulator is a necessary accompaniment to a foot passenger, and is therefore allowable on a footway, but a bicycle is a "carriage," and is not therefore allowable on a footway or bridle-way. A carriage-way is sometimes called a road, sometimes a street, and, if not a thoroughfare, a cul-de-sac.

We still have with us many of the old Roman roads that stretched from end to end of England and Wales. Some of our modern roads take the very same course, others deviate and take in portions of the old roads from place to place. In Saxon times it was the duty of every freeholder to perform the "*trinoda necessitas*," *i.e.* the duties of serving in war, of maintaining fortifications, and of repairing bridges and public roads.

Later, by the common law of England, all highways were repairable by the inhabitants of the parishes in which they were situated.

One of the earliest laws on roads was passed in 1285, and directed that all trees and shrubs should be cut within a distance of 200 feet on each side of the roads between market towns, to prevent the concealment of robbers. An Act of 1555 was passed "for amending of Highways, being now both very noisome and tedious to travel in, and dangerous to all Passengers and Carriages," and this established that at a parish meeting held each year two honest persons were to be elected to be Surveyors or Orderers for one year, of the work for amendment of the Highways in their parishes leading to any market town, upon pain of making default to forfeit 20 shillings. Four days in the year were to be appointed by the Surveyors for mending the roads, and every inhabitant was to help, the owners of plough-land by sending a cart furnished with oxen, horses or other cattle and two able men, and every other householder, cottager or labourer by working himself. The old corporate boroughs had already their regulations with regard to paving and keeping streets clean, and we read in the "Liber Albus" of 1417 that "each person shall make clean of filth the front of his house under penalty of half a mark," and that "all streets leading towards the Thames shall be cleansed." In spite of this, Besant describes the London of the Tudor period thus :

"From the beginning of the sixteenth century to the great fire of 1666, London, crowded and confined, abounded with courts and slums of the worst possible kind, it swarmed with vagrants and tramps and masterless men who lived as they could, like swine. The con-

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ditions of the ground, with its numberless cesspools, its narrow lanes into which, despite laws, everything was thrown, its frequent laystalls, the refuse and remains of all the workshops . . . must have been truly terrible had the people realised it, but they did not."

All streets were not like this, however, for a German traveller in London wrote home in 1598 : "The streets in this city are very handsome and clean ; but that which is named from the goldsmiths who inhabit it surpasses all the rest." Most of the City streets, however, were so narrow and so much obstructed by houses standing out—for as yet there was no alignment except in streets like Chepe, which were highways and market streets—that no wheeled vehicle could pass at all. There was very little lighting. "If a London dame ventured out of her house after dark, the 'prentice' carried a link before her."

By an Act of 1663 the Surveyors were enabled to collect a rate in the parish to help in the work of mending the roads, but they still served for no payment.

During the next century roads were made by private individuals or by companies called "Turnpike Trustees." Tolls were charged, and the money was used for keeping up the roads. With the increase of coaching, these roads grew until they became main roads all over the country, and Parliament stepped in with regulating Acts, till in 1878 the main roads, including dis-turnpiked roads, were placed under the Justices in the counties, and so in 1888 under the County and County Borough

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Councils. The last turnpike trust to expire was that for the Tewkesbury and Sevenbridge Road, which expired in 1896.

Meanwhile, the lesser roads were still repairable by the parishes, then governed by their Vestries, under the annually elected unpaid Surveyors, till in 1835 a Highway Act was passed, which in many respects has laid down the law as to highways as it exists at the present time, such as—

(1) Parishes were to be united for highway purposes, and the roads placed under the care of a salaried surveyor and rates were to be collected for their maintenance.

(2) Those highways only that had been dedicated to the public and used by them before 1836 were to be repairable by the inhabitants at large. Others, and any roads made after 1836, were to be repairable by the public only on agreement with the highway authority, and if adopted by them.

(3) The highway authority might take gravel and stones from any waste land in its parish or in a neighbouring parish, and by agreement as to compensation with the owner, from private land. Pits made, however, must be filled up within fourteen days, so as not to be a danger to the public.

(4) Stringent regulations were made as to the stopping up or diversion of highways, so that nothing could be done without the full knowledge and consent of the public. This is peculiarly

important in view of the large number of building schemes at the present day, and the Commons and Footpaths Preservation Society, is continually being asked for advice on the subject.

(5) Highway authorities must prevent obstructions on highways, or encroachments on roadside wastes.

The alignment of buildings and the acquisition of land for widening purposes were already being dealt with in boroughs under private Acts through Improvement Commissioners until the Public Health Act of 1875 placed the duty on all highway authorities.

(6) A special charge might be made on those persons who used extraordinarily heavy traffic on the roads, and so burdened the rates with more than their fair share of the cost of mending.

In 1862 Highway Boards were established in Highway Districts to carry on the work and direct the Surveyor. By the Public Health Act of 1875 this work was passed over to the rural and urban sanitary districts, and by the Local Government Act of 1894, to the Councils formed in those districts.

The chief addition, apart from changes in administration made by the Act of 1875, was with regard to new roads. A Highway Authority may since that date take over any road not repairable by the public or any new road as it is made. They must first see that it is in a condition suitable for taking over, or they may make it suitable themselves at the cost of

the frontagers, and from that time the road becomes repairable by the authority at the charge of the rates.

There were, then, at the beginning of the twentieth century "main" or "county" roads under the care of the County and County Borough Councils, a few of these maintained by Borough or Urban District Councils as agents of the County Councils, and "district" roads maintained by all Urban and District Councils.

With the increase of motoring the problem of road improvement and maintenance became more and more acute, and in 1909 a central department was instituted called the Road Board, whose duty it was to make roads themselves, those called "arterial" roads, and to give grants from a "Road Fund" to Highway Authorities for improving those they already maintained and for building new ones. A clause was inserted in that Act at the instigation of the Commons and Footpaths Preservation Society, and has been inserted in other road Acts since, to ensure that where a road is widened at the expense of a common, some other open space of at least equal area must be provided for the public. In 1919 the Road Board's functions were transferred to the Ministry of Transport, then formed, and the roads belonging to local authorities were classified so that grants in varying proportions could be given towards their upkeep.

Various powers are placed in the hands of local authorities if they adopt part or all of the Public Health Act of 1925. They may make bye-laws for regulating the method of entry to public

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vehicles, by providing waiting-rooms and forming queues. They may provide orderly bins in which litter should be thrown, and may put seats at the side of roads as well as plant trees there and put down grass margins. They may, too, lop off the overhanging branches of trees if they appear dangerous to the public, and they may free roads from tolls (for there are still some county roads and quite a number of bridges where tolls are still collected), and, except on private land, erect sign-posts. The provision of parking-places is also allowed under the Act, if adopted.

Great changes are made under the Local Government Act of 1929. All classified roads now under the districts, or almost all, are to be placed under the County Councils, except in London. Boroughs and urban districts with a population of over 20,000 may claim to maintain and repair roads in their own districts, and if they do so the county will pay the cost and supervise the work. Both rural and urban districts may apply to the county to have the maintenance and repair of certain classified roads delegated to them, and the County Council must agree unless they think the work would not be done efficiently. Boroughs and urban districts will still have the duty of defining and keeping the building and improvement lines of the streets in their area. Grants will be made to the County and County Borough Councils from the Minister of Transport both for the maintenance and improvement of existing county and classified roads and for the making of new ones, and the counties will make

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grants to borough, urban and rural districts towards the cost of improving and maintaining unclassified roads.

Rural District Councils will still have the duty of preventing encroachments on roadside waste, and of the stopping up of rights of way, and they may take legal proceedings to effect this. It is the duty of the Parish Council to keep watch on the rights-of-way and footpaths in their parish, and to inform the Rural District Council when they think some public right is being tampered with, and to complain to the County Council if the Rural District Council refuses to take up the case.

The mileage of roads in 1925-26 in England and Wales was—

	<i>Main.</i>		
In county boroughs			10,950 miles
In counties : rural	23,700	}	25,130 ..
urban	1,430		
Maintained by Rural District Councils			1260 ..
Maintained by Borough and Urban District Councils			3540 ..
	<i>District.</i>		
In rural districts			93,300 ..
In borough and urban districts			16,600 ..

Of this total of 150,780 miles, 19,391 miles are classified as Class I, 12,037 are classified as Class II, leaving 122,231 miles unclassified, but these are being classified by degrees.

Barbed Wire.—It is the duty also of the Highway Authority to carry out the provisions of the Barbed Wire Act of 1893. Where on any land adjoining a highway a fence made with barbed wire or on which barbed wire has been placed is a nuisance to the public, the local authority must send a notice to the occupier of the land ordering him to remove it. If he does not do so, they may, under an order of a Court of Summary Jurisdiction, remove it themselves, and charge him with the cost.

Lighting.—It is a curious thing that no Act of Parliament has made it compulsory for an authority to light its streets. There are no urban areas, however, where it is not done, and few, if any, parishes. Before 1833 every householder was expected to put a light of his own outside his door, and the presence of brackets by the doorways of some of our old houses reminds us of this custom. Many old towns, by Private Improvement Acts, had made lighting the business of the Corporation, and in 1833 a Lighting and Watching Act was passed. This enabled parishes, if they adopted the Act, to light their streets (at that time with oil-lamps) and to put up lamp-posts. Later, permission was given to those parishes to light their streets with gas under the Gasworks Clauses Acts, and to unite for this purpose. The Urban District Council was also enabled to light the main roads within its area, and may call upon the owners of private roads to put up a reasonable number of lamp-posts and light them. In rural districts the Act can only be adopted by the parishes in their parish meetings, and nothing need be done

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unless it is adopted. In 1882 local authorities were empowered to use or provide electricity for lighting streets, and the great problem at the present day is to obtain cheap electricity under the new schemes for this service all over the country. A great difficulty for the urban authority to cope with, is the sufficient supply of light in the crowded streets, and some are dealing with this by setting up standards in the middle of the streets, where they are useful also as islands for pedestrian traffic.

Cleaning and Watering.—Boroughs, by local acts and bye-laws, have endeavoured all through the centuries to fight with the dirt of the streets, as we see from the "Liber Albus," and most people would agree that a vast improvement has been made. Under the Public Health Act of 1875 Urban Authorities may, and, if there is an order from the Minister of Health, must, either themselves clean and water their streets or contract with some one else to do it. As regards footpaths at the side of streets, they may clean them, or may make bye-laws imposing the duty on the householder, of cleaning the portion outside his own house. Some Rural Districts have obtained the same powers by an order of the Minister of Health. An outstanding problem at present is the accumulation of litter in the streets, and the nuisance caused by dogs. Local authorities may make, and some have made, bye-laws to deal with both these questions, and several provide orderly bins under the Public Health Act of 1925.

Provision against Fire.—One of the most important services rendered in the old corporate towns was the provision of public aid in case of fire. The Public

Health Acts of the nineteenth century gave powers to all local authorities for the provision of engines, apparatus and men. Parishes may carry out the Acts if they obtain an order from the Minister of Health, and may unite to form districts for better provision. The larger urban authorities employ full-time men always ready in cases of emergency, while the smaller ones have the apparatus ready and men upon whom they can call when needed, and whom they pay for work done. All urban authorities must provide fire plugs and the water necessary for use in case of fire. They may send their engines outside their own areas, and charge for the service under arrangement.

Unemployment in connection with Local Authorities.
—An onerous task is placed upon local authorities in providing work for the unemployed, both under schemes put in hand by the Councils and relief work put in hand by the Guardians, usually that of making roads. They receive grants from the Exchequer for this, chiefly under the Unemployment (Relief Work) Act of 1920. Counties and county boroughs in taking over the duty of providing for the able-bodied poor from the Guardians will have the whole of the arrangements in their own hands. Other work for the unemployed is in connection with schemes for water supply and the disposal of sewage. In 1928–29 loans for sewage schemes amounted to £3,600,000; since the end of the War £37,000,000 has been spent on the service, of which £582,000 was for schemes for helping the unemployed.

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CHAPTER XII

Commons.—To most people in England the word common denotes an area of gorse and downland where they may roam at will. It is a great surprise to them to learn that before the Law of Property Act of 1925 was passed, they had no legal right on the common at all. The common belongs to the Lord of the Manor, subject to the rights of the "commoners" over it. These rights belong to them as freeholders or copy-holders of the Manor, of which the common is "waste." Such rights still exist; they may be for pasturage, *i.e.* for the feeding of "commonable" cattle, for "piscary" or the right to fish, for "turbery" or the right to cut turf, for "estovers" or the right to cut wood, and for other unnamed rights, such as digging for sand, gravel, stone, loam, or even coal. Because these rights existed over the "waste," no one person had a right to enclose, and the area being therefore open, the public have had the opportunity, though not the legal right, to roam at will. As population increased and land became more valuable, it seemed to many people, and especially to the Lords of Manors, who owned the "waste" and had the most rights over it, wise to enclose it and to use it for building or agriculture. It was difficult for the smaller commoners to object, and their rights

were either bought out or merely neglected. A great deal of land was enclosed during the reign of Queen Elizabeth, and there were frequent riots about it, as most of the villagers then had some rights of common. It was made necessary, therefore, to obtain a private Act of Parliament in order to enclose. At the end of the eighteenth century, with the increased interest in agriculture, many people thought that the commons were good land neglected, and a large number of these private Acts were passed, and under about 4000 of them 7,175,000 acres were enclosed. An "enclosure award" was made, dividing up the land according to the rights over it owned by individuals, marking out roads, and sometimes leaving part of it for the poor of the parish for "field gardens," "fuel allotments" or areas for exercise and recreation.

It was found, however, that the result of these enclosures, especially near London and other large towns, was to form the towns into one vast block of bricks and mortar, and in 1845 a general Inclosure Act was passed. The attitude of Parliament towards the subject can be seen by the preamble: "Whereas it is expedient to facilitate the Inclosure and improvement of commons and other lands now subject to right of Property which obstruct Cultivation and the productive Employment of Labour;" yet it was enacted that no common within a certain distance of London or of any large town was to be enclosed. The attitude towards that is seen in the preamble to the Recreation Ground Act of 1859: "The Want of open Grounds for the Resort

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and Recreation of Adults, and of Playgrounds for Children and Youth, is much felt in the Metropolis and other populous Places within this Realm, and by reason of the great and continuous Increase of the Population and extension of such Towns, such Evil is seriously increasing, and it is desirable to provide a Remedy for the same." By the Act of 1845 a permanent Board of Inclosure Commissioners was appointed, which later became the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries, now the Ministry. No common, town or village green was to be enclosed without the permission of the Board, and in their award they made provision for allotments and the preservation of open spaces for exercise and recreation. The trouble is, however, to prove that an area is a common. It must be "waste" of a Manor, and that must have existed before the year 1290. There must be rights of common, and some commoner who still makes use of them. Unless this is proved, the land is private property, and can be sold and used for building purposes. In 1865 a Society was formed to carry out investigations, called the Commons and Footpaths Preservation Society. The great struggles that immediately ensued were over Wimbledon Common, Hampstead Heath and Epping Forest, and after long lawsuits rights of common were shown to exist and a further regulating act was passed in 1876. Constant watching goes on, till it was estimated last year that the amount of common that had been saved would make a stretch of land one mile wide from London to Edinburgh. When an area is proved to be a

common there are several ways of dealing with it: Conservators may be appointed, as for Wimbledon Common; it may be placed under the local authority, as Hampstead Heath was placed under the Metropolitan Board of Works, now the London County Council, and Epping Forest under the Corporation of the City of London; or, if of special beauty or historic importance, it may be given to the National Trust. The rights of common are usually bought out, either by public subscription or by the local authority.

Where application is now made to the Ministry of Agriculture for an enclosure, a local inquiry is held, and the District Council is entitled to attend and give evidence on the need of the district for open spaces. The District Council, too, under the Local Government Act of 1894, can aid persons in maintaining rights of common, and under the Commons Act of 1899 may regulate commons and spend money on draining, levelling and improving them, and may make bye-laws as to their proper use.

Finally, under the Law of Property Act of 1925, the position of the public was established. They may lawfully use the common for exercise and recreation; they must not endanger any rights of common, if such still exist, they must not light fires, or camp, or drive motors or caravans on it, and no encroachment in the way of buildings must be made.

Open Spaces.—An open space is defined in the Open Spaces Act of 1906 as “any land, whether inclosed or not, on which there are no buildings or of which not more than one-twentieth part is covered

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with buildings, and the whole or the remainder of which is laid out as a garden or is used for purposes of recreation, or lies waste and unoccupied." Many of the old corporate towns and parishes had property of their own, which they could use as recreation grounds, but it was the growth during the Industrial Revolution of large manufacturing towns that showed the need to be so great as to lead to the Recreation Ground Act of 1859. Other Acts of the same kind were passed, such as the Disused Burial Ground Act, and the Town Gardens Protection Act, and all enabled those in charge of the rapidly growing towns to receive gifts of open land and to maintain them as public walks or pleasure grounds. Under the Public Health Act of 1875 this was carried further: the urban authorities themselves were allowed to purchase land, by agreement or compulsorily, and to lay it out, or to take land on lease,*and to support or contribute to the support of those grounds provided by other persons. The Open Spaces Act of 1906 extended this power to the counties, a power which they may delegate to the Parish Councils, who also, under the Local Government Act of 1894, have the care of village greens and parish property that already belongs to the parish. Local authorities may also take over the care of monuments and places of historical interest. Recreation Grounds have also been provided under housing schemes, and under the Public Health Act of 1907, towns, generally sea-side towns, may regulate walks and promenades, and may make bye-laws as to the erection of booths and stalls, bathing-machines and

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tents, and may preserve order and good conduct on the beach.

If the local authority own an open space which contains water, they may improve it as a lake and let out pleasure boats, or license someone else to do so. During the last few years a great stride has been made, under the National Playing Fields Association, in increasing the amount of open space available for games. This has been done by voluntary contribution, while the local authorities have also helped by purchasing land where possible and making provision for games in their own open spaces. The Minister of Health reports in 1926-27 : " Local Authorities have been authorised to borrow over £9,000,000 since 1919 for the acquisition and laying out of pleasure and recreation grounds, in addition to considerable amounts of money expended in other ways for the acquisition of open spaces." And in the Report for 1928-29 the amount of loan sanctioned for the year for playing fields is given as £1,716,000.

An interesting report was made to the Commons and Footpath Preservation Society by the late Sir Robert Hunter, their honorary solicitor, in 1915, which compares the area of open space then existing in various towns. It is extraordinary to find London so much better off than other towns, but the area of the Police District is taken, and that includes the royal park of Richmond, as well as Wimbledon Common, Epping Forest and other areas outside the County of London. According to Sir Robert Hunter :—

London (Police District) has 1 acre of open space per 308 persons				
Liverpool	"	"	"	607 "
Leeds	"	"	"	612 "
Birmingham	"	"	"	1371 "
Hull •	"	"	"	1524 "
Derby	"	"	"	1825 "
Oldham	"	"	"	1878 "
Wigan	"	"	"	1897 "
Sunderland	"	"	"	2130 "
Plymouth	"	"	"	2407 "

And we now know that the National Playing Fields Association regards it as necessary to have one acre for every 200 persons.

Allotments.—Allotments are small plots of land, provided, managed and maintained for agricultural or horticultural purposes only, for the use of the labouring classes. They seem to have originated in the Poor Law Act of 1601 with the desire to give employment. An Act of 1819 enabled churchwardens and Overseers, with the consent of the Vestry, to use parish lands or to acquire no more than twenty acres in or near the parish, for the purpose of employing poor persons in its cultivation and to pay them reasonable wages, and the same Act enabled them to let such land to "poor and industrious" inhabitants of the parish for cultivation at a reasonable rent. The limit of twenty acres was increased in 1831 to fifty acres. An Act of 1832 pointed out "that there was much Land under Inclosure Acts made with a view to Fuel which was useless and unproductive and it would be for the Welfare and Happiness of the Poor if these Allotments could be let at a fair Rent and in small Portions to industrious Cottagers of good Character,"

and required the trustees of such allotments so to let them.

Allotments may now be provided by County, County Borough, Borough, Urban District and Parish Councils, and upon a written representation from six electors that allotments are required they must provide them. They may have to take the land compulsorily, and that must be at a fair price and not land that is park or garden or required for the amenities of a dwelling-house. Councils of boroughs or urban districts with a population of 10,000 or more, or one in which the Council has provided more than 400 allotments, are required to establish Allotment Committees, and at least two members of the committee, who are not Councillors, must be occupiers of allotments. County Councils must ascertain to what extent allotments are needed in their area, and must co-operate with the District and Parish Councils in providing them.

On December 31st, 1925, 511,000 persons rented allotments from local authorities of an area of 65,700 acres. Of these, 29,000 acres were held from Parish Councils by 108,000 persons.

A *Small Holding* was first defined in the Small Holdings Act of 1892 as an agricultural holding acquired by a Council (that is, a County or County Borough Council) "under the powers and for the purposes of this Act, and which exceeds one acre and either does not exceed fifty acres, or, if exceeding fifty acres, is of an annual value not exceeding £50." Such purposes to be the letting of the holding to persons who would cultivate it for agricultural

or horticultural purposes or for breeding stock, keeping poultry or bees, or for growing fruit and vegetables.

Every County Council must have a Small Holdings and Allotment Committee, but this since 1919 has often been a Sub-committee of the Agricultural Committee. The County Council may assist in the formation of societies on a co-operative basis to provide or help the work of small holdings, by advice, or grant, or guarantee. After the Armistice a programme of settling demobilised soldiers on the land was developed under the Land Settlement (Facilities) Act of 1919, and up to 1926 nearly £20,000,000 was expended on it by the State, through the County and County Borough Councils.

Up to December 1918, 197,718 acres had been acquired for small holdings by County Councils in England and Wales. Of this, 188,737 acres had been let to 13,446 small holders, and 735 acres sold to sixty-two small holders. Of the total acquired for land settlement, 235,493 acres have been let to 16,614 individual holders.

Agricultural Committees.—An Agricultural Committee must be formed in every county under an Act of 1919, and may be formed in county boroughs. The majority of members are appointed by the Council, the rest by the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries, to include women as well as men, and persons with practical, commercial, technical or scientific knowledge of agriculture. Joint Committees may be formed by two or more Councils.

This Committee must make schemes for the

development of rural industries and social life in rural places as well as the following: (1) To look after the diseases of animals. This work it may delegate to a borough of over 10,000 inhabitants or to a district. Places must be provided and regulations made for the reception and slaughter of animals and for sheep dipping, for inspection, slaughter of and compensation for diseased animals, and for scheduling areas and prohibiting the removal or shipment of animals where disease breaks out. (2) The destruction of insects and pests. (3) The inspection of fertilisers and feeding-stuffs. (4) The provision of land drainage. (5) The provision and maintenance of small holdings and allotments (if there is not a special Committee for this). (6) The care of rural industries. (7) The improvement of livestock. (8) The destruction of injurious weeds. (9) The regulation of the grading and marking of agricultural and horticultural products, and the registration of premises used in the cold or chemical storage of eggs.

Advertisements.—This is the place perhaps to include the Acts regulating advertisements, under which attempts are being made to preserve some part of the countryside from being covered with hoardings. The first Act was passed in 1907, and this was amended and enlarged in 1925. Under these Acts, County, County Borough Councils, and the Councils of Borough and Urban Districts with over 10,000 inhabitants may make bye-laws for regulating or restricting or preventing the exhibition of advertisements which affect injuriously a public

park or pleasure promenade, or disfigure the natural beauty of a landscape, and for regulating hoardings more than 12 feet high used for advertising. By the Ancient Monuments Act of 1913 this was extended to ancient monuments and by the Advertisement Act of 1925 to the view of rural scenery from a highway or railway or from any public place or water, and to the amenities of a village within the area of a Rural District Council, and to the amenities of any historic or public building frequented by the public on account of its beauty or historic interest. Railway approaches are specially excluded, also station yards and platforms, and in some cases docks, piers and wharfs. Difficulties have naturally arisen as to the meaning of beauty and amenity. Happily it was decided in a case fought in Somerset that it was not necessary in the bye-law to define every place of beauty by name, but that an advertiser must be expected to judge for himself.

CHAPTER XIII

Baths and Wash-houses.—“Whereas it is desirable for the health, comfort and welfare of the Inhabitants of towns and populous districts to encourage the establishment therein of public Baths and Wash-houses and open Bathing-places,” ran the preamble to the Baths and Wash-houses Act of 1846—and so it was enacted that any borough or parish “may erect any Buildings suitable for public Baths and Wash-houses, and as to such Wash-houses either with or without open drying Grounds, and may make any open Bathing-places, and convert any Buildings into public Baths and Wash-houses and may from time to time alter, enlarge, repair and improve . . .”

In time the covered swimming-bath took the place of the open one, and now again a demand has arisen, and is in some cases fulfilled, for open-air swimming-baths, to be used during the summer months.

No radical change has occurred since the early Acts, merely altering, enlarging, repairing, improving—and it is still interesting to look at the regulations made in their schedules, *e.g.* “The number of baths for the labouring classes in any buildings . . . shall not be less than twice the number of baths of any higher class if but one, or of all the baths of higher

class if more than one." And again, charges to be made :—

Baths : cold, for one person over eight, 1*d.*, warm 2*d.*
Several children, not exceeding four, warm bath,
shower or vapour bath, 4*d.*

For baths of any higher class, not exceeding three
times above.

Open bathing-places where several persons bath in the
same water, for each person $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.*

For the use of one washing tub or trough, and of a
copper or a boiler (if any) and for the use of con-
veniences for drying, for 1 hour, 1*d.*; for 2 hours,
not exceeding 3*d.*

Local authorities must make regulations for their swimming-baths as to due privacy, security from accidents, and decent behaviour, and it is forbidden to bring clothes to the wash-house from a house in which there is infectious disease. They may shut up the swimming-bath from October to April, cover it in and let it as a hall for dances or public meetings, but they must not let it for plays or as a cinema.

Instruction in swimming is generally given at a small fee, and elementary school children are encouraged to attend and to learn to swim. Authorities are constantly trying to cope with the problem of cleansing the water, some by a system of filtration.

In 1919-20 the Baths and Wash-houses Acts had been adopted in twenty-one rural parishes, as well as in a very large number of boroughs and urban districts.

Libraries, Museums and Gymnasias.—These may be provided under adoptive Acts, the first one of

which in 1845 allowed the local authorities that then existed to provide museums, and in 1850 libraries. They may be adopted in urban areas and in parishes, with the consent of the Minister of Health. The same authorities were also allowed in 1891 "to provide gymnasia with all the apparatus ordinarily used therewith. . . ." In 1892 it was decided that new museums should only be provided under the consolidating Libraries Act, passed that year. By an Act of 1919 museums are no longer to be provided by the local authorities; Libraries, however, continue to increase everywhere. Under the 1919 Act counties may adopt the provision of the Libraries Act in the whole or in part of their area. Under this Act they send out libraries to such parishes as have not adopted the Act for themselves, and make provision for joint libraries, and arrange for changing and passing on the books. Some counties do this through their Education Committees, others form a Library Committee. In most libraries within the last few years special rooms have been established for children, with an attendant to give advice, and sometimes "talks," on the value of the books. In London there are now ninety-five free libraries, several metropolitan boroughs having two or three branches, and there are forty-two children's rooms. The cost of keeping up these libraries throughout London was nearly £300,000 in 1926.

Library authorities must make regulations as to the use of their libraries, preventing such abuses as behaving in a disorderly manner, using violent and

obscene language, betting and gambling, refusing to leave at the proper time for closing, and, in some cases, using a dictionary for a prolonged time for doing cross-word puzzles.

Shops Acts.—County Councils, County Borough and Borough and Urban District Councils with populations of over 20,000 must appoint a Shops Act Inspector. It is his or her duty to see that the provisions of the Shops Acts of 1912 and 1928 are carried out with regard to hours and other matters. One of these is to see that shop assistants have seats, and are allowed to sit down for a reasonable amount of time. The rules regarding hours are to secure that every assistant has a half-holiday every week, and that shops are shut at a fixed hour. This time for closing, and the day for early closing, varies according to the wishes of the traders in a neighbourhood, and special rules are made with regard to any class of shops or for any special time. Relaxations are made, for instance, for the week before Christmas, and in seaside towns longer hours are permitted during the summer season, to be made up during the winter. The Act of 1928 established "general closing hours," but allowed sweet and confectionery shops to remain open later, unless earlier hours are approved by a majority of shopkeepers concerned. With the approval, too, of two-thirds of the shopkeepers concerned, later hours may be substituted for the closing of tobacconist's shops.

Perhaps here mention may be made of inspection, under the Rag and Flock Acts of 1911 and

1928, of all those places where flock is kept for articles of upholstery, cushions and bedding.

Food and Drugs.—As far as we can go back, we find laws forbidding the giving of short weight and adulterated food and watered ale. It was the business, not only of Parliament, which in 1297 (25 Ed. I. ch. xxv) tried to establish one system of weights and measures over the whole country, but of every corporate town, which had its own regulations. It was one of the main objects of the Guilds to keep up the standard of goods and of commercial honour among their members. With the growth of public health legislation this became the care of those authorities appointed to carry out public health duties. Since 1875 the public analyst has been added to the other health officers of the Council, and much of the work of the sanitary inspectors consists in inspecting bake-houses and other workshops, seizing unsound meat and other foods, and bringing proceedings under the many Food and Drug Acts, which were consolidated with the Milk and Margarine Acts in 1928. Some towns have a special weights and measures inspector, in others the work is done by the sanitary inspectors. Rag and bone dealers are forbidden to sell food or toys.

Various articles of food have been protected, as follows :

Bread.—There are special regulations in the Public Health Acts as to the sanitary conditions of bake-houses. There must be sufficient ventilation and they must not be underground. Rules have

also been made as to weight in selling bread, and an attempt, not yet fully developed, to enforce some measure of covering during delivery. In 1928, of 240 samples of bread, none were found to be adulterated.

Tea is examined at the Customs on importation, and if so much below standard as to be harmful is forfeited and destroyed. By the Sale of Tea Act of 1922 it must be sold by net weight only. In 1928, of 819 samples, none were found to be adulterated.

Meat may be seized if unsound and forfeited. It must be weighed in the presence of the customer, if desired. Special regulations are made in the Public Health Act of 1928 with regard to the contamination of food, by flies or dust, in open shop windows, and this especially applies to meat and fish.

In 1889 a Sale of Horse Flesh Regulations Act, to include asses and mules, made it illegal to sell horse flesh unless a clear notice that it was so was shown.

It was decided by a case in Court that chewing-gum, sold for the purpose of chewing only, is neither an article of food nor a drug.

Poisons.—Various Pharmacy Acts make it illegal for anyone but a qualified chemist to sell poisons, and then only under regulations. Local authorities may grant licences to certain shops for the sale of "poisonous substances to be used exclusively in agriculture or horticulture for the destruction of insects . . . and weed-killers which are poisonous by reason of their containing arsenic . . ." and these, too, must only be sold subject to regulation.

There are restrictions, also, on the supply of opium to midwives.

Butter and Margarine have been protected since the Public Health Act of 1875, and especially by the Margarine Act of 1887. This enacted that, "Whereas it is expedient that further provision should be made for protecting the public against the sale as butter of substances made in imitation of butter, as well as of butter mixed with any such substances," regulations should be made for the efficient labelling of such substances, and for the prevention of colouring matter in butter or for blending it. In 1928, of 10,544 samples of butter taken, 2.5 were found to be adulterated, and of 3,720 samples of margarine, 1.3 were found adulterated. In 1927 the use of preservatives in some foods, especially cream, was prohibited.

Labelling has been adopted for all kinds of food, and also marking, the latest being dried and condensed milk, and eggs. The system of grading has also been established for eggs.

Milk.—Last, but not least, milk. More has been done for this than for any other article of food.

Early legislation regarding milk dealt chiefly with watering or colouring it. Later the aim has been to see that the source of supply, the cows, are free from disease, especially those with tuberculous udders, and that distribution is made in clean bottles. As regards the cow, inspection of cowsheds is the duty of the Rural District Councils, and the slaughtering of diseased animals with compensation the duty of the County Councils. By an Order in

1914 tuberculous animals were added to the list of those which must be slaughtered. Before that the rule was less stringent and only ordered that where a veterinary surgeon had certified a case of tuberculosis in a cow, the milk must not be sold or mixed with other milk. Under the Milk and Dairies Consolidation Act, which was passed in 1915, but was suspended till 1925 owing to the War and its after effects, the responsibility was brought to the Medical Officer of Health of the district where the milk was consumed. If he considers that tuberculosis is caused or is likely to be caused by the consumption of milk from any dairy, he may take steps to stop such a supply by making an order either prohibiting the dairyman from selling all his milk for human consumption or from selling milk from certain specified cows. If the dairyman in such a case considers himself aggrieved he may appeal to a Court of Summary Jurisdiction, and, unless it is his own fault, may be awarded compensation. An Act of 1922 ordered milk sellers to be registered and their milk graded, and made the seller responsible for finding out whether his source of supply is diseased, by enacting that "no person shall, by himself or by any servant or agent, sell or expose for sale the milk of a cow suffering from tuberculosis, and he is guilty of the offence if it can be proved that he knew or could by the exercise of ordinary care have ascertained that the cow was suffering from the disease."

The results of the analysis of samples of food for several years past are as follows :—

	Samples Analysed.		Percentage of Adulteration.	
	All Articles.	Milk only.	All Articles.	Milk only.
1920 . . .	111,797	62,463	7.1	9.3
1922 . . .	113,860	60,274	6.2	7.8
1924 . . .	118,000	62,133	5.9	7.7
1926 . . .	120,617	62,507	5.8	7.4
1928 . . .	129,034	67,350	5.8	8.2

Slaughter-houses.—Every person keeping a slaughter-house or knacker's yard must take out a licence from the local authority, and is subject to their inspection and regulation. It was not, as one would suppose, sympathy with the animals, or a desire for improved public health, that led to this arrangement. But the preamble to the earliest Act on the subject, passed in 1786, states: "Whereas the practice of stealing Horses, Cows and other Cattle hath of late Years increased to an alarming Degree, and hath been greatly facilitated by certain Persons of low condition who keep Houses or Places for the purpose of slaughtering Horses and other Cattle, therefore," etc. Local authorities not only license and inspect private slaughter-houses, but they may also provide their own under the Public Health Act of 1875, and under that of 1925 may provide cold storage also. Local authorities must decide whether or not to make humane killers compulsory in their area. Under the Protection of Animals Act of 1911 they must see that knacker's yards are conducted as humanely as possible.

CHAPTER XIV

Municipal Trading.—Most local authorities carry on municipal trading of some kind or another, especially in those services where a monopoly is necessary. The capital for the undertaking is found by loan on the security of the rates, or it may be collected as a special rate. Profits are either paid towards the rates or towards cheapening the cost of the commodity, according to the policy of the authority that is trading, and should the concern suffer losses and not make profits, these must be made up out of the rates of the local authority. Interest on the loan is a first charge, and so must be paid whether there are profits or not. Water supply is sometimes considered a municipal trading undertaking, but is more properly a health service, as the supply must be kept up apart from any consideration of business or profit.

Most trading concerns are carried out in urban areas, more especially in county boroughs, but Rural District Councils in 1925-26 spent about £770,000 on water supply, of which £320,000 was raised by means of rates for special expenses. County Council, and Rural District Councils too ran a few light railways and tramways. Such trading as harbour and dock undertakings is often carried on by local authorities specially constituted for the purpose.

Electricity.—When electricity first became a practicable commodity, towards the end of last century, companies sprang up to supply it to the public. In 1882 an Act was passed to allow local authorities also to supply it, primarily for lighting their streets, but also for a general supply to houses and shops. Continual growth has gone on since then, and it has been found necessary to regulate, under State control, both the generation of electricity and its distribution, with the aim not only of supplying it cheaply, but also of extending the service all over the country. In 1919 a Central Board of Electricity Commissioners was formed to take over the supervision of the supply of electricity, this work formerly being under the Board of Trade. These Commissioners divided England and Wales up into districts, in each of which was formed a Joint Electricity Authority to co-ordinate the work of the various undertakings, private or under local authorities. Under these joint authorities undertakings may supply electricity to any part of the district and may supply other undertakings in bulk, leaving them to do their own distribution. It has been found that generating in bulk is cheaper, and that therefore fewer large generating stations are preferable to several small ones. In 1926 there were 320 local authorities and 216 companies supplying electricity.

An Electricity Supply Act passed in 1926, after a report from a Departmental Committee under the chairmanship of Lord Weir, legislated for the wholesale side of the electricity supply industry, by

gradually shutting up smaller generating stations and building or enlarging a few efficient ones, under the direction of a Central Electricity Board. The object was "to concentrate the generation of electricity in a relatively small number of large stations, favourably situated as regards fuel, water, and load, being interconnected by main transmission lines." It was estimated in the Weir Report that the unit consumption per head of population would be raised from 110 to 200. The next difficulty, however, that has arisen is to find practical means for preventing smoke and sulphuric fumes from these large stations, in order to satisfy both the Health Authorities and those who are eager to protect the amenities of the district.

Gas.—As early as 1847 there was a Gasworks Clauses Act for regulating the supply and use of gas. Companies were enabled to contract for the supply of gas, but the local authority, then the Corporation or Vestry, could not produce their own. This they could only do by private Acts of Parliament until the Public Health Act of 1875 enacted that as regards urban districts, "where there is not any company or person . . . authorised to supply gas . . . such authority may themselves undertake to supply gas . . . throughout the whole or any part of their district." By the same Act local authorities, if they do not provide their own gas, may contract with companies for a supply for lighting the streets, markets, and public buildings in their district, and they may buy the undertaking of any company and work it themselves. By an order from the Minister

of Health, rural districts may obtain the same powers. Local authorities have also the duty of examining gas meters in their areas, and they appoint inspectors for that purpose. They may also, under the Gas Regulation Act of 1920, appoint gas examiners for the purpose of testing the gas supplied, several authorities uniting for this purpose if advisable.

Tramways and Light Railways.—Since the Tramways Act of 1870 local authorities, in this case Borough, Urban District and Parish Councils, may, with the consent of the Ministry of Transport, construct tramways, purchase them or lease them and run them; and again, under an order, they may run light railways. The Minister has power to require through running on adjoining tramways, and may settle terms with the owners concerned. He may also make grants or loans for the construction of tramways. The powers of removing tramways are also vested in the local authority, who may also run motor omnibuses, and in many urban areas they are using such powers where the tramlines are found dangerous to traffic.

In 1926-27 there was a total of 1886 miles of tramways and light railways owned by local authorities, 1760 miles worked by themselves and 126 leased to companies.

Cemeteries.—The subject of burial has always been one of interest to archæologists and historians, and has enabled them to find out from ancient barrows manners and customs throughout the centuries before a written history existed. Within modern

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times it was common law that every person in a state of indigence had a right to Christian burial in the parish churchyard at the expense of the person under whose roof he died. Such a person has in practice passed on the expense to the Poor Law Authorities. As towns grew, the parish churchyard became too small, and in 1847 a Burial Act was passed prohibiting in urban areas any burial from taking place, and closing overcrowded or insanitary burial-grounds, and appointing Burial Boards to procure new grounds, to be called cemeteries. These old burial-grounds have since been made into gardens, and form little oases in many a crowded business quarter. The adoption of the Act was optional, but became practically compulsory, for where an existing churchyard was closed, the Burial Board was forced to provide accommodation elsewhere. Under the Public Health Act of 1875, the duties of most Burial Boards were transferred to the Councils, who now provide cemeteries themselves, or may contract for some part of the cemetery of a neighbouring district. The District Councils may also provide mortuaries and regulate their use, and also crematoria. These must be on sites approved by the Minister of Health, and are under Home Office regulations.

Those local authorities that provide cemeteries make a charge for the graves, in accordance with rules passed by the Councils, according to the position of the grave. In some cases a profit may be made in this way, and may be used for the relief of the rates. The service of the provision of ceme-

tery accommodation is therefore included in that of municipal trading.

Markets and Fairs.—The right to hold markets and fairs has existed from time immemorial, originating in some presumed Royal grant, or custom, and modern markets can be created by statute. Many old corporations, especially the City of London, own markets, and the profits from tolls on markets and fairs have always been a source of revenue to the towns owning them. In 1285 an Act of Parliament prohibited markets and fairs from being held in a churchyard, to-day the trouble is to prohibit their being held in the crowded streets.

With the growth of the power of local authorities the supervision of markets has been placed in their charge, and they may purchase rights in old markets or build new ones. They must make rules and regulations as to the use of the markets, provide for weighing cattle, for measuring or weighing other commodities, prevent the exposure of unsound meat or other provisions, and any fraudulent behaviour. The Health Authority must supervise the sanitation, lighting and cleaning of the market, and may make special arrangements for clearing up the litter, for which they make a charge by means of a licence. They collect tolls for the use of the markets, and for other services provided, and thus the provision of markets becomes a form of municipal trading.

A fair differs from a market in being held in some town or even country district for two or three days at a time, where from time immemorial it has been the custom of the people in the district, and even

from a distance away, to congregate for buying and selling their wares. Local authorities cannot hold fairs, but they must supervise the sanitation and behaviour there, and they can make representations to the Home Office if they think it would be advantageous to the public if a particular fair should be abolished. They can also ask to have the date of the fair changed.

Seaside Amenities.—It is now possible for those seaside towns that adopt the Public Health Act of 1907 to make profits from the regulation of the sea-shore and the provision of tents, bathing-machines, chairs, bandstands and other amenities of seaside life. The latest scheme, perhaps, is that seen in the new Bournemouth Pavilion, where not only are concert halls and dance halls provided, but also restaurants of all kinds, and tea-rooms for every kind of purse. The accounts for the year ending March 31st, 1927, for the following municipal undertakings are given by the Ministry of Health as follows:—

	Expenditure, other than out of Loan.	Receipts.		
		Fees.	Rates.	Grant.
Electricity .	£25,231,045	£24,498,453	£637,997	£94,595
Gas	21,351,385	20,936,523	392,467	22,395
Tramways .	24,085,908	23,110,060	907,319	68,529
Cemeteries .	1,457,773	1,079,347	365,919	12,507

And outstanding loans were

Electricity	£79,250,025
Gas	£27,529,105
Tramways	£39,336,083
Cemeteries	£2,502,276

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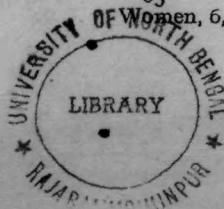
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