

THE
CO-OPERATIVE
WHOLESALE SOCIETIES

LIMITED.

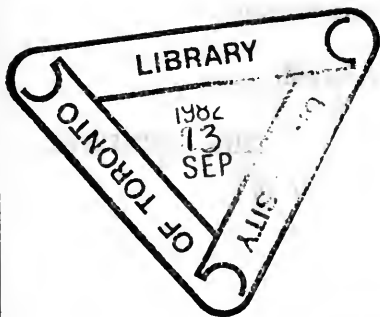
ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

ANNUAL FOR 1889.



PUBLISHED BY
THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED,
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AND
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1889

P R E F A C E .

THE period of the year has again come round when we have to present to you our "Annual," and we have much pleasure in submitting the volume for 1889.

We have striven in this, as in previous issues, to select subjects of great advantage and usefulness to you, and have been anxious to secure the services of writers well qualified to treat on the various technical matters in an interesting and instructive manner.

The several writers have been left free to express their own views and in their own way, and we are hopeful that our efforts will meet with your kind approval and encouragement.

Yours truly,

THE COMMITTEE.

TO THE MEMBERS

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

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MAPS, DIAGRAMS, CITY PLANS, AND PREMISES.

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THE

Co-operative Wholesale Society

LIMITED.

PLATES, ADVERTISEMENTS, STATISTICS, &c.,

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THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Twenty-five Years' Progress of Co-operative Societies in the United Kingdom.

CONSOLIDATED RETURNS FOR THE YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31ST, 1886

SALES.

£

Years.	SALES.
1862	2,333,523
1863	2,673,778
1864	2,836,606
1865	3,373,847
1866	4,462,676
1867	6,001,153
1868	7,122,360
1869	7,353,363
1870	8,201,685
1871	9,463,771
1872	13,012,120
1873	15,639,714
1874	16,374,053
1875	18,499,901
1876	19,921,054
1877	21,390,447
1878	21,402,219
1879	20,382,772
1880	23,248,314
1881	24,945,063
1882	27,541,212
1883	29,336,028
1884	30,424,101
1885	31,305,910
1886	32,730,745

TOTAL SALES IN THE TWENTY-FIVE YEARS, 1862 TO 1886 .. £399,976,415

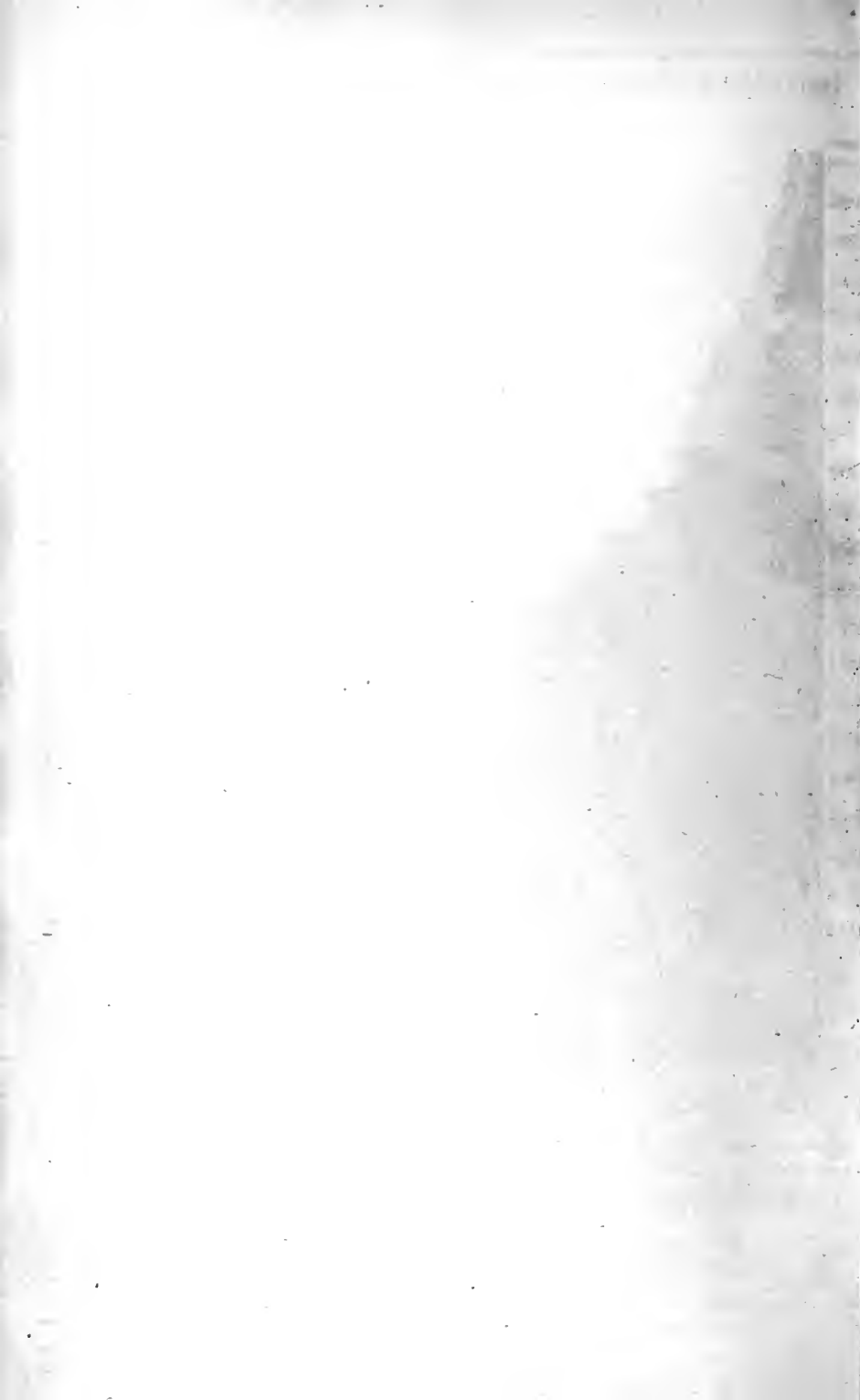
TOTAL PROFITS IN THE TWENTY-FIVE YEARS, 1862 TO 1886 .. £33,029,672

STATISTICAL POSITION OF CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM,

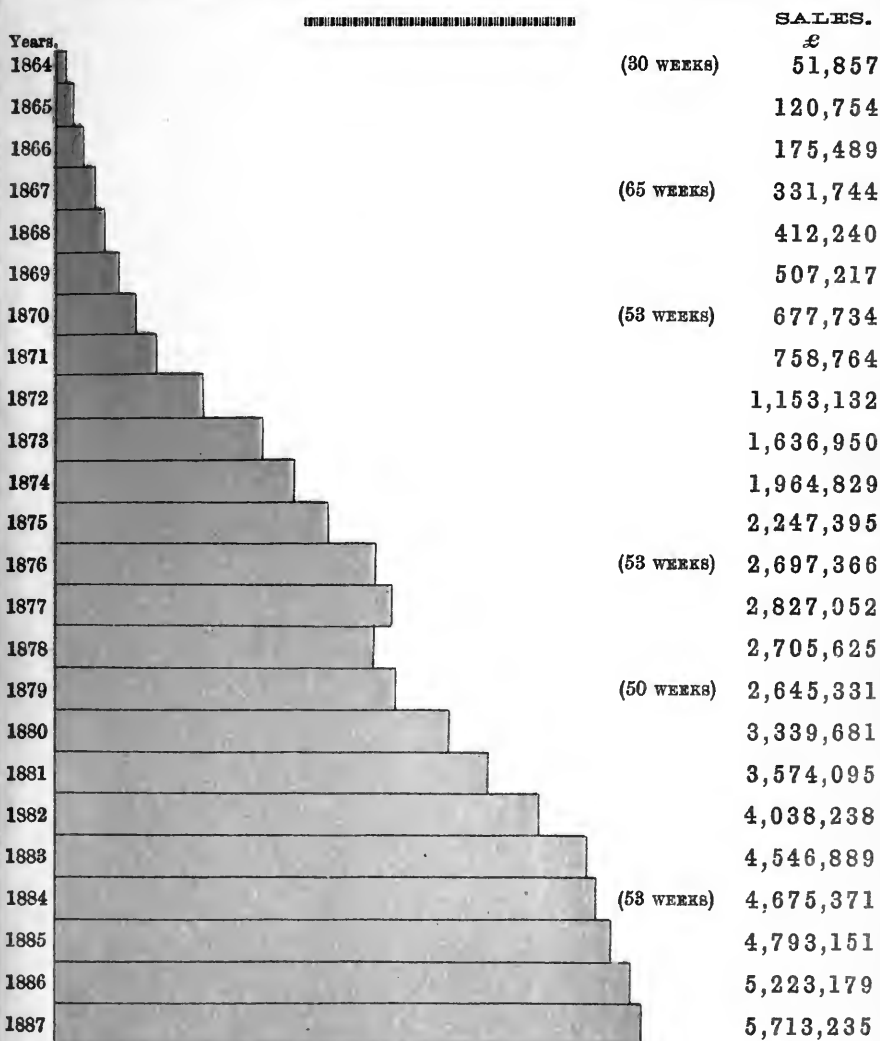
DECEMBER 31ST, 1886.

Compiled from the Returns made by Societies to the Registrar and Central Board.

Number of Members	894,488	Sales for 1886	£32,730,745
Share Capital	£9,747,452	Net Profits for 1886	3,070,111
Loan Capital	2,160,090	Devoted to Education, 1886	19,878



Twenty-four Years' Progress of the Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited.



TOTAL SALES IN THE TWENTY-FOUR YEARS, 1864 TO 1887.... **£56,817,318**

TOTAL PROFITS IN THE TWENTY-FOUR YEARS, 1864 TO 1887.... **£717,196**

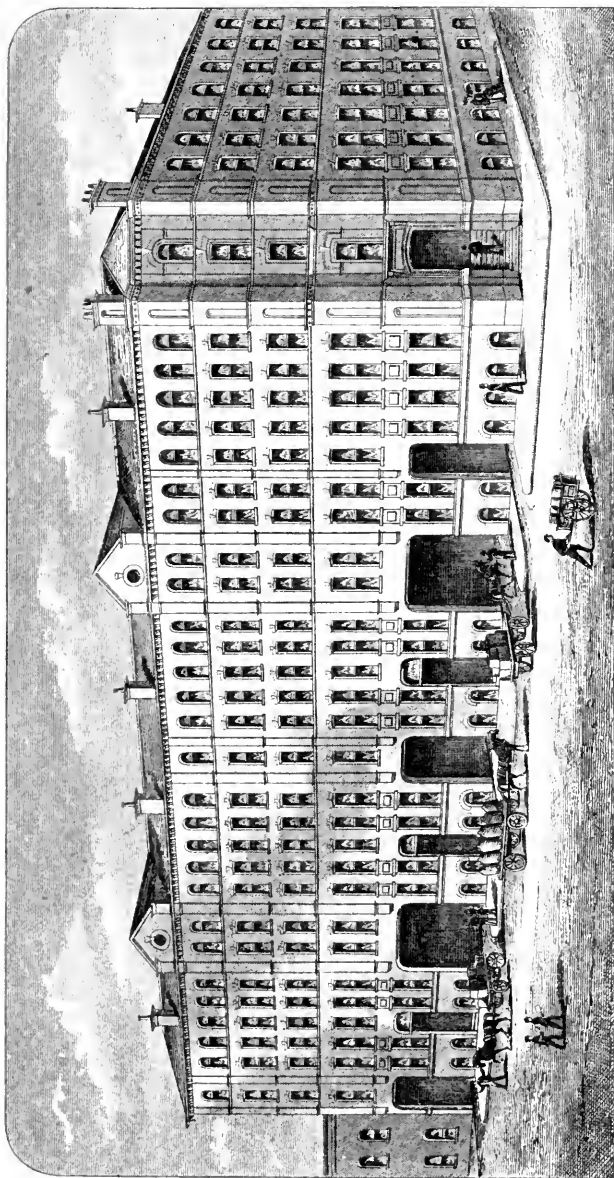
NOTE.—The above diagram is constructed to show the proportionate yearly variation in the sales. The size of each space is calculated on the basis of a year of 52 weeks.

STATISTICAL POSITION OF THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED,

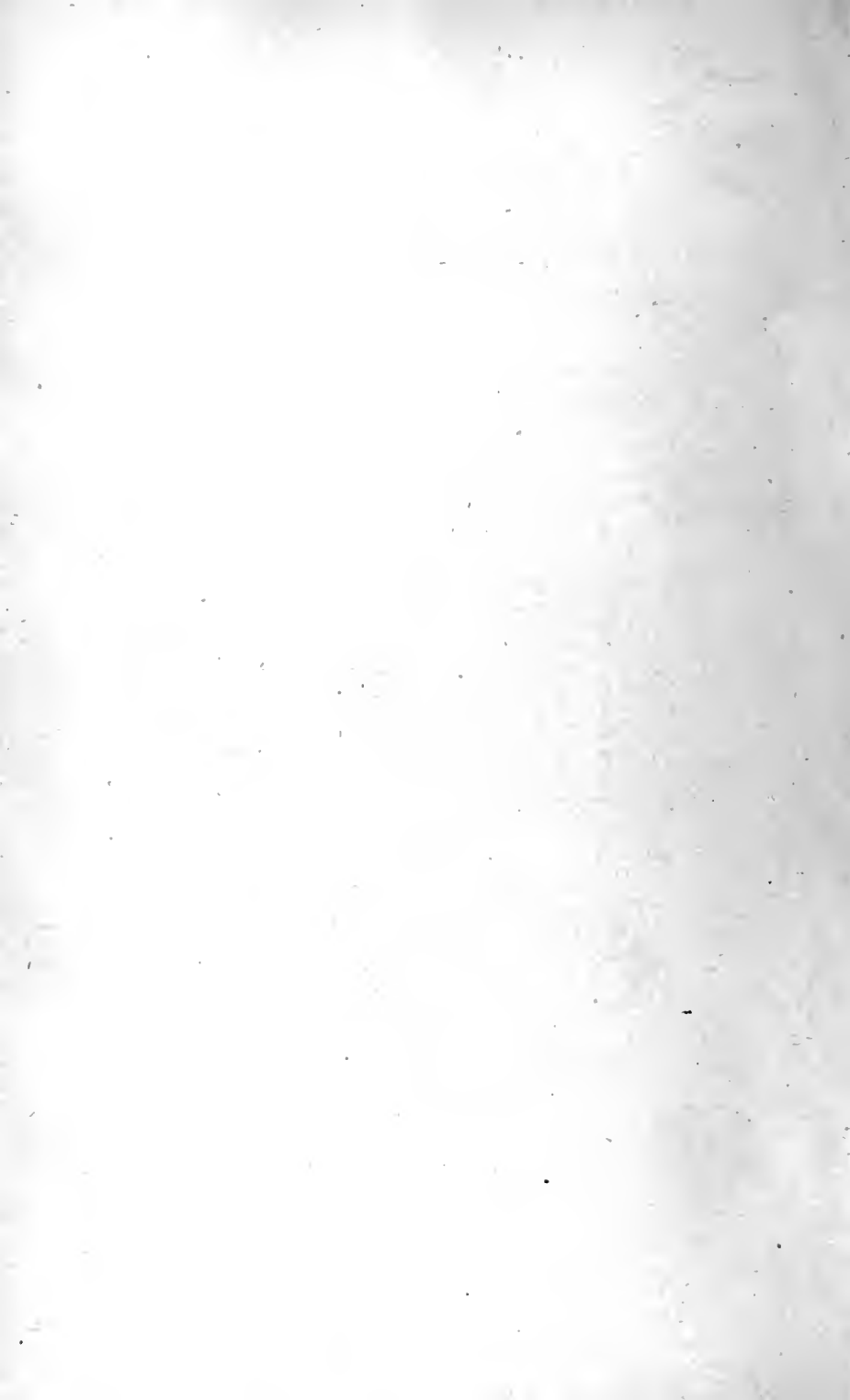
DECEMBER 24TH, 1887.

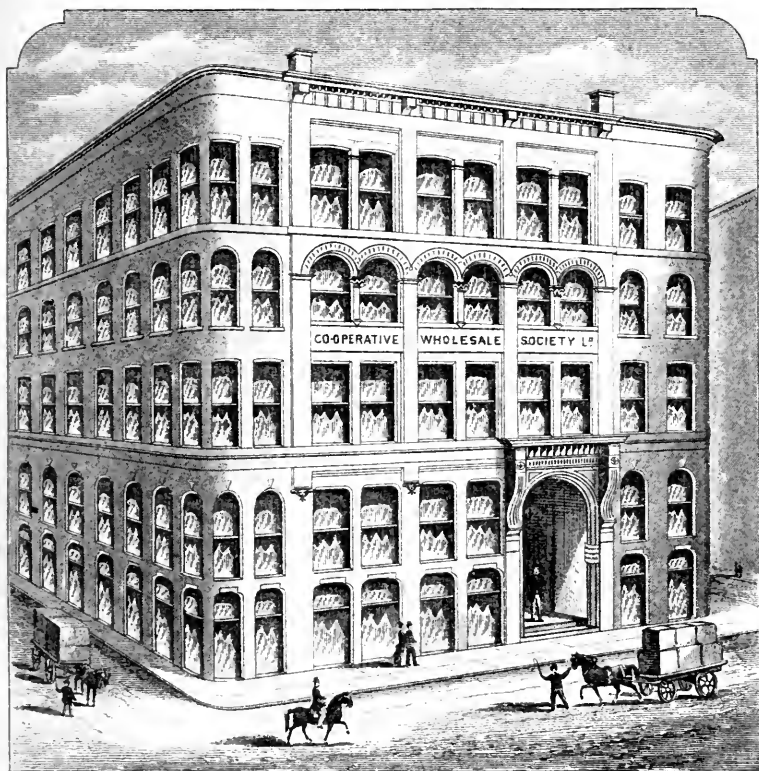
Number of Societies holding Shares	827		
Number of Members belonging to Share- holders	604,800	Reserve Fund.....	£ 32,657
Share Capital	£300,958	Insurance Fund.....	78,237
Loans and Deposits	£590,091	Sales for Year 1887	5,713,235
		Net Profits for Year 1887	65,141





MANCHESTER:
REGISTERED OFFICES, BANK, CENTRAL GROCERY AND PROVISION WAREHOUSES,
BALLOON STREET AND GARDEN STREET.—See pages 50 to 53, 86, 88, and 106.

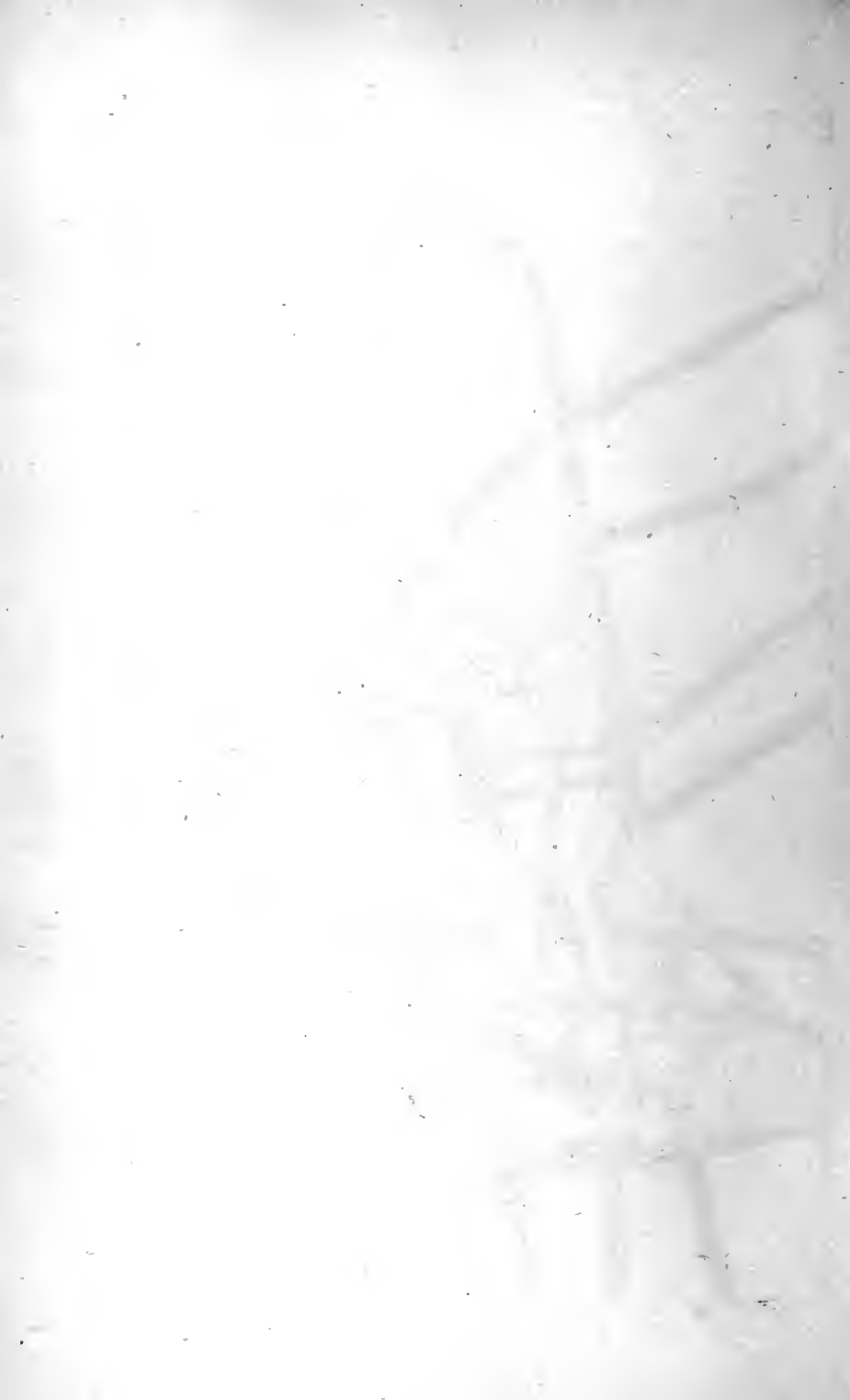




MANCHESTER:

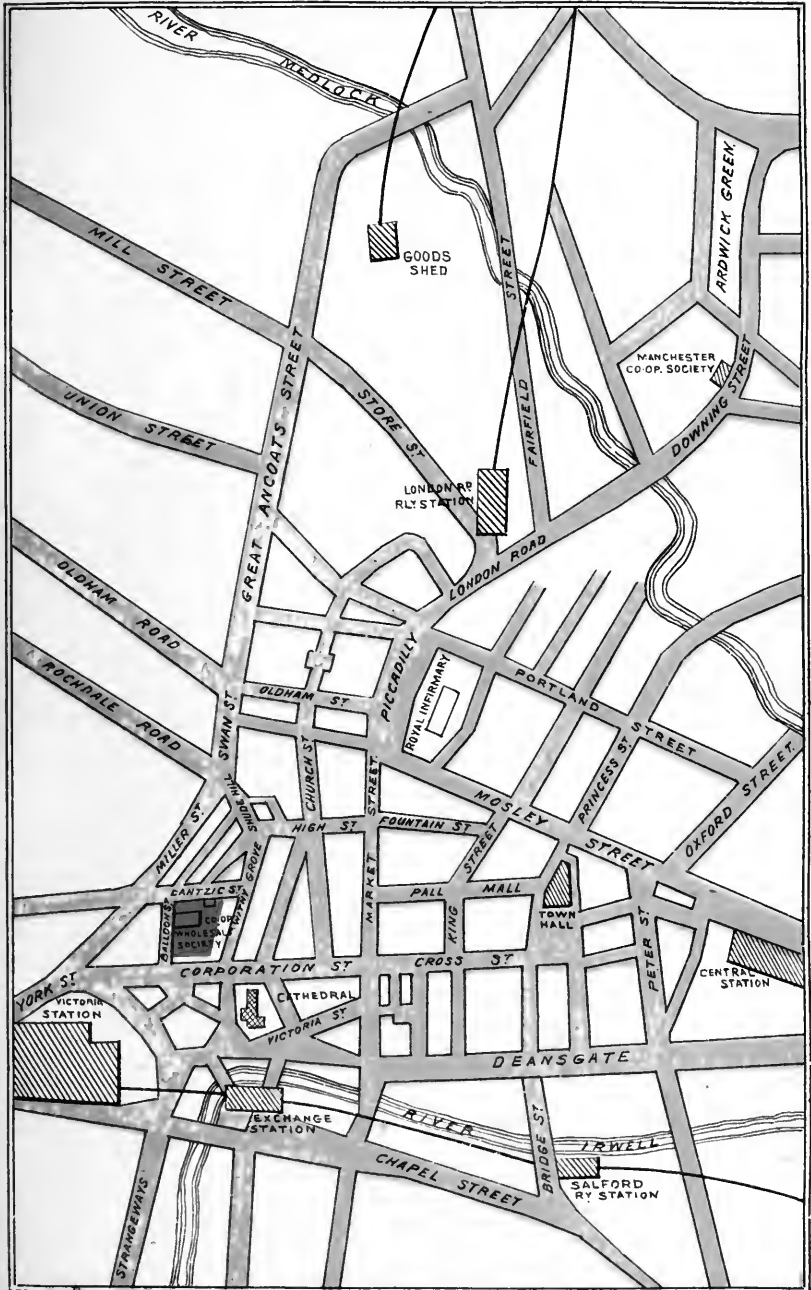
DRAPERY WAREHOUSE, DANTZIC STREET.

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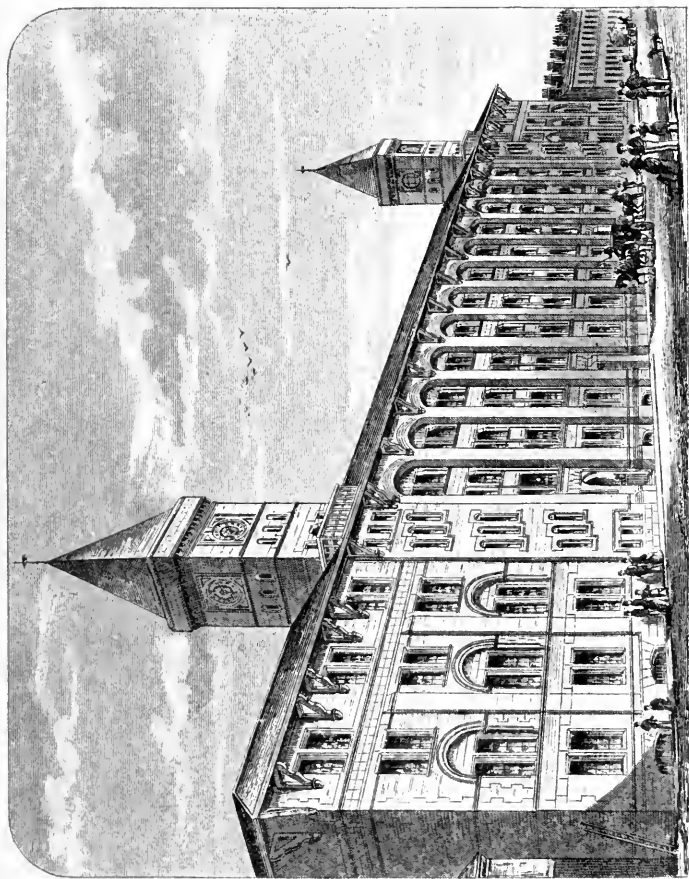


PLAN OF MANCHESTER,

SHOWING THE MOST DIRECT ROUTE TO THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY'S CENTRAL OFFICES AND WAREHOUSE, FROM THE RAILWAY STATIONS AND PRINCIPAL PLACES.

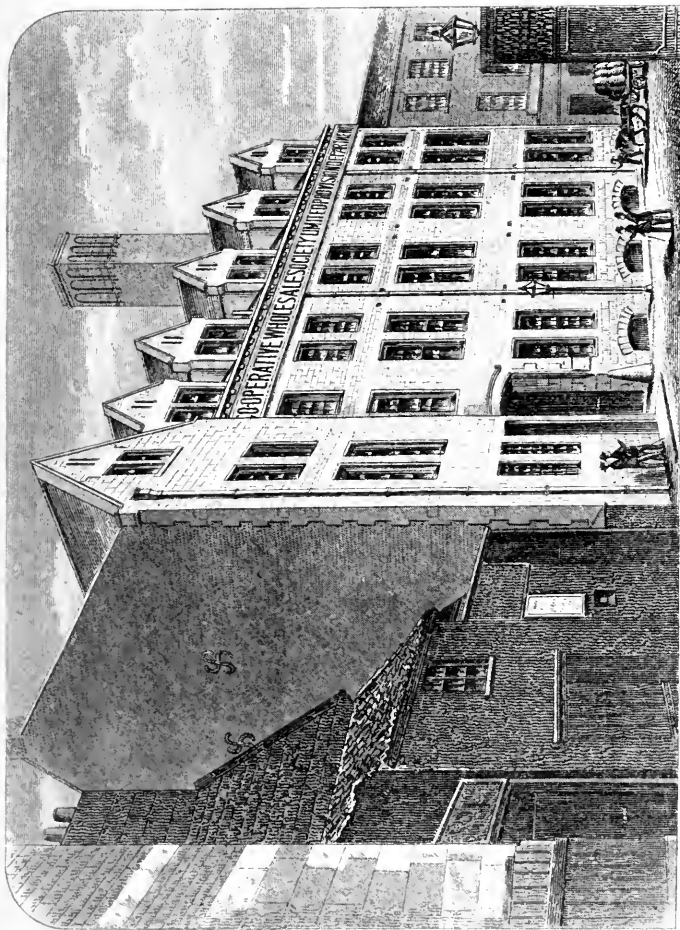




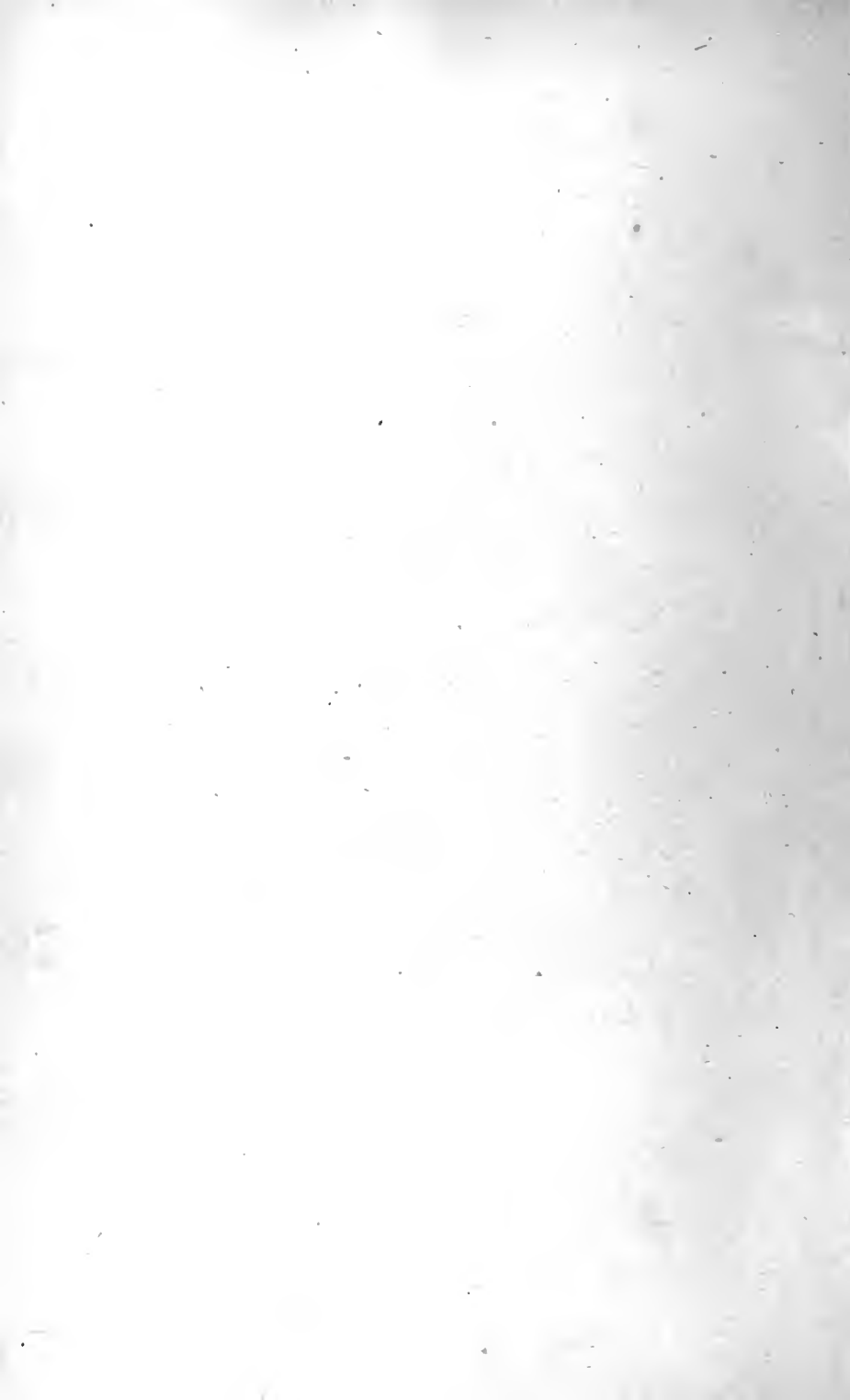


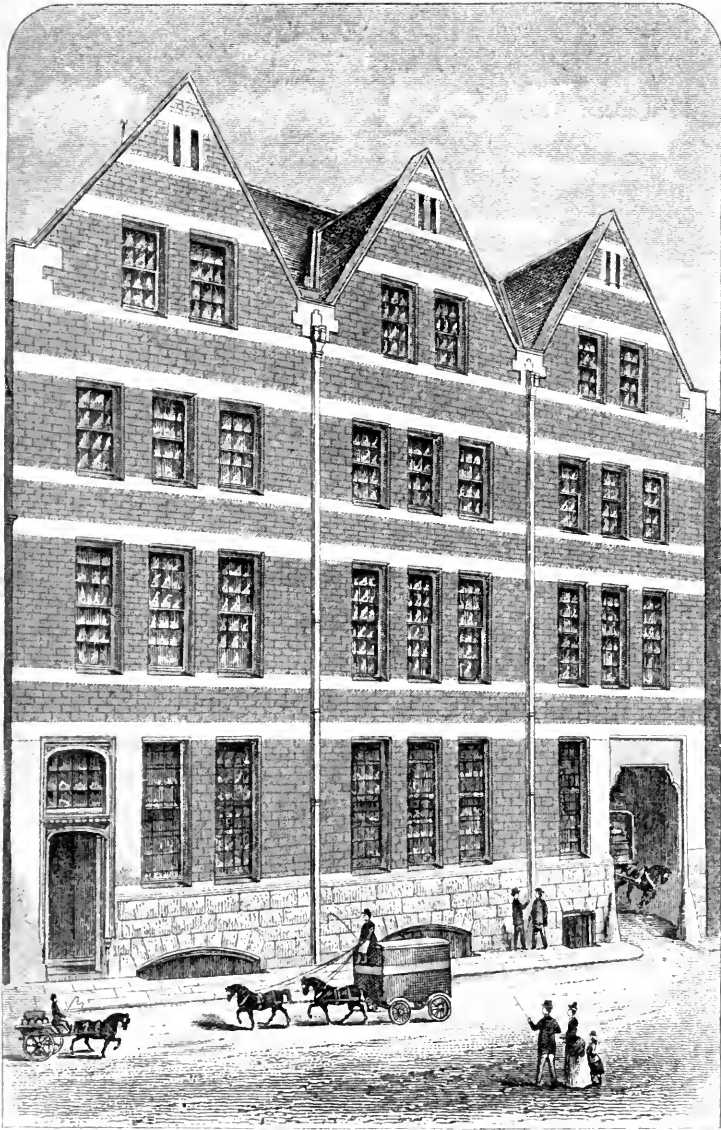
NEWCASTLE BRANCH,
WATERLOO STREET, NEWCASTLE-UPON-TYNE.—See pages 68 to 79, 86, 93 to 95, 109 and 110.





NEWCASTLE PROVISION WAREHOUSE,
THORNTON STREET.



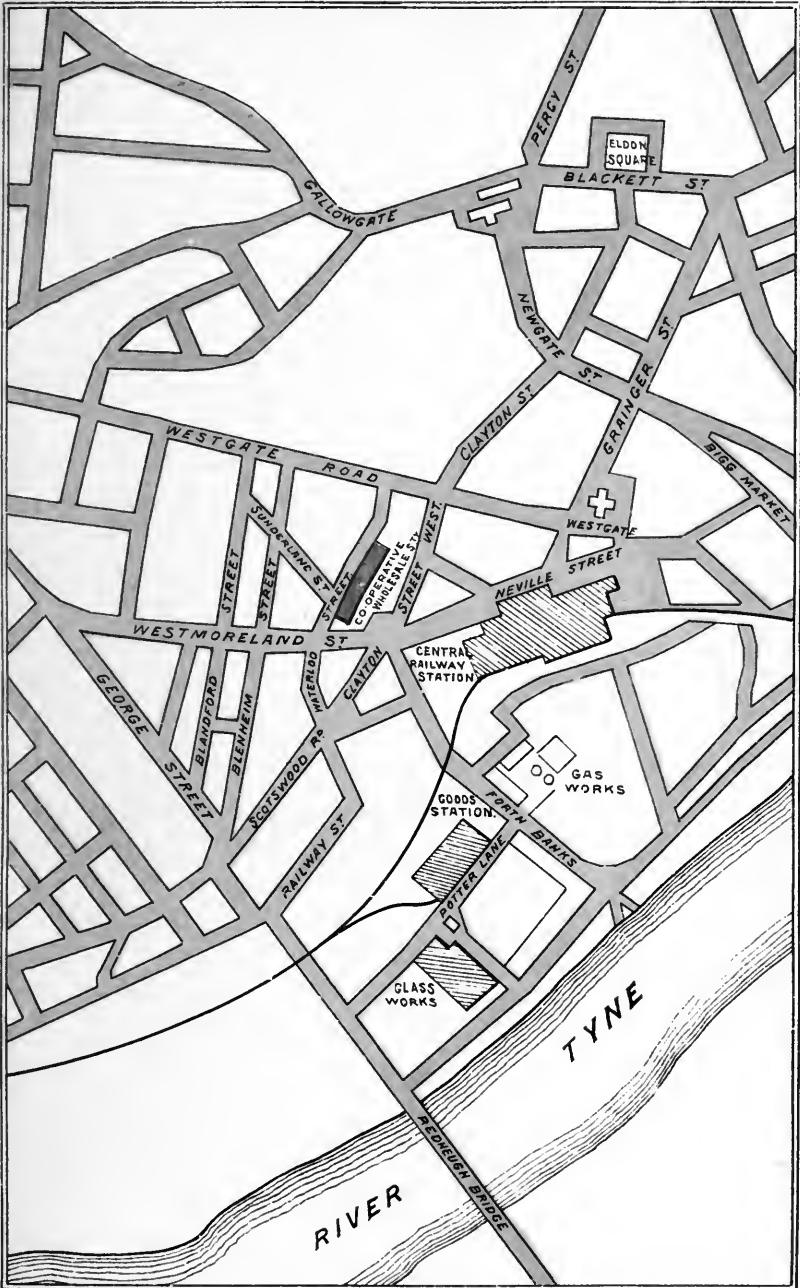


NEWCASTLE FURNISHING WAREHOUSE,
THORNTON STREET.

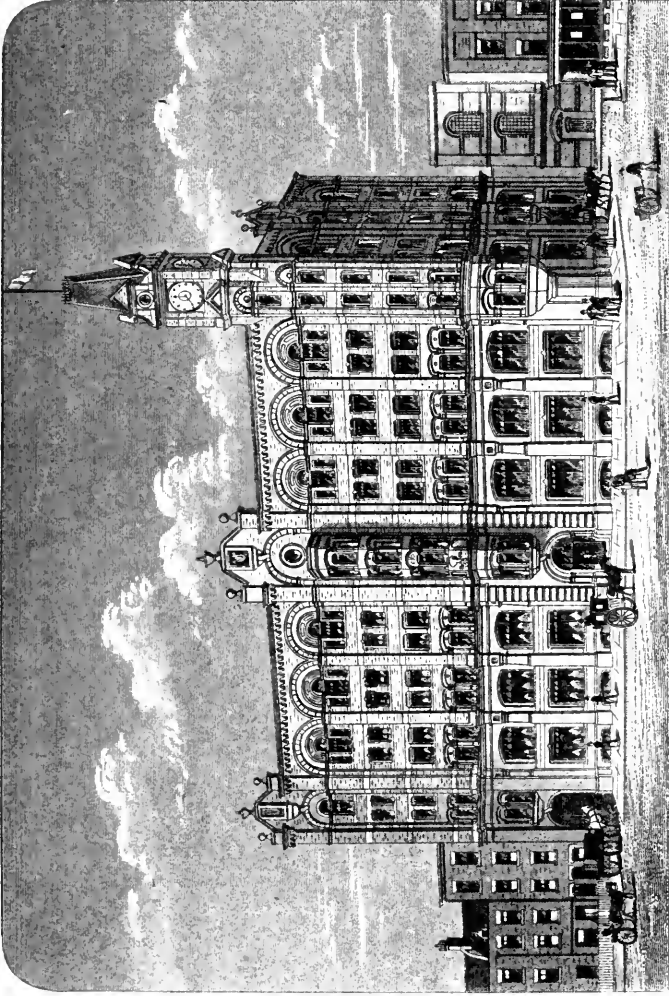


PLAN OF NEWCASTLE,

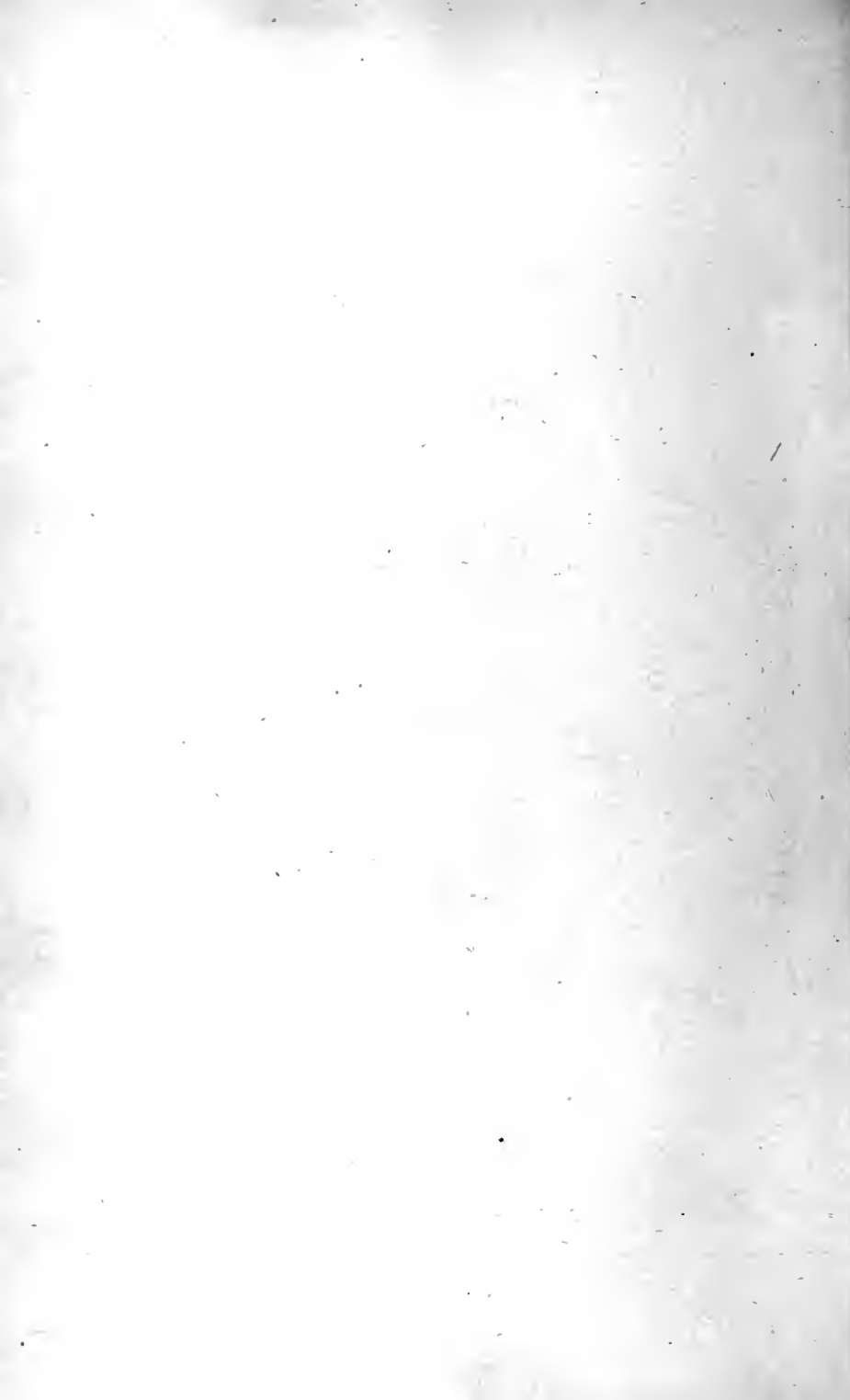
SHOWING THE MOST DIRECT ROUTE TO THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY'S NEWCASTLE BRANCH PREMISES, FROM THE RAILWAY STATION AND PRINCIPAL PLACES.

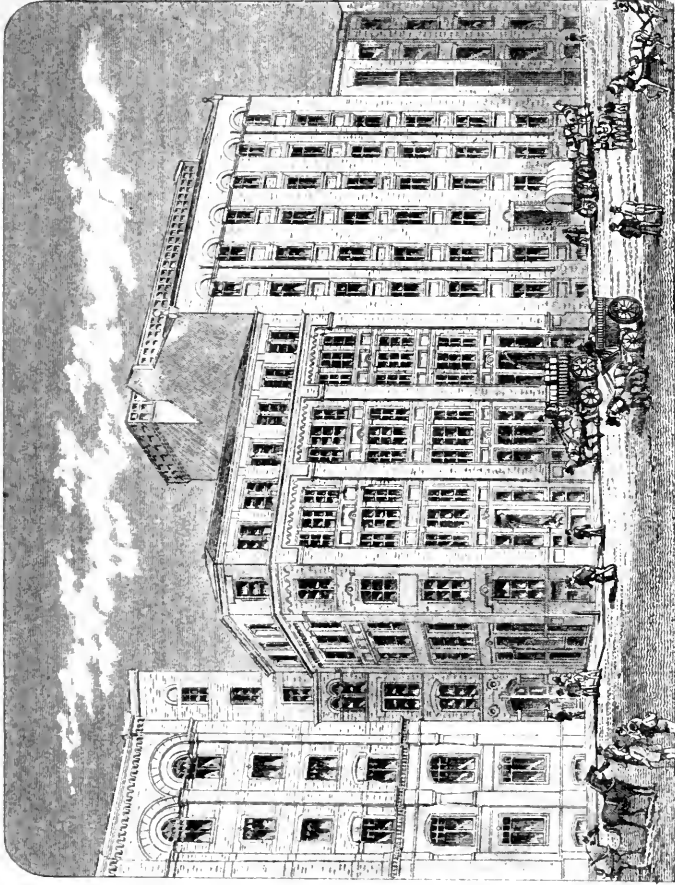






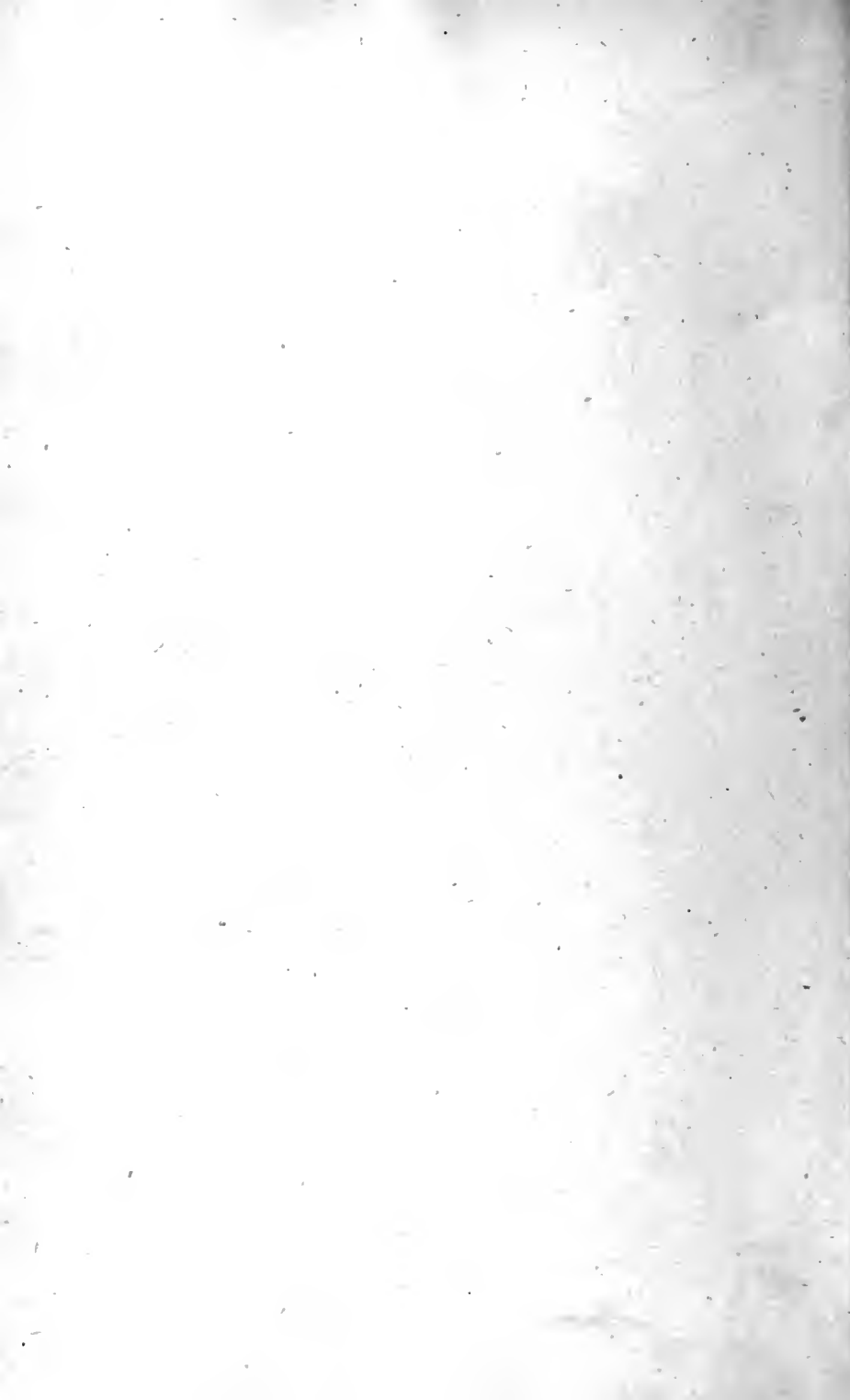
LONDON BRANCH:
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LONDON TEA DEPARTMENT.

See pages 21 to 24, and 86.





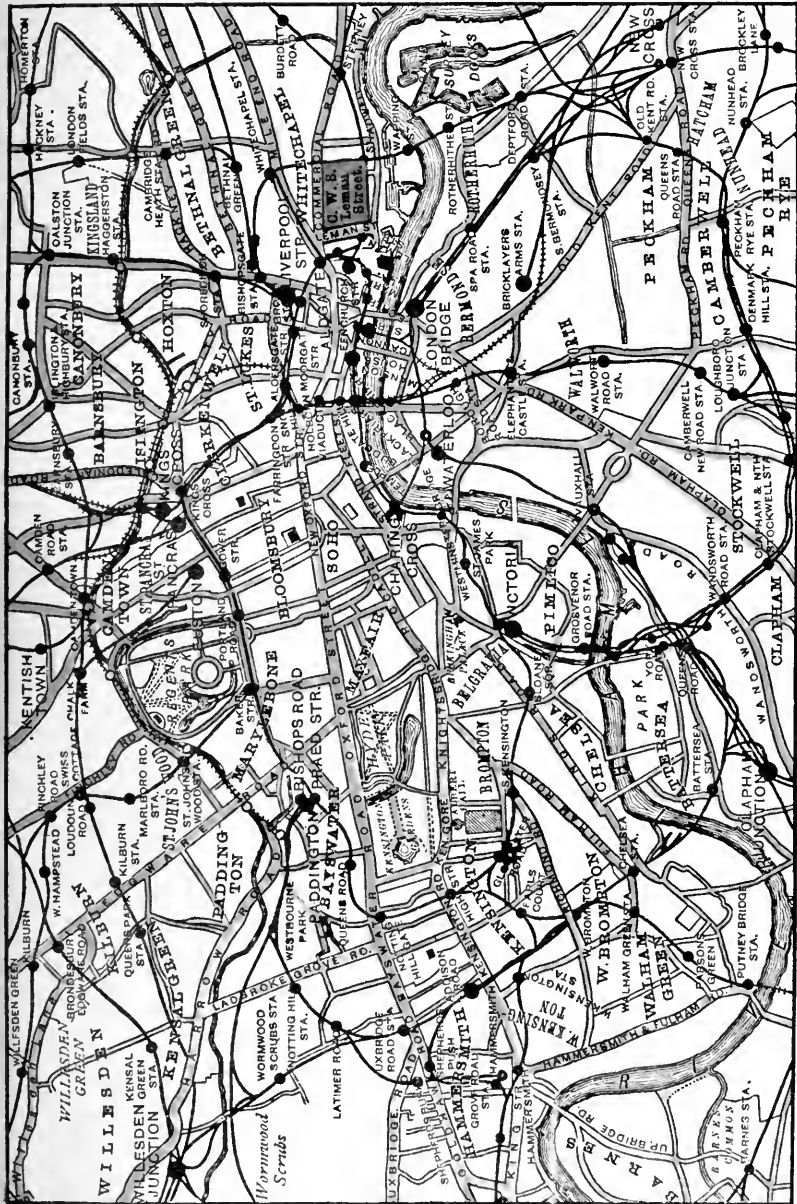
LONDON COCOA AND CHOCOLATE WORKS, 116, LEMAN STREET.

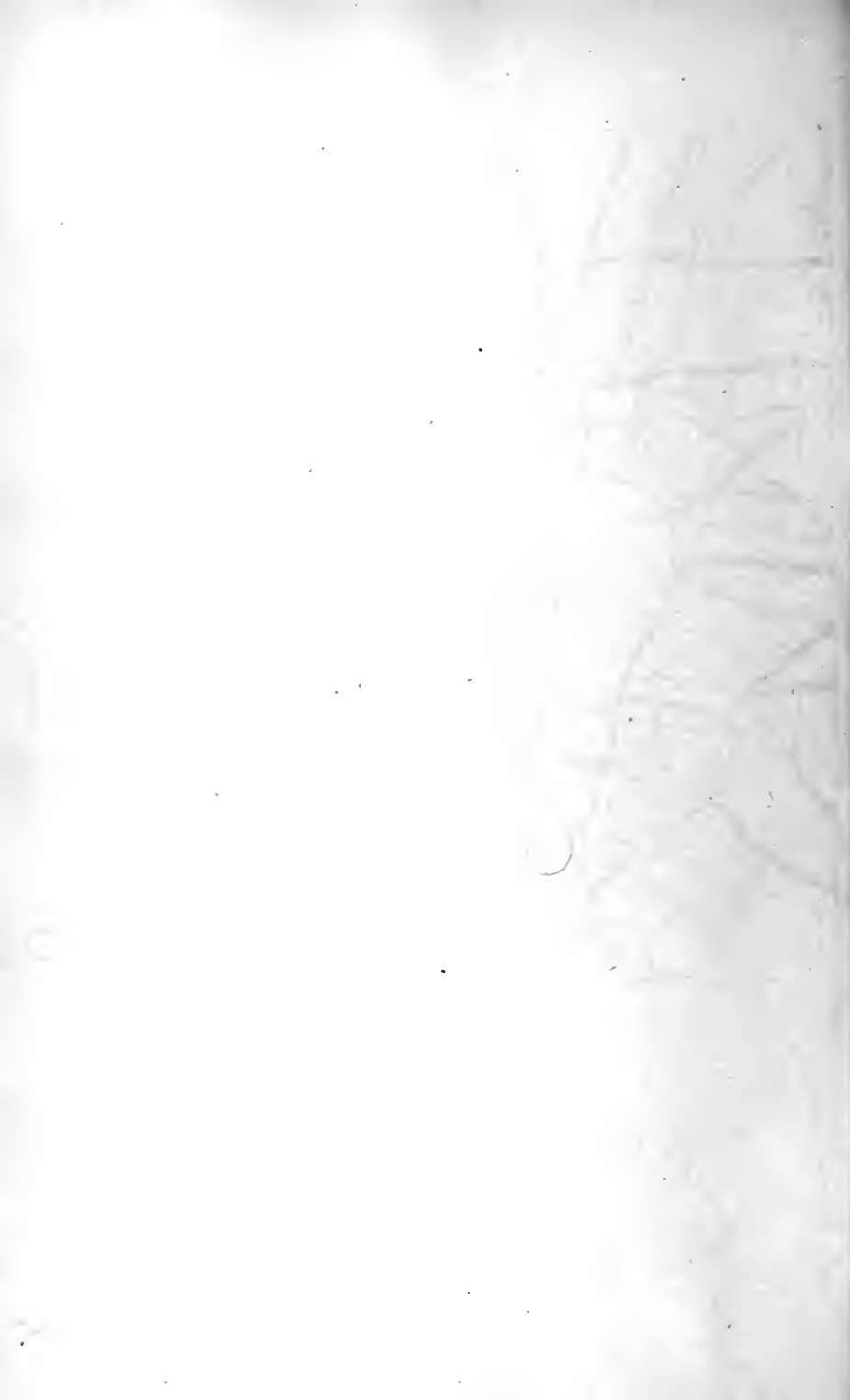
See pages 24 and 86.

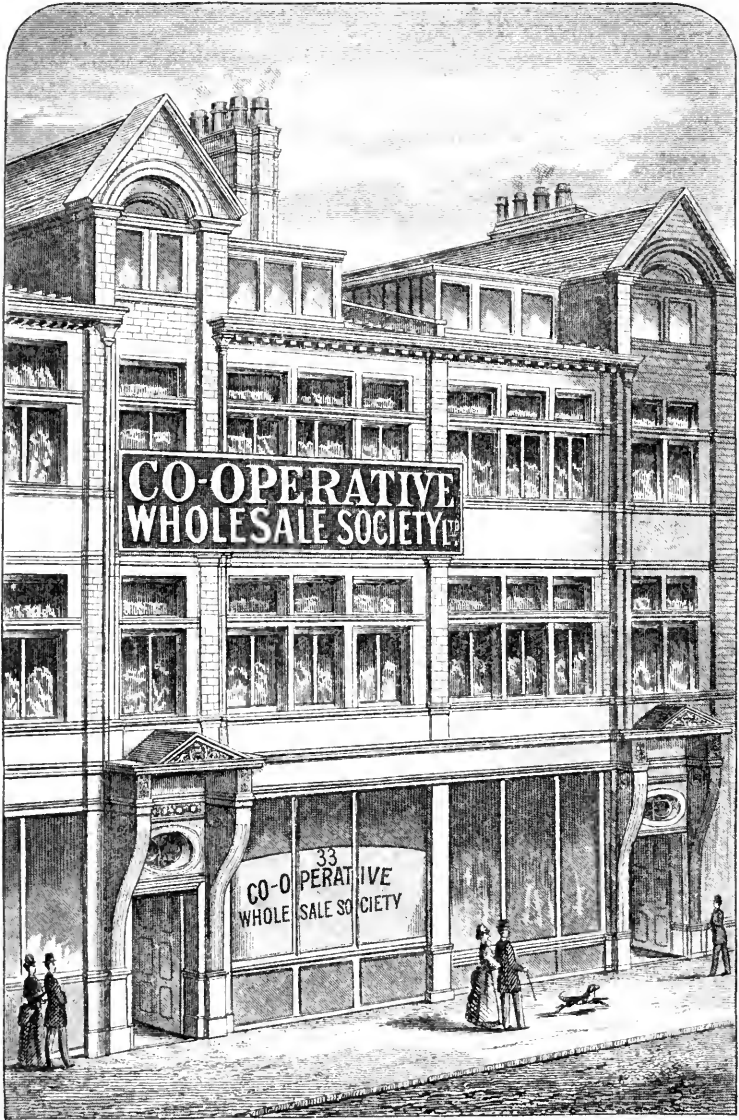


MAP OF LONDON,

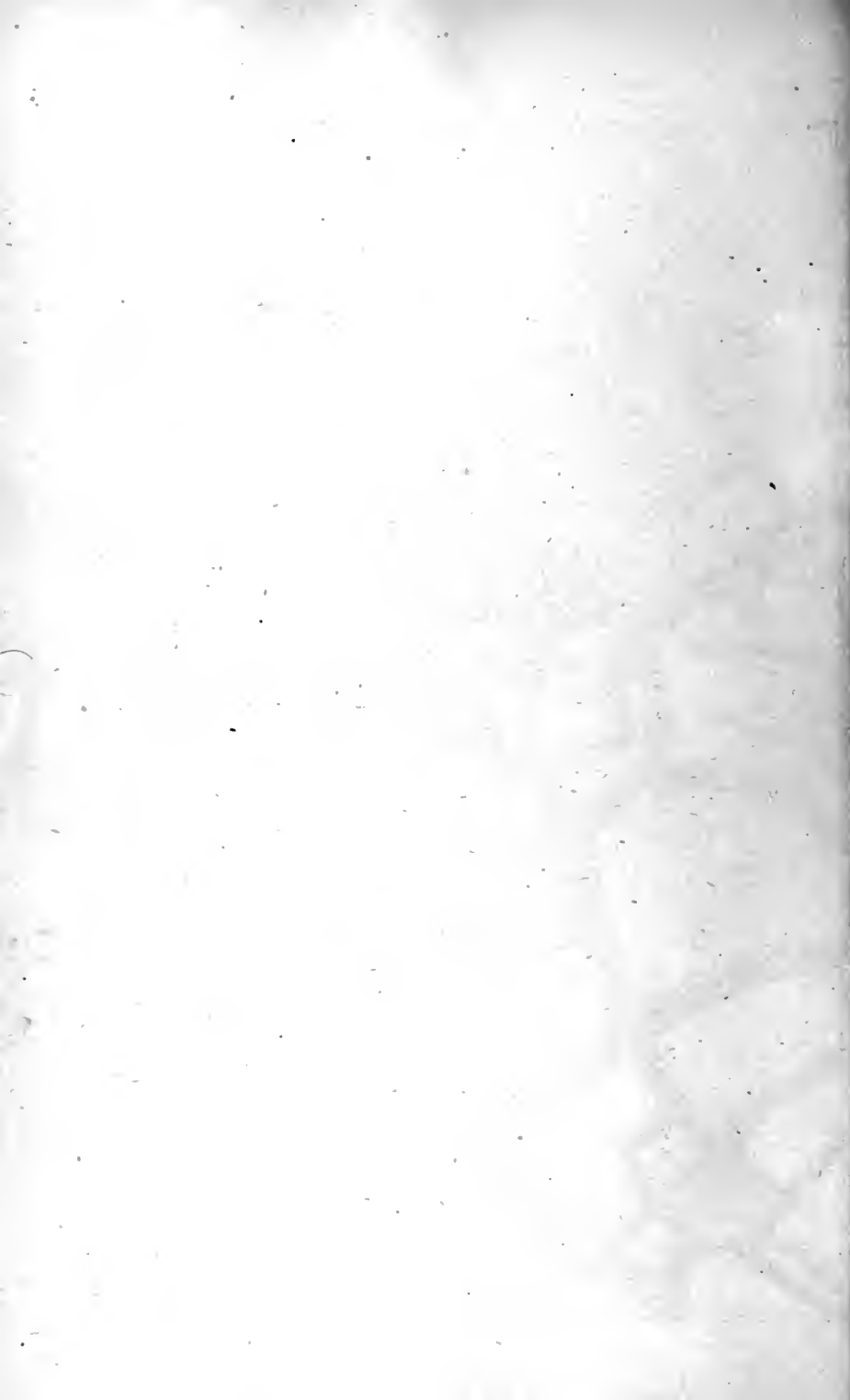
SHOWING THE LONDON BRANCH, LEMAN STREET, E., AND THE PRINCIPAL RAILWAY STATIONS.





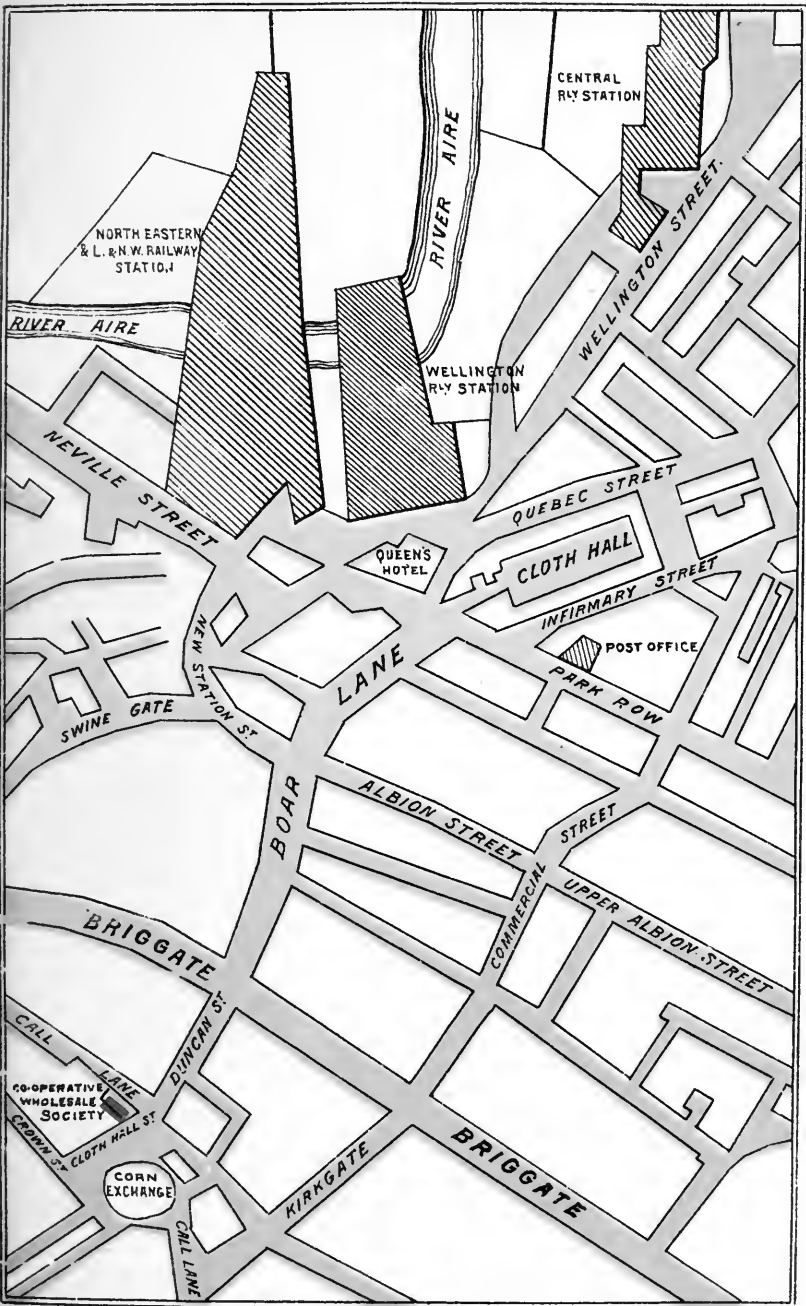


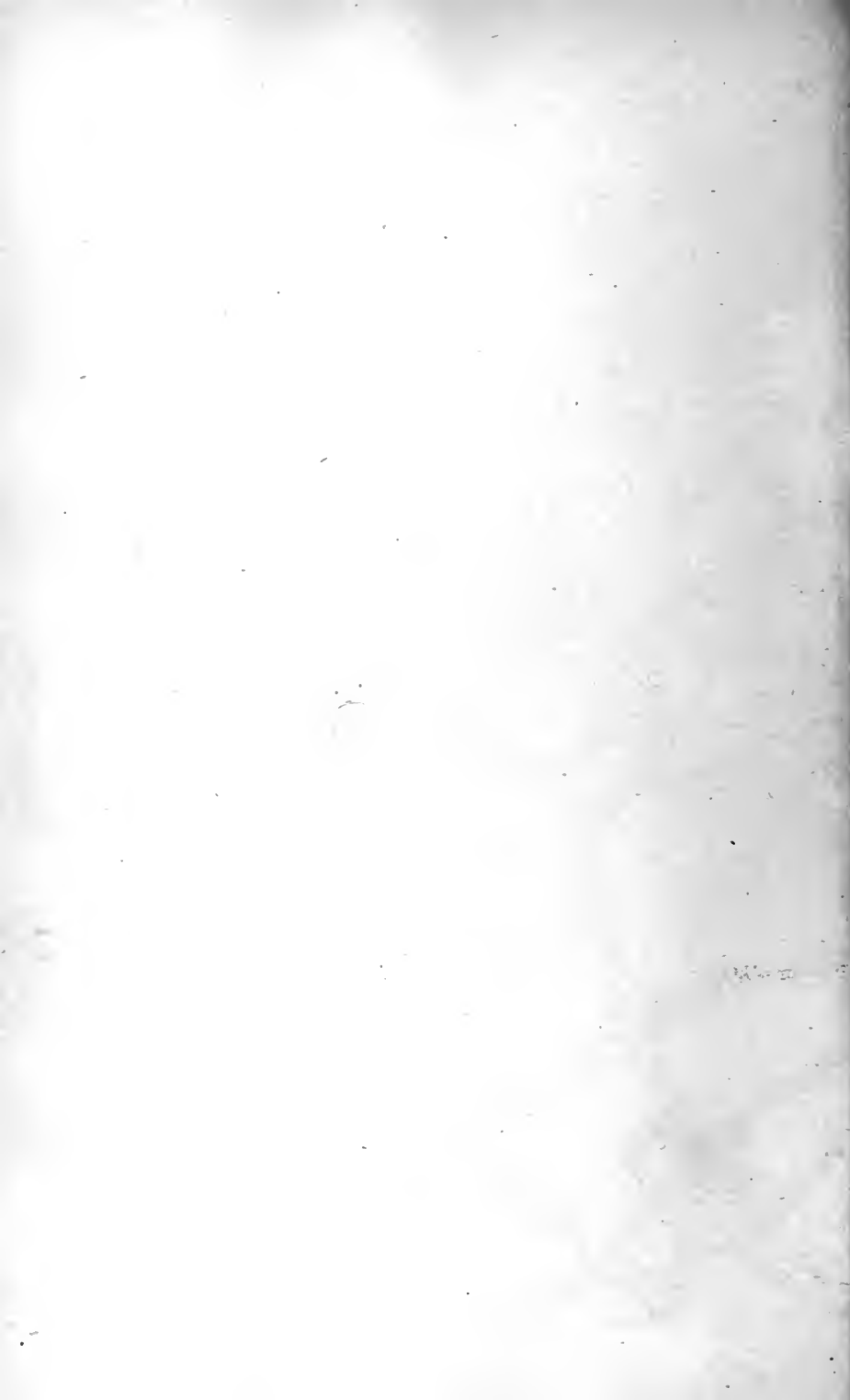
LEEDS: 33, CALL LANE.

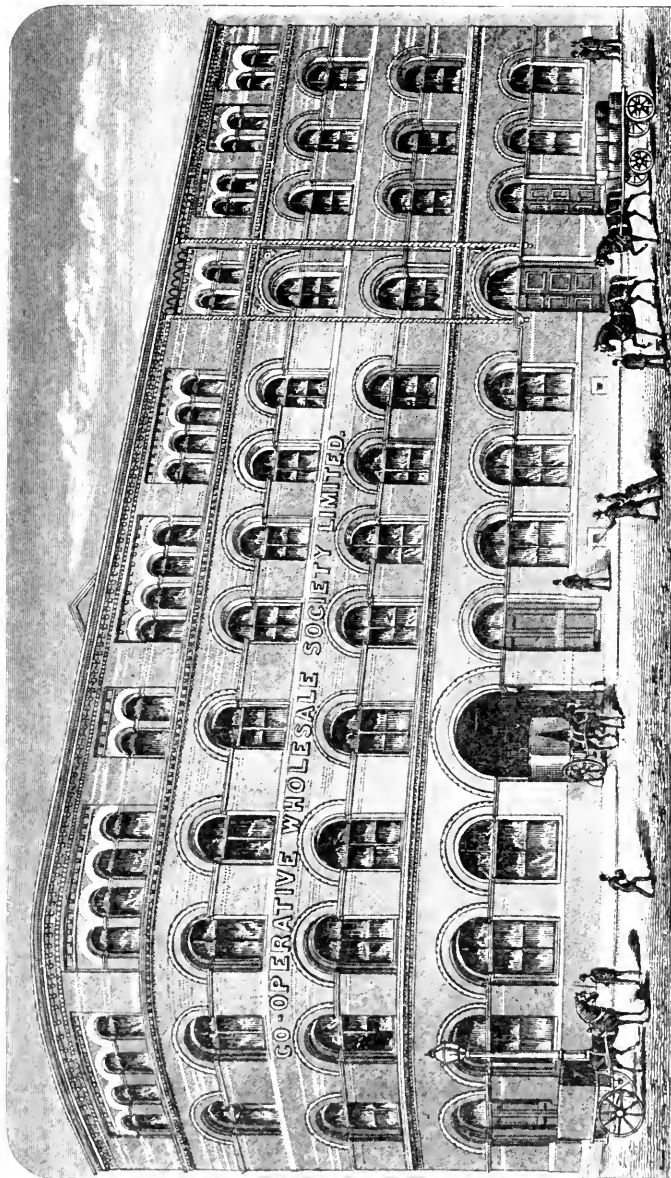


PLAN OF LEEDS,

SHOWING THE MOST DIRECT ROUTE TO THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY'S SALE AND SAMPLE ROOM, FROM THE RAILWAY STATIONS AND PRINCIPAL PLACES.







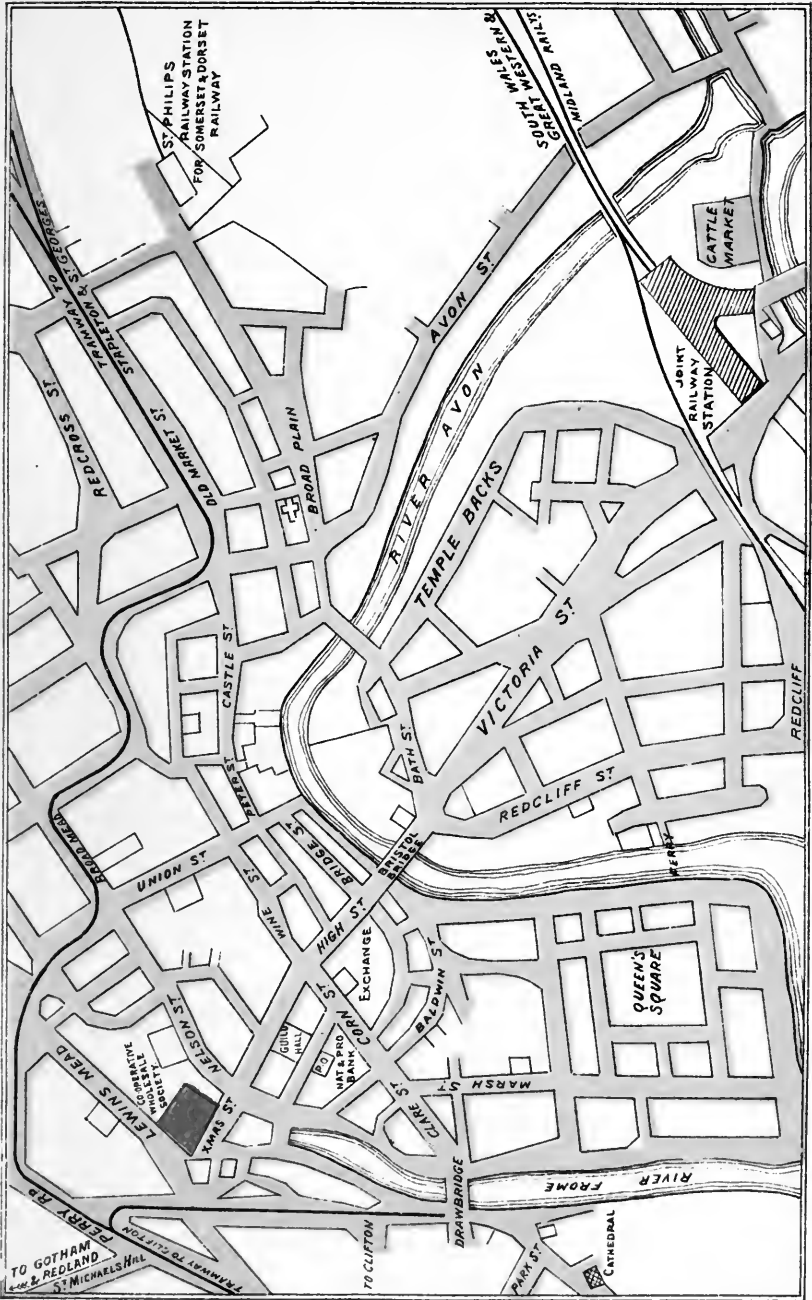
BRISTOL DEPOT,

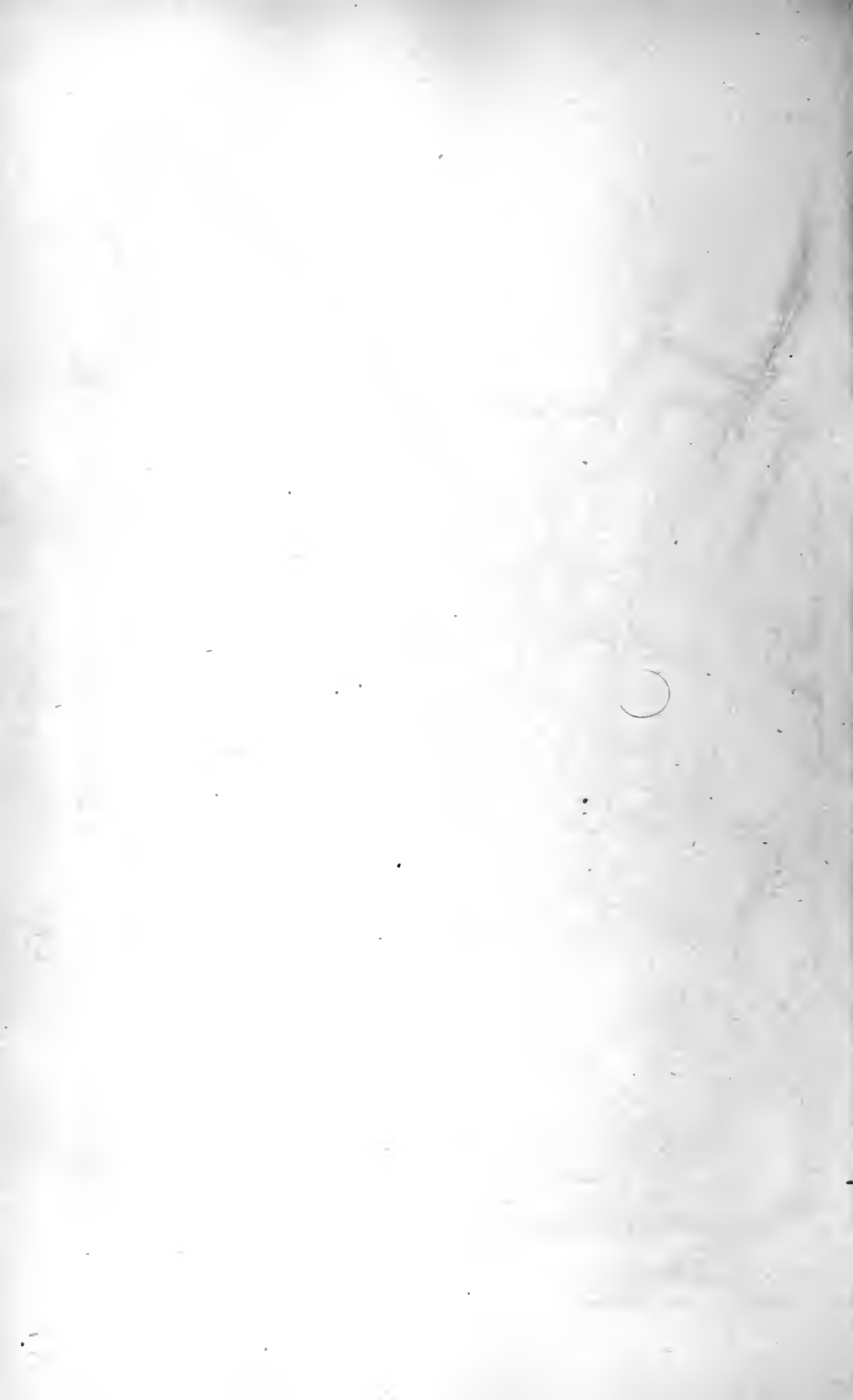
CHRISTMAS STREET.—See page 86.

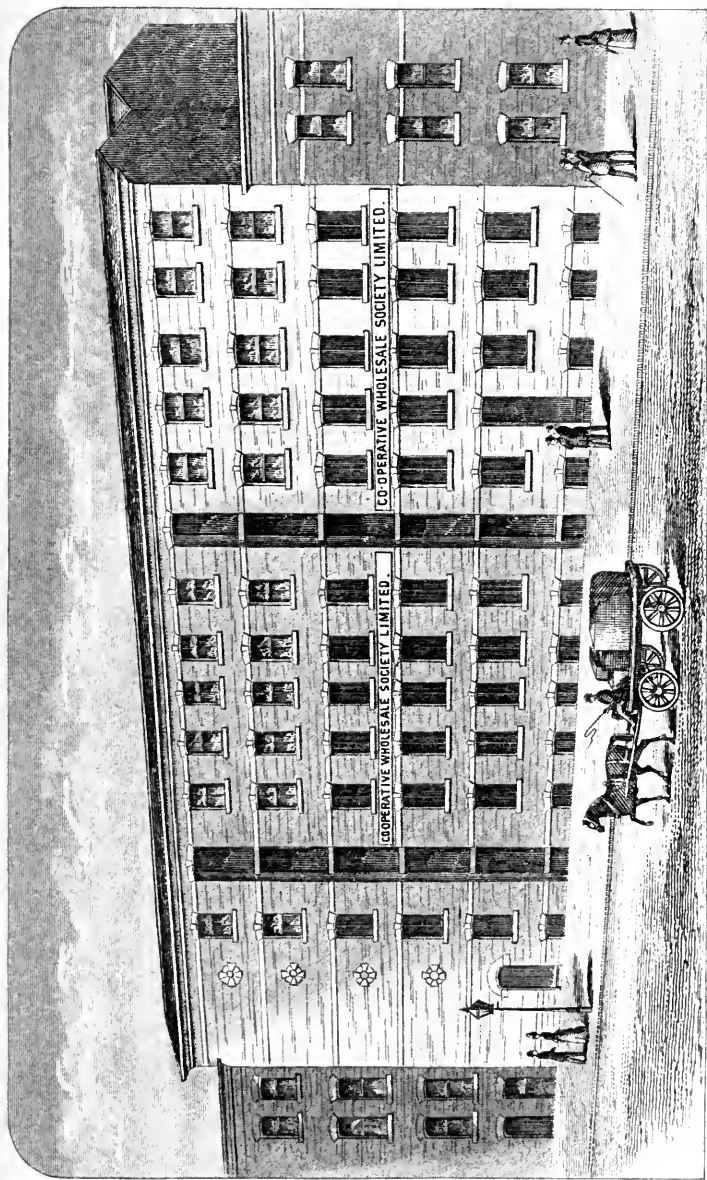


PLAN OF BRISTOL,

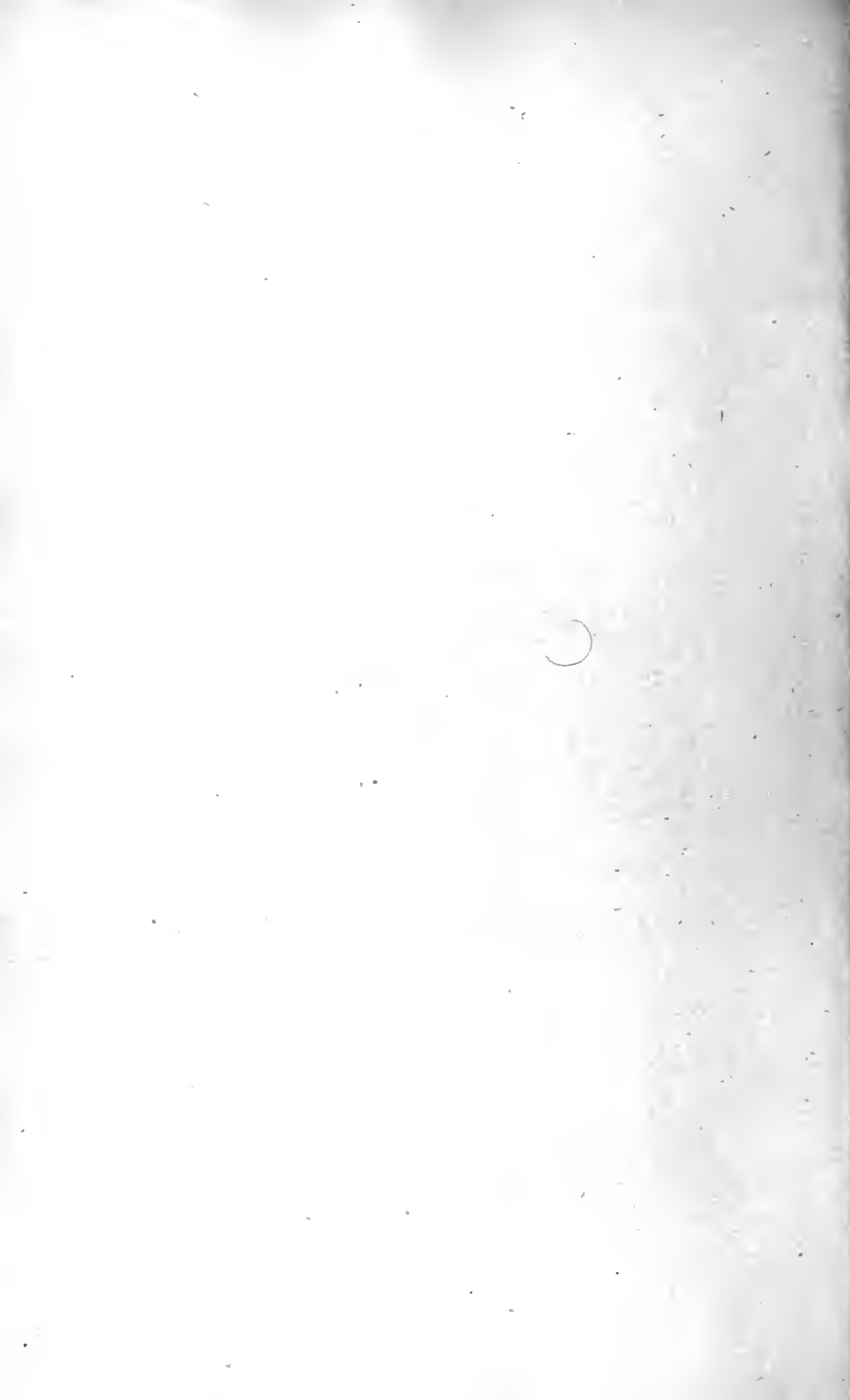
SHOWING THE MOST DIRECT ROUTE TO THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY'S BRISTOL DEPÔT, FROM THE RAILWAY STATIONS AND PRINCIPAL PLACES.

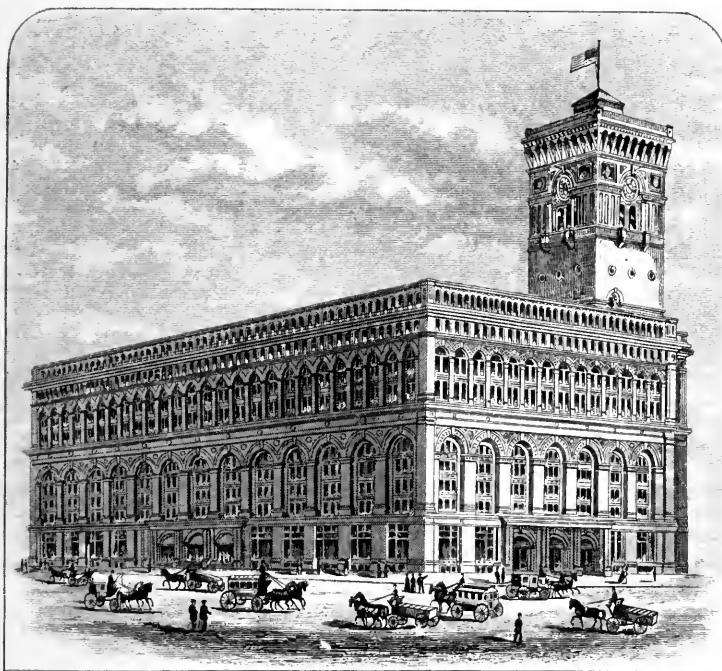




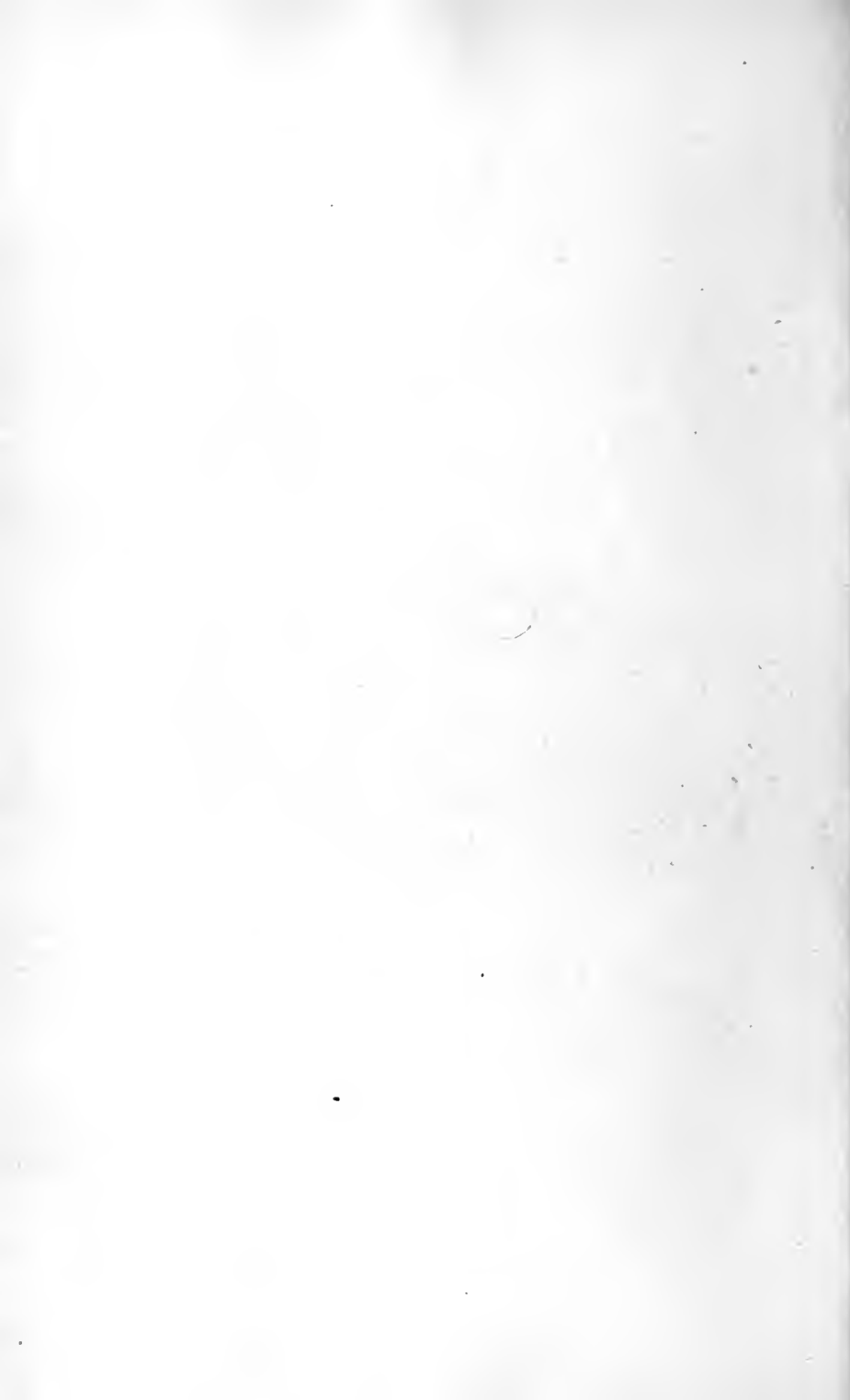


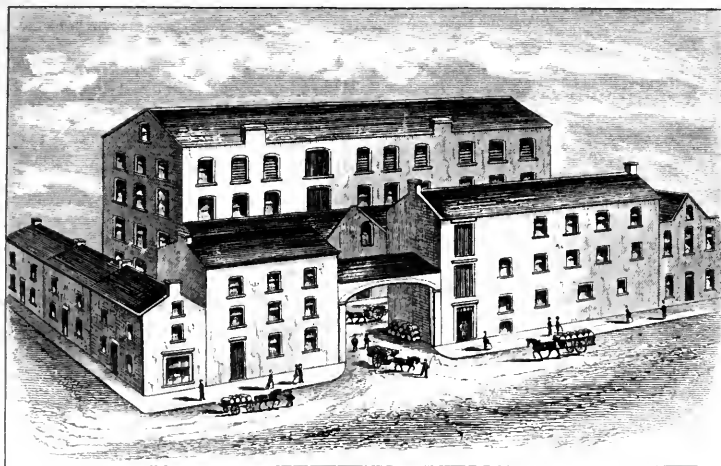
LIVERPOOL OFFICES AND WAREHOUSE,
TEMPLE LANE.



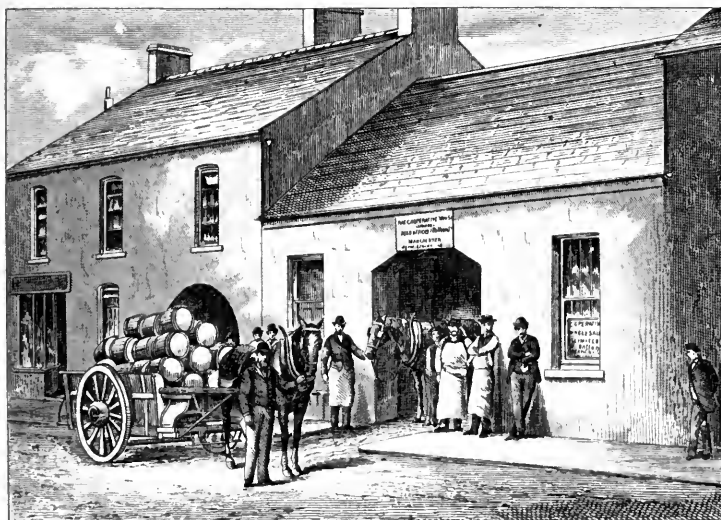


NEW YORK PRODUCE EXCHANGE, BROADWAY, NEW YORK,
IN WHICH THE SOCIETY'S OFFICES ARE SITUATE.

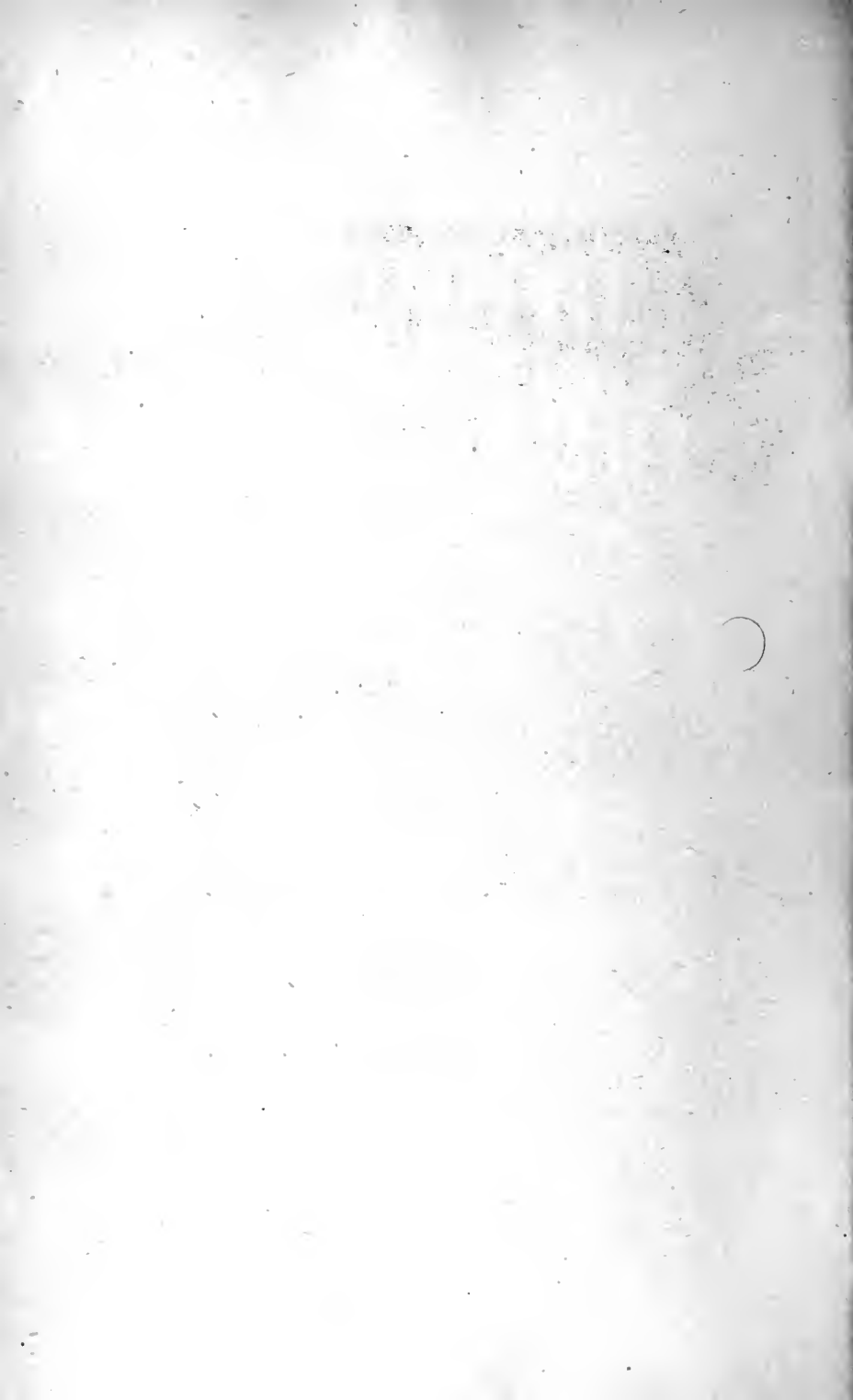


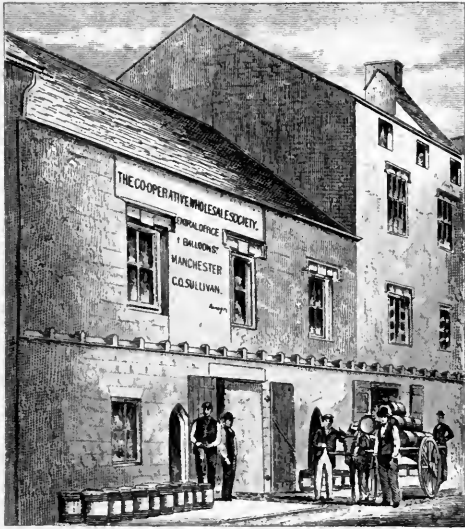


CORK BRANCH,
JOHN STREET, CORK, IRELAND.

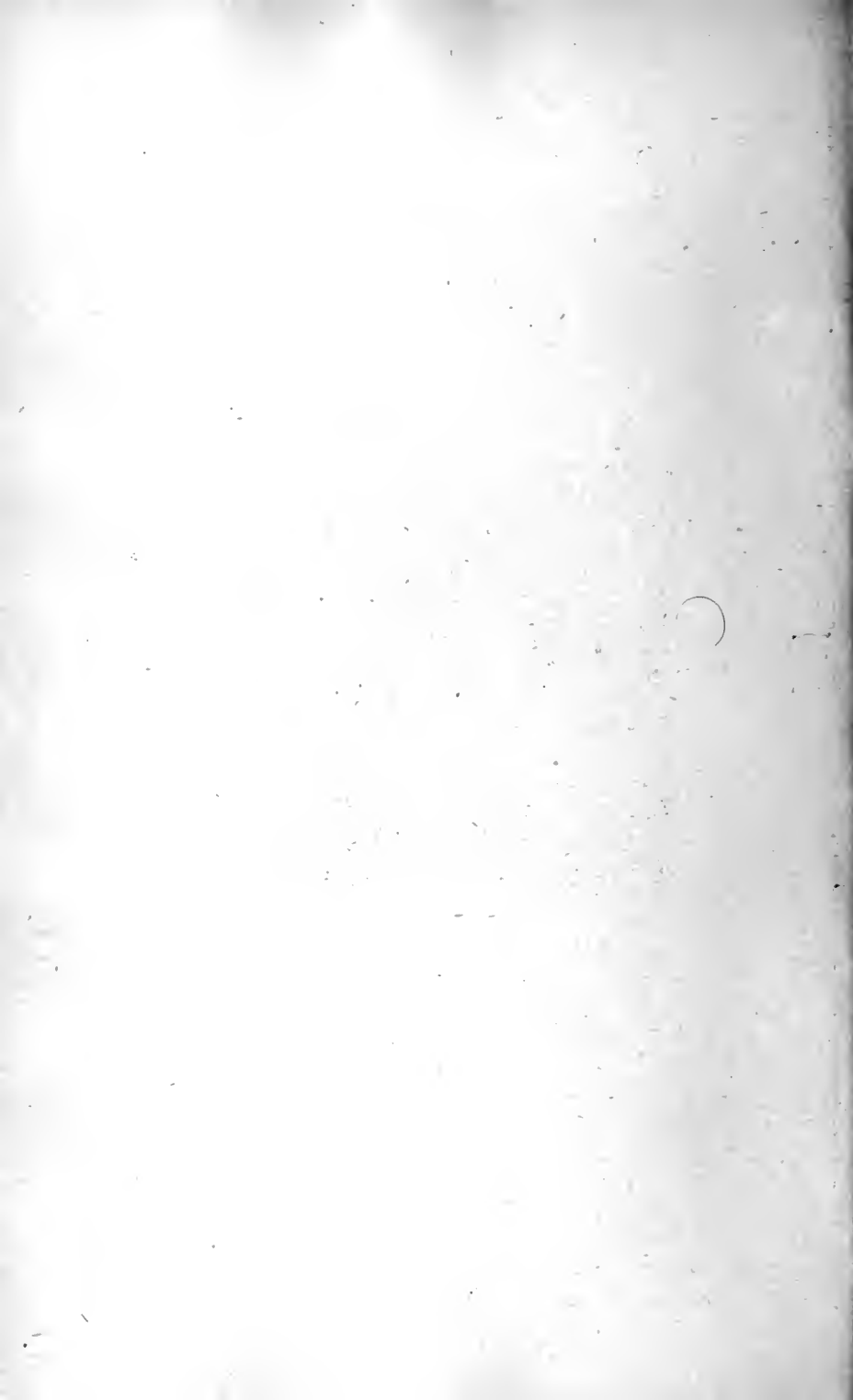


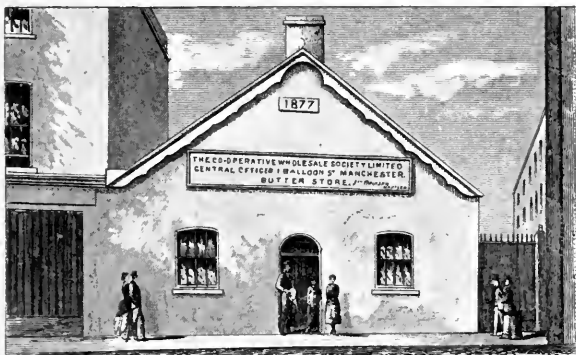
LIMERICK BRANCH,
MULGRAVE STREET, LIMERICK, IRELAND.



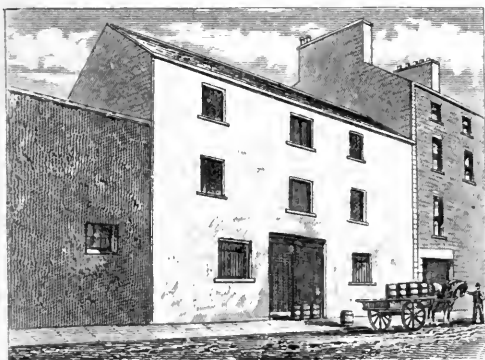


KILMALLOCK BRANCH,
KILMALLOCK, IRELAND.



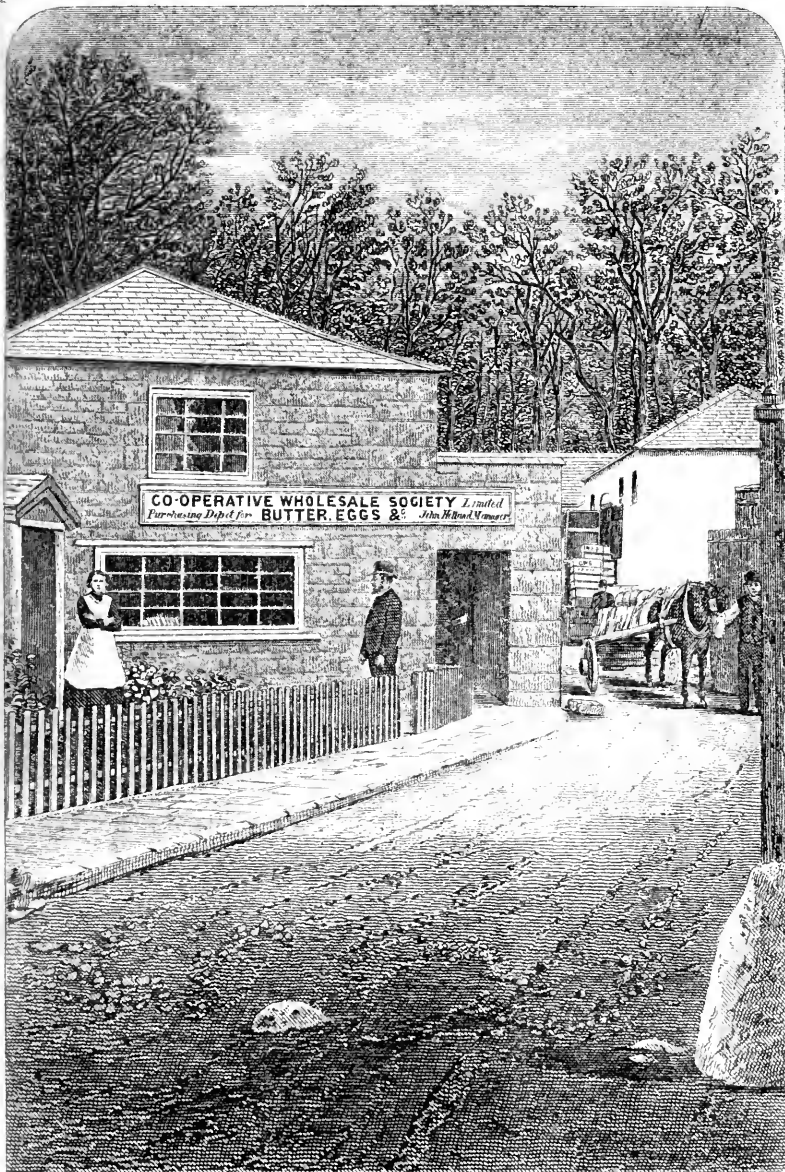


TRALEE BRANCH,
TRALEE, IRELAND.

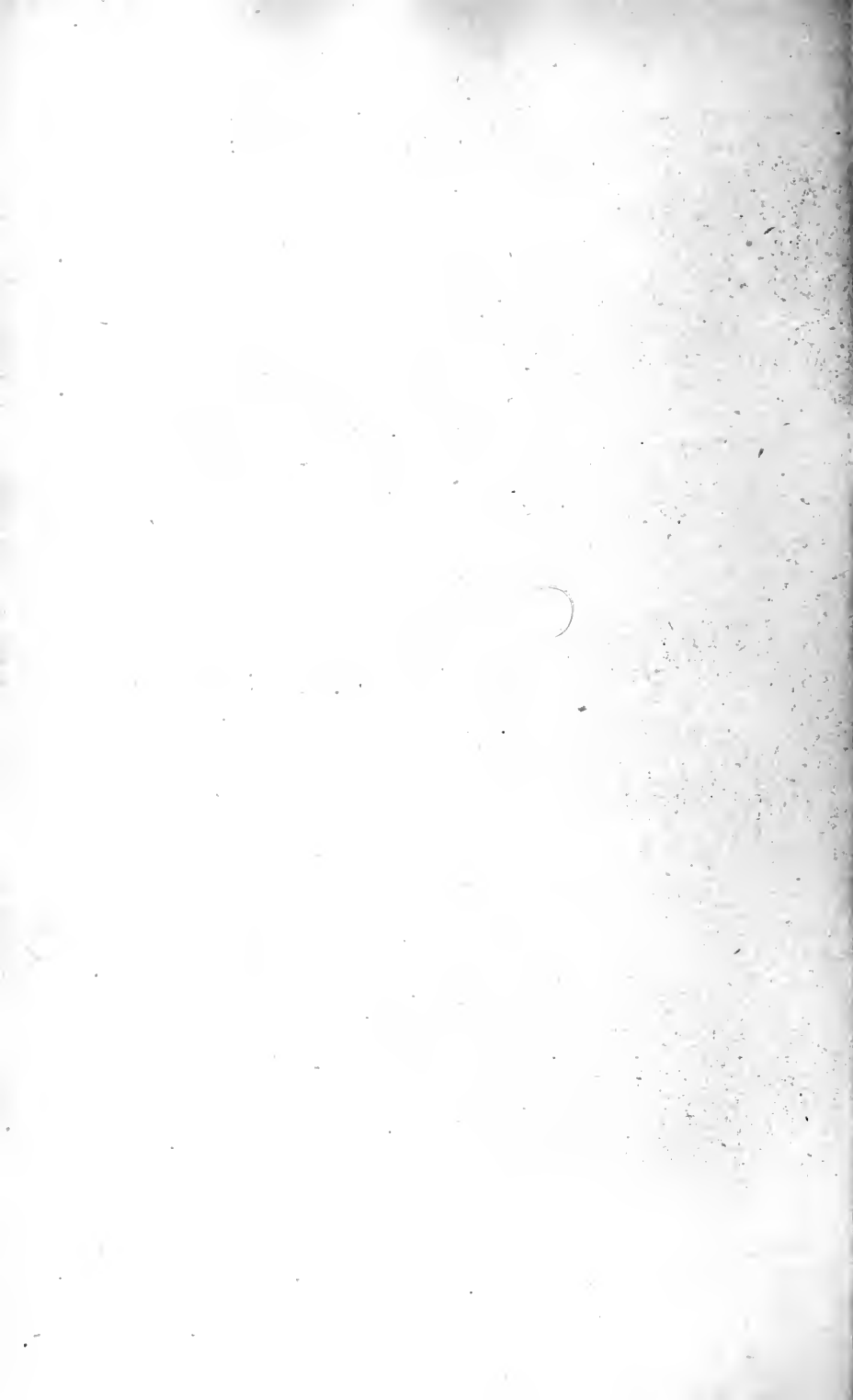


WATERFORD BRANCH.





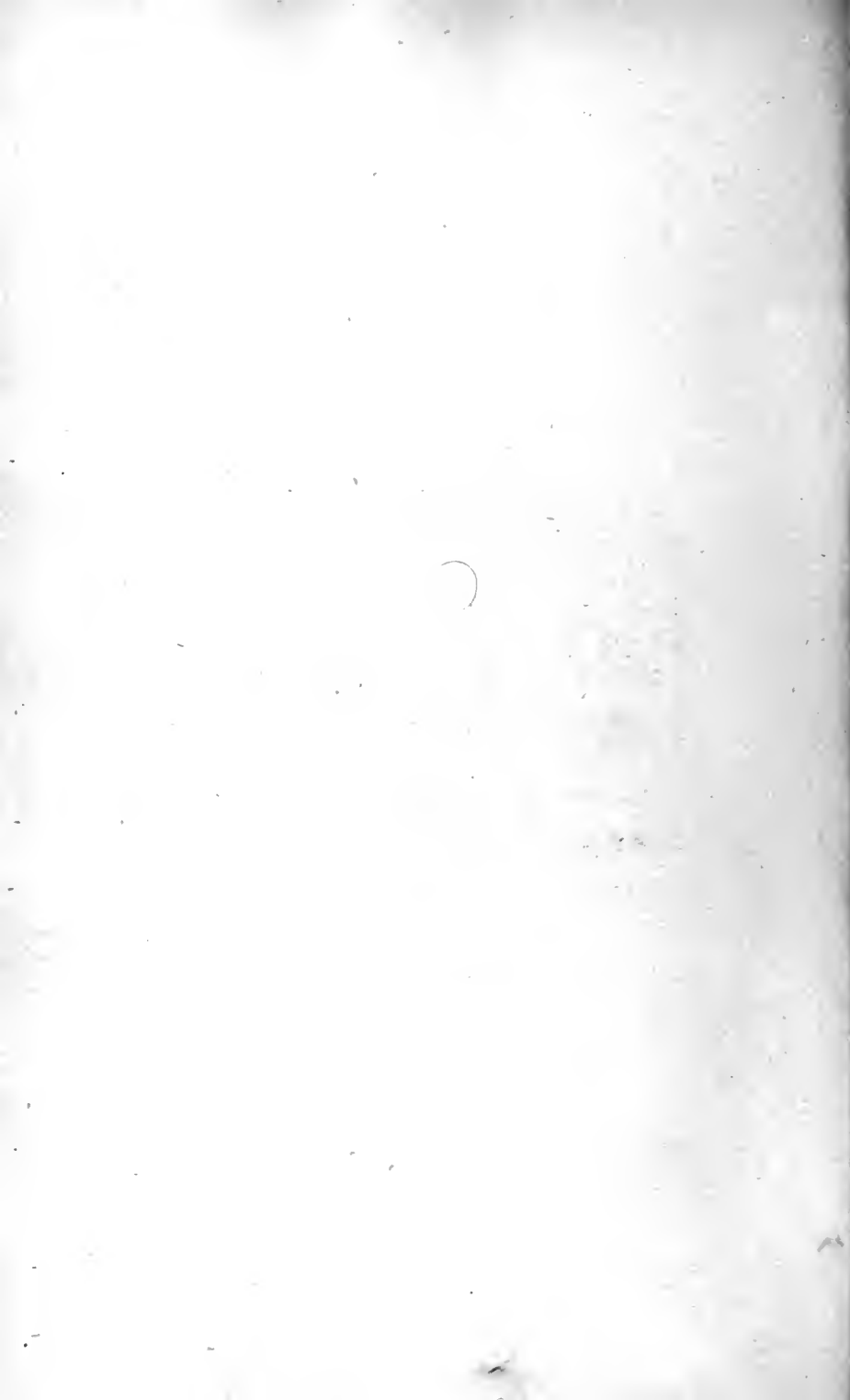
ARMAGH BRANCH.

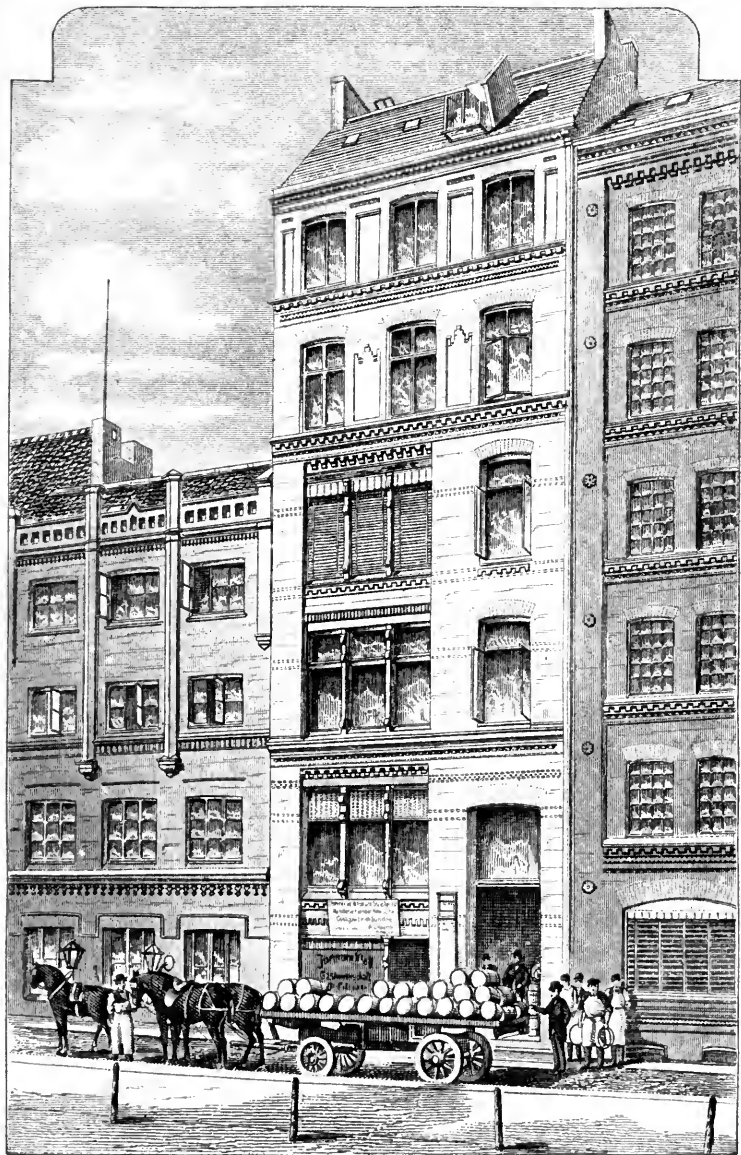




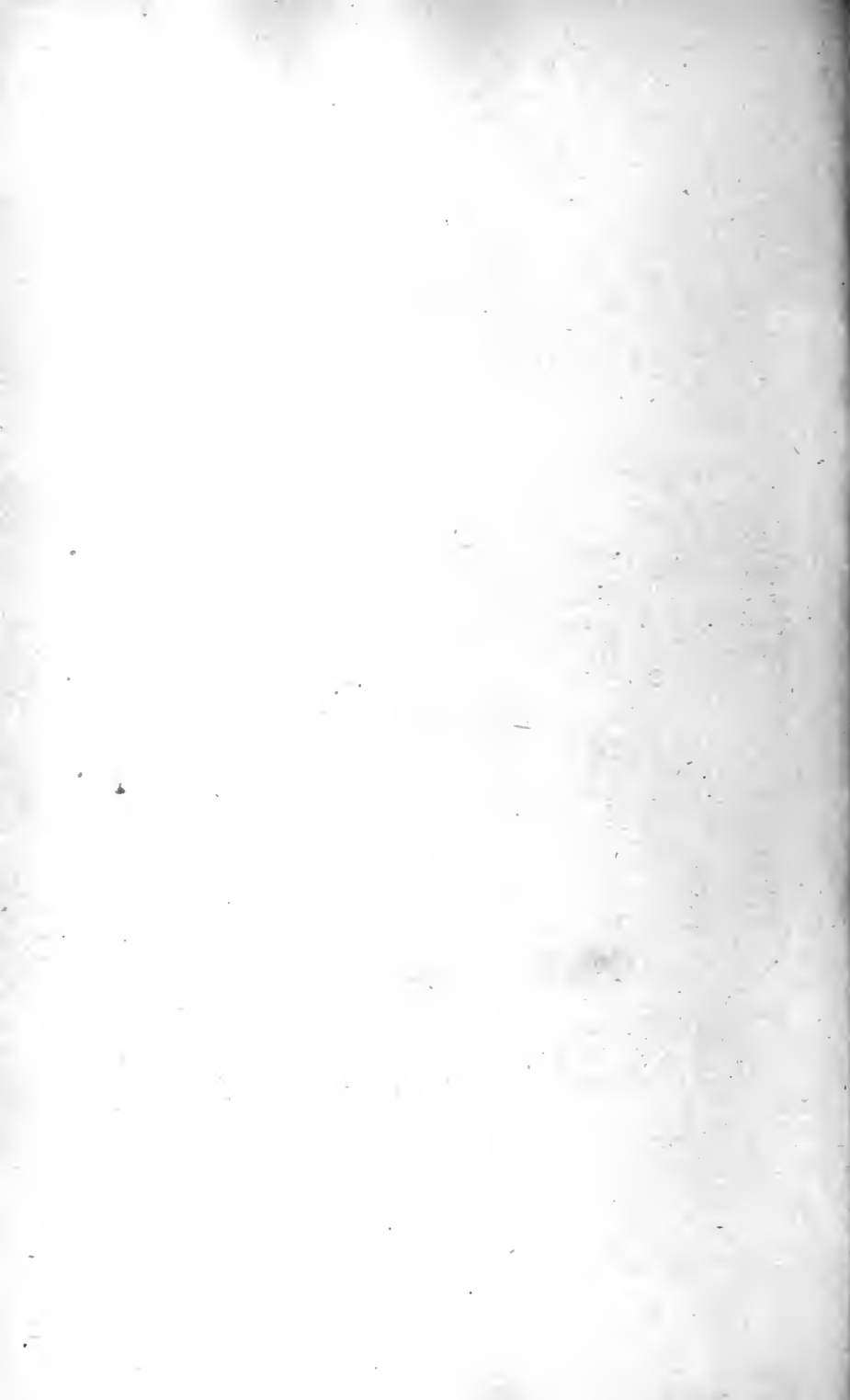
COPENHAGEN BRANCH,

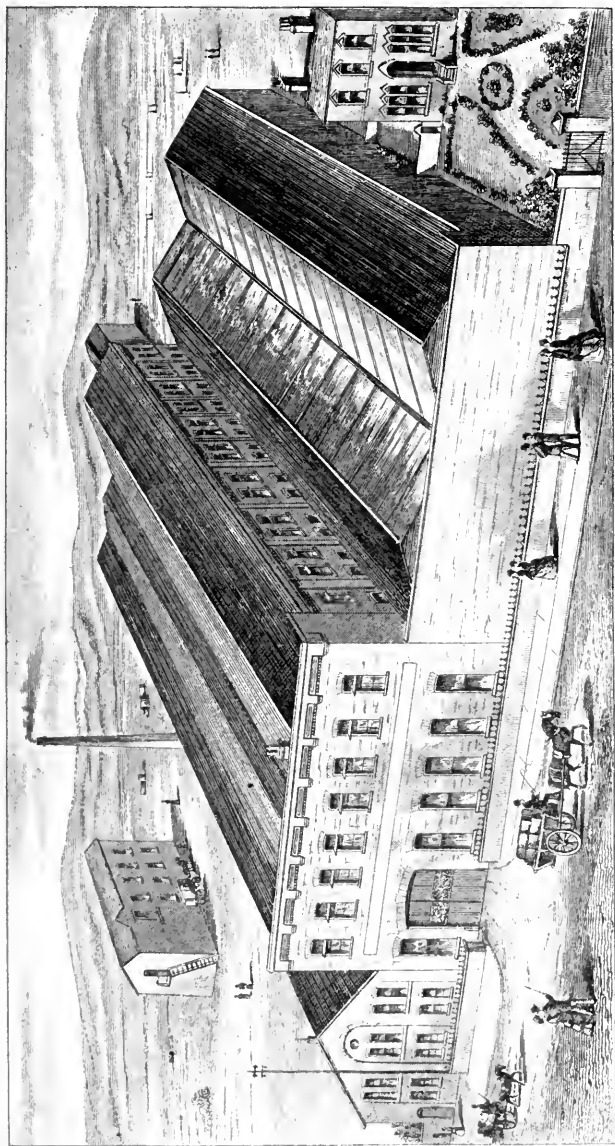
HAVNEGADE, 89.





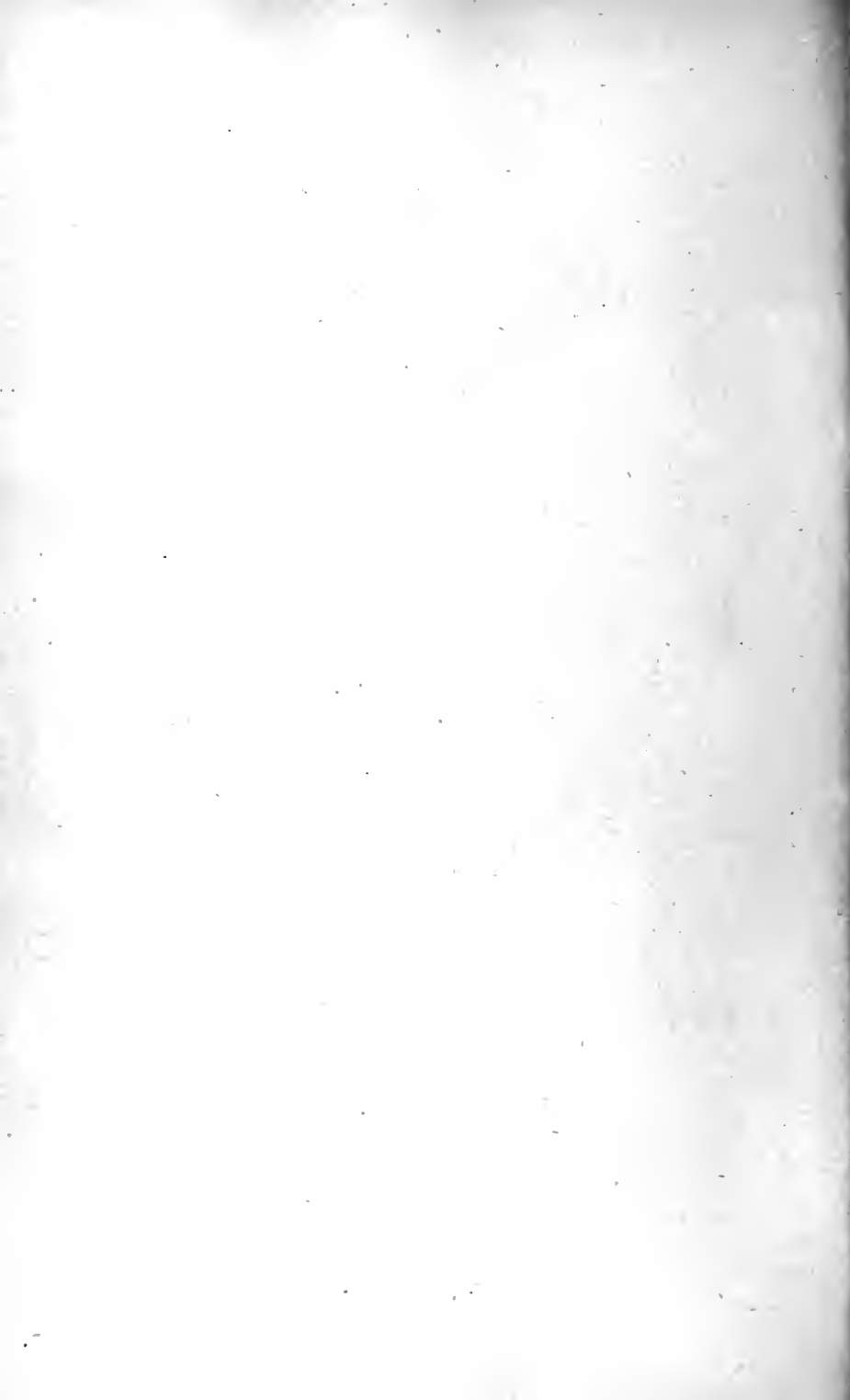
HAMBURG BRANCH,
88, THEERHOF.

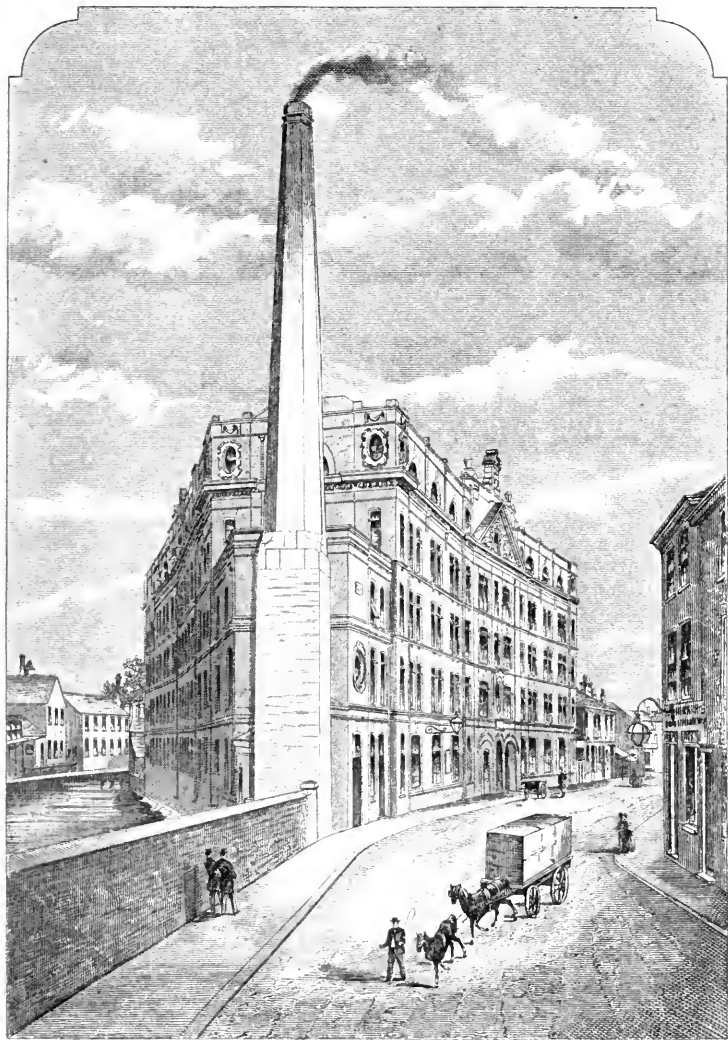




CRUMPSALL BISCUITS AND SWEETS AND DRY AND SOFT SOAP WORKS,

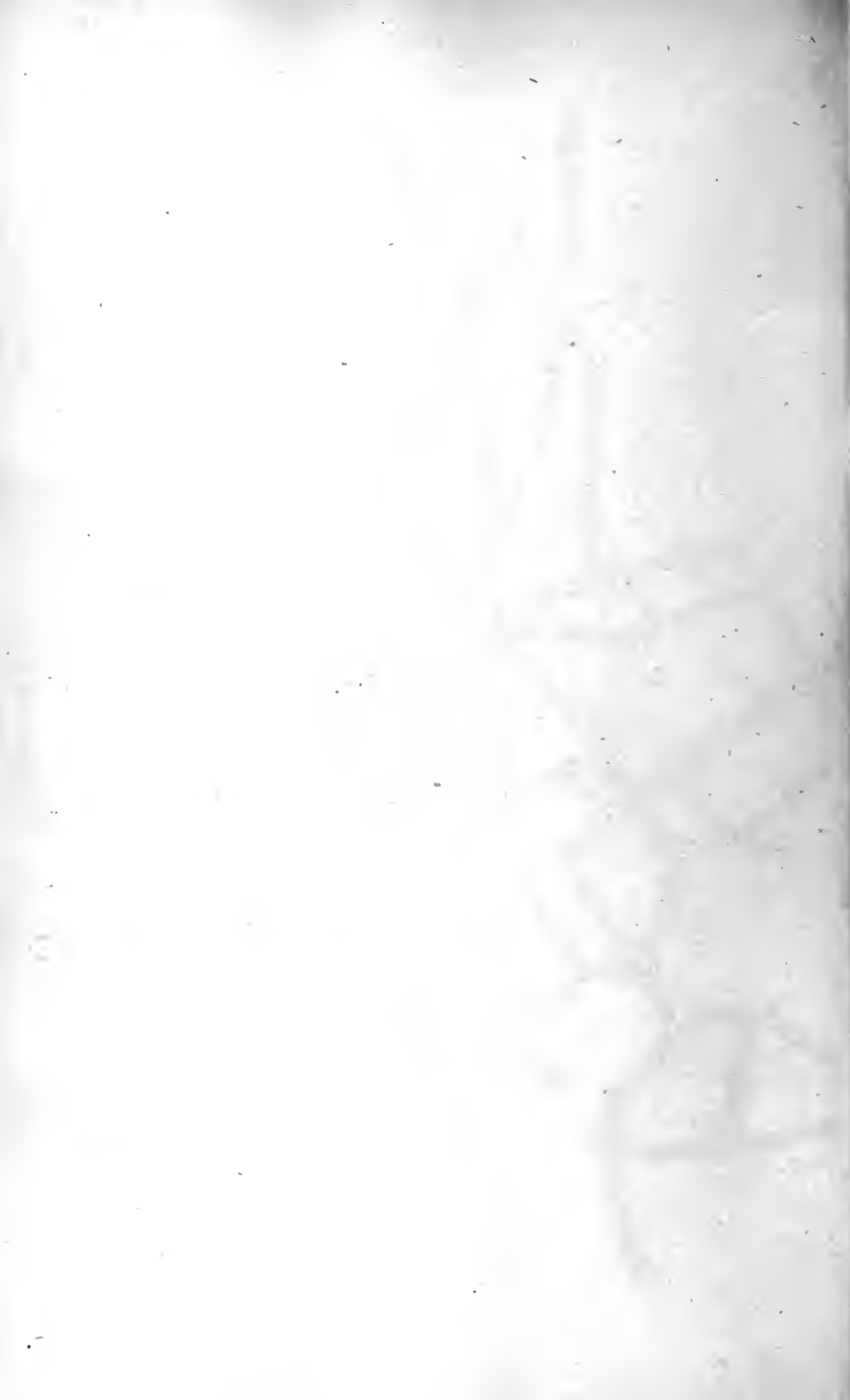
LOWER CRUMPSALL, NEAR MANCHESTER.—*See pages 25-6, 86, 98, and 111.*





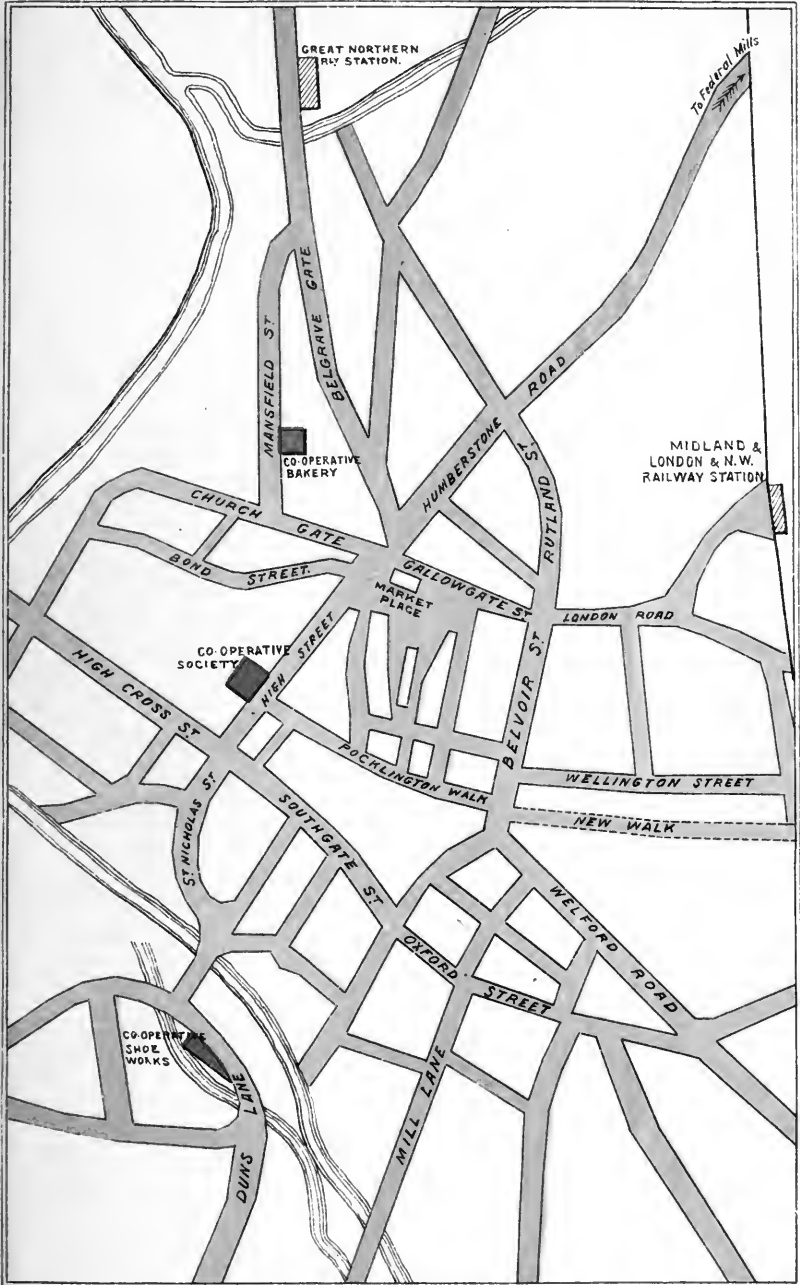
LEICESTER BOOT AND SHOE WORKS.

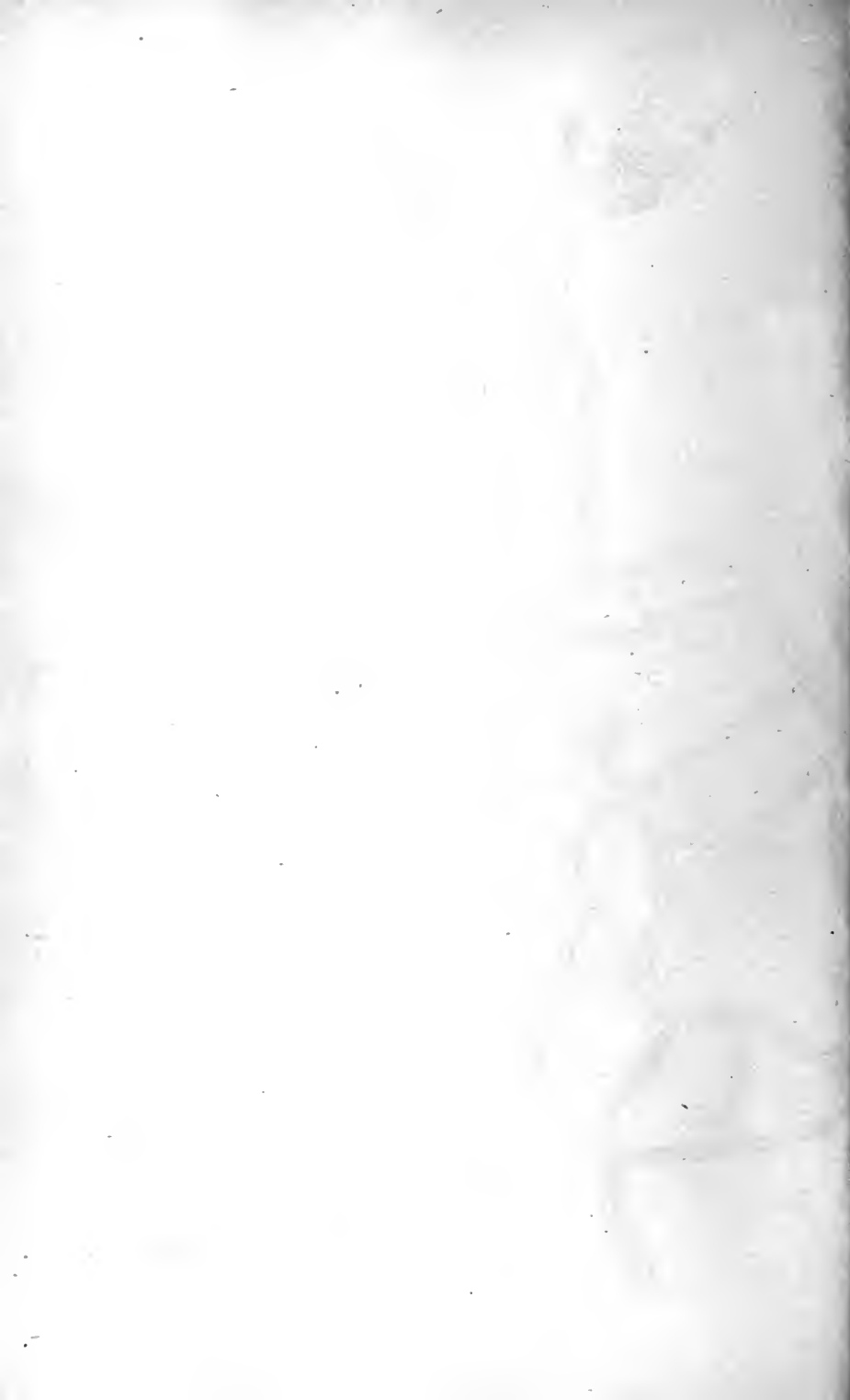
See pages 31, 86, 100, and 112.

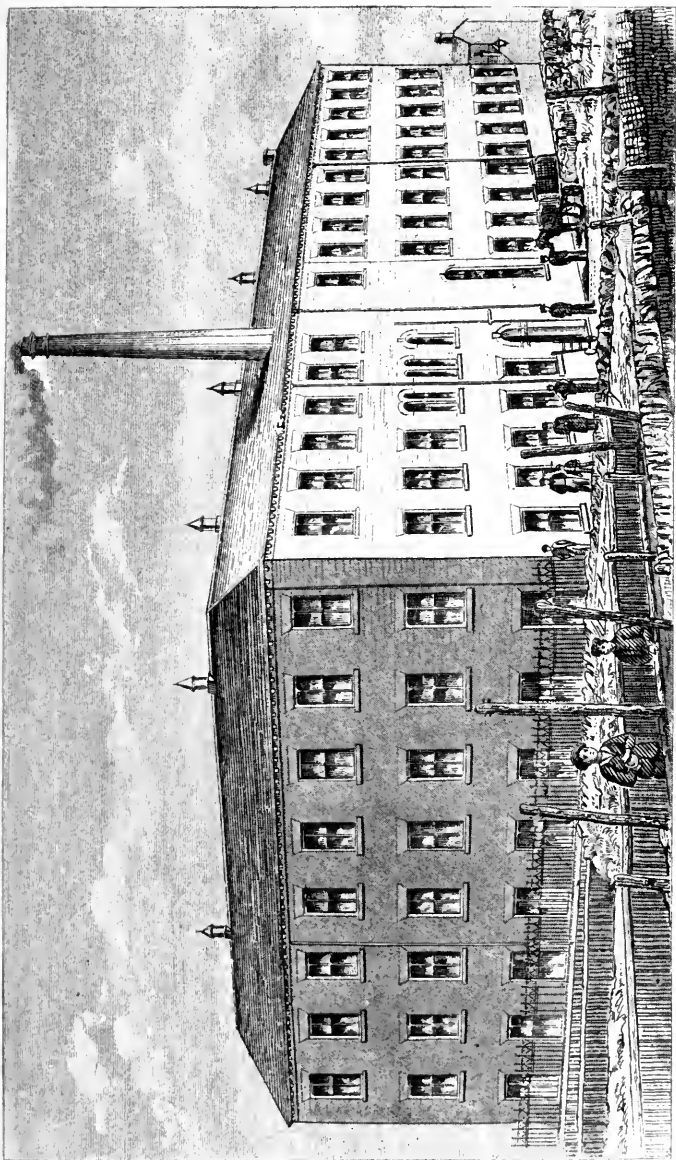


PLAN OF LEICESTER,

SHOWING THE MOST DIRECT ROUTE TO THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY'S BOOT AND SHOE WORKS, FROM THE RAILWAY STATIONS AND PRINCIPAL PLACES,

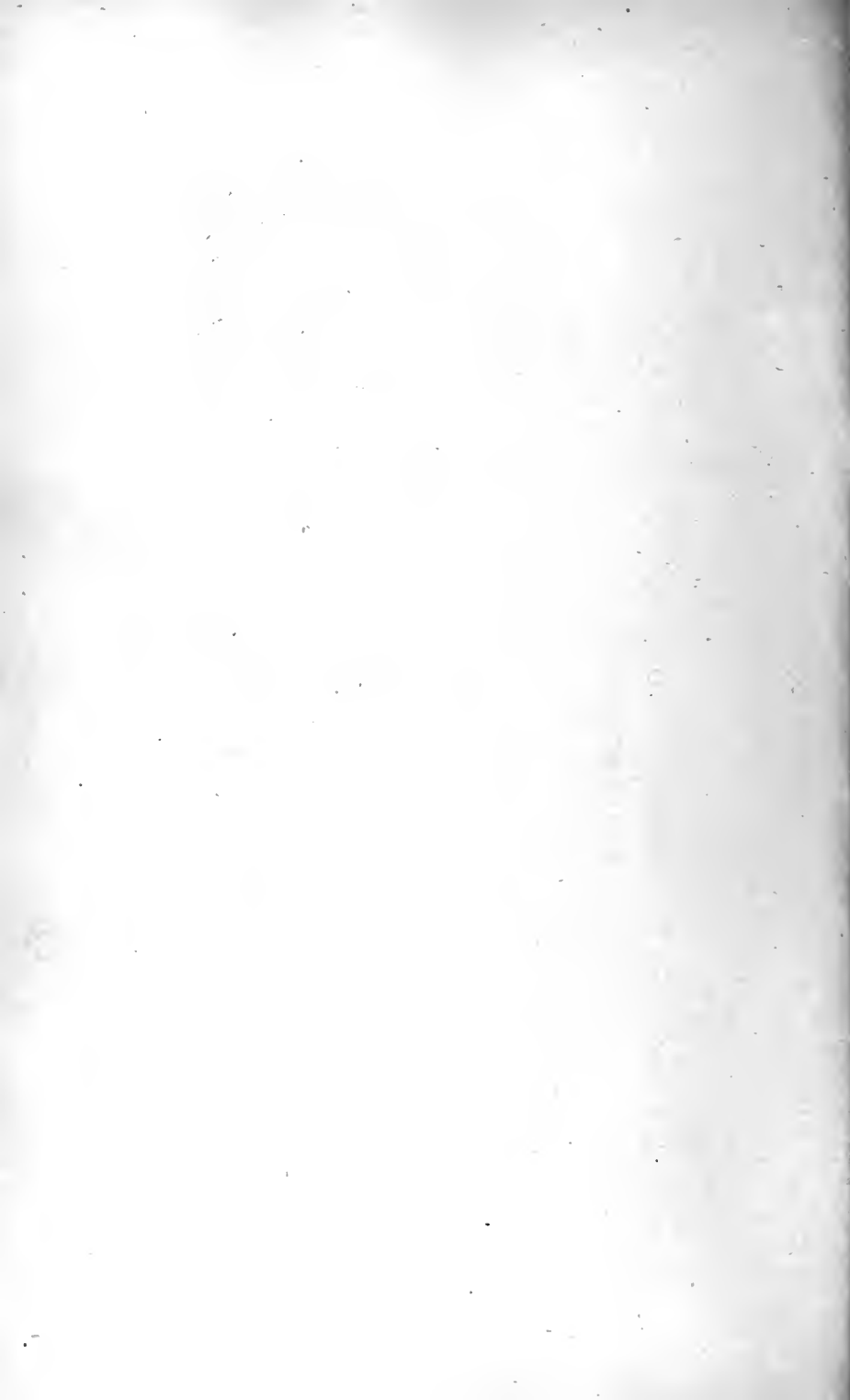


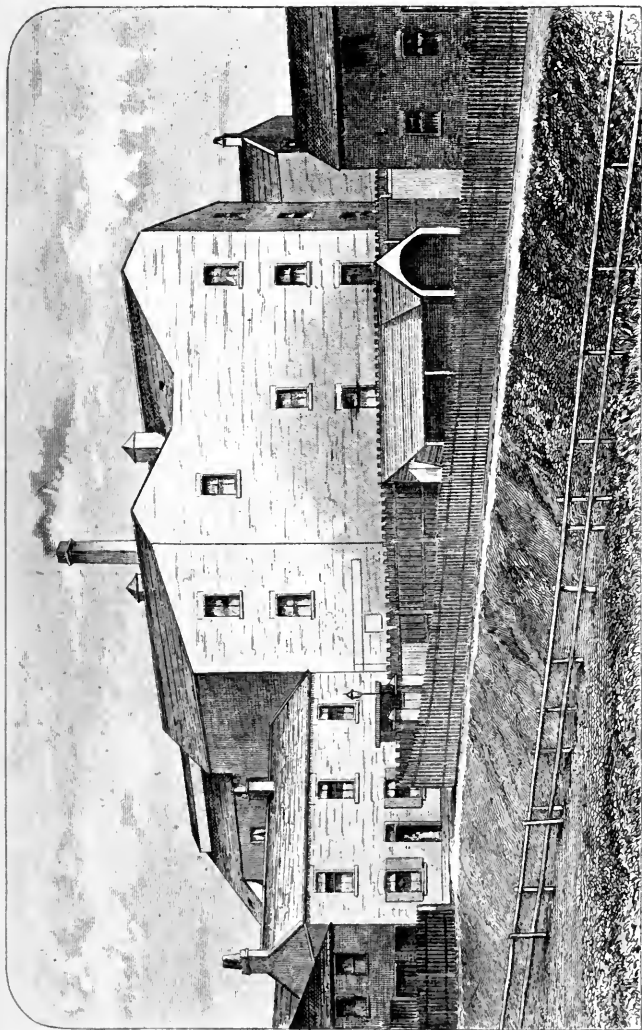




HECKMONDWIKE BOOT AND SHOE WORKS.

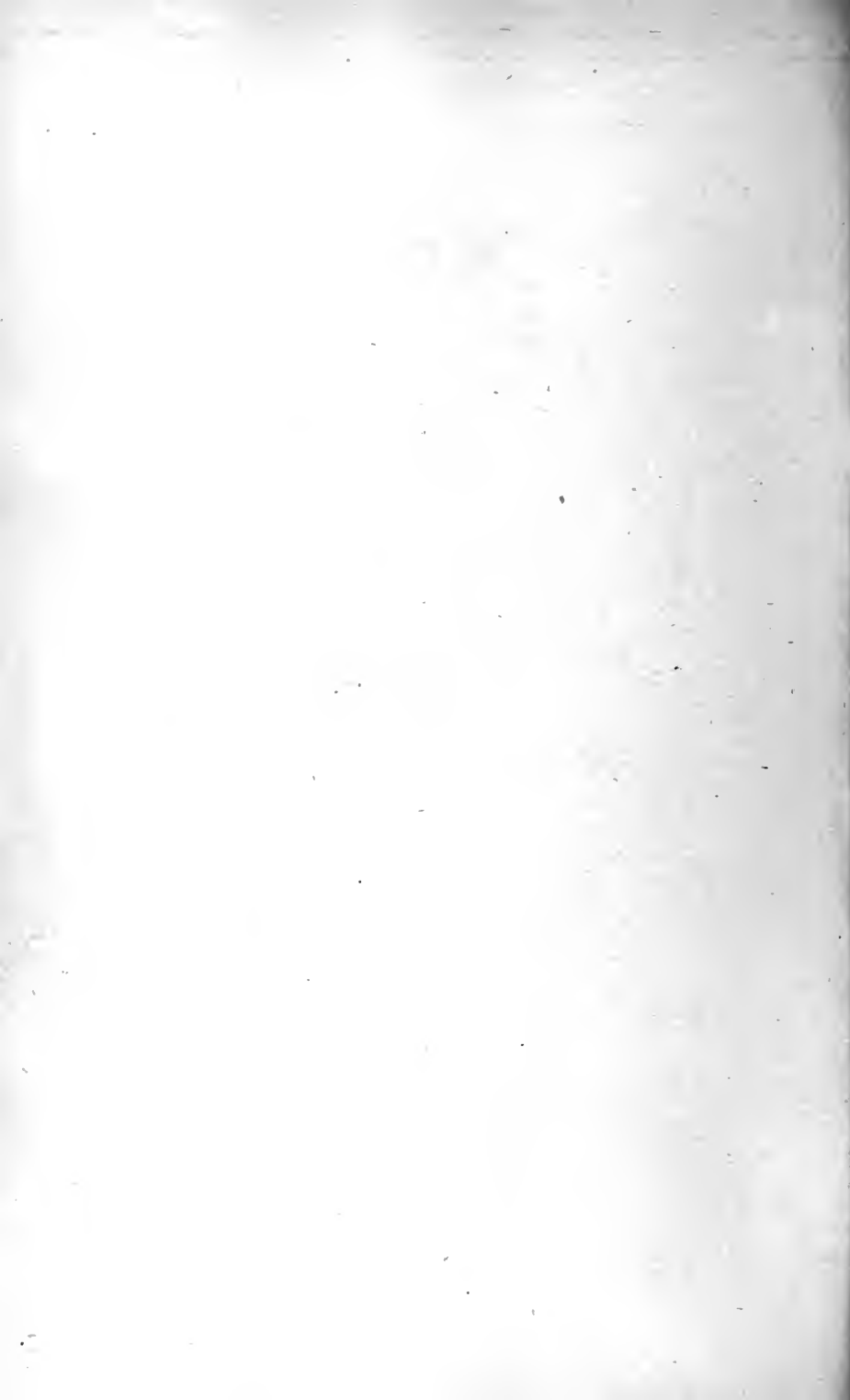
See pages 82, 86, 99, and 113.

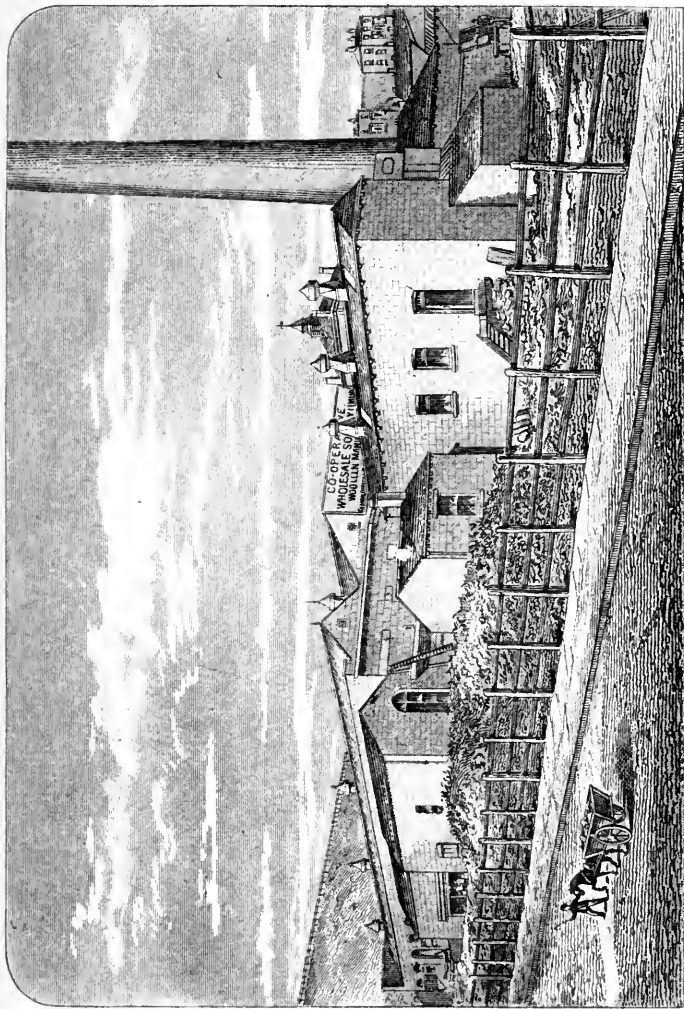




DURHAM SOAP WORKS.

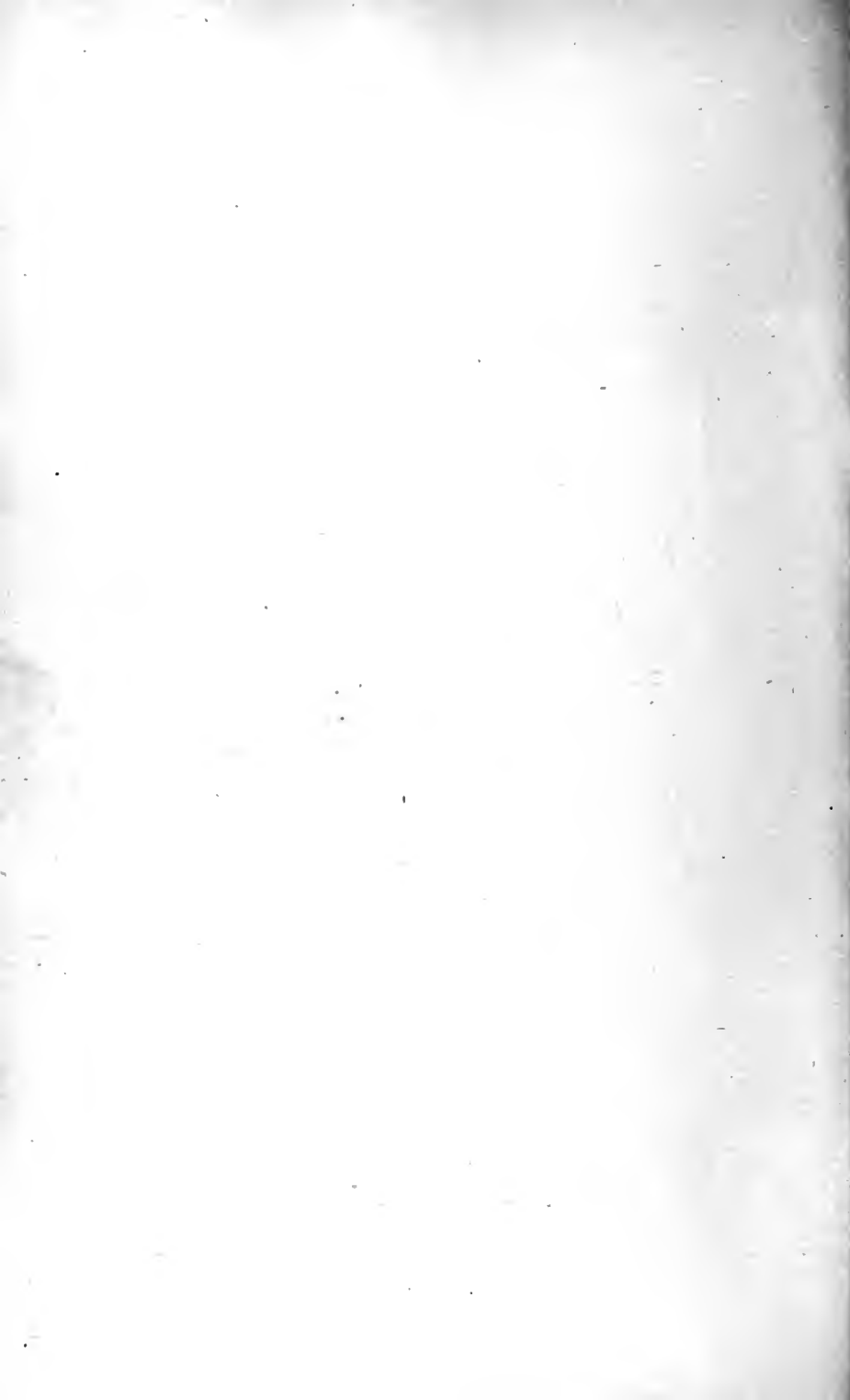
See pages 33, 86, 102, and 112.

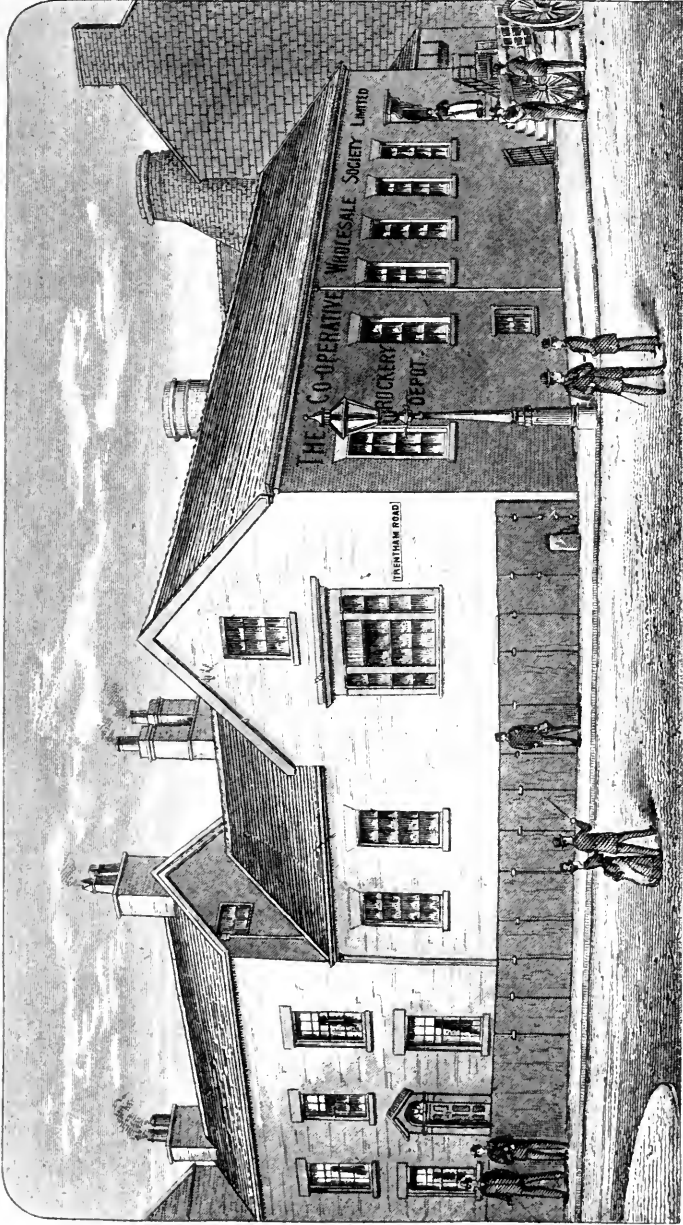




BATLEY WOOLLEN CLOTH WORKS.

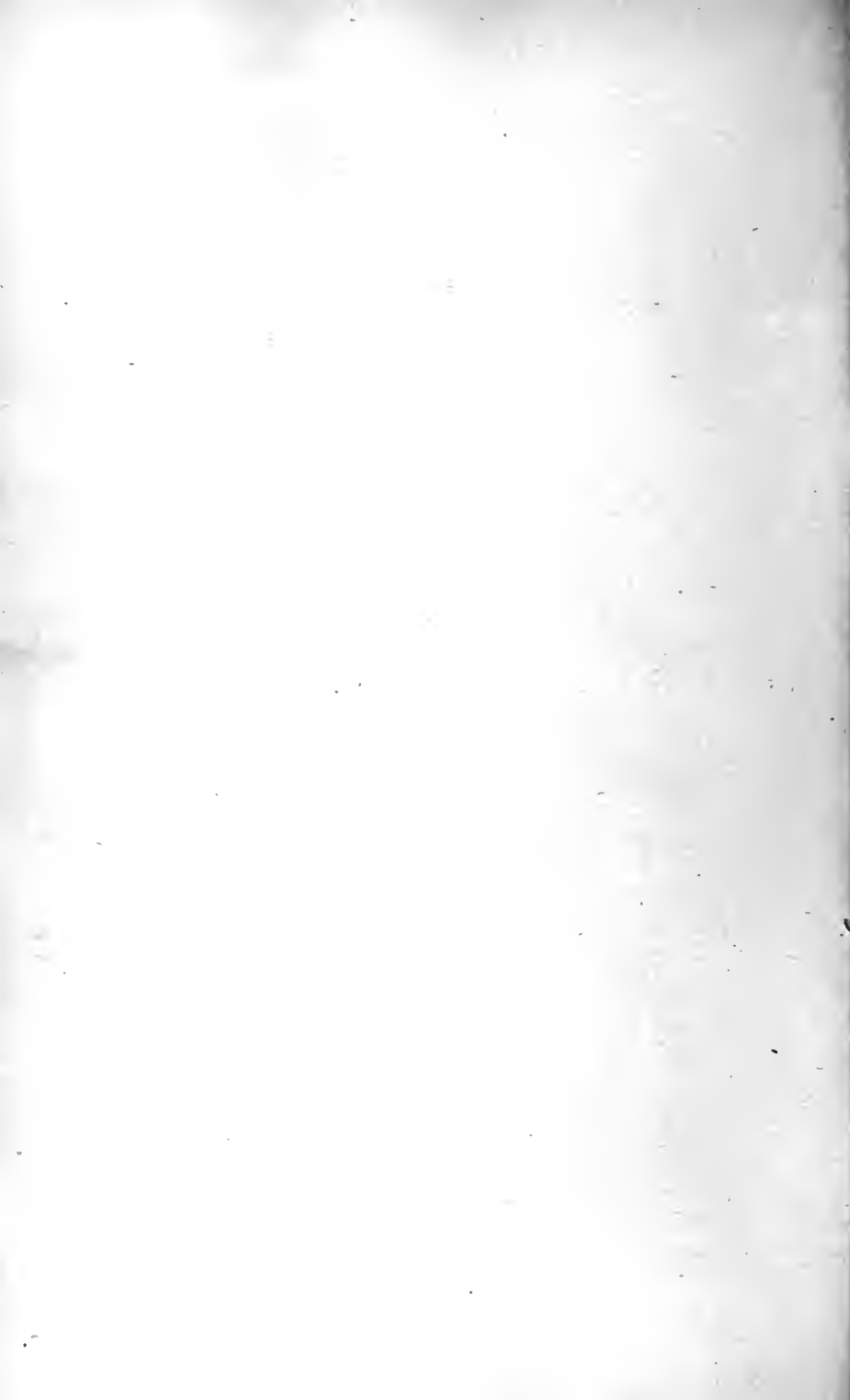
See pages 34, 86, and 104.





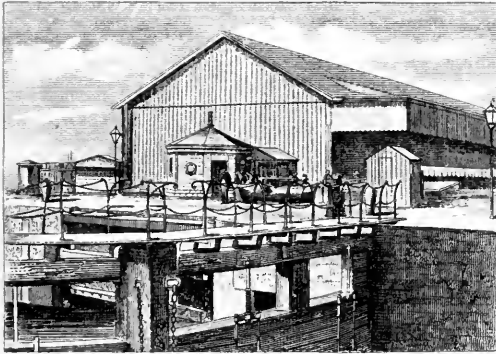
LONGTON CROCKERY DEPOT.

See pages 90 and 105.





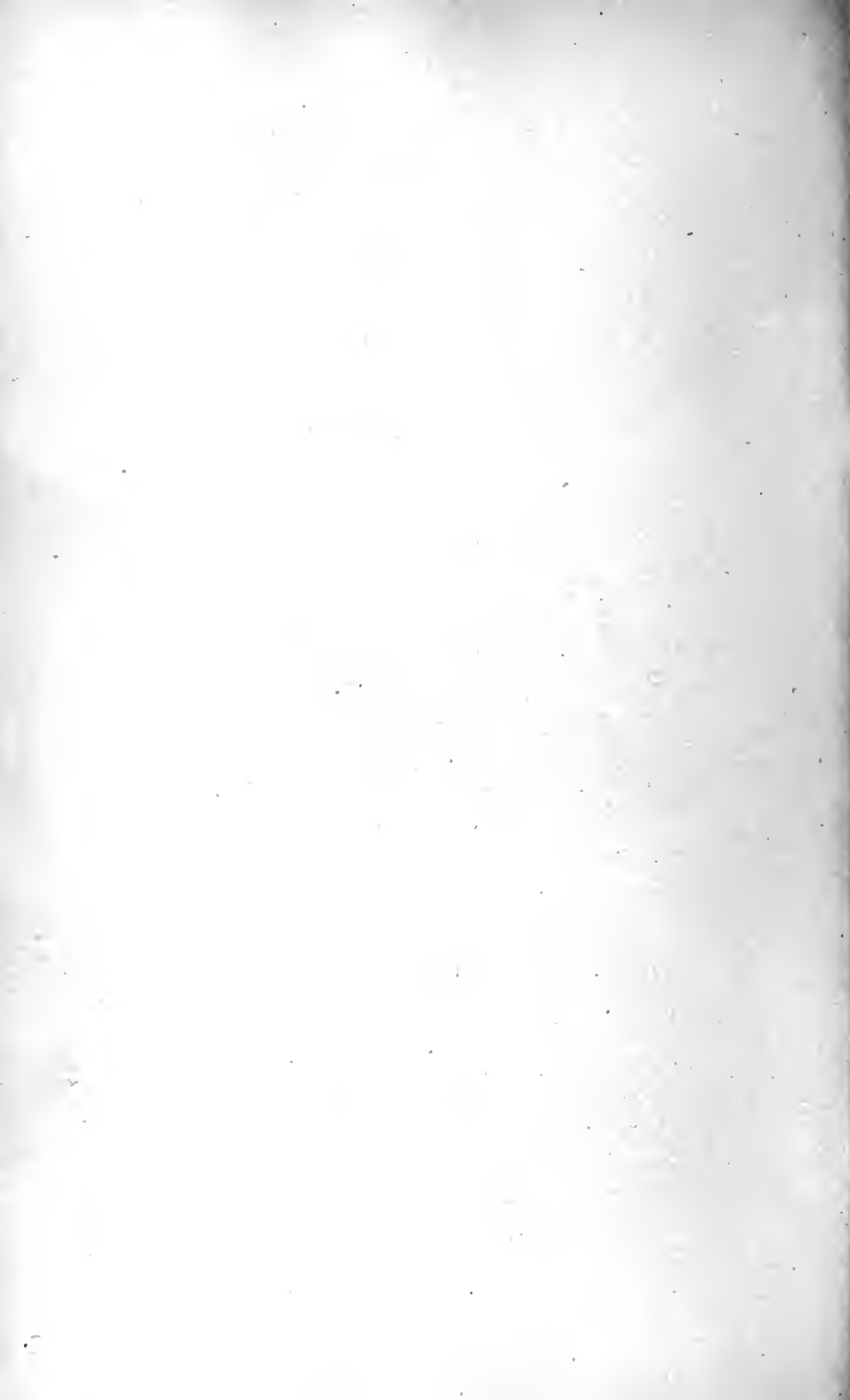
GOOLE OFFICES.



GARSTON OFFICES,
WEST SIDE, NEW DOCK, GARSTON, NEAR LIVERPOOL.

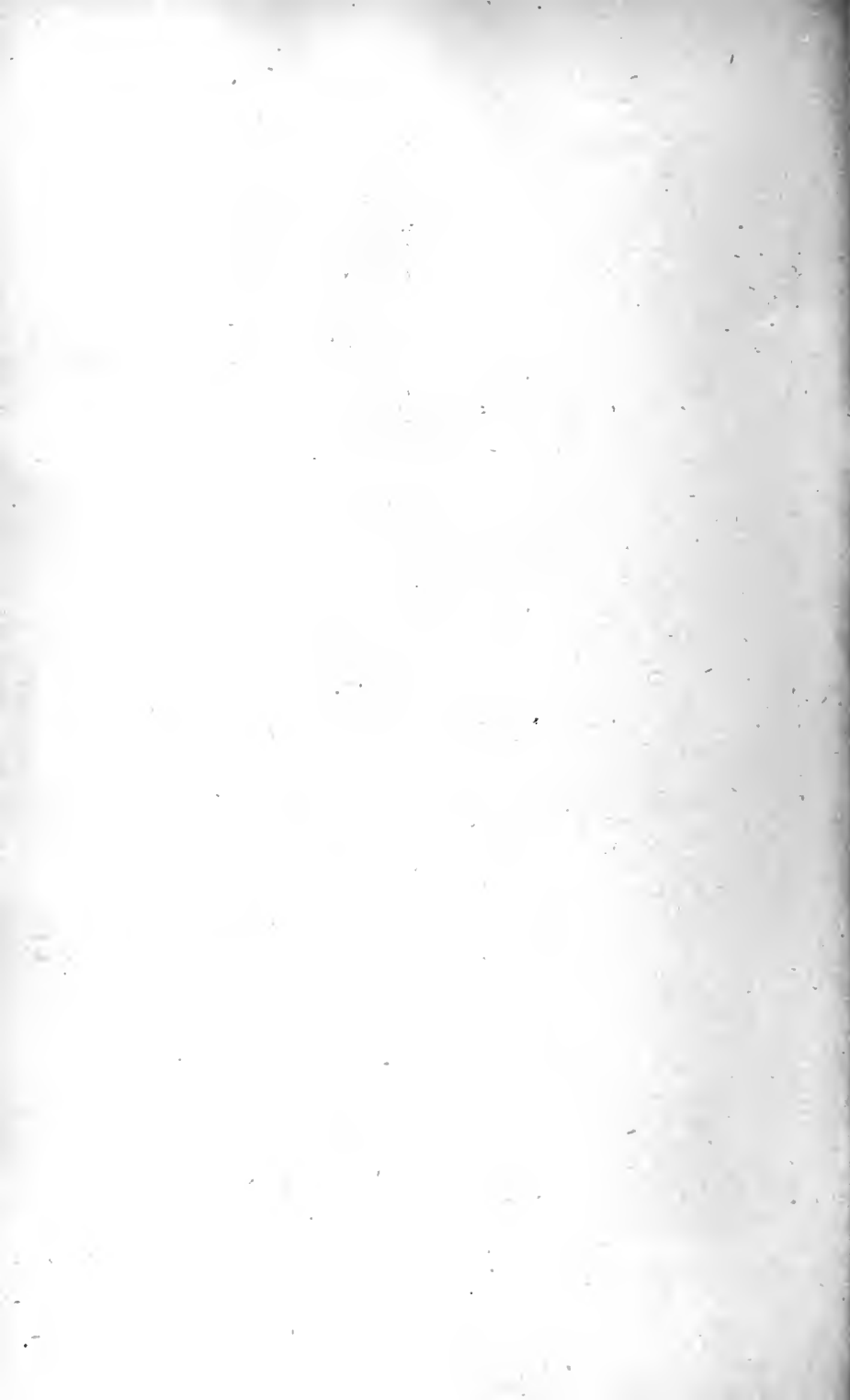


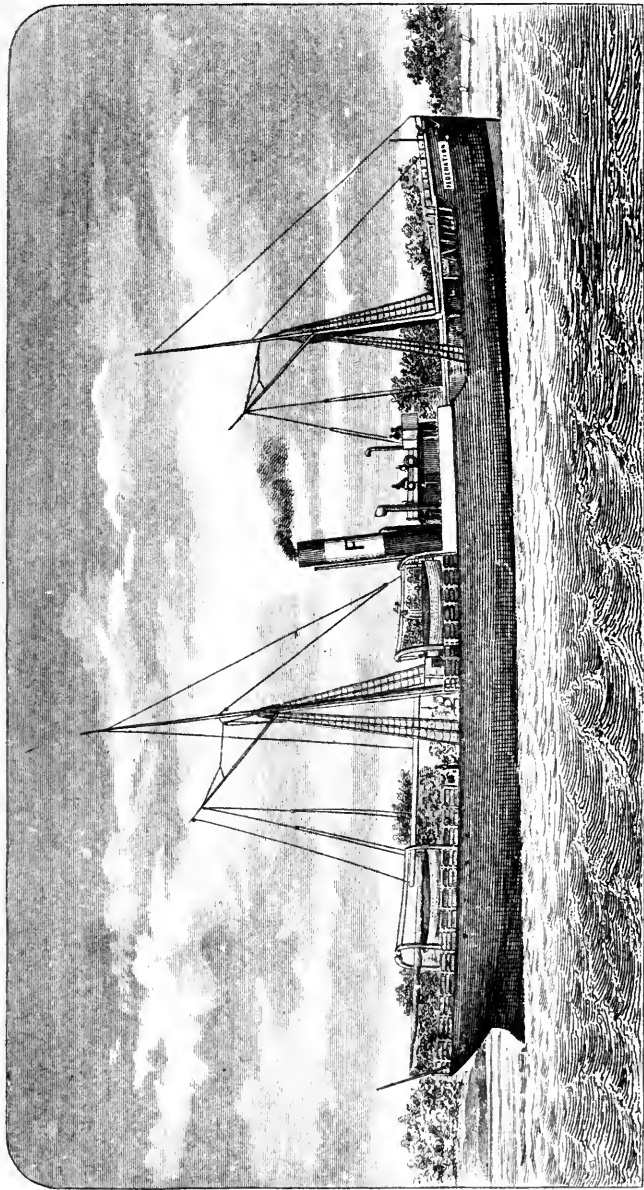
ROUEN OFFICES,
2, RUE JEANNE D'ARC, ROUEN, FRANCE.



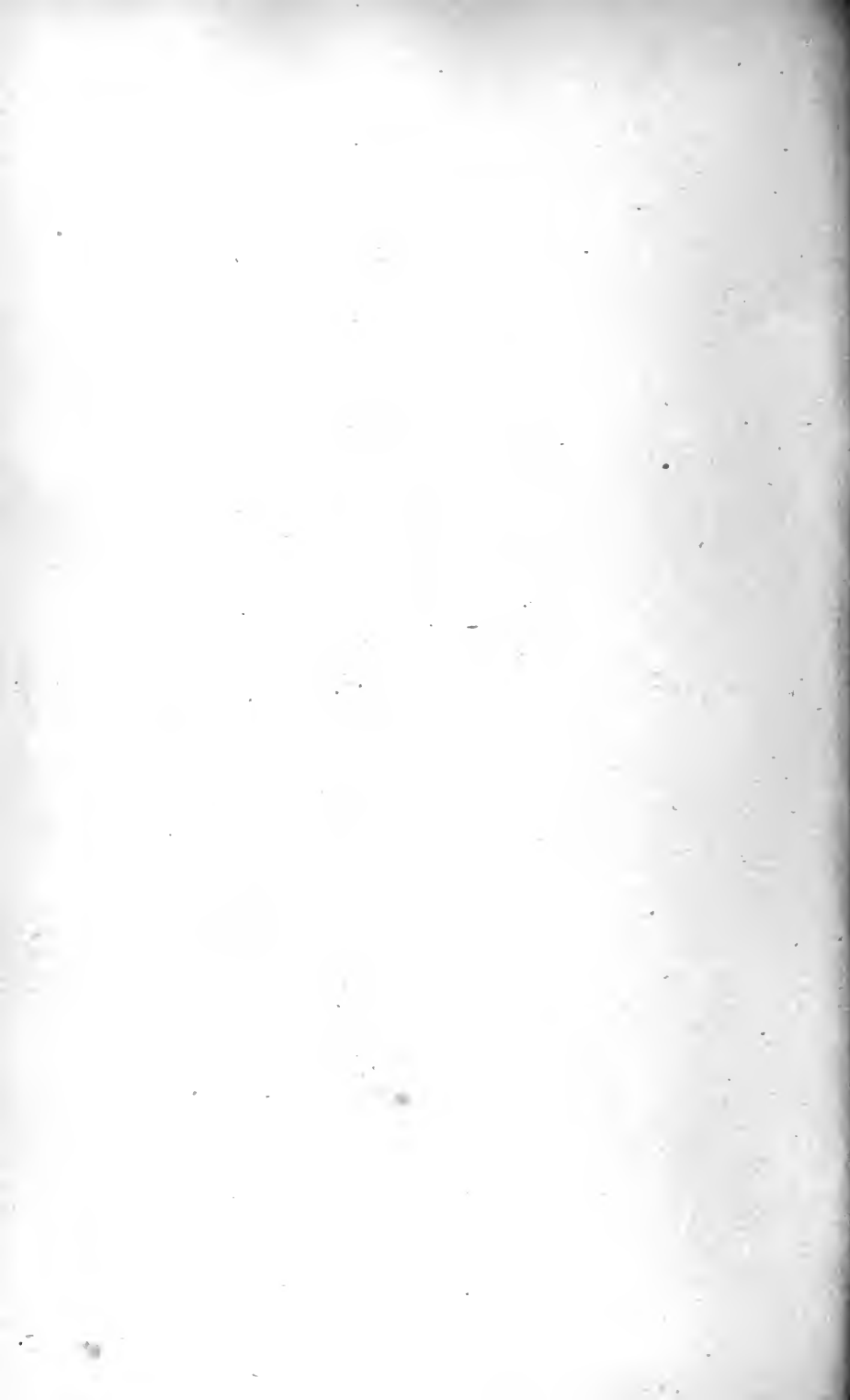


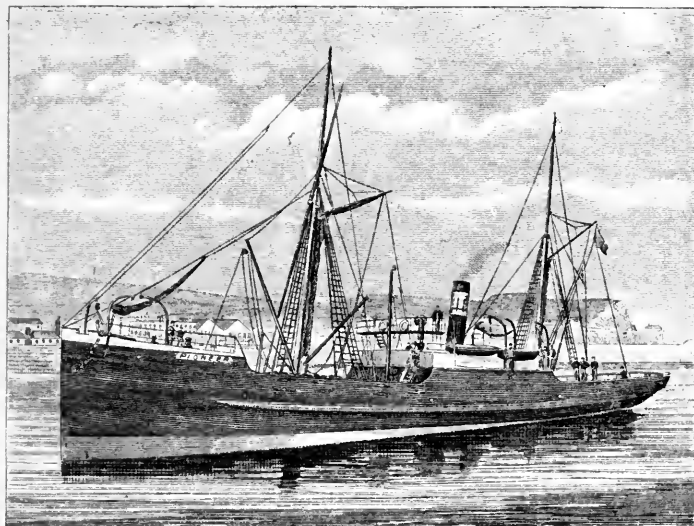
S.S. "EQUITY."
GOOLE-HAMBURG LINE.—See pages 59 and 56.



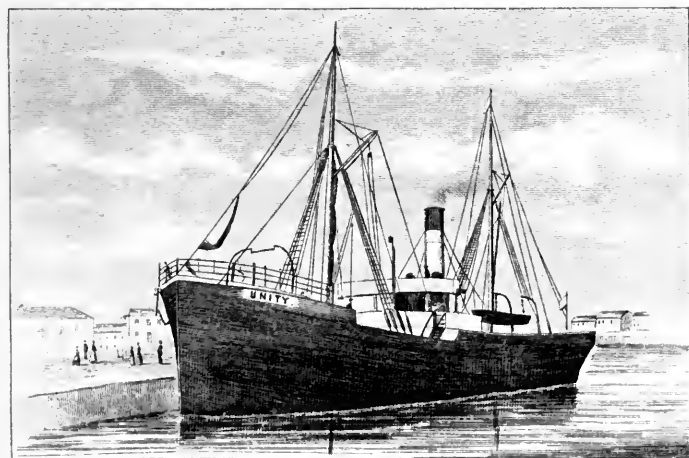


S.S. "FEDERATION."
GOOLE-HAMBURG LINE.—See pages 89 and 86.

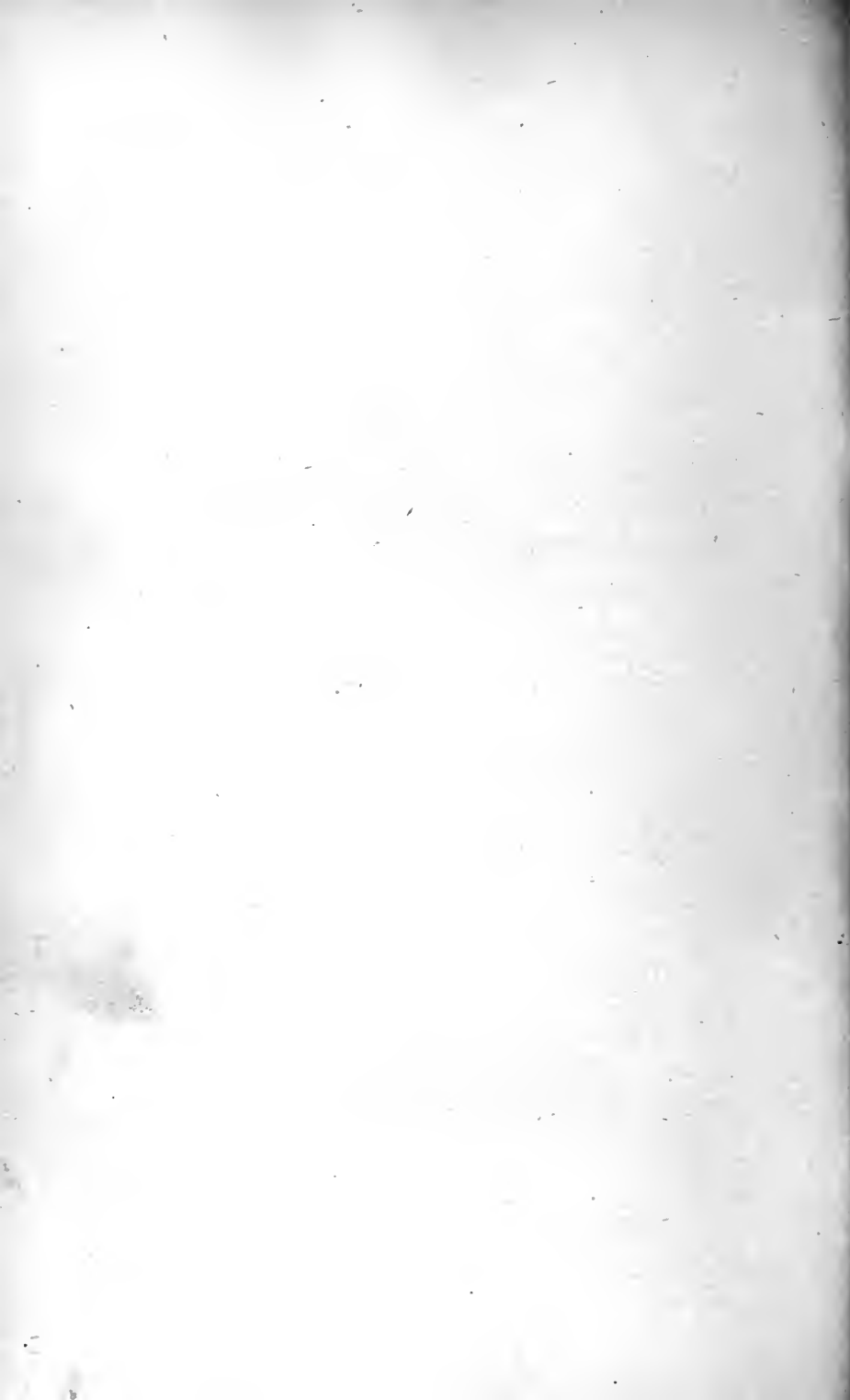


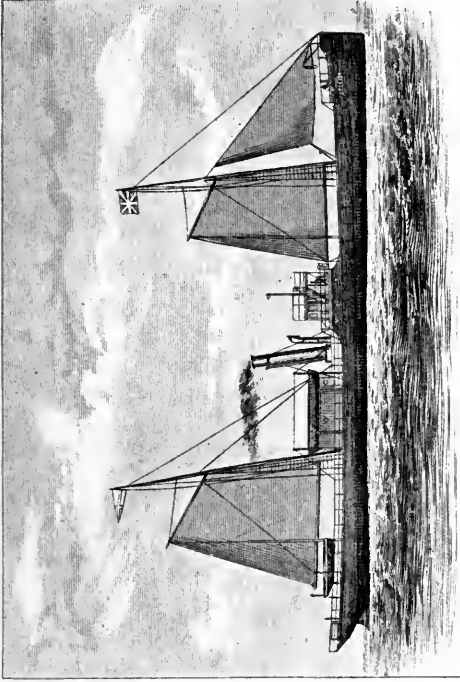


S.S. "PIONEER."
GARSTON-ROUEN LINE.—See pages 37 and 86.



S.S. "UNITY."
GOOLE-HAMBURG LINE.—See pages 39 and 86.





S.S. "PROGRESS."
GOOLE-HAMBURG LINE.—See pages 38 and 86.



Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited.

Enrolled August 11th, 1863, under the Provisions of the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, 25 and 26 Vict., cap. 87, sec. 15, 1862.

Business commenced March 14, 1864. Shares, £5 each, Transferable.

CENTRAL OFFICES,

BANK, AND GROCERY AND PROVISION WAREHOUSE:

BALLOON STREET, MANCHESTER.

DRAPERY, WOOLLEN CLOTH, AND READY-MADES WAREHOUSES:

DANTZIC STREET, MANCHESTER.

BOOT AND SHOE AND FURNITURE WAREHOUSES:

HOLGATE STREET, MANCHESTER.

BRANCHES:

WATERLOO STREET, NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE, AND LEMAN STREET, LONDON, E.

PURCHASING AND FORWARDING DEPOTS:

ENGLAND: LIVERPOOL, LEEDS, BRISTOL, NOTTINGHAM, LONGTON, GOOLE, AND GARSTON.

IRELAND: CORK, LIMERICK, KILMALLOCK, WATERFORD, TRALEE, AND ARMAGH.

AMERICA: NEW YORK. FRANCE: CALAIS AND ROUEN.

DENMARK: COPENHAGEN AND HAMBURG.

BISCUIT AND SWEET WORKS, AND DRY AND SOFT SOAP WORKS:

CRUMPSALL, NEAR MANCHESTER.

BOOT AND SHOE WORKS: WEST END SHOE WORKS, LEICESTER, AND HECKMONDWIKE, YORKSHIRE.

SOAP WORKS: DURHAM.

WOOLLEN CLOTH WORKS AND } LIVINGSTONE MILL, BATLEY.

READY-MADE DEPARTMENT: }

COCOA AND CHOCOLATE WORKS: 116, LEMAN STREET, LONDON.

SHIPOWNERS AND SHIPPERS:

BETWEEN GARSTON (Liverpool), ENGLAND, AND ROUEN (FRANCE);

GOOLE (ENGLAND) AND CALAIS (FRANCE);

GOOLE AND HAMBURG.

Steamships Owned by the Society:

"PIONEER," "UNITY," "PROGRESS," "FEDERATION," AND "EQUITY."

BANKERS:

THE MANCHESTER AND COUNTY BANK LIMITED.

THE LONDON AND COUNTY BANK.

THE NATIONAL PROVINCIAL BANK OF ENGLAND.

THE MANCHESTER AND LIVERPOOL DISTRICT BANK.

THE LANCASHIRE AND YORKSHIRE BANK.

THE UNION BANK OF MANCHESTER.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY

LIMITED.

GENERAL COMMITTEE.

PRESIDENT:		SECRETARY:	
MR. J. T. W. MITCHELL, 15, John Street, Rochdale.		MR. THOMAS SWANN, Beech Villa, James Street, Masborough.	
MR. WILLIAM BATESGreen Lane, Patricroft.		
MR. THOMAS BLANDRashcliffe, Huddersfield.		
MR. JAMES CRABTREEChurch Street, Heckmondwike.		
MR. E. HIBBERT7, Wicken Tree Lane, Failsworth.		
MR. JAMES HILTON165, Ashton Road, Oldham.		
MR. THOMAS HIND3, Grey Friars, Leicester.		
MR. JOHN LORD16, Steiner Street, Accrington.		
MR. JAMES LOWNDS92, Catherine Street, Ashton-under-Lyne.		
MR. ALFRED NORTHMount Pleasant, Batley.		
MR. H. C. PINGSTONEMarket Street, Manchester.		
MR. JOHN SHILLITO17, Cavendish Terrace, Halifax.		
MR. JOHN STANSFIELDJeremy Lane, Heckmondwike.		
MR. SAMUEL TAYLOR52, Castle Street, Bolton.		
MR. W. P. HEMMHealey Street, Nottingham.		

NEWCASTLE BRANCH COMMITTEE.

CHAIRMAN:		SECRETARY:	
MR. GEORGE SCOTT, Co-op. Society, Newbottle, Fencehouses, Durham.		MR. JOHN THIRLAWAY, 16, Grasmere Street, Gateshead.	
MR. J. ATKINSON12, Mutual Street, Wallsend, nr. Ne.-on-Tyne.		
MR. MATTHEW BATESBlaydon Burn, Blaydon-on-Tyne.		
MR. WILLIAM GREENCo-operative Society, Clay Path, Durham.		
MR. THOMAS SHOTTONCemetery Road, Blackhill, Durham.		
MR. RICHARD THOMPSON	..9, Garden Place, Bishopwearmouth, Sunderland.		
MR. T. TWEDDELLCleveland Terrace, West Hartlepool.		

LONDON BRANCH COMMITTEE.

CHAIRMAN:		SECRETARY:	
MR. GEO. SUTHERLAND, 78, Maxey Road, Plumstead.		MR. HENRY PUMPHREY, Paddock Terrace, Lewes.	
MR. JOSEPH CLAYStratton Road, Gloucester.		
MR. GEO. HAWKINS53, Kingston Road, Oxford.		
MR. GEORGE HINESCroft Street, Ipswich.		
MR. T. E. WEBBCo-operative Society, 1, Plough Lane, York Road, Battersea, London, S.W.		
MR. JNO. J. B. BEACHMersea Road, Colchester.		

AUDITORS.

MR. THOS. J. BAYLIS, Rotherham.		MR. JAMES E. LORD, Rochdale.	
MR. THOMAS WOOD, Manchester.		MR. ISAAC HAIGH, Barnsley.	

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY

LIMITED.

ACCOUNTANT.

MR. THOMAS BRODRICK, Eccles.

CASHIER.

MR. A. GREENWOOD, Rochdale.

BUYERS, SALESMEN, &c.

MANCHESTER—Grocery and Provisions	Mr. ISAAC TWEEDALE.
” ”	Mr. THOMAS PEARSON.
” ”	Mr. GEORGE GARLICK.
” ”	Mr. WILLIAM WROOT.
” Drapery	Mr. JAMES FLETCHER.
” ”	Mr. WILLIAM T. ALLITT.
” ”	Mr. JOHN SHARROCKS.
” ”	Mr. JOHN T. OGDEN.
” Woollen Cloth	Mr. HENRY HADDOW.
” Boot and Shoe	Mr. HENRY JACKSON.
” Furniture	Mr. JOSEPH ATKIN.
” Traveller—Grocery and Provisions	Mr. R. TURNER.
” ” Productive Societies and } Drapery	Mr. JOS. PICKERSGILL.
SHIPPING DEPARTMENT—General Manager	Mr. CHAS. R. CAMERON.
LIVERPOOL—Grocery and Provisions	Mr. ARTHUR W. LOBB.
LEEDS—Saleroom	Mr. JOSEPH HOLDEN.
NOTTINGHAM—Saleroom	Mr. G. T. TOWNSEND.
HUDDERSFIELD—Saleroom	Mr. GEO. BARLASS.
LONGTON—Crockery Depôt	Mr. J. RHODES.
NEWCASTLE—Chief Clerk	Mr. H. R. BAILEY.
” Grocery and Provisions	Mr. MICHAEL URWIN.
” ”	Mr. ROBT. WILKINSON.
” Drapery	Mr. JOHN McKENZIE.
” Boot and Shoe and Furnishing	Mr. O. JACKSON.
LONDON—Grocery and Provisions	Mr. BENJAMIN JONES.
” ”	Mr. WM. OPENSHAW.
” Tea, Coffee, and Cocoa	Mr. CHARLES FIELDING.
” Drapery and Furnishing	Mr. F. J. FINLAYSON.
” Boots and Shoes	Mr. ALFRED PARTRIDGE.
” Chief Clerk	Mr. WILLIAM STRAWN.
BRISTOL DEPÔT	Mr. THOS. FOULKES.
CORK—Butter	Mr. WILLIAM H. STOTT.
LIMERICK—Butter	Mr. WILLIAM L. STOKES.
KILMALLOCK ”	Mr. THOS. G. O’SULLIVAN.
WATERFORD ”	
TRALEE—Butter and Eggs	Mr. JAMES DAWSON.
ARMAGH ”	Mr. J. HOLLAND.
NEW YORK, AMERICA—Cheese, &c.	Mr. JOHN GLEDHILL.
” ”	Mr. JAMES M. PERCIVAL.
COPENHAGEN, DENMARK—Butter, Flour, &c.	Mr. JOHN ANDREW.
HAMBURG—Butter, Flour, &c.	Mr. WM. DILWORTH.
ROUEN, FRANCE Shipping and Forwarding Depôt ...	Mr. JAMES MARQUIS.
CALAIS ”	Mr. WILLIAM HURT.
GOOLE ”	Mr. W. J. SCHOFIELD.
LOWER CRUMPSALL BISCUIT WORKS	Mr. THOMAS HAYES.
LEICESTER BOOT AND SHOE WORKS	Mr. JOHN BUTCHER.
HECKMONDWIKE BOOT AND SHOE WORKS	Mr. J. W. HEMMINGS.
DURHAM SOAP WORKS	Mr. J. E. GREEN.
BATLEY WOOLLEN CLOTH WORKS	Mr. OLIVER HALL.
” READY-MADE DEPARTMENT	Mr. WILLIAM UTTLEY.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY

LIMITED.

NUMBER OF EMPLOYÉS, AUGUST, 1888.

Manchester—General, Drapery, Boot and Shoe, and Furnishing Offices ..	132
" Cashier's Office	10
" Grocery Department	109
" Drapery	44
" Woollen Cloth	61
" Boot and Shoe	18
" Furnishing	20
" Shipping	3
" Building	90
" Dining-room Department	6
" Other	11
Total Manchester	504
Newcastle Branch	162
" Building Department	62
London Branch	113
" Building Department	8
" Tea	176
Leeds Saleroom	2
Nottingham Saleroom	1
Bristol Depôt	11
Liverpool Branch—Grocery and Shipping	8
Longton—Crockery Department	9
Irish Branches	36
Rouen Branch	4
Goole	9
Calais	3
Garston	2
New York Branch	5
Copenhagen	5
Hamburg	3
Crumpsall Biscuit Works	105
Leicester Shoe	977
Heckmondwike Shoe Works	167
" Currying Department	33
Durham Soap Works	16
Batley Woollen Mill	107
Steamship "Pioneer"	14
" "Unity"	15
" "Progress"	14
" "Federation"	18
" "Equity"	18
Total	2607

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY

LIMITED.

Registered Offices: 1, BALLOON STREET, MANCHESTER.

Branches: WATERLOO STREET, NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE, AND
LEMAN STREET, LONDON, E.

TRADE DEPARTMENT.

For the information of Societies and Companies not already purchasers from or members of this Society, we give below—(1) our requirements on opening new accounts; (2) particulars of trade terms; (3) terms and conditions of membership; and (4) a few of the advantages accruing from membership.

Any further information will gladly be given on application.

(1) NEW ACCOUNTS.

Societies desiring to open accounts are requested to furnish us with a copy each of their registered rules and latest balance sheet.

If a balance sheet has not been prepared, then the following information is required, viz., the number of members; amount of paid-up share capital; whether credit is allowed, and if so, to what extent; the amount of business done, or expected to be done per week.

(2) TRADE TERMS.

With the first order sufficient cash must be remitted to cover the estimated value of the goods ordered; afterwards payment must be made within seven days from date of invoice; all accounts are rendered strictly net.

Our business is conducted on these terms, with registered Co-operative Societies and Companies only.

Societies in process of formation and whose rules are not yet registered can be supplied with goods on payment of cash with each order.

(3) TERMS AND CONDITIONS OF MEMBERSHIP.

The following extracts from our Rules contain the principal features in connection with membership:—

(a) ADMISSION OF MEMBERS.—(Extract from Rule 5.)

The members of this society shall consist of such co-operative societies or companies (registered under the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, 1876, or under the Companies Acts, with limited liability, or under any law of the country where they are situate, whereby they acquire the right of trading as a body corporate, with limited liability) as have been admitted by the general committee, and approved by a majority of delegates present at a general meeting of the society. An application for shares shall be made by a resolution of some general or committee meeting of the society or company making the application, contained in

writing and attested by the signatures of the secretary and three of its members; every society or company making an application for shares shall state the number of its members, and take up not less than one £5 share for every ten members, and agree to increase the number annually as its members increase, making the return of such increase at the time and in accordance with its return to the Registrar.

(b) CAPITAL—HOW PAID UP.—(Extract from Rule 10.)

The capital of this society shall be raised in shares of five pounds each, which shall be transferable only. Every society, on its admission, shall pay the sum of not less than one shilling on each share taken up. Each five pounds so paid shall constitute one fully paid-up share; but no dividend or interest shall be withdrawn by members until their shares are paid up. Any member may pay up shares in advance. After having received the consent of a special meeting, the whole or any part of the share capital may be called up by the general committee on giving notice to that effect.

(c) FORM OF APPLICATION FOR SHARES.

APPLICATION FOR SHARES.

Folio.....

The.....

Co-operative Society Limited.

TO THE DIRECTORS OF THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED, 1, BALLOON STREET, MANCHESTER.

Gentlemen,

Whereas, by a Resolution of the.....
*Co-operative Society Limited, passed by the**.....
 at a Meeting held on the.....day of.....it was
 resolved that the Society, which consists of.....Members,
 agree to take up.....Shares (being One Share for every Ten
 of our Members) in the Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited,
 and annually to increase our Shares at the time and in accordance
 with our return to the Registrar, and to accept such Shares
 on the terms and conditions specified in your Rules.

.....188
 Attested by }
 } Three Members.
 }
 Secretary.

* Members, Committee of Management, or Directors.

(4) ADVANTAGES ACCRUING FROM MEMBERSHIP.

- (a) The liability of each society member is limited to the amount of its shares.
 (b) Members of this Society receive double the rate of dividend on purchases to non-members.
 (c) Share capital receives interest after the rate of £5 per cent per annum.
 (d) Each society composing the "Wholesale" may nominate one representative for every 500 of its members to represent it at the General or Branch Quarterly Meetings, or other Special Meetings which may be convened from time to time, and thus have a direct influence and voice in the control and management of its affairs. The nomination and election of its officers for General and Branch Committees and Auditors are effected by means of nomination and voting papers, which are sent to all Shareholding Societies to be filled up.
 (e) A merely nominal payment secures membership, a deposit of 1s. per share upon application being only required; the dividend on purchases and interest on share capital being credited to share account until paid up.

We trust that those societies not already federated with the "Wholesale" will at once join, and thus secure the advantages to themselves and the co-operative movement generally which its extensive and varied operations are intended to confer.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY

LIMITED.

BUSINESS NOTICES.

ALL LETTERS TO BE ADDRESSED TO THE SOCIETY, AND NOT TO INDIVIDUALS.

WE would especially impress upon Societies' Managers and Secretaries the necessity of complying with the following regulations, in order to facilitate the despatch of Goods, to ensure promptitude in the answering and classification of letters, and to prevent disappointment.

LETTERS.

All letters must be addressed to the Society, and not to individuals.

Addressed Envelopes are supplied at cost price.

Communications for the following Departments, and relating to the subjects named, should always be made on separate forms or sheets of paper, viz.:—

- (1) Bank and Cashier's Department.
- (2) Accountants' Department.
- (3) Grocery and Provision Department—Orders only.
- (4) " " " Application for Samples only.
- (5) Drapery Department—Orders and Applications for Samples.
- (6) Boot and Shoe Department—Orders and Applications for Samples.
- (7) Woollen Cloth " " " "
- (8) Furnishing Department—Orders and Applications for Samples.
- (9) Advices of Returns.
- (10) Claims, delays, complaints, &c., for all Departments.

Although each of the above classifications requires a separate form, they should all be enclosed under one cover, and addressed to the Society.

At the Central Office, in Manchester alone, upwards of 3,000 Letters and Orders are received daily. It is evident that to effectually deal with these communications some division into departments is absolutely necessary.

These classifications have therefore been adopted, and Societies are asked to assist by seeing that their communications are despatched in accordance therewith, as when subjects included in more than one of these divisions are dealt with on one form, much labour is involved in re-writing the portions required to be separated.

ORDERS FOR GOODS.

The name of the Society and the Station to which the Goods are to be forwarded should be written at the head of each order.

Orders should contain the Price or Brand of each Article wanted.

Delays would often be prevented by noticing in which column in the Price Lists (Manchester, Newcastle, London, &c.) the Goods are quoted, and posting the Orders direct to the Central, or branches named, as the case requires.

As regards "Direct Quotations," notwithstanding that there are many instances where minimum quantities are fixed, orders are frequently received for less than the stipulated quantities. This necessitates correspondence, and in cases of urgency entails inconvenience to Societies, which would be obviated by carefully noticing the Price List when ordering.

It is desirable that the Forms we have specially prepared should be used in sending Orders.

1. Grocery, Drapery, Woollens, and Furnishing Department, price 10d.
2. Tailoring (Bespoke), with instructions for measurement, price 10d.
3. Boot and Shoe Department, price 10d.
4. " " " (Bespoke), with instructions for measurement, price 1s.

Books containing 50 Forms, with Duplicates, will be sent on application.

Orders for each Department should be made out on separate forms.

CONSIGNMENT OF GOODS.

Whenever delays occur in the delivery of Goods, Societies will please communicate with the carrier at their end, in addition to informing us.

To prevent any misunderstanding as to who is responsible for the safe delivery of Goods, we would state that when Goods are Carriage Paid we undertake their safe delivery; but when the Carriage is not Paid, the Carrier is responsible to the Consignees, who, before taking delivery of any Goods, should carefully examine the same, and at once claim for any loss or damage sustained in transit.

EMPTYES.

Empty packages should be returned carefully packed, and fully and correctly consigned.

Each package should have a label or direction card attached, stating the contents, the name of Society forwarding them, and the name and address of their destination.

Emptyes should be returned direct to the manufacturer from whom the Goods were sent. When returned to Manchester or the Branches, additional expense and trouble are incurred in re-consigning them to their proper destination.

A few manufacturers pay carriage on returned emptyes; where this is done Societies will consign carriage forward, in all other cases carriage should be paid. A list of firms who pay carriage, may be obtained on application at the Central Offices.

In all cases an advice giving full particulars of the emptyes returned (viz., the kind, the quantity, the numbers, the price charged, and reference to invoice where charged) should be immediately posted to us, as unless this is done our rule is not to allow credit for them.

We have a book of 50 forms, with duplicates, specially prepared for this purpose, price 9d., which Societies are recommended to use.

The importance of carrying out these instructions will be seen when Societies are informed that the Railway Companies seldom make deliveries of empties until they have a complete load, and under such circumstances it is almost impossible to ascertain from what Societies they have been received, unless full particulars are given.

In many cases Societies do not fully carry out these instructions, consequently we are continually receiving empty packages which we are not able to credit because we do not know from whom they have been returned. This is a loss which we are desirous Societies should not incur; we therefore point it out to them so that the necessary precautions may be taken to avoid it.

GOODS CONSIGNED AS EMPTIES.

We cannot hold ourselves responsible for any Goods that may be returned consigned as empties, as any claim made on the Railway Companies for missing Goods under such circumstances would not be entertained.

STATEMENTS OF TRADE ACCOUNTS.

WEEKLY STATEMENTS

Are sent out to all Societies doing business with us, showing Total of Goods Invoiced, Cash Received, and Allowances made during the week, and Balance, if any, at the week end.

These statements afford a great check on Societies' books, and Secretaries are requested to compare each one as received with their books, and to report to us particulars in case of any discrepancy.

QUARTERLY STATEMENTS

Are issued immediately after our Books are made up for the Quarter.

They are in form similar to the Weekly Statements, and must be returned, duly certified if correct, to our Auditors, who require them as an independent check as to the correctness of our accounts.

We rely upon Societies giving prompt attention to these statements, as the early issue of our Balance Sheets depends to an extent on their immediate return.

In case of any discrepancy, details should be at once given or applied for, but if correct, the Statement should be forthwith signed and returned to the Auditors, in the envelope sent out for that purpose.

SHARE AND LOAN PASS BOOKS.

These should be sent to the Head Office (1, Balloon Street, Manchester) every Quarter, viz., in the First Week of March, June, September, and December, for the purpose of having the previous quarter's Interest and Dividend entered therein. Societies requiring information respecting the amount of their Share or Loan Capital are requested to send their Pass Books for the amount to be filled in, instead of sending for Statements.

When Shares are paid up the Share Book need not again be sent until a further allotment is made.

SOCIETIES' BALANCE SHEETS.

We especially desire those Societies who have not already done so to send us a copy of their last Balance Sheet, stating on it the number of their Members; also, a copy of their rules.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY

LIMITED.

TRADE DEPARTMENT—CASH ARRANGEMENTS.

We beg to call the attention of Societies to the arrangements specified below, which will give facility and security when making remittances to this Society:—

1. All cash must be addressed to the society only, and not to individuals, nor to the committee or auditors.

2. CHEQUES and DRAFTS to be made payable to the CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED. Post-office orders must be made payable to ABRAHAM GREENWOOD. Drafts drawn in favour of this society must be made payable on demand; other drafts when remitted to us must have reached maturity. All drafts, if possible, should be made payable either at London or Manchester.

3. Societies are respectfully requested, when drawing cheques in our favour, to do so in full, viz., Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited, without any abbreviation or variation whatever.

4. In forwarding half notes societies should state whether they are first or second halves; the latter half notes should be forwarded immediately on receipt of our acknowledgment of the first. Societies not receiving acknowledgment for first or second half notes in due course of post, will oblige by calling attention to the omission.

5. Remittances can be made by societies free of charge through any of the branches or correspondents of the Manchester and County Bank, London and County Bank, and the National Provincial Bank of England, lists of which are given on next and three following pages.

6. Through the Manchester and Liverpool District Bank or its branches, at a charge of 2s. per £100. For remittances through the Union Bank of Manchester, the Lancashire and Yorkshire Bank, or any of their branches, charges will be made known on application to the society.

7. Care should be taken to advise immediately when a remittance is made to us, stating the amount and the name and place of the bank or branches through which the remittance is made.

8. Remittances made through a bank in all cases should be done in the name of the society sending cash to us, and not in the name of a person.

9. All charges according to these arrangements for the remittance of cash will, in the first instance, be paid by this society, and afterwards debited to societies availing themselves of these facilities for paying cash to us.

10. Societies would greatly oblige, and thereby facilitate the business of this society, if they will, when advising cash remittances, or any matter relating to payment of cash, do so on a separate sheet of paper.

11. LOANS, WITHDRAWAL OF.—Societies, when requiring to withdraw their loans, are respectfully requested to *apply to the Head Office, Manchester*, for an official form, which is provided for and supplied to societies for the purpose of enabling them to withdraw loans and to state definitely the amount of loan they wish to withdraw. Societies will please note this special request.

LIST OF BRANCHES AND CORRESPONDENTS

OF THE

MANCHESTER AND COUNTY BANK,

THROUGH WHICH CASH CAN BE REMITTED FREE OF CHARGE.

When depositing, instructions should be given to the Bankers as follows: "To be placed to Credit of Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited, in account with the Manchester and County Bank at Manchester."

APPLEBY	Cumberland Union Bank.	
Ashton-under Lyne	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank	
Aspatria	Cumberland Union Bank.	
BACUP	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.	
Barrow-in-Furness	Cumberland Union Bank.	
Birmingham	Birmingham Joint-stock Bank.	
Blackburn	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.	
Blackpool	Ditto	ditto
Bolton	Ditto	ditto
Bootle	Cumberland Union Bank.	
Bradford, Yorks	Bradford District Bank.	
Brampton	Cumberland Union Bank.	
Brighouse	Halifax Joint-stock Bank.	
Burnley	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.	
Buxton	Ditto	ditto
CARLISLE	Cumberland Union Bank.	
Castleford	Leeds and County Bank.	
Chapel-en-le-Frith	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.	
Clitheroe	Ditto	ditto
Cockermouth	Cumberland Union Bank.	
Colne	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.	
Chesterfield	Sheffield Banking Company.	
Clay Cross	Ditto	
DARWEN	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.	
Delph	Ditto	ditto
Denton	Ditto	ditto
Derby	Derby Commercial Bank.	
Dobcross	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.	
ECCLES	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.	
Egremont	Cumberland Union Bank.	
GISBURNE	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.	
Goole	Leeds and County Bank.	
Gosforth	Cumberland Union Bank.	
Greetland	Halifax Joint-stock Bank.	

HALIFAX	Halifax Joint-stock Bank.
Haltwhistle	Cumberland Union Bank.
Harrington	Ditto ditto
Hayfield	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.
Hexham	Cumberland Union Bank.
Holborn Hill (Cumberland) ..	Ditto ditto
Hollinwood	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.
Horwich	Manchester and County Bank.
Huddersfield	Halifax Joint-stock Bank.
KEIGHLEY	Bradford District Bank.
Keswick	Cumberland Union Bank.
Kirkoswald	Ditto ditto
LEEDS	Leeds and County Bank.
Liverpool	Liverpool Union Bank.
Longridge	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.
Lytham	Ditto ditto
Luddenden Foot	Halifax Joint-stock Bank.
MARYPORT	Cumberland Union Bank.
Mexbro'	Sheffield Banking Company.
NEWCHURCH	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.
New Mills	Ditto ditto
Nelson	Ditto ditto
Normanton	Leeds and County Bank.
OLDHAM	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.
Oswaldtwistle	Ditto ditto
Ossett	Leeds and County Bank.
PADIHAM	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.
Penrith	Cumberland Union Bank.
Pontefract	Leeds and County Bank.
Preston	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.
RAVENGLASS	Cumberland Union Bank.
Rawtenstall	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.
Ripponden	Halifax Joint-stock Bank.
Rochdale	Oldham Joint-stock Bank.
Rotherham	Sheffield Banking Company.
SHEFFIELD	Sheffield Banking Company.
Skipton	Leeds and County Bank.
Snaith	Leeds and County Bank.
Southport	Southport and West Lancashire Banking Co.
Sowerby Bridge	Halifax Joint-stock Bank.
Stalybridge	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.
Stockport	Ditto ditto
TIDESWELL	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.
ULVERSTON	Cumberland Union Bank.
Uppermill	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.
WAKEFIELD	Leeds and County Bank.
Whaley Bridge	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.
Whitehaven	Cumberland Union Bank.
Wigan	Branch of the Manchester and County Bank.
Withington	Ditto ditto
Wigton (Cumberland)	Cumberland Union Bank.
Workington	Ditto ditto

LIST OF BRANCHES

OF THE

LONDON AND COUNTY BANK,

THROUGH WHICH CASH CAN BE REMITTED FREE OF CHARGE.

When depositing, instructions should be given to the Bankers as follows:—

“To be placed to Credit of CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED, in account with the London and County Bank at London.”

Abingdon and Ilsley.
 Aldershot.
 Andover.
 Arundel, Little Hampton, and Steyning.
 Ashford and Hythe.
 Aylesbury, Gt. Berkhamstead, and Thame.
 Banbury.
 Barnet.
 Basingstoke and Hartley Row.
 Battle and Robertsbridge.
 Bockenham.
 Bedford.
 Bishop's Stortford.
 Bognor.
 Braintree and Coggleshall.
 Brentford.
 Brentwood.
 Brighton.
 Do. "West End."
 Bromley, Kent.
 Buckingham and Stony Stratford.
 Cambridge.
 Canterbury, Whitstable, and Herne Bay.
 Chatham.
 Chelmsford.
 Chertsey and Weybridge.
 Chichester.
 Colchester and Sudbury.
 Cowes, Isle of Wight.
 Cranbrook.
 Dartford, Erith, and Farnigham.
 Dorking and Leatherhead.
 Dover.
 Dunstable.
 Eastbourne.
 Epsom.
 Farnham.
 Faversham.
 Goldalming.
 Gravesend.
 Great Berkhamstead.
 Guildford.
 Halstead and Haverhill.
 Harrow.
 Hastings.
 Hawkhurst.
 Hertford.
 High Wycombe.
 Hitchin and Biggleswade.
 Horsham and Crawley.

Hove, Brighton.
 Hounslow.
 Hungerford.
 Huntingdon, St. Ives, and St. Neots.
 Kingston-on-Thames.
 Leighton Buzzard and Woburn.
 Lewes and Hailsham.
 Luton.
 Maidenhead.
 Maidstone, West Malling, and Wrotham.
 Maldon.
 Manningtree.
 Margate.
 Midhurst.
 Newbury.
 Newhaven.
 Newport, Isle of Wight.
 Oxford.
 Petersfield.
 Petworth and Pulbore'.
 Reading and Henley-on-Thames.
 Redhill.
 Reigate.
 Richmond.
 Rochester.
 Romford.
 Rye.
 Saffron Walden.
 St. Albans.
 St. Leonards.
 Sandwich.
 Sevenoaks.
 Sheerness.
 Sittingbourne.
 Slough.
 Surbiton.
 Tenterden.
 Tunbridge.
 Tunbridge Wells and Ticehurst.
 Uxbridge.
 Wallingford and Didcot.
 Wantage.
 Ware.
 Watford, Hemel Hempstead, and Rickmansworth.
 Westerham.
 Winchester.
 Windsor.
 Worthing.

LIST OF BRANCHES OF THE NATIONAL PROVINCIAL BANK OF ENGLAND,

THROUGH WHICH CASH CAN BE REMITTED FREE OF CHARGE.

When depositing, instructions should be given to the Bankers as follows:—"To be placed to Credit of Co-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED, in account with the National Provincial Bank of England at Manchester."

HEAD OFFICE—112, BISHOPSGATE STREET, LONDON.

ST. JAMES' BRANCH—212, Piccadilly.
ST. MARYLEBONE BRANCH—53, Baker Street.

ISLINGTON BRANCH—218, Upper Street.
LINCOLN'S INN BRANCH—Carey Street, W.C.

BRANCHES:

Aberayron.	Darlington.	Llangefni, Anglesea.	Shaftesbury.
Abergavenny.	Dartmouth.	Long Sutton.	Sherborne.
Aberystwith.	Deal.	Lowestoft.	Shrewsbury.
Amlwich, Anglesea.	Penbigh.	Machynlleth.	Southampton.
Bala.	Devonport.	March.	South Molton.
Bangor.	Dolgelly.	Middlesborough.	Southsea.
Barnard Castle.	Dover.	Mold.	South Shields.
Barnstaple.	Dulverton.	Monmouth.	Spalding.
Bath.	Durham.	Narberth.	Stalbridge.
Beaumaris.	Dursley.	Newcastle, Emlyn.	Stockton-on-Tees.
Berkeley.	East Dereham, Norfolk.	Newcastle, Staffordshire.	Stoke, Staffordshire.
Bideford.	Exeter.	Newcastle-on-Tyne.	Stokesley.
Birmingham.	Folkstone.	Newport, I. of Wight.	Stone, Staffordshire
Bishop Auckland.	Gateshead.	Newport, Moomouth.	Sturminster.
Blandford.	Gloucester.	Newport, Salop.	Sunderland.
Boston.	Guisborough, Yorks.	Newtown.	Tamworth.
Bournemouth.	Hanley.	North Shields.	Teignmouth.
Brecon.	Hartlepool.	Norwich.	Tenby.
Bridgend.	Haverfordwest.	Okehampton.	Tiverton.
Bristol.	Hay.	Pembroke.	Torquay.
Brixham.	Hereford.	Peterborough.	Torrington.
Bromyard.	Holyhead.	Plymouth.	Totnes.
Builth.	Honiton.	Poole.	Tunstall.
Burton-on-Trent.	Ilfracombe.	Portmadoc.	Warcham.
Bury St. Edmunds.	Ipswich.	Portsea, for Ports-	Wcm, Salop.
Bute Docks, Cardiff.	Lampeter.	mouth.	West Hartlepool.
Cardiff.	Landport.	Pwllheli.	Whitby.
Cardigan.	Ledbury.	Ramsgate.	Whitchurch, Salop.
Carmarthen.	Leeds.	Redcar.	Wimborne.
Cheltenham.	Leicester.	Ringwood, Hants.	Wisbeach.
Chester.	Leominster.	Ross.	Worcester.
Chipping Sodbury.	Lichfield.	Rugby.	Wotton-under-Edge.
Clifton.	Liverpool.	Rugeley.	Wrexham.
Conway.	Llandoverly.	Ryde.	Yarmouth.
Cowbridge.	Llandudno.	Salisbury.	York.
Crickhowell.			

SUB-BRANCHES:

Bethesda Sub-Branch to Bangor.	Lofthouse Sub-Branch to Guisborough.
Credition do. to Exeter.	Menai Bridge do. to Bangor.
Pembroke Sub-Branch to Tenby.	

*The following is a list of Manchester Banks. Cheques on any of these Banks and also on any Branch of the Banks marked thus * are to be classed as Manchester Cheques.*

* Union Bank of Manchester.	* Manchester Joint-stock Bank.	Thomas Nash and Sons.
* Cunliffe, Brooks, and Co.	Consolidated Bank.	Jno. Stuart and Co.
* Lancashire & Yorkshire Bank.	Adelphi Bank.	National Provincial Bank of
* Manchester & Salford Bank.	Corytons Exchange Bank.	England, Manchester Branch.
* Manchester & County Bank.	Sewell and Nephew.	Bank of England, Manchester
* Manchester & Liverpool District	Lomas Jackson and Co	Branch.
Bank.		

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.

BANK DEPARTMENT.

CENTRAL OFFICES:

1, BALLOON STREET, MANCHESTER.

BRANCHES:

WATERLOO STREET, NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE.

LEMAN STREET, LONDON, E.

CURRENT ACCOUNTS

Opened on the plan usually adopted by other Bankers.

Deposits received for fixed periods, according to arrangements.

Customers keeping accounts with the Bank may have moneys paid to their credit free of charge, at the Head Offices, 1, Balloon Street, Manchester, and at the Branches, Waterloo Street, Newcastle-on-Tyne, and Hooper Square, Leman Street, Whitechapel, London, E.

Correspondents: The Pioneers' Society, Toad Lane, Rochdale; The Industrial Society, School Street, Over Darwen; The Co-operative Society, High Street, Leicester.

Correspondents of the following Banks: Manchester and County Bank, London and County Bank, National Provincial Bank of England, Manchester and Liverpool District Bank.

DEPOSIT ACCOUNTS.

Sums of £10 and upwards received from persons not otherwise customers, at seven days' notice, or for fixed periods, as may be agreed upon, reference being had to the state of the money market.

Cheques cannot be drawn against Deposit Accounts, nor will Depositors be entitled to any of the usual Banking facilities of a Current Account.

ON BANKING AND ITS UTILITY.

A BANK is defined to be an institution for the transfer of debts; and a banker, one who acts as broker between two principals, but differing in one important detail from an ordinary broker in this respect.

For instance, in Liverpool or London the broker finds a buyer for the cotton or tea, as the case may be, for the merchants or manufacturers; there his action ends; not so the banker, he does one thing more, he guarantees the solvency of the borrower whom he finds for the depositor; the banker chooses who shall borrow or buy money, and not the depositor.

The banker undertakes to receive from his customer all moneys, bills of exchange due, and cheques for collection, crediting the account kept in the customer's name with the respective amounts. By the medium of a banker a great saving of labour can be effected. Instead of each merchant, tradesman, or other person being obliged to send clerks or messengers in all directions over the country, carrying bills, cheques, and money about with them, they send all these notes and bills to the banker. The banker who has a large number of customers of this kind then proceeds to assort these bills and cheques, according to the different directions where they are payable, so that one messenger can collect hundreds of cheques in one journey, which otherwise would take one hundred messengers and journeys.

The sums so collected having been credited to customers' accounts, the banker undertakes to pay all cheques drawn on him or bills made payable at his house. For these services the banker pays himself by a commission agreed upon or a certain credit balance of the customer for which no interest is allowed, but which the banker may use at interest, so as to compensate him for the trouble and labour required to conduct the account.

The relation of the banker to his customer. We take from the work on "Elementary Banking," by Henry Dunning Macleod. He says:—"The essential feature of a 'banker' is, that when his customers place money with him it becomes his absolute property to deal with as he pleases, and he is in no way accountable to them for the purposes he applies the money to. The customers of a 'banker' cede to him absolutely the property in their money; and receive in exchange for it the right to have an equal sum paid back on demand. A banker, therefore, is not the trustee of his customers, but simply their debtor."

And this was always regarded as the essential feature of a "banker." Marquardus says:—"And by 'banking' is meant a certain species of trading in money, under the sanction of public authority, in which money is placed with bankers (who are also called cashiers and depositaries of money), for the security of creditors and the convenience of debtors, in such a way that the property in the money passes to them; but always on this condition understood, that anyone who places his money with them may have it back whenever he pleases."

Thus a "banker" always buys money with his credit; and, moreover, when he buys commercial debts, he always does it with his credit also, and not with cash. This is the essential distinction between a "banker" and a bill discounter, that a banker always buys bills with his credit, and a bill discounter with cash. Hence when a bill discounter has invested all the cash in his possession, either his own or what others have placed with him, in this way, he is at the end of his resources.

But a banker always buys commercial debts with his own credit, or with his promise to pay; and experience shows that his credit may exceed several times the cash in his possession. How many times his credit may safely exceed his cash may differ in different localities, and in different methods of doing business; but at all events it may do so several times.

Thus the essence of the business of banking is to create credit. This credit is, of course, made payable in money, but in practice it is very rarely actually paid in money. A mutual release of debts is absolutely equivalent to a reciprocal payment of debts, and by the modern banking system the enormously greater proportion of banking credit is extinguished by mutual releases of debts.

Banking affords many advantages and facilities for business, the chief of which are the following: It provides places of safety for the keeping of money. It removes the difficulty and inconvenience of carrying cash from place to place at the risk of robbery. It effects a great saving of time and consequently of expense to business people, who would otherwise but for banking arrangements have to send their own clerks to all parts of a town or into the country to demand payment of their bills of exchange. It affords an efficient safeguard against speculation. It presents means of making payments in distant parts of the country without the transmission of money.

In commencing a banking account the customer pays in as a commencement a sum, say, of from £100 to £5,000; his signature is registered as a specimen of that which he will use when drawing cheques on the bank. He is then furnished with a "cheque book," containing 30 or 100 printed cheques, which can be used for his drawing on account; he also receives a "pass book," which passes between him and the banker, and contains a copy of the banker's ledger account. This pass book the customer uses for the purpose of seeing (either daily or weekly, &c.) whether his own account agrees with that of his banker.

When a customer has occasion to pay an account or draw cash for his own use, he has only to fill up and sign a cheque and his banker will pay it. He transfers to his banker the trouble of paying all his acceptances, all bills of exchange, and collects the cash for cheques paid to him.

The banker makes advances in a variety of ways to persons who want to borrow and can give approved security or can satisfy the lender as to his trustworthiness.

A customer can both refer to his banker for testimony of his own respectability and obtain through him information as to the credit and stability of other parties.

The Wholesale Society allows interest for money placed in its hands according to its value from time to time.

We are prepared to open current accounts with any society located at places named in the lists of banks and their branches given in pages 11, 12, 13, and 14.

The profits made by the Wholesale banking department are apportioned in this wise:—

1st. The customer who has a credit balance with the bank will share in the profits on the earnings in proportion to the amount, varying from a quarter to one per cent over the interest the customer would get from the usual terms allowed by the ordinary banker.

2nd. The debit customers share in the profit too in a similar way to the credit customer, on the amount of interest which is paid on the debit balances of their account, but only to half the profit of the credit customer.

3rd. A customer may be a credit and debit customer in the same quarter, and would receive profits both as borrower and lender.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY

LIMITED.

GROCERY AND PROVISION DEPARTMENTS.

CENTRAL DEPÔT:

1, BALLOON STREET, MANCHESTER.

NEWCASTLE BRANCH:

WATERLOO STREET, NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE.

LONDON BRANCH:

LEMAN STREET, LONDON, E.

A Complete Price List of the goods dealt in is issued weekly, the prices being fixed for the day of issue only. These Weekly Lists, which are sent to Co-operative Societies with whom we do business, contain reports and opinions as to the state of the markets, as regards some of the principal articles.

The reports are intended for, and calculated to be of service to, Committees and Managers of Societies, in pointing out the tendency of the markets, and when to buy to advantage.

The following is a brief *résumé* of the chief commodities, and how the "Wholesale" is circumstanced in relation thereto:—

BUTTER AND EGGS—IRISH.

The arrangements in force for conducting this portion of the business are remarkably well adapted for supplying the same on the most favourable terms.

There are six buyers, attending markets at Cork, Limerick, Kilmallock, Waterford, Tralee, and Armagh. These buyers are gentlemen of the first experience in the trade, and are under the immediate and direct control of the Society—not being merely employed as agents or buyers on commission.

The buyers, although taking up their residences at the places named, attend all the best and noted markets within a radius of twenty or thirty miles, and thus it will be seen that the area covered by their operations embraces a great proportion of the south of Ireland, and some of the most fertile districts of that country.

This Society is by far the most extensive purchaser and shipper of Irish Butter.

BUTTER AND EGGS—DANISH.

The same remarks may be made in this respect as in the case of Irish Butter and Eggs. We have our own buyer stationed at Copenhagen, and he purchases direct from farmers who are considered the best producers in both Denmark and Sweden, and contracts with them for a weekly supply of all they make.

Before shipment, all goods are carefully examined by our representative. Societies should encourage this Branch by giving us weekly orders for shipment direct, and thus save the cost of warehousing and of carriage from Manchester.

BUTTER—KIEL, AND GERMAN EGGS.

Our arrangements for the purchase of these are similar to those at Copenhagen. Our own buyer is located at Hamburg, and buys first-hand from the farmers and producers.

Our ready-money system of doing business commands the best terms, and enables us to do a very extensive and satisfactory trade in these articles.

BUTTER AND EGGS—FRENCH.

Supplies of these are obtained fresh weekly, and are carefully selected for the Society, by competent and experienced men, from the best dairies and districts in France.

AMERICAN BUTTER, CHEESE, BACON, HAMS, LARD, FLOUR, APPLES, &c., &c.—NEW YORK BRANCH.

Two buyers are located at New York, whose duty it is to purchase and export the articles sold by the Society which are grown and manufactured in the United States and Canada.

The business done by the Society, and the Capital always at its command, enables its representatives to enter the markets in an independent manner, and places them in a pre-eminent position to exact terms of the first order. These conditions, and the consequent absence of the intermediate dealers, qualify the Society to transfer the goods from where they are produced to the consumer with the least possible addition to the cost.

CHESHIRE CHEESE.

The Society's buyers visit the best dairies and farms in Cheshire where this is made, and purchase it from the farmers on the spot.

YEAST.

This is imported by the Society direct from the best distillers at Schiedam, Hamburg, and France. It is received in the port of Hull twice in each week—*i.e.*, Mondays and Thursdays—and distributed from there to the Society's customers.

SUGAR.

The large purchases which the Society is able to make, place it in the best position for securing the utmost advantages from the refiners.

In addition to this, the Society's own buyers are in the centre of operations in Liverpool, London, Greenock, and New York, and are able to obtain information at first hand.

There is a telephone connecting its Liverpool offices with the Central establishment at Manchester, and the buyer in Liverpool is thus in constant telephonic

communication with the Central buyer at Manchester, who, being in receipt of the latest and most reliable reports, is enabled to decide which is the most favourable time for making purchases.

Demeraras and other Raws are sampled on arrival, and the most suitable lots selected.

FLOUR, GRAIN, &c.

The finest brands of Hungarian Flours are bought direct from the millers in Hungary. German and Danish Flours are also bought direct, and are imported by us in our own steamers. The two latter brands are purchased by our own buyers, situated at Hamburg and Copenhagen respectively.

The Society's buyers in New York make very extensive purchases of Flour, direct from the millers, in both the United States and Canada.

Grain is bought in large quantities, "to arrive," and Meal of all kinds from the mills direct.

DRIED FRUIT.

Our Dried Fruit buyer goes annually to Greece and Turkey at the season when the fruits are being gathered, and visits the vineyards where the fruits are drying, in order to select the Samples of Currants, Sultanas, and Figs most suitable for Co-operative Societies. These are bought direct from the producer, thereby saving the middlemen's profits, and getting a better selection than could otherwise be obtained.

POTATOES, ONIONS, APPLES, &c.

There is a special buyer for these goods, who travels over the districts known to produce the best sorts, and they are bought direct from the farmers when it can be done with advantage. Our buyer also regularly attends the Liverpool Green Fruit Auctions.

Purchases to a very large extent are also made in France, Belgium, and Germany, and the goods are imported to Goole and Garston by the Society's own steamers, which ply regularly between Calais and Goole and Hamburg and Goole on the East, and Rouen and Garston on the West Coast.

BISCUITS, SWEETS, AND DRY SOAPS.

These goods are manufactured by the Society at their Works, Crumpsall, near Manchester. When impartially judged, the quality compares most favourably indeed with similar articles made by other houses of older standing, and devoted to the special manufacture for a long period.

SUNDRIES.

Some of the other articles in which the Society deals largely are—Preserved Meats, Beef, Mutton, Fish, Salmon, Sardines, and Lobsters.

Preserves and Marmalades; Rice, Sago, and Tapioca; Soaps, Soda, Seeds, Starch, and Blues; Syrup and Treacle; Tobacco and Snuffs.

Mustard, Matches, Ginger, Pepper, and Spices; Eggs; Cocoas and Chicory; Candles.

Candied Peels; Burning Oils, Hair and Scented Oils; Black Lead, Blacking, Baking Powder, Oatmeal, Paper and Paper Bags, Patent Medicines, Pickles, Sauces, &c., &c., &c.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.

Tea, Coffee, and Cocoa Department,

LEMAN STREET, LONDON, E.

We have a buyer on the London Market whose exclusive duty it is to select and purchase Teas, Coffees, and Cocoas direct from the Importers.

The excellence of this arrangement, whether viewed from an economical point, or from that of enabling us to efficiently supply Societies with all the numerous varieties and qualities they may desire, is too apparent to need illustration.

Our unlimited command of money and unequalled organisation places us in a position for doing this trade superior to that of any other house.

ASSAM AND OTHER INDIAN TEAS.

These are made a special study. Year by year they are increasing in favour with the public; and their greater pungency and strength, as compared with China Teas, are likely to make them still further popular.

CHINA TEAS.

Many connoisseurs in Tea are to be found who still enthusiastically champion the merits of these growths. They contend that if they lack the strength and other features of Indian Teas, they possess a peculiarly delicate flavour that to the educated palate is exquisitely grateful. Still, the consumption is rapidly decreasing every year.

CEYLON TEAS.

The most enterprising of the planters in the Island of Ceylon have turned their attention to growing Tea on their estates, with the most gratifying results.

The quality produced supplies a need that has been most urgently felt, viz., Tea possessing the flavour of China Tea without its weakness, and the fulness of Indian Tea without its astringency.

These Teas are rapidly increasing in favour, and the consumption of 1888 shows a very large excess over 1887.

RED LEAF CONGOUS.

The crop of 1888-9, with the exception of Panyongs and Paklums, which are exceptionally good, is inferior to last year.

SEU MOOS have been disappointing, and are decidedly inferior.

SUEY KUTS have also been very inferior.

SARYUNES show an improvement, and are freer from dust.

PADRAES.—Really desirable chops are very scarce.

PANYONGS and PAKLUMS are much better than for some years past.

The quantity shipped is expected to be about ten millions less than last year.

BLACK LEAF CONGOUS.

HANKOW and SHANGHAI crops would have been unusually fine in quality but for very wet weather at the time of picking and curing, which caused the dark infusion so noticeable this season.

KEEMUNS and KINTUCKS have again proved the Teas of the season, and are quite up to their average.

NINGCHOWS, although strong, useful, and well made, want fineness and briskness in the cup.

OOPACKS are on a par with last season, being particularly good in the leaf.

OONFAAS and TOWYUENS in the higher quality are good rich Teas, and superior to last year. The medium and lower grades being strong but lacking quality.

SECOND CROP TEAS are well made and pure, although somewhat deficient in strength.

The DRY LEAF shows a marked improvement in the manufacture, and is very superior to several previous seasons.

The quantity shipped is expected to be about seven million pounds less than last year, but this may be influenced by the course of the market here.

SCENTED TEAS.

The crop has been better than usual, with more scent in the leaf and less dust.

GREEN TEAS.

These are used in very small quantities in proportion to what they once were, and the consumption is still decreasing.

The Adulteration Act seems to have created a prejudice against this class of Tea. The prevalence of artificial colouring having become more widely known, consumers are now very suspicious of them.

The old notion, also, that Green Teas are especially adapted for removing the effects of fatigue, is fast dying away.

BLENDED TEAS.

The art of blending is now carried to a high pitch of perfection, and to work it successfully requires not only a knowledge of the true affinities of the various growths of India, China, and Ceylon, acquired by a long apprenticeship to tea tasting, but ample capital, large premises, suitable machinery, and a competent staff of well-instructed employes. These have been provided for this section of our Tea and Coffee business.

Extreme care is taken to suit all tastes and districts, and everything that can be thought of to make our arrangements, if possible, still more perfect, will be done.

BULK MIXED.

These are packed in cads, half chests, and chests. The saving of capital and labour, the greater efficiency and satisfaction resulting from scientific blending, and the numerous grades supplied by us, is causing a largely-increased demand, and is making them very popular.

CHINA PACKET TEAS.

In addition to the excellence of the blending, we are making extra efforts to turn our packets out of a design and appearance that shall command attention and attract the consumer.

Everyone will admit the superiority in appearance of a handsome packet to the ordinary parcel turned out by the shopman when the Tea is weighed over the counter.

By careful attention to the economy of labour, we are able to supply packets, in large and beautiful variety, at a cost less even than would be incurred if made up in the ordinary way in the Store.

INDIAN PACKET TEAS.

As we have mentioned before, Indian Teas are rapidly increasing in public favour, and, instead of being mixed with China Teas, are now being extensively used by themselves, so to meet these requirements we have introduced two Indian Packets, one a pure Souchong, and the other a pure Pekoe blend.

CEYLON PACKET TEA.

As these Teas are rapidly and deservedly growing in public favour, on account of their strong, rich, and delicious flavour, we have introduced two Ceylon Packet Teas. We warn our readers that a great many mixtures are offered as Pure Ceylon Teas in leaden packets, and represented as being imported direct from Ceylon in this form. Teas offered in such packets should be avoided, as the finest Ceylon Teas are never so imported.

COFFEES.

The EAST INDIA CROP during the past season was a good one, and better than last year—quantity 2,000 tons less.

The production of CEYLON again shows a falling off, showing about 2,000 tons less than last year, and the quality good.

COSTA RICA CROPS large, and quality above average.

No extension is going on in INDIA.

RIO AND SANTOS CROP good; quality only fair, and is small in the berry.

From JAVA only a fair crop is expected; quantity smaller than last year, quality not so good.

RAW COFFEES.

Our arrangements for the supply of all kinds in use in the home market are as efficient as they can be possibly made.

Samples, both in the raw and roasted state, are sent with all quotations.

ROASTED COFFEES.

We now have roasting machinery both in London and Manchester, fitted with all the latest improvements.

These enable us to supply the freshly-roasted article in the most expeditious manner; and great care is taken to finish off the berry to suit the particular requirements of customers.

PACKED COFFEE.

Great quantities of rubbish have been, and are being, sold under different fancy names. The extraordinary proportions the demand for these articles has assumed has led the Government to impose a special tax on all mixtures, so as to compensate for the loss of revenue on Coffee caused by their consumption.

This will now put the honest trader on a fair footing; and, with Coffee so cheap, there is nothing to prevent a really good and pure article being sold in canisters, to the advantage of the customer, and yet with a satisfactory profit to the retailer.

We therefore now sell Coffees of different grades and qualities, both pure and mixed with Chicory, at prices which will be sure to command a good sale.

Our excellent machinery, our economical arrangements, the large scale of our operations, and the well-known beneficial results of division of labour, will enable us to supply Societies cheaper and better than it is possible for them to do for themselves.

COCOA.

In order to give societies the opportunity of getting their supplies at the lowest possible cost, we have commenced the production of the various kinds of Cocoa most in demand.

The greatest care is exercised in the manufacture; ingredients of the best quality only being used. The works are fitted with efficient and modern machinery, which is under the personal supervision of an experienced foreman. This society is thus in a position to manufacture all classes of Cocos showing better quality and value than any others in the market.

Special attention is drawn to the following:—

PURE CONCENTRATED ESSENCE.

A preparation of the finest selected Cocoa nuts from which the greater part of the fat has been extracted; *contains no sugar and no starch*. With this powder can be made a cup of Cocoa thin in body, like Tea and Coffee, but with far more nutritive qualities than either of these.

PREPARED BREAKFAST COCOA,

Made of the finest grown nuts and mixed with such other ingredients of the best quality as are necessary to produce a high-class powder, soluble and easy of digestion.

HOMŒOPATHIC COCOA.

We make two qualities, each of which will be found not inferior to the Cocos usually sold by this name.

PEARL COCOA.

Great care is taken to produce this popular Cocoa in the best form, and the constantly increasing sales show our efforts to have been successful.

ROCK CHOCOLATE.

A preparation of finest Nibs and best Loaf Sugar; specially recommended.

The following also are made, each in various qualities:—ROCK COCOA, FLAKE, COCOA NIBS, &c., &c.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
 LIMITED,
 MANUFACTURERS
 OF
 Biscuits, Sweets, Jam & Marmalade, Dry Soap Powder, &c.,
 AT
 CRUMPSALL WORKS.

SALEROOMS AND WAREHOUSES:
 BALLOON STREET, MANCHESTER;
 WATERLOO STREET, NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE;
 AND
 LEMAN STREET, LONDON, E.;
 WHERE ALL ORDERS MUST BE SENT.

TO supply some of the Retail Stores' requirements, this Society established these Works sixteen years ago. By the rules of the Society the custom of the private trader is refused, and none but Registered Co-operative Societies are supplied. The Retail Stores, members of the Wholesale Society, are the proprietors of these Works, and, as such, the exclusion of private trade is a regulation made by them. We have, therefore, a just claim upon the Stores that they should support their own Works, whilst we acknowledge that they have a claim upon us to supply a pure and serviceable article, as good and as cheap, of its kind and quality, as can be had elsewhere.

THE BISCUITS

Are made of the purest materials, nearly all the flour used being of co-operative manufacture; the machinery employed is of the latest style and most perfect character; the article produced is such that we confidently invite comparison, and urgently solicit all Co-operative Societies to give these Biscuits a trial.

We are able to produce three tons of Biscuits per day.

IN THE MAKING OF SWEETS

We boil the best of sugar (all cane); we employ the best skill; we use only vegetable colouring matter, all of which is perfectly harmless; and we can confidently challenge analysis. Our Sweets need but to be tried to be approved.

LOZENGES.

Our machinery is of the newest and most approved construction for the making of Lozenges in all the varieties mostly in request. In the manufacture of Peppermint Lozenges, we are using Oil of Peppermint supplied by our New York Branch, and we find it to be much more agreeable and pleasant to the taste than any Peppermint we have previously been able to obtain in England. We trust our friends will give this new department a trial, and have no doubt the article produced will bear comparison with the productions of the best makers.

JAMS, JELLIES, AND MARMALADE.

These are made of the best fruit procurable, and Cane Sugar is used exclusively.

CITRATE OF MAGNESIA, AND SHERBET OR LEMON KALI.

These articles are sometimes pressed by makers upon the attention of the stores as "a special cheap quality." They can, however, be made "cheap" only by keeping out the Acids, which are expensive, and putting in more sugar. This sort of cheapness makes the article more agreeable to some tastes, but certainly much less useful. We aim at making the C.W.S. Citrate and Sherbet the best value.

" WHEATSHEAF " BAKING POWDER,

In 1oz. and 2oz. Packets,

Has been tested in practical use with that of the best makers—and with favourable results.

C.W.S. " WHEATSHEAF " BLACK LEAD,

In 1oz. Oblong Blocks, and 1oz. and 2oz. Round Blocks.

We Block the very best of Lead, and our produce cannot be excelled in the brilliancy and polish it imparts.

DRY SOAP.

In the manufacture of this article it is usual to introduce cheap ingredients which have no cleansing properties, and only serve to increase the bulk and the weight, thus catching the unwary by giving them for their money a large packet of small value. We can assure our friends that we use no ingredients which have not valuable detergent or cleansing properties, and our Dry Soap will bear comparison with that of the best makers. This article has recently been subjected to the test of analysis by the Manchester City Analyst, and his figures show that for detergent value or cleansing power the C.W.S. Dry Soap Powder stands in front when compared with the analysis of three other samples from makers of highest repute and longest standing.

SOFT SOAP.

What is said above of Dry Soap is equally applicable in every way to this article.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.

DRAPERY DEPARTMENT.

CENTRAL SALEROOM AND WAREHOUSE:
DANTZIC STREET, MANCHESTER.

NEWCASTLE BRANCH SALEROOM AND WAREHOUSE:
WATERLOO STREET, NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE.

LONDON BRANCH SALEROOM AND WAREHOUSE:
LEMAN STREET, LONDON, E.

THE especial attention of Societies is called to the above Department, as we feel sure, if they will only give us a fair comparison, they will find we can do as well for them as any other house in the trade. The Stock consists of—

HOSIERY

OF EVERY KIND AND MAKE.

Wools, Worsted and Yarns (by the best spinners), Linen and Paper Fronts and Collars, Cuffs; Kid, Wool, Lisle, and Silk Gloves; Wool, Union, and Oxford Shirts; Duck Jackets; Men's and Boys' Hats and Caps.

HABERDASHERY AND SMALLWARES

OF EVERY DESCRIPTION AND MAKE.

Silk and Velvet Buttons, Trimmings, Ribbon Velvets, &c.

FANCY GOODS.

Ladies' and Gents' Scarfs, Ribbons, Laces, Stays, Corsets, Umbrellas in Silk, Alpaca, Zanella.

DRESS DEPARTMENT.

Black and Coloured Merinos, French Twills, Poplins, Satteens, Scotch and German Plaids, Black and Coloured Silks and Velvets.

Scotch and Yorkshire Shawls, Wool Handkerchiefs, Felt and other Skirts, &c.
Lace, Leno, and Harness Curtains and Blinds, Wool, Damask, &c.

MANCHESTER DEPARTMENT.

This Department comprises every kind of Scotch, Irish, and Barnsley Linens; Bleached Calicoes, Sheets, and Sheetings; Oxford, Harvard, and other Cotton Shirtings; Silesias, and every class of Dyed and Printed Linings; Prints, Cretounes, Damasks, Window Hollands, Table Covers, Toilet Quilts, Toilet Covers, &c., &c.

The Stocks are bought from the best manufacturers only, and the finish in all cases is carefully attended to. All Goods are sold under their correct quality and numbers, and the widths and lengths guaranteed. These facts should always be considered when comparing the "Wholesale's" prices with those of other firms.

GREY DEPARTMENT.

Wigans, Mexicans, and Twills in various widths and qualities; Yorkshire, Lancashire, and Saxony Flannels; Bath, Bury, and Twill Blankets; Bleached and Grey Sheets; Alhambras of every kind and in all sizes; Union and Wool Shirtings, Linseys, Kerseys, Lambskins, Down Quilts, &c.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.

WOOLLEN DEPARTMENT,
DANTZIC STREET, MANCHESTER.

WOOLLENS.

IN this department there is always a fine selection of West of England and Yorkshire Fancies, Worsted Coatings, Meltons, Sataras, Diagonals, Superfines, and Doeskins, at all prices; also all the newest designs in Scotch and Irish Suitings, Trouserings, and Coatings.

READY-MADES

In Men's, Youths', and Boys' Garments, of every description and price.

TRIMMINGS.

Black and Coloured Siliesias, Striped Siliesias and Sateens, in all colours and designs. Buckrams, Canvases, Jeans, Pocketings, Black and Coloured Italians and Serges, at all prices.

For choice quality and value this department cannot be beaten by any house in the trade, and merits the support of every society.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY

LIMITED.

FURNISHING DEPARTMENT,

HOLGATE STREET, MANCHESTER.

ILLUSTRATED CATALOGUE AND PRICE LIST

SENT FREE OF CHARGE TO ANY SOCIETY ON APPLICATION.

THE STOCK IN THIS DEPARTMENT

Consists of Sideboards, Tables, Chairs, Stools, Wardrobes, Bookcases, Chiffoniers, Chests of Drawers, Toilet and Pier Glasses, Sofas, Couches, Bedsteads (in wood or iron), Hat Stands, &c.

HARDWARE DEPARTMENT.

Buckets, Saucepans, Kettles, Coal Scuttles, Fenders, Fire Irons, Shovels, Umbrella Stands, Stair Rods, Tin Washups, Breakfast Cans, Milk Cans, Lading Cans, Bread Tins, Dripping Tins, Bellows, Washing and Wringing Machines, Brushes, Cutlery, &c., &c.

CARPET DEPARTMENT.

Kidderminster, Brussels, Tapestry, and Hemp Carpets, Tapestry, Brussels, Wool, Hemp, and Berlin Stair, Cocoa Mats, Cocoa Matting, Twine Matting, Axminster, List, Beam, and Skin Rugs and Mats, Oil Cloth, Painted Back Cloths, Hessian Back Cloths, Linoleums, &c., &c.

FANCY DEPARTMENT.

Hair, Clothes, Tooth, and Nail Brushes, Combs, Satchels, School Bags, Travelling Bags, Albums, Watches, Alberts, Guards, Spectacles, &c., &c.

MACHINERY, SHOP FITTINGS, &c.

We also supply Messrs. Crossley Bros.' "Otto" Gas Engines, and all other kinds of Machinery and Shop Fittings required by Societies.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.

CROCKERY DEPARTMENT,
STAFFORD STREET, LONGTON.

OUR Depôt in the Potteries is stocked with a choice selection of goods of the best manufacture suitable for the requirements of societies. At the same time we beg to call your attention to the following advantages we possess over manufacturers:—

First.—We can supply crates of mixed goods of all kinds—EARTHENWARE, CHINA, JET, ROCKINGHAM, GLASS, YELLOW and BROWN WARE.

Secondly.—We can supply them promptly, which is what manufacturers cannot continuously do, as they are certain to run out of stock of some kind very often.

Thirdly.—We can supply very small quantities of each article—which, with the above-mentioned promptitude, will enable you to keep a very small stock, and place it within the power of the smallest store to keep crockery to advantage.

Fourthly.—By combining our resources of capital with the services of a buyer on the spot we are able to purchase goods from the best makers, and supply them on as good terms as can be got by dealing direct with the manufacturers, and in greater variety.

Fifthly.—In dealing direct there is generally a heavy charge for crates, which will be avoided, as we find crates and charge 1s. only for the hire, straw and packing being charged 5s. for sixteen-bar crates, 4s. for fourteen-bar crates, 3s. 6d. for twelve-bar crates, 2s. 6d. for ten-bar crates, and 1s. 6d. for eight-bar crates.

We trust that these considerations will induce every society to add crockery to their other business; and as we keep a number of crates on hand ready packed, consisting of China, Earthenware, Rockingham, and Jet Teapots, &c., suitable for beginning in this branch of trade, we shall be pleased to forward one immediately to any society which will intimate their willingness to give it a trial. For assortment of crates, &c., see our Price List, free to any society on application.

N.B.—All orders to be sent direct to Longton.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY

LIMITED.

WEST END SHOE WORKS, LEICESTER.

WAREHOUSES:

BALLOON STREET, MANCHESTER; WATERLOO STREET,
NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE; AND LEMAN STREET, LONDON, E.

SALEROOMS:

LEEDS, HUDDERSFIELD, NOTTINGHAM, BLACKBURN.

Orders should be sent either direct to the Central Office, 1, Balloon Street, Manchester, or to the Branch Warehouses, Waterloo Street, Newcastle, and Leman Street, London.

To avoid delay, orders for Bespoke or Measured Work must be sent direct to the Works at Leicester.

WE manufacture all kinds of Boots—Men's and Boys' Grain, Calf, and Kip Watertights, Extra Stout Cowhide Waterproof Shooting Boots, Open and Closed Tab Bals, French Calf, Crupp, and Patent Golosh, Kip Derbys, Calfskin, Crupp, and Calf Patent Oxon and Derby Shoes—in Riveted, Woodpegged, Hand and Machine Sewn, Fairstitched, and Standard Screwed.

For Ladies and Misses' we make Lace, Button, Side Spring, Mock Button Boots in Calf Kid, Glove Kid, Glacé Kid, Seat Levant, Goat Levant and Morocco, Kip Levant, Crupp, English and French Calf, Mock Glove, French Sheep, and other materials. We also manufacture a large range in every description of Ladies' and Misses' Shoes.

In Children's Boots and Shoes we have an endless variety. We are also producing Ladies' Cashmere Button and Elastic Side Boots in all prices from 2s. 9d. upwards.

In addition to the Goods enumerated in our Price List, we are constantly adding fresh samples to meet the requirements of the different districts. We also make the following specialities in Gentlemen's Boots:—"The Co-operator," "Federative," "Timely," "Jubilee," "Serviceable," and "Progress."

In our Illustrated List we give the numbers of those usually kept in stock at Manchester, as well as at the Branch Warehouses in Newcastle and London. Societies requiring any kind of Goods not mentioned in our *List*, we shall be glad to make for them upon receiving instructions.

Although there is a growing demand for Low-priced Goods, which we endeavour to meet, we have in no case departed from the principle which has been adhered to since the commencement of these Works—of always using material of known excellence, and discarding the use of all substitutes for honest leather. The continued and growing demand for our productions warrants us in stating that for quality and price they are equal, if not superior, to anything supplied by the general trade.

We are now making over two hundred pairs of Bespoke and Measured Work weekly, and every effort is made to supply these orders promptly; but many delays, misfits, and mistakes would be avoided if societies would only follow our instructions for measurement. A draft of the foot should in all cases be taken. Societies should always use our Order Books specially arranged for this department, which are only 10d. each, and can be obtained at either the Central or Branch Warehouses. Societies can be supplied with Cut Soles for Repairing purposes in any quantity or quality. Price List on application.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY

LIMITED.

HECKMONDWIKE BOOT & SHOE WORKS.

SALE ROOMS AND WAREHOUSES :

BALLOON STREET, MANCHESTER ;

WATERLOO STREET, NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE ;

LEMAN STREET, LONDON, E.

Orders must be addressed either to Central Office, or to the Branch Establishments at Newcastle or London.

THESE Works having been enlarged considerably, we are now in a position to double our production, and we appeal to Societies to give us their support.

The Goods we make are MEN'S and YOUTHS' STRONG NAILED, suitable for miners, quarrymen, farm labourers, masons, joiners, railway servants, &c. We also make in MEN'S and BOYS' a quantity of MEDIUM STRENGTH with SMOOTH BOTTOMS, with nails driven up, suitable for a working boot in lighter occupations.

We also make WOMEN'S STRONG LACED MILL BOOTS. In the manufacture of our goods we pay special attention to the selection of material used for the inner sole, which is the foundation of a strong boot, and on which depends entirely the wear, and when re-soled and heeled gives the repairer a good foundation to work upon. This very important feature applies to the whole of the goods we make, from the lowest priced ones upwards.

We desire it to be fully understood that none of our manufactures contain paper or composition leather board, but solid leather; and therefore, if in some instances our prices are found to be somewhat higher than goods of similar appearance, you may rely upon it the difference of the price is in the quality.

CURRYING DEPARTMENT.

The above Department is now in full working order, and we are able to supply Societies with any of the following Goods :—

LEVANT HIDES.	MEMEL HIDES.	SATIN KIPS.
“ KIPS.	“ HIDE BUTTS.	“ KIP SHOULDERS.
“ KIP SHOULDERS.	“ KIPS.	WAXED HIDE BUTTS.
“ HORSE SHOULDERS.	SATIN HIDES.	“ KIP BUTTS.
“ “ BELLIES.	“ HIDE SHOULDERS.	“ E. J. CALF.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY

LIMITED.

SOAP MANUFACTURERS,
AT THE
SOAP WORKS, GILESGATE, DURHAM.

SALEROOMS AND WAREHOUSES:
BALLOON STREET, MANCHESTER;
WATERLOO STREET, NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE;
LEMAN STREET, LONDON, E;
AND 106, VICTORIA STREET, BRISTOL—
Where all Orders must be sent.

THESE Works were established October, 1874, to enable the Society to supply its members with a pure article. We can, without fear of contradiction, say that the Soap supplied from these Works is equal to any supplied by the best manufacturers, combining all the qualities of a substantial cleaning agency, and being manufactured from the very best raw material.

We supply the following qualities:

WHEATSHEAF PALE	WHITE WINDSOR
GOLDEN PALE	COLD WATER
FIRST "	BEST EXTRA PALE
SECOND "	X
XX "	FINE "
GOLDEN WINDSOR	BEST MOTTLED "
PALE "	SECOND "

HONEY SOAP, 1lb., $\frac{1}{2}$ lb., and $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. Tablets.

ALMOND " " " " "

SPECIALITIES:—CARBOLIC SOAP.

CONGRESS SOAP (in Tablets).

WHEATSHEAF TABLETS.

ALL CARRIAGE PAID.

For prices, see Society's Weekly Price List. Samples will be sent on application.

We are convinced that a much larger trade might be done if societies would only give this Soap a fair trial. The Co-operative Society at Durham, since the opening of these Works in 1874, have obtained their supply from no other source, and it has given entire satisfaction to their members. We therefore ask societies to support their own production, instead of obtaining their supply from other makers, who have travellers ever on the road waiting upon store managers seeking to influence them to buy their soap, and not that of their own manufacture.

CO-OPERATORS, SUPPORT CO-OPERATIVE PRODUCTION.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED,
WOOLLEN MANUFACTURERS,
LIVINGSTONE MILLS,
BATLEY, YORKSHIRE.

SALEROOMS AND WAREHOUSES:

1, BALLOON STREET, MANCHESTER;
WATERLOO STREET, NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE;
AND LEMAN STREET, LONDON, E.

THE production of the above Mills is now of such a class as will ensure us the trade of societies who will favour us with a trial order.

The designs are of the latest, and the goods well and substantially made, and we hope to be favoured with inquiries from societies before they purchase elsewhere.

Pattern cards will be sent on application.

PRODUCTIVE SOCIETIES

FOR WHICH THE

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY ARE AGENTS.

The Agricultural and Horticultural Association Limited.

Reliable Farm and Garden Seeds; special Manures for Fruit, Vegetable, and Garden Crops.

The Airedale Manufacturing Society Limited.

Manufacturers of Black Alpaca Lustres, Black Brilliantines, Black and Coloured French Twills, Mohair Glacés, Black and Coloured Persian, Russel and Cable Cords, Wool Serges, Black Orleans, Black and Coloured Italians, Black and Coloured Figures, Mottles, Mixtures, Stripes, &c., &c.

The Coventry Co-operative Watch Manufacturing Society Limited.

The Watches supplied by this Society we can well recommend as being of uniform good quality, and it engages to keep them in good going order for twelve months from date of purchase. We trust that individuals, through their societies, will give us their orders, so that we may do a larger trade in this department. Watches, from £2. 10s. to £25 each.

The Dudley Nail Manufacturing Society Limited.

The Dudley Productive Co-operative Society Limited.

Manufacturers of all kinds of Galvanised Goods, Buckets, Nails, &c.

The Eccles Industrial Manufacturing Society Limited.

Manufacturers of Toilet, Alhambra, and Damask Quilts, by hand and power; also Twill Sheetings, all of the best quality, and in tastily-arranged patterns.

Having repeatedly compared the Quilts produced by the Eccles Manufacturing Society with the Quilts made by other firms, we are thoroughly satisfied that those made by them are equal, and, when cost is considered, superior, to those sold by other makers. All Toilet and Honeycomb Quilts sold by the Co-operative Wholesale Society are made by the Eccles Manufacturing Society, and all members, when purchasing, should ask for the Eccles Quilts, and insist upon having them.

The Hebden Bridge Fustian Manufacturing Society Limited.

Manufacturers of Cords, Moles, Velveteens, Imperials, Diagonals, Satteens, Twills, &c., in every variety and colour; Fustian Clothing, ready-made and to order. Samples and prices on application.

The Heckmondwike Manufacturing Society Limited.

Manufacturers of Carpets, Horse Cloths, Blankets, &c.

The Lancashire and Yorkshire Co-operative Productive Society Limited.

Manufacturers of Flannels, plain and coloured, of guaranteed purity and excellence of manufacture, combined with reasonable prices. Societies ordering sufficiently large may, if desired, have the goods finished to suit their special markets.

The Leek Silk Twist Manufacturing Company Limited.

The Leicester Elastic Web Manufacturing Society Limited.

The Leicester 2nd Hosiery Manufacturing Society Limited.

We are now their sole agents, and keep a stock of all classes of goods made by them.

The Midland Nail Makers' Association Limited.

The Paisley Manufacturing Society Limited.

Manufacturers of Saxony Wool Shawls and Plaids, in plain and fancy checks; Saxony Wool Handkerchiefs and Scarfs, Dress Tartans, and Twilled and Plain Wool Shirtings. A large variety of patterns to select from.

The Rochdale Pioneers' Society Limited.

Manufacturers of Tobacco, Snuffs, &c.

The Sheepshed Hosiery Manufacturing Society Limited.

The Sheffield Co-operative Cutlery Manufacturing Society Limited.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.

REGULAR STEAM SERVICE
BETWEEN
GARSTON (LIVERPOOL) & ROUEN.

OFFICES:

CENTRAL: BALLOON STREET, MANCHESTER.
LIVERPOOL: VICTORIA BUILDINGS, VICTORIA STREET,
GARSTON: NEW DOCK. ROUEN: 2, RUE JEANNE D'ARC.

“PIONEER”
OR OTHER STEAMER DESPATCHED FORTNIGHTLY.

EXTRA STEAMERS TO SUIT THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE TRADE.

Goods carried at through rates, with quick despatch, between Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham, and North of England Towns, and Paris, Lyons, Beauvais, Lille, and North and East of France.

For Rates of Freight and other information, apply to the Society's offices, as above.

On the outward voyages from Garston, in addition to sundry goods, the shipments consist largely of caustic soda, bleaching powder, and other chemicals from Widnes and St. Helens district—machinery from Manchester and Bolton and neighbouring towns—American and East Indian cotton which has arrived at Liverpool and been ordered for shipment to Rouen, the principal seat of cotton industry in France. There are also considerable shipments of copper. On arrival of the goods at Garston they are taken directly alongside our steamers, in the railway wagons, and then by means of powerful hydraulic cranes they are transferred from the wagons to the hold of the steamers. By this means shippers may rely on the shipments being effected with prompt despatch, and we avoid the risk of damage which sometimes occurs when cartage is employed.

At Rouen the steamers are berthed in close proximity to the railway lines, so that goods can be landed from the steamers direct on to the railway wagons. Or when consignees order goods to be forwarded from Rouen by water, the river barges are loaded alongside the steamer, and these are towed by powerful steam tugs up the Seine to Paris. Providing no exceptional delay occurs, the transit up the river occupies little over two days.

On the return journey from Rouen the steamers' cargo principally consists of loaf sugar coming from Paris, also sugar in bags, chemicals, dye stuffs, flour, field seeds, metals, and besides there are sundry goods in cases, such as glassware, toys, haberdashery, and *articles de Paris*.

In fine weather the sea voyage between Garston and Rouen occupies about three days. No effort is spared to ensure the steamer being despatched punctually from each port on the appointed dates, and as by this means a regular service is maintained, we are favoured with a large traffic from general shippers.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.

GOOLE AND CALAIS LINE OF STEAMERS.

CENTRAL OFFICES :

1. Balloon Street, Manchester.

GOOLE OFFICES :

Co-operative Wholesale Society, Goole.

CALAIS OFFICES :

Co-operative Wholesale Society, 5, Rue du Paradis, Calais.

WEEKLY SERVICE BETWEEN GOOLE & CALAIS.

The new powerful and fast steamship "PROGRESS," or other steamer, will (weather and other casualties permitting) sail regularly between Goole and Calais, leaving Goole every **Wednesday** and Calais every **Saturday**. This line is in direct communication at Goole with the L. & Y. and N.E. Railway Companies, whose wagons can be loaded direct from the steamers, thereby ensuring despatch with the least risk of damage to the goods carried by the line.

The Aire and Calder Navigation Company run their canal boats alongside the Company's steamers, so that all who prefer their goods carried by canal can have them loaded direct into the Aire and Calder Company's boats and *vice versa*.

At Calais the steamers are berthed near the Custom House and opposite the goods warehouse of the North of France Railway Company, where the goods can be stored waiting the arrival of the steamers.

The North of France Railway Company have a line of rails laid to the place where the steamers are berthed, so that goods entrusted to this line can be safely and quickly despatched to their destination. The Goole and Calais route is the best and cheapest between the great manufacturing centres of the North of England and those of the North of France; and shippers in those districts will find it to their advantage to give this line a trial.

Goods are carried at through rates from any part of the United Kingdom to the principal cities of France and the Continent.

For rates of freight and other information apply to the

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY, 1, Balloon Street, Manchester;

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY, Goole; or

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY, 5, Rue du Paradis, Calais.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.

Goole and Hamburg Line of Steamers.

CENTRAL OFFICES: 1, BALLOON STREET, MANCHESTER.

GOOLE OFFICES: CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY, GOOLE.

HAMBURG OFFICES: MR. W. ZODER, AGENT, 3, STEINHOF, HAMBURG.

REGULAR SERVICE BETWEEN
GOOLE AND HAMBURG.

The powerful and fast steamships "EQUITY," "FEDERATION," and "UNITY," or other Steamers, will (weather and other casualties permitting) sail regularly between Goole and Hamburg,

LEAVING EACH PORT TWICE A WEEK.

Extra Steamers to suit the requirements of the Trade.

This line is in direct communication at Goole with the L. & Y. & N.E. Railway Companies, whose wagons can be loaded direct from the steamer, without the risk or expense of cartage. This is of great importance to shippers, as it ensures a quick delivery of their goods in a clean and undamaged condition.

The Aire and Calder Navigation Company run their canal boats alongside the Company's steamers, so that all who prefer their goods carried by canal can have them loaded direct into the Aire and Calder Company's boats, and *vice versa*.

At Hamburg the steamers are berthed alongside the warehouses of the Railway Company, where the goods can be stored waiting the arrival of the steamers.

GOODS ARE CARRIED AT THROUGH RATES

From any part of the United Kingdom to the principal cities of Germany and the Continent.

For Rates of Freight and other information apply to the CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY, 1, Balloon Street, Manchester; CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY, Goole; or Mr. W. ZODER, Agent, 3, Steinhof, Hamburg.

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY

LIMITED.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS IN CONNECTION THEREWITH SINCE ITS COMMENCEMENT.

YEAR.	DAY.	EVENTS.
1863	Aug. 11 ..	Co-operative Wholesale Society enrolled.
1864	Mar. 14 ..	Co-operative Wholesale Society commenced business.
1866	April 24 ..	Tipperary Branch opened.
1868	June 1 ..	Kilmallock Branch opened.
1869	Mar. 1 ..	Balloon Street Warehouse opened.
"	July 12 ..	Limerick Branch opened.
1871	Nov. 26 ..	Newcastle-on-Tyne Branch opened.
1872	July 1 ..	Manchester Boot and Shoe Department commenced.
"	Oct. 14 ..	Bank Department commenced.
1873	Jan. 13 ..	Crumpsall Works purchased.
"	April 14 ..	Armagh Branch opened.
"	June 2 ..	Manchester Drapery Department established.
"	July 14 ..	Waterford Branch opened.
"	Aug. 4 ..	Cheshire Branch opened.
"	" 4 ..	Leicester Works purchased.
"	" 16 ..	Insurance Fund established.
"	Sept. 15 ..	Leicester Works commenced.
1874	Feb. 2 ..	Tralee Branch opened.
"	Mar. 9 ..	London Branch established.
"	Oct. 5 ..	Durham Soap Works commenced.
1875	April 2 ..	Liverpool Purchasing Department commenced.
"	June 15 ..	Manchester Drapery Warehouse, Dantzic Street, opened.
1876	Feb. 14 ..	Newcastle Branch Buildings, Waterloo Street, opened.
"	" 21 ..	New York Branch established.
"	May 24 ..	S.S. "Plover" purchased.
"	July 16 ..	Manchester Furnishing Department commenced.
"	Aug. 5 ..	Leicester Works first Extensions opened.
1877	Jan. 15 ..	Cork Branch established.
"	Oct. 25 ..	Land in Liverpool purchased.
1879	Feb. 21 ..	S.S. "Pioneer," Launch of.
"	Mar. 24 ..	Rouen Branch opened.
"	" 29 ..	S.S. "Pioneer," Trial trip.

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY

LIMITED.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS IN CONNECTION THEREWITH—CONTINUED.

YEAR.	DAY.	EVENTS.
1879	June 30 ..	Goole Forwarding Department opened.
1880	Jan. 30 ..	S.S. "Plover" sold.
"	Aug. 14 ..	Heckmondwike Boot and Shoe Works commenced.
"	Sept. 27 ..	London Drapery Department commenced in new premises,
1881	June 6 ..	Copenhagen Branch opened. [Hooper Square.
"	July 27 ..	S.S. "Cambrian" purchased.
1882	Oct. 31 ..	Leeds Saleroom opened.
"	Nov. 1 ..	London Tea and Coffee Department commenced.
1883	July 21 ..	S.S. "Marianne Briggs" purchased.
1884	April 7 ..	Hamburg Branch commenced.
"	May 31 ..	Leicester Works second Extensions opened.
"	June 25 ..	Newcastle Branch—New Drapery Warehouse opened.
"	Sept. 13 ..	Commemoration of the Society's Twenty-first Anniversary at Newcastle-on-Tyne and London.
"	" 20 ..	Commemoration of the Society's Twenty-first Anniversary
"	" 29 ..	Bristol Depôt commenced. [at Manchester.
"	Oct. 6 ..	Launch of the s.s. "Progress."
1885	Dec. 30 ..	Fire—London Branch.
1886	April 22 ..	Nottingham Saleroom opened.
"	Aug. 25 ..	Longton Crockery Depôt opened.
"	Oct. 12 ..	Launch of s.s. "Federation."
1887	Mar. 14 ..	Batley Mill commenced.
"	June 1 ..	S.S. "Progress" damaged by fire at Hamburg.
"	July 21 ..	Manchester—New Furnishing Warehouse opened.
"	Nov. 2 ..	London Branch—New Warehouse opened.
"	" 2 ..	Manufacture of Cocoa and Chocolate commenced.
1888	July 7 ..	Launch of the s.s. "Equity."
"	Aug. 29 ..	Heckmondwike—Currying Department commenced.
"	Sept. 8 ..	S.S. "Equity" Trial Trip.
"	" 27 ..	S.S. "Cambrian" sold.
"	Oct. 14 ..	Fire—Newcastle Branch.

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE

Progress of the Society from its commencement

YEAR ENDING	£s Shares taken up.	No. of Members belonging to our Shareholders.	CAPITAL.						Net Sales.
			Shares.	Loans and Deposits.	Trade and Bank Reserve Fund.	Insurance Fund.	Reserved Expenses.	Total.	
			£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Oct. 1864 (30 weeks)	18,397	2,455	Included in	2,455	51,857
" 1865	24,005	7,182	Shares.	7,182	120,754
" 1866	81,090	10,968	82	11,050	175,489
Jan. 1868 (65 weeks)	59,349	11,276	14,855	682	26,813	331,744
" 1869	74,797	14,888	16,059	1,115	32,062	412,240
" 1870	79,245	16,556	22,822	1,280	40,658	507,217
" 1871 (53 weeks)	89,880	19,015	22,323	2,826	44,164	677,734
" 1872	5,835	114,588	24,410	25,768	1,910	52,088	758,764
" 1873	6,949	134,276	31,352	112,589	2,916	146,857	1,153,193
" 1874	13,899	168,985	48,126	147,949	1,613	2,356	..	200,044	1,636,950
" 1875	17,326	198,608	60,930	193,594	5,373	3,385	..	263,282	1,964,829
" 1876	22,254	249,516	78,249	286,614	8,910	5,834	..	379,607	2,247,395
" 1877 (53 weeks)	24,717	276,522	94,590	299,287	12,631	10,843	694	417,985	2,697,366
" 1878	24,979	274,649	103,091	287,536	14,554	12,556	788	418,525	2,827,052
" 1879	28,206	305,161	117,657	291,989	16,245	15,127	1,146	442,114	2,705,625
Dec. 1879 (50 weeks)	30,688	331,625	130,615	321,670	25,240	15,710	1,095	494,330	2,645,331
" 1880	33,663	361,523	146,061	361,805	38,422	17,905	1,661	565,854	3,389,681
" 1881	34,351	367,973	156,052	386,824	16,037	18,644	2,489	589,046	3,574,095
" 1882	38,643	404,006	171,940	416,832	20,757	19,729	2,945	632,203	4,038,238
" 1883	41,783	433,151	186,692	455,879	20,447	21,949	6,214	691,181	4,546,889
" 1884 (53 weeks)	45,099	459,734	207,080	494,840	25,126	24,324	9,988	761,358	4,675,371
" 1885	51,099	507,772	234,112	524,781	31,094	40,084	11,104	841,175	4,793,151
" 1886	58,612	558,104	270,679	587,527	37,755	57,015	11,403	944,379	5,223,179
" 1887	64,475	604,800	300,953	590,091	39,095	73,237	13,666	1,017,042	5,719,235
.....	56,817,318

Dr.

RESERVE FUND ACCOUNT FROM

Transferred to Reserve Fund, as above	£	82,272
Bonus to Employés: Balances between Amounts Provided and actually Paid	£	911
Dividend on Bad Debts, previously written off	£	720
Unclaimed Shares and Cash	£	20
Profit on Sale of Strawberry Estate, Newcastle	£	1,953
" " Land, Liverpool	£	713
" " Land and Buildings, Rosedale	£	11

£86,000

SOCIETY LIMITED.

March, 1864, to December, 1887.

Comparison with corresponding period previous year.		DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES.			Net Profit.	Average Dividend paid per £.	Transferred to Reserve Fund.	Dates Departments and Branches were commenced.
Increase.	Rate.	Amnt.	Rate on Sales					
£			£	Per £.	Per £100.	£	d.	£
.....	..	847	1 13	4 1/2	267	1 1/2	
.....	..	906	1 15	0	1,858	3 1/2	
54,785	45 1/2	1,615	2 18	4 3/4	2,310	3	234	Tipperary.
112,688	51 1/2	3,135	2 18	10 1/2	4,411	3	450	
124,063	43	3,938	1 16	2 1/2	4,862	2 3/4	416	Kilmallock.
94,977	23	4,644	2 18	3 1/2	4,248	1 3/4	542	Limerick.
159,379	30 1/2	5,583	1 16	5 1/2	7,626	2 1/4	1,620	
86,559	12 1/2	6,853	2 18	0 1/2	7,867	2 1/4	1,036	Newcastle.
394,368	51 1/2	12,811	2 22	2 1/2	11,116	2 1/2	1,243	Manchester Boot and Shoe, Crumpsall.
483,818	41 1/2	21,147	3	25 10	14,238	2	922	{ Armagh, Manchester Drapery, Leicester, Hart-
327,879	20	28,496	3 28	11 1/2	20,684	2	4,461	ford, Waterford, Clonmel.
282,566	14 1/2	31,555	3 28	0 1/2	26,750	2 1/2	4,826	London, Tralee, Durham.
401,095	17 1/2	42,436	3 31	5 1/2	36,979	2 1/2	4,925	Liverpool.
188,897	7 1/2	48,169	3 30	6 1/2	29,189	2	579	New York, Goole, Furnishing. S.S. purchased.
121,427*	4 1/2	49,093	3 31	10 1/2	34,959	2 1/2	5,970	Cork.
22,774	1 1/2	41,909	3 31	2 1/2	42,764	2 1/2	8,060	{ Launch of Steamship "Pioneer." Ronen.
611,282	22 1/2	47,153	3 28	2 1/2	42,090	2 1/2	10,651	Goole forwarding depôt.
224,414	7	51,906	3 28	8 1/2	46,850	2 1/2	7,672	Heckmondwike.
464,143	12 1/2	57,340	2 28	4 1/2	49,658	2 1/2	3,416	Copenhagen. Purchase of S.S. "Cambrian."
508,651	12 1/2	66,057	3 29	0 1/2	47,885	2 1/2	3,176	Tea and Coffee Department, London.
41,042	4 1/2	70,343	3 30	1	54,491	2 1/2	6,432	Purchase of s.s. "Marianne Briggs."
203,946	4 1/2	74,305	3 31	0	77,430	3 1/2	4,434	Hamburg. Bristol Depôt. Launch of "Progress."
430,028	8 1/2	81,653	3 31	3 1/2	83,328	3 1/2	7,077	Longton Depôt. Launch of S.S. "Federation."
490,056	9 1/2	93,979	3 32	10 1/2	65,141	2 1/2	4,180	Batley, Heckmondwike, Currying.
*Decrease.	..	832,513	3 1 1/2	23 3 1/2	717,196	2 1/2	82,272	

COMMENCEMENT OF SOCIETY.

Cr.

	£
Celebration Dinner: Opening Warehouse, Balloon Street	56
Land and Buildings Account Depreciation, Special	1,148
Fixtures	852
Newcastle Formation Expenses	16
Insurance Fund	6,000
Investments Written off: Bank Department	18,259
Trade Department	10,660
Manchester Ship Canal	6,000
Donations, Subscriptions, &c.	8,334
21st Anniversary Commemoration Expenses	2,017
BALANCE :-	53,542
Reserve Fund, as per Capital Account, December 24, 1887	32,658
	£86,000

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE
SUMMARY OF TOTAL DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES

SALES=	1864. 7 weeks ending April.		1864-5. Year ending April, 1865.		1865-6. Year ending April, 1866.	
	£5,962.		£88,420.		£143,269.	
	Amount	Rate per £100	Amount	Rate per £100	Amount	Rate per £100
	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	43-05	173-30	373-83	101-47	587-25	98-38
Auditors' Fees	11-73	3-19	29-08	4-86
Fees—General and Branch Committees	20-26	5-48	26-21	4-99
" Sub-Committees °
" Finance
" Stocktakers	2-06	3-4
" Treasurer
" Deputations
Fares—General and Branch Committees
Price Lists—Printing
" Postage
Printing Balance Sheets
" and Stationery	36-61	9-94	65-30	10-95
Periodicals
Travelling	2-80	11-27	6-10	1-65	13-46	2-26
Telegrams
Stamps	3-00	12-08	36-65	9-95	61-00	10-23
Petty Cash	1-07	4-30	10-11	2-74	15-56	2-60
Advertisements
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	2-92	11-75	71-67	19-45	81-50	13-66
Coals, Gas, and Water	32	1-29	4-54	1-23	7-25	1-21
Expenses—Quarterly Meeting
Oil, Waste, and Tallow
Legal
Repairs	2-80	76	2-39	37
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee	1-62	44	2-88	48
Depreciation—Fixtures	151-10	41-03	83-15	13-93
" Land and Buildings
Interest	55-03	14-94	235-42	47-82
SPECIAL:—						
Rules Revising—Fees
Travelling—Mr. Pitman	46-39	7-77
GRAND TOTAL	53-16	213-99	782-04	212-27	1308-85	219-25

SOCIETY LIMITED.

SINCE COMMENCEMENT OF THE SOCIETY.

1866-7.		1867.		1868.		1869.		1870.		1871.	
Year ending April, 1867.		3 quarters ending Jan., 1868		Year ending January, 1869.		Year ending January, 1870.		53 weeks ending January, 1871.		Year ending January, 1872.	
£210,903.		£231,290		£412,240.		£507,217.		£677,734.		£758,764.	
Amount	Rate per £100	Amount	Rate per £100	Amount	Rate per £100	Amount	Rate per £100	Amount	Rate per £100	Amount	Rate per £100
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
872.75	99.34	789.32	81.90	1147.14	66.78	1236.67	58.52	1633.50	57.86	1952.34	61.75
45.00	5.12	60.00	6.22	70.00	4.07	60.00	2.84	80.00	2.83	80.00	2.53
35.65	3.99	41.18	4.27	80.25	4.69	78.95	3.74	55.92	1.98	82.75	2.59
..	17.25	.61	45.50	1.44
..	23.50	1.00
5.82	.66	7.70	.89	1.00	.03	1.75	.05
..	..	1.88	.20	12.75	.74	13.00	.61	13.00	.46	13.25	.41
..	..	3.50	.86	14.70	.86	35.58	1.68	16.42	.58	26.50	.83
..	20.13	1.17	30.89	1.46	33.09	1.17	89.01	2.80
..	40.98	1.94	81.41	2.91	103.41	3.27
..	33.50	1.59	67.89	2.40	43.99	1.49
..	23.50	1.35	68.97	2.44	61.87	1.95
99.14	11.24	119.72	12.42	180.28	10.49	314.43	14.83	330.42	11.70	402.87	12.74
..	1.18	.04
14.78	1.70	25.20	2.60	20.97	1.23	38.21	1.81	50.05	1.77	117.25	3.71
..	..	3.90	.40	10.13	.59	15.87	.73	22.81	.81	42.24	1.46
87.79	9.99	86.77	9.00	154.23	8.98	205.70	9.73	235.36	8.33	180.68	5.71
36.27	4.12	20.31	2.11	14.77	.86	54.40	2.58	80.80	2.86	85.15	2.65
..	..	3.00	.31	26.88	1.56	30.50	1.44	27.93	.99	7.15	.22
98.40	10.63	76.48	7.94	120.01	6.98	140.97	6.67	126.14	4.47	151.35	4.77
6.75	.78	3.88	.40	6.21	.36	42.83	2.02	69.59	2.46	120.58	3.83
..	10.00	.32
..	7.26	.34	1.62	.05	7.35	.23
..	9.76	.46	7.93	.28	24.66	.78
2.05	.23	.82	.08	2.01	.12	5.00	.18	169.73	5.37
12.18	1.39	27.19	2.81	32.94	1.92	33.78	1.60	96.71	3.43	99.70	3.26
93.14	10.59	8.40	.87	8.82	.51	71.93	3.37	142.15	5.03	101.42	3.24
..	145.02	6.86	259.94	9.20	375.62	11.88
559.32	63.65	825.47	85.70	1409.40	82.05	1978.71	93.63	2030.51	71.90	2459.12	77.62
..	7.36	.43
..
1963.44	223.43	2104.67	218.39	3338.98	194.39	4046.34	219.85	5585.09	197.77	6855.24	216.84

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE
SUMMARY OF TOTAL DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES

	1872.		1873.		1874.	
	Year ending January, 1873.		Year ending January, 1874.		Year ending January, 1875.	
	SALES= £1,153,132.		£1,636,950		£1,964,829	
	Amount	Rate per £100	Amount	Rate per £100	Amount	Rate per £100
Wages	£ 3839-05	d. 79-90	£ 6917-97	d. 101-42	£ 9260-94	d. 113-25
Auditors' Fees	130-00	2-71	165-00	2-42	170-00	2-07
" Fares						
Fees—General and Branch Committees	179-75	3-74	206-03	3-02	160-65	1-96
" Building Committee						
" Sub-Committees	7-25	1-15	23-00	4-1	83-90	1-02
" Finance					8-50	1-0
" Stocktakers	2-25	1-04	10-33	1-15	11-40	1-13
" Secretaries	25-00	5-2	20-00	2-9	20-00	2-4
" Treasurer	13-00	2-7	13-00	1-9	9-25	1-1
" Deputations	77-64	1-54	149-80	2-19	156-67	1-90
" Scrutineers					1-00	1-01
Fares—General and Branch Committees	131-58	2-73	161-04	2-36	120-87	1-48
" Building Committee						
" Sub-Committees			2-01	3-03	51-54	6-3
" Finance					2-35	3-03
" Stocktakers			2-64	4-04	4-86	5-06
" Deputations						
" Scrutineers					81	1-01
Price Lists—Printing	182-29	3-79	197-87	2-89	301-65	3-68
" Postage	73-40	1-52	84-61	1-24	92-53	1-13
Annals—Printing						
" Postage						
Printing Balance Sheets	77-97	1-62	97-45	1-43	168-88	2-04
" and Stationery	658-23	13-68	980-94	14-38	1383-19	16-89
Periodicals						
Travelling	348-00	7-24	392-28	5-75	600-84	7-45
Telegrams	136-63	2-88	171-44	2-51	252-02	3-08
Stamps	348-80	7-25	503-81	7-88	793-93	8-96
Petty Cash	89-87	1-92	108-46	1-59	121-10	1-50
Advertisements	46-81	9-7	102-58	1-53	68-90	8-4
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	403-59	8-40	478-99	7-02	924-83	11-29
Coals, Gas, and Water	178-07	3-70	363-97	5-30	335-42	4-09
Expenses—Quarterly Meeting			21-87	3-0	67-96	8-3
Reporting			13-39	1-9	4-20	5-05
Oil, Waste, and Tallow	8-59	1-17	13-43	1-9	5-20	6-06
Legal	21-97	4-5			19-36	2-3
Repairs	275-56	5-73	165-85	2-40	211-64	2-59
Employés' Picnic						
Special Conferences						
Dining-room Expenses						
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee	148-13	3-08	121-11	1-77	172-47	2-10
Depreciation—Fixtures	108-58	2-21	283-51	4-15	425-24	5-19
" Land and Buildings	618-75	12-88	1609-15	23-58	1813-60	22-15
Interest	4684-74	97-53	8118-05	119-19	10655-66	130-15
SPECIAL:—						
Opening New Drapery Warehouse						
" Newcastle Warehouse						
London Branch—Laying Foundation Stone						
Rules Revising—Fees			21-00	3-0		
" Fares			23-24	3-1		
Printing Special Report and Revised Rules						
Expenses—Special Meeting						
Crabtree Testimonial					8-08	1-09
Grant to Congress						
American Expenses						
Onseburn Liquidation						
Depreciation of "Plover"						
GRAND TOTAL	12813-50	266-62	21548-32	315-92	28438-99	347-90

SOCIETY LIMITED.

SINCE COMMENCEMENT OF THE SOCIETY.

1875.		1876.		1877.		1878.		1879.		1880.	
Year ending January, 1876.		53 weeks ending January, 1877.		Year ending January, 1878.		Year ending January, 1879.		50 weeks ending December.		Year ending December.	
£2,247,395		£2,697,366		£2,827,052.		£2,705,625		£2,645,331.		£3,186,933	
Amount	Rate per £100	Amount	Rate per £100	Amount	Rate per £100	Amount	Rate per £100	Amount	Rate per £100	Amount	Rate per £100
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
10495·88	112·08	13406·26	119·65	14589·57	123·86	15460·56	137·14	15367·25	139·44	17196·45	129·50
120·00	1·28	120·00	1·07	120·00	1·02	120·00	1·03	120·00	1·09	120·00	·90
..	..	4·09	·03	11·42	·09	46·23	·41	32·94	·80	33·34	·25
199·05	2·12	227·55	2·02	218·25	1·88	256·50	2·24	251·52	2·28	259·06	1·95
..	44·75	·40	20·00	·15
97·90	1·05	105·15	·93	124·25	1·04	121·75	1·08	122·25	1·10	138·75	1·04
40·75	·43	47·00	·33	37·75	·29	37·50	·34	33·12	·30	30·50	·23
22·45	·24	26·45	·23	28·53	·21	26·75	·24	26·97	·25	31·18	·22
34·50	·36	34·00	·30	31·00	·23	35·50	·33	35·50	·32	37·00	·27
..
180·19	1·93	312·07	2·79	162·87	1·35	108·35	·97	139·60	1·27	189·63	1·43
1·00	·01	4 00	·03	4·00	·03	4·00	·03	4·00	·03	3·00	·02
263·29	2·81	295·54	2·62	337·05	2·87	403·92	3·58	414·54	3·76	427 12	3·22
..	35·34	·33	6 87	·05
101·87	1·08	95·11	·81	143·85	1·26	169·85	1·51	169·83	1·54	179·33	1·35
44·42	·48	33·54	·29	30·25	·23	27·10	·24	23·82	·22	21 80	·16
9·70	·10	13·47	·11	11·89	·09	9·62	·09	8·33	·07	15·23	·11
..	18·87	·14	114·97	1·02	159·00	1·44	244·76	1·84
1·50	·01	3·63	·03	3·89	·03	4·20	·04	3·02	·03	1·10	·01
279·23	2·98	362·98	3·22	329·17	2·81	366·75	3·26	323·30	2·93	349·25	2·63
102·41	1·09	102·05	·91	101·19	·93	104·25	·92	104·97	·95	113·06	·85
..	146·00	1·09
..	16·75	·13
196·75	2·10	213·75	1·90	241·50	2·05	242·53	2·15	247·75	2·25	265·75	2·00
1393·10	14·92	1607·00	14·28	1635·89	13·89	1694·70	15·04	1674·48	15·19	1838·41	13·88
..	9·71	·08	28·32	·25	37·15	·30	41·20	·31
653·85	6·97	961·89	8·60	1154·29	9·78	1290·33	11·45	1276·82	11·59	1301·55	9·83
149·99	1·61	280·79	2·48	295·64	2·51	254·77	2·26	274·35	2·49	310·60	2·34
930·71	9·93	1189·35	10·58	1319·96	11·25	1323·09	11·73	1337·39	12·14	1459·65	10·99
249·15	2·65	291·70	2·61	169·47	1·40	155·50	1·38	149·02	1·35	170·04	1·28
129·50	1·37	155·84	1·39	135·66	1·15	199·77	1·77	205·36	1·86	212·00	1·58
1219·92	13·02	949·44	8·40	924·21	7·49	739·85	6·56	696·51	6·33	878·16	6·61
427·85	4·56	588·51	5·23	609·44	5·28	591·91	5·25	666·61	6·05	614·42	4·62
61·28	·65	100·18	·89	87·96	·78	73·33	·65	94·71	·86	88·66	·67
22·85	·25	39·15	·34	30·95	·24	50·80	·45	54·80	·50	64·30	·48
21·87	·24	9·09	·07	15·58	·11	10·40	·10	28·36	·26	30 50	·23
52·60	·56	140·09	1·27	114·28	·98	8·73	·07	9·21	·03	22·78	·17
445·32	4·76	1286·00	11·57	1482·11	12·58	1046·04	9·28	583·22	5·29	927·88	6·99
..	29·45	·22
..	9·74	·07
..	48·79	·38	688·90	6·11	421·96	3·83	495·16	3·73
212·28	2·27	494·54	4·10	412·81	3·54	411·93	3·65	370·92	3·37	384·50	2·89
548·81	5·88	755·09	6·74	846·47	7·18	950·02	8·43	1190·67	10·80	1282·77	9·66
1322·20	14·12	2463·89	21·92	2781·65	23·94	2545·78	22·58	1663·46	15·09	1879·29	14·16
11280·37	120·46	15481·03	137·74	14400·84	122·25	13192·44	117·02	12851·86	116·60	15268·54	114·98
59·22	·63
..	..	76·15	·68
..	61·67	·56
..	43·95	·39
..	63·29	·56
..	..	25·00	·22	26·85	·24
..	42·40	·38
..
10·00	·10
106·95	1·13
64·61	·69	5·91	·04
..	..	120·80	1·08	150·00	1·28
31556·32	336·90	42428·08	377·50	43171·01	366·50	43093·28	382·25	41310·33	374·79	47154·53	355·09

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE
SUMMARY OF TOTAL DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES

YEAR ENDING DECEMBER.....	1881.		1882.	
SALES =	£3,407,527.		£3,809,779.	
	Amount.	Rate p £100.	Amount.	Rate p £100.
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	18545-57	130-62	20522-75	129-29
Employers' Bonus
Auditors' Fees	120-00	-84	120-00	-75
" Deputation Fees	2-42	-01
" Fares	87-27	-23	48-53	-30
" Deputation Fares	3-79	-02
Fees—General and Branch Committees	258-98	1-82	443-87	2-79
" Sub-Committees	159-88	1-12	178-85	1-13
" Finance	42-00	-29	35-00	-23
" Stocktakers	28-98	-21	31-48	-19
" Scrutineers	4-02	-08	4-00	-02
" Secretaries	47-50	-83	56-25	-34
" Deputations	221-01	1-56	248-47	1-55
Mileages—General and Branch Committees
" Sub Committees
" Finance
" Stocktakers
" Scrutineers
" Deputations
Fares and Contracts—General and Branch Committees	422-44	2-98	756-18	4-76
" Sub-Committees	266-16	1-87	274-10	1-82
" Finance	33-15	-23	42-35	-26
" Stocktakers	15-03	-10	14-61	-09
" Scrutineers	2-98	-01	3-10	-02
" Deputations	251-75	1-77	314-84	1-98
Price Lists—Printing	382-34	2-69	405-74	2-55
" Postage	119-86	-85	118-84	-74
Balance Sheets—Printing	271-37	1-91	266-77	1-67
Printing and Stationery	1931-20	13-60	2162-81	13-63
Periodicals	54-71	-39	49-83	-32
Travelling	1430-16	10-14	1585-48	9-98
Telegrams	218-24	1-53	336-79	2-12
Stamps	1443-89	10-17	1619-08	10-20
Petty Cash	159-63	1-12	195-78	1-23
Advertisements	192-88	1-86	226-55	1-42
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	768-28	5-41	680-79	4-29
Coals, Gas, and Water	739-05	5-21	779-52	4-32
Oil, Waste, and Tallow	55-42	-39	40-06	-25
Repairs and Renewals	978-07	6-89	1056-87	6-65
Expenses—Quarterly Meeting	91-03	-64	91-23	-58
Reporting and Publishing Meeting	106-84	-75	110-74	-70
Legal	15-42	-10	5-17	-08
Employers' Picnic	34-92	-24	35-00	-21
Telephones	10-02	-06
Annuals	334-65	2-36	317-82	1-99
Living-rooms	479-83	3-38	847-54	5-34
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee	428-57	3-02	489-93	3-15
Depreciation—Land
" Buildings	2938-02	16-85	2842-56	17-81
" Fixtures	1394-15	9-82	1546-73	9-75
Interest	16689-85	117-55	18333-52	115-52
Expenses—Special Meetings	7-50	-05	95-87	-59
Conference Expenses
Opening	124-76	-88
Special Inquiry Committees
Exhibition Expenses
GRAND TOTAL	51808-06	361-37	57341-01	361-22

SOCIETY LIMITED.

SINCE COMMENCEMENT OF THE SOCIETY.

1883.		1884 (53 weeks).		1885.		1886.		1887.	
£4,236,213.		£4,336,425.		£4,405,389.		£4,779,721.		£5,203,525.	
Amount.	Rate p £100.	Amount.	Rate p £100.	Amount.	Rate p £100.	Amount.	Rate p £100.	Amount.	Rate p £100.
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
22392.04	126.90	25483.27	140.77	28617.98	155.91	32891.30	165.18	37572.52	173.29
368.60	2.00	733.58	4.07	909.18	4.95	484.74	2.44
120.00	.68	120.00	.60	180.00	.98	240.00	1.20	240.60	1.11
.....	17.40	.09	9.60	.04	9.60	.04
44.35	.25	52.40	.29	51.65	.28	45.00	.22	45.00	.21
.....	1.45	28.25	.15	13.93	.06	14.24	.07
400.55	2.30	462.35	2.56	675.70	3.68	668.85	3.37	664.42	3.06
213.50	1.21	252.50	1.31	323.23	1.77	392.82	1.97	440.55	2.03
43.75	.24	43.25	.26	53.83	.29	74.12	.37	63.92	.30
32.55	.18	30.75	.17	38.36	.28	41.90	.22	46.70	.22
4.00	.02	4.00	.02	4.00	.02	4.00	.02	4.00	.02
62.00	.35	63.00	.35	80.08	.43	89.50	.45	89.50	.41
259.82	1.50	291.36	1.62	294.89	1.60	240.89	1.21	286.60	1.32
.....	111.88	.61	155.94	.78	164.99	.76
.....	92.46	.50	140.37	.70	165.08	.76
.....	11.63	.06	15.72	.08	13.03	.06
.....	6.08	.03	9.50	.04	10.19	.05
.....77	1.70
.....	12.96	.07	21.06	.10	23.41	.13
722.24	4.10	813.24	4.52	719.17	3.91	551.61	2.77	497.90	2.29
285.53	1.61	339.50	1.86	288.63	1.59	230.00	1.15	221.72	1.02
74.37	.42	99.93	.55	21.17	.11	4.94	.02	9.29	.04
13.52	.08	11.88	.06	26.70	.15	24.05	.12	26.80	.12
4.35	.02	3.05	.02	3.25	.01	1.59	1.89
342.23	1.94	417.28	2.31	421.60	2.29	295.03	1.48	359.23	1.65
458.64	2.60	546.81	3.04	753.50	4.10	921.39	4.63	988.25	4.56
127.76	.72	159.34	.89	234.65	1.27	244.48	1.23	246.78	1.14
261.37	1.50	278.60	1.55	292.00	1.59	282.25	1.41	282.00	1.30
2248.50	12.73	2557.89	14.17	2865.21	15.62	2958.93	14.88	3468.76	16.00
73.54	.42	86.71	.48	83.39	.45	100.15	.50	105.75	.49
1642.58	9.30	1831.90	10.15	2148.05	11.70	2706.47	13.59	3315.86	15.29
220.72	1.25	291.59	1.62	311.72	1.69	305.59	1.53	305.50	1.41
1716.30	9.72	1989.71	11.02	2099.39	11.43	2338.54	11.76	2729.76	12.59
172.13	.97	151.68	.84	160.36	.87	178.94	.89	249.81	1.15
292.47	1.66	165.23	.92	276.85	1.50	324.52	1.62	302.84	1.40
793.32	4.50	853.69	4.75	1479.27	8.06	1864.84	9.37	1967.55	9.08
794.23	4.50	886.28	4.93	1039.10	5.66	1379.27	6.43	1616.20	7.46
64.60	.36	63.17	.35	43.84	.23	42.20	.21	90.90	.42
2136.34	12.10	2061.52	11.41	1401.85	7.64	2209.59	11.10	2899.82	13.38
98.18	.55	114.93	.63	110.68	.60	118.30	.59	158.32	.78
141.42	.80	118.10	.66	85.80	.49
7.70	.04	1.02	17.15	.09	128.70	.65	24.73	.12
42.00	.23	50.64	.28	53.79	.29	55.25	.27	54.73	.25
167.70	.95	188.87	1.05	219.92	1.20	233.85	1.17	235.15	1.08
1079.19	6.12	1211.95	6.72	989.57	5.39	846.20	4.24	664.46	3.07
925.18	5.24	939.88	5.22	1025.13	5.59	1189.85	5.98	1387.31	6.40
535.50	3.03	615.50	3.41	786.07	4.28	809.80	4.06	1031.00	4.77
190.58	1.07	786.29	4.35	771.90	4.21	807.64	4.06	1029.76	4.77
3266.57	18.52	3510.04	19.43	3593.53	19.58	4023.20	20.22	4910.47	22.65
1702.53	9.65	1819.71	10.07	1886.69	10.28	1956.85	9.82	2231.21	10.29
21404.82	121.30	19604.19	108.49	18452.60	100.53	19059.66	95.70	22234.80	102.55
110.63	.62	101.78	.57
.....	3.54	.02	18.32	.09
.....	50.43	.28
.....	225.39	1.24	80.18	.43
.....	471.95	2.18
66657.90	374.25	70842.01	389.31	74305.05	404.80	81652.01	400.99	93980.35	433.46

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE

MANCHESTER GROCERY AND

SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES

SALES=	1875.		1876.	
	Year ending January, 1876.		53 weeks ending January, 1877.	
	£1,476,535.		£1,707,637.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	4679-52	76-06	5972-70	83-94
Auditors' Fees	78-62	1-28	75-69	1-06
Fares	2-59	0-03
Fees—General and Branch Committees	66-50	1-08	73-46	1-03
Building Committee
Sub-Committee	48-15	0-78	44-50	0-62
Finance	26-82	0-44	26-79	0-38
Stocktakers	4-69	0-08	2-84	0-04
Secretaries	14-50	0-24	14-00	0-20
Deputations	58-30	0-95	141-74	1-99
Scrutineers	0-99	0-02	4-75	0-07
Fares—General and Branch Committees	113-15	1-84	113-85	1-60
Building Committee
Sub-Committee	51-31	0-83	37-76	0-53
Finance	29-27	0-48	20-31	0-29
Stocktakers	2-05	0-03	1-97	0-03
Deputations	6-51	0-10
Scrutineers	5-1	0-01
Price Lists—Printing	171-98	2-80	206-32	2-90
Postage	64-87	1-05	60-74	0-85
Annuals—Printing
Postage
Printing Balance Sheets	123-87	2-01	132-93	1-87
and Stationery	813-44	13-23	878-12	12-34
Periodicals
Travelling	256-40	4-17	450-25	6-33
Telegrams	64-57	1-05	177-07	2-49
Stamps	607-92	9-83	818-06	11-50
Petty Cash	188-29	2-25	176-60	2-48
Advertisements	82-63	1-34	90-75	1-28
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	299-88	4-87	290-27	4-08
Coals, Gas, and Water	219-42	3-57	195-70	2-75
Expenses—Quarterly Meeting	41-65	0-68	66-53	0-94
Reporting	15-03	0-24	22-08	0-31
Oil, Waste, and Tallow	18-32	0-29	7-84	0-10
Legal	7-04	0-11	37-79	0-53
Repairs	272-06	4-42	872-70	12-27
Employés' Picnic
Special Conferences
Dining-room Expenses
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee	44-05	0-72	60-09	0-85
Depreciation—Fixtures	519-63	5-19	330-30	4-64
Land and Buildings	690-47	11-22	747-96	10-51
Interest	5145-19	83-63	5411-86	78-06
American Expenses	80-75	1-31
Onseburn Engine Works	41-75	0-68
“Plover” Depreciation	3-50	0-05
Revising Committee's Fees	120-80	1-70
Fares
Printing Revised Rules
Buyers' Meeting
Special Meeting
	14700-10	238-93	17691-81	248-64

SOCIETY LIMITED.

PROVISION DEPARTMENT.

SINCE SEPARATE ACCOUNT WAS KEPT.

1877. Year ending January, 1878.		1878. Year ending January, 1879.		1879. 50 weeks ending December.		1880. Year ending December.	
£1,761,016.		£1,683,612.		£1,590,007.		£1,998,386.	
Amount	Rate per £100.	Amount	Rate per £100.	Amount	Rate per £100.	Amount	Rate per £100.
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
5925.40	80.75	6377.65	90.90	6357.25	95.96	7033.72	84.44
75.36	1.02	76.27	1.08	74.44	1.13	75.00	.90
7.21	.09	29.27	.42	20.31	.30	20.80	.25
66.50	.90	74.84	1.06	74.19	1.12	70.78	.85
....	14.69	.22	8.65	.10
43.50	.59	55.50	.79	55.50	.84	61.25	.75
23.69	.32	24.02	.34	20.53	.31	19.09	.23
2.85	.04	3.00	.04	3.00	.04	3.75	.05
14.00	.19	14.00	.20	15.20	.23	16.80	.19
68.53	.93	45.20	.64	67.71	1.02	76.80	.92
4.97	.06	2.54	.04	2.50	.04	1.88	.02
125.17	1.70	154.54	2.27	161.19	2.43	154.74	1.86
....	4.50	.06	3.76	.04
47.47	.65	60.01	.86	60.31	.91	61.33	.74
18.95	.26	17.30	.25	14.77	.22	13.62	.16
1.18	.02	.76	.01	.55	2.58	.03
6.05	.08	41.69	.59	66.37	1.01	88.30	1.06
....	2.70	.04	1.87	.03	.69	.04
194.17	2.65	203.54	2.90	187.76	2.83	192.22	2.32
60.86	.83	62.21	.89	65.22	.99	66.66	.80
....	82.79	.99
....	9.49	.11
150.09	2.05	149.48	2.13	152.83	2.30	165.20	1.98
707.07	9.63	829.21	11.82	886.05	13.33	767.77	9.22
4.35	.06	14.57	.20	17.35	.26	19.60	.23
406.66	5.54	405.47	5.78	376.44	5.70	311.92	3.75
206.31	2.81	167.82	2.39	181.54	2.75	206.45	2.48
883.06	12.02	863.66	12.31	881.44	13.31	940.64	11.27
98.02	1.33	90.54	1.29	88.05	1.33	91.67	1.10
76.35	1.04	123.01	1.75	124.04	1.87	129.62	1.55
235.23	3.26	119.82	1.70	98.30	1.49	174.42	2.15
240.61	3.28	258.53	3.63	310.34	4.69	267.84	3.21
59.68	.81	48.59	.69	58.43	.88	62.17	.75
17.93	.24	28.55	.40	33.44	.50	37.62	.45
2.87	.04	3.93	.05	12.91	.19	17.06	.20
58.24	.79	7.21	.10	1.64	.02	16.92	.20
394.77	5.38	378.20	5.39	245.73	3.70	300.93	3.61
....	18.32	.22
....	6.98	.08
24.40	.33	413.34	5.89	252.97	3.81	341.23	4.10
64.36	.88	66.52	.95	66.41	1.01	67.58	.81
337.80	4.60	379.68	5.41	474.43	7.16	497.18	5.97
835.73	11.39	727.57	10.38	464.74	7.02	484.33	5.82
5237.17	71.24	4947.00	70.52	4766.86	71.95	5923.30	71.12
....
....
150.00	2.05
....	28.07	.40
....	40.30	.57
....	17.55	.25
3.86	.05
....	20.35	.29
16869.42	229.90	17874.01	247.66	16761.80	258.00	18012.00	227.12

**THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE
MANCHESTER GROCERY AND
SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES**

YEAR ENDING DECEMBER.....	1881.		1882.	
SALES=	£2,047,212.		£2,298,351.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages.....	7582.65	88.89	8906.50	86.75
Auditors' Fees.....	71.91	.85	72.26	.76
" Deputation Fees.....	1.47	.02
" Fares.....	22.86	.26	29.18	.30
" Deputation Fares.....	2.82	.03
Fees—General and Branch Committees.....	68.27	.80	173.90	1.81
" Sub-Committees.....	54.94	.64	61.62	.64
" Finance.....	25.26	.30	21.53	.22
" Stocktakers.....	3.00	.03	3.75	.04
" Scrutineers.....	2.41	.03	2.40	.03
" Secretaries.....	13.50	.16	12.94	.14
" Deputations.....	90.04	1.06	121.14	1.27
Mileages—General and Branch Committees.....
" Sub-Committees.....
" Finance.....
" Stocktakers.....
" Scrutineers.....
" Deputations.....
Fares and Contracts—General and Branch Committees..	140.20	1.65	328.76	3.43
" " Sub-Committees.....	63.42	.74	56.59	.59
" " Finance.....	19.91	.23	25.95	.27
" " Stocktakers.....	3.04	.04	3.11	.03
" " Scrutineers.....	1.82	.02	1.79	.02
" " Deputations.....	100.47	1.17	155.68	1.62
Price Lists—Printing.....	219.46	2.57	230.18	2.40
" Postage.....	70.10	.82	69.55	.72
Balance Sheets—Printing.....	187.88	1.97	166.66	1.73
Printing and Stationery.....	848.45	9.94	1009.76	10.55
Periodicals.....	27.79	.32	23.06	.23
Travelling.....	373.95	4.37	451.08	4.71
Telegrams.....	153.74	1.80	232.63	2.43
Stamps.....	901.07	10.56	997.30	10.42
Petty Cash.....	104.97	1.23	119.41	1.24
Advertisements.....	113.07	1.33	134.97	1.41
Rents, Rates, and Taxes.....	183.15	2.15	204.54	2.14
Coals, Gas, and Water.....	276.85	3.25	346.99	3.62
Oil, Waste, and Tallow.....	27.73	.33	29.69	.31
Repairs and Renewals.....	442.95	5.20	400.84	5.12
Expenses—Quarterly Meetings.....	66.43	.78	62.25	.65
Reporting and Publishing Meetings.....	72.81	.86	57.33	.60
Legal.....	13.43	.16	4.93	.05
Employés' Picnic.....	18.32	.21	18.24	.20
Telephones.....	8.02	.09
Annals.....	192.34	2.25	185.37	1.93
Dining-rooms.....	319.89	3.75	508.98	5.31
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee.....	83.29	.98	120.97	1.26
Depreciation—Land.....
" Buildings.....	545.99	6.40	862.85	9.01
" Fixtures.....	436.95	5.81	576.38	6.01
Interest.....	5888.83	69.03	7318.55	76.43
Expenses—Special Meetings.....	7.50	.09	61.30	.64
Conference Expenses.....
Opening.....
Special Inquiry Committee's Expenses.....
Exhibition Expenses.....
GRAND TOTAL.....	19883.93	233.08	29667.18	247.13

SOCIETY LIMITED.

PROVISION DEPARTMENT.

SINCE SEPARATE ACCOUNT WAS KEPT.

1883.		1884 (53 weeks).		1885.		1886.		1887.	
£2,544,410.		£2,457,288.		£2,375,945.		£2,571,435.		£2,827,624.	
Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
8855-18	83-53	9574-23	93-51	10171-45	102-74	11435-25	106-71	13068-70	110-92
72-06	68	67-89	66	97-52	98	129 00	12-0	130-11	1-11
.....	34	9-31	09	5-19	05	5-21	05
26-62	25	29-68	29	27-77	28	24-19	22	24-41	21
.....	80	15-16	15	7-50	07	7-71	06
160-17	1-51	173-79	1-70	247-82	2-50	252-60	2-35	248-65	2-11
54-51	51	68-40	67	69-06	69	91-05	85	93-21	79
26-29	25	27-16	26	29-11	29	39-81	37	34-61	29
4-89	04	5-62	05	4-51	04	4-62	04	4-50	04
2-41	02	2-28	02	2-16	02	2-15	02	2-17	02
13-48	13	13-50	13	20-68	21	25-00	23	25-00	21
128-90	1-22	146-07	1-43	145-38	1-46	111-97	1-04	141-72	1-20
.....	37-69	38	48-70	45	51-77	44
.....	12-81	13	17-96	16	17-72	15
.....	6-34	06	8-42	07	7-05	06
.....	55	01	9-0	01	8-9	01
.....	44	9-4	01
.....	5-45	05	6-38	06	8-71	07
304-92	2-87	317-37	3-10	244-46	2-47	186-33	1-70	177-03	1-50
42-85	41	68-76	67	37-70	38	34-56	32	36-85	31
44-56	42	56-07	55	11-34	11	2-64	02	5-17	04
2-46	02	2-98	02	2-45	02	1-97	02	2-12	02
2-60	02	1-75	01	1-73	02	8-8	01	1-03	01
163-61	1-54	206-34	2-02	200-03	2-02	127-77	1-18	210-18	1-78
266-83	2-52	296-20	2-90	392-77	3-97	434-51	4-05	535-17	4-54
69-62	66	89-82	87	131-25	1-32	133-55	1-24	137-04	1-16
163-13	1-54	166-17	1-61	162-55	1-64	150-73	1-40	151-43	1-29
1007-25	9-50	1162-48	11-85	1286-27	12-99	1235-25	11-52	1423-00	12-08
47-25	45	48-50	47	40-40	41	54-70	51	50-34	42
445-08	4-20	494-68	4-82	488-14	4-93	669-25	6-25	820-70	6-97
159-05	1-50	202-29	1-98	207-66	2-10	206-86	1-93	219-61	1-86
1087-26	10-28	1244-59	12-15	1215-96	12-28	1342-16	12-53	1522-66	12-92
102-57	06	94-05	02	86-62	88	101-08	90	139-88	1-19
165-98	1-56	97-68	95	95-39	96	180-86	1-69	83-15	71
274-63	2-59	299-60	2-94	314-05	3-17	408-59	3-81	390-38	3-31
386-47	3-65	409-44	4-00	399-14	4-03	456-60	4-26	482-41	4-10
43-35	41	40-29	39	23-24	23	16-84	16	26-04	22
1305-26	12-31	955-68	9-37	562-04	5-68	1094-20	10-21	606-69	5-15
65-02	63	67-80	66	62-73	63	66-20	62	92-48	79
72-47	68	60-09	59	16-95	17
35	30	7-06	07	78-17	72	11-21	10
16-88	16	19-59	19	19-45	19	18-01	17	15-33	13
132-46	1-25	148-43	1-45	154-19	1-55	155-88	1-45	155-87	1-82
641-28	6-04	674-88	6-61	526-79	5-31	453-03	4-23	379-58	3-05
502-30	4-73	478-59	4-69	478-91	4-86	529-70	4-94	663-76	5-63
132-71	1-25	169-46	1-66	302-89	3-06	156-74	1-46	189-57	1-61
67-14	64	322-79	3-16	310-20	3-13	316-09	2-95	366-02	3-11
1177-41	11-10	1339-86	13-09	1279-84	12-95	1291-78	12-06	1376-93	11-69
646-76	6-10	632-10	6-66	668-23	6-75	672-36	6-28	695-10	5-90
938-677	88-54	8061-16	78-73	6757-92	68-32	6979-25	65-14	7962-39	67-58
66-75	62	51-12	52
.....	1-79	01	10-54	09
.....
.....	181-81	1-27	41-90	42
.....	196-43	1-67
28397-54	267-29	28528-15	278-58	27484-19	277-62	29777-66	277-72	32978-63	279-91

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE

MANCHESTER DRAPERY

SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES

SALES—	1875.		1876.	
	Year ending January, 1876.		53 weeks ending January, 1877.	
	£129,485.		£147,082.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	2148·54	898·25	2568·31	419·08
Auditors' Fees.....	6·81	1·26	6·65	1·08
" Fares	·21	·08
Fees—General and Branch Committees	13·87	2·57	17·23	2·82
" Building Committee
" Sub-Committee	31·82	5·89	26·09	4·25
" Finance	2·31	·42	2·99	·39
" Stocktakers.....	11·74	2·17	14·66	2·39
" Secretaries	5·90	1·00	4·83	·78
" Deputations	10·07	1·88	28·85	4·62
" Scrutineers	·19	·03	·42	·07
Fares—General and Branch Committees	21·98	4·07	25·78	4·20
" Building Committee
" Sub-Committee	32·03	5·94	26·03	4·24
" Finance	2·55	·46	1·89	·30
" Stocktakers	4·28	·79	7·31	1·19
" Deputations
" Scrutineers	·04
Price Lists—Printing	7·73	1·43	39·06	6·37
" Postage.....	2·37	·46	7·46	1·21
Annuals—Printing.....
" Postage
Printing Balance Sheets	10·73	1·98	11·83	1·93
" and Stationery	149·63	27·73	210·06	34·27
Periodicals
Travelling	139·65	25·88	274·66	44·81
Telegrams	7·50	1·40	8·82	1·43
Stamps	52·35	9·70	70·08	11·16
Petty Cash.....	46·52	8·65	50·99	8·32
Advertisements	7·12	1·32	9·35	1·52
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	102·21	18·94	108·89	17·76
Coals, Gas, and Water	119·82	22·20	167·95	27·41
Expenses—Quarterly Meeting	3·69	·68	6·08	·98
Reporting	2·08	·38	2·07	·33
Oil, Waste, and Tallow	3·85	·66	·70	·11
Legal	1·08	·20	3·18	·51
Repairs	102·95	19·08	55·12	8·98
Employees' Picnic
Special Conferences
Dining-room Expenses
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee	131·71	24·41	268·75	43·29
Depreciation—Fixtures	96·59	17·90	124·65	20·34
" Land and Buildings	541·92	100·46	676·01	110·30
Interest	3376·95	625·94	4563·55	743·65
Hire of Stalls	2·00	·37
Opening New Warehouse	59·22	10·98
Osborne Engine Works—Expenses	4·00	·74	·42	·07
Revising Committee's Fees
" " Fares
Printing Revised Rules
Special Meeting—Expenses
" " Reports
	7263·50	1346·22	9389·83	1532·19

**THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE
MANCHESTER DRAPERY
SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES**

YEAR ENDING DECEMBER.....	1881.*		1882 *	
SALES =	£132,916.		£143,020.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	3010	85	3079	85
Employers' Bonus				
Auditors' Fees	4	72	4	51
" Deputation Fees	0	09	0	01
" Fares	1	47	1	95
" Deputation Fares	1	14	1	02
Fees—General and Branch Committees	17	07	8	19
" Sub-Committees	25	65	27	00
" Finance	1	63	1	38
" Stocktakers	7	95	8	55
" Scrutineers	1	15	1	15
" Secretaries	4	25	4	16
" Deputations	19	51	18	11
Mileages—General and Branch Committees				
" Sub-Committees				
" Finance				
" Stocktakers				
" Scrutineers				
" Deputations				
Fares and Contracts—General and Branch Committees	35	05	17	20
" Sub-Committees	51	15	52	90
" Finance	1	29	1	59
" Stocktakers	3	75	4	86
" Scrutineers	1	11	1	15
" Deputations	10	64	12	25
Price Lists—Printing	8	70	8	98
" Postage	1	95	1	00
Balance Sheets—Printing	11	00	10	49
Printing and Stationery	245	87	293	54
Periodicals	5	00	2	00
Travelling	377	35	418	59
Telegrams	1	46	6	88
Stamps	59	07	63	80
Fetty Cash	9	04	8	98
Advertisements	8	92	7	98
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	117	21	110	76
Coals, Gas, and Water	108	19	98	72
Oil, Waste, and Tallow	11	02	4	53
Repairs and Renewals	121	11	122	41
Expenses—Quarterly Meetings	4	42	3	85
Reporting and Publishing Quarterly Meeting	4	67	3	64
Legal	1	95	1	14
Employers' Picnic	9	7	1	00
Telephones	27	05	27	05
Annals	15	53	13	33
Dining-rooms	90	58	145	59
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee	129	74	129	11
Depreciation—Land				
" Buildings	538	97	565	89
" Fixtures	228	68	259	02
Interest	2882	58	2823	98
Expenses—Special Meetings				
Conference Expenses			4	26
Special Inquiry Committee's Expenses				
Exhibition Expenses				
GRAND TOTAL.....	8169	95	8936	80
		1475		1398

* Includes Woollens*

SOCIETY LIMITED.

DEPARTMENT.

SINCE SEPARATE ACCOUNT WAS KEPT.

1883.*		1884 (53 weeks).		1885.		1886.		1887.	
£156,997.		£165,771.		£173,232.		£195,139.		£210,704.	
Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
8250.52	496.90	3014.58	486.44	3378.84	468.13	3816.60	469.40	4509.03	513.60
293.18	44.80	496.57	71.89	558.29	74.57	149.96	18.45
4.45	.69	4.60	.66	7.08	.98	9.84	1.21	9.73	1.10
....0370	.10	.59	.05	.39	.04
1.65	.25	1.98	.28	2.04	.28	1.86	.22	1.83	.21
....06	1.10	.15	.56	.06	.57	.07
10.00	1.53	11.81	1.71	18.22	2.52	19.28	2.37	18.71	2.13
26.62	4.07	26.50	3.84	33.25	4.61	37.09	4.56	46.43	5.29
1.62	.25	1.86	.27	2.11	.29	3.04	.37	2.60	.30
6.45	.99	4.68	.67	5.81	.80	6.54	.80	7.31	.83
.15	.02	.15	.02	.16	.02	.16	.02	.15	.01
4.25	.64	3.63	.52	5.16	.72	6.00	.73	6.00	.68
19.80	3.03	17.98	2.61	20.90	4.13	21.88	2.63	20.02	2.23
....	2.60	.36	3.70	.46	3.88	.44
....	12.41	1.71	16.89	2.08	18.37	2.09
....45	.06	.65	.08	.53	.06
....	1.40	.19	1.20	.15	1.79	.22
....0306	.01
....	2.69	.37	2.56	.31	3.18	.36
18.90	2.89	21.58	3.13	18.92	2.62	14.31	1.76	13.76	1.57
56.17	8.61	43.90	6.36	28.35	3.93	17.13	2.11	26.42	3.01
2.87	.44	3.82	.55	.87	.12	.20	.02	.39	.04
4.83	.73	2.39	.34	3.46	.48	2.16	.27	3.24	.37
.16	.02	.11	.01	.12	.02	.0507	.01
16.01	2.45	17.51	2.55	35.78	4.96	22.57	2.78	10.07	1.14
17.27	2.64	2.43	.35	8.85	1.23	8.27	1.01	17.27	1.97
2.82	.43	1.01	.14	1.22	.15	2.72	.31
10.03	1.53	11.30	1.63	11.96	1.65	11.52	1.42	11.64	1.33
284.30	43.46	291.50	42.21	321.84	44.59	303.49	37.83	352.84	40.19
1.99	.30	2.12	.30	1.55	.22	2.29	.28	2.73	.31
458.98	70.17	326.00	47.20	376.47	52.17	494.53	60.82	634.30	72.25
1.07	.15	1.20	.17	1.83	.25	1.69	.21	1.75	.20
67.02	10.25	84.13	12.18	91.14	12.62	101.54	12.49	115.98	13.21
8.64	1.32	8.62	1.25	8.38	1.16	5.99	.74	10.02	1.14
7.92	1.21	4.30	.62	3.16	.43	5.79	.71	98.94	11.27
114.03	17.40	117.66	17.03	130.48	18.08	185.68	22.84	143.16	16.31
84.85	12.95	117.18	16.97	128.15	17.75	130.33	16.08	141.49	16.12
2.67	.39	2.80	.40	2.21	.30	1.30	.16	1.96	.22
127.40	19.48	141.30	20.46	204.15	28.28	320.06	39.33	141.98	16.17
4.04	.60	4.62	.65	4.61	.63	5.03	.62	6.85	.78
4.50	.66	4.15	.60	1.48	.20
....54	.08	.50	.07	4.36	.54	.53	.06
6.25	.96	8.75	1.28	7.75	1.07	7.82	.96	5.55	.63
1.93	.29	1.88	.28	14.27	1.98	21.60	2.66	22.03	2.51
41.76	6.40	47.08	6.82	39.63	5.49	34.81	4.28	27.98	3.19
141.46	21.64	119.87	17.36	117.78	16.32	129.43	15.92	162.27	18.48
134.13	20.51	121.83	17.64	117.51	16.28	139.49	17.16	161.64	18.41
42.03	6.43	121.33	17.57	142.77	19.78	163.33	20.09	186.71	21.27
578.90	88.59	499.70	72.35	582.62	80.73	657.75	80.90	679.92	77.44
270.37	41.35	263.66	36.59	260.20	36.05	258.27	31.76	258.30	29.42
2840.30	434.17	2369.30	346.50	2348.87	325.43	2576.39	316.87	2892.64	323.48
4.13	.62	4.08	.57
....14	.0289	.11
....	5.87	.86	3.65	.51
....	11.27	1.28
8976.42	1372.21	8366.00	1211.22	9063.51	1256.10	9727.02	1196.31	10796.95	1229.81

* Includes Woollens

**THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE
MANCHESTER WOOLLEN
SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES**

YEAR ENDING DECEMBER.....	1884 (53 Weeks).	
SALES =	£20,366.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100.
	£	d.
Wages	543-77	640-79
Employés' Bonus	91-50	107-83
Auditors' Fees	-55	-64
" Deputation Fees
" Fares	-24	-28
" Deputation Fares	-01	-01
Fees—General and Branch Committees	1-44	1-69
" Sub-Committees	3-31	3-91
" Finance	-23	-27
" Stocktakers	-58	-69
" Scrutineers	-02	-02
" Secretaries	-60	-70
" Deputations	2-18	2-57
Mileages—General and Branch Committees
" Sub-Committees
" Finance
" Stocktakers
" Deputations
Fares and Contracts—General and Branch Committees	2-66	3-14
" " Sub-Committees	5-18	6-10
" " Finance	-50	-59
" " Stocktakers	-30	-35
" " Scrutineers	-01	-01
" " Deputations	2-09	2-47
Balance Sheets—Printing	1-35	1-60
Printing and Stationery	36-09	42-53
Periodicals	-21	-25
Travelling	75-90	89-45
Telegrams	-10	-11
Stamps	10-27	12-10
Petty Cash	-90	-106
Advertisements	1-79	2-11
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	10-90	12-85
Coals, Gas, and Water	10-59	12-48
Oil, Waste, and Tallow	-84	-40
Repairs and Renewals	19-92	23-48
Expenses—Quarterly Meetings	-55	-64
Reporting and Publishing Meetings	-52	-61
Legal
Employés' Picnic	1-40	1-65
Telephones	-23	-28
Annuals	6-36	7-49
Dining-rooms	14-80	17-44
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee	14-83	17-44
Depreciation—Land	11-23	13-28
" Buildings	46-80	55-16
" Fixtures	25-49	27-68
Interest	277-30	326-79
Expenses—Special Meetings
Conference Expenses	-02	-02
Special Inquiry Committee's Expenses	-58	-67
Exhibition Expenses
GRAND TOTAL.....	1221-61	1439-58

SOCIETY LIMITED.

CLOTH DEPARTMENT.

SINCE SEPARATE ACCOUNT WAS KEPT.

1885.		1886.		1887.	
£21,210.		£22,173.		£21,820	
Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
535·15	605·55	559·11	605·18	587·35	646·03
84·69	95·83	22·64	24·51
·82	·92	1·13	1·22	1·02	1·12
·09	·10	·05	·05	·04	·04
·25	·23	·21	·23	·19	·21
·15	·16	·07	·08	·06	·07
2·25	2·54	2·18	2·36	1·96	2·15
3·95	4·47	5·25	5·68	4·80	5·28
·25	·28	·35	·33	·27	·30
1·31	1·48	1·31	1·42	·94	1·05
·02	·04	·02	·02	·02	·02
1·12	1·26	1·50	1·62	1·50	1·65
2·92	3·30	1·20	1·30	3·15	3·46
·31	·35	·43	·46	·41	·44
1·39	1·57	2·55	2·76	2·00	2·19
·05	·06	·07	·07	·05	·05
·21	·24	·35	·38	·05	·05
·30	·34	·24	·26	·46	·51
2·32	2·64	1·59	1·72	1·43	1·57
3·63	4·10	2·37	2·57	2·88	3·17
·11	·12	·02	·02	·03	·03
·66	·75	·77	·83	·52	·57
·01	·01	·01	·01	·01	·01
2·70	3·05	·62	·67	1·30	1·43
1·49	1·69	1·31	1·42	1·32	1·45
39·69	44·93	33·89	36·68	35·28	38·80
·65	·74	1·01	1·09	·92	1·01
61·27	69·34	95·99	103·90	117·29	129·08
·20	·22	·13	·14	·43	·47
11·05	12·51	11·53	12·48	11·70	12·87
·95	1·07	·60	·65	·81	·89
·35	·39	·60	·65	1·05	1·15
13·95	15·79	28·45	30·80	29·20	32·11
15·35	17·36	19·69	21·31	22·49	24·73
·25	·28	·15	·16	·19	·21
19·56	22·14	34·79	37·66	12·82	14·10
·53	·60	·56	·61	·72	·79
·19	·21
·05	·06	·39	·42	·05	·06
1·23	1·39	1·30	1·41	1·30	1·43
1·81	2·05	1·70	1·84	1·50	1·65
5·20	5·83	4·21	4·56	2·93	3·22
14·22	16·09	14·38	15·56	16·84	18·52
12·48	14·12	27·80	30·09	29·48	32·43
16·51	18·68	25·07	27·14	28·08	30·88
67·58	76·47	101·70	110·08	103·55	113·90
29·50	33·38	40·16	43·47	40·22	44·24
289·45	327·53	337·30	397·56	356·68	392·32
·57	·65
.....
·46	·51
.....
.....	1·40	1·54
1249·20	1413·52	1416·84	1533·58	1426·69	1569·23

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE

MANCHESTER BOOT AND

SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES

SALES =	1875.		1876.	
	Year ending January, 1876.		53 weeks ending January, 1877.	
	£53,885.		£57,308.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	472 57	210 48	480 08	201 06
Auditors' Fees	3 10	1 38	2 57	1 08
" Fares	08	03
Fees—General and Branch Committees	4 42	1 97	8 86	3 71
" Building Committee
" Sub-Committee	11 43	5 10	13 54	5 67
" Finance	99	45	90	38
" Stocktakers	2 25	1 00	2 70	1 13
" Secretaries	2 10	94	2 50	1 04
" Deputations	5 60	2 50	9 15	3 83
" Scrutinners	05	02	16	07
Fares—General and Branch Committees	7 10	3 16	14 91	6 24
" Building Committee
" Sub-Committee	12 23	5 44	14 77	6 18
" Finance	1 19	49	70	29
" Stocktakers	1 30	85	1 88	79
" Deputations
" Scrutinners	01
Price Lists—Printing	16 23	7 24
" Postage	3 78	1 68
Annuals—Printing
" Postage
Printing Balance Sheets	4 61	2 05	4 64	1 94
" and Stationery	45 50	20 27	90 60	37 94
Periodicals
Travelling	45 74	20 37	54 75	22 92
Telegrams	1 70	76	8 92	1 64
Stamps	22 77	10 14	27 65	11 58
Petty Cash	9 59	4 26	6 98	2 90
Advertisements	3 10	1 38	4 57	1 91
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	32 12	14 32	38 70	16 20
Coal, Gas, and Water	17 75	7 32	28 15	11 80
Expenses—Quarterly Meeting	1 60	71	2 58	1 08
Reporting	70	31	79	33
Oil, Waste, and Tallow	1 05	44
Legal	20	09	1 15	48
Repairs	1 43	64	58 29	24 44
Employers' Picnic
Special Conferences
Dining-room Expenses
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee	2 82	1 26	37 76	15 81
Depreciation—Fixtures	26 19	11 65	27 60	11 56
" Land and Buildings	89 81	40 00	195 78	81 99
Interest	474 25	211 23	673 74	282 16
Expenses—Ouseburn Engine Works	1 35	61	14	06
Fees—Revising Committee
Fares
Printing Revised Rules
Special Meeting—Expenses
" " Report
	1326 14	590 67	1811 59	768 68

SOCIETY LIMITED.

SHOE DEPARTMENT.

SINCE SEPARATE ACCOUNT WAS KEPT.

1877.		1878.		1879.		1880.	
Year ending January, 1878.		Year ending January, 1879.		50 weeks, ending December.		Year ending December.	
£58,304.		£59,327.		£55,271.		£62,141.	
Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
528-18	217-42	587-89	237-83	685-47	207-65	746-42	288-28
2-49	1-02	2-70	1-09	2-58	1-12	2-35	0-91
24	10	1-04	42	67	29	64	25
11-11	4-67	12-47	5-04	12-37	5-37	11-80	4-71
.....	45	29	31	12
15-08	6-21	15-08	6-10	18-25	7-92	19-00	7-34
79	32	86	35	72	31	61	24
1-78	71	1-78	70	1-95	85	3-00	1-16
2-17	89	2-67	1-09	2-77	1-20	2-90	1-12
5-65	2-32	5-10	2-06	5-27	2-29	15-73	6-07
16	07	09	04	09	04	06	02
20-86	8-58	25-75	10-41	26-87	11-66	25-79	9-96
.....	16	07	14	05
24-55	10-11	30-46	12-32	32-51	14-12	32-52	12-56
62	25	64	26	52	23	42	16
88	16	15	06	89	39	1-31	5-1
15	06	4-27	1-73	3-98	1-73	8-03	8-11
.....	10	04	06	03	02	01
6-60	2-72	4-50	1-82	8-73	3-79	24-04	9-28
1-14	47	1-12	45	1-60	70	4-35	1-68
.....	2-99	1-15
.....	84	1-13
4-98	2-05	5-33	2-16	5-29	2-30	5-15	1-98
99-32	40-87	83-47	33-76	69-04	29-98	114-09	44-06
03	01	52	21	1-23	54	29	11
71-51	29-41	81-14	32-82	103-59	44-99	118-58	45-79
1-45	69	1-47	60	37	16	1-37	5-3
29-04	11-96	30-93	12-52	30-45	13-21	29-61	11-42
2-21	91	1-68	68	2-57	1-12	5-04	1-35
4-02	1-65	4-57	1-86	4-29	1-87	4-60	1-77
24-78	10-20	18-59	7-52	20-51	8-90	34-32	13-15
25-88	10-65	30-79	12-45	26-85	11-66	23-90	9-23
1-90	78	1-74	70	2-00	87	1-95	7-6
60	25	98	40	1-19	52	1-09	4-2
4-23	1-74	2-05	83	2-92	1-27	3-16	1-22
1-33	55	06	03	03	01
31-01	12-74	45-47	18-33	39-73	17-25	74-68	28-84
.....	49	1-9
.....	19	07
4-82	1-98	61-25	24-78	37-55	16-30	43-35	16-74
26-48	10-90	27-02	10-93	24-90	10-80	28-52	11-01
25-44	10-47	32-65	13-21	38-67	16-78	38-21	14-76
811-47	128-21	293-15	118-59	173-16	75-32	185-74	71-73
682-20	280-82	769-59	311-34	745-27	323-61	772-25	298-26
.....
.....	1-01	41
.....	1-49	60
.....	57	23
.....	40	16
.....	22	09
1974-04	812-83	2192-70	887-05	2135-85	927-44	2389-93	922-82

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE
MANCHESTER BOOT AND
SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES

YEAR ENDING DECEMBER.....	1881.		1882.	
	SALES= £71,383.		£76,103.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages.....	808-77	271-92	861-46	271-68
Auditors' Fees.....	2-54	85	2-41	76
" Deputation Fees.....	05	02	1-00	32
" Fares.....	77	26	00	00
" Deputation Fares.....	09	03	00	00
Fees—General and Branch Committees.....	11-38	3-83	4-90	1-35
" Sub-Committees.....	17-07	5-74	18-00	5-67
" Finance Committee.....	87	29	74	23
" Stocktakers.....	2-40	81	2-40	75
" Scrutinisers.....	07	03	08	02
" Secretaries.....	2-84	96	2-77	87
" Deputations.....	22-41	7-54	16-60	5-23
Mileages—General and Branch Committees.....	00	00	00	00
" Sub-Committees.....	00	00	00	00
" Finance Committee.....	00	00	00	00
" Stocktakers.....	00	00	00	00
" Scrutinisers.....	00	00	00	00
" Deputations.....	00	00	00	00
Fares and Contracts—General and Branch Committees.....	23-37	7-85	9-00	2-83
" Sub-Committees.....	34-10	11-46	35-27	11-11
" Finance Committee.....	1-69	23	85	25
" Stocktakers.....	90	30	1-16	36
" Scrutinisers.....	06	02	06	02
" Deputations.....	13-70	4-61	12-15	3-82
Price Lists—Printing.....	12-20	4-10	10-79	3-40
" Postage.....	98	32	1-88	43
Balance Sheets—Printing.....	5-86	1-97	5-58	1-75
Printing and Stationery.....	132-43	44-51	150-41	47-63
Periodicals.....	49	16	68	21
Travelling.....	111-87	37-61	108-87	34-38
Telegrams.....	50	17	4-81	1-51
Stamps.....	30-46	10-24	33-03	10-40
Petty Cash.....	2-52	85	2-48	77
Advertisements.....	3-91	1-31	4-11	1-29
Rents, Rates, and Taxes.....	29-66	9-98	27-23	8-56
Coals, Gas, and Water.....	32-36	10-88	23-10	7-27
Oil, Waste, and Tallow.....	4-32	1-45	2-25	71
Repairs and Renewals.....	21-78	7-32	15-41	4-85
Expenses—Quarterly Meetings.....	2-34	80	2-10	66
Reporting and Publishing Meetings.....	2-40	81	1-90	60
Legal.....	05	02	09	02
Employees' Picnic.....	52	17	54	15
Telephones.....	00	00	12	04
Annals.....	7-28	2-46	6-45	2-01
Dining-rooms.....	52-39	17-61	78-65	24-77
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee.....	35-10	11-81	38-96	12-25
Depreciation—Land.....	00	00	00	00
" Buildings.....	189-35	63-66	200-61	63-32
" Fixtures.....	40-72	13-68	53-71	16-91
Interest.....	830-99	273-89	838-46	264-79
Expenses—Special Meetings.....	00	00	2-00	62
Conference Expenses.....	00	00	00	00
Special Inquiry Committee's Expenses.....	00	00	00	00
Exhibition Expenses.....	00	00	00	00
GRAND TOTAL.....	2493-56	838-03	2582-97	814-57

SOCIETY LIMITED.

SHOE DEPARTMENT.

SINCE SEPARATE ACCOUNT WAS KEPT.

1883.		1884 (53 weeks).		1885.		1886.		1887.	
£86,057.		£99,694.		£106,754.		£121,432.		£126,100.	
Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
979.28	273.10	1188.67	285.67	1425.84	320.44	1619.37	320.00	1797.91	342.19
2.45	.68	2.75	.66	4.18	.94	6.16	1.20	5.88	1.11
....0145	.10	.24	.05	.24	.05
.89	.24	1.20	.29	1.29	.29	1.16	.22	1.08	.21
....0372	.16	.37	.07	.36	.07
5.88	1.50	7.02	1.69	11.25	2.53	11.91	2.35	11.25	2.14
17.75	4.95	19.87	4.78	24.84	5.58	28.23	5.57	34.15	6.50
.90	.25	1.12	.26	1.31	.29	1.92	.37	1.56	.30
1.72	.48	2.25	.54	1.50	.34	1.50	.29	1.85	.35
.08	.02	.10	.02	.10	.02	.10	.02	.10	.02
2.84	.79	2.84	.68	4.19	.94	5.00	.98	5.00	.95
16.55	4.62	11.50	2.77	9.07	2.04	7.64	1.50	8.97	1.71
....	1.61	.36	2.34	.46	2.93	.45
....	9.20	2.06	13.19	2.60	13.59	2.59
....28	.06	.41	.08	.32	.06
....21	.05	.58	.11	.54	.10
....0104	.01
....	1.00	.22	1.52	.30	1.66	.31
10.19	2.84	12.94	3.11	11.69	2.63	8.63	1.70	8.20	1.56
37.45	10.44	32.72	7.88	21.35	4.79	19.00	2.56	17.92	3.41
1.52	.43	2.40	.57	.54	.12	.13	.02	.20	.04
1.20	.84	.83	.20	.70	.16	.72	.14	.77	.15
.10	.03	.07	.01	.07	.02	.04	.01	.05	.01
12.91	3.59	8.50	2.04	7.29	1.63	9.77	.74	4.95	.94
2.85	.79	34.40	8.28	34.57	7.77	66.90	13.22
2.04	.57	5.09	1.22	3.17	.71	3.15	.62
5.57	1.55	6.70	1.61	7.42	1.66	7.09	1.40	7.71	1.46
155.94	43.49	176.75	42.55	197.40	44.38	183.59	36.87	209.72	39.91
1.45	.40	1.60	.38	1.75	.39	1.62	.32	1.67	.32
99.68	27.80	202.45	48.74	264.09	59.89	267.82	52.93	285.45	54.83
.47	.13	1.55	.37	1.47	.33	.93	.18	1.64	.31
36.72	10.24	50.20	12.09	55.20	12.41	63.00	12.45	68.02	12.94
8.97	2.50	2.94	.71	3.34	.75	4.84	.96	6.39	1.22
4.27	1.18	9.22	2.22	72.10	16.20	8.76	1.73	3.90	.74
30.75	8.57	34.23	8.27	368.70	82.89	364.54	72.05	343.62	65.40
27.21	7.61	33.50	8.07	39.45	8.87	38.75	7.65	55.26	10.52
1.43	.40	1.62	.39	1.06	.24	.84	.17	1.16	.22
42.77	11.88	48.23	11.62	46.61	10.49	46.05	9.10	27.34	5.20
2.22	.62	2.72	.66	2.86	.64	3.12	.62	4.19	.80
2.46	.68	2.43	.59	.87	.19
....0232	.07	2.35	.46	.30	.06
1.00	.28	2.63	.63	3.15	.71	2.82	.56	2.55	.49
1.07	.30	1.13	.27	1.44	.32	1.86	.37	2.00	.38
24.69	6.89	28.60	6.89	25.90	5.83	22.44	4.44	16.27	3.10
77.82	21.72	72.46	17.44	72.54	16.32	78.35	15.49	97.01	18.46
40.45	11.28	41.67	10.04	43.65	9.81	47.61	9.41	53.01	10.09
11.76	3.27	35.32	8.50	5.94	1.34	5.95	1.18	5.95	1.13
205.08	57.22	143.41	34.51	24.62	5.54	24.75	4.89	24.64	4.69
59.02	16.46	60.44	14.56	59.20	11.96	55.00	10.87	55.22	10.51
943.71	263.24	854.20	205.67	723.00	162.56	738.87	146.03	793.52	151.63
1.97	.54	2.68	.60
....09	.0250	.10
....	3.09	.75	2.16	.49
....	84.66	16.11
2882.58	808.91	3149.61	758.22	3596.84	808.63	3772.44	745.41	4070.12	774.65

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE

MANCHESTER FURNISHING

SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES

SALES =	1876.		1877.	
	Half-year ending January, 1877.		Year ending January, 1878.	
	£5,944.		£15,463.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	160.90	649.66	361.83	561.59
Auditors' Fees24	.97	.78	1.21
Fares02	.68	.08	.12
Fees—General and Branch Committees	2.45	9.89	5.52	8.57
Building Committee
Sub-Committee	3.62	14.63	7.54	11.71
Finance09	.36	.25	.39
Stocktakers75	3.03	1.05	1.63
Secretaries67	2.70	1.08	1.63
Deputations	1.69	6.82	2.19	3.39
Scrutineers02	.08	.05	.08
Fares—General & Branch Committees.	4.02	16.23	10.43	16.19
Building Committee
Sub-Committee	2.55	10.30	12.27	19.04
Finance06	.24	.20	.31
Stocktakers40	1.61	.48	.75
Deputations05	.08
Scrutineers
Price Lists—Printing	10.40	16.14
Postage	1.74	2.70
Annals—Printing
Postage
Printing Balance Sheets45	1.82	1.37	2.12
and Stationery	11.34	45.79	50.58	78.50
Periodicals01	.02
Travelling47	1.89	4.98	7.73
Telegrams10	.40	.12	.19
Stamps	3.10	12.51	7.94	12.32
Petty Cash	1.32	5.33	3.58	5.56
Advertisements91	3.67	1.00	1.55
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	19.70	79.55	45.25	70.23
Coals, Gas, and Water	5.06	20.44	14.09	21.87
Expenses—Quarterly Meeting15	.61	.53	.82
Reporting06	.24	.16	.25
Oil, Waste, and Tallow
Legal20	.81	.42	.65
Repairs	8.80	35.53	34.56	53.64
Employés' Picnic
Special Conferences
Dining-room Expenses	1.23	1.90
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee	6.25	25.23	22.73	35.29
Depreciation—Fixtures	10.83	43.73	24.71	38.37
Land and Buildings	47.14	190.34	115.88	179.85
Interest	112.43	453.96	240.32	372.98
Revising Committee's Fees
Fares
Printing Revised Rules
Special Meeting—Expenses
Reporting
	405.79	1638.45	985.45	1529.51

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE

MANCHESTER FURNISHING

SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES

YEAR ENDING DECEMBER.....	1881.		1882.	
	SALES=		SALES=	
	£24,846.		£29,020.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	519.04	501.48	625.96	518.50
Employés' Bonus
Auditors' Fees88	.84	.95	.79
" Deputation Fees02	.04
" Fares26	.24	.37	.30
" Deputation Fares03	.02
Fees—General and Branch Committees	5.69	5.50	1.75	1.45
" Sub-Committees	8.53	8.23	9.00	7.46
" Finance Committee29	.28	.28	.22
" Stocktakers	1.50	1.44	1.50	1.26
" Scrutineers04	.03	.03	.01
" Secretaries	1.42	1.33	1.33	1.14
" Deputations	4.36	4.21	3.25	2.69
Mileages—General and Branch Committees
" Sub-Committees
" Finance Committee
" Stocktakers
" Scrutineers
" Deputations
Fares and Contracts—General and Branch Committees	11.69	11.29	3.58	2.95
" " Sub-Committees	17.05	16.47	17.63	14.60
" " Finance Committee24	.23	.33	.27
" " Stocktakers	2.25	2.17	2.10	1.73
" " Scrutineers	0.08	0.02	.02	.01
" " Deputations	2.77	2.65	2.67	2.20
Price Lists—Printing	15.90	15.36	24.55	20.33
" Postage	8.40	8.12	8.02	6.62
Balance Sheets—Printing	2.10	2.03	2.17	1.79
Printing and Stationery	45.92	44.36	60.93	50.41
Periodicals	1.39	1.34	1.41	1.16
Travelling	23.89	23.08	15.00	12.40
Telegrams	1.20	1.16	2.23	1.84
Stamps	10.74	10.38	12.95	10.71
Petty Cash	1.05	1.01	1.82	1.50
Advertisements	1.37	1.34	1.79	1.46
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	56.09	54.19	52.33	43.32
Coals, Gas, and Water	24.40	23.57	36.56	30.26
Oil, Waste, and Tallow02	.02	.23	.18
Repairs and Renewals	11.61	11.20	16.34	13.51
Expenses—Quarterly Meetings82	.79	.80	.66
Reporting and Publishing Meetings87	.84	.75	.62
Legal02	.01
Employés' Picnic17	.16	.22	.17
Telephones06	.04
Annuals	2.92	2.80	2.62	2.16
Dining-rooms	16.97	16.39	30.24	25.00
Insurance—Fire, and Guarantee	17.11	16.53	20.83	17.21
Depreciation—Land
" Buildings	49.39	47.72	94.93	78.50
" Fixtures	58.44	56.47	65.05	53.77
Interest	366.74	354.21	390.79	323.16
Expenses—Special Meetings86	.70
Conference Expenses
Special Inquiry Committee's Expenses
Exhibition Expenses
GRAND TOTAL	1293.60	1249.55	1515.30	1253.17

SOCIETY LIMITED.

DEPARTMENT.

SINCE SEPARATE ACCOUNT WAS KEPT.

1883.		1884 (53 weeks).		1885.		1886.		1887.	
£34,803.		£44,310.		£51,237.		£62,340.		£72,933.	
Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
707-05	487-57	855-22	463-22	940-02	440-33	1101-02	423-87	1421-67	467-83
75-42	52-00	145-51	78-82	211-47	99-06	132-47	51-00
1-00	09	1-23	06	2-07	07	3-11	1-20	3-37	1-11
.....	21	09	12	04	18	04
37	25	53	28	60	28	58	22	62	20
.....	02	01	34	16	17	06	20	07
2-25	1-55	3-15	1-71	5-40	2-52	6-12	2-36	6-48	2-13
8-87	6-11	9-93	5-40	12-42	5-81	14-11	5-44	17-08	5-62
35	25	50	27	63	29	97	38	90	30
1-50	1-08	2-25	1-22	1-50	07	1-50	58	1-50	49
04	02	04	02	05	03	05	01	06	02
1-42	98	1-42	77	2-09	98	2-50	97	2-50	82
3-68	2-53	3-53	1-91	6-35	2-97	3-31	1-23	9-90	3-26
.....	76	86	1-17	45	1-34	44
.....	4-60	2-15	6-24	2-40	6-79	2-23
.....	13	06	21	08	18	06
.....	65	30	67	25	73	24
.....	01	02	01
.....	52	24	70	27	1-76	58
4-23	2-91	5-76	3-13	5-59	2-31	4-51	1-74	4-76	1-56
18-72	12-91	16-36	8-87	10-68	5-00	6-50	2-53	9-62	3-17
63	43	1-02	55	26	12	06	01	13	04
1-32	91	2-02	1-09	72	33	1-07	41	83	27
04	02	03	01	08	04	02	03	01
3-19	2-20	3-19	1-73	5-01	2-34	1-60	61	3-47	1-14
15-35	10-58	17-22	9-33	25-77	12-07	41-99	16-16	39-65	13-05
9-95	6-87	8-68	4-70	8-47	3-96	9-83	3-78	7-77	2-56
2-27	1-56	3-02	1-64	3-53	1-65	3-64	1-40	4-17	1-37
64-49	44-40	78-62	42-59	94-63	44-34	95-32	36-70	123-92	40-78
1-82	1-26	2-06	1-12	1-30	61	4-91	1-99	1-43	47
36-29	25-04	30-97	16-78	29-15	13-65	64-02	24-65	154-33	50-79
87	60	1-76	95	2-26	1-95	1-12	43	1-17	39
15-08	10-41	22-55	12-22	26-60	12-46	32-25	12-43	38-75	12-75
1-56	1-08	2-11	1-14	2-80	1-31	6-76	2-61	7-28	2-40
1-72	1-19	1-14	62	5-10	2-39	55-37	21-32	34-31	11-29
50-13	34-50	52-34	28-34	45-96	21-52	58-19	22-40	81-96	26-97
27-56	19-02	33-04	17-89	53-85	25-23	64-33	24-76	89-14	29-33
60	41	75	40	50	23	42	18	68	22
65-92	45-45	31-72	17-18	25-97	12-17	26-39	10-16	35-67	11-74
92	63	1-23	66	1-38	64	1-60	61	2-39	79
1-05	73	1-11	60	43	20
.....	15	07	3-07	1-18	17	05
87	60	2-63	1-43	3-43	1-61	3-04	1-17	2-28	75
43	29	50	27	72	34	2-06	79	2-50	82
9-82	6-78	12-61	6-83	11-85	5-55	11-13	4-28	9-75	3-21
31-85	21-98	82-16	17-42	34-91	16-37	41-19	15-86	55-75	18-35
21-91	15-12	21-38	11-58	23-58	11-05	30-39	11-70	36-71	12-08
12-63	8-71	47-25	25-59	46-68	21-86	48-66	18-73	91-44	30-09
188-67	95-60	190-49	103-18	186-63	87-43	192-85	74-25	346-49	114-02
70-13	48-39	71-81	38-89	71-40	33-45	71-60	27-56	99-70	32-81
465-48	321-10	532-70	288-53	493-04	230-97	497-90	191-68	732-27	240-97
91	64	1-25	59
.....	03	01	26	10
.....	1-56	83	1-08	50
.....	4-11	1-35
1878-36	1295-30	2253-15	1220-39	2414-56	1131-01	2657-09	1023-94	3497-86	1151-04

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE

NEWCASTLE GROCERY AND

SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES

SALES =	1876.		1877.	
	53 weeks, ending January, 1877.		Year ending January, 1878.	
	£529,242.		£541,781.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
Wages	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	2385-92	106-92	2680-62	118-94
Auditors' Fees	23-73	1-07	23-44	1-03
Fares	77	03	2-16	09
Fees—General and Branch Committees	63-27	2-86	49-83	2-20
Sub-Committee	8-15	07	18-50	08
Finance	12-35	56	7-36	32
Stocktakers	96	04	2-04	09
Secretaries	4-00	18	3-00	13
Deputations	75-99	3-43	40-94	1-82
Scrutineers	1-52	07	1-55	07
Fares—General and Branch Committees	29-90	1-36	27-27	1-20
Sub-Committee	5-87	26	11-00	48
Finance	7-50	34	5-97	26
Stocktakers	26	01	6-4	02
Deputations	2-87	12
Scrutineers
Price Lists—Printing	43-88	1-98	41-21	1-82
Postage	12-79	58	13-00	57
Annuals—Printing
Postage
Printing Balance Sheets	26-86	1-22	29-30	1-29
and Stationery	183-52	8-75	241-15	10-68
Periodicals	3-51	15
Travelling	74-98	3-40	173-12	7-67
Telegrams	62-53	2-83	63-52	2-81
Stamps	105-25	4-77	128-70	5-70
Petty Cash	20-65	93	18-87	82
Advertisements	37-05	1-68	26-88	1-17
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	127-47	5-78	139-14	6-16
Coals, Gas, and Water	132-15	5-98	110-28	4-89
Expenses—Quarterly Meeting	4-40	19	11-66	50
Reporting	11-35	52	8-22	36
Oil, Waste, and Tallow	10-88	47
Legal	8-25	35	17-36	76
Repairs	205-60	9-93	503-63	22-31
Employés' Picnic
Special Conferences
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee	80-93	3-67	76-59	3-88
Depreciation—Fixtures	167-23	7-58	209-62	9-26
Land and Buildings	597-62	27-09	607-23	27-08
Interest	3115-89	142-29	2901-95	128-58
American	1-34	06
Onseburn Works' Expenses	54-85	2-46
Opening New Warehouse	21-98	99
Special Reporting	9-67	44
Special Meeting Expenses
Revising Committee's Fees
Fares
Printing Revised Rules
	7726-40	350-37	8212-98	364-00

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE
NEWCASTLE GROCERY AND
SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES

YEAR ENDING DECEMBER.....	1881.		1882.	
	SALES=		£795,007.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	3119·84	106·29	3576·48	107·96
Auditors' Fees	24·85	·85	25·15	·75
" Deputation Fees	·49	·02
" Fares	7·70	·26	10·07	·31
" Deputation Fares	·75	·03
Fees—General and Branch Committees	70·60	2·41	133·60	4·03
" Sub-Committees	4·74	·16	7·77	·23
" Finance Committee	8·66	·29	7·58	·23
" Stocktakers	3·38	·11	3·37	·10
" Scrutineers	·84	·03	·85	·02
" Secretaries	4·00	·14	4·00	·12
" Deputations	41·96	1·42	35·72	1·07
Mileages—General and Branch Committees
" Sub-Committees
" Finance Committee
" Stocktakers
" Scrutineers
" Deputations
Fares and Contracts—General and Branch Committees	40·50	1·39	155·04	4·67
" " Sub-Committees	4·00	·14	5·97	·17
" " Finance Committee	6·84	·22	8·90	·26
" " Stocktakers	1·23	·04	·83	·02
" " Scrutineers	·60	·02	·69	·02
" " Deputations	63·88	2·21	44·48	1·40
Price Lists—Printing	45·48	1·55	47·96	1·40
" Postage	14·50	·49	14·94	·43
Balance Sheets—Printing	32·90	1·10	28·92	·87
Printing and Stationery	258·78	9·00	319·16	9·63
Periodicals	12·54	·43	10·16	·30
Travelling	181·80	6·20	149·31	4·50
Telegrams	40·84	1·40	48·03	1·41
Stamps	138·34	4·71	192·92	5·81
Petty Cash	10·86	·39	26·13	·78
Advertisements	40·25	1·39	49·85	1·51
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	109·76	3·73	109·72	3·31
Coals, Gas, and Water	115·26	3·94	112·24	3·33
Oil, Waste, and Tallow	10·06	·33	1·22	·03
Repairs and Renewals	230·50	7·86	260·88	7·86
Expenses—Quarterly Meetings	9·58	·32	14·63	·44
Reporting and Publishing Meetings	16·00	·54	26·66	·80
Legal
Employés' Picnic	8·74	·29	8·60	·25
Telephones	1·31	·03
Annals	72·20	2·44	69·97	2·10
Dining-rooms	56·05	1·69
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee	67·73	2·30	67·90	2·04
Depreciation—Land
" Buildings	351·57	11·96	396·75	12·00
" Fixtures	267·66	9·14	266·97	8·06
Interest	3482·79	113·88	3781·58	114·16
Expenses—Special Meetings	16·52	·69
Conference Expenses
Special Inquiry Committee's Expenses
Exhibition Expenses
GRAND TOTAL	8922·40	304·47	10097·63	304·83

SOCIETY LIMITED.

PROVISION DEPARTMENT.

SINCE SEPARATE ACCOUNT WAS KEPT.

1883.		1884 (53 weeks).		1885.		1886.		1887.	
£871,597.		£930,803.		£936,542.		£949,878.		£966,148.	
Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
3825·21	105·83	4850·82	112·18	4753·76	121·88	5157·47	130·31	5581·96	188·67
24·70	·60	25·88	·67	38·04	·97	47·76	1·20	44·80	1·12
.....	13	8·75	·09	1·91	·05	1·79	·05
9·11	·25	11·27	·30	11·04	·28	8·96	·22	8·99	·21
.....	·30	·07	6·06	·15	2·78	·07	2·65	·07
104·49	2·88	120·55	3·19	178·56	4·45	159·10	4·02	155·20	3·86
30·00	·83	29·50	·76	40·86	1·05	55·29	1·40	58·00	1·33
9·01	·25	10·55	·27	11·45	·29	14·76	·37	11·98	·20
4·50	·12	2·25	·05	9·91	·10	3·98	·10	4·12	·10
·82	·02	·85	·02	·85	·02	·80	·02	·75	·02
10·00	·28	10·00	·25	11·50	·29	12·67	·32	12·66	·32
16·60	·45	22·47	·57	28·82	·74	33·32	·84	25·90	·65
.....	19·51	·50	25·35	·63	25·56	·63
.....	2·65	·07	4·10	·10	4·69	·12
.....	2·44	·06	3·14	·08	2·44	·06
.....	·19	·43	·01	·37	·01
.....	·15	·33	·01
.....	·21	·01	·77	·02	1·18	·02
129·55	3·56	158·06	4·08	150·87	3·87	108·17	2·73	90·49	2·24
15·38	·42	10·82	·28	15·91	·41	16·87	·26	16·83	·41
15·30	·42	22·14	·57	4·56	·12	1·00	·03	1·63	·04
1·32	·04	·48	·01	1·26	·03	·99	·02	1·63	·04
·90	·02	·64	·01	·69	·02	·31	·35	·01
20·88	·57	28·19	·72	37·85	·97	39·76	1·00	17·80	·44
55·27	1·53	61·82	1·58	82·00	2·10	85·30	2·15	109·32	2·73
14·42	·40	18·78	·48	27·50	·70	26·13	·66	28·02	·70
28·20	·78	34·26	·88	35·76	·92	32·12	·81	33·97	·83
264·88	7·27	287·15	7·40	235·05	6·02	360·71	9·11	275·53	6·85
10·00	·28	11·79	·30	15·67	·40	9·89	·25	14·99	·38
103·05	2·84	60·95	1·56	110·14	2·82	194·85	4·92	265·66	6·61
88·88	1·07	57·52	1·48	57·97	1·48	59·56	1·50	62·44	1·55
201·27	5·54	229·85	5·91	222·77	5·71	275·89	6·97	306·51	7·62
20·79	·58	15·32	·39	19·74	·50	19·02	·48	29·93	·74
69·90	1·93	32·84	·84	29·18	·75	38·49	·97	38·35	·96
119·73	3·30	119·78	3·09	202·44	5·19	206·87	5·23	257·24	6·40
118·20	3·26	107·62	2·77	187·99	4·82	251·10	6·34	272·50	6·87
8·50	·23	10·63	·27	8·11	·21	8·66	·22	28·29	·58
226·55	6·24	356·59	9·19	168·94	4·33	332·95	8·41	744·85	18·51
17·26	·47	25·15	·64	23·85	·61	18·00	·45	24·44	·60
30·96	·86	24·20	·62	7·08	·18
1·76	·04	·10	6·06	·16	21·29	·54	4·01	·09
10·27	·29	5·02	·13	5·80	·15	4·50	·11	6·50	·16
14·47	·39	13·60	·35	13·09	·34	13·20	·33	13·20	·34
221·88	6·12	268·85	6·93	213·02	5·47	163·85	4·28	122·82	3·05
114·51	3·14	134·81	3·47	189·06	4·84	237·51	6·00	222·15	5·52
78·32	2·15	84·77	2·18	106·65	2·73	113·17	2·86	186·09	4·62
27·08	·74	119·96	3·09	112·30	2·88	77·80	1·97	111·37	2·77
364·06	10·01	434·95	11·21	474·45	12·18	473·27	11·96	711·23	17·67
255·34	7·03	279·60	7·20	277·70	7·12	233·10	6·10	264·07	6·56
4130·44	113·74	3746·84	96·63	3882·22	99·48	3358·61	84·86	3934·74	97·75
22·61	·62	22·74	·58
.....	1·24	·03
.....	47·23	1·21	17·66	·45
.....	90·21	2·24
10785·37	296·98	11895·61	293·83	12074·18	309·42	12320·04	311·28	14219·93	353·23

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE

NEWCASTLE DRAPERY

SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES

SALES =	1876.		1877.	
	53 weeks, ending January, 1877.		Year ending January, 1878.	
	£39,895.		£49,560.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	580-29	349-11	743-65	360-12
Auditors' Fees	1-80	1-08	2-21	1-07
" Fares	-07	-04	-23	-11
Fees—General and Branch Committees	12-11	7-24	16-62	8-06
" Sub-Committee	3-73	2-24	6-00	2-90
" Finance	1-00	-60	-70	-84
" Stocktakers	2-52	1-51	2-95	1-43
" Secretaries	1-08	-65	1-00	-49
" Deputations	6-40	8-85	3-98	1-94
" Scrutineers	-12	-07	-14	-07
Fares—General and Branch Committees	6-21	3-73	9-09	4-40
" Sub-Committee	3-00	1-80	2-51	1-22
" Finance	-58	-36	-55	-26
" Stocktakers	-64	-39	1-06	-52
" Deputations	-21	-10
" Scrutineers
Price Lists—Printing	6-94	4-15
" Postage	1-42	-86
Annals—Printing
" Postage
Printing Balance Sheets	2-06	1-24	2-71	1-31
" and Stationery	51-82	31-15	77-57	37-56
Periodicals	-90	-15
Travelling	23-27	17-63	87-36	42-27
Telegrams	4-00	2-40	4-00	1-94
Stamps	20-00	12-03	30-62	14-83
Petty Cash	2-40	1-44	1-78	-87
Advertisements	2-19	1-32	2-18	1-06
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	34-68	20-86	34-50	16-70
Coals, Gas, and Water	30-25	18-20	27-59	13-35
Expenses—Quarterly Meeting	-37	-22	1-11	-54
Reporting	1-64	-99	-79	-38
Legal	-78	-47	2-54	1-24
Repairs	47-80	23-78	125-75	60-90
Employe's Picnic
Special Conferences
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee	18-60	11-19	23-78	11-52
Depreciation—Fixtures	39-62	23-83	51-75	25-05
" Land and Buildings	137-25	82-56	151-80	73-51
Interest	659-83	396-96	793-78	384-40
Expenses—Onseburn Engine Works	-07	-04
Opening New Warehouse	14-20	8-54
Special Meeting Expenses	-30	-54
" Report	2-05	1-23
Revising Fees
" Fares
Printing Revised Rules
	1727-69	1039-34	2210-81	1070-61

SOCIETY LIMITED.

DEPARTMENT.

SINCE SEPARATE ACCOUNT WAS KEPT.

1878. Year ending January, 1879.		1879. 50 weeks, ending December.		1880. Year ending December.	
£44,161.		£44,675.		£55,981.	
Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
743-78	404-28	779-82	418-68	854-08	366-29
2-01	1-09	2-08	1-12	2-11	0-91
77	42	60	33	64	27
22-19	12-08	21-50	11-55	22-76	9-78
.....
62	33	58	31	53	23
1-80	97	4-13	2-22	4-12	1-79
1-67	90	1-33	71	1-33	57
1-60	87	1-75	81	2-20	96
07	03	07	03	05	02
10-50	5-71	10-42	5-59	10-92	4-69
.....
45	24	41	22	38	16
86	46	1-40	75	1-73	74
2-83	1-53	1-97	1-06	5-95	2-39
07	03	06	03	02	01
2-81	1-50	1-42	51
49	25	25	11
.....	1-72	73
.....	20	08
2-69	1-46	2-78	1-49	2-89	1-08
53-55	31-84	68-72	33-94	75-03	32-19
23	12
93-57	50-85	113-99	61-26	133-02	57-09
6-00	3-26	3-05	1-64	4-00	1-72
32-66	17-76	34-65	18-60	33-64	14-45
1-35	73	1-33	71	1-90	82
3-27	1-77	3-50	1-89	3-66	1-59
42-27	22-97	31-52	16-94	42-05	18-09
27-46	14-93	36-32	19-50	19-65	8-42
76	41	1-52	82	88	38
1-29	70	1-04	66	1-33	59
.....	11	06	16	07
88-79	48-25	43-76	23-52	28-15	12-09
.....	72	31
.....	17	07
30-34	16-49	29-65	15-93	32-60	14-00
58-87	31-99	81-51	43-78	94-23	40-41
149-37	81-18	117-48	63-11	132-95	56-92
765-83	416-18	757-64	407-02	977-77	419-23
.....
.....
94	55
27	14
74	40
2-09	1-13
83	18
2169-19	1178-99	2154-19	1157-28	2495-26	1069-75

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE

NEWCASTLE DRAPERY

SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES

YEAR ENDING DECEMBER.....	1881.		1882.	
	SALES=		SALES=	
	£69,083.		£84,458.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	954'83	331'52	1149'12	326'57
Auditors' Fees	2'44	'84	2'67	'75
" Deputation Fees	'05	'02
" Fares	'77	'27	1'07	'80
" Deputation Fares	'07	'03
Fees—General and Branch Committees	23'47	8'18	26'28	7'46
" Sub-Committees	'07	'02
" Finance Committee	'86	'30	'83	'23
" Stocktakers	4'12	1'43	3'75	1'07
" Scrutineers	'08	'03	'10	'02
" Secretaries	1'32	'48	1'33	'37
" Deputations	2'39	'83	2'91	'83
Mileages—General and Branch Committees
" Sub-Committees
" Finance Committee
" Stocktakers
" Scrutineers
" Deputations
Fares and Contracts—General and Branch Committees	13'54	4'71	19'80	5'62
" Sub-Committees
" Finance Committee	'66	'23	'99	'26
" Stocktakers	1'31	'46	1'23	'34
" Scrutineers	'05	'02	'07	'02
" Deputations	2'49	'85	3'81	1'08
Price Lists—Printing
" Postage
Balance Sheets—Printing	3'18	1'11	3'06	'87
Printing and Stationery	46'87	16'12	62'23	17'69
Periodicals	'73	'26
Travelling	137'42	47'73	171'06	48'65
Telegrams	4'00	1'39	4'00	1'14
Stamps	33'70	11'70	39'86	11'32
Petty Cash	1'78	'63	1'60	'46
Advertisements	3'79	1'32	5'10	1'45
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	49'69	17'26	44'78	12'72
Coals, Gas, and Water	22'88	7'95	21'96	6'23
Oil, Waste, and Tallow	1'19	'40	'40	'11
Repairs and Renewals	57'48	19'96	64'80	18'43
Expenses—Quarterly Meetings	'94	'32	1'53	'43
Reporting and Publishing Meetings	1'59	'55	2'87	'81
Legal
Employees' Picnic	'75	'27	'83	'23
Telephones	'16	'04
Annals	7'53	2'62	7'32	2'03
Dining-rooms	17'52	4'93
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee	32'72	11'40	39'33	11'16
Depreciation—Land
" Buildings	133'78	46'45	137'36	39'02
" Fixtures	95'20	33'06	95'35	27'10
Interest	1013'70	352'16	1037'97	294'93
Expenses—Special Meetings	1'82	'53
Conference Expenses
Opening
Special Inquiry Committee's Expenses
Exhibition Expenses
GRAND TOTAL	2656'44	922'87	2974'87	845'35

SOCIETY LIMITED.

DEPARTMENT.

SINCE SEPARATE ACCOUNT WAS KEPT.

1883.		1884 (58 weeks).		1885.		1886.		1887.	
£99,356.		£118,345.		£142,702.		£152,433.		£144,713.	
Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
1827-00	320-54	1607-28	325-96	1861-88	313-15	2072-68	326-34	2189-14	363-06
2-81	67	3-27	66	5-75	97	7-67	1-21	6-69	1-11
.....	02	57	09	30	05	26	04
1-08	26	1-43	29	1-69	28	1-44	23	1-27	21
.....	05	01	03	15	44	07	40	07
22-80	5-52	26-54	5-89	40-11	6-75	38-83	5-80	35-95	5-96
13-67	3-31	15-67	3-19	23-29	3-93	29-21	4-60	28-18	4-67
1-01	24	1-32	26	1-75	30	2-39	38	1-79	30
4-12	98	3-38	68	4-50	76	4-50	71	4-50	75
0-09	02	1-10	02	1-13	02	1-13	02	0-11	02
5-34	1-28	5-34	1-08	6-00	1-01	6-21	9-8	6-72	1-11
1-75	42	3-32	67	2-34	49	3-57	56	5-61	93
.....	3-84	65	5-34	72	5-26	87
.....	2-21	37	3-74	60	3-47	58
.....	37	06	50	08	37	06
.....	36	74	12	72	12
.....	02	05	01
.....	01	11	02	16	03
20-40	4-92	27-14	5-50	31-19	5-25	21-71	3-42	17-32	2-87
5-61	1-34	6-54	1-33	9-83	1-65	9-88	1-48	9-46	1-56
1-76	42	2-70	55	70	12	16	03	25	04
1-21	29	1-09	22	1-55	26	1-58	25	1-79	30
1-10	02	0-09	02	1-11	02	0-05	01	0-05	01
2-13	52	2-41	48	3-10	52	2-95	47	3-94	65
1-63	39	2-00	32	2-00	33
2-2	05
3-23	78	4-40	88	5-44	91	5-19	82	5-16	85
64-13	15-48	62-62	12-69	73-29	12-32	128-63	20-25	101-56	16-84
1-08	26	90	18	1-11	19	34	05	1-33	22
167-42	40-43	183-25	37-16	211-82	35-63	238-70	37-59	268-57	44-54
4-00	97	4-00	81	5-00	84	6-00	95	5-00	83
41-92	10-12	52-36	10-62	62-44	10-50	55-54	8-75	80-25	13-31
2-69	65	3-40	68	2-88	48	2-90	46	3-12	53
5-59	1-35	3-88	77	2-51	42	6-59	1-04	6-80	1-13
57-23	13-82	51-85	10-50	87-01	14-64	178-65	28-13	175-40	29-09
27-34	6-59	25-68	5-20	52-47	8-82	69-85	11-00	77-85	13-83
2-84	68	2-71	54	1-67	28	1-79	28	4-13	68
53-47	13-92	112-49	22-81	170-10	23-62	96-25	15-16	254-05	42-13
1-98	48	3-20	64	3-64	61	3-46	55	3-69	61
3-53	85	3-18	63	1-12	19
20	05	01	42	07	3-03	48	59	10
1-01	24	2-92	58	4-43	74	4-00	63	5-50	92
1-64	40	1-75	35	1-93	32	1-83	29	1-83	30
26-90	6-50	34-28	6-96	33-25	5-59	28-01	4-41	18-66	3-09
34-42	8-32	41-12	8-35	53-90	9-07	72-28	11-88	68-07	11-29
47-33	11-45	53-44	10-68	60-68	10-21	102-11	16-08	114-77	19-04
11-75	2-83	52-08	10-84	55-23	9-29	64-71	10-19	75-38	12-50
155-46	37-56	207-81	42-04	277-44	46-68	394-65	62-14	482-64	80-04
109-75	26-55	105-64	21-47	121-30	20-40	188-93	29-75	197-34	32-73
1147-02	277-10	1222-36	247-39	1299-88	218-63	1474-62	232-18	1583-62	262-64
2-55	62	3-64	59
.....	15	03
.....	34-10	6-91
.....	7-17	1-40	2-76	47
.....	8-28	1-37
3387-21	818-19	3083-94	807-92	4598-07	773-31	5341-71	841-03	5868-55	973-27

**THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE
NEWCASTLE BOOT AND
SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES**

SALES =	1876. 53 weeks, ending January, 1877.		1877. Year ending January, 1878.	
	£25,379.		£28,425.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	199 02	188 21	249 97	211 06
Auditors' Fees	1 10	1 05	1 23	1 04
Fares	03	03	07	06
Fees—General and Branch Committees	10 02	10 04	8 80	7 01
Sub-Committee	3 32	3 14	7 00	5 91
Finance	55	52	39	33
Stocktakers	1 39	1 26	1 47	1 24
Secretaries	92	87	50	42
Deputations	16 83	15 92	2 25	1 90
Scrutineers	08	08	08	07
Fares—General and Branch Committees	5 32	5 03	4 54	3 84
Sub-Committee	2 94	2 78	5 25	4 48
Finance	34	32	31	26
Stocktakers	33	31	28	24
Deputations	15	13
Scrutineers
Price Lists—Printing	1 41	1 18
Postage	24	20
Annuals—Printing
Postage
Printing Balance Sheets	1 35	1 28	1 56	1 32
and Stationery	25 90	24 50	48 54	40 98
Periodicals	47	39
Travelling	32 37	30 61	53 50	45 16
Telegrams	2 50	2 37	2 00	1 69
Stamps	13 00	12 29	18 75	15 83
Petty Cash	3 30	3 12	97	82
Advertisements	1 45	1 37	1 26	1 07
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	14 11	13 34	11 50	9 71
Coals, Gas, and Water	13 78	13 02	9 18	7 76
Expenses—Quarterly Meeting	23	21	63	58
Reporting	65	61	44	37
Legal	37	35	1 54	1 30
Repairs	20 67	19 54	41 80	35 29
Employés' Picnic
Special Conference
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee	7 57	7 16	4 98	4 20
Depreciation—Fixtures	16 13	15 25	17 12	14 46
Land and Buildings	62 12	58 74	50 60	42 72
Interest	182 48	172 56	211 55	178 62
Onseburn Works—Expenses	05	05
Opening New Warehouse	8 08	7 65
Special Reporting	42	40
Meeting Expenses
Fees—Revising Committee
Fares
"
Printing Revised Rules
	649 26	613 98	759 83	641 54

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE
NEWCASTLE BOOT AND
SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES

YEAR ENDING DECEMBER.....	1881.		1882.	
SALES=	£42,993.		£54,487.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	488'00	272'44	632'24	278'48
Auditors' Fees	1'51	'84	1'69	'74
" Deputation Fees	'08	'01
" Fares	'47	'26	'62	'27
" Deputation Fares	'04	'02
Fees—General and Branch Committees	11'76	6'54	13'88	6'09
" Sub-Committee	4'05	2'25	4'00	1'76
" Finance Committee	'54	'30	'52	'22
" Stocktakers	1'13	'63	1'65	'73
" Scrutineers	'05	'02	'05	'02
" Secretaries	'67	'37	'67	'30
" Deputations	3'21	1'79	2'88	1'26
Mileages—General and Branch Committees
" Sub-Committees
" Finance Committee
" Stocktakers
" Scrutineers
" Deputations
Fares and Contracts—General and Branch Committees	6'80	3'79	11'21	4'94
" Sub-Committees	4'00	2'23	4'00	1'76
" Finance Committee	'44	'25	'62	'27
" Stocktakers	'30	'16	'74	'32
" Scrutineers	'04	'02	'05	'02
" Deputations	2'95	1'65	3'23	1'42
Price Lists—Printing	2'50	1'40	11'00	4'86
" Postage	'20	'11	1'38	'61
Balance Sheets—Printing	2'02	1'12	1'96	'84
Printing and Stationery	47'70	26'65	62'97	27'75
Periodicals	'08	'04	1'30	'57
Travelling	100'12	55'93	114'10	50'27
Telegrams	2'05	1'13	2'23	'98
Stamps	25'05	14'00	28'28	12'45
Petty Cash	'89	'49	1'05	'46
Advertisements	2'56	1'42	3'47	1'52
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	23'61	13'19	22'30	9'85
Coals, Gas, and Water	11'09	6'19	11'55	5'09
Oil, Waste, and Tallow	'72	'40	'15	'06
Repairs and Renewals	21'84	12'20	23'75	10'46
Expenses—Quarterly Meetings	'55	'31	1'00	'44
Reporting and Publishing Meetings	'98	'54	1'76	'77
Legal
Employés' Picnic	'50	'28	'57	'25
Telephones	'10	'04
Annals	4'53	2'52	4'69	2'07
Dining-rooms	10'50	4'62
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee	12'39	6'91	15'57	6'85
Depreciation—Land
" Buildings	75'10	41'92	51'42	22'67
" Fixtures	32'29	18'04	32'86	14'26
Interest	415'77	232'09	445'25	196'11
Expenses—Special Meetings	1'12	'49
Conference Expenses
Special Inquiry Committee's Expenses
Exhibition Expenses
GRAND TOTAL	1308'53	730'46	1527'78	672'94

SOCIETY LIMITED.

SHOE DEPARTMENT.

SINCE SEPARATE ACCOUNT WAS KEPT.

1883.		1884 (53 weeks).		1885.		1886.		1887.	
£65,502.		£75,054.		£89,118.		£97,148.		£91,031.	
Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
860-98	315-48	1021-12	326-52	1172-81	315-84	1371-74	338-88	1409-10	371-51
1-85	68	2-08	66	3-61	97	4-91	1-21	4-22	1-12
.....	0-1	0-35	0-1	0-20	0-05	0-17	0-05
.....	0-93	29	1-05	28	0-91	0-22	0-79	0-21
.....	0-08	0-58	16	0-29	0-07	0-25	0-07
12-33	4-51	14-37	4-60	21-93	5-91	20-48	5-06	19-63	5-18
10-83	3-97	11-84	3-79	15-71	4-23	18-66	4-61	14-76	3-89
0-67	24	0-84	26	1-10	29	1-52	38	1-12	30
3-37	1-24	2-25	72	3-35	90	4-12	1-02	4-50	1-19
0-05	0-1	0-06	0-1	0-08	0-2	0-08	0-02	0-07	0-02
2-67	98	2-67	85	3-00	81	3-12	77	2-62	69
5-43	1-98	4-25	1-36	4-31	1-18	4-85	1-20	2-23	59
.....	2-21	61	3-07	76	2-96	77
.....	1-11	30	1-79	44	2-24	59
.....	0-23	0-6	0-31	0-8	0-23	0-6
.....	0-26	0-7	0-60	1-5	0-66	1-8
.....	0-01	0-02	0-1
.....	0-01	0-07	0-2	0-09	0-2
12-02	4-41	15-65	5-01	17-53	4-78	12-70	3-14	9-74	2-57
6-80	2-49	7-27	2-33	8-92	2-40	8-69	2-15	7-88	2-08
1-16	42	1-75	5-6	0-43	1-2	0-10	0-2	0-14	0-8
1-18	42	0-70	2-3	1-33	3-5	1-20	2-9	1-08	2-9
0-06	0-2	0-06	0-1	0-06	0-1	0-02	0-03	0-1
3-21	3-00	6-05	1-94	5-55	1-49	5-28	1-30	1-53	4-0
2-97	1-09	14-00	4-48	12-04	3-24	20-58	5-08	9-50	2-54
2-34	8-6	2-50	8-0	1-55	4-2	1-91	4-7	0-98	2-7
2-12	7-8	2-77	8-8	3-43	9-2	3-36	8-3	3-19	8-5
78-72	28-11	98-48	31-51	84-85	22-86	123-16	30-43	86-45	22-79
1-79	6-6	0-98	3-1	1-84	4-9	2-14	5-3	2-68	7-0
180-97	48-00	164-13	52-49	160-05	43-10	147-35	36-40	175-61	46-30
2-00	7-8	2-05	6-5	4-00	1-07	4-13	1-02	4-00	1-05
29-27	10-72	35-34	11-31	49-53	13-34	39-64	9-30	73-17	19-28
5-55	2-08	1-70	5-4	2-40	6-4	1-96	4-8	3-08	8-0
3-84	1-40	2-52	8-0	26-13	7-03	6-01	1-49	7-02	1-86
32-93	12-07	30-24	9-68	45-80	12-34	162-37	40-11	138-95	56-64
12-40	4-53	11-90	3-78	22-14	5-96	30-97	7-65	41-18	10-86
0-95	3-5	1-23	3-9	1-94	2-8	1-09	2-7	2-50	6-6
42-40	15-54	84-07	26-89	58-35	15-71	35-61	8-80	161-38	42-55
1-29	4-7	2-05	6-5	2-27	6-1	2-22	5-5	2-29	6-1
2-34	8-5	1-98	6-3	0-68	1-8
0-14	0-5	0-1	0-27	0-7	2-05	5-1	0-39	1-1
0-72	2-6	2-70	3-6	2-55	6-9	2-50	6-2	3-72	9-8
1-09	3-9	1-10	3-5	1-22	3-3	1-22	3-0	1-22	3-3
17-66	6-47	21-71	6-95	20-63	5-55	17-54	4-33	11-42	3-02
22-82	8-37	26-29	8-41	34-27	9-25	46-49	11-49	43-01	11-34
19-51	7-14	23-27	7-45	27-54	7-42	65-49	16-18	71-57	18-87
5-90	2-16	26-09	8-35	32-75	8-82	56-76	14-02	60-49	15-94
78-09	28-61	93-44	29-87	155-95	42-02	346-06	85-49	336-73	101-96
55-12	20-20	91-63	29-30	135-35	36-46	165-77	40-95	169-04	44-56
476-00	174-45	569-40	182-07	627-37	168-99	895-42	221-21	948-59	250-09
1-68	6-2	2-18	5-9
.....	0-10	0-3
.....	4-55	1-45	1-68	4-6
.....	35-72	9-31
1956-90	717-01	2408-06	770-02	2783-38	749-58	3646-52	906-85	3929-89	1036-10

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE

LONDON

SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES

SALES =	1875.		1876.		1877.	
	Year ending January, 1876.		53 weeks, ending January, 1877.		Year ending January, 1878.	
	£130,751.		£184,880.		£210,415.	
	Amount	Rate per £100	Amount	Rate per £100	Amount	Rate per £100
	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	830-08	152-37	1059-03	137-49	1302-62	148-70
Auditors' Fees	6-92	1-27	8-22	1-07	9-08	1-02
Fares
"
Fees—General and Branch Committees	35-00	6-42	39-50	5-13	43-75	4-99
" Building Committee
" Sub-Committee	1-20	..	2-20	..	4-00	..
" Finance	2-34	..	2-92	..	2-84	..
" Stocktakers	5-32	1-00	..
" Secretaries	1-50	..	6-00	..	6-00	..
" Deputations	4-96	..	31-94	..	21-51	..
" Scrutineers
Fares—General and Branch Committees	56-23	15-83	95-54	11-81	108-40	12-96
" Building Committee
" Sub-Committee	1-20	..	2-20	..	4-00	..
" Finance	2-26	..	2-16	..	2-28	..
" Stocktakers
" Deputations	1-03	6-47	..
" Scrutineers
Price Lists—Printing	37-70	6-92	66-57	8-64	65-88	7-51
" Postage	14-81	2-72	19-65	2-50	20-47	2-34
Annals—Printing
" Postage
Printing Balance Sheets	26-68	4-90	38-63	4-40	40-63	4-62
" and Stationery	114-38	20-99	155-65	20-90	208-10	23-73
Periodicals
Travelling	24-72	4-54	45-15	5-84	37-01	4-23
Telegrams	14-99	2-74	21-84	2-80	15-95	1-81
Stamps	119-43	21-92	132-23	17-17	158-50	18-07
Petty Cash	25-02	4-59	29-51	3-83	29-05	3-32
Advertisements	8-52	1-56	9-56	1-24	9-52	1-08
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	304-56	55-91	315-68	40-98	306-54	34-96
Coals, Gas, and Water	21-07	3-87	15-45	2-00	21-98	2-51
Expenses—Quarterly Meeting	6-93	1-27	8-85	1-14	8-22	..
" Reporting	1-17
" "
Legal	13-46	2-47	88-37	11-47	18-68	2-12
Repairs	25-20	4-63	17-03	2-20	9-45	1-08
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee	771	1-41	18-68	1-77	14-33	1-63
Depreciation—Fixtures	38-55	7-07	38-69	5-02	41-08	4-66
" Land and Buildings
Interest	561-64	103-09	761-25	98-83	761-83	86-96
Grant to Congress Committee	10-00	1-84
American Expenses	6-20	1-14
Osseburn Engine Works—Expenses	4-05
Revising Committee's Fees
" Fares
" Printing Revised Rules
" Expenses—Special Meeting
" Reporting
" Laying Foundation Stone
	2365-43	434-18	3025-67	392-75	3238-16	374-51

SOCIETY LIMITED.

BRANCH.

SINCE SEPARATE ACCOUNT WAS KEPT.

1878.		1879.		1880.			
Year ending January, 1879.		50 weeks, ending December.		Year ending December.		Half-year ending Dec.	
£216,314.		£232,661.		£274,965.		£8,158.	
GROCERY.		GROCERY.		GROCERY.		DRAPERY, &c.	
Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
1365-77	151-60	1399-44	144-36	1600-12	139-66	124-82	367-22
9-78	1-08	10-87	1-12	10-95	0-90	2-29	0-86
3-77	4-1	2-98	0-30	2-88	0-25	0-08	0-22
44-50	4-90	43-50	4-49	46-07	4-06	4-43	13-04
....	28-50	2-96	10-25	0-89
13-00	1-44	4-00	4-1	3-75	0-32	8-75	25-74
3-07	0-34	2-98	0-30	2-63	0-23	0-06	0-17
1-00	0-11	2-00	0-21	1-50	0-13
6-00	0-66	6-00	0-62	5-94	0-52	0-06	0-18
18-18	2-01	27-95	2-88	49-98	4-32	2-31	6-76
32	0-03	37	0-03	26	0-02
124-83	13-95	125-87	12-99	132-83	11-59	13-05	38-39
....	30-28	3-12	2-63	0-23
10-32	1-14	4-00	4-2	3-00	0-26	9-42	27-73
2-17	0-23	2-15	0-23	1-83	0-16	0-05	0-15
2-3	0-02	2-3	0-02	0-67	0-06
29-99	3-32	49-60	5-11	99-59	8-69	3-48	10-25
85	0-08	27	0-02	10	0-01
66-07	7-33	59-05	6-09	63-42	5-59	4-70	13-83
20-23	2-24	20-97	2-16	21-95	1-91	0-78	2-26
....	31-32	2-73
41-73	4-63	42-25	4-35	3-60	0-31
176-67	19-60	183-33	18-93	45-48	3-99	1-22	3-61
5-31	0-58	9-12	0-94	156-22	13-63	20-50	60-33
62-73	6-95	54-57	5-63	6-03	0-53	0-02
15-71	1-74	18-68	1-92	42-56	3-74	30-05	88-43
164-63	18-26	175-54	18-12	19-76	1-72
26-24	2-91	26-45	2-72	203-32	17-74	10-32	30-85
17-24	1-91	18-55	1-91	28-33	2-49	0-52	1-54
300-90	33-38	302-89	31-24	18-73	1-63	0-43	1-26
24-22	2-68	43-55	4-48	278-29	24-25	2-14	6-30
9-30	1-03	10-81	1-11	31-53	2-75	0-75	2-21
2-55	0-26	4-20	0-43	8-59	0-75	0-15	0-44
....	5-65	0-49	0-23	0-67
15-47	1-71	12-26	1-26	77	0-07
15-41	1-71	15-08	1-55	39-13	3-42	0-86	2-52
48-08	5-33	65-14	6-72	25-58	2-23	2-12	6-25
1-10	0-12	3-84	0-40	61-58	4-50	15-98	47-02
715-43	79-44	702-02	72-44	69-58	6-07	1-94	5-71
....	989-99	82-04	53-24	156-63
....
....
....
3-67	0-39
5-28	0-58
3-77	0-41
3-21	0-35
2-10	0-22
....	61-67	6-36
3380-33	375-05	3570-96	368-35	4065-90	354-88	312-75	930-07

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE
LONDON GROCERY AND
SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES

YEAR ENDING DECEMBER.....	1881.		1882.	
	SALES=		SALES=	
	£289,749.		£296,767.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	1608-41	133-25	1695-27	137-09
Auditors' Fees	10-22	85	9-34	76
" Deputation Fees	20	02
" Fares	3-18	26	3-80	30
" Deputation Fares	32	08
Fees—General and Branch Committees	45-96	3-81	75-14	6-08
" Sub-Committees	22-30	1-85	31-63	2-54
" Finance Committee	3-57	29	2-85	23
" Stocktakers	3-00	25	2-00	16
" Scrutineers	34	03	31	02
" Secretaries	11-43	95	15-10	1-22
" Deputations	33-10	2-74	42-15	3-41
Mileages—General and Branch Committees
" Sub-Committees
" Finance Committee
" Stocktakers
" Scrutineers
" Deputations
Fares and Contracts—General and Branch Committees..	137-24	11-37	188-40	15-26
" Sub-Committees	70-49	5-84	59-09	4-79
" Finance Committee	2-83	23	3-35	27
" Stocktakers	1-50	12	58	04
" Scrutineers	25	02	25	02
" Deputations	48-70	4-03	69-98	5-65
Price Lists—Printing	73-68	6-10	78-88	6-33
" Postage	23-41	1-93	23-70	1-92
Balance Sheets—Printing	48-17	3-57	48-18	3-50
Printing and Stationery	262-45	21-74	145-61	11-79
Periodicals	10-28	85	12-06	97
Travelling	31-71	2-62	46-08	3-73
Telegrams	13-88	1-15	30-89	2-49
Stamps	205-78	17-04	210-28	17-03
Petty Cash	26-64	2-22	30-14	2-43
Advertisements	16-80	1-40	16-55	1-33
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	170-79	14-15	94-00	7-61
Coals, Gas, and Water	139-91	11-59	110-09	8-91
Oil, Waste, and Tallow	31	03	1-27	10
Repairs and Renewals	62-81	5-20	47-47	3-85
Expenses—Quarterly Meetings	5-45	45	4-23	34
Reporting and Publishing Meetings	6-96	58	15-04	1-22
Legal
Employés' Picnic	4-70	37	4-00	32
Telephones
Annuals	29-75	2-45	25-37	2-05
Dining-rooms
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee	38-19	3-16	41-03	3-31
Depreciation—Land
" Buildings	436-62	36-16	441-88	35-74
" Fixtures	132-05	10-93	143-62	11-62
Interest	1457-72	120-76	1229-08	99-39
Expenses—Special Meetings	6-90	55
Opening	114-41	9-48
Special Inquiry Committee's Expenses
Exhibition Expenses
GRAND TOTAL	5310-60	439-87	5000-18	404-37

SOCIETY LIMITED.

PROVISION DEPARTMENT.

SINCE SEPARATE ACCOUNT WAS KEPT.

1883.		1884 (53 weeks).		1885.		1886.		1887.	
£337,753.		£375,964.		£445,876.		£527,904.		£652,884.	
Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
1760-70	125-14	2200-32	140-46	2885-74	155-33	3630-99	165-07	4370-43	160-66
9-55	'67	10-40	'66	18-35	'99	26-42	1-20	30-05	1-11
.....	1-73	'09	1-05	'05	1-20	'04
3-54	'25	4-55	'29	5-19	'27	4-96	'23	5-64	'27
.....	2-81	'15	1-52	'07	1-80	'07
72-38	5-14	83-30	5-30	128-10	6-89	185-84	6-18	130-16	5-11
27-50	1-95	37-43	2-39	60-60	3-26	68-87	3-13	91-69	3-37
3-49	'24	4-13	'26	5-42	'29	8-12	'37	7-99	'29
2-00	'14	2-49	'16	4-65	'25	6-23	'28	8-25	'30
'33	'02	'35	'02	'40	'02	'45	'02	'50	'02
12-00	'85	14-00	'89	17-67	'95	18-50	'84	18-25	'67
52-55	3-73	57-98	3-70	50-92	2-75	41-92	1-90	52-30	1-92
.....	35-88	1-93	53-82	2-45	60-61	2-23
.....	26-33	1-42	45-81	2-08	67-05	2-46
.....	1-18	'06	1-74	'08	1-64	'06
.....	'65	'03	1-35	'06	2-21	'08
.....	'09	'22	'01
.....	2-45	'13	6-59	'30	8-87	'32
196-27	13-96	208-74	13-31	191-08	10-29	162-37	7-35	145-50	5-35
84-60	2-46	56-20	3-59	84-64	4-55	70-70	3-21	50-28	1-85
5-94	'42	8-40	'54	2-07	'11	'55	'02	1-19	'04
.....	1-09	'07	7-95	'43	6-39	'29	8-39	'31
'35	'02	'25	'02	'33	'02	'19	'01	'23	'01
96-66	6-87	125-40	8-00	111-44	6-00	70-40	3-20	90-29	3-30
89-85	6-38	104-80	6-70	171-93	9-25	212-35	9-65	261-04	9-59
23-45	1-66	31-47	2-00	57-58	3-09	65-21	2-36	66-82	2-46
41-86	2-92	43-03	2-73	52-90	2-85	58-45	2-65	55-38	2-04
230-37	16-37	250-63	16-00	401-08	21-58	301-89	13-72	578-72	21-27
7-01	'49	14-15	'90	15-30	'82	17-65	'80	24-24	'89
62-43	4-45	127-80	8-16	227-85	12-27	280-98	12-71	204-27	10-82
13-38	'95	19-82	1-26	28-87	1-52	20-92	'95	8-41	'31
191-66	13-62	206-12	13-16	251-23	13-52	281-77	12-81	342-30	12-58
14-84	1-05	17-09	1-09	23-65	1-27	20-09	'91	30-10	1-11
29-38	2-09	10-20	'65	10-37	'56	14-66	'66	19-62	'72
96-89	6-88	119-49	7-62	202-95	10-93	209-95	9-54	298-45	10-97
71-70	5-09	89-33	5-70	92-34	4-97	133-59	6-07	244-80	9-00
2-61	'18	1-68	'11	3-92	'21	7-81	'35	18-79	'69
171-87	12-25	240-10	15-82	105-77	5-69	152-24	6-88	624-03	22-94
4-20	'30	4-36	'28	5-87	'32	14-31	'65	16-45	'60
20-76	1-47	16-40	1-04	4-93	'27
4-25	'30	'04	2-13	'11	12-20	'55	7-26	'26
4-00	'28	4-00	'26	4-50	'25	7-26	'33	8-00	'29
13-06	'92	18-60	1-15	28-75	1-55	32-56	1-47	32-57	1-20
84-81	6-02	103-90	6-64	99-25	5-36	92-54	4-43	83-17	3-06
.....	13-18	'84	19-69	1-06	27-01	1-22	38-97	1-43
37-62	2-67	52-70	3-36	56-25	3-03	70-06	3-18	101-12	3-71
8-56	'61	35-00	2-24	33-93	1-83	32-34	1-47	65-89	2-42
413-16	23-36	384-27	24-53	370-91	19-96	352-37	16-02	507-53	18-66
145-45	10-36	160-40	10-25	179-35	9-65	180-97	8-23	292-04	10-73
1372-43	97-56	1312-09	89-81	1371-84	73-82	1498-38	68-12	2118-12	77-86
7-95	'56	9-56	'52
.....	16-33	1-04
.....	21-09	1-36	7-69	'42
.....	34-87	1-28
5441-36	386-65	6232-68	397-86	7484-97	02-89	8462-43	384-72	11336-80	416-74

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE
LONDON DRAPERY, BOOT AND SHOE,
SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES

YEAR ENDING DECEMBER.....	1881.		1882.	
	SALES= £26,006.		£32,566.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages.....	453-68	418-68	594-85	498-38
Employers' Bonus.....
Auditors' Fees.....	03	86	97	70
" Deputation Fees.....	02	02
" Fares.....	29	27	45	38
" Deputation Fares.....	03	03
Fees—General and Branch Committees.....	4-78	4-41	7-49	5-50
" Sub-Committees.....	22-53	20-79	19-83	14-60
" Finance Committee.....	32	29	30	22
" Stocktakers.....	2-50	2-31	4-50	3-30
" Scrutineers.....	04	04	04	08
" Secretaries.....	8-07	7-45	7-90	6-81
" Deputations.....	4-03	3-72	5-70	4-20
Mileages—General and Branch Committees.....
" Sub-Committees.....
" Finance Committee.....
" Stocktakers.....
" Scrutineers.....
" Deputations.....
Fares and Contracts—General and Branch Committees..	14-05	12-97	23-10	17-01
" Sub-Committees.....	21-95	20-26	42-66	31-43
" Finance Committee.....	25	23	36	24
" Stocktakers.....	75	69
" Scrutineers.....	02	03	08	02
" Deputations.....	6-15	5-68	10-67	7-84
Price Lists—Printing.....	4-42	4-08	3-50	2-60
" Postage.....	32	29	45	33
Balance Sheets—Printing.....	3-86	3-56	4-77	3-1
Printing and Stationery.....	43-23	39-90	58-19	42-85
Periodicals.....	91	84	1-89	1-59
Travelling.....	92-05	84-94	111-38	82-06
Telegrams.....	57	52	5-10	3-75
Stamps.....	39-18	36-16	40-72	30-01
Petty Cash.....	1-88	1-73	4-16	3-06
Advertisements.....	2-10	1-94	2-76	2-03
Rents, Rates, and Taxes.....	28-32	26-14	15-13	11-12
Coals, Gas, and Water.....	13-11	12-10	17-80	13-10
Oil, Waste, and Talow.....	05	05	85	25
Repairs and Renewals.....	7-99	7-37	14-97	11-00
Expenses—Quarterly Meetings.....	50	46	85	62
Reporting and Publishing Meetings.....	56	52	1-78	1-31
Legal.....
Employers' Picnic.....	25	23	1-00	76
Telephones.....
Annals.....	2-57	2-37	2-70	1-98
Dining-rooms.....
Insurance—Fire and Guarantee.....	12-30	11-35	16-22	11-95
Depreciation—Land.....
" Buildings.....	72-25	66-68	90-86	66-96
" Fixtures.....	42-16	38-91	57-25	42-19
Interest.....	350-73	323-66	486-89	344-09
Expenses—Special Meetings.....	1-09	80
Conference Expenses.....
Opening.....	10-85	9-55
Special Inquiry Committee's Expenses.....
Exhibition Expenses.....
GRAND TOTAL.....	1270-05	1172-08	1638-25	1207-33

SOCIETY LIMITED.
AND FURNISHING DEPARTMENT.
SINCE SEPARATE ACCOUNT WAS KEPT.

1883.		1884 (53 weeks).		1885.		1886.		1887.	
£39,738.		£48,830.		£62,773.		£79,839.		£89,568.	
Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
826.12	498.94	1079.26	530.47	1492.94	570.79	2127.07	639.41	2637.23	706.65
.....	74.73	28.57	179.67	54.00
1.13	.69	1.35	.67	2.58	.98	4.00	1.21	4.13	1.11
.....0124	.09	.15	.04	.17	.05
.41	.24	.59	.29	.73	.27	.73	.21	.78	.21
.....02	.01	.40	.15	.23	.06	.24	.06
10.75	6.50	20.38	10.01	27.06	10.35	24.51	7.37	27.43	7.35
23.75	14.33	30.05	14.78	41.25	15.77	45.06	13.53	57.25	15.34
.41	.24	.54	.26	.76	.29	1.24	.37	1.10	.30
4.00	2.41	5.00	2.46	7.32	2.50	7.65	2.30	9.13	2.45
.03	.02	.05	.02	.05	.02	.06	.01	.07	.02
10.00	6.34	9.06	4.42	8.67	3.31	9.00	2.71	9.25	2.48
14.56	8.79	22.08	10.87	14.38	5.50	11.73	3.52	16.80	4.50
.....	6.97	2.67	12.02	3.61	10.87	2.91
.....	19.75	7.55	23.10	8.45	29.16	7.81
.....16	.06	.27	.08	.22	.06
.....	1.60	.62	2.68	.81	2.23	.59
.....0102	.01
.....32	.12	2.17	.64	2.39	.64
25.76	15.56	43.34	21.30	46.02	17.59	31.29	9.41	29.07	7.79
67.95	41.03	85.75	42.14	67.62	25.85	50.80	15.27	43.58	11.68
.63	.37	1.13	.55	.29	.11	.08	.03	.16	.04
.....	6.62	2.53	7.20	2.17	6.43	1.72
.04	.02	.04	.02	.05	.02	.0204	.01
19.13	11.55	17.60	8.66	12.85	4.91	20.31	6.11	15.70	4.21
6.62	4.00	15.94	7.84	25.57	9.77	49.49	14.88	14.30	3.83
2.90	1.75	3.00	1.47	4.12	1.58	3.48	1.05	3.43	.92
4.96	2.99	5.60	2.75	7.52	2.87	8.84	2.66	8.03	2.15
100.92	60.95	119.57	55.82	131.11	50.14	190.00	57.12	231.74	75.50
1.15	.69	4.40	2.16	3.82	1.46	5.60	1.68	5.42	1.45
138.68	83.77	165.77	81.43	219.07	83.75	252.98	76.05	299.68	80.30
1.00	.60	1.30	.63	2.96	1.13	4.25	1.27	1.05	.28
46.10	27.85	54.80	26.93	113.47	43.33	135.30	40.87	170.42	45.67
6.52	3.94	5.55	2.72	9.60	3.67	15.70	4.72	19.25	5.16
3.92	2.37	1.66	.82	32.56	12.44	7.39	2.23	9.70	2.59
17.00	10.27	22.50	11.06	67.93	25.98	61.55	18.51	109.19	29.26
38.50	23.26	48.10	23.65	48.22	18.43	34.06	25.27	189.58	50.80
1.65	.99	1.12	.55	1.84	.70	3.30	.99	12.16	3.26
100.70	60.82	71.42	35.10	40.36	15.44	71.05	21.36	231.01	77.98
1.25	.75	3.25	1.59	2.94	1.12	3.80	1.14	4.32	1.29
3.35	2.03	4.04	1.98	1.57	.60
1.00	.6019	.07	1.79	.54	.22	.06
1.00	.60	1.00	.49	1.50	.57	4.00	1.21	4.00	1.07
1.55	.94	2.25	1.11	2.50	.96	2.44	.72	2.43	.65
10.39	6.27	13.68	6.73	14.05	5.37	14.14	4.26	11.88	3.18
.....	6.60	3.25	9.85	3.77	13.51	4.07	19.48	5.22
23.52	14.20	32.18	15.82	34.84	13.34	56.94	17.12	87.04	23.32
3.73	2.25	15.24	7.49	15.59	5.96	16.93	5.09	33.43	10.30
155.74	94.07	169.81	83.46	173.49	66.35	188.02	56.52	290.81	77.92
90.59	54.71	91.94	45.18	90.41	34.57	90.69	27.27	160.18	42.92
642.67	388.19	634.84	312.03	659.51	252.15	672.92	202.29	912.23	244.43
2.08	1.25	4.06	1.55
.....	6.04	1.81
.....
.....	2.45	1.19	1.14	.44
.....	5.00	1.34
2412.16	1456.84	2808.20	1380.23	3553.15	1358.48	4530.26	1361.82	5854.93	1568.84

**THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE
STATEMENT OF LAND, BUILDINGS, STEAMSHIPS, AND**

		LAND.							
		Area in Square Yards.	Yearly Chief.	Expended.		Deprecia- tion.		Nominal Value, June 23 1888.	
				£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		
MANCHESTER:—									
Balloon Street, No. 1	Central Offices, Bank, Assembly- room, & Grocery Warehouse	808	14 11 0	3400 0 0	2806 8 11	1098 11 1			
Garden Street, Nos. 39 & 41 ..	Grocery Warehouse	377	7 1 9	3024 0 0	1049 6 11	1974 13 1			
Garden Street, No. 37	Grocery Warehouse	293	9 0 0	2352 0 0	927 3 9	1424 16 3			
Garden Street, No. 35	Grocery Warehouse & Engineer- ing	783½	0 12 1	3863 0 5	1925 8 2	1936 12 3			
Garden Street	Recent Purchase	612	4900 0 0	61 5 0	4838 15 0			
Balloon Street, Nos. 3 to 13 ..	Dwelling-houses and Shops ..	400½	4 10 4	6286 0 0	749 7 6	5536 12 6			
Balloon Street, Nos. 15 & 17 ..	Printing Society's late Property	223½	4000 0 0	476 17 0	3523 3 0			
88 to 93, Corporation-st., Clock Alley, Holgate-st., & Balloon-st.	White Lion Hotel, Warehouses on Rental, and New Furnish- ing and Boot and Shoe Depts.	2936	Freehold.	29463 1 6	3120 17 0	26342 4 6			
Dantzic St. and Garden St....	Drapery Warehouse	421	"	5395 0 0	2126 14 9	3268 5 3			
Dantzic St. and Garden St....	Drapery Warehouse (late Boot and Shoe Warehouse).....	202½	"	2525 0 0	632 19 5	1892 0 7			
Dantzic St. and Garden St....	Drapery Extension	373½	Freehold.	5013 19 7	554 10 4	4459 9 8			
Dantzic St., Nos. 41 to 47	Woolen Cloth and Tailoring Department, &c.	468½	Freehold.	5000 0 0	406 5 0	4598 15 0			
	Total Manchester.....	7857½	35 15 2	75221 1 6	14337 3 9	60383 17 9			
NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE:—									
Thornston Street and Waterloo Street	Offices, Grocery, and Drapery Warehouse, Boot & Shoe & Furn- ishing Warehouse, Dining-rm.	2564	Freehold.	12428 6 8	3129 16 3	9298 10 5			
LONDON:—									
Leban Street and Great Pres- cott Street	Offices, Grocery, Drapery, Boot and Shoe, Furnishing, and Tea, Coffee, and Cocoa Ware- house, Property on Rental, Land for Stables, &c.....	4072½	"	21600 0 0	1462 2 6	20137 17 6			
BRISTOL	Warehouse and Sale Rooms			
CRUMPSALL.....	Biscuits and Sweets, and Dry and Soft Soap Works.....	10535	45 0 0			
LEICESTER	Boot and Shoe Works	1160	Freehold.	5286 0 0	741 16 7	4544 3 5			
HECKMONDWIKE	Boot & Shoe & Currying Works	5947	"	1342 0 0	102 2 9	1239 17 3			
DURHAM	Soap Works	1094½	"	1094 13 4	363 2 4	781 11 0			
BATLEY	Woolen Cloth Works			
DUNSTON	Corn Mill	7086		3725 14 10	93 2 8	3682 12 2			
LIVERPOOL	Office Fittings			
CHESHIRE	Horse and Conveyance.....					
LEEDS	Sale Room			
IRELAND:—									
Limerick (839 years' lease)....	Butter Purchasing Depôt	480½	10 0 0			
Waterford	" " "			
Kilmallock	" " "			
Tipperary (99 years' lease)....	House & Butter Store on Rental.	535½	4 0 0			
Cork	Butter Purchasing Depôt			
Traloe (99 years' lease)	Butter and Eggs "	693½	5 0 0			
Limnagh	Butter and Eggs "			
NEW YORK (America)	Gen. Provision P'chasing Depôt					
COPENHAGEN	Butter & Flour P'chasing Depôt					
HAMBURG	" " "			
LONGTON	Crockery Depôt			
ROUEN (France).....	Shipping Depôt, Shed, Office Fittings, &c.			
CALAIS	" " Cranes & Lines			
GOOLE	" " Office, &c.			
Longsight	Land	45347	Freehold.	9386 17 9	1100 11 2	8236 6 7			
Gorton	Dwelling-houses and Shops ..	9000	150 0 0			
Bolton	Dwelling-houses and Shops ..	12188½	130 3 0			
Newhall	Dwelling-houses and Shops ..	7260	Freehold.	300 0 0	35 15 3	264 4 9			
Taf	Dwelling-houses and Shops ..	1150	9 11 0			
South Shields.....	Dwelling-houses and Shops ..	453½	Freehold.	165 0 0	17 12 8	147 7 4			
Garston and Rouen Line	S.S. "Pioneer"			
	S.S. "Cambrian"			
	S.S. "Unity"			
	S.S. "Progress"			
	S.S. "Federation"			
	S.S. "Equity"			
Goole and Calais and Goole and Hamburg Lines			
Totals.....			117429½	389 9 2	130499 14 1	21388 5 11	109116 8 2		

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

MANCHESTER GROCERY AND PROVISION TRADE.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

QUARTERLY ACCOUNTS.

Date.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Stocks.
		Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	
	£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
July, 1874	853216	3682	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	1881	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	64083
Oct. "	471586	4342	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	6905	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	71841
January, 1875	265853	3602	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	3250	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	71360
April "	806720	3627	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	2082	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	52808
July "	859076	3458	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3996	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	51573
October "	427793	3884	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	6379	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	50723
January, 1876	882947	3732	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	6635	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	56487
April "	355644	4091	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	5070	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	55040
July "	398787	4608	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	3975	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	50136
October " (14 weeks)	543067	4685	0 2	10514	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	64695
January, 1877	410189	4313	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	8434	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	68205
April "	350666	4257	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	2501	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	47424
July "	475064	4261	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	6848	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	64888
October "	513321	4157	0 2	10377	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	68592
January, 1878	421966	4191	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	6019	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	53790
April "	392083	4380	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	6127	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	61765
July "	401932	4401	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	5216	0 3	57128
October "	491527	4392	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	8669	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	59793
January, 1879	398071	4200	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	6490	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	55319
March " (10 weeks)	263534	3254	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	2790	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	71347
June " (14 ")	404838	4722	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3659	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	79086
September, 1879	452049	4376	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	9306	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	61379
December, "	470686	4409	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	13071	0 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	71446
March, 1880	418000	4644	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	5706	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	95015
June "	484068	4797	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	4927	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	82882
September, "	564183	4718	0 2	12086	0 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	102466
December, "	532133	4752	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	8858	0 4	70091
March 1881	404706	4692	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	5927	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	84602
June "	497493	4865	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	7256	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	81648
Sept. "	598864	5019	0 2	11227	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	84696
Dec. "	546147	5307	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	8050	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	87277
March, 1882	468027	5884	0 3	6222	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	107940
June "	559537	5839	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	6187	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	92310
Sept. "	617265	5704	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	9339	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	92896
Dec. "	653521	6239	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	8896	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	141191
March, 1883	558465	7029	0 3	7296	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	125416
June "	606478	7097	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	4360	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	130279
Sept. "	692614	6927	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	7514	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	97095
Dec. "	686852	7244	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	8285	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	109414
March, 1884	502853	7007	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	5493	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	89334
June " (14 weeks)	641730	7616	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	5262	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	94779
Sept. "	675845	6972	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	7602	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	104832
Dec. "	636860	6927	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	6536	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	107524
March, 1885	514235	7124	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	7455	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	78912
June "	578862	6746	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	13340	0 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	90848
Sept. "	644647	6586	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	10555	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	97421
Dec. "	638201	7023	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	10407	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	92790
March, 1886	568243	7131	0 3	8553	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	95156
June "	600840	7291	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	7454	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	78561
Sept. "	671578	7469	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	10913	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	104934
Dec. "	730774	7886	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	14461	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	113620
March, 1887	604978	7724	0 3	10335	0 4	103609
June "	648521	7976	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	8133	0 3	96828
Sept. "	761498	8248	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	11926	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	122923
Dec. "	812627	9031	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	15152	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	129565
March, 1888	673598	8887	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	10347	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	101898
June "	720959	8794	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	11111	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	109278
	29844167	321849	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	436635	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.
MANCHESTER DRAPERY AND WOOLLEN CLOTH TRADE.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

QUARTERLY ACCOUNTS.

Date.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Loss.		Stocks.
		Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	
January, 1874.....	£ 10575	£ 348	s. d.	£ 201	s. d.	£	s. d.	£ 11568
April ".....	12712	564	0 10 ³ / ₄	486	0 8 ³ / ₄	19409
July ".....	12991	567	1 4	952	1 5 ³ / ₄	26002
October ".....	24185	1223	1 0 ¹ / ₂	560	0 5 ¹ / ₂	31475
January, 1875.....	21402	1218	1 1 ³ / ₄	416	0 4 ³ / ₄	38424
April ".....	26273	1319	1 0 ³ / ₄	289	0 2 ³ / ₄	37905
July ".....	30513	1748	1 1 ¹ / ₂	376	0 3	47101
October ".....	36071	2041	1 1 ³ / ₄	246	0 1 ³ / ₄	65230
January, 1876.....	36629	2156	1 2 ¹ / ₂	141	0 0 ¹ / ₂	72408
April ".....	41708	2397	1 1 ³ / ₄	60	0 0 ³ / ₄	74071
July ".....	32996	2509	1 6 ¹ / ₄	634	0 4 ³ / ₄	78833
October " (14 weeks)	36977	2370	1 2 ³ / ₄	453	0 2 ³ / ₄	70898
January, 1877.....	33402	2115	1 3 ¹ / ₄	393	0 2 ³ / ₄	69267
April ".....	31620	2316	1 5 ³ / ₄	1678	1 0 ³ / ₄	64349
July ".....	25640	2197	1 8 ³ / ₄	1115	0 10 ⁷ / ₈	66539
October ".....	31389	2148	1 4 ⁷ / ₈	154	0 1 ³ / ₄	62442
January, 1878.....	36269	2218	1 2 ³ / ₄	1197	0 8	48511
April ".....	37000	2162	1 2	816	0 2	44995
July ".....	31486	2186	1 4 ³ / ₄	60	0 0 ¹ / ₂	49849
October ".....	33703	2146	1 3 ¹ / ₄	191	0 1 ³ / ₄	44662
January, 1879.....	32557	2024	1 2 ¹ / ₂	68	0 0 ³ / ₄	44439
March " (10 weeks)	25869	1622	1 3	193	0 1 ³ / ₄	44151
June " (14 weeks)	33171	2116	1 3 ¹ / ₄	619	0 4 ¹ / ₂	43960
Sept. ".....	30136	2022	1 4	163	0 1 ³ / ₄	44446
Dec. ".....	37648	2057	1 1	694	0 4 ³ / ₄	43225
March, 1880.....	37484	2166	1 1 ¹ / ₂	472	0 3	41783
June ".....	34195	2035	1 2 ¹ / ₂	374	0 2 ³ / ₄	43792
Sept. ".....	30734	2264	1 5 ³ / ₄	201	0 1 ³ / ₄	45664
Dec. ".....	37008	2044	1 1 ¹ / ₂	1267	0 8	44105
March, 1881.....	32449	2078	1 3 ³ / ₄	564	0 4 ¹ / ₂	40245
June ".....	30939	2002	1 3 ³ / ₄	453	0 3 ³ / ₄	43533
Sept. ".....	31825	2060	1 3 ¹ / ₄	322	0 2 ³ / ₄	43915
Dec. ".....	37701	2028	1 0 ¹ / ₂	593	0 3 ³ / ₄	42908
March, 1882.....	34875	2064	1 2 ¹ / ₂	820	0 5 ³ / ₄	39171
June ".....	32539	2017	1 2 ³ / ₄	809	0 5 ³ / ₄	44073
Sept. ".....	33953	2083	1 2 ³ / ₄	535	0 3 ³ / ₄	42467
Dec. ".....	41622	2173	1 0 ³ / ₄	1340	0 7 ³ / ₄	40854
March, 1883.....	38527	2250	1 2	325	0 2	39420
June ".....	33329	2098	1 3	1165	0 8 ³ / ₄	38606
Sept. ".....	38935	2241	1 1 ¹ / ₂	856	0 5 ¹ / ₂	43097
Dec. ".....	46206	2387	1 0 ³ / ₄	1825	0 9 ³ / ₄	41365
March, 1884.....	43145	2306	1 0 ³ / ₄	768	0 4 ³ / ₄	38727
June " (14 weeks).....	40839	2398	1 1	1054	0 5 ³ / ₄	41271
Sept. ".....	45933	2391	1 0 ³ / ₄	1735	0 9	45074
Dec. ".....	50230	2352	0 11 ¹ / ₂	2136	0 10 ¹ / ₂	42433
March, 1885.....	50626	2543	1 0	1768	0 8 ³ / ₄	42168
June ".....	43007	2439	1 1 ³ / ₄	1403	0 7 ³ / ₄	44931
Sept. ".....	47128	2543	1 0 ³ / ₄	1530	0 7 ³ / ₄	52236
Dec. ".....	53682	2790	1 0 ³ / ₄	1023	0 4 ³ / ₄	50570
March, 1886.....	53002	2726	1 0 ¹ / ₂	960	0 4 ¹ / ₂	50570
June ".....	52440	2630	1 0	1878	0 8 ³ / ₄	51753
Sept. ".....	53443	2822	1 0 ³ / ₄	1086	0 4 ³ / ₄	56784
Dec. ".....	58427	2965	1 0 ³ / ₄	1736	0 7 ³ / ₄	60405
March, 1887.....	55992	2876	1 0 ¹ / ₂	1295	0 5 ³ / ₄	62131
June ".....	54519	3019	1 1 ¹ / ₂	894	0 3 ³ / ₄	67260
Sept. ".....	54743	3067	1 1 ³ / ₄	671	0 2 ³ / ₄	70597
Dec. ".....	67270	3262	0 11 ¹ / ₂	762	0 2 ³ / ₄	65807
March, 1888.....	63366	3117	0 11 ¹ / ₂	896	0 3 ³ / ₄	67046
June ".....	63091	3254	1 0 ³ / ₄	1409	0 5 ¹ / ₂	64113
	2274146	129721	1 1 ³ / ₄	40160	6325
Less Depreciation allowed, see Disposal of Profit Account, October, 1877.....		£4757						
" Loss		6325		11082			
Leaves Net Profit				29078	0 3			

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

MANCHESTER WOOLLEN CLOTH DEPARTMENT.

From the time of commencing to publish a separate Account in Balance Sheet.

QUARTERLY ACCOUNTS.

Date.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Loss.		Stocks.
		Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	
		£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	
March 1884	4504	307	1 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	4839
June " (14 weeks) ..	7243	341	0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	226	0 7 $\frac{3}{4}$	4212
September "	4272	301	1 4 $\frac{3}{4}$	408	1 10 $\frac{1}{4}$	4720
December "	4349	272	1 3	226	1 0 $\frac{3}{8}$	4407
March 1885	5748	294	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	159	0 6 $\frac{3}{4}$	5031
June "	6186	307	0 11 $\frac{3}{4}$	195	0 7 $\frac{3}{4}$	4151
September "	4476	310	1 4 $\frac{3}{4}$	61	0 8 $\frac{1}{4}$	5723
December "	4800	338	1 4 $\frac{3}{4}$	79	0 3 $\frac{7}{8}$	5243
March 1886	5129	374	1 5 $\frac{1}{4}$	170	0 7 $\frac{3}{8}$	6961
June "	7542	359	0 11 $\frac{3}{4}$	401	1 0 $\frac{3}{4}$	5661
September "	4363	331	1 6 $\frac{3}{4}$	77	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	6641
December "	5139	353	1 4 $\frac{3}{4}$	19	0 0 $\frac{1}{8}$	6275
March 1887	5684	357	1 3	84	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	7060
June "	6213	354	1 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	203	0 7 $\frac{3}{4}$	6023
September "	4512	351	1 6 $\frac{3}{4}$	43	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	6335
December "	5411	365	1 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	78	0 3 $\frac{3}{8}$	6112
March 1888	5565	370	1 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	173	0 7 $\frac{3}{8}$	7945
June "	7193	396	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	243	0 8	6654
	98329	6080	1 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	1993	853
		Less Loss		853			
		Leaves Net Profit ..		1140	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$			

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.
MANCHESTER BOOT AND SHOE TRADE.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.
QUARTERLY ACCOUNTS.

Date.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Loss.		Stocks.
		Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	
January, 1874.....	£ 5506	£ 204	8 ³ / ₄	£ 1	£ ..	£ ..	£ ..	£ 4715
April ".....	7529	231	7 ³ / ₄	352	11 ¹ / ₄	4856
July ".....	10794	288	6 ³ / ₄	214	4 ³ / ₄	4812
October ".....	8877	321	8 ³ / ₄	95	2 ¹ / ₂	4897
January, 1875.....	10057	289	6 ³ / ₄	277	6 ³ / ₄	5197
April ".....	12240	310	6	341	6 ³ / ₄	4614
July ".....	14275	321	5 ¹ / ₂	16	5359
October ".....	15234	351	5 ¹ / ₂	341	5 ¹ / ₂	7474
January, 1876.....	12136	344	6 ³ / ₄	77	1 ¹ / ₂	7711
April ".....	13777	418	7 ³ / ₄	187	3 ¹ / ₄	8517
July ".....	15259	474	7 ¹ / ₂	172	2 ³ / ₄	7894
October " (14 weeks)	15893	472	7 ¹ / ₂	163	2 ³ / ₄	7243
January, 1877.....	12378	447	8 ³ / ₄	59	1 ¹ / ₂	6082
April ".....	14018	461	7 ¹ / ₂	220	3 ³ / ₄	6973
July ".....	16969	516	6 ³ / ₄	532	4 ¹ / ₂	7994
October ".....	14185	498	8 ³ / ₄	182	2 ³ / ₄	7594
January, 1878.....	13132	500	9 ¹ / ₂	102	1 ¹ / ₂	7935
April ".....	13591	572	10	153	2 ³ / ₄	8349
July ".....	17913	564	7 ¹ / ₂	417	5 ¹ / ₂	9646
October ".....	15585	580	8 ¹ / ₂	340	5 ¹ / ₂	9658
January, 1879.....	12233	476	9 ¹ / ₂	143	2 ¹ / ₂	10242
March " (10 weeks)	8835	408	10 ¹ / ₂	234	6 ³ / ₄	10517
June " (14 weeks)	17443	579	8	415	5 ³ / ₄	10998
September ".....	14150	538	9 ¹ / ₂	119	2	10709
December ".....	14842	570	9 ¹ / ₂	16	1	10964
March, 1880.....	15095	535	9 ¹ / ₂	479	7 ¹ / ₂	10901
June ".....	17613	609	8 ¹ / ₂	147	2	10688
September ".....	15069	600	9 ¹ / ₂	125	2	10250
December ".....	14362	593	10	4	11484
March 1881.....	15375	596	9 ¹ / ₂	199	3	10107
June ".....	21621	660	7 ¹ / ₂	335	3 ³ / ₄	11254
September ".....	17362	630	8 ³ / ₄	184	2 ³ / ₄	11542
December ".....	17024	606	8 ¹ / ₂	124	1 ¹ / ₂	11377
March, 1882.....	16338	637	9	121	1 ¹ / ₂	10945
June ".....	22134	660	7 ¹ / ₂	384	4 ¹ / ₂	12395
September ".....	18328	637	8 ³ / ₄	419	5 ¹ / ₂	12263
December ".....	18301	649	8 ¹ / ₂	322	4	12564
March, 1883.....	20091	704	8 ³ / ₄	183	2 ¹ / ₂	13967
June ".....	25186	772	7 ¹ / ₂	537	5	13817
September ".....	20457	701	8 ¹ / ₂	355	4 ³ / ₄	13335
December ".....	20322	705	8 ¹ / ₂	185	2	12938
March, 1884.....	20277	687	8 ¹ / ₂	292	3 ³ / ₄	13955
June " (14 weeks)	31093	881	6 ³ / ₄	567	4 ³ / ₄	14274
September ".....	26084	802	7 ³ / ₄	372	3 ³ / ₄	14675
December ".....	22240	780	8 ³ / ₄	355	3 ³ / ₄	16576
March, 1885.....	26485	930	8 ³ / ₄	80	0 ³ / ₄	17766
June ".....	31199	919	7	535	4	16088
Sept. ".....	24394	840	8 ¹ / ₂	504	4 ⁷ / ₈	16240
December ".....	24677	907	8 ³ / ₄	276	2 ³ / ₄	16074
March, 1886.....	27103	800	7 ³ / ₄	302	3 ³ / ₄	17581
June ".....	38429	1033	6 ³ / ₄	606	3 ³ / ₄	17772
September ".....	27000	968	8 ³ / ₄	576	7	17066
December ".....	28900	881	7 ¹ / ₂	893	7 ¹ / ₂	16578
March, 1887.....	28969	952	7 ³ / ₄	704	5 ³ / ₄	21418
June ".....	38380	1148	7 ¹ / ₂	1174	7 ¹ / ₂	21044
September ".....	28387	978	8 ¹ / ₂	608	5 ³ / ₄	19563
December ".....	30363	992	7 ³ / ₄	597	4 ³ / ₄	19727
March, 1888.....	28307	1224	10 ¹ / ₂	123	1	24906
June, ".....	44148	1281	6 ³ / ₄	1181	6 ³ / ₄	23255
	1149460	38209	7 ³ / ₄	18908	..	254
Less Loss.....				254	..			
Leaves Net Profit.....				18654	3 ⁷ / ₈			

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

MANCHESTER FURNISHING TRADE.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

QUARTERLY ACCOUNTS.

Date.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Loss.		Stocks.
		Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	
	£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
October, 1876 (14 weeks)	3036	188	1 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	57	0 4	2843
January, 1877	2908	217	1 6	5	0 0 $\frac{3}{4}$	2571
April "	3813	250	1 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	37	0 3	2428
July "	3426	216	1 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	24	0 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	2274
October "	4166	242	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	45	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	2343
January, 1878	4059	276	1 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	7	0 0 $\frac{1}{4}$	2386
April "	4297	310	1 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	121	0 6	2245
July "	4141	291	1 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	14	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	2272
October "	4320	307	1 5	29	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2279
January, 1879	4516	277	1 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	24	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2421
March " (10 weeks)	3624	218	1 2	26	0 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	2837
June " (14 weeks)	5249	325	1 8 $\frac{3}{4}$	30	0 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	3074
September "	4291	280	1 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	33	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	3163
December "	5197	285	1 1	37	0 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	3524
March, 1880	6530	327	1 0	29	0 1	4018
June "	5144	347	1 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	4318
September "	5922	313	1 0 $\frac{3}{4}$	102	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	3969
December "	6647	330	0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	269	0 9 $\frac{3}{8}$	4307
March, 1881	6209	333	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	14	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	4146
June "	6085	318	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	91	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	4496
Sept. "	5736	320	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	29	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	4039
December "	6314	322	0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	123	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	3971
March, 1882	6783	351	1 0 $\frac{3}{4}$	115	0 4	4122
June "	6786	344	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	82	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3827
Sept. "	7293	419	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	61	0 2	3721
Dec. "	8159	401	0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	39	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	3630
March, 1883	7812	439	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	95	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3845
June "	7936	455	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	99	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	4308
September "	7954	472	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	82	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	4337
December "	11102	512	0 11	197	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	4274
March, 1884	9850	540	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	204	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	5100
June " (14 weeks)	11280	595	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	26	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	5170
September "	11002	566	1 0 $\frac{3}{4}$	205	0 4 $\frac{3}{8}$	5072
December "	12179	552	0 10 $\frac{3}{8}$	290	0 5 $\frac{3}{8}$	5433
March, 1885	13126	626	0 11 $\frac{3}{8}$	329	0 6	5973
June "	12228	611	0 11 $\frac{1}{8}$	123	0 2 $\frac{3}{8}$	6145
September "	12539	582	0 11 $\frac{1}{8}$	166	0 3 $\frac{1}{8}$	5771
December "	13345	596	0 10 $\frac{3}{8}$	275	0 4 $\frac{1}{8}$	5817
March, 1886	13929	624	0 10 $\frac{3}{8}$	207	0 3 $\frac{1}{8}$	5773
June "	15251	684	0 10 $\frac{3}{8}$	374	0 5 $\frac{1}{8}$	6234
September "	15277	650	0 10	182	0 2 $\frac{3}{8}$	5654
December "	17883	699	0 9 $\frac{3}{8}$	366	0 4 $\frac{1}{8}$	6041
March, 1887	17284	676	0 9 $\frac{3}{8}$	277	0 3 $\frac{1}{8}$	7124
June "	18037	758	0 10	361	0 4 $\frac{1}{8}$	7385
September "	16546	956	1 1 $\frac{3}{8}$	79	0 1 $\frac{1}{8}$	8453
December "	21065	1107	1 0 $\frac{1}{8}$	229	0 2 $\frac{1}{8}$	9497
March, 1888	20315	1196	1 2 $\frac{1}{8}$	168	0 1 $\frac{1}{8}$	9372
June "	21172	1189	1 1 $\frac{3}{8}$	90	0 1	8851
	442363	22802	1 0 $\frac{3}{8}$	5485	..	336
	Less Loss			336	..			
	Leaves Net Profit			5149	0 2 $\frac{3}{8}$			

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

NEWCASTLE BRANCH GROCERY AND PROVISION TRADE.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

QUARTERLY ACCOUNTS.

Date.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Loss.		Stocks.
		Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	
	£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
April, 1876	181789	1791	0 3 $\frac{1}{4}$	1768	0 3 $\frac{1}{4}$	26712
July	124393	1938	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	1161	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	32241
October, 1876 (14 weeks)	152237	2036	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	766	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	40908
January, 1877	129825	1962	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	896	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	34591
April	132575	2053	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1389	0 2	30086
July	141614	1990	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	1218	0 2 $\frac{1}{4}$	22718
October	140902	2001	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	919	0 1	29594
January, 1878	126692	2169	0 4 $\frac{1}{4}$	613	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	28996
April,	129300	2028	0 4	988	0 2	26089
July,	112256	1898	0 4	647	0 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	20350
October,	111069	1679	0 3	903	0 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	24388
May, 1879	113972	1797	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	685	0 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	22789
March	85774	1315	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	2648	0 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	25284
June	113673	1886	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	1470	0 3	21031
September	119668	1697	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	167	0 0 $\frac{1}{4}$	29290
December	145993	1925	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	3283	0 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	49145
March, 1880	146614	2064	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	1023	0 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	40786
June	145848	1905	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	734	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	25906
September	142258	1858	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1185	0 2	39833
December	153944	2041	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1694	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	44398
March, 1881	152124	2254	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	2699	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	41400
June,	169531	2098	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	1759	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	48127
Sept.	191300	2187	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3600	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	54764
Dec.,	190882	2382	0 3	1238	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	54648
March, 1882	181358	2486	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1029	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	49740
June	190600	2418	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	2483	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	49724
Sept.	204549	2519	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3520	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	52044
Dec.	218500	2675	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	1704	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	65330
March, 1883	196039	2741	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1467	0 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	66285
June,	208842	2751	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	3226	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	65103
Sept.	230513	2582	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	3011	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	44265
Dec.	236203	2711	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	2772	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	55152
March, 1884	222807	2806	0 3	3954	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	55878
June,	240710	2944	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	2468	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	41760
Sept.	235087	2823	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	4463	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	48207
Dec.	232199	2823	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	2561	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	65158
March, 1885	216816	2996	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	2913	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	65563
June	232467	3145	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	4953	0 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	79425
Sept.	240409	2888	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3462	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	70555
Dec.	246850	3046	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3094	0 3	53546
March, 1886	220254	2827	0 3	3066	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	46224
June	223551	2938	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	4453	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	55673
Sept.	244049	3127	0 3	5281	0 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	68142
Dec.	262024	3429	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	5994	0 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	71265
March, 1887	229481	3698	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	4094	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	72331
June	235169	3608	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	2198	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	62556
Sept.	248900	3250	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	2136	0 2	68501
Dec.	246598	3664	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	2598	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	59633
March, 1888	232299	3387	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	3053	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	58902
June	242155	3545	0 3	2127	0 2	51199
	9210162	124780	0 3 $\frac{1}{4}$	114261	..	167
	Less Loss			167	..			
	Leaves Net Profit			114094	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$			

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

NEWCASTLE BRANCH DRAPERY TRADE.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

QUARTERLY ACCOUNTS.

Date.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Stocks.
		Amount.	Rate.	Amount.	Rate.	
April, 1876.....	£ 6990	£ 918	s. d. 0 10½	£ 117	s. d. 0 4	£ 8696
July ..	9534	419	0 10½	120	0 8	8937
October .. (14 weeks).....	12052	456	0 9½	444	0 8½	10942
January, 1877 ..	11320	535	0 11½	115	0 2½	11525
April ..	12394	537	0 10½	386	0 7½	11321
July ..	12707	555	0 9½	331	0 5½	11142
October ..	12719	545	0 10½	114	0 2½	12068
January, 1878 ..	10739	574	1 0½	168	0 3½	11635
April ..	10539	554	1 0½	213	0 4½	11040
July ..	10563	550	1 0½	2	..	9673
October ..	11834	515	0 10½	294	0 5½	10531
January, 1879 ..	11225	540	0 11	103	0 2½	10403
March .. (10 weeks).....	8592	448	1 0½	224	0 6½	11404
June .. (14 weeks).....	11025	583	1 0½	213	0 4½	9531
Sept. 1879 ..	11111	544	0 11½	227	0 4½	10576
Dec. ..	13946	578	0 9½	207	0 3½	11590
March, 1880 ..	14399	622	0 10½	548	0 9½	15114
June ..	13770	598	0 10½	751	1 1	13773
Sept. ..	12599	624	0 11½	566	0 10½	16992
Dec. ..	15211	650	0 10½	341	0 5½	16171
March, 1881 ..	15827	666	0 10	601	0 9½	15779
June ..	16949	654	0 9½	785	0 11	14972
Sept. ..	16499	657	0 9½	445	0 6½	15812
Dec. ..	19806	679	0 8½	508	0 6½	16075
March, 1882 ..	18605	711	0 9	943	1 0½	16677
June ..	20018	727	0 8½	720	0 8½	16358
Sept. ..	19620	725	0 8½	659	0 8	16067
Dec. ..	26214	812	0 7½	1334	1 0½	15754
March, 1883 ..	22157	837	0 9	829	0 8½	17957
June ..	24710	830	0 8	1259	1 0½	15099
Sept. ..	22703	842	0 8½	925	0 9½	18258
Dec. ..	29784	878	0 7	1486	0 11½	16594
March, 1884 ..	26436	907	0 8½	991	0 9	18875
June .. (14 weeks).....	29550	1011	0 8½	1125	0 9½	18062
Sept. .. (14 weeks).....	26800	1021	0 9½	862	0 7½	18470
Dec. ..	85559	1044	0 7	1525	0 10½	18906
March, 1885 ..	33946	1062	0 7½	1651	0 11½	20675
June ..	35822	1114	0 7½	1671	0 11½	22002
Sept. ..	33776	1104	0 7½	1801	1 0	22323
Dec. ..	39157	1318	0 8	1733	0 10½	24084
March, 1886 ..	34600	1274	0 8½	1616	0 11½	23506
June ..	39560	1304	0 7½	2093	1 0½	22461
Sept. ..	34858	1261	0 8½	1743	1 0	26253
Dec. ..	43415	1503	0 8½	2110	0 11½	28945
March, 1887 ..	33556	1454	0 10½	1414	0 10½	29452
June ..	36689	1514	0 9½	1369	0 8½	26594
Sept. ..	35716	1378	0 9½	1807	1 0½	27540
Dec. ..	38752	1522	0 9½	1255	0 7½	25753
March, 1888 ..	37258	1464	0 9½	1778	0 11½	28326
June ..	41885	1527	0 8½	1437	0 8½	27990
	1124496	42545	0 9	44009	0 9½	..

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

NEWCASTLE BRANCH BOOT AND SHOE TRADE.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

QUARTERLY ACCOUNTS.

Date.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Loss.		Stocks
		Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	
April, 1876.....	£ 5058	£ 149	s. d. 0 7 ¹ / ₂	£ ..	s. d. ..	£ 110	s. d. 0 5 ¹ / ₂	£ 1154
July ".....	6969	159	0 5 ¹ / ₂	284	0 9 ² / ₂	1326
October " (14 wks)	8006	179	0 5 ¹ / ₂	101	0 3	1180
January, 1877.....	5346	162	0 7 ¹ / ₂	131	0 5 ¹ / ₂	1505
April ".....	6211	170	0 5 ¹ / ₂	130	0 5	1584
July ".....	6871	175	0 6 ¹ / ₂	171	0 5 ¹ / ₂	1526
October ".....	8254	207	0 6	266	0 7 ¹ / ₂	1885
January, 1878.....	7089	208	0 7 ¹ / ₂	123	0 4	2243
April ".....	6772	210	0 7 ¹ / ₂	123	0 4	2577
July ".....	7252	226	0 7 ¹ / ₂	57	0 1	3105
October ".....	7441	221	0 7	116	0 3	2080
January, 1879.....	6910	223	0 7 ¹ / ₂	14	0 0	3179
March " (10 wks)	5138	193	0 9	25	0 1	3708
June " (14 wks)	6919	245	0 8 ¹ / ₂	83	0 2	2587
September ".....	7793	233	0 7 ¹ / ₂	103	0 3	2443
December ".....	7918	264	0 8	146	0 4	4681
March, 1880.....	9101	345	0 9	241	0 6	5200
June ".....	8053	325	0 9 ¹ / ₂	189	0 5	5737
September ".....	8599	271	0 7 ¹ / ₂	174	0 4	4815
December ".....	9215	335	0 8 ¹ / ₂	45	0 1	5971
March, 1881.....	9592	329	0 8 ¹ / ₂	193	0 4	4652
June ".....	10465	322	0 7 ¹ / ₂	38	0 0	5262
Sept. ".....	10958	324	0 7	427	0 9	4372
Dec. ".....	11976	332	0 6 ¹ / ₂	280	0 5	4645
March, 1882.....	11988	351	0 7	240	0 4	5110
June ".....	13064	351	0 6 ¹ / ₂	416	0 7	5027
Sept. ".....	13672	376	0 6 ¹ / ₂	340	0 5 ¹ / ₂	5743
Dec. ".....	15763	449	0 6 ¹ / ₂	340	0 5 ¹ / ₂	6561
March, 1883.....	14313	480	0 8	298	0 4	5988
June ".....	16635	477	0 6 ¹ / ₂	984	0 5 ¹ / ₂	6013
Sept. ".....	16146	491	0 7 ¹ / ₂	544	0 8	5377
Dec. ".....	18402	507	0 6 ¹ / ₂	664	0 8	5817
March, 1884.....	16982	565	0 7 ¹ / ₂	835	0 4	6508
June " (14 wks)	19686	589	0 7 ¹ / ₂	737	0 8	7740
Sept. ".....	18020	660	0 8 ¹ / ₂	352	0 4	7723
Dec. ".....	20366	594	0 6 ¹ / ₂	493	0 5	8266
March, 1885.....	20514	621	0 7 ¹ / ₂	660	0 7	7877
June ".....	22600	636	0 6 ¹ / ₂	612	0 6 ¹ / ₂	8057
Sept. ".....	21646	668	0 7 ¹ / ₂	650	0 7 ¹ / ₂	8276
Dec. ".....	24357	858	0 8 ¹ / ₂	273	0 2	11319
March, 1886.....	21856	846	0 9 ¹ / ₂	408	0 4	10657
June ".....	26262	906	0 8 ¹ / ₂	439	0 4	11686
Sept. ".....	23452	897	0 9 ¹ / ₂	495	0 5	13662
Dec. ".....	25578	997	0 9 ¹ / ₂	277	0 2 ¹ / ₂	13442
March, 1887.....	21650	1020	0 11 ¹ / ₂	254	0 2 ¹ / ₂	12164
June ".....	22594	999	0 10 ¹ / ₂	195	0 2	13721
Sept. ".....	23988	909	0 9	454	0 4 ¹ / ₂	12909
Dec. ".....	22797	1001	0 10 ¹ / ₂	290	0 3	13974
March, 1888.....	24279	940	0 9 ¹ / ₂	403	0 3 ¹ / ₂	12619
June ".....	26027	1009	0 9 ¹ / ₂	401	0 3 ¹ / ₂	13398
	710488	24004	0 8	14394	..	110
	Less Loss			110	..			
	Leaves Net Profit.....			14284	0 4 ¹ / ₂			

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

LONDON BRANCH GROCERY TRADE.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

QUARTERLY ACCOUNTS.

Date.	SALES.		EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Stocks.	
	£	s. d.	Am't.	Rate.	Amount.	Rate.		
								£
July, 1874	17472	440	0	6	331	0	4	6623
Oct. "	26734	587	0	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	68	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	11089
January, 1875	28179	515	0	4 $\frac{3}{4}$	168	0	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	7315
April "	25966	585	0	5 $\frac{3}{4}$	157	0	0 $\frac{3}{4}$	4329
July "	30695	597	0	4 $\frac{3}{4}$	101	0	0 $\frac{3}{4}$	4877
October "	37126	597	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	553	0	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	5194
January, 1876	36965	586	0	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	778	0	5	7219
April "	37273	734	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	609	0	4	4190
July "	43039	704	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	895	0	5	5616
October "(14wks)	55687	743	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1422	0	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	1827
January, 1877	48880	845	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1256	0	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	12668
April "	46783	822	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	641	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	8059
July "	50612	826	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	218	0	1	6141
October "	62001	811	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	925	0	8	6597
January, 1878	51019	824	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	596	0	2	10511
April "	48716	815	0	4	605	0	3	9063
July "	49307	898	0	4	518	0	2	5933
October "	62502	881	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	551	0	2	8230
January, 1879	57789	897	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	714	0	3	8489
March "(10 wks)	39584	693	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	482	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	7917
June "(14 ")	59150	919	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	837	0	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7833
September,	64211	952	0	3	1374	0	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	9417
December,,	69715	1006	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	2346	0	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	13594
March, 1880	60878	980	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	792	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	11167
June,	66697	948	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1086	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	9112
September "	76145	951	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	1088	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	12336
December "	71245	1187	0	4	593	0	2	20739
March, 1881	62706	1258	0	5 $\frac{3}{4}$	87	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	17204
June "	67500	1254	0	4 $\frac{3}{4}$	610	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	13227
September "	82056	1262	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	864	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	12045
December "	77486	1266	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	583	0	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	7394
March, 1882	64724	1234	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	695	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	6652
June,	66084	1230	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	900	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	7615
September "	79407	1297	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1006	0	3	11636
December "	86602	1240	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1175	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	10636
March, 1883	76284	1279	0	4	847	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	7758
June "	76218	1274	0	4	748	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	8254
September "	92723	1288	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1482	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1363
December "	92528	1600	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1553	0	4	13282
March, 1884	79833	1440	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1357	0	4	12758
June "(14wks)	88403	1515	0	4	969	0	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	12422
September "	100541	1438	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1257	0	3	11849
December "	107186	1845	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1479	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	18569
March, 1885	94496	1832	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	2482	0	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	18351
June "	107506	1797	0	4	2121	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	16601
Sept. "	117471	1822	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1945	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	20042
December "	136403	2034	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	2658	0	5	24256
March, 1886	114451	2094	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	3195	0	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	19629
June "	118740	2019	0	4	1984	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	15310
September "	139937	2032	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1694	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	20453
December "	154756	2318	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	2896	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	24739
March, 1887	138667	2387	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1971	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	27940
June "	152416	2686	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	2130	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	27026
September "	174234	2543	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	2706	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	32589
December "	187565	3720	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	2632	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	47319
March, 1888	162077	3232	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	2576	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	37010
June "	171465	3323	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1390	0	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	32296
	4582805	77117	0	4	67081	0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

LONDON BRANCH DRAPERY, &c., TRADE.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

QUARTERLY ACCOUNTS.

Date.	SALES.			EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Stocks
	Drapery and Furnish-ing.	Boots and Shoes.	Total.	Amount	Rate.	Amount.	Rate.	
	£	£	£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
September, 1880	3366	3366	72	0 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	78	0 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1215
December "	1657	3134	4791	240	1 0	Loss 42	0 2	3805
March, 1881	2504	2909	5413	306	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	do. 92	0 4	4524
June "	2653	3173	5826	307	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	Profit 27	0 1	4730
September "	3110	3497	6607	311	0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	18	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	5118
December "	4291	3869	8160	344	0 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	196	0 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	7054
March, 1882	4050	3027	7077	358	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	72	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	6776
June "	3582	3472	7054	393	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	28	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	6846
September "	4413	4382	8795	406	0 11	126	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	7059
December "	4891	4748	9639	479	0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	86	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	9524
March, 1883	5080	3566	8646	500	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	87	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	8854
June "	4766	4560	9326	577	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	91	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	9486
September "	5266	5099	10365	644	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	22	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	8130
December "	6642	4758	11400	691	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	86	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	10011
March, 1884	7504	3989	11443	665	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	27	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	8992
June " (14 wks)	6306	4718	11024	688	1 3	158	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	8308
September "	6601	6259	12860	703	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	165	0 3	9689
December "	8592	4910	13502	751	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	182	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	9977
March, 1885	9173	4694	13867	802	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	171	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	10497
June "	8897	5729	14626	901	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	91	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	9936
September "	9875	6969	16244	894	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	89	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	10642
December "	12503	5532	18085	1017	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	333	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	11502
March, 1886	12994	5402	18396	1065	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	223	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	11102
June "	12257	5939	18196	1127	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	15	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	11034
September "	18005	7541	20546	1107	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	166	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	12366
December "	15493	7208	22701	1230	1 1	372	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	13713
March, 1887	14158	5838	19996	1238	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	Loss 65	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	16022
June "	15689	6503	22192	1318	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	Profit 97	0 1	15710
September "	13966	6850	20816	1294	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	Loss 39	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	17571
December "	19411	7156	26567	2013	1 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	do. 231	18858
March, 1888	16955	5600	22555	2026	1 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	do. 578	23161
June "	19660	7760	27420	2076	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	Profit 17	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	21613
	275944	161507	437451	26473	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	Profit 1976	0 1

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.
CRUMPSALL BISCUIT WORKS TRADE.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

QUARTERLY ACCOUNTS.

Date.	Net Sup-plies.	Pro-duction	EXPENSES.				RATE ON PRODUCTION.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks
			Sundry.	Depre- ciation.	Interest	Total.	Per Cent.	Per £.	Amount	Rate per £	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	s. d.	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
January, 1874..	2087	2878	604	60	87	751	26 1 10	5 2½	15	0 1½	1678
April " "	2814	2700	506	68	92	666	23 18 1	4 9	61	0 5½	1964
July " "	3450	3426	502	80	124	706	20 11 6	4 1½	192	1 1½	1967
October " "	3560	3538	585	87	132	804	22 13 11	4 6½	196	0 1½	1887
January, 1875..	3365	3370	597	88	147	832	24 13 9	4 11	do. 9	0 0½	2029
April " "	3575	3500	598	79	91	768	21 18 6	4 4	265	1 5½	2137
July " "	3529	3260	610	80	99	789	24 4 0	4 10	208	1 2½	1656
October " "	3380	3301	676	81	90	847	25 13 2	5 1	94	0 6½	1438
January, 1876..	3180	3331	631	84	91	806	24 3 4	4 10	145	0 11	1538
April " "	3187	3093	956	90	101	1147	37 1 8	7 5½	13	0 11	2222
July " "	4659	4918	888	98	111	1097	22 6 1	4 5	221	0 11½	1972
*October " "	4975	5039	789	103	113	1005	19 18 9	3 11	332	1 4	2295
January, 1877..	3945	3015	649	107	116	872	28 18 5	5 9	64	0 5	2867
April " "	3879	4177	704	109	129	942	22 11 0	4 6	44	0 2½	3067
July " "	4442	4503	629	110	132	871	19 6 10	3 10	17	0 1	2919
October " "	5521	5158	740	111	118	969	18 16 0	3 9	115	0 5½	2531
January, 1878..	4176	4288	539	114	121	834	19 9 0	3 10½	338	1 7½	3061
April " "	4115	3732	665	114	127	906	24 6 0	4 10	813	1 6½	2203
July " "	4217	4144	630	114	120	854	20 12 2	4 1	191	1 0	2608
October " "	5109	5229	821	114	118	1053	20 2 9	4 0½	614	2 5½	2524
January, 1879..	4112	4184	692	139	119	947	22 12 8	4 6½	400	1 10½	2506
†March " "	2953	2701	550	106	91	747	27 13 3	5 6	181	1 4	2614
*June " "	4515	4512	812	148	124	1034	24 0 2	4 9	168	0 8½	2614
September, " "	4716	4677	781	139	114	1034	22 2 2	4 5	303	1 3	2317
December, " "	4439	4564	709	139	118	966	21 2 10	4 2½	352	1 6	2335
March, 1880..	4277	4268	799	139	107	1045	24 9 8	4 10½	loss 12	0 0½	2540
June " "	4550	4546	676	143	109	928	20 8 3	4 1	238	1 3½	2439
September, " "	5227	5107	750	145	109	1004	19 13 2	3 11½	339	1 6½	1948
December, " "	5059	5148	760	145	104	1009	19 12 0	3 11	313	1 2½	1793
March, 1881..	4024	4156	763	144	106	953	22 18 7	4 7	165	0 9½	2038
June " "	4803	4727	707	144	111	1022	21 12 4	4 3½	45	0 2½	2464
September, " "	5823	6046	835	144	109	1088	18 0 0	3 7½	471	1 6½	2183
December, " "	5412	5345	751	144	103	998	18 13 2	3 8	206	0 9½	2105
March, 1882..	4733	4725	771	144	104	1019	21 11 4	4 3½	265	1 1½	1899
June " "	5064	4975	772	144	101	1017	20 8 10	4 1	164	0 7½	2138
September, " "	5860	6921	777	144	99	1020	17 4 6	3 5½	632	2 1½	2089
December, " "	5975	5937	775	146	97	1018	17 1 10	3 5	437	1 5½	1703
March, 1883..	4838	5245	756	147	103	1006	19 8 7	3 10	496	1 10½	2399
June " "	5407	5100	828	147	105	1080	21 3 6	4 2½	169	0 7½	2299
September, " "	5915	5580	860	147	101	1108	19 17 1	3 11	630	2 3	2076
December, " "	5737	5787	784	148	99	1031	17 16 3	3 6	786	2 8½	1896
March, 1884..	4740	4920	884	148	105	1137	23 2 2	4 7	190	0 9½	3201
*June " "	5409	5098	997	158	108	1263	24 15 5	4 11½	345	1 4½	2425
September, " "	5828	5965	1094	177	117	1388	23 5 4	4 7	609	2 0½	2111
December, " "	5572	5582	866	182	100	1148	20 11 4	4 1½	886	3 2	2129
March, 1885..	4438	4600	1114	190	110	1414	30 14 9	6 1	94	0 4½	2707
June " "	5514	5213	1168	192	107	1467	28 2 9	5 7½	233	1 1	3154
September, " "	5762	6250	1339	202	117	1658	26 10 6	5 8	304	0 11½	3604
December, " "	5765	5767	1173	202	120	1495	25 18 5½	5 2½	810	2 9½	3534
March, 1886..	5133	5092	1242	202	123	1567	30 15 5	6 1	48	0 2½	3747
June " "	5494	5698	1322	207	119	1648	28 18 5	5 9	115	0 5	3360
September, " "	5920	6060	1695	207	124	2026	33 8 7½	6 8½	loss 258	0 10½	4479
December, " "	6987	6085	1556	281	163	2090	33 2 9	6 7½	94	0 1½	4207
March, 1887..	6311	6637	1409	285	161	1855	27 18 11	5 7	215	0 8½	4285
June " "	6602	6085	1512	313	196	2021	33 9 9	6 8	loss 191	0 6½	4396
September, " "	7466	8879	1864	340	188	2192	24 13 8	4 11½	123	0 3½	5357
December, " "	7935	7549	1786	340	200	2326	30 16 2½	6 1	loss 150	0 4½	5518
March, 1888..	7053	7404	1540	340	215	2095	28 5 10½	5 7½	do. 223	0 7½	5958
June " "	7427	7265	1709	340	212	2261	31 2 5½	6 2½	180	0 5½	6468
	290060	290010	53347	9183	7074	69604	24 0 0½	4 9½	14343	0 11½	..
							Less Loss		859
							Leaves Net Profit		13484	0 11½	..

* Fourteen Weeks. † Ten Weeks.

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.
HECKMONDWIKE BOOT AND SHOE WORKS TRADE.
From its Commencement.—QUARTERLY ACCOUNTS.

Date.	Net Sup-plies.	Produc-tion.	EXPENSES.			RATE ON PRODUCTION.			NET PROFIT.		NET LOSS.		Stocks.
			Sundry	Depre-ciation.	Interest	Total.	Per cent.	Per £.	Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	s. d.	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
Sept., 1880.....	711	732	225	8	1	229	31 5 8	6 8	12	0 8 1/2	1856
Dec., ".....	2349	2706	832	13	20	874	32 5 1 1/2	6 5 1/2	169	1 2 3/8	2473
March, 1881.....	2908	3052	942	14	33	980	32 8 1	6 5 1/2	196	1 3 1/2	2293
June, ".....	1913	2475	800	14	42	856	34 10 10	6 10 1/2	139	1 1 1/2	3637
Sept., ".....	2807	2467	761	14	48	833	33 7 2 1/2	6 8	244	1 11 1/2	3196
Dec., ".....	3023	3420	1089	15	34	1188	33 5 5 1/2	6 7 1/2	29	0 2	2238
March, 1882.....	3548	3608	1125	16	45	1187	32 17 1 1/2	6 6 1/2	8	0 0 1/2	2934
June, ".....	2986	2909	1102	16	42	1160	39 17 6 1/2	7 11 1/2	63	0 5 1/2	3186
Sept., ".....	2923	3687	1161	17	48	1286	33 5 0 1/2	6 7 1/2	94	0 6	3396
Dec., ".....	5145	5250	1653	17	47	1717	32 14 1	6 6 1/2	121	0 5 1/2	4016
March, 1883.....	3890	1307	17	54	51	1378	33 7 3 1/2	6 8	45	0 2 1/2	5104
June, ".....	2001	2896	991	17	61	1072	39 15 3	7 1 1/2	65	0 4 1/2	5111
Sept., ".....	3948	3383	1325	17	60	1402	35 13 3 1/2	7 1 1/2	107	0 6 1/2	4685
Dec., ".....	5913	5618	1809	17	47	1873	33 6 9 1/2	6 8	92	0 8 1/2	3950
March, 1884.....	4559	4662	1392	17	51	1460	31 6 4	6 3 1/2	139	0 7 1/2	4461
June, ".....	3179	1138	19	53	1210	38 1 3	7 7 1/2	0 2 1/2	35	0 2 1/2	3916
Sept., ".....	4334	4169	1373	16	61	1450	34 15 5	6 11 1/2	181	0 7 1/2	3131
Dec., ".....	6153	6128	2021	42	55	2118	34 11 3	6 10 1/2	244	0 9 1/2	3506
March, 1885.....	5595	5556	1859	42	58	1959	35 5 2	7 0 1/2	6	0 0 1/2	3934
June, ".....	3878	3968	1526	44	67	1687	41 5 1	8 3	27	0 1 1/2	4774
Sept., ".....	5254	5800	1895	45	68	2008	34 12 4 1/2	6 11	71	0 2 1/2	5056
Dec., ".....	7933	8187	2552	45	63	2660	31 6 10	6 3 1/2	157	0 4 1/2	5811
March, 1886.....	5893	5960	2153	45	77	2275	38 3 5	7 7 1/2	66	0 2 1/2	6171
June, ".....	3754	1937	74	105	2116	34 5 9 1/2	6 10 1/2	6 10 1/2	3	0 1 1/2	8402
Sept., ".....	5646	5395	1730	74	120	1924	35 13 3	7 1 1/2	287	1 0 1/2	8415
Dec., ".....	6938	5892	2047	74	103	2224	37 14 11	7 6 1/2	151	0 5 1/2	6869
March, 1887.....	4538	5335	1555	74	100	1729	32 8 2	6 5 1/2	138	0 6 1/2	6733
June, ".....	3336	3248	1271	74	96	1441	44 7 8 1/2	8 10 1/2	40	0 2 1/2	6155
Sept., ".....	5251	5033	1742	74	86	1902	37 14 10 1/2	7 6 1/2	72	0 8 1/2	5454
Dec., ".....	8494	6019	2542	91	98	2731	45 7 5 1/2	9 0 1/2	263	6 7 1/2	5382
March, 1888.....	6526	5325	2329	111	125	2405	46 5 9 1/2	7 2 1/2	29	0 1	7826
June, ".....	5253	4042	1945	118	140	2201	54 9 0 1/2	8 0 1/2	257	0 1 1/2	8116
	142924	141061	48030	1286	2118	51434	36 9 2 1/2	7 3 1/2	2109	1379
							Less Loss.....		730
							Leaves Profit..		0	1 1/2	

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.
LEICESTER BOOT AND SHOE WORKS TRADE.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

QUARTERLY ACCOUNTS.

Date.	Net Snp-plies.	Produc-tion.	EXPENSES.			
			Sundry.	Depre-ciation.	Interest.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
January, 1874	3422	5190	1281	6	29	1316
April	4506	10794	1512	7	42	1561
July	7737	10120	2673	7	77	2757
October, "	8065	8323	2671	10	101	2783
January, 1875	9148	9447	3191	12	122	3325
April	11022	10881	3461	29	107	3597
July	13987	14610	4320	34	127	4481
October, "	15413	15349	4863	30	156	5049
January, 1876	13265	13362	4292	31	153	4476
April	13602	11642	4190	31	151	4372
July	15214	17921	5104	32	166	5392
* October	19313	16419	6209	87	224	6520
January, 1877	14076	14122	5128	96	239	5463
April	15870	14869	4968	102	268	5338
July	19155	19653	6673	104	275	7052
October	18551	18119	6042	105	247	6394
January, 1878	17564	14962	5674	105	233	6012
April	15671	17902	5591	105	267	5963
July	22014	18840	7423	106	259	7788
October	18226	17154	5718	106	234	6058
January, 1879	17970	19043	7170	107	298	7515
† March	12947	15196	5025	82	187	5294
* June	21462	19585	6896	117	254	7267
September	19379	19389	7325	109	216	7650
December	23688	23576	8770	109	288	9167
March, 1880	20675	24392	8445	110	348	8903
June	23571	23933	7004	110	310	7424
September	18670	17610	6602	112	304	7018
December	21739	21494	7315	112	279	8206
March, 1881	16827	20698	6775	112	298	7185
June	26921	23471	8772	112	271	9155
September	20723	21174	7334	112	261	8207
December	23136	23807	9301	112	257	9670
March, 1882	19610	22487	8163	123	311	8597
June	27552	25002	8808	122	276	9206
September	26787	26702	9702	124	268	10094
December	25149	25326	9715	126	258	10069
March, 1883	21493	22090	8278	124	312	8714
June	25255	22929	8499	124	273	8896
September	21777	20418	7880	124	228	8232
December	23461	24777	9211	139	227	9577
March, 1884	21478	25093	8729	141	254	9124
* June	32190	31418	11336	179	323	11838
September	29282	25065	9946	252	371	10569
December	24216	23827	9226	266	319	9811
March, 1885	26769	27876	9905	268	349	10522
June	30729	30386	11109	269	332	11710
September	26076	24106	9330	270	325	9925
December	25890	25438	9502	270	309	10081
March, 1886	26923	32001	11057	276	340	11673
June	41536	38021	13750	276	313	14333
September	27976	26674	9718	276	298	10292
December	26928	26007	10206	276	293	10775
March, 1887	30476	34990	11855	280	340	12475
June	39272	34884	12881	280	298	13459
September	27824	26078	10325	280	289	10694
December	28845	28372	10334	280	303	11417
March, 1888	33925	36819	13392	280	366	13678
June	45382	40206	15331	280	347	15958
	1279430	1277469	457046	8266	14910	480222

* Fourteen Weeks.

† Ten Weeks.

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.
LEICESTER BOOT AND SHOE WORKS TRADE.—Continued.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

QUARTERLY ACCOUNTS.

Date.	RATE ON PRODUCTION.		NET PROFIT.		NET LOSS.		Stocks.
	Per cent.	Per £.	Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	
January, 1874.....	£ s. d.	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
April	25 6 8	5 0 ³ / ₄	8	0 0 ¹ / ₂	2579
July	20 14 9	4 6 ¹ / ₂	108	0 5 ³ / ₄	2501
October	27 4 8	5 5 ¹ / ₂	111	0 3 ³ / ₄	4366
January, 1885.....	33 8 6	6 8 ¹ / ₂	373	0 11 ¹ / ₂	5716
April	35 3 11	7 0 ¹ / ₂	8	0 0 ¹ / ₂	6466
July	34 13 6	6 11 ¹ / ₂	175	0 3 ³ / ₄	6956
October	30 13 5	6 1 ¹ / ₂	1153	1 5 ⁵ / ₈	8809
January, 1876.....	32 17 10	6 7	174	0 2 ³ / ₄	10773
April	33 10 0	6 8 ¹ / ₂	108	0 2	9186
July	37 10 11	7 6	296	0 4	10025
October	29 11 8	5 11	165	0 2 ³ / ₄	11149
*October	39 14 1	7 11 ¹ / ₂	629	0 7 ¹ / ₂	12677
January, 1877.....	38 13 8	7 8 ¹ / ₂	134	0 2 ¹ / ₂	14131
April	35 18 0	7 2 ¹ / ₂	23	0 0 ¹ / ₂	13013
July	35 17 8	7 2 ¹ / ₂	496	0 6	15634
October	35 5 8	7 0 ¹ / ₂	17	0 0 ³ / ₄	16692
January, 1878.....	40 3 8	8 0 ¹ / ₂	279	0 3 ¹ / ₂	12322
April	33 6 3	6 8	79	0 1 ¹ / ₂	15104
July	41 6 9	8 3 ¹ / ₂	665	0 7 ¹ / ₂	14416
October	35 5 5	7 0 ¹ / ₂	807	0 10 ¹ / ₂	14495
January, 1879.....	39 9 3	7 10 ³ / ₄	24	0 3 ¹ / ₂	14515
†March	34 16 9	6 11 ¹ / ₂	351	0 5 ¹ / ₂	16649
*June	37 2 1	7 5	84	0 1	11456
September	39 9 4	7 10 ³ / ₄	954	0 11 ³ / ₄	10996
December	38 17 6	7 9 ¹ / ₂	424	0 4 ¹ / ₂	24733
March, 1880.....	36 10 0	7 3 ¹ / ₂	156	0 1 ¹ / ₂	28388
June	35 9 1	7 1 ¹ / ₂	760	0 8 ³ / ₄	20330
September	39 17 0	7 11 ³ / ₄	248	0 3 ³ / ₄	14662
December	38 3 6	7 7 ¹ / ₂	1161	1 0 ³ / ₄	15772
March, 1881.....	34 14 3	6 11 ¹ / ₂	934	0 10 ³ / ₄	19945
June	39 0 1	7 9 ¹ / ₂	63	0 0 ¹ / ₂	15048
September	38 15 2	7 9	410	0 4 ³ / ₄	16310
December	40 12 2	8 1 ¹ / ₂	955	0 9 ³ / ₈	15591
March, 1882.....	38 4 7	7 8	339	0 3 ³ / ₄	20570
June	36 16 5	7 4 ¹ / ₂	593	0 5 ³ / ₄	15241
September	37 16 0	7 6 ³ / ₄	417	0 3 ³ / ₄	13437
December	39 17 6	7 11 ³ / ₄	300	0 2 ¹ / ₂	14192
March, 1883.....	39 8 11	7 10 ³ / ₄	341	0 3 ³ / ₈	18248
June	38 15 11	7 9	£99	0 4 ¹ / ₂	13038
September	40 6 4 ¹ / ₂	8 0 ³ / ₄	58	0 0 ³ / ₄	10389
December	38 13 0	7 8 ³ / ₄	74	0 0 ³ / ₄	10584
March, 1884.....	36 7 2	7 3 ¹ / ₂	886	0 8 ³ / ₄	15796
*June	37 13 6	7 6 ³ / ₄	1730	1 1 ¹ / ₂	19049
September	40 18 2	8 1 ¹ / ₂	743	0 6 ¹ / ₂	16274
December	41 3 5	8 2 ³ / ₄	98	0 0 ³ / ₈	17800
March, 1885.....	37 14 11	7 6 ¹ / ₂	517	0 4 ³ / ₄	18374
June	38 10 9	7 8 ³ / ₄	1241	0 9 ³ / ₄	17401
September	41 3 5 ¹ / ₂	8 2 ³ / ₄	296	0 2 ³ / ₄	16116
December	39 12 7	7 11 ¹ / ₂	1024	0 9 ³ / ₄	15752
March, 1886.....	36 9 6	7 3 ¹ / ₂	688	0 5 ¹ / ₂	20081
June	37 14 3	7 6 ¹ / ₂	2725	1 3 ³ / ₄	16020
September	38 11 8 ¹ / ₂	7 8 ¹ / ₂	2121	1 6 ¹ / ₂	16266
December	41 8 7 ³ / ₄	8 3 ³ / ₄	525	0 4 ³ / ₄	17736
March, 1887.....	35 13 0 ³ / ₄	7 1 ¹ / ₂	1337	0 10 ¹ / ₂	23050
June	38 11 7 ³ / ₄	7 8 ¹ / ₂	2681	1 4 ¹ / ₂	19075
September	41 15 3 ³ / ₄	8 4 ¹ / ₂	964	0 8 ¹ / ₂	17666
December	40 4 9 ³ / ₄	8 0 ¹ / ₂	1362	0 11 ¹ / ₂	19118
March, 1888.....	37 2 11 ¹ / ₂	7 5 ¹ / ₂	1920	1 1 ¹ / ₂	23460
June	39 13 9 ³ / ₄	7 11 ¹ / ₂	3408	1 6	21218
	37 11 10	7 6 ¹ / ₂	35453	..	3596
	Less Loss		3596	
	Leaves Net Profit ..		31857	0 5 ¹ / ₂			

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE

DURHAM SOAP WORKS SUPPLIES,

From its Commencement,

Date.	Net Sup- plies.	Pre- duction.	EXPENSES.			
			Sundry.	Depre- ciation.	Interest.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
October, 1874	161	813	32	38	4	74
January, 1875	1988	2163	98	37	81	216
April	2510	2540	117	38	54	209
July	2620	2143	128	39	49	216
October	1874	2484	139	39	54	232
January, 1876	2260	2142	128	39	56	223
April	2557	2772	113	39	55	207
July	2560	2523	115	39	57	211
*October	2550	2146	125	39	69	233
January, 1877	1782	2284	135	60	90	285
April	2371	2621	134	71	105	310
July	2801	2653	144	82	121	347
October	2724	3388	196	89	108	393
January, 1878	3202	3251	210	94	114	418
April	3085	3421	310	98	125	533
July	3070	2660	191	98	125	414
October	2947	2868	194	74	89	357
January, 1879	2633	2220	188	75	91	354
* March	2032	2326	159	56	70	285
† June	2582	2726	203	77	96	376
September	2076	1912	169	72	92	333
December	2213	2423	184	72	91	347
March, 1880	2388	2055	199	72	85	356
June	3095	3040	175	72	81	328
September	3216	2937	193	73	79	345
December	3081	3372	214	72	78	364
March, 1881	2656	2757	227	73	93	393
June	3254	3411	173	73	87	333
September	3230	3340	199	73	97	369
December	2731	2757	243	73	99	415
March, 1882	3336	3129	212	73	72	357
June	3480	3815	212	73	98	383
September	3282	2795	179	73	100	352
December	2708	2765	192	73	80	345
March, 1883	3089	3479	197	73	83	353
June	3237	3251	188	73	92	353
September	4426	5099	267	73	85	425
December	3999	4112	258	80	99	437
March, 1884	3855	3799	213	80	96	389
* June	3854	3659	204	87	99	410
September	4008	3625	214	80	82	376
December	3502	3638	198	80	66	344
March, 1885	4369	4311	243	80	66	389
June	4691	4652	255	80	75	410
September	4722	4702	266	80	84	430
December	4129	4329	353	80	75	508
March, 1886	3552	3727	253	80	71	404
June	4230	3979	286	80	61	427
September	4344	3768	329	80	61	470
December	3760	4309	755	80	59	894
March, 1887	3435	3394	341	80	70	491
June	3255	3066	312	80	59	451
September	3963	3754	340	80	57	477
December	4627	4674	523	80	58	661
March, 1888	4641	4513	538	80	70	688
June	4404	4193	448	80	74	602
* Fourteen Weeks.	177142	178685	12331	3984	4487	21902
† Ten Weeks.						

SOCIETY LIMITED.

EXPENSES, PROFIT, AND STOCKS,

QUARTERLY ACCOUNTS.

Date.	RATE ON PRODUCTION.		NET PROFIT.		NET LOSS.		Stocks.
	Per cent.	Per £.	Amount.	Rate.	Amount.	Rate.	
October, 1874 ..	£ s. d.	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
January, 1875 ..	9 2 0	1 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	127	1 8 $\frac{3}{4}$	108	13 4 $\frac{1}{4}$	804
April, " ..	9 19 8	1 11 $\frac{3}{4}$	82	0 7 $\frac{3}{4}$	1809
July, " ..	8 4 7	1 7 $\frac{3}{4}$	182	1 4	1007
October, " ..	10 1 7	2 0 $\frac{1}{4}$	92	0 11 $\frac{3}{4}$	1010
January, 1876 ..	9 6 0	1 10 $\frac{1}{4}$	120	1 0 $\frac{3}{4}$	1751
April, " ..	10 8 2	2 1	1303
July, " ..	7 9 4	1 6	11	0 1	1462
October, " ..	8 7 3	1 8	97	0 9	2262
*October, " ..	10 7 1	2 2	23	0 2	3029
January, 1877 ..	12 9 7	3 6	106	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3871
April, " ..	11 16 7	2 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	177	1 5 $\frac{5}{8}$	3401
July, " ..	13 1 7	2 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	105	0 9	4353
October, " ..	11 12 0	2 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	147	1 1	3289
January, 1878 ..	12 17 2	2 7	88	0 6 $\frac{2}{5}$	3721
April, " ..	15 11 7	3 1	142	0 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	4495
July, " ..	15 11 3	3 1	283	2 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	3947
October, " ..	12 8 11	2 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	109	0 11	3374
January, 1879 ..	15 18 11	3 2 $\frac{1}{4}$	186	0 2 $\frac{5}{8}$	3130
*March, " ..	12 4 9	2 5	77	0 7 $\frac{7}{8}$	2705
†June, " ..	18 15 10	2 9	3657
September, " ..	17 8 3	3 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	238	2 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	3586
December, " ..	14 6 4	2 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	46	0 4 $\frac{3}{4}$	3769
March, 1880 ..	17 6 5	3 5 $\frac{5}{8}$	7	0 0 $\frac{5}{8}$	2680
June, " ..	10 15 1	2 1 $\frac{5}{8}$	63	0 5	2786
September, " ..	11 14 11	2 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	170	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2238
December, " ..	10 15 10	2 2	24	0 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	3571
March, 1831 ..	14 5 1	2 10 $\frac{1}{4}$	85	0 7 $\frac{3}{8}$	3426
June, " ..	9 15 3	1 11 $\frac{3}{8}$	117	0 8 $\frac{5}{8}$	3466
September, " ..	11 0 11	2 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	16	0 1	5369
December, " ..	15 1 0	3 0 $\frac{5}{8}$	54	0 4 $\frac{5}{8}$	3707
March, 1832 ..	11 8 2	2 3 $\frac{5}{8}$	57	0 4 $\frac{3}{8}$	2834
June, " ..	10 0 9	2 0	113	0 7	5405
September, " ..	12 11 10	2 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	40	0 3 $\frac{3}{8}$	3807
December, " ..	12 9 6	2 6	83	0 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	2628
March, 1833 ..	10 2 10	2 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	38	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	5047
June, " ..	10 17 1	2 2	44	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	3838
September, " ..	8 6 9 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 8	16	0 0 $\frac{2}{8}$	3990
December, " ..	10 12 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	40	0 2 $\frac{1}{4}$	5185
March, 1834 ..	10 4 9	2 0 $\frac{1}{4}$	29	0 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	4594
*June, " ..	11 4 1	2 2 $\frac{5}{8}$	53	0 3 $\frac{3}{8}$	4333
September, " ..	10 7 5	2 0 $\frac{5}{8}$	59	0 3 $\frac{5}{8}$	2936
December, " ..	9 9 1	1 10 $\frac{5}{8}$	62	0 4	3489
March, 1835 ..	9 0 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 9 $\frac{5}{8}$	65	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	3151
June, " ..	8 16 3	1 9 $\frac{3}{4}$	294	1 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	6282
September, " ..	9 2 10 $\frac{7}{8}$	1 9 $\frac{3}{4}$	292	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	4458
December, " ..	11 14 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	256	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	4361
March, 1836 ..	10 16 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 2	283	1 6 $\frac{1}{4}$	3373
June, " ..	10 14 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	209	0 11 $\frac{3}{4}$	3198
September, " ..	12 9 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	2 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	216	0 11 $\frac{1}{4}$	2707
December, " ..	20 14 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	28	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	3990
March, 1837 ..	14 9 4	2 10 $\frac{1}{4}$	210	1 2 $\frac{5}{8}$	4685
June, " ..	14 14 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 11 $\frac{1}{4}$	92	0 6 $\frac{1}{4}$	3756
September, " ..	12 14 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	183	0 11	2795
December, " ..	14 2 10	2 9 $\frac{5}{8}$	39	0 2	3637
March, 1838 ..	15 4 10 $\frac{3}{4}$	3 0 $\frac{3}{4}$	79	0 4	3833
June, " ..	14 7 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	2 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	98	0 5	3803
	11 18 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 4 $\frac{3}{8}$	4019	..	1991
	Less Loss	1991
	Leaves Profit	2028	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED
BATLEY WOOLLEN MILL TRADE

From its Commencement.—QUARTERLY ACCOUNTS.

Date.	Net Sup-plies.	Produc-tion.	EXPENSES.			RATE ON PRODUCTION.		NET PROFIT.		NET LOSS.		Stocks.
			Sundry	Depre-ciation.	Interest	Total.	Per cent.	Per f.	Amount	Rate.	Amount	
	£	£	£	£	£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
March, 1887	184	318	2	1	321	174 9 1½	34 10½	228	487
June, 1887	320	2354	1006	15	21	1042	44 5 3½	8 10¼	181	11 3¼	3569
Sept., "	1042	2449	1074	54	59	1187	48 9 4½	9 8¼	25	0 5¼	6010
Dec., "	1116	3508	1322	60	83	1465	41 15 2¼	8 4½	99	1 9½	8061
March, 1888	3059	2502	1241	63	99	1403	56 1 6	11 2½	311	2 0¼	8249
June, "	2326	2361	1422	76	113	1611	68 4 8	13 7½	799	6 10½	8888
	7863	13958	6983	270	376	7029	53 12 4½	10 6¼	25	1618
									Less Profit ..	25
										1593	4 0¼	

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

LONGTON CROCKERY DEPOT—TRADE, &c.

Since its commencement.—QUARTERLY ACCOUNTS.

Date.	SUPPLIES.			TOTAL EXPENSES.			NET PROFIT.		LOSS.		Stocks.	
	Selves.	Scottish.	Total.	Amount.	Rate.	s. d.	Amount.	Rate.	Amount.	Rate.		
September, 1886	£ 1355	£ 1355	£ 150	2 2½	£ 6	0 1	£ 6	0 1	282	
December, "	2613	£ 613	222	1 8½	31	0 2½	31	0 2½	540	
March, 1887	2728	43	£ 2771	197	1 5½	17	0 1½	567	
June, "	2818	42	£ 2860	240	1 8½	35	0 2½	523	
September, "	2881	71	£ 2952	199	1 4½	63	0 5½	509	
December, "	3408	148	£ 3646	234	1 3½	64	0 4½	596	
March, 1888	3548	158	£ 3696	232	1 3	95	0 6½	736	
June, "	3761	154	£ 3915	261	1 4	63	0 8½	730	
	23197	611	£ 23808	1741	1 5½	337	37	
				Less Loss			37				
							300	0 8				

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

MANCHESTER GROCERY AND PROVISION SALES, EXPENSES, PROFIT, AND STOCKS.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

IN YEARS.

YEAR ENDING	Sales.	EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Stocks.
		Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	
	£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
January, 1875 (3 quarters)	1110155	11716	0 2½	11986	0 2½	71360
" 1876	1476536	14701	0 2½	19042	0 3	56487
" 1877 (53 weeks)	1707637	17692	0 2½	27993	0 3½	68205
" 1878	1761017	16866	0 2½	25745	0 3½	59790
" 1879	1689613	17873	0 3½	26502	0 3½	56819
December, 1879 (50 weeks)	1590007	16761	0 2½	28826	0 4½	71446
" 1880	1998384	18911	0 2½	30977	0 3½	70091
" 1881	2047210	19883	0 2½	32460	0 3½	87277
" 1882	2206350	23666	0 2½	30644	0 3½	141191
" 1883	2544409	28337	0 2½	27455	0 2½	109414
" 1884 (53 weeks)	2457288	28522	0 2½	24893	0 2½	107524
" 1885	2375945	27484	0 2½	41757	0 4½	92790
" 1886	2571435	29777	0 2½	41981	0 3½	113620
" 1887	2827624	32979	0 2½	45516	0 3½	129565
	28449610	304668	0 2½	415177	0 8½

MANCHESTER DRAPERY AND WOOLLEN CLOTH SALES, EXPENSES, PROFIT, AND STOCKS.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

IN YEARS.

YEAR ENDING	Sales.	EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Loss.		Stocks.
		Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	
	£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
Jan., 1874 (1 quarter) ..	10575	348	0 8	201	0 4½	11568
" 1875	71290	3872	1 1	1244	0 4½	86824
" 1876	129486	7264	1 1½	720	0 1½	72408
" 1877 (53 weeks) ..	147083	9391	1 3½	1420	0 2½	69267
" 1878	124918	8879	1 5½	4144	0 7½	48511
" 1879	134746	8518	1 3½	635	0 1½	44439
Dec., 1879 (50 weeks) ..	126824	7817	1 2½	1674	0 3½	49225
" 1880	139421	8511	1 2½	2314	0 4	44105
" 1881	132914	8168	1 2½	1932	0 3½	42203
" 1882	143019	8397	1 1½	3504	0 5½	40854
" 1883	156697	8976	1 1½	4171	0 6½	41365
" 1884 (53 weeks) ..	186137	9587	1 0½	5693	0 7½	42433
" 1885	194443	10315	1 0½	5724	0 7	50190
" 1886	217312	11143	1 0½	5660	0 6½	60405
" 1887	232524	12224	1 0½	3622	0 3½	65807
	2147680	123350	1 1½	37094	5564
Less Depreciation allowed, see Disposal of Profit Account, October, 1877		£4757						
" Loss		5564		10821			
Leaves Net Profit				26773	0 2½			

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

MANCHESTER WOOLLEN CLOTH DEPARTMENT.

From the time of commencing to publish a separate Account in Balance Sheet.

IN YEARS.

Year Ending.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Loss.		Stocks.
		Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	
	£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
December, 1884	20368	1221	1 2 $\frac{3}{8}$	409	0 4 $\frac{3}{4}$	4407
„ 1885	21210	1249	1 2 $\frac{3}{8}$	336	0 8 $\frac{3}{4}$	5242
„ 1886	22173	1417	1 8 $\frac{1}{4}$	327	0 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	6275
„ 1887	21820	1427	1 3 $\frac{3}{8}$	2	6112
	55571	5314	1 2 $\frac{7}{8}$	1072	2
		Less Loss		2			
		Leaves Net Profit..		1070	0 3			

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

MANCHESTER BOOT AND SHOE SALES, EXPENSES, PROFIT, AND STOCKS,

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

IN YEARS.

YEAR ENDING	Sales.	EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Stocks.
		Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	
	£	£		£	£	£
January, 1874 (1 quarter)	5506	204	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	4715
" 1875	37257	1129	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	748	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	5197
" 1876	53885	1326	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	775	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	7711
" 1877 (53 weeks)	57307	1811	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	586	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	6082
" 1878	58304	1975	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	786	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	7935
" 1879	59327	2192	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	767	3	10242
December, 1879 (50 weeks)	55270	2185	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	752	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	10964
" 1880	62139	2987	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	755	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	11484
" 1881	71382	2492	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	842	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	11377
" 1882	76101	2583	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	1246	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	12564
" 1883	86056	2882	8	1261	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	12938
" 1884 (53 weeks)	99694	3150	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	1583	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	16576
" 1885	106755	3596	8	1395	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	16074
" 1886	121432	3772	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	2757	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	16578
" 1887	126099	4070	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	3083	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	19727
	1076514	35704	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	17850	3 $\frac{1}{2}$..

MANCHESTER FURNISHING SALES, EXPENSES, PROFIT, AND STOCKS.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

IN YEARS.

YEAR ENDING	Sales.	EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Loss.		Stocks.
		Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	
	£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
Jan., 1877 (27 weeks)	5944	405	1 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	52	0 2	2571
" 1878	15464	984	1 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	65	0 1	2286
" 1879	17374	1185	1 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	140	0 17 $\frac{1}{2}$	2421
Dec., 1879 (50 weeks)	18361	1108	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	60	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	3524
" 1880	24243	1517	1 1	404	0 4	4307
" 1881	24844	1293	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	171	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	3971
" 1882	29021	1515	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	219	0 13 $\frac{1}{2}$	3630
" 1883	34804	1878	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	423	0 27 $\frac{1}{2}$	4274
" 1884 (53 weeks)	44311	2253	1 0	673	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	5433
" 1885	51238	2415	0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	893	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	5817
" 1886	62340	2657	0 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	1129	0 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	6581
" 1887	72932	3497	0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	946	0 3	10098
	400876	20507	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	5123	..	52
		Less Loss		52	..			
		Leaves Net Profit		5071	0 3			

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

NEWCASTLE BRANCH GROCERY AND PROVISION SALES, EXPENSES, PROFIT,
AND STOCKS.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

IN YEARS.

YEAR ENDING	Sales.	EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Stocks.
		Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	
	£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
January, 1877 (53 weeks).....	529244	7727	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	4591	0 2	34591
" 1878.....	541783	8213	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	4139	0 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	28996
" 1879.....	457597	7402	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	3168	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	22789
December, 1879 (50 weeks).....	465108	6823	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	7234	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	49145
" 1880.....	588664	7868	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	4636	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	44398
" 1881.....	703337	8921	0 3	9296	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	54648
" 1882.....	795007	10098	0 3	8741	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	65330
" 1883.....	871597	10785	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	10476	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	55152
" 1884 (53 weeks).....	930803	11395	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	12451	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	65158
" 1885.....	996542	12075	0 3	14422	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	53546
" 1886.....	949878	12321	0 3	18794	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	71265
" 1887.....	966148	14320	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	11026	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	59632
	8735708	117848	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	108914	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$..

NEWCASTLE BRANCH DRAPERY SALES, EXPENSES, PROFIT, AND STOCKS.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

IN YEARS.

YEAR ENDING	Sales.	EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Stocks.
		Amount.	Rate.	Amount.	Rate.	
	£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
January, 1877 (53 weeks).....	39896	1728	0 10 $\frac{3}{4}$	796	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	11525
" 1878.....	49559	2211	0 10 $\frac{3}{4}$	999	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	11635
" 1879.....	44161	2159	0 11 $\frac{3}{4}$	612	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	10463
December, 1879 (50 weeks).....	44674	2153	0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	871	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	11590
" 1880.....	55979	2494	0 10 $\frac{3}{4}$	2206	0 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	16171
" 1881.....	69081	2656	0 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	2339	0 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	16075
" 1882.....	84457	2975	0 8 $\frac{3}{4}$	3656	0 10 $\frac{3}{4}$	15754
" 1883.....	99354	3387	0 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	4499	0 10 $\frac{3}{4}$	16594
" 1884 (53 weeks).....	118345	3983	0 8	4503	0 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	18906
" 1885.....	142701	4598	0 7 $\frac{3}{4}$	6906	0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	24084
" 1886.....	152433	5342	0 8 $\frac{3}{4}$	7562	0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	28645
" 1887.....	144713	5868	0 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	5845	0 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	25337
	1045353	39554	0 9	40794	0 9 $\frac{1}{2}$..

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

NEWCASTLE BRANCH BOOT AND SHOE AND FURNISHING SALES, EXPENSES,
PROFIT AND STOCKS.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

IN YEARS.

YEAR ENDING	Sales.	EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Stocks.
		Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	
	£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
January, 1877 (53 weeks).....	25379	649	0 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	406	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	1505
" 1878.....	28425	700	0 6 $\frac{3}{4}$	690	0 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	2242
" 1879.....	28375	880	0 7 $\frac{3}{4}$	310	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	3179
December, 1879 (50 weeks).....	27708	935	0 8	357	0 3	4681
" 1880.....	34968	1276	0 8 $\frac{3}{4}$	649	0 4 $\frac{3}{4}$	5971
" 1881.....	42991	1307	0 7 $\frac{3}{4}$	938	0 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	4645
" 1882.....	54467	1527	0 6 $\frac{3}{4}$	1336	0 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	6561
" 1883.....	65501	1955	0 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	1890	0 6 $\frac{3}{4}$	5817
" 1884 (53 weeks).....	75054	2408	0 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	1917	0 6 $\frac{3}{4}$	8266
" 1885.....	89117	2783	0 7 $\frac{3}{4}$	2195	0 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	11319
" 1886.....	97148	8646	0 9	1619	0 4	13442
" 1887.....	91029	3929	0 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	1173	0 3	13974
	660182	22055	0 8	13480	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$..

LONDON BRANCH GROCERY SALES, EXPENSES, PROFIT, AND STOCKS.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

IN YEARS.

YEAR ENDING	Sales.	EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Stocks.
		Amount	Rate.	Amount	Rate.	
	£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
January, 1875 (3 qrs.).....	72985	1542	0 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	567	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	7315
" 1876.....	130752	2965	0 4 $\frac{3}{4}$	1584	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	7219
" 1877 (53 wks.).....	184879	3026	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	4182	0 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	12668
" 1878.....	210415	3283	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	2320	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	10511
" 1879.....	216314	3881	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	2388	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	8489
December, 1879 (50 wks.).....	232660	3370	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	5239	0 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	13594
" 1880.....	274965	4066	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	3559	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	20789
" 1881.....	289748	5310	0 4 $\frac{3}{4}$	2149	0 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	7394
" 1882.....	296767	5001	0 4	3776	0 3	10636
" 1883.....	337753	5441	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	4630	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	13282
" 1884 (53 wks.).....	375963	6233	0 4	5062	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	18869
" 1885.....	445876	7485	0 4	9101	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	24256
" 1886.....	527904	8463	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	9719	0 4 $\frac{3}{4}$	24739
" 1887.....	652882	11336	0 4 $\frac{3}{4}$	8839	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	47319
	4249263	70502	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	63115	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

LONDON BRANCH DRAPERY SALES, EXPENSES, PROFIT, AND STOCKS.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

IN YEARS.

YEAR ENDING	SALES.			EXPENSES.		PROFIT.		Stocks.
	Drapery and Furnishing	Boots and Shoes.	Total.	Amount	Rate.	Amount.	Rate.	
	£	£	£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
December, 1880 (2 qrs.)	1657	6500	8157	312	0 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	36	0 1	3805
" 1881	12558	13448	26006	1268	0 11 $\frac{3}{4}$	149	0 13 $\frac{3}{4}$	7054
" 1882	16936	15629	32565	1636	1 0	312	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	9524
" 1883	21754	17983	39737	2412	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	286	0 13 $\frac{1}{2}$	10011
" 1884 (53 wks)	29008	19826	48829	2807	1 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	532	0 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	9977
" 1885	40448	22324	62772	3554	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	684	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	11502
" 1886	53749	26090	79839	4529	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	776	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	13713
" 1887	63224	26347	89571	5853	1 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	Loss 238	0 0 $\frac{3}{4}$	18858
	239829	148147	387476	22371	1 13 $\frac{1}{2}$	2537	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$

CRUMPSALL BISCUIT WORKS SUPPLIES, EXPENSES, PROFIT, AND STOCKS.

From the time of commencing to keep a separate Account.

IN YEARS.

YEAR ENDING	Net Supplies.	Production.	EXPENSES.				RATE ON PRODUCTION.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks.
			Sun-dry.	Depre-ciation.	In-terest	Total.	Per cent.	Per £.	Amount	Rate per £.	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£ s. d.	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
Jan., 1874*	2987	2878	604	60	87	751	26 1 10	5 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	15	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	16 ⁸
" 1875..	13189	15124	2190	323	495	3008	22 18 5	4 7	228	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 ²⁹
" 1876..	13664	13392	2515	324	571	3210	23 19 5	4 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	712	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	1538
" 1877†	15866	16065	3282	398	441	4121	25 13 0	5 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	630	0 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	2867
" 1878..	18018	18126	2672	444	500	3616	19 18 11	3 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	514	0 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	2961
" 1879..	17553	17289	2798	481	481	3760	21 15 0	4 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1518	1 9	25 ⁶
Dec., 1879;†	16623	16454	2852	532	447	3831	23 5 8	4 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	1004	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	2335
" 1880..	19153	19069	2985	572	429	3986	20 18 1	4 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	983	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	1793
" 1881..	20122	20274	3056	576	429	4061	20 0 7	4 0	887	0 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	2195
" 1882..	21632	21578	3095	578	401	4074	18 17 7	3 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	1493	1 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1703
" 1883..	21897	21712	3228	589	408	4225	19 9 2	3 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	2081	1 11	1893
" 1884†	21549	21565	3841	665	430	4936	22 17 9	4 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	2030	1 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	2129
" 1885..	21479	21830	4794	786	454	6594	27 12 9	5 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	1491	1 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	3531
" 1886..	23534	22885	5815	897	529	7241	31 12 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	Loss 61	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 ⁶
" 1887..	28314	29100	6371	1278	745	8394	28 16 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	Loss 3	..	1518
	275580	275341	50098	8503	6647	65248	23 13 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	13527	0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$..

* One quarter.

† Fifty-three weeks.

‡ Fifty weeks.

THE CENTRAL CO-OPERATIVE BOARD.

OFFICES: CITY BUILDINGS, CORPORATION STREET,
MANCHESTER.

The CENTRAL CO-OPERATIVE BOARD is the Executive of the *Co-operative Union*, an organisation which has been formed for—

The promotion of the practice of truthfulness, justice, and economy in production and exchange.

(1) By the abolition of all false dealing, either—

a. Direct, by representing any article produced or sold to be other than what it is known to the producer or vendor to be; or,

b. Indirect, by concealing from the purchaser any fact known to the vendor material to be known by the purchaser, to enable him to judge of the value of the article purchased.

(2) By conciliating the conflicting interests of the capitalist, the worker, and the purchaser, through an equitable division among them of the fund commonly known as *Profit*.

(3) By preventing the waste of labour now caused by unregulated competition.

Whoever seriously considers the enormous amount of evil caused to mankind at present by the non-observance of these principles in the transactions forming the staple of their daily lives, and the corresponding amount of good that would arise from their general adoption, must give a hearty support to a Union formed to promote their practice.

The Executive of the Union is—

a. A Board of Legal and General Advice in all matters relating to the business and interest of societies as co-operative associations.

b. A Statistical Bureau, collecting and collating for the free use of the societies every kind of information likely to be of service to them.

c. A Propagandist Agency, organising and directing efforts for the dissemination of the principles of co-operation throughout Great Britain and Ireland, and afterwards to the world at large.

The Union consists of Industrial and Provident Societies, Friendly or Building Societies, Trade Unions or Associations, Joint-stock Companies or Industrial Partnerships.

No society is admitted into the Union unless its management is of a representative character, nor unless it agree—

(1) To accept the statement of principles given above as the rules by which it shall be guided in all its own business transactions.

(2) To contribute to the fund called the Congress Fund the annual payment following:—

a. If the number of members of any such society, or of the employés of any such industrial partnership, is less than 500, then the sum of 2d. for each member:

b. If the number of such members (or employés) exceeds 500, then, at least, the sum of 1,000d.

In estimating the number of members of a society comprising other societies, each such society is considered to be one member.

The financial year commences on the 1st April in each year, and the subscription is considered due, 1d. in the first and 1d. in the third quarter, but may be wholly paid in the first quarter.

Secretaries forwarding Cheques on account of the Board are requested to make them payable to the Central Co-operative Board; Money Orders to J. C. GRAY, Cashier.

SUMMARY OF THE LAW RELATING TO SOCIETIES

UNDER THE

INDUSTRIAL AND PROVIDENT SOCIETIES ACT, 1876,

THE CUSTOMS AND INLAND REVENUE ACT, 1880, AND THE PROVIDENT NOMINATIONS AND SMALL INTESTACIES ACT, 1883.

I.—The Formation of Societies—

1. Application must be made to the Registrar of Friendly Societies, in London, Edinburgh, or Dublin, according to the case, on a form supplied by the office, signed by seven persons and the secretary, accompanied by two copies of the rules, signed by the same persons.

2. These rules must provide for twenty matters stated on the form of application.

3. No fees charged on the registration of a society.

N.B.—Model rules on these twenty matters can be obtained from the Registrar's office; and the Central Board, 14, City Buildings, Corporation Street, Manchester, publishes, at the cost of 1½d. a copy, general rules, approved of by the Chief Registrar, providing also for many other matters on which rules are useful; and capable of being adopted, either with or without alterations, by a few special rules, with a great saving in the cost of printing.

The General Secretary will prepare such special rules, without charge, on receiving a statement of the rules desired.

II. Rights of a Registered Society—

1. It becomes a body corporate, which can by its corporate name sue and be sued, and hold and deal with property of any kind, including shares in other societies or companies, and land to any amount.

2. Its rules are binding upon its members, though they may have signed no assent to them; but may be altered by amendments duly made as the rules provide, and registered, for which a fee of 10s. is charged. The application for registration must be made on a form supplied by the Registrar's office.

3. It can sue its own members, and can make contracts, either under its seal or by a writing signed by any person authorised to sign, or by word of mouth of any person authorised to speak for it, which will be binding wherever a contract similarly made by an individual would bind him.

4. It may make all or any of its shares either transferable or withdrawable, and may carry on any trade, including the buying and selling of land, and banking under certain conditions, and may apply the profits of the business to any lawful purpose; and, if authorised by its rules, may receive money on loan, either from its members or others, to any amount so authorised.

5. If it has any withdrawable share capital it may not carry on banking, but may take deposits, within any limits fixed by its rules, in sums not exceeding 5s. in any one payment, or £20 for any one depositor, payable at not less than two clear days' notice.

6. It may make loans to its members on real or personal security; and may invest on the security of other societies or companies, or in any except those where liability is unlimited.

7. If the number of its shares is not limited either by its rules or its practice, it is not chargeable with income tax on the profits of its business.

8. It can, in the way provided by the Act, amalgamate with or take over the business of any other society, or convert itself into a company.

9. It can determine the way in which disputes between the society and its officers or members shall be settled.

10. It can dissolve itself, either by an instrument of dissolution signed by three-fourths of its members, or by a resolution passed by a three-fourths vote at a special general meeting, of which there are two forms—(A) purely voluntary, when the resolution requires confirmation at a second meeting; (B) on account of debts, when one meeting is sufficient. In such a winding up hostile proceedings to seize the property can be stayed.

III.—Rights of the Members (see also II., 4, 5, 6)—

1. They cannot be sued individually for the debts of the society, nor compelled to pay more towards them than the sum remaining unpaid on any shares which they have either expressly agreed to take or treated as their property, or which the rules authorise to be so treated.

2. If they transfer or withdraw their shares, they cannot be made liable for any debts contracted subsequently, nor for those subsisting at the time of the transfer or withdrawal, unless the other assets are insufficient to pay them.

3. Persons not under the age of 16 years may become members, and legally do any acts which they could do if of full age, except holding any office.

4. An individual or company may hold any number of shares allowed by the rules, not exceeding the nominal value of £200, and any amount so allowed as a loan. A society may hold any number of shares.

5. A member who holds at his death not more than £100 in the society as shares loans, or deposits, may, by a writing recorded by it, nominate, or vary or revoke the nomination of any persons to take this investment at his death; and if he dies intestate, without having made any subsisting nomination, the committee of management of the society are charged with the administration of the fund; subject in either case to a notice to be given to the Commissioners of Inland Revenue whenever the sum so dealt with exceeds £80.

6. The members may obtain an inquiry into the position of the society by application to the Registrar.

IV.—Duties of a Registered Society—

1. It must have a registered office, and keep its name painted or engraved outside, and give due notice of any change to the Registrar.

2. It must have a seal on which its name is engraved.

3. It must have its accounts audited at least once a year, and keep a copy of its last balance sheet and the auditors' report constantly hung up in its registered office.

4. It must make to the Registrar, before the 1st of June in every year, a return of its business during the year ending the 31st December previous, and supply a copy of its last returns gratis to every member and person interested in its funds on application.

5. It must allow any member or person interested in its funds to inspect its books, other than the loan or deposit account of any other member.

6. It must supply a copy of its rules to every person on demand, at a price not exceeding one shilling.

7. If it carries on banking, it must make out in February and August in every year, and keep hung up in its registered office, a return, in a form prescribed by the Act; and it has also to make a return every February to the Stamp-office under the Banking Act.

The non-observance by a society of these duties exposes it and its officers to penalties varying from £1 to £50, which are in some cases cumulative for every week during which the neglect lasts.

THE
 “CO-OPERATIVE NEWS”

AND

Journal of Associated Industry.

THE OFFICIAL ORGAN OF INDUSTRIAL AND PROVIDENT
 CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

THE *News* is the property of a Federation of Co-operative Societies located in all parts of Great Britain. It is an exponent of opinion, thoroughly impartial and comprehensive, upon all subjects connected with Association, particularly in its application to the Distribution and Production of Wealth. It is a free platform for the discussion of topics bearing upon the social well-being of the people, and affords an opportunity for the expression of every view of Co-operation which commends itself as thoughtful and sincere.

It aims at becoming *the paper* for the working man, by embracing every subject interesting to him in his daily life.

The importance of maintaining a vehicle for the conveyance of co-operative intelligence cannot be over-rated. Each society is invited to become a shareholder, and every individual co-operator is solicited to subscribe.

The *News* may be had by application to any Bookseller, through the Local Stores, or from the Offices of the Society, 88 and 90, Corporation Street, Manchester, and 35, Russell Street, Covent Garden, London, W.C.

PRICE ONE PENNY WEEKLY.

Sold at many of the Stores at One Halfpenny.

THE
CO-OPERATIVE INSURANCE COMPANY
 LIMITED.

ESTABLISHED 1867.

HEAD OFFICES:

CITY BUILDINGS, CORPORATION STREET, MANCHESTER.

PRINCIPAL AGENCIES:

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED,

119, PAISLEY ROAD, GLASGOW;

AND EACH BRANCH OF THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

Directors:

CHAIRMAN—MR. WILLIAM BARNETT, Macclesfield.

MR. WM. BAMFORTH, Manchester.

MR. TITUS HALL, Bradford.

MR. W. A. HILTON, Bolton.

MR. ROBERT HOLT, Rochdale.

MR. A. MILLER, Tillicoultry, N.B.

MR. E. V. NEALE, Bisham Abbey.

MR. T. WOOD, Manchester.

Auditors:

MR. A. HACKNEY, Bolton, and MR. J. E. LORD, Rochdale.

Manager:

MR. JAMES ODGERS, Manchester.

Bankers:

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

ALMOST immediately after the establishment of the Co-operative Wholesale Society, the representatives of co-operative societies, at their periodical conferences, began to consider the advisability of having an insurance institution of their own.

Insurance was not, at that time, included among the objects for which societies might be registered under the Industrial and Provident Societies Act.

On August 29th, 1867, however, the Co-operative Insurance Company Limited was incorporated under the Companies Act, with its Registered Office at the Equitable Pioneers' Society's Stores, in Toad Lane, Rochdale; with the following objects, viz:—

1. To Insure against Damage by Fire any Property, whether belonging to any member of the Company or not.
2. To guarantee the honesty of persons employed by Co-operative Societies.
3. To Insure the Lives of Members of Co-operative Societies.
4. To do all such other things as are incidental or conducive to the attainment of the above objects.

The first Fire Policy was issued on February 21st, 1868, and the first Fidelity Guarantee Policy was issued on June 25th, 1869. Towards the end of 1871 the Company's Office was removed to Manchester, and in 1872 it began to appoint agents.

At the eighteenth Annual Meeting, held on February 27th, 1886, it was resolved to carry into effect the third object for which the Company was registered, viz., "To Insure the Lives of Members of Co-operative Societies."

Tables of Premiums were promptly prepared,—the prospectus of the Life Department was distributed at the Plymouth Congress in Whit-week, and the first Life Policy was issued on August 14th, 1886.

The following statement shows the Progress of the Company to the end of 1887:—

YEAR.	No. of Society Shareholders.	SHARE CAPITAL. Shares—£1 each.		Fire Insurances.		Fidelity Guarantee.		Life Insurance.		Funds in excess of Paid-up Capital.
		Subscribed.	Paid up.	Premiums after Deducing Re-Insurances.	Losses.	Pre-miums.	Losses.	Pre-miums.	Claims.	
		£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1868	Seven months only—			included with	next year.					
1869	41	1,715	503	208	6	67	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.	187
1870	41	1,715	524	157	1	123	378
1871	42	4,216	1,008	173	Nil.	162	597
1872	46	6,468	1,514	256	62	253	961
1873	51	9,494	2,204	369	28	392	3	1,488
1874	64	10,706	2,868	571	29	449	200	1,793
1875	71	11,314	3,855	1,074	1,861	559	Nil.	1,508
1876	89	11,877	4,171	1,725	39	457	3,191
1877	96	12,365	4,590	3,923	1,613	525	270	4,887
1878	109	13,208	5,404	6,342	6,933	399	Nil.	3,139
1879	128	15,996	6,475	5,220	3,888	568	23	3,662
1880	144	17,698	10,289	3,393	3,403	543	50	3,093
1881	169	19,377	10,518	3,061	2,738	541	402	2,841
1882	180	20,170	10,587	2,829	1,741	536	692	2,730
1883	194	22,985	11,110	3,111	2,275	551	277	2,998
1884	204	23,760	11,243	3,451	461	620	286	5,065
1885	236	26,475	11,728	4,424	2,463	777	1132	5,356
1886	260	29,020	12,227	4,711	1,117	699	300	118	..	7,353
1887	268	30,540	12,467	5,590	1,387	803	794	613	..	10,024

LIFE DEPARTMENT.

Although the Company was established three years before the Life Assurance Companies Act, 1870, was passed, the following requirements by that Act apply to the Company, and increase the

SECURITY OF POLICY-HOLDERS.

"A separate account shall be kept of all receipts in respect of the life assurance contracts of the Company, and the said receipts shall be carried to and form a separate fund, to be called the Life Assurance Fund of the Company, and such fund shall be as absolutely the security of the life policy-holders as though it belonged to a company carrying on no other business than life assurance, and shall not be liable for any contracts of the Company for which it would not have been liable had the business of the Company been only that of Life Assurance."

The Company's insurances on lives take effect for the full amount from the moment when the first premium has been paid; and all reasonable facilities are given to the insured to prevent the lapsing of policies through temporary inability to pay the premiums.

SPECIMEN RATES.

PREMIUMS FOR THE INSURANCE OF £100 AT DEATH.

Age next Birthday.	One Premium.	Yearly.	Half-yearly.	Quarterly.	Age next Birthday.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
20	37 8 6	1 15 8	0 18 10	0 10 0	20
25	40 10 2	2 0 4	1 1 3	0 11 3	25
30	43 17 1	2 5 10	1 4 0	0 12 8	30
35	47 11 9	2 12 11	1 7 8	0 14 6	35
40	51 13 3	3 1 8	1 12 1	0 16 8	40
45	56 1 4	3 12 10	1 17 9	0 19 7	45
50	60 17 5	4 7 6	2 5 4	1 3 4	50

NOTE.—Persons who prefer to be free from liability to pay renewal premiums after attaining the age of 55, 60, or 65, can be insured under the corresponding Tables.

PREMIUMS FOR THE INSURANCE OF £100 AT AGE 60 OR AT DEATH, IF THAT EVENT SHOULD OCCUR EARLIER.

Age next Birthday.	One Premium.	Yearly.	Half-yearly.	Quarterly.	Age next Birthday.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
20	43 1 2	2 5 2	1 3 11	0 12 11	20
25	47 5 0	2 12 10	1 7 10	0 14 10	25
30	51 19 2	3 3 0	1 12 11	0 17 5	30
35	57 7 1	3 17 1	2 0 3	1 1 1	35
40	63 11 7	4 17 11	2 10 9	1 6 6	40
45	70 14 4	6 11 3	3 8 1	1 15 3	45
50	79 11 4	9 14 11	5 1 4	2 12 3	50

The rates of premium for insurances effected at intermediate ages, and for insurances payable on the attainment of age 50, 55, or 65, and at the death of the first of two lives insured jointly, will be supplied on application.

Policies insuring £25, £50, and £75 are issued for proportionate parts of the Premium for £100, subject to the limitation that no Life Policy is issued for a less premium than Five Shillings.

ONE-PREMIUM POLICIES.

A fully paid up Policy, insuring an amount payable at death or at age 50, 55, 60, or 65, may be obtained on payment of One Premium at the time of the acceptance of the proposal.

This method of Insurance is particularly suitable for those members of co-operative societies who have already saved some money.

MARRIED WOMEN'S PROPERTY ACT.

ASSURANCES IN VARIOUS FORMS MAY BE EFFECTED UNDER THIS ACT.

IMMEDIATE PAYMENT OF CLAIMS.

Claims are payable *immediately after proof of death and title* have been lodged at the Office and passed by the Directors.

THE PROFITS OF THE LIFE DEPARTMENT ARE DIVISIBLE EXCLUSIVELY WITH THE LIFE POLICY-HOLDERS.

To make Insurance as cheap as possible, the costly work of house-to-house collection of Premiums as practised by Industrial Life Offices must be dispensed with. If the members of stores will invest their savings therein, and pay the Premiums quarterly, half-yearly, or yearly, instead of weekly or monthly, the expenses will only be about half, or less than half as much as are charged in the premiums of Industrial Life Offices.

FIRE DEPARTMENT.

Insurances against Loss or Damage by Fire, IN GREAT BRITAIN, are effected on Dwelling-houses, Schools, Public Buildings, Churches, Chapels, Co-operative Stores, Shops, Warehouses, Farming Property, Workshops, Mills; and on Goods in Transit on Roads and Railways; Merchandise in Docks, at Wharves, &c.; Vessels in Harbours and in Docks: Vessels in Navigable Rivers and Canals, and their Freight.

Most of the Co-operative Stores in England and many in Scotland and Wales are Insured by the Company. All Societies are invited to Transfer Insurances from other companies to the "Co-operative." The Members of Societies are also invited to propose their Property for Insurance.

Most persons in business insure their STOCK-IN-TRADE, but a very large proportion of the PROPERTY IN PRIVATE DWELLINGS IS UNINSURED.

Probably many Householders are not aware that the cost of insurance does not ordinarily amount to more than ONE THOUSANDTH PART of the value of the Property Insured. In other words, they would be ONE THOUSAND YEARS in paying to the Company what the Company engages to pay them at once, if their Property be destroyed or damaged by Fire.

When the accidents which frequently happen to the most cautious are considered in connection with the carelessness which is generally to be found in some members of a family, and when to this is added the risk arising from the like cause in Property on each side of us, it appears almost rashness to neglect a Security, the cost of which is so trivial.

The subjoined Table is given as illustrating the small payments that are now required for Insurance on the BUILDINGS OF BRICK-BUILT PRIVATE HOUSES, AND ON FURNITURE THEREIN, including China, Glass, Pottery, Pictures, Jewellery, Books, Linen, Clothing, &c., &c.:—

SUM ASSURED. ON HOUSES.				SUM ASSURED. ON FURNITURE.			
£	s.	d.	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
100	..	2 0	..	2 0	400	..	6 0
150	..	2 3	..	3 0	500	..	7 6
200	..	3 0	..	4 0	1,000	..	15 0
300	..	4 6	..	6 0			£1

Losses caused by Explosions of Coal-Gas within Private Dwellings Insured by the Company, and by Lightning, will be made good.

FIDELITY GUARANTEE DEPARTMENT.

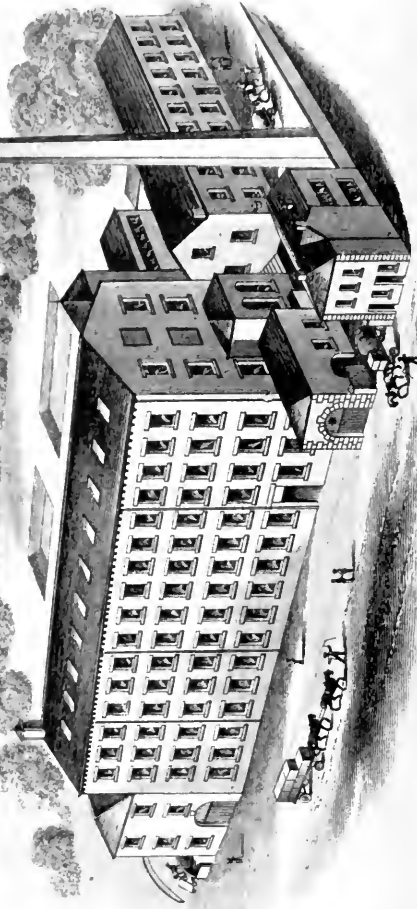
Policies insuring Co-operative Societies against Loss by Acts of Embezzlement or Theft committed by persons employed by them in situations of trust, are issued at rates fixed in accordance with the conditions of risk.

The Company's Policies are accepted by the Local Government Board.

MEMBERSHIP AND AGENCY.

Every Co-operative Society which is not yet a member of the Company is invited to join it as Shareholder, Policy-holder, and Agent. For the more effectual development of the business, especially in the Life Department, a suitable individual agent is also wanted in connection with each society whose members are easily reached, and more than one where the members are distributed over a wide area.

THE LANCASHIRE & YORKSHIRE PRODUCTIVE SOCIETY LIMITED,



Anti-Rheumatic
Flannels.

Domestic
Flannels.

MANUFACTURERS,

Sare Mill Mills, LITTLEBOROUGH, near Manchester.

THE CELEBRATED ECONOMIC FLANNELS.

We beg most respectfully to ask your kind and generous support of the above Society.

The various descriptions of FLANNELS now made are admitted by those who have fully tried them to be unsurpassed in MAKE, WEIGHT, QUALITY, and PRICE.

It is earnestly requested that all Co-operative Societies press the sale of these Flannels amongst their members.

Economy is the order of the day, and we are fully justified in describing the Flannels made at the above mills as

THE CELEBRATED ECONOMIC FLANNELS.

Whenever you are buying be sure and ask for them.

They can be had at any of the following Co-operative Establishments:

1, BALLOON STREET, MANCHESTER.

WATERLOO STREET, NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE.

HOOPER SQUARE, LEMAN STREET, WHITECHAPEL, LONDON.

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY, PAISLEY ROAD, GLASGOW.

AND AT

THE MILLS, HARE HILL ROAD, LITTLEBOROUGH.

THE LANCASHIRE AND YORKSHIRE PRODUCTIVE SOCIETY LIMITED.

STATEMENT SHOWING CONDITION AND PROGRESS OF THE SOCIETY SINCE ITS COMMENCEMENT.

DATE.	Share Redemption Fund.	Share Capital.	LOAN CAPITAL.				Profits.	Losses.	SALES.		
			Co-operative Societies.	Friendly Societies.	Individuals.	Total.			Co-operative.	Merchants.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	
Half-year ending July 11, 1874	..	6195	
" " Jan. 9, 1875	..	6195	..	50	341	391	
" " July 9, 1875	..	6495	2330	868	1234	4432	456	..	1581	16	
" " Jan. 8, 1876	..	6495	2388	920	1273	4581	..	1896	5919	167	
" " July 8, 1876	..	6495	2423	960	1372	4756	..	43	5585	659	
" " Jan. 6, 1877	..	6600	2972	1091	1461	5525	157	..	4838	2827	
" " July 7, 1877	..	6600	2944	1297	1825	6067	..	496	2677	3196	
" " Jan. 5, 1878	..	6600	2946	1382	1723	6051	..	544	3094	4457	
" " June 29, 1878	..	2640	2818	1295	1368	5482	..	1151	2600	3583	
4½ Months ending Nov. 16, 1878	..	2640	2856	1268	1269	5395	..	966	1329	3958	
IN LIQUIDATION.											
1½ Months ending Jan. 4, 1879	..	2640	2876	1277	1278	5432	20	..	473	939	
" " April 5, 1879	..	2640	2912	1293	1294	5499	25	..	1531	1271	
" " July 5, 1879	..	2640	2948	1309	1310	5568	38	..	1546	709	
" " Oct. 4, 1879	..	2640	2985	1325	1326	5637	55	..	1639	172	
" " Jan. 3, 1880	..	2640	3022	1341	1345	5708	92	..	3938	210	
" " April 3, 1880	..	2640	3060	1357	1382	5799	93	..	3276	115	
" " July 3, 1880	..	2640	5406	1373	1511	8290	95	..	3707	204	
" " Oct. 2, 1880	..	2640	5449	1411	1529	8389	84	..	3169	138	
" " Jan. 1, 1881	..	2640	5486	1429	1575	8490	21	..	4286	175	
" " April 2, 1881	..	2640	5528	1448	1611	8587	32	..	3806	143	
" " July 2, 1881	..	2640	5569	1465	1631	8665	19	..	2249	124	
" " Oct. 1, 1881	..	2640	5609	1484	1652	8745	8	..	3893	332	
" " Jan. 7, 1882	..	2640	5651	1502	1723	8876	12	..	3719	592	
" " April 8, 1882	..	2640	5692	1521	1765	8978	12	..	2417	193	
" " July 8, 1882	..	2640	6742	1561	1842	10145	9	..	3225	203	
" " Oct. 7, 1882	..	2640	6797	1580	1858	10235	10	..	5038	754	
" " Jan. 6, 1883	..	2640	6832	1600	1889	10321	12	..	3506	1121	
" " April 7, 1883	..	2640	6876	1620	1913	10409	5	..	3012	570	
" " July 7, 1883	..	2640	6921	1639	1861	10421	13	..	2895	1799	
" " Oct. 6, 1883	..	2640	6966	1662	1850	10478	50	..	4275	1506	
" " Jan. 5, 1884	..	2640	7011	1680	1876	10567	38	..	4546	786	
" " April 5, 1884	..	2640	7057	1712	1897	10666	35	..	4146	190	
" " July 5, 1884	..	2640	7103	1723	1963	10788	32	..	4352	319	
" " Oct. 4, 1884	..	2640	7150	1745	1986	10881	29	..	6253	356	
" " Jan. 3, 1885	..	2640	7198	1766	2011	10975	62	..	5890	317	
" " April 4, 1885	..	2640	7246	1789	2041	11076	26	..	4919	150	
" " July 4, 1885	..	2640	7296	1811	2066	11173	57	..	6350	287	
" " Oct. 3, 1885	..	2640	8346	1834	2090	12270	48	..	6975	741	
" " Jan. 2, 1886	48	2640	8409	1877	2115	12401	73	..	4996	379	
" " April 3, 1886	121	2640	8460	1901	2241	12602	84	..	4680	184	
" " July 3, 1886	155	2640	8511	1924	2269	12704	20	..	4168	856	
" " Oct. 2, 1886	175	2640	8564	1948	2297	12809	51	..	3865	434	
" " Jan. 1, 1887	226	2640	8617	1971	2376	12964	74	..	5935	719	
" " April 2, 1887	300	2640	8672	1995	2390	12997	62	..	3800	462	
" " July 2, 1887	361	2640	8726	2020	2359	13105	31	..	4319	701	
" " Oct. 1, 1887	392	2640	8780	2043	2388	13214	11	..	5465	1154	
" " Jan. 7, 1888	404	2640	8835	2071	2418	13324	2	..	5526	684	
" " April 7, 1888	404	2640	8892	2097	2489	13477	..	198	3336	908	
" " July 9, 1888	207	2640	8949	2123	2573	13651	..	64	1741	1163	

* Share Capital reduced from £1 to 8s. per share.

† Including bad debts of £553, and formation expenses of £269.

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY

LIMITED.

MEETINGS AND OTHER COMING EVENTS IN CONNECTION WITH THE SOCIETY IN 1889.

- Jan. 12—SATURDAY . . . Nomination Lists : Last day for receiving.
- Feb. 19—TUESDAY . . . Voting Lists : Last day for receiving.
- Feb. 23—SATURDAY . . . Newcastle and London Branch Quarterly Meetings.
- Mar. 2—SATURDAY . . . General Quarterly Meeting—Manchester.
- Mar. 23—SATURDAY . . . Quarter Day.
- April 13—SATURDAY . . . Nomination Lists : Last day for receiving.
- May 21—TUESDAY . . . Voting Lists : Last day for receiving.
- May 25—SATURDAY . . . Newcastle and London Branch Quarterly Meetings.
- June 1—SATURDAY . . . General Quarterly Meeting—Manchester.
- June 22—SATURDAY . . . Quarter Day.
- July 13—SATURDAY . . . Nomination Lists : Last day for receiving.
- Aug. 27—TUESDAY . . . Voting Lists : Last day for receiving.
- Aug. 31—SATURDAY . . . Newcastle and London Branch Quarterly Meetings.
- Sept. 7—SATURDAY . . . General Quarterly Meeting—Manchester.
- Sept. 21—SATURDAY . . . Quarter Day.
- Oct. 12—SATURDAY . . . Nomination Lists : Last day for receiving.
- Nov. 26—TUESDAY . . . Voting Lists : Last day for receiving.
- Nov. 30—SATURDAY . . . Newcastle and London Branch Quarterly Meetings.
- Dec. 7—SATURDAY . . . General Quarterly Meeting—Manchester.
- Dec. 21—SATURDAY . . . Quarter Day.

CO-OPERATIVE CONGRESSES.

No.	Year.	Date of Opening.	Where Held.	PREMIDENTS.		
				First Day. Inaugural Address delivered by	Second Day.	Third Day.
1	1869	May 31	London: Society of Arts, John Street, Adelphi.....	T. Hughes, M.P. ...	A. J. Mundella, M.P.	W. Morrison, M.P.
2	1870	June 6	Manchester: Memorial Hall	W. Morrison, M.P. [bert, M.P.]	Rev. W. N. Molesworth, M.A.	J. T. Hibbert, M.P.
3	1871	April 10	Birmingham: Midland Institute	Hon. Anberon Her.	C. Cattle	W. Morrison, M.P.
4	1872	" 1	Bolton: Co-operative Hall	T. Hughes, M.P. ...	E. V. Neale	W. Morrison, M.P.
5	1873	" 12	Newcastle: Mechanics' Institute	Joseph Cowen, jun.	W. Morrison, M.P.	T. Hughes, M.P.
6	1874	" 6	Hullfax: Mechanics' Hall	Thos. Brassay, M.P.	W. Morrison.....	W. Morrison.
7	1875	March 29	London: Co-operative Institute	Professor Thorold Rogers.	T. Hughes, Q.C. ...	W. Morrison.
8	1876	April 17	Glasgow: Assembly-rooms, 138, Bath Street.....	Professor Caird.	G. Anderson, M.P.	Baillie Collins.
9	1877	" 2	Leicester: Museum Hall	Professor Hodgson. Hon. Anberon Herbert.	Lloyd Jones.....	Abraham Greenwood.
10	1878	" 22	Manchester: Co-operative Hall, Downing Street ..	Marquis of Ripon...	Bishop of Mendis't'r.	Dr. John Watts.
11	1879	" 14	Gloucester: Corn Exchange	Professor Stuart ..	J. T. W. Mitchell..	James Crabtree.
12	1880	May 17	Newcastle-on-Tyne: Bath Lane Schoolroom	Bishop of Durham.	R. S. Watson	H. R. Bailey.
13	1881	June 6	Leeds: Albert Hall	Lord Derby	T. Hughes, Q.C. ...	James Crabtree.
14	1882	May 29	Oxford: Town Hall	Lord Reay	Councillor Pumphrey.	George Hines.
15	1883	" 14	Edinburgh: Oddfellows' Hall	Right Hon. W. E. Baxter, M.P.	Wm. Maxwell	John Allan. [Lincoln.]
16	1884	June 2	Derby: Lecture Hall, Wardwick	Sedley Taylor	A. Scotton	Councillor Hartley,
17	1885	May 25	Oldham: Co-operative Hall, King Street	Lloyd Jones.....	F. Hardern	Lewis Feber.
18	1886	June 14	Plymouth: Guildhall	Earl of Morley.....	A. H. D. Acland, M.P.	J. H. Young.
19	1887	May 30	Carlisle: Her Majesty's Theatre.....	G. J. Holyoake ..	Sir Wilfrid Lawson, M.P.	Councillor Rule.
20	1888	" 21	Dewsbury: Industrial Hall	E. V. Neale	Marquis of Ripon...	Jno. Cave, Junr.


* Professor Caird presided at this Congress; the inaugural address was delivered by Professor Hodgson. In all other cases the chairman for the day delivered the inaugural address.

THE

SCOTTISH

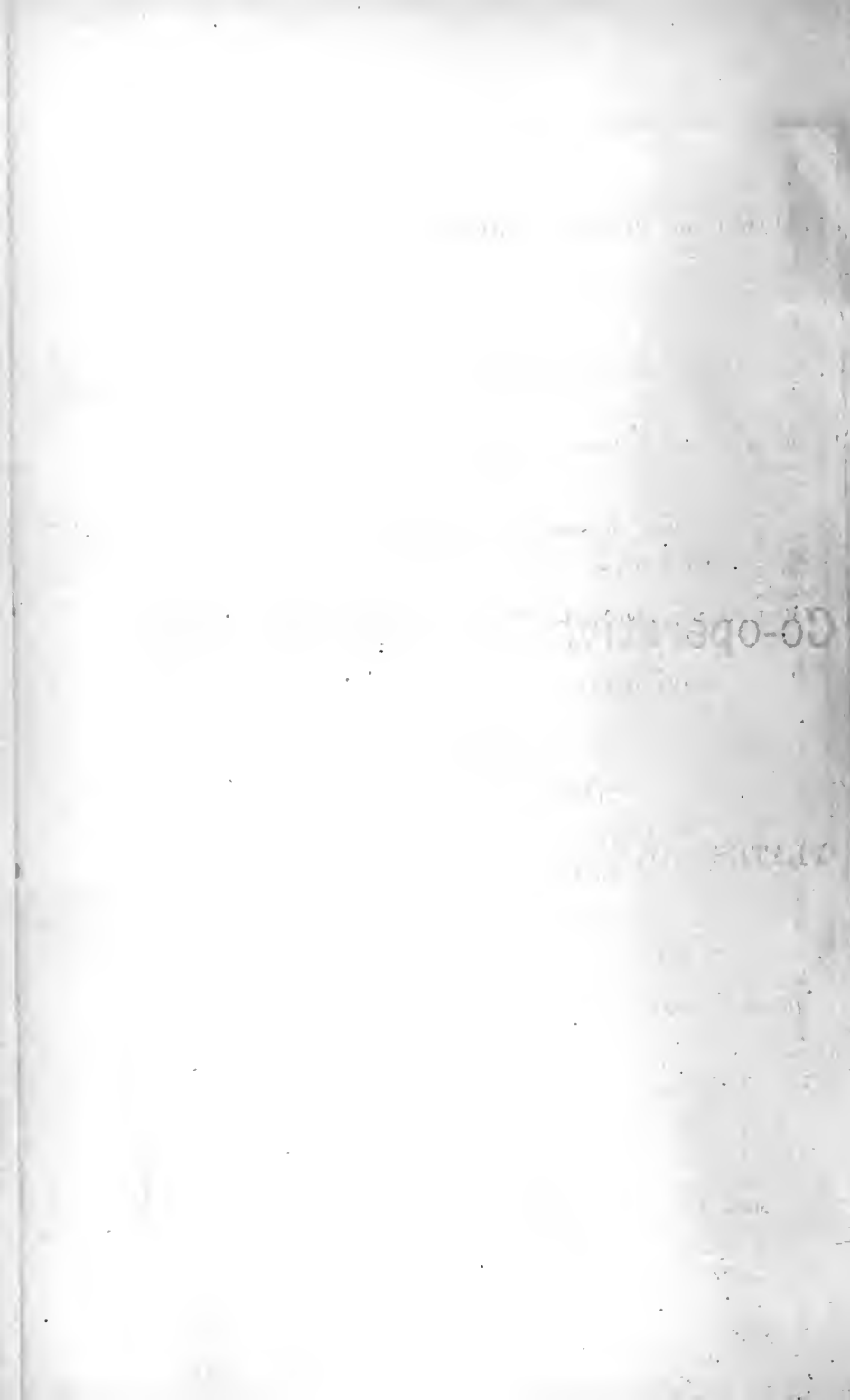
Co-operative Wholesale Society

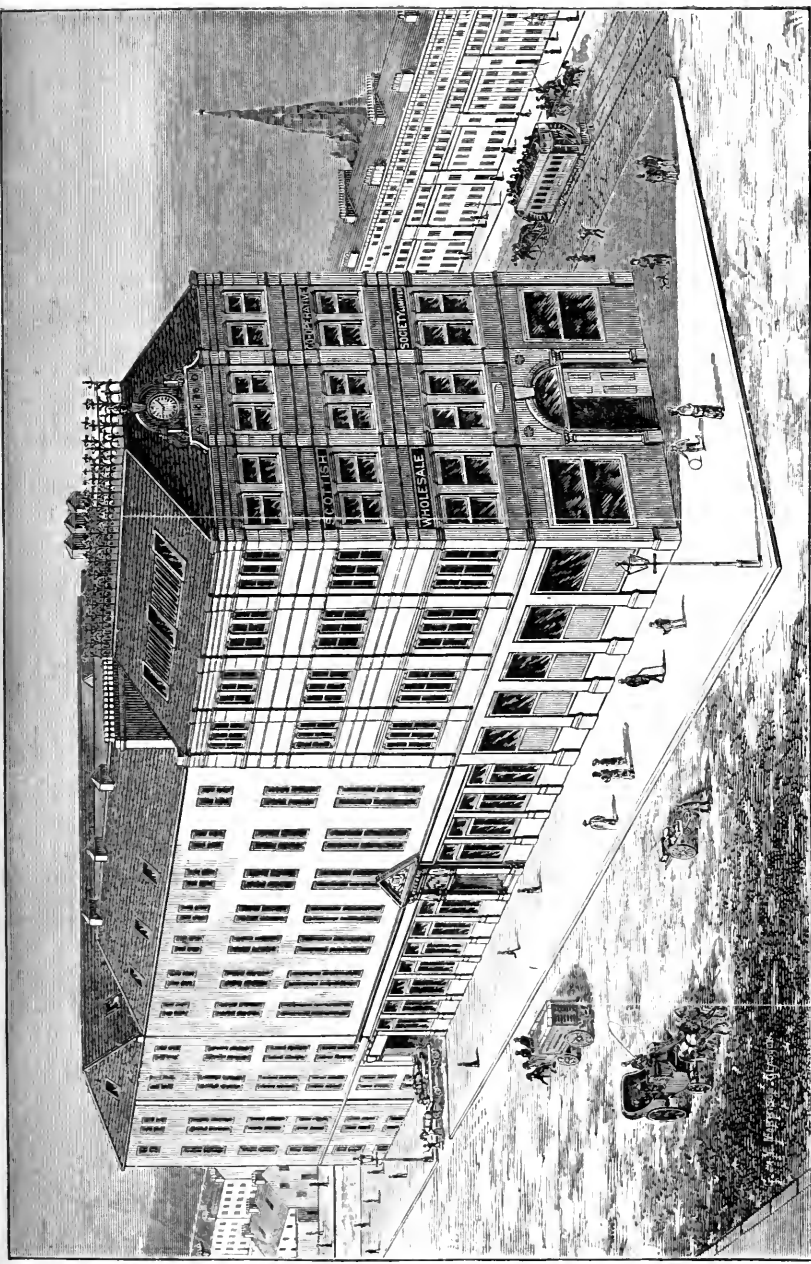
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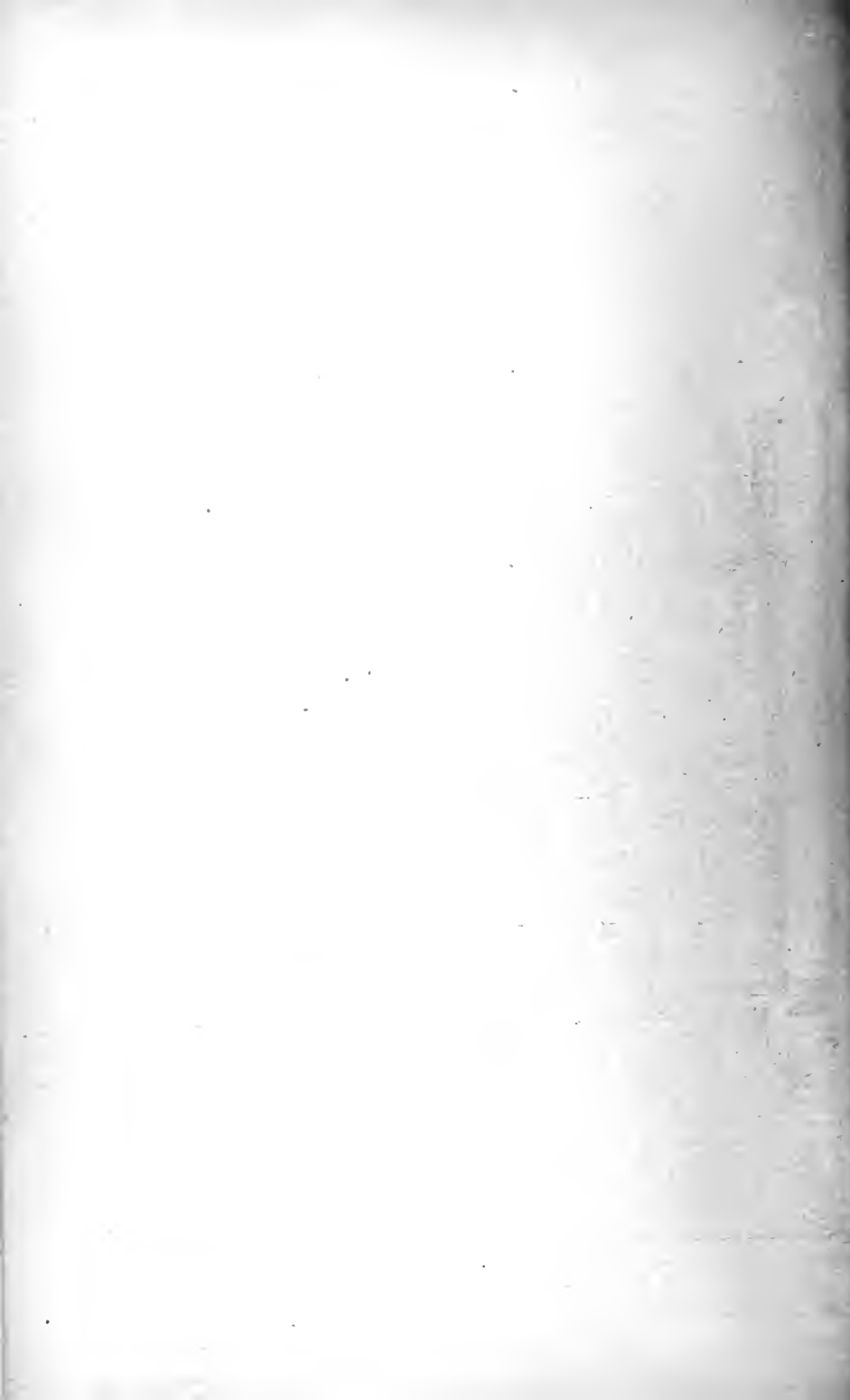
PLATES, ADVERTISEMENTS, STATISTICS, &c.

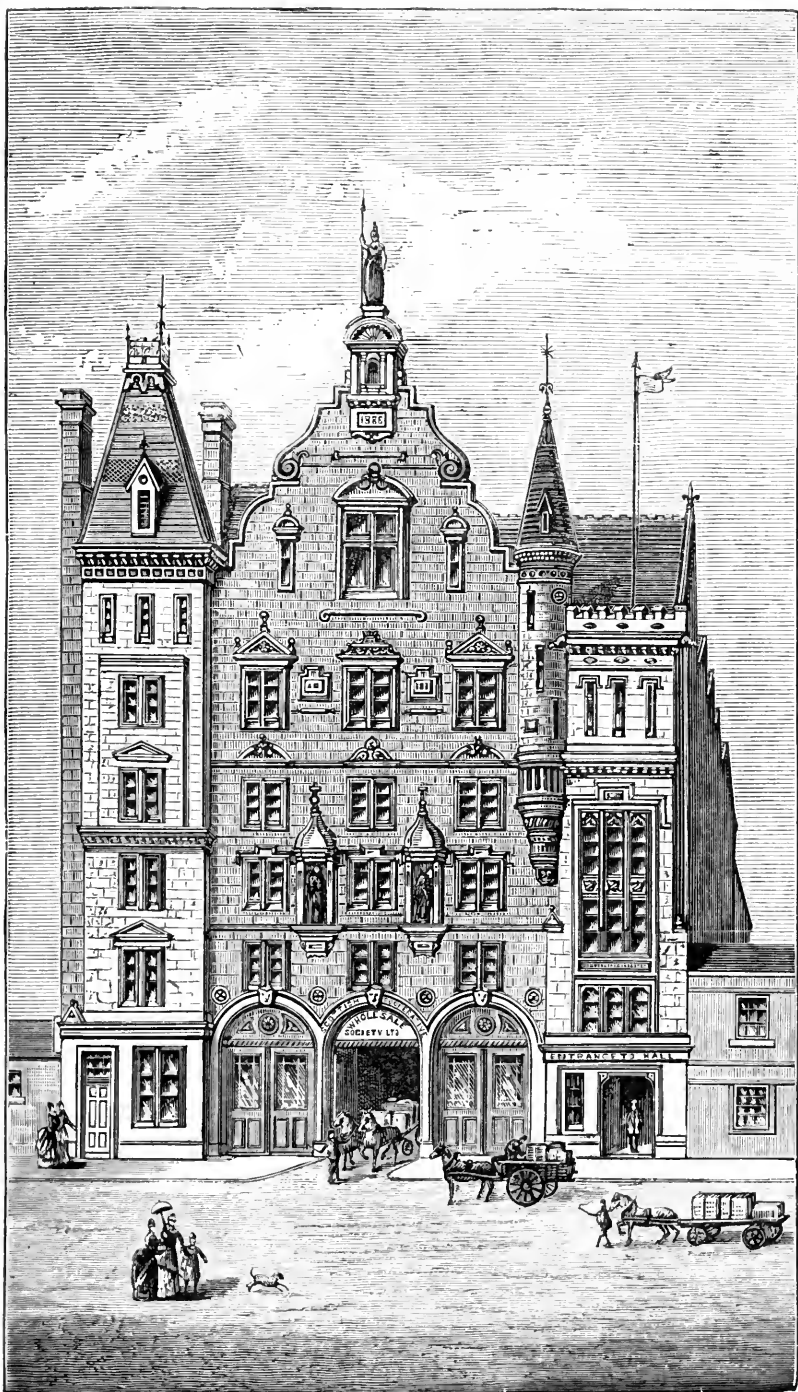
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REGISTERED OFFICE, GROCERY AND PROVISION, AND DRAPERY WAREHOUSES, 119, PAISLEY ROAD, GLASGOW.—See pages 136 to 136, 145-6 150 to 152.





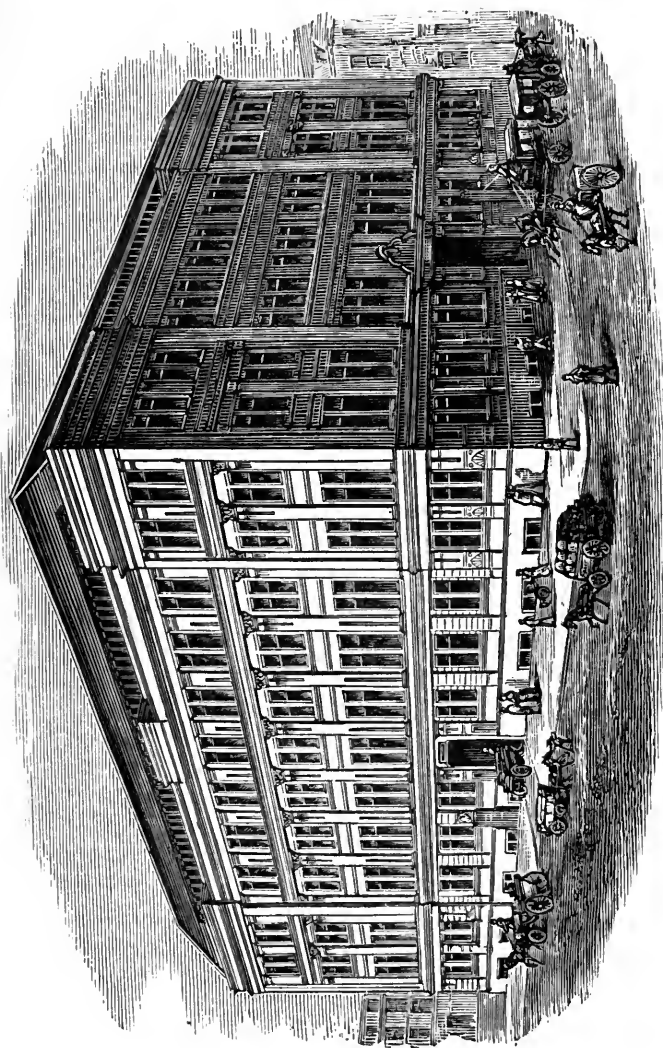
GLASGOW GROCERY AND PROVISION WAREHOUSE AND HALL, CLARENCE STREET,
See pages 139 to 136, 145-6.



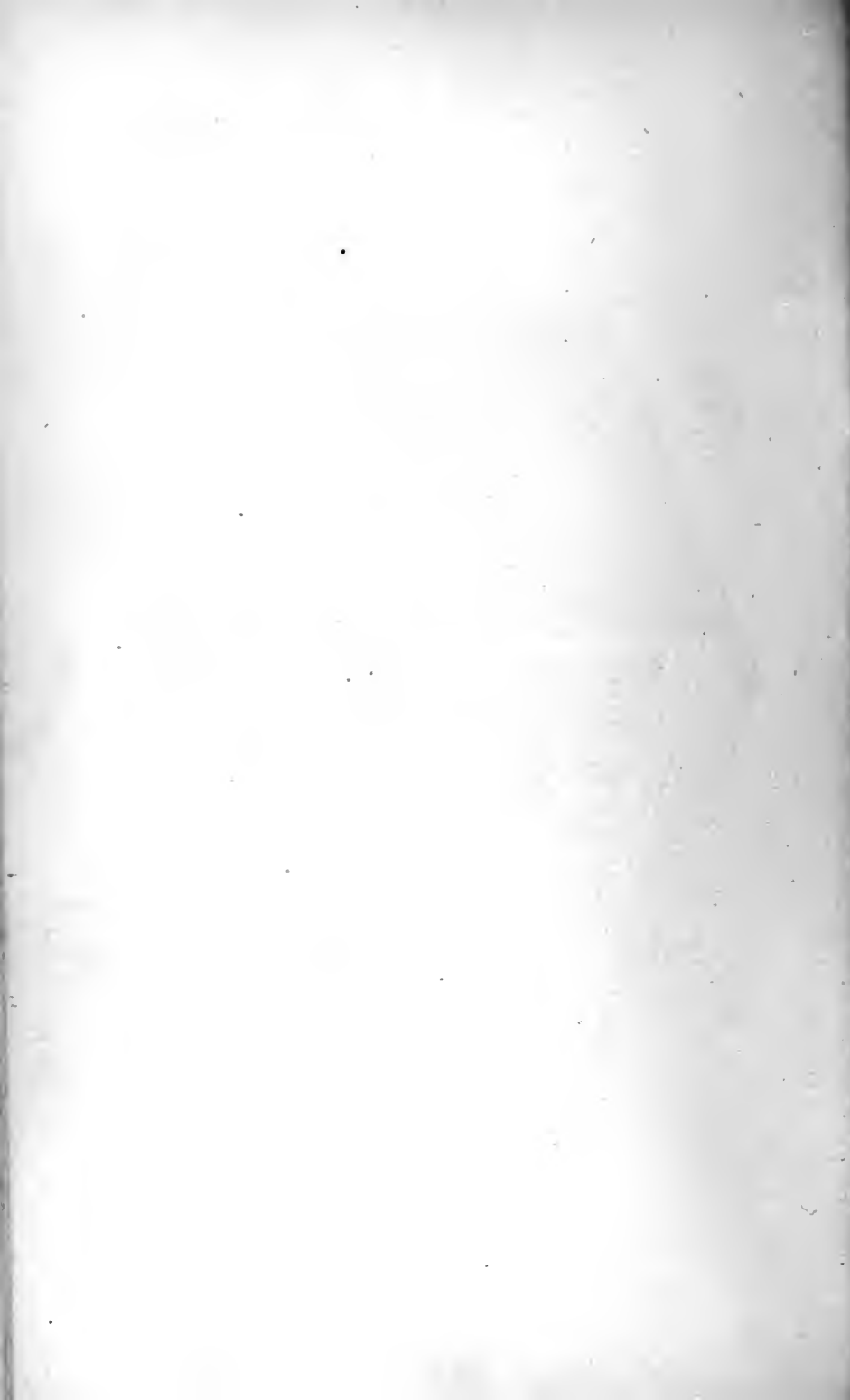


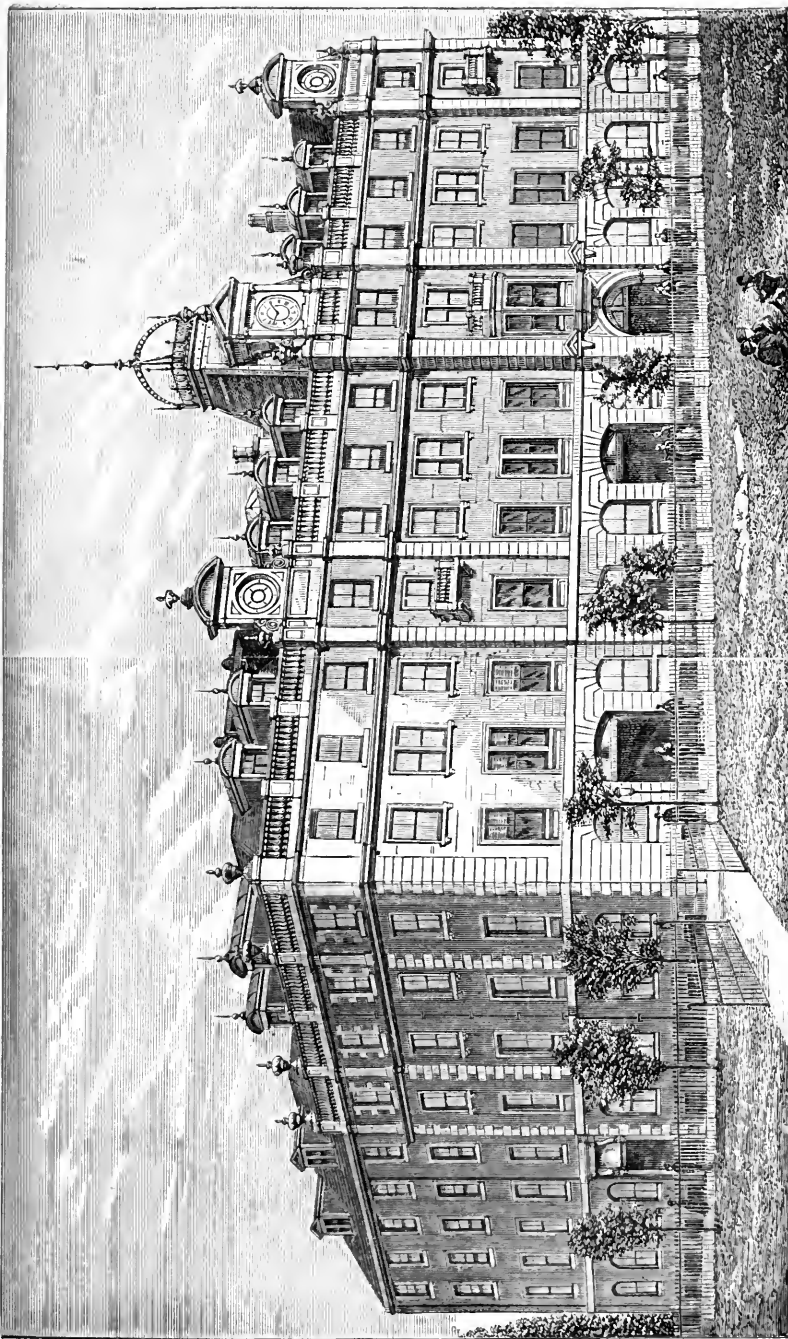
PLAN OF INTERIOR OF CO-OPERATIVE HALL, CLARENCE STREET GLASGOW.





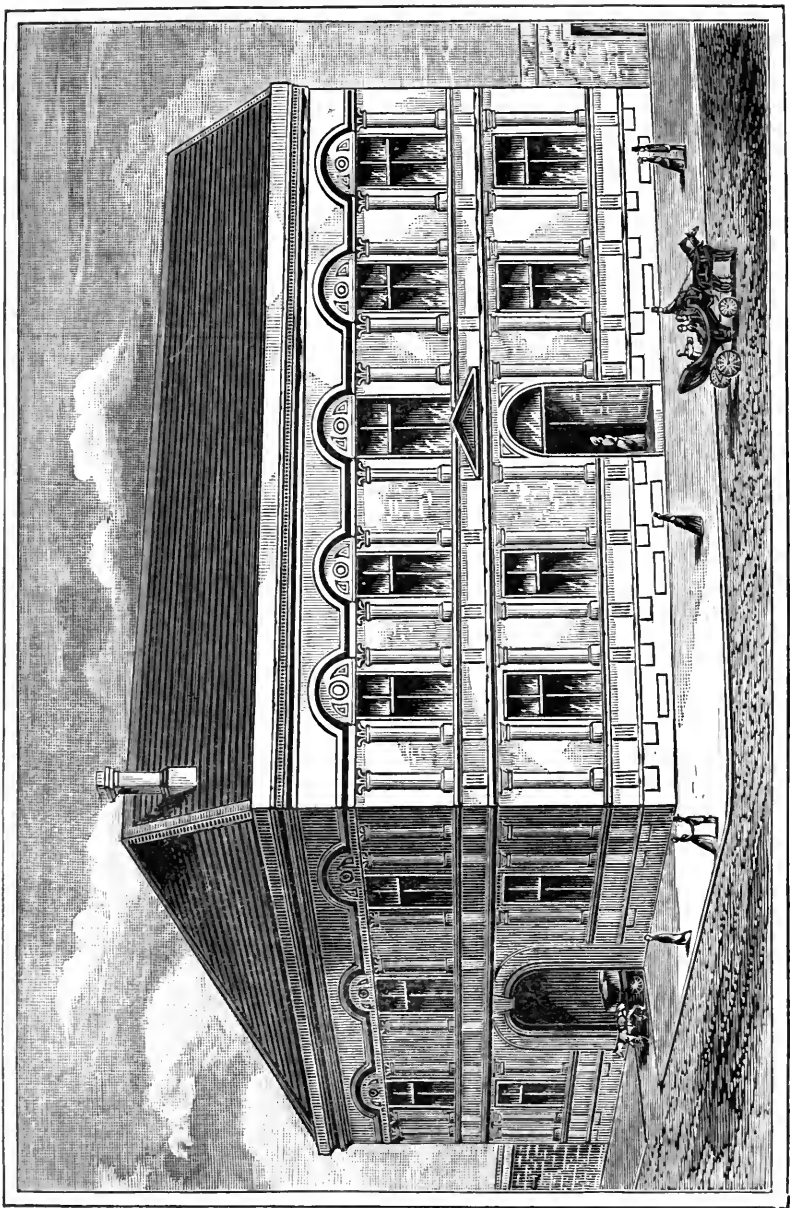
GLASGOW BOOT AND SHOE AND FURNITURE WAREHOUSES, DUNDAS STREET.
See pages 157 to 160.





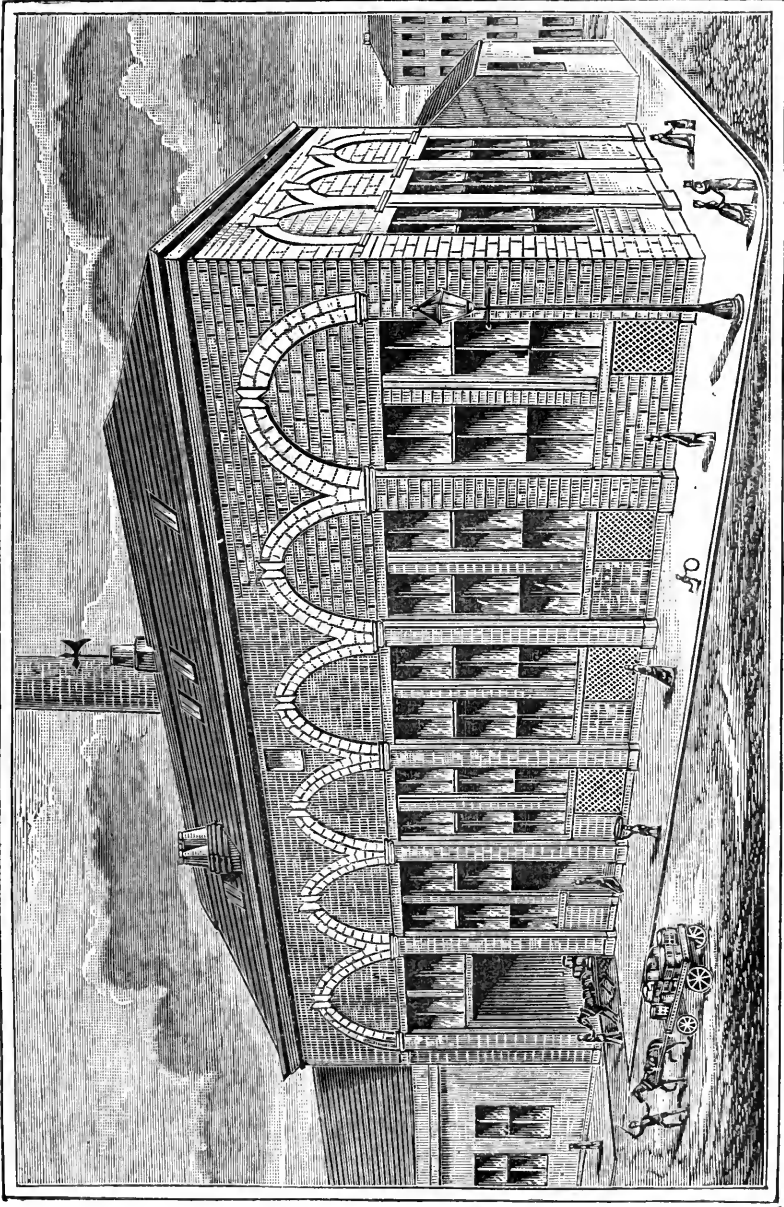
LEITH GROCERY AND PROVISION WAREHOUSE, LINKS PLACE.—See page 147.



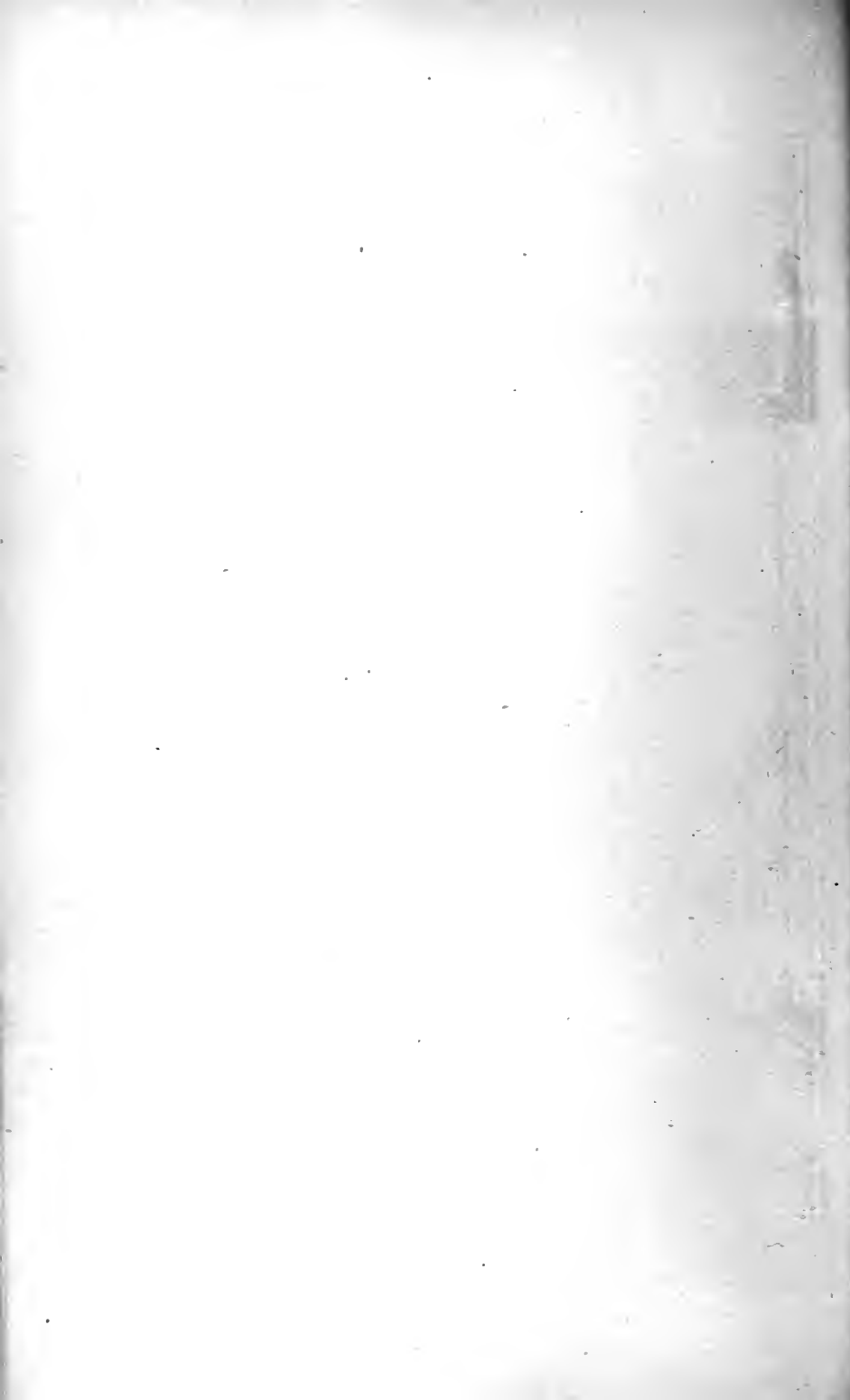


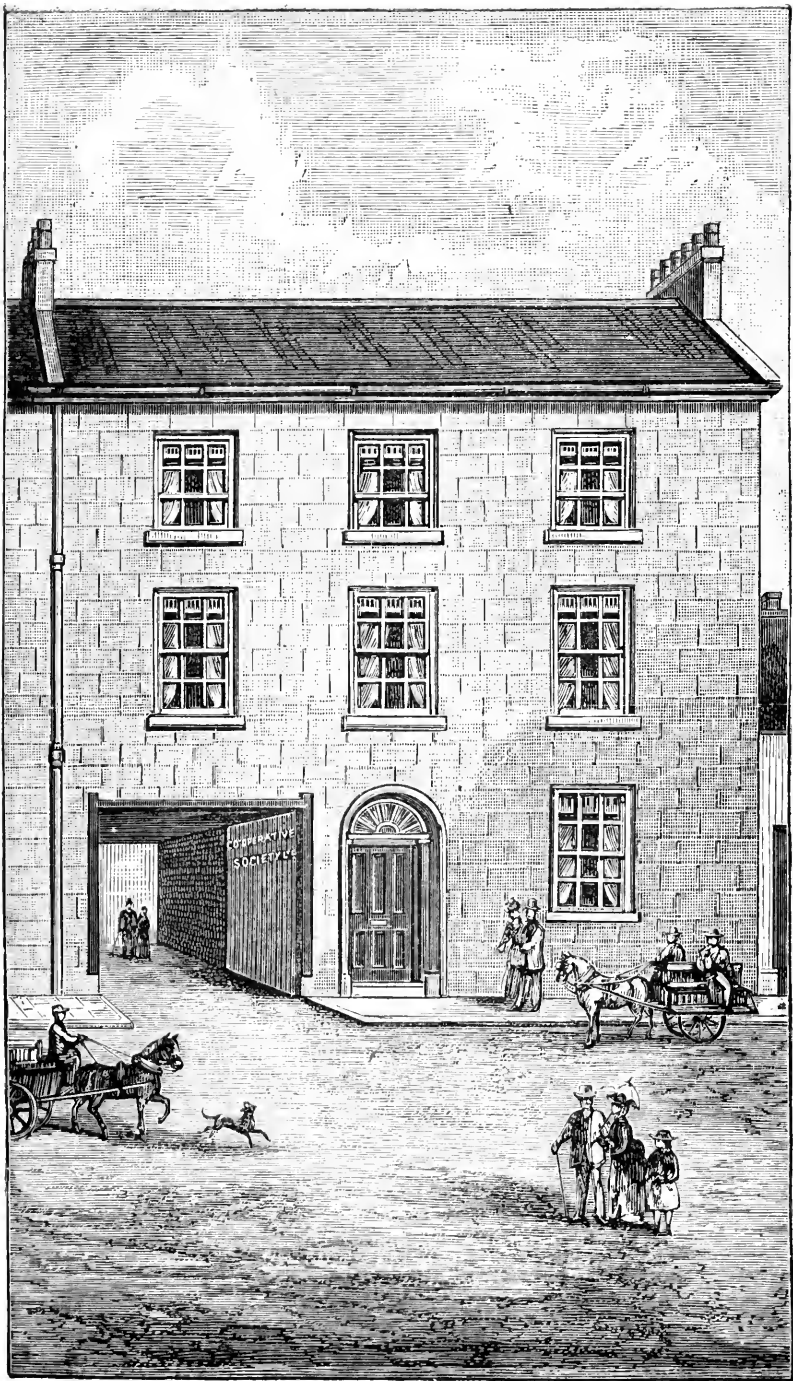
KILMARNOCK GROCERY AND PROVISION WAREHOUSE, GRANGE PLACE.—See page 143.



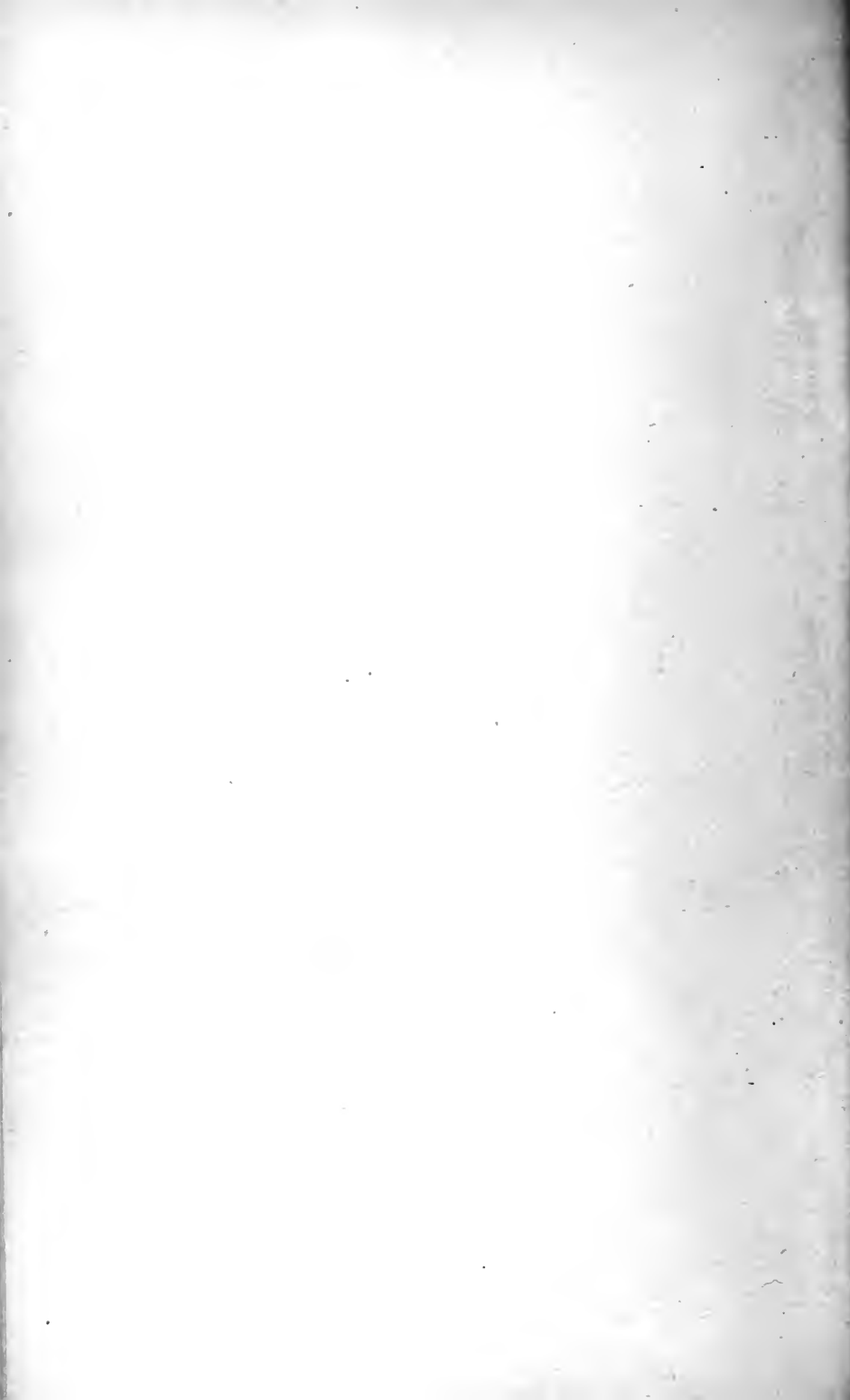


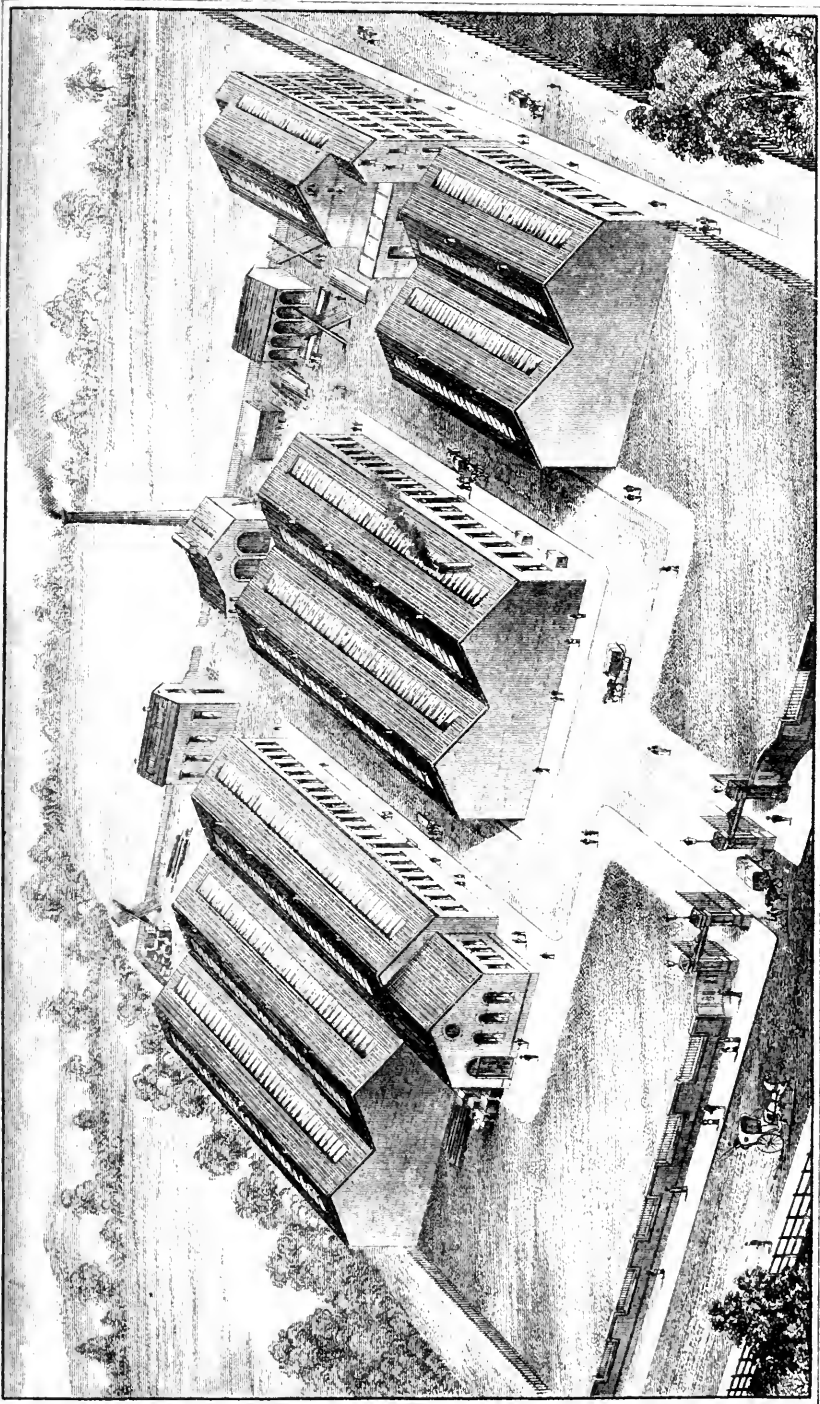
DUNDEE GROCERY AND PROVISION WAREHOUSE, TRADES LANE.—See page 149.



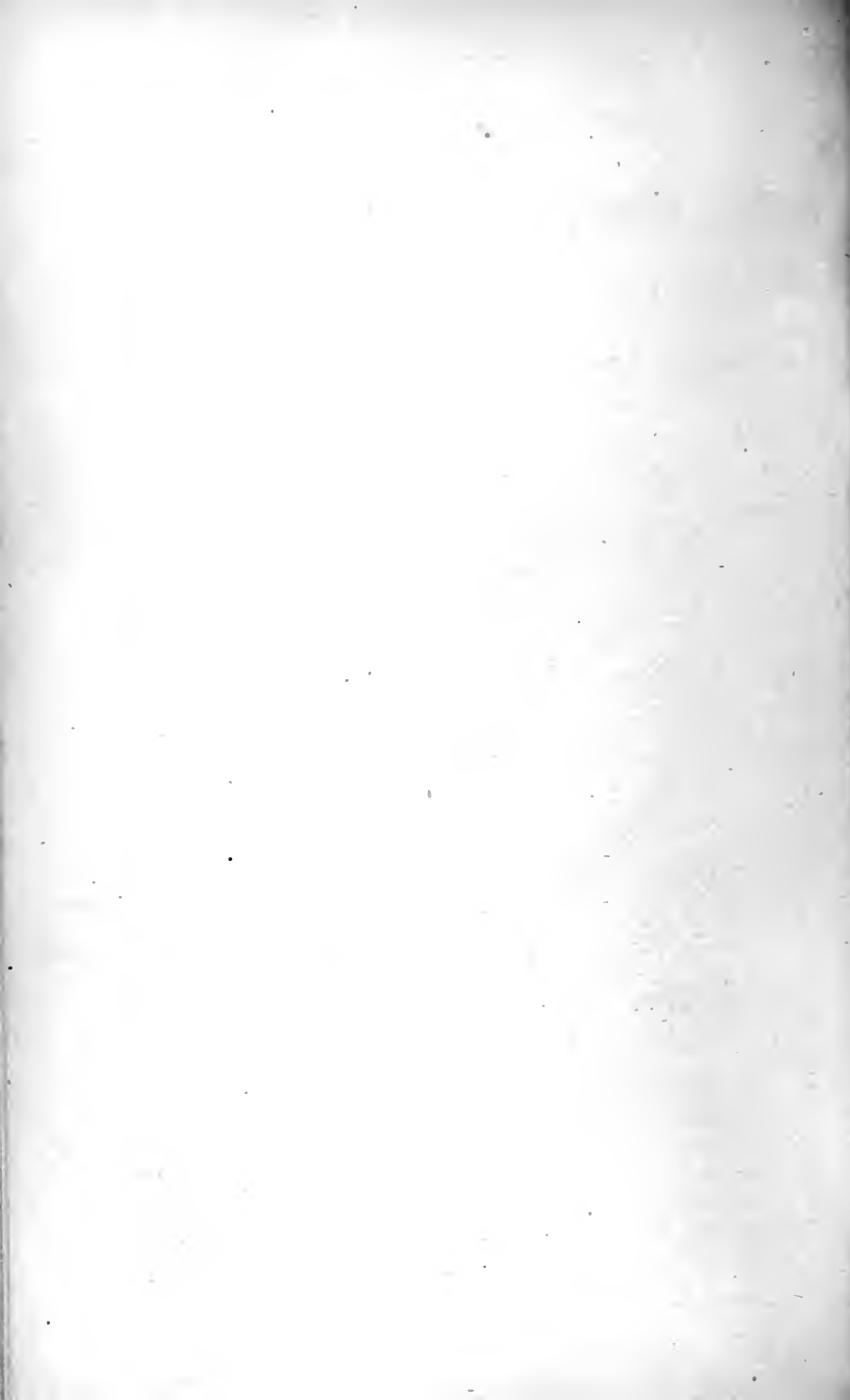


ENNISKILLEN DEPOT.—BUTTER, EGGS, AND BACON.





PRODUCTIVE WORKS, SHIELDHALL, NEAR GOVAN, GLASGOW.



SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

Enrolled 20th April, 1868, under the provisions of the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, 20th August, 1867, 30 and 31 Vict., cap. 117, sec. 4.

BUSINESS COMMENCED 8th SEPTEMBER, 1868.

REGISTERED OFFICE, GROCERY AND PROVISION, AND DRAPERY WAREHOUSES:

119, PAISLEY ROAD, GLASGOW.

BOOT AND SHOE AND FURNITURE WAREHOUSE:

DUNDAS STREET, GLASGOW.

BOOT AND SHOE FACTORY, CLOTHING FACTORY, CABINET WORKSHOP, AND

PRINTING WORKSHOP:

SHIELDHALL, NEAR GOVAN, GLASGOW.

BRANCHES:

LINKS PLACE, LEITH.

GRANGE PLACE, KILMARNOCK.

TRADES LANE, DUNDEE.

ENNISKILLEN, IRELAND.

TEA AND COFFEE DEPARTMENT:

HOOPER SQUARE, LEMAN STREET, WHITECHAPEL, LONDON.

BANKERS:

THE UNION BANK OF SCOTLAND LIMITED.

HEAD OFFICES:

GLASGOW:

Ingram Street.

MANAGER:

CHARLES GAIRDNER.

LONDON:

62, Cornhill, E.C.

MANAGER:

JOHN A. FRADGLEY.

EDINBURGH:

George Street.

MANAGER:

HENRY HAY NORIE.

**SCOTTISH
CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.**

GENERAL COMMITTEE.

PRESIDENT :

MR. WILLIAM MAXWELL, 36, Woodburn Terrace, Morningside, Edinburgh.

SECRETARY :

MR. ANDREW MILLER, Moss Road, Tillicoultry.

DIRECTORS :

MR. ANDREW M'EWEN14, Priory Place, Perth.
MR. DANIEL THOMSON56, Campbell Street, Dunfermline.
MR. JOHN BARR35, Leven Street, Dumbarton.
MR. JOHN COMBE3, Wellgate Place, Hawick.
MR. JOHN ARTHUR4, Barclay Street, Paisley.
MR. ALEX. SIFTON.....Co-operative Society, West Calder.
MR. DANIEL WILSONClifton Cottage, Bo'ness.
MR. WM. BARCLAY.....101, Cathcart Street, Glasgow.
MR. THOS. LITTLE3, Hall Street, Galashiels.
MR. JOHN PEARSONLudgate Place, Alloa.

SUB-COMMITTEES.

FINANCE :

MR. WILLIAM MAXWELL. | **MR. ANDREW MILLER.**
MR. DANIEL THOMSON.

BUILDING :

MR. WILLIAM MAXWELL. | **MR. ANDREW M'EWEN.**
MR. ANDREW MILLER. | **MR. THOMAS LITTLE.**

PRODUCTION :

MR. JOHN BARR. | **MR. THOMAS LITTLE.**
MR. JOHN PEARSON.

DRAPERY :

MR. ALEX. SIFTON. | **MR. DANIEL WILSON.**
MR. WILLIAM BARCLAY.

GROCERY :

MR. JOHN ARTHUR. | **MR. ANDREW M'EWEN.**
MR. JOHN COMBE.

AUDITORS.

MR. JOHN ALEXANDER, Paisley. | **MR. JOHN MILLEN, Rutherglen.**
MR. JAMES INGLIS, Paisley.

SCOTTISH
CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.

MANAGER.

MR. JAMES MARSHALL, GLASGOW.

CASHIER:

MR. ALLAN GRAY, GLASGOW.

ACCOUNTANT.

MR. ROBERT MACINTOSH, GLASGOW.

BUYERS, SALESMEN, &c.

GROCERY AND PROVISION DEPARTMENTS.

Mr. E. ROSS	GLASGOW.
Mr. J. MACDONALD.....	GLASGOW.
Mr. R. REYBURN.....	GLASGOW.
Mr. W. F. STEWART	LEITH.
Mr. PETER ROBERTSON	LEITH.
Mr. JAMES BLACK	KILMARNOCK.
Mr. W. LAIRD	KILMARNOCK.
Mr. J. BARROWMAN	DUNDEE.
Mr. WM. WHYTE	ENNISKILLEN.
Mr. CHARLES FIELDING (Tea)	LONDON.
Mr. JOHN M'INTYRE (Potatoes)	GLASGOW.
Mr. JOHN WHITE (Potatoes).....	LEITH.
Mr. N. ANDERSON (Traveller)	GLASGOW.
Mr. WM. DUNCAN (Cattle Buyer)	GLASGOW.

DRAPERY DEPARTMENT.

Mr. DAVID GARDINER	GLASGOW.
Mr. J. D. STEWART (Traveller)	GLASGOW.
Mr. JAMES WARDROP (Traveller)	GLASGOW.
Mr. ALEX. L. SCOTT (Boot and Shoe Factory)	GLASGOW.
Mr. WILLIAM MILLER ² (Furniture)	GLASGOW.
Mr. R. A. BROWN (Furniture Traveller)	GLASGOW.
Mr. DAVID CAMPBELL (Printing)	GLASGOW.

SCOTTISH
CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.

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*Registered Office:* 119, PAISLEY ROAD, GLASGOW.

*Branches:* LINKS PLACE, LEITH; GRANGE PLACE, KILMARNOCK; TRADES LANE, DUNDEE; ENNISKILLEN, IRELAND; HOOPER SQUARE, LEMAN STREET, WHITECHAPEL, LONDON.

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BUSINESS ARRANGEMENTS.

Societies or Companies Registered (to which our trade is strictly confined) desirous of opening an account with this Society, will please forward a copy of the registered Rules and latest issued balance sheet. If newly started, a statement showing the number of members; value of shares; amount subscribed for and paid up; weekly turn-over expected; also, if credit is allowed, the amount per member in proportion to the capital paid up. The information forwarded will be carefully considered, and if found satisfactory, goods will be supplied on the usual business terms.

CASH PAYMENTS.

Besides the usual invoice sent with each consignment of goods, a weekly statement of accounts (see page 88), is sent to each society, so that there may be no delay in remitting the amount due for the month, the limit of credit allowed by this Society. Interest at the rate of 5 per cent per annum is charged on all over-due accounts, and by a resolution adopted at a general meeting of the members, the committee of management are instructed and empowered to examine the books of defaulting societies and take the necessary steps to protect the interest of the federated societies.

BUSINESS NOTICE.

When ordering goods state price or brand of the article wanted, also mode of transit, and name of station to which the goods are to be sent. Orders for the different departments should be written on separate slips. Goods not approved of must be returned at once and intact. No claim for breakage, short weight, &c., can be entertained unless made within six days after goods are received. Delay in delivery should be at once advised.

WEEKLY STATEMENT OF ACCOUNT.

5TH WEEK.
73RD QUARTER.

LEDGER FOLIO, 929.
119, PAISLEY ROAD,
GLASGOW, September 3rd, 1887.

The Grahamston and Bainsford Co-operative Society Limited.

Dr. Co The Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited. Cr.

GOODS.			CASH AND CREDITS.			
Date.	Amount of each Invoice.	Balance last Statement.	Date.	Cash.	Credit.	Totals.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
		698 7 2				
Aug. 30..	0 4 3	Aug. 30..	0 5 0
" 30..	18 11 7	" 31..	1 0 0
" 30..	29 0 8	" 31..	0 12 9
" 30..	32 4 0	" 31..	0 12 10
" 30..	0 17 7	Sept. 1..	0 5 6
" 30..	4 10 0	" 1..	0 1 0
" 30..	4 4 0	" 1..	1 3 6
" 30..	3 2 6	" 1..	2 7 0
" 31..	0 6 6	" 2..	0 12 9
" 31..	0 8 3	" 2..	0 12 9
" 31..	0 10 10	" 2..	0 14 9
" 31..	0 8 3	" 2..	0 10 0
" 31..	1 5 0	" 3..	0 15 6
" 31..	0 10 11	" 3..	10 11 1
" 31..	59 16 9	" 3..	0 15 6
" 31..	0 11 3	" 3..	1 12 0
" 31..	7 3 5				22 11 11
Sept. 1..	2 10 6	" 2..	600 0 0	600 0 0
" 1..	4 17 6				
" 1..	0 15 2				
" 3..	0 6 6				
" 3..	0 9 2				
" 3..	17 10 0				
" 3..	0 18 0				
" 3..	3 10 6				
" 3..	5 13 8				
" 3..	12 11 1				
" 3..	4 18 7				
" 3..	5 3 6				
" 3..	0 12 9				
" 3..	0 1 10				
" 3..	2 14 9				
" 3..	1 8 6				
" 3..	27 12 8				
		255 10 5				
	To balance,			By balance,	331 5 8
	£	953 17 7			£	953 17 7

If the above Statement differs from your Books, we shall be glad if you will point out the difference at once.

SCOTTISH
CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.

MEMBERSHIP.

The Rules relating to the admission of members are:—

No. 6.—The society (that is, the Wholesale) shall consist of such co-operative societies, registered or deemed to be registered under the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, 1876, or Companies Act, 1862-67, as have been admitted by the committee, and each admission must be entered in the minute book of the society. Every application for shares must be sanctioned by a resolution of a general meeting of any society or company making such. The application must be made on the printed form supplied, and duly attested by the signatures of the president, secretary, and three members thereof, and stamped with such society's seal. Every society or company making an application for shares shall state the number of its members, and take not less than one share for each member, and shall increase the number annually as its members increase, in accordance with its last return to the Registrar; but no member other than a society registered under the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, 1876, shall hold an interest in the funds exceeding £200.

No. 7.—The capital of the society shall be raised in shares of fifteen shillings each. Every member on admission shall pay the sum of not less than one shilling on each share taken up, and the unpaid portion of the shares may be paid up by dividends and interest; but any member may pay up shares in full or part at any time.

APPLICATION FORM.

Whereas, by a resolution of the.....Co-operative Society Limited, passed at a general meeting held on the....day of....., it was resolved to take up.....shares (being one share of fifteen shillings for each member), said shares being transferable, in the Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited, and to accept the same on the terms and conditions specified in the Rules. Executed under the seal of the society on the....day of

Attested by

.....
.....
..... } *Three Members.*

BENEFITS DERIVED FROM MEMBERSHIP.

(a) The liability of the member is limited, each member being only responsible for the value of the shares held.

(b) Members receive double the rate of dividend on purchases paid to non-members.

(c) Share capital is paid 5 per cent per annum.

(d) Members have a share in the management of the Wholesale in proportion to the amount of goods bought, as each society, besides one vote in right of membership, is allowed an extra vote for each £1,000 worth of goods bought.

These advantages, added to the special benefits secured by the leading position of the Wholesale, will, we trust, induce societies as yet non-members to carefully reconsider the question, and take the necessary steps to secure to their members the full benefits of co-operative distribution.

CORRESPONDENCE.

All letters must be addressed to the society, and not to individuals. Addressed envelopes are supplied at cost price. Separate slips ought to be used for the different departments—the Accountant's, Grocery and Provision, Drapery, Boot and Shoe, Furniture. The slips can all be enclosed in the one envelope. Attention to this simple rule will greatly facilitate the despatch of goods, and ensure promptitude in answering inquiries; it will also aid in the classification of the letters for reference in any case of irregularity or dispute.

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

CASH REMITTANCE.

Cheques must be made payable to the Society. If remitted through the UNION BANK OF SCOTLAND LIMITED, the usual commission charged will be saved.

LIST OF BRANCHES OF THE UNION BANK OF SCOTLAND LIMITED.

HEAD OFFICES:—GLASGOW, INGRAM STREET; EDINBURGH, GEORGE STREET.

LONDON OFFICE:—62, CORNHILL, E.C.

Branches:

Aberdeen.	Edinburgh, Morningside.	Lerwick.
Aberdeen, George Street.	" Newington.	Leslie.
" West End.	" Norton Park.	Lochgelly, Fifeshire.
Aberfeldy.	" S. Morningside	Lochgilthead.
Aberlour, Strathspey.	(sub to Morningside).	Macduff.
Alloa.	Edzell.	Maryhill.
Alva.	Elgin.	Maybole.
Auchterarder.	Ellon.	Mearns (open on Tues-
Auchtermuchty.	Errol.	days and Fridays—sub
Ayr.	Fochabers.	to Barrhead).
Ballater.	Forfar.	Millport.
Banchory.	Fraserburg.	Moffat.
Banff.	Galston.	Moniaive.
Barrhead.	Gatehouse.	New Pitsligo.
Barrhill.	Girvan.	Paisley.
Bathgate.	Glasgow, Anderston.	Partick.
Beith.	" 174, Argyle St.	Perth.
Blair-Athole (sub to Pit-	" Bridgeton Cross.	Peterhead.
lochrie).	" Cowcaddens.	Pitlochrie.
Blairgowrie.	" Hillhead.	Port-Glasgow.
Braemar.	" Kinning Park.	Portsoy.
Brechin.	" St. Vincent St.	Renfrew.
Bridge of Allan.	" Tradeston.	Rosehearty.
Buckie, Banffshire.	" Trongate.	St. Margaret's Hope,
Castle-Douglas.	Gourock.	Orkney.
Coatbridge.	Govan.	Scalloway, Shetland (open
Conpar-Angus.	Greenock.	on Tuesdays and Fri-
Crieff.	Hamilton.	days—sub to Lerwick).
Cullen.	Helensburgh.	Shawlands, Glasgow.
Dalbeattie.	Huntly.	Stewarton.
Dalry, Ayrshire (open on	Inverary.	Stirling.
Thursdays—sub to Beith)	Inverness.	Stonehouse (open on Mon-
Dalry, Galloway.	Inverurie.	days, Wednesdays, and
Darvel (sub to Galston).	Irvine.	Saturdays—sub to Lark-
Donne.	Johnstone.	hall).
Dumbarton.	Keith.	Stranraer.
Dumfries.	Killin.	Strathaven.
Dunblane.	Kilmarnock.	Stromness.
Dundee.	Kincardine.	Tarbert, Lochfine.
Dunkeld.	Kirkcaldy.	Tarland.
Dunning.	Kirkwall.	Thornhill.
Dnnoon.	Kirriemuir.	Tillicoultry.
Edinburgh, Downie Place.	Ladybank.	Tron.
" Forrest Road.	Largs.	Turriff.
" Haymarket.	Larkhall.	Wick.
" Hunter Square	Leith.	

TO THE MEMBERS.

FELLOW CO-OPERATORS,

READERS of "Annuals" usually expect something fresh and entertaining, in illustration and letterpress, when their favourite yearling is looked into. In certain cases, where the subject is not "confined"—to use a sporting phrase—the expectation is at once natural and just. Where the object of the publication is mainly to amuse, with a thin facing of instruction, it is always possible to more or less satisfy this desire. Trade annuals, however, are more frequently filled with dry statements, facts and figures, and the volumes are generally opened with a serious countenance. Among these the Co-operative Handbook is certain to be classed; for though its range is somewhat wider than that of the mere trade journal or yearly volume, its contents are, to a large extent, of a similar nature. Our readers also know that we must necessarily repeat each year some of the leading features, and will not expect that in every point the work will be new and original. In the matter of illustrations the series of diagrams, cuts, and maps will materially assist in forming a correct estimate of the extent and importance of each branch or department. In the printed pages a mass of equally entertaining and valuable information will be found. The specially contributed articles range over fields of inquiry which the intelligent co-operator will search with interest and pleasure. The aim of these papers has been to present to the reader such separate treatment of the subjects discussed as he is not likely to find in any single work within his reach. The business portion of the volume has been brought up, as nearly as possible, to the date of publication; while the tabular and other statements exhibiting the progress of the co-operative movement generally, and more particularly of the two Wholesale Societies,

will be found to fairly represent the present condition of matters. Your Committee have had proof during the year that the previous issues of the "Annual" have not been without useful and beneficial effect, and they issue the volume for 1889 in the full expectation that it will not prove inferior, as a manual of reference and of solid information, to its predecessors. They know that the volume will not meet an equal and similar appreciation in every quarter; but each reader will be able, from its contents, to determine how far and how well the co-operative movement makes progress; and he will further recognise that he is one—a helping or retarding one—in a great, honest, earnest, and practical reformation, aiming to improve the condition of those classes whose assiduous labours make the world's wealth.

Yours respectfully,

THE COMMITTEE.

THE

Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society

LIMITED.

ITS BASIS.

THE Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society, established in 1868, was founded in the voluntary agreement and conclusions of the members who then entered the federation, and it is on this foundation that it must continue to rely for support in every addition it makes to its original programme. It is not necessary here and now to refer largely to the purely business considerations which influenced the original members in creating this great distributive centre. The arguments used and reasons given by those delegates who, at the time of the formation of the Scottish Wholesale, carried the mandates and expressed the will of their respective societies, are pretty well known and generally accepted as being sound in principle and in detail.

EXPECTATIONS.

It was expected that by the formation of the Wholesale small societies would have their small orders as carefully attended to as those of greater dimensions, and that large societies and the movement generally would escape the cavalier politeness and condescension of the private dealers who supplied what they were pleased to call, with significant emphasis, the stores. Neither was the question of intercepting the gains of the middleman without its due effect in the decisions of the delegates. It was held that if private merchants could live in comfort, not to say affluence, on the profits of their business, and maintain a host of travellers on the road, it was surely possible for an intelligent committee, with experts in each department, to carry on, remuneratively and successfully, such wholesale business as would be required by the co-operative societies in Scotland. It was also expected that the work of the retail society committees would be greatly lightened were they in connection and financial alliance with such a reliable source of supply as would remove the necessity for constant supervision of the accounts, the goods, and circumstances of sale. That these expectations have been largely realised no one with a knowledge of the facts before him will seek to deny.

TESTED BENEFITS.

HAD the members, *i.e.*, the retail societies, federated with the Wholesale been uniformly actuated by such consuming zeal in its behalf as to carry in every case their orders to the Wholesale, indifferent as to prices charged or qualities given,

it might have been possible to doubt whether these societies had reaped any substantial advantages from their connection with a wholesale centre of supply. But committees, salesmen, and managers alike have sedulously searched our weekly price lists, and compared these with the charges levied by private merchants everywhere, and have not been slow to give the preference to outside parties wherever, in the estimation of the societies, the prices warranted them in going past the Wholesale.

This habit, while it has kept your servants ever on their mettle, has also given assurance to our members that the Wholesale is at least a safe concern to deal with, and has further proved, to all whom it may concern, that the original contentions of its founders have been abundantly justified by the results of the Wholesale's operations. Your directors and employés have always had to frame arrangements and prices so as to be, if not under, at least not over those prevailing in the open market.

UNFAIR COMPARISONS.

Your directors do not seriously complain of this, since it has served to make your original arguments and position clear; but it must be perfectly plain to everyone that the practice may be carried too far, and may become a mere habit, influenced only by petty considerations and determined by unimportant details. The federated societies should never forget that the Wholesale is their own property, that each has a stake in its fortunes, and that its welfare should always be with them a consideration of vital importance. Comparison of prices in single articles or in separate lines may become not an advantage but a lure, into which the retail society committee—necessarily only partially capable of forming a correct judgment in many cases—may be drawn. But, apart from the difficulty of committee-men being always able to diagnose and decide rightly upon qualities and grades of goods offered, there is the fact that merchants who make a speciality of some particular line, may occasionally produce an apparently or really good article at prices below those of the Wholesale; but it will be equally plain that, if every specialist is to be pitted against the Wholesale, which cannot be a specialist in anything, the consistency of the members and the purpose of the Wholesale as a distributing centre will be equally lost sight of, and its usefulness injured by the very parties who gave it birth.

THE WHOLESALE IS ONLY ONE.

NEITHER should it be forgotten that while the private merchants may be counted by legions the Wholesale is only one, and that while travellers and agents for private parties may prefer their solicitations at societies and private shops alike at all hours, the agents of the Wholesale can only appear before the counters of co-operative societies, and that at distant intervals. The one party has a wide constituency and can make frequent and easy calls, the other has a range that is strictly limited. Your travellers cannot always be present to set forth the deciding points of the Wholesale goods, nor compare qualities and contrast prices. These are points in the very nature of our position which your directors respectfully submit to your earnest attention as items which ought ever to be present in the counsels of our members when balancing the claims of the Wholesale against the oft-urged entreaties of the outside dealer. The Wholesale is entitled in every case to your first

consideration, and when purchases are to be made, differences in the price lists should be subjected to careful scrutiny, as they will generally turn out to be more apparent than real. And even when the differences are real, your employés at the Wholesale are entitled to be notified of the fact, that they may be enabled to put themselves right with you, and that you may be made acquainted with the causes, if any, for the alleged discrepancies.

ORDERS SENT PAST US.

We are quite sensible, and you are equally so, that a percentage of orders for goods—we need not be more specific—are sent past the Wholesale, which ought properly to reach your offices; but, while admitting this fact, we have also no little cause for congratulation that your business goes on from year to year maintaining a steady advance. The members increase, the individual and total purchases increase, and though misunderstandings have occasionally arisen, these have hitherto proved not lasting but temporary. The following figures, on pages 142 and 143, are submitted respectfully for your consideration.

THE WHOLESALE EXTENSION.

The Wholesale is now, however, not only a centre of distribution, it is a great deal more. The original design—limited by the immediate wants of the retail societies, and by the capabilities of the institution itself—has been long since extended beyond these bounds. As compared with its modest maiden pretensions, the Wholesale has entered “fresh fields and pastures new.” The constitution was happily so framed at first as to admit of this and other expansions; and your directors, in obedience to your frequently expressed mandates, have always been ready to extend its operations, whenever this could be done, with profit and advantage to the members.

JOINT PURCHASING.

Our friends across the border have displayed at all times, a readiness to make or meet suggestions for improved methods of wholesale buying, and our mutual relations have resulted in mutual benefits. The system of joint purchasing—now several years old—gives the two Wholesales a commanding position on the Irish and Danish butter markets, and enables us to obtain the best possible terms on the produce exchanges of America. The tea trade is one of the most important business lines in which we can engage; and joint buying in this commodity is our latest expansion in the direction of mutual arrangement.

INCREASED RESPONSIBILITIES.

THESE branchings have hitherto been productive of the most satisfactory results. Still, it should not be forgotten that each step outward involves some degree of increased responsibility, and your directors require not only your active sympathy, but your practical trade support. It is only in this way that success can be ensured.

We need scarcely refer you to the continued growth of our warehouse property claims—though these are enlarging every year, and entailing more careful and delicate management, and, at the same time, increasing our charges on every side.

DISTRIBUTIVE PRODUCTIONS.

It is, however, in the region of production that our most serious and weighty extensions have been made. Scottish co-operators have always understood that the efficiency of any wholesale centre of supply could be greatly improved by its

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

STATEMENT showing the PROGRESS of the SOCIETY FROM ITS COMMENCEMENT in September, 1868, till date, with COMPARISONS of SALES, and other information.

1st Quarter....	Year or Quarter ending	Number of Shares Subscribed.	Capital: Includes Share, Loan, Reserve, and Insurance Funds.	Net Sales.	Gross Total.	Increase on Corresponding Quarter or previous Year.	Rate per Cent Inc.	Expenses.	Rate per £ on Sales.
	December 7, 1868..	..	£ 1,795	£ 9,697	£ ..	£	£ 153	3·8
1st Year—52 wks	December 5, 1869..	..	5,174	81,094	90,791	1,035	3·0
2nd "	November 18, 1870..	..	12,542	105,249	196,041	24,155	29·7	1,549	3·5
3rd "	" 18, 1871..	..	18,009	162,658	358,699	57,478	54·5	2,180	3·2
4th "	" 16, 1872..	18,708	30,931	262,530	621,230	99,872	61·4	3,469	3·1
5th "	" 15, 1873..	21,271	50,433	384,489	1,005,719	121,958	46·4	5,055	3·1
6th "	" 14, 1874..	24,651	48,981	409,947	1,415,667	25,458	6·6	6,693	3·9
7th "	" 13, 1875..	27,112	56,750	430,169	1,845,836	20,222	4·9	7,137	3·9
8th "	" 4, 1876..	29,008	67,218	457,529	2,303,365	27,359	6·3	7,540	3·9
9th "	" 3, 1877..	31,945	72,568	589,221	2,892,586	131,692	28·7	8,648	3·5
10th "	" 2, 1878..	34,830	83,173	600,590	3,493,177	11,369	1·9	10,095	4·0
11th "	" 2, 1879..	36,008	93,076	630,097	4,123,275	29,507	4·9	11,117	4·2
12th "	October 30, 1880..	41,584	110,179	635,221	4,958,496	215,124	34·1	13,020	3·7
13th "	November 5, 1881..	49,773	135,713	986,646	5,955,143	141,424	16·7	15,757	3·8
14th "	" 4, 1882..	53,684	169,428	1,100,588	7,055,732	113,942	11·5	19,886	4·2
15th "	" 3, 1883..	59,529	195,396	1,253,154	8,308,886	152,565	13·8	22,120	4·2
16th "	" 1, 1884..	65,331	244,186	1,300,331	9,609,218	47,177	3·7	24,307	4·5
17th "	October 31, 1885..	70,066	288,945	1,438,220	11,047,438	137,888	10·6	27,314	4·5
18th "	December 25, 1886..	79,874	333,653	1,857,152	12,904,590	418,931	29·1	36,942	4·7
19th "	" 31, 1887..	87,220	387,309	1,810,015	14,714,606	153,965	9·2	35,800	4·7
78th Quar.—13 wks	March 31, 1888..	89,089	388,640	426,691	15,141,297	29,228	7·4	9,397	5·2
79th "	June 30, 1888..	89,952	389,921	474,762	15,616,060	47,755	11·1	9,613	4·8

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

STATEMENT showing the PROGRESS of the SOCIETY FROM ITS COMMENCEMENT in September, 1868, till date, with COMPARISONS of SALES, and other information.—Continued.

1st Quarter....	Year or Quarter ending	Net Profit.	Total Net Profit.	AVG. Age Dividend.	RESERVE AND INSURANCE FUNDS.			DEPRECIATIONS ALLOWED ON BUILDINGS AND FIXTURES.			
					Added.		Withdrawn.	Total Amount.		Total Amount.	
					£	48		£	..	£	9
	December 7, 1868..	£ 48	£ ..	d. ..	£ 48	£ ..	£ ..	£ ..	£ ..	£ ..	£ ..
1st Year—52 wks	December 5, 1869..	1,303	1,352	3½	63	..	112	129	138	111	250
2nd "	November 19, 1870..	2,418	3,770	4½	324	..	436	324	455	205	465
3rd "	" 18, 1871..	4,131	7,902	5½	578	..	1,014	578	801	346	801
4th "	" 16, 1872..	5,435	13,337	4½	471	..	1,485	471	1,439	657	1,439
5th "	" 15, 1873..	7,445	20,783	4½	355	141	1,700	355	2,243	784	2,243
6th "	" 14, 1874..	7,553	28,336	4½	1,049	104	2,644	104	2,565	321	2,565
7th "	" 13, 1875..	8,232	36,569	4	338	580	2,402	580	3,017	452	3,017
8th "	" 4, 1876..	8,836	45,405	4	791	343	2,522	343	3,503	485	3,503
9th "	" 3, 1877..	10,925	56,330	4	918	269	3,097	269	4,659	1,155	4,659
10th "	" 2, 1878..	11,968	68,298	4	721	160	3,549	160	5,995	1,336	5,995
11th "	" 2, 1879..	14,988	83,287	4½	2,215	336	5,606	336	7,082	1,086	7,082
12th "	October 30, 1880..	21,685	104,973	6½	3,134	2,694	8,796	2,694	11,490	1,653	11,490
13th "	November 5, 1881..	23,981	128,954	6	3,086	334	12,286	334	16,888	2,420	16,888
14th "	" 4, 1882..	23,219	152,174	5½	3,824	1,530	14,557	1,530	17,471	2,039	17,471
15th "	" 3, 1883..	28,365	180,540	5½	3,801	1,525	17,471	1,525	21,254	3,475	21,254
16th "	" 1, 1884..	29,434	209,974	5½	4,438	610	21,254	610	25,566	2,980	25,566
17th "	October 31, 1885..	39,641	249,616	6½	4,393	1,315	25,566	1,315	32,651	3,019	32,651
18th "	December 25, 1886..	50,398	300,014	6½	5,528	1,389	32,651	1,389	35,078	2,062	35,078
19th "	" 31, 1887..	47,278	347,293	6½	8,474	607	35,078	607	36,693	978	36,693
78th Quar.—13 wks	March 31, 1888..	12,057	359,351	6	1,649	380	36,693	380	38,342	2,062	38,342
79th "	June 30, 1888..	11,755	371,106	6	1,765	..	38,342	..	39,342	978	39,342

becoming also a centre of production—a means of manufacturing those goods in daily demand by our members. Keeping this conviction in view, and by the help of your counsel and resolution, your directors have, from time to time, established successive departments of manufacture which have received at your hands a fair measure of support. The objects which influenced your directors and the federation generally in these efforts at co-operative production have been two-fold. The leading object was, of course, to ensure a better and more reliable supply for our members; and the other, to provide in the workshops and for the benefit of the workers the highest possible conditions of health and comfort. In the first of these objects your augmented patronage assures us of our success, and the testimony of all competent judges—and these have been from all quarters of the country—equally convinces us that we have not failed in the second.

CONDITIONS OF PRODUCTION.

WE were fully aware that in going into the region of production we were simply summoning—at least for a time—a host of new and greater difficulties. These, however, we were prepared to face, and, with your help, to reduce to a minimum, or to entirely disperse. Animated in this hope, the lands at Shieldhall were duly acquired, and the necessary buildings for our productive works erected, and opened during the present year. In these works everything that experience or practical acquaintance which the processes and operations to be carried on could suggest were adopted, so that the Co-operative Productive Works at Shieldhall are believed to be the best of their kind in the kingdom. Here we were and are prepared to offer our workers, not only the highest conditions of health and comfort, but the highest rates of remuneration paid in the various industries engaged in. In addition to these inducements we had the *bonus* on wages, which your generosity had insisted upon being paid to all and sundry in our productive works. In keeping with your instructions there was also started a private loan fund, with remunerative rates of interest, specially for the benefit of our servants and workers. By means such as these we hoped to create in our industrial corps not simply a disposition towards contentment, but a spirit of pride in the works and in their connection with the Scottish Wholesale. With the larger number of our workers this anticipation has not been belied; and the committee charged with the surveillance of the works have had, with slight exceptions, no serious difficulty in arranging such differences as did from time to time arise.

THE LIMIT OF COMPENSATION.

BUT our members, and our workers too, will readily see that unless the rates of wages ruling in the open market be accepted it will be impossible to proceed. We have to compete with all classes of manufacturers, and our members rightly insist that our prices shall not be higher than the prevailing rates. We shall continue to treat the workers with the same liberality we have, by your instructions, hitherto extended to them, and admit every consideration consistent with the safe side of the ledger; but beyond this we cannot go. Our position as co-operators exposes us to much more severe criticism than that extended to our rivals in the trade; but, despite this fact, we are bound by simple business safeguards against working at a loss. Sentiment and theory will neither pay wages nor extract an extra shilling from the purchaser of an article, and we are bound to attend to unyielding facts.

SCOTTISH
CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.

GROCERY AND PROVISION DEPARTMENT.

THE goods comprised under this heading are those which everyone must use in greater or less variety, and, like everything in general use, prices are cut very close to cost, and competition is very keen. We consider the best proof that the Wholesale is fulfilling its mission is that its sales are making steady and substantial progress. This we attribute, to a considerable extent, to our endeavours to get past all middlemen, and draw our supplies from first hands; and in order to carry out this policy, buying centres have been established all over the world—at least, wherever this could be advantageously done—and being closely associated with our English friends, our united purchases have made this not only practicable, but profitable. Another feature which we attribute our success to is our steady aim to secure the best quality of goods procurable, and such others as may be wanted, which are sent out again to societies in their original genuine condition. We issue a Price List weekly, the quotations of which, as a rule, remain until the next issue. This list contains a complete catalogue of all the goods we supply, with their prices attached. It is marked “private and confidential,” and is intended for committees and managers only. But somehow, in a number of instances, it gets into the hands of our trade rivals, who use it to our disadvantage. The obvious unfairness of this will, we trust, in future cause it to be respected as a private document.

We have always on hand a large and well-assorted stock of fresh goods, which we invite societies' managers (when that is convenient) to come in and inspect. Where this cannot be done we send out samples, when requested, of such goods as can be conveniently sent in this way.

Our Ham Curing trade has outgrown our accommodation, and, in order to meet its increasing demands, we are erecting large and commodious premises adjoining our central stores in Glasgow, and fitting them up with every appliance calculated to improve the quality and facilitate the work in this now important department.

Our latest development is an endeavour to overtake the buying of Cattle for societies. This is now becoming an important branch, as nearly all the leading stores are adding the Butchering to their other branches. In several centres it is found that co-operative buyers are already competing with one another, and consequently raising the prices. With the view to remedy this, we have appointed an experienced buyer to take charge of this department, who is prepared to buy for any society on a small commission or sell at current market prices. The obvious advantages of this method of concentrating purchases will, we hope, commend itself to societies, and we trust that they will favour us with their orders.

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

GROCERY DEPARTMENT, GLASGOW. YEARLY STATEMENT. SALES, EXPENSES, AND NET PROFIT.

Quarter ending	NET SALES.										Expenses.	Rate per £ of Sales.	Net Profit.	Rate per £ of Sales.	Stocks.			
	Drapery and Boots.		Dundee.	Kilmarnock.	Glasgow.	Total.		Expenses.		Rate per £ of Sales.								
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£						s.	d.	£
Dec. 7, 1868..							9,697	7	1		153	5	4	88	48	12	10	4,648
52 weeks "							81,094	2	6		1,085	12	8	80	1,903	15	0	5,378
50 "							105,249	12	4		1,539	17	2	85	2,418	9	2	9,060
53 "							102,658	7	7		2,180	18	3	82	4,131	8	6	60
52 "							262,530	19	10		8,469	18	4	81	5,485	8	9	49
53 "							384,489	4	0		6,055	15	7	81	7,445	19	1	24,510
52 "							409,947	7	9		6,096	14	2	89	7,553	5	2	44
53 "							490,169	7	11		7,137	15	5	89	8,233	11	6	29,400
51 "							414,576	19	6		7,540	23	8	89	8,836	2	8	46
52 "							507,582	14	4		8,976	19	7	85	10,443	15	6	39,510
53 "							523,822	18	7		9,876	5	4	41	10,289	0	10	47
52 "							641,995	15	11		8,892	8	6	43	12,625	11	8	50,400
53 "							699,457	15	8		10,880	2	11	87	17,908	0	6	43,190
6 months "							792,813	2	10		12,930	11	8	89	18,489	1	8	56
Nov. 6, 1881..							412,971	16	9		8,080	8	7	44	8,270	16	9	48
May 6, 1882..							12,982	1	4		8,239	13	4	83	7,539	19	0	47
Nov. 4, 1883..							883,894	1	3		10,940	9	4	83	15,850	8	9	47
52 weeks "							776,681	1	5		776,681	1	3	83	15,850	8	9	47
52 "							759,443	11	7		11,152	5	4	85	14,291	1	1	45
52 "							761,889	7	11		11,881	1	0	87	16,187	13	9	50
53 "							996,080	19	0		13,481	16	4	87	19,073	6	9	49
50 "							895,560	6	4		8,564	11	7	85	20,351	5	3	54
53 "							211,164	16	10		3,594	11	7	40	4,693	1	6	58
3 months "							231,694	3	11		8,583	13	11	36	4,842	14	10	50
Totals.....							449,337	15	1		167,713	15	7	87	225,701	9	3	34,760
							21,507	10	0		12,982	1	4	87	225,701	9	3	34,760
							10,305,145	9	0		10,788,972	15	5	87	225,701	9	3	34,760

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

GROCERY DEPARTMENT, LEITH.—YEARLY STATEMENT, SHOWING SALES, EXPENSES, AND NET PROFIT.

	Net Sales.			Expenses.			Rate of Pence per £.			Net Profit.			Rate of Pence per £.		Amount of Stock.
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	d.	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	d.	s.	£
Year ending November 3, 1877—52 weeks....	30,984	0	9	451	17	0	3·5	481	12	9	3·7	4,500			
" " 2, 1878 " "	76,767	11	1	1,119	10	4	3·5	1,679	0	11	5·2	3,000			
" " 1, 1879 " "	88,101	15	11	1,284	16	8	3·5	2,363	8	3	6·4	6,480			
" " October 30, 1880 " "	145,764	0	3	2,140	6	2	3·5	3,777	4	2	6·2	8,410			
" " November 5, 1881—53 " "	193,833	10	10	2,826	11	8	3·5	5,542	7	9	6·8	18,400			
" " 4, 1882—52 " "	205,728	16	3	2,927	11	2	3·4	4,895	11	9	5·7	14,890			
" " 3, 1883 " "	255,160	2	2	3,488	17	9	3·2	6,093	19	3	5·7	20,045			
" " 1, 1884 " "	281,509	2	4	3,992	8	2	3·4	6,935	10	4	5·9	16,250			
" " October 31, 1885 " "	363,664	7	11	5,031	1	8	3·3	10,572	0	8	6·9	29,750			
" " December 25, 1886—60 " "	496,240	13	8	7,160	19	5	3·4	12,452	11	4	6·0	24,000			
" " 31, 1887—53 " "	496,673	11	8	7,256	5	4	3·5	13,217	13	3	6·3	42,420			
Quarter ending March 31, 1888.....	118,220	11	1	1,933	2	2	4·0	2,747	5	1	5·5	35,310			
" " June 30, 1888.....	125,128	3	10	1,946	10	10	3·7	2,690	17	4	5·1	35,560			
Totals to June 25, 1888.....	2,877,776	7	9	41,559	18	4	3·4	73,449	2	10	6·1	35,560			

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

QUARTERLY STATEMENT, GROCERY DEPARTMENT, KILMARNOCK, FROM DATE OF KEEPING A SEPARATE ACCOUNT.

Quarter ending	Net Sales.		Expenses.		Rate per £ of Sales.		Net Profit.		Rate per £ of Sales.		Stocks.
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	
August 5, 1882	6,594	0 5	190	15 1	7-0	163	7 8	d.	6-0	535	
November 4, 1882	8,849	10 3	221	7 8	6-0	137	9 1	3 7	3 7	1,550	
February 3, 1883	9,894	13 1	245	18 11	5-9	362	11 7	8-7	8-7	2,320	
May 5, 1883	10,192	13 4	236	7 10	5-5	472	3 0	11-1	11-1	2,120	
August 4, 1883	7,979	7 10	245	14 8	7-3	238	4 11	7-1	7-1	720	
November 3, 1883	11,625	19 8	225	0 1	4-6	176	13 6	3 6	3 6	1,603	
February 2, 1884	8,446	16 2	217	1 5	6-1	123	10 4	3-5	3-5	2,898	
May 3, 1884	9,492	2 9	197	12 5	4-9	162	2 9	4 0	4 0	1,781	
August 2, 1884	9,145	12 11	208	15 8	5-4	114	15 5	3 0	3 0	963	
November 1, 1884	12,989	5 11	198	7 11	3-7	235	6 3	4-2	4-2	2,812	
January 31, 1885	10,094	9 8	204	18 3	4-8	69	14 9	1-6	1-6	2,521	
May 2, 1885	8,874	3 9	159	14 3	4-3	258	5 9	6-9	6-9	1,750	
August 1, 1885	8,644	2 7	192	11 6	5-3	102	4 1	2-8	2-8	1,132	
October 31, 1885	14,012	17 7	208	14 3	3-5	534	12 2	9-1	9-1	2,300	
January 30, 1886	9,461	10 4	204	13 0	5-2	295	13 5	7-5	7-5	2,010	
May 1, 1886	9,439	14 11	177	13 5	4-5	289	7 4	7-3	7-3	1,600	
July 31, 1886	9,434	7 4	193	15 8	4-9	264	10 0	6-7	6-7	760	
December 25, 1886	23,129	5 10	309	3 2	3-2	908	16 9	9-4	9-4	2,070	
March 26, 1887	11,129	13 7	170	3 9	3-6	334	3 8	7 8	7 8	2,615	
June 25, 1887	9,928	13 5	189	4 9	4-5	255	7 8	6-1	6-1	1,525	
September 24, 1887	15,469	2 4	221	10 8	3-4	895	18 3	13-6	13-6	1,070	
December 31, 1887	16,152	2 11	245	9 8	4-2	758	15 6	11-2	11-2	2,585	
March 31, 1888	11,715	9 7	179	9 8	4-0	328	8 3	6-7	6-7	2,850	
June 30, 1888	13,539	14 3	202	10 10	3-6	379	15 5	6-7	6-7	2,410	
Totals	266,235	10 5	5,046	14 6	4-5	7,881	17 6	7-1	7-1	2,410	

* Twenty-one weeks. † Fourteen weeks.

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

QUARTERLY STATEMENT, GROCERY DEPARTMENT, DUNDEE, FROM DATE OF KEEPING A SEPARATE ACCOUNT.

Quarter Ending	Net Sales.		Expenses.		Rate per £ of Sales.		Net Profit.		Rate per £ of Sales.		Net Loss.		Rate per £ of Sales.		Stocks.
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	d.	s. d.	£	s. d.	d.	s. d.	£	s. d.	d.	s. d.	
August 5, 1882.....	6,328	4 0	237	2 11	8·8	126	19 9	4·8	1,205	
November 4, 1882.....	7,180	12 3	207	17 9	7·0	98	12 7	3·3	1,474	
February 5, 1883.....	8,513	10 1	217	6 4	6·1	67	12 4	1,040	
May 5, 1883.....	8,583	16 3	226	13 4	6·3	96	1 7	1,080	
August 4, 1883.....	9,050	6 4	245	1 3	6·5	5	15 3	1,923	
November 3, 1883.....	8,533	5 8	218	11 2	6·1	71	2 5	2,455	
February 2, 1884.....	9,278	1 10	235	12 9	6·1	181	7 10	2,250	
May 3, 1884.....	10,943	14 6	252	16 9	5·6	88	14 11	1,975	
August 2, 1884.....	12,648	2 11	262	11 10	5·0	260	9 7	2,950	
November 1, 1884.....	13,776	3 6	275	12 6	4·8	73	16 8	2,690	
January 31, 1885.....	12,080	7 2	291	8 8	5·8	111	1 3	1,080	
May 2, 1885.....	13,424	7 0	242	12 6	4·3	189	3 2	1,950	
August 1, 1885.....	14,930	3 3	251	12 1	4·0	359	16 4	2,940	
October 31, 1885.....	15,685	3 4	271	7 11	4·2	348	15 2	2,890	
January 30, 1886.....	12,248	16 9	248	12 8	4·8	238	13 5	1,300	
May 1, 1886.....	13,616	12 9	283	8 7	5·0	86	11 2	2,670	
July 31, 1886.....	14,912	1 10	265	7 11	4·2	205	17 7	3,250	
*December 25, 1886.....	22,975	17 8	397	17 9	4·1	348	8 3	2,600	
March 26, 1887.....	13,916	4 6	244	6 5	4·2	163	5 0	1,885	
June 25, 1887.....	13,810	2 11	241	9 2	4·2	210	10 3	3,050	
September 24, 1887.....	15,064	15 6	265	8 7	4·2	212	6 11	3,020	
†December 31, 1887.....	16,231	4 0	281	14 4	4·2	279	17 11	3,210	
March 31, 1888.....	12,205	12 7	246	11 4	4·8	286	9 8	2,770	
June 30, 1888.....	14,865	19 7	262	6 11	4·2	154	19 5	3,740	
Totals.....	300,803	6 2	6,173	11 5	4·9	4,040	16 1	225	12 4	3,740	
						225	12 4	
						3,815	3 9	
								

* Twenty-one weeks. † Fourteen weeks.

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

QUARTERLY STATEMENT, DRAPERY DEPARTMENT, FROM DATE OF KEEPING A SEPARATE ACCOUNT.

Quarters Ending	NET SALES.												Expenses.	Rate per £ of Sales.	Net Profit.	Rate per £ of Sales.	Stocks.
	Boots.			Furniture.			Drapery.			Total.							
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.					
August 5, 1882..	8,351	15	0	2,693	6	11	21,144	6	11	32,189	8	10	1,123	9	2	d.	28,560
November 4, 1882..	9,267	11	10	2,057	1	11	25,587	12	9	36,912	6	6	1,308	6	6	87	34,030
February 3, 1883..	7,520	4	4	2,280	17	3	22,301	14	3	32,102	15	10	1,409	1	3	72	33,260
May 5, 1883..	8,159	0	7	1,904	14	4	25,682	6	9	35,746	1	8	1,438	12	11	73	31,231
August 4, 1883..	9,368	12	4	3,045	1	9	23,937	10	11	36,351	5	0	1,417	8	1	85	31,253
November 3, 1883..	9,658	4	3	2,518	11	10	30,532	12	8	42,739	9	9	1,534	9	3	86	32,291
February 2, 1884..	8,944	16	1	2,994	17	9	26,445	3	8	38,384	17	6	1,588	18	8	10-1	33,192
May 3, 1884..	9,782	13	2	2,307	11	1	30,463	14	9	42,553	19	0	1,666	5	8	9-4	36,065
August 2, 1884..	10,981	0	10	4,595	4	10	28,337	2	6	43,913	8	2	1,731	9	9	9-4	36,784
November 1, 1884..	10,881	13	3	2,887	1	9	34,034	16	0	47,806	11	0	1,837	15	5	9-1	35,065
January 31, 1885..	30,267	3	3	30,267	3	3	1,290	0	9	10-2	31,084
May 2, 1885..	37,153	15	9	37,153	15	9	1,414	15	11	9-1	32,340
August 1, 1885..	33,578	12	7	33,578	12	7	1,438	19	0	10-2	31,020
October 31, 1885..	39,994	14	4	39,994	14	4	1,547	6	10	9-2	35,990
January 30, 1886..	33,029	17	3	33,029	17	3	1,554	9	2	11-2	33,150
May 1, 1886..	44,570	7	11	44,570	17	11	1,641	9	6	88	36,340
July 31, 1886..	42,129	5	5	42,129	5	5	1,705	8	3	9-7	40,100
*December 25, 1886..	75,835	10	10	75,835	10	10	3,362	6	4	10-6	45,740
March 26, 1887..	40,647	13	5	40,647	13	5	2,028	12	8	11-9	47,070
June 25, 1887..	50,432	4	9	50,432	4	9	2,081	15	1	9-9	42,170
September 24, 1887..	47,697	15	3	47,697	15	3	2,065	14	10	10-3	45,870
†December 31, 1887..	55,420	13	10	55,420	13	10	2,294	1	9	10-0	41,400
March 31, 1888..	48,630	9	0	48,630	9	0	2,176	17	7	10-7	48,645
June 30, 1888..	56,216	13	4	56,216	13	4	2,237	18	4	9-6	49,240
Totals	92,918	11	8	27,284	9	5	904,102	8	1	1,024,305	9	2	41,983	17	11	9-8	43,240

* Twenty-one weeks. † Fourteen weeks.

SCOTTISH
CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.

DRAPERY DEPARTMENT.

As will be seen from the tabulated statement on the preceding page the Drapery Branch of the Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited, still continues to make the same steady progress as has been characteristic of it since its establishment. An outline of its extent, and the departments into which it is sub-divided, was given in our last issue of the "Annual."

On this occasion we desire to point out to societies that much still remains to be attained in the development of the drapery trade, for, though of large proportions, it is not nearly what it might be. The advantages of an adequate extension of the trade must be obvious to all. There is no branch of retail distribution into which societies can enter where so much may be saved to the community as in the drapery. In almost every household the sum spent on clothing and drapery goods is, after food, the largest item of expenditure; and as the profits in that trade are exceptionally large, great need exists for co-operators everywhere entering into it for the benefit and protection of themselves.

The Wholesale Society makes the carrying on of the drapery business in retail societies a comparatively easy matter. It is in direct communication with the best known manufacturers of every class of goods in the drapery trade, and buying only for cash and (through joint purchasing with the English Wholesale) in very large quantities, can always secure the best terms. Expenditure unavoidable in private firms, losses by bad debts—always a considerable item with them—have all to be added to the price of the goods sold. These are saved to the Wholesale, and the saving enables it to sell to societies on better terms than the ordinary retailer can obtain elsewhere. Notwithstanding the favourable circumstances in which societies are thus placed through wholesale co-operation, it seems strange that some still hold aloof from entering into the drapery trade, while others only carry it on in a half-hearted way, and subsidiary to other and less-profitable departments.

This is not as it ought to be: every society should have a drapery department, and the same, whether in city, town, or village, should be the leading shop of the place. Until this is accomplished the co-operative movement will not have taken up its true position in this trade. In the grocery business, almost without exception, co-operative societies, wherever established, are greatest in it, and we hold they

should occupy the same position in the drapery trade. The sum expended per member in the retail store on drapery goods is only a fraction of the total sum so spent. This wasting of resources, and the loss they are entailing on themselves by their indifference and apathy, should be brought under the notice of every society, that they may know the possibilities that the developing of the drapery trade will lead to, in the way of productive co-operation.

In our noticing this branch in the "Annual" for last year, we then pointed out that "it offers the best field for the expansion of productive co-operation and the employment of co-operative capital, having within itself a market for the goods that it may from time to time be thought advisable to manufacture." Of this we are more and more convinced, and if co-operators will but look around and see the vast factories carried on by private firms in the drapery trade for the manufacture of the goods they sell, they will then realise what has to be done by their Wholesale organisation if it is to worthily take up its position in the world of commerce and become the great power for good that it ought to be as employers of labour. This position, we feel sure, can soon be reached if we earnestly set to work. Increased loyalty on the part of members to their societies and of societies to the Wholesale is all that is required. No sacrifice on the part of anyone is demanded, only the carrying out of the motto—"Each for all and all for each."

In organisation the Wholesale is ready and waiting for the full development of this trade. It is prepared, by counsel and advice, to assist societies in the establishing and carrying on of the business.

The loyalty of the great majority of societies to the Wholesale we readily and gratefully acknowledge, but a few still do not buy from it as they ought to do, and thereby we think stand in their own light as well as hinder the progress of this movement. Last year we asked those societies, and we again ask them, if it is fair that they should withhold their trade and leave their business to be carried on by other societies in the federation. In our opinion it is neither fair nor wise, and we hope this question will be faced by them and the practice either justified or abandoned.

The new drapery warehouse is now in course of erection, and it is expected to be ready for occupation early next year. We trust that it will inaugurate the period we have been contending for, whereby the full development of this trade will be accomplished in our midst, and the co-operative movement become that power and influence for good in the textile industries of our country which we all believe to be inherent in it.

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

PRODUCTIVE DEPARTMENTS.—QUARTERLY STATEMENT SHOWING EXPENSES AND NET PROFIT.

TAILORING FACTORY.

	Transferred.		Production.		Expenses on Production.		Rate per Cent.		Net Profit on Production.		Rate per Cent.		Net Loss.		Rate per Cent.	
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	Rate per Cent.	Rate per Cent.	£	s. d.	Rate per Cent.	Rate per Cent.	£	s. d.	Rate per Cent.	Rate per Cent.
November 4, 1882	427	10 10	427	10 10	819	12 11	74.71	0.23	1 11 2	0.23
February 3, 1883	542	7 3	542	7 3	386	2 6	71.21	6.27	34 9 10	6.27
May 5, 1883	541	8 10	541	8 10	404	5 6	74.67	15 9 5	2.77
August 4, 1883	647	18 2	647	18 2	484	17 7	74.80	7 2 10	1.08
November 3, 1883	537	13 10	537	13 10	357	13 9	66.48	0 8 2
February 2, 1884	464	3 0	464	3 0	304	3 7	65.51	2.80	13 14 9	2.80
May 3, 1884	587	6 0	587	6 0	435	16 7	74.11	1 16 4	0.2
August 2, 1884	631	8 0	631	8 0	463	8 0	73.37	2.37	15 1 0	2.37
November 1, 1884	838	10 10	838	10 10	450	5 9	53.70	2.14	18 9 9	2.14
January 31, 1885	661	1 6	661	1 6	426	4 10	64.45	38 15 8	5.74
May 2, 1885	838	8 3	838	8 3	491	7 3	58.59	6.44	54 17 5	6.44
August 1, 1885	947	8 5	947	8 5	569	11 6	60.08	6.12	58 3 2	6.12
October 31, 1885	1,164	13 7	1,164	13 7	692	2 0	59.45	0.51	5 19 5	0.51
January 30, 1886	1,128	2 2	1,128	2 2	742	7 1	65.78	4 1 11	0.35
May 1, 1886	1,474	0 7	1,474	0 7	814	6 1	55.22	2.57	88 14 11	2.57
July 31, 1886	1,511	2 1	1,511	2 1	869	4 8	57.51	0.99	15 13 10	0.99
*December 25, 1886	2,139	13 9	2,139	13 9	1,420	12 6	66.38	36 17 2	1.68
March 26, 1887	1,587	2 3	1,587	2 3	926	18 10	58.84	1.32	21 3 11	1.32
June 25, 1887	2,265	11 8	2,265	11 8	1,351	1 8	59.64	4.90	111 17 4	4.90
September 24, 1887	1,927	17 10	1,927	17 10	1,282	9 8	66.52
December 31, 1887	2,208	14 10	1,965	1 1	1,286	17 8	65.44	139 11 0	7.21
March 31, 1888	1,529	11 9	1,692	5 1	1,077	12 1	63.65	2.48	42 14 2	2.48	68 18 3	3.51
June 30, 1888	2,212	9 9	2,227	2 1	1,335	15 10	59.94	8.16	109 15 2	8.16
Totals	26,904	5 2	26,747	17 1	16,892	17 10	63.11	..	542 5 10	313 0 9
								0.85	313 0 9	0.85	229 5 1

* Twenty-one weeks.

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

PRODUCTIVE DEPARTMENTS—QUARTERLY STATEMENT.

SHIRT FACTORY.

	Transferred.		Production.		Expenses on Production.		Rate per Cent.	Net Profit on Production.	Rate per Cent.	Net Loss.		Rate per Cent.	
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.				£	s. d.		
November 4, 1882	201	11 0	201	11 0	159	13 10	79.10	21	9 4	10.44	
February 3, 1883	207	9 10	207	9 10	176	16 1	85.02	8	5 6	3.86	
May 5, 1883	208	8 0	208	8 0	171	5 8	82.21	5	7 8	2.40	
August 4, 1883	168	1 11	168	1 11	147	14 11	87.5	7	16 9	4.76	
November 3, 1883	175	13 4	175	13 4	159	3 1	90.85	0	9 3	
February 2, 1884	225	16 1	225	16 1	188	4 5	83.55	9	18 8	4.44	
May 3, 1884	234	2 3	234	2 3	193	8 0	82.47	7	16 10	2.99	
August 2, 1884	178	18 8	178	18 8	161	13 5	90.44	
November 1, 1884	231	2 7	231	2 7	200	15 11	86.57	
January 31, 1885	294	9 10	294	9 10	244	0 8	83.02	13	1 3	4.42	
May 4, 1885	474	7 1	474	7 1	256	1 5	54.00	37	16 7	7.80	
August 1, 1885	303	19 5	303	19 5	182	7 11	60.06	23	18 5	7.78	
October 31, 1885	334	11 4	334	11 4	202	10 8	60.47	14	9 3	4.19	
January 30, 1886	355	4 8	355	4 8	216	10 6	60.84	10	18 9	3.09	
May 1, 1886	409	10 4	409	10 4	245	3 7	59.9	14	10 1	3.42	
July 31, 1886	422	4 4	422	4 4	252	13 2	59.71	26	7 6	6.16	
December 25, 1886	705	17 7	705	17 7	418	5 3	59.29	20	7 0	2.83	
March 26, 1887	391	17 6	391	17 6	248	3 1	63.26	8	10 8	2.04	
June 25, 1887	400	7 4	400	7 4	235	18 8	59.00	8	8 3	2.00	
September 24, 1887	343	6 10	343	6 10	228	16 4	66.76	3	11 6	1.02	
December 31, 1887	496	4 8	514	14 4	320	12 8	62.25	19	15 0	3.83	
March 31, 1888	517	4 1	510	6 9	314	13 9	61.57	9	10 1	1.76	
June 30, 1888	557	17 2	564	7 9	377	0 4	66.84	1	11 10	
Totals	7,838	5 10	7,856	8 9	5,301	13 4	67.47	274	0 2	..	16	6 7	..
								16	6 7
								257	13 7	3.27			

SCOTTISH
CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.

BOOT AND SHOE DEPARTMENT.

We are glad to be able to report a still further increase in this branch of our productive departments. A most important change has taken place in this department in the past year, namely, the removal of the works from Glasgow to the new premises at Shieldhall. The success which attended the business in Glasgow necessitated the committee building a new factory of much larger dimensions than the one in Glasgow. This factory has been erected at Shieldhall, wherein every modern improvement in factory building has been incorporated. The main building is 260 feet by 105 feet, and an addition of 60 feet square will be added as a leather store room. The factory is one storey in height and lighted from the roof.

In the month of April last we took possession of these works, and since then the success has been so marked, and the demand for our own goods so urgent, that we have nearly doubled the hands in the factory. Although the capacity of the factory has not yet reached its utmost, namely, 7,000 pairs per week, if the trade increases at its present rate, in a year or two the factory, even with its increased accommodation, will be taxed to its utmost. Glazed partitions divide the departments, and about a quarter of the whole area is occupied by 150 hands making uppers. There are three tables laid down in this department, on which 60 machines are placed for closing uppers. One table is fitted with Singer machines, another with Wheeler and Wilson's new No. 12—the most improved upper machine in the trade,—and the third is occupied by a variety of machines such as the Reece button-hole machine, the embroidering, cylinder, and wax-thread machines. In the bottoming department there has also been a large increase to the machinery, principally a full set of the most improved heeling machines, each set of which is capable of putting the heels on 200 dozen pairs of boots per week. The system on which these machines is worked makes it practically impossible for the heels to give way, very heavy pressure being brought to bear on the separate lifts which comprise the heel, and the solid manner in which the heel is attached makes the work very much superior to the old method of hand-built heels. Altogether, the system in which the factory is laid out is generally recognised as one of the finest, if not the finest, in the kingdom.

The goods made comprise all kinds most in request amongst the medium and best family trade, and are in every way adapted to the needs of our societies. Every pair is stamped with the trade marks of the society as a guarantee of quality; and we are confident of a marked increase in appearance and finish of these goods since opening our new works, and are certain that better value cannot be given if material and workmanship be considered.

It gives us great pleasure to state that the workers in this factory and ourselves are on the most amicable terms.

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

PRODUCTIVE DEPARTMENTS.—QUARTERLY STATEMENT SHOWING EXPENSES AND NET PROFIT.

BOOT AND SHOE FACTORY.

	Transferred.		Production.		Expenses.		Rate per Cent on Production	Net Profit on Production.	Rate per Cent on Production	Net Loss.	Rate per Cent.
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.					
May 2, 1885.....	3,298	16 7	3,298	16 7	1,183	10 5	35.87	£ 47 9 10	1.42
August 1, 1885.....	5,222	6 4	5,222	6 4	1,642	8 2	31.44	65 14 11	1.24
October 31, 1885.....	5,283	9 3	5,283	9 3	1,686	10 3	31.91	175 4 4	3.31
January 30, 1886.....	5,456	19 0	5,456	19 0	1,723	7 0	31.57	81 8 8	1.48
May 1, 1886.....	6,535	2 5	6,535	2 5	2,010	0 5	30.75	165 13 2	2.52
July 31, 1886.....	6,217	1 1	6,217	1 1	2,101	11 6	33.77	215 3 5	3.45
*December 25, 1886.....	15,607	4 2	15,607	4 2	4,290	7 0	27.49	651 19 9	4.17
March 26, 1887.....	6,105	16 5	6,105	16 5	2,161	8 4	35.39	60 12 7	0.98
June 25, 1887.....	8,757	13 0	8,757	13 0	2,796	10 5	31.92	63 15 4	0.72
September 24, 1887.....	9,100	13 10	9,100	13 10	2,882	11 1	31.66	393 16 3	4.31
December 31, 1887.....	9,892	17 1	9,870	13 7	3,198	1 6	32.40	619 19 8	6.28
March 31, 1888.....	7,857	5 5	8,162	3 4	2,759	2 8	33.80	405 4 1	4.96
June 30, 1888.....	6,564	3 5	7,293	17 3	2,747	5 0	37.66	282 10 0	3.86
Totals.....	95,899	8 0	96,911	16 3	31,182	13 9	32.17	3,181 2 2	..	£ 47 9 10	..
								47 9 10	..		
								3,133 12 4	3.23		

* Twenty-one weeks

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

QUARTERLY STATEMENT, BOOT AND SHOE DEPARTMENT, FROM DATE OF KEEPING A SEPARATE ACCOUNT.

	Net Sales.			Expenses.			Rate of Pence per £ of Sales.			Net Profit.			Rate of Pence per £ of Sales.			Stocks.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Quarter ending January 31, 1885..	10,188	11	5	290	18	9	6	8		596	3	8	14	0		5,990		
" " May 2, 1885..	12,549	19	5	353	2	4	6	7		608	18	9	11	6		5,530		
" " August 1, 1885..	16,185	10	11	429	16	10	6	4		777	3	8	11	5		9,400		
" " October 31, 1885..	16,542	18	4	529	0	6	7	6		499	12	2	7	2		11,520		
" " January 30, 1886..	14,120	7	6	549	9	11	9	3		460	5	6	7	8		11,200		
" " May 1, 1886..	16,190	5	3	556	12	0	8	3		560	19	3	8	3		11,130		
" " July 31, 1886..	16,467	16	11	538	0	6	7	9		585	11	5	8	5		11,490		
" " * December 25, 1886..	28,856	18	8	980	7	10	8	2		942	0	7	7	8		15,500		
" " " March 25, 1887..	14,242	19	10	602	18	11	10	1		256	19	6	4	3		14,150		
" " " June 25, 1887..	18,416	14	3	602	10	3	7	8		616	6	6	8	0		13,185		
" " " September 24, 1887..	17,259	16	10	598	15	6	8	2		310	11	7	4	3		14,730		
" " " † December 31, 1887..	20,704	14	9	736	4	10	8	3		605	2	9	7	0		15,490		
" " " " March 31, 1888..	16,373	12	5	669	10	7	10	1		153	9	6	2	3		15,630		
" " " " June 30, 1888..	19,721	3	3	652	6	7	8	0		389	16	3	4	7		11,710		
Totals	237,821	9	9	8,089	15	4	8	1		7,363	1	1	7	4		11,710		

* Twenty-one weeks. † Fourteen weeks.

SCOTTISH
CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.

FURNITURE DEPARTMENT.

IN the last year's report of this department we gave a brief account of the origin of the word "furniture," and endeavoured to show that the furniture in the houses of the people illustrated more clearly than anything of a material kind the progress that such a people were making in civilisation. It is pleasing to note this fact, and to point out that no better proof of the advanced enlightenment of the people can be had than the difference in the style and finish of the furniture to be seen in the homes, more particularly of the working-classes, than what existed a century ago. It is not our intention to go over the ground already travelled; we would therefore confine our remarks to the progress this department has made in the past year, and point out our aspirations for the coming years. We are glad to state that in the year that is closed a steady increase in business has been recorded; and it is gratifying to note that the larger increase is in furniture of our own manufacture, a proof that the goods are giving satisfaction. At the same time we would point out to societies and members that if the manufacturing section of our business is to be successful a much larger trade than hitherto must be done. As we pointed out in our last report our trade had out-grown our accommodation, so that larger premises were necessary. This want has now been supplied at Shieldhall, where a large factory has been erected and fitted-up with the most improved machinery, where we can now turn out four times the quantity that we formerly did in our old premises with hand labour. This increase we must have, otherwise the capital invested would give no return—a result that would be unfortunate, not only to ourselves, but to the general body of the people whom you one day expect to benefit by and through this marriage of capital with labour. That such a calamity is to be averted entirely depends upon the support this new venture will receive at the hands of the co-operators throughout the country. No doubt the wants of the individual are only occasional and limited, yet the average consumption constant and large, as has already been so succinctly put in an article on Distributive Production which appeared in the "Annual" of 1887, and which we cannot do better than again bring before the notice of the reader. "To approximate the possible average for this department, take the value of the furniture held by the members of our Wholesale at the low average of forty pounds, and assuming that only one half of it is renewed during a period of twenty years, the annual expenditure would be seventy-seven thousand pounds—say one pound per

member per annum—a sum barely sufficient to cover the everyday wear and tear of the ordinary kitchen utensils. Surely there is something wrong—a screw loose somewhere—a serious misapprehension of the utility and value of the service rendered by the furniture department.” If but a very small effort were made by the managers and salesmen of societies, we are confident our trade for the year upon which we have entered would at least be doubled, as multitudes of the members must be purchasing their furniture and furnishings past the store, and they themselves losing the profits on the transaction.

In conclusion, we assert that, for quality of wood and workmanship, our furniture is not excelled by any manufacturers in the country ; buying for cash, as we do, we are enabled to compete with any manufacturer. We therefore trust we shall have the increased support of every society in the federation, assuring all that every effort shall be made to give satisfaction.

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

QUARTERLY STATEMENT, FURNITURE AND FURNISHING DEPARTMENT, FROM DATE OF KEEPING A SEPARATE ACCOUNT.

	Net Sales.			Expenses.			Rate per £ of Sales.			Net Profit.			Rate per £ of Sales.			Stocks.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	d.	£	s.	d.	d.	£	s.	d.	d.	£	s.	d.
Quarter ending January 31, 1885..	3,022	18	2	210	11	11	16·7	81	13	3	6·4	3,500						
" " May 2, 1885..	2,636	9	6	262	5	10	23·8	14	17	11	0·4	4,410						
" " August 1, 1885..	7,200	12	9	392	6	7	13·0	221	4	9	7·4	4,620						
" " October 31, 1885..	5,599	11	1	420	1	5	18·0	133	3	10	5·6	5,600						
" " January 20, 1886..	6,744	8	11	445	7	4	15·8	145	4	10	5·2	6,180						
" " May 1, 1886..	7,026	7	0	470	18	2	16·0	195	9	8	6·4	7,020						
" " July 31, 1886..	9,621	1	11	500	9	6	12·4	410	10	0	10·2	7,650						
" " *December 25, 1886..	13,157	12	1	914	4	7	16·6	292	9	7	5·4	7,400						
" " March 25, 1887..	7,315	11	8	577	14	1	18·9	160	16	8	5·2	8,750						
" " June 25, 1887..	11,083	17	4	590	17	11	12·8	611	14	4	13·9	9,290						
" " September 24, 1887..	8,567	19	0	618	12	4	17·3	323	12	11	9·0	9,570						
" " †December 31, 1887..	11,956	12	7	723	6	11	14·5	677	17	2	13·6	9,150						
" " March 31, 1888..	8,295	17	1	667	6	7	19·3	311	7	10	9·0	10,370						
" " June 30, 1888..	12,865	9	6	738	3	6	13·9	755	16	7	13·9	10,540						
Totals.....	115,044	8	7	7,532	6	8	15·7	4,326	3	6	9·0	10,540						

* Twenty-one weeks.

† Fourteen weeks.

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

PRODUCTIVE DEPARTMENTS—QUARTERLY STATEMENT.

CABINET WORKSHOP.

	Transferred.	Production.	Expenses.	Rate per Cent.	Net Profit.	Rate per Cent.	Net Loss.	Rate per Cent.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£ s. d.	
January 31, 1885	144 3 9	144 3 9	102 19 9	71.52	4 1 11	1.18	10 6 0	6.94
May 2, 1885	388 8 1	388 8 1	179 12 0	52.95	16 14 8	4.12
August 1, 1885	388 0 5	388 0 5	228 3 10	58.76	9 19 8	2.39
October 31, 1885	417 17 7	417 17 7	214 13 5	51.31	15 14 5	4.30
January 30, 1886	361 0 0	361 0 0	219 0 5	60.66	0 6 11
May 1, 1886	371 8 1	371 8 1	209 0 6	56.06	14 7 6	2.77
July 31, 1886	504 6 6	504 6 6	276 16 0	54.76	69 3 5	6.93
*December 25, 1886	994 19 4	994 19 4	499 14 10	50.15	18 1 0	2.90
March 26, 1887	620 2 1	620 2 1	312 11 11	50.32	6 18 3	1.20
June 25, 1887	582 12 0	582 12 0	326 19 9	56.18	15 11 6	2.28
September 24, 1887	656 13 0	656 13 0	329 10 7	50.15	27 0 3	3.86
December 31, 1887	629 9 6	697 19 11	410 6 10	58.73	24 9 8	3.68
March 31, 1888	457 14 8	651 11 8	330 15 11	50.69	12 7 7	1.49
June 30, 1888	960 9 2	801 0 9	384 2 8	47.94	234 16 9	..	10 6 0	..
Totals	7,427 4 2	7,530 3 2	4,024 8 5	53.43	10 6 0	2.97

* Twenty-one weeks.

SCOTTISH
CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.

PRINTING DEPARTMENT.

NOTWITHSTANDING the misgivings that were entertained regarding the establishment of this department, and the fears that were expressed in some quarters that, the field for this branch of industry being already occupied, its operations would have a disastrous effect on existing institutions, it is pleasing to find that these fears have proved groundless, and the success of the business during the first year of its existence has amply proved the wisdom and foresight of the directorate in its promotion.

From the first it has enjoyed a steady and ever-increasing flow of work, so that its probationary term, so to speak, has been passed under the most favourable circumstances. Indeed, the rapid growth of, and the difficulty of keeping pace with, the development of the business in the premises selected, has been the only source of anxiety, and for some time past all the available space has been occupied. In common with nearly all the productive branches started by the Wholesale, the Printing Department has already outgrown the perhaps too modest dimensions assigned to it, and "more room" became a clamant necessity ere the business was well under weigh. Happily, relief is at hand, and ere this volume comes before our readers the Printing Department will be in possession of the new and spacious premises erected for it at Shieldhall, beside the other productive works of the Wholesale. Profiting by the experience already obtained, ample space has been provided for future extensions and the accommodation of new departments, and the building has been designed and fitted up with a view to the greatest facility in production, and also with a watchful eye to the health and comfort of the workers. As reorganised, the business now embraces all the branches of letterpress printing, special attention being given to the production of balance sheets, rules, reports, circulars, bills, programmes, &c., with accuracy and despatch. Also paper-ruling and bookbinding, including all kinds of ledgers and account books, flimsy, check and receipt books, the binding in any style of current literature, and the re-binding of library volumes. An important addition has also been made in the production of bags and wraps for shop use, printed with special co-operative designs.

In again urging the support of this important department upon the members of the federation, it may be well to remind them that, apart from its special claim as a branch of productive co-operation, established for their convenience, it is intended and may be utilised as a valuable adjunct of their own business, from the fact that

being entirely engaged in the production of purely co-operative work, and having a staff specially trained in the various characteristics of a special trade, there is less liability to error, and a guarantee that the work will be done in the most approved way.

Societies entering on new departments have often considerable difficulty in devising an accurate and economic method of administration. Many have only attained efficiency after much labour and experiment, and intelligent directors and managers are ever on the outlook for improved and time-saving methods. With a view to assist in this laudable work, arrangements have been made in the new premises of the Printing Department to provide for the inspection and guidance of customers a complete assortment of the forms in general use, classified under their different branches, such as drapery, butchery, bakery, shoemaking, tailoring, dressmaking, &c., so that societies entering upon any of these branches may at once have the benefit of adopting the most improved methods of bookkeeping and check which experience has suggested.

Under a mistaken notion of economy, many officers of societies are content to carry on their work on very primitive lines, thereby entailing upon themselves much unnecessary labour and worry; and much clerical work could be obviated by the aid of a little printers' ink without, in the smallest degree, increasing the expenses. To the development of these special features of our trade the greatest attention will be given, and societies may at all times rely on our earnest endeavours to supply their wants, and place at their disposal all the information in our possession.

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

PRODUCTIVE DEPARTMENTS—QUARTERLY STATEMENT.

PRINTING WORKSHOP.

	Transferred.	Production.	Expenses on Production.	Rate per Cent.	Net Profit on Production.	Rate per Cent.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.	
December 31, 1887	649 14 2	653 15 5	347 14 7	53.13	41 19 10	6.43
March 31, 1888	698 16 9	692 5 2	350 5 6	50.57	44 14 0	6.35
June 30, 1888	767 14 9	783 8 7	355 11 1	45.33	72 16 5	9.19
Totals.....	2,116 5 8	2,129 9 2	1,053 11 2	49.46	159 10 3	7.46

**SCOTTISH
CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.**

BONUS ON LABOUR.

BONUS on wages to employés has been paid from quarter ending November 19th, 1870. From that date till November, 1884, the rate paid on wages per £ was double the rate of dividend paid on members' purchases per £; but on the latter date this arrangement was cancelled, and a new rule framed, which is now in operation. This rule is to the effect that employés in the distributive departments receive a similar rate per £ on their wages as is paid per £ on members' purchases, and the workers in the productive departments are paid in accordance with the profits made in those departments in the aggregate in the following manner :—The net profit, after meeting all charges, including interest on capital employed, is divided at so much per £ equally between purchases and wages earned.

The following statement shows amount paid to employés as bonus on labour, from November 19th, 1870, to June 30th, 1888 :—

				Amount.			Average Rate per £.		
				£	s.	d.	s.	d.	
Quarter ending	November	19, 1870	5	11	0	0	8
Year	"	"	18, 1871	40	10	0	0 10½
"	"	"	16, 1872	52	7	0	0 9½
"	"	"	15, 1873	90	1	8	0 9½
"	"	"	14, 1874	116	9	0	0 8½
"	"	"	13, 1875	109	15	4	0 8
"	"	"	4, 1876	108	13	4	0 8
"	"	"	3, 1877	121	10	0	0 8
"	"	"	2, 1878	147	17	0	0 8
"	"	"	2, 1879	203	3	0	0 9½
"	"	October	30, 1880	322	9	3	1 1
"	"	November	5, 1881	368	3	8	1 0
"	"	"	4, 1882	453	9	1	0 11
"	"	"	3, 1883	542	3	0	0 11½
"	"	"	1, 1884	484	2	6	0 9½
"	"	October	31, 1885	483	13	1	0 6¾
"	"	December	25, 1886	873	0	6	0 6½
"	"	"	31, 1887	918	2	3	0 6¾
Six months	"	June	30, 1888	584	11	10	0 6 7d.
Total.....				£6025	12	6			

SCOTTISH
CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY
LIMITED.

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES, SEPTEMBER 8TH, 1888.

		Collective Totals.
Glasgow Distributive Departments—Office.....	—	59
— Watchmen	3	
— Grocery Warehouse	53	
— Ham Curing	10	
— Potatoes	3	
	<hr/>	69
— Drapery Departments	64	
— Mantle „	11	
— Millinery „	6	
	<hr/>	81
— Furniture Departments.....	—	31
— Boot and Shoe „	—	18
— Carting.....	—	17
— Dining-room	—	9
— Sugar Forwarding	—	1
Glasgow Building Departments:—		
— Masons	26	
— Joiners.....	16	
— Plumbers and Painters.....	13	
— Labourers	16	
	<hr/>	71
Glasgow Productive Departments:—		
— Printing	24	
— Cabinet Factory.....	53	
— Shirt „	82	
— Knitting „	23	
— Tailoring „	172	
— Boot and Shoe Factory.....	339	
	<hr/>	693
Total for Glasgow	<hr/>	1049
— Leith	—	35
— Kilmarnock	—	10
— Dundee.....	—	6
— Enniskillen	—	3
	<hr/>	1103

Twenty Years' Wholesale Distribution in Scotland.

Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited.

YEARS.	CAPITAL.	SALES.	PROFITS.	YEARS.
	£	£	£	
1868, 13 weeks	1,795	9,697	48	13 weeks, 1868
1869, 52 "	5,175	81,094	1,304	52 " 1869
1870, 50 "	12,543	105,249	2,419	50 " 1870
1871, 52 "	18,009	162,658	4,131	52 " 1871
1872, 52 "	30,931	262,530	5,435	52 " 1872
1873, 52 "	50,433	384,489	7,446	52 " 1873
1874, 52 "	48,992	409,947	7,553	52 " 1874
1875, 52 "	56,751	430,169	8,233	52 " 1875
1876, 51 "	67,219	457,529	8,836	51 " 1876
1877, 52 "	72,568	589,221	10,925	52 " 1877
1878, 52 "	83,174	600,590	11,969	52 " 1878
1879, 52 "	93,077	630,097	14,989	52 " 1879
1880, 52 "	110,179	845,221	21,685	52 " 1880
1881, 54 "	135,713	986,646	23,981	54 " 1881
1882, 52 "	169,429	1,100,588	23,220	52 " 1882
1883, 52 "	195,396	1,253,154	28,366	52 " 1883
1884, 52 "	244,186	1,300,331	29,435	52 " 1884
1885, 52 "	288,946	1,438,220	39,641	52 " 1885
1886, 60 "	333,653	1,857,152	50,398	60 " 1886
1887, 53 "	367,309	1,810,015	47,278	53 " 1887
1888, 26 "	389,921	901,453	23,813	26 " 1888
TOTALS.	389,921	15,616,060	371,106	TOTALS.

**COMMENCED
SEPTEMBER, 1868.**

LAND TENURE IN ENGLAND.

BY PROFESSOR J. E. THOROLD ROGERS.

EARLY TIMES.

VERY little is known of landlords and landholding in the days which preceded the Norman Conquest. The rovers who came over hither from Northern Germany and conquered England very slowly were, it seems, like all other German or Teutonic people, settlers in villages, freeholders in the strictest sense of the word, and bound together only by the necessity of a common defence against the people whom they had dispossessed, but who did not relinquish their ancient possessions without a struggle. Now, these settlers were far too few to occupy all that which they conquered. They destroyed or neglected the towns, and these consequently got into the hands of the King. Now, the King gradually grew stronger, and began to reward his followers by giving them grants of unsettled land. The custom of the time was that every offence was expiated by a fine. If the delinquent did not or could not pay, he became a serf. It is probable, too, that many more of the old inhabitants were left than people imagine, and these had to undergo servitude. In course of time the King's followers got tenants or cultivators for their land; and as money was scarce, and these workmen had to live, they were paid by land, the rent of which was their labour. The original free settlers were called churls, not then a term of reproach; the king's servants were called thanes, and the peasants of servile condition had many names, but at last they were universally called villeins or serfs.

But there was another change to come. We do not know when it came, but we can see that it was inevitable. These isolated villagers were weak, disunited, and incapable of common action. At the same time bands of rovers, as eager and unscrupulous as the first Saxon or English settlers, were constantly upon them, and the freedom which the settlers possessed seemed little worth. Now, always near them was some great man whom the king had enriched, who was willing, for a consideration paid in money or kind, but always under the condition that they surrendered their independence, to take them under his protection and become their lord; thus the thane became a lord, which people tell us meant originally a giver of bread, though in practice he became rather a taker of it. But fine words are never lacking for harsh deeds. At the same time, what is called the feudal system, the principle of which I have just stated, was admirable in theory. The lords constituted themselves, in name at least, the protectors of the husbandmen—were a kind of police whose services were paid for. The situation, however, was one in which they could constitute themselves the judges of what was due to them, and could also form their

own conclusions as to the extent of the services which they should render in return. That they abused their position and oppressed their inferiors is unquestionable. People who have the power to take advantage will use the power until they are checked. They did so in the days of the Saxon kings, and they have done so in the days of the Hanoverian kings.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

Now, everyone knows, that 822 years ago, William the Norman fought a battle in the South of England, in which the Saxon King was killed, and the country was subdued. I am quite sure that if the English had been really attached to the lords who were over them, the conquest of England, after a single battle, would have been impossible. As it was, though the particulars of the conquest are lost to us, the struggle was very long and destructive. I should think, from what is said in Domesday, that at least a third of the English population was destroyed in the Norman's reign, and many parts, especially in the north, were laid utterly waste. William was a very shrewd man. He dispossessed all, or nearly all, the English nobility, and conferred all their existing rights or powers on his Norman followers. They were, and could only have been, a camp in England. In theory he confiscated all the land of all the English, though, of course, in practice, they still retained possession of their holdings. Now, the meaning of this policy was to deprive the English of leaders, and to plant his Normans among a race where they had need to be vigilant in order to hold their own. No Englishman had any position of trust either in the State or in the Church till long after the Norman Conquest. But the new King did not intend that these settlers of his should become independent, if he could help it, as such people were in France. He took care that the estates which he gave them should be scattered up and down the country. With the same purpose, he seems to have introduced the custom called primogeniture, under which all the land granted went to the eldest son. In this way he limited the number of his principal dependants. I am quite aware that the peculiar custom of primogeniture in England has been made the subject of discussion as to its origin. But it certainly was in vogue after the Conquest, and the custom, to my mind, played excellently into the hands of an astute and cautious ruler. The Norman Conquest, to the Englishman of the time, was essentially a change of masters, and as far as the English people went, it was entirely successful. And I am pretty sure that if, after the Revolution of 1649, Cromwell had confiscated all the estates of all the Royalists, and put his own followers into their places, the Restoration would have been impossible, for want of leaders. As it was, he allowed them to ransom their property, and this gave them a chance of recovering all their authority, and much more.

William made a complete conquest of the English. As long as he lived he kept his new aristocracy in check, though he had to deal sharply with some of them. But, in the days of his grandson, they divided themselves into two factions, inflicted incredible misery on the English people, and pretty nearly exterminated each other. There are a good many people who say that their families came here with the Conqueror, and there is an institution in the city of London which appears to countenance these pretensions—I presume for a consideration. But I do not believe

LAND TENURE IN ENGLAND.

in a single one of their pedigrees, and I don't believe that anybody can make them out. There is not a single noble family in England which goes back to that time, or can give any evidence that their ancestors did. They were all, I am convinced, wiped out in Stephen's reign.

THE OWNERS OF LAND, AND THEIR LIABILITIES.

OF course, they had successors in their position and their authority, but these people were a good deal kept under by Stephen's successor, in whose reign the fusion of the races was effected. In this time there were, as before, three classes—lords, freemen, and serfs. The first two classes always had land, the last almost universally. It was the custom to speak of the serfs as people who had no rights whatever. I have always doubted of this, at a time when matters were apparently at the worst, and I am sure that it is not true, when documentary evidence is forthcoming, *i.e.*, at about a hundred years after Henry II. began to reign. Now, a large mass of people do not rise from sheer slavery to comparative freedom and the possession of landed property in a hurry.

THE NOBLE OR KNIGHTLY OWNER.

Now let us look at the conditions under which these several classes held land, and what obligations they had to fulfil. To my mind, the position of the noble or lord was quite as disagreeable—I had almost said as degraded—as that of a serf. He had to obey the King's summons to council, or, to use a modern phrase, the House of Lords; and for many a century woe betided him if he neglected the summons. He had to serve in the King's wars at his own expense, and with his followers, for a certain space of time, and could not take into account the time he spent in going and returning, and the charges which it put him to. If he died while his male heir was under age, the boy, during legal infancy, was in the King's keeping, and all the profits of his estate went into the King's hands. When he came of age, he had to pay a year's value, at least, of his property, in order to get possession of it. Then he must take the wife the King offered him, or pay the sum which the parents of any young woman would offer for him. If the deceased lord left daughters only, their lands went into the King's custody, and they had to take such husbands as the King chose to provide them with. Not a little of the romance of these early times is to be found in stories as to how young heirs and heiresses strove to escape from these hateful marriages. Now, these liabilities continued to the Restoration, and I shall have to point out how they were finally got rid of, and at whose expense. It is sufficient here to say that the burden was put on the wrong shoulders. According to modern notions, then, a lord had a very risky position.

THE COMMON FREEHOLDER.

Now, the freeholder, who, by the way, had to serve in the militia in case of actual invasion, was in a far better position. He had to pay a rent, fairly full, I must admit, for the time, but it was fixed and could not be increased. Any improvement therefore in his property, whether made by himself or the result of growing demand for it, or any other form of increment, was in no danger of being plundered by the

LAND TENURE IN ENGLAND.

lord. If the freeholder died, the income of his property was accumulated for his heir's benefit, and the legal guardian of the child had to account for every penny. He could marry at his own discretion, for no one could be forced on him; so if the freeholder left girls, the same care was taken of their interests, and the same liberty of marriage was allowed them. In short, so great were the advantages belonging to this kind of estate called *soage*, that when the liabilities of the lords were done away with, only a few words were necessary in order to emancipate their estates, which were declared to be held thenceforward in free and common *soage* only.

THE SERF OWNER.

THE serf was, in many particulars, very much in the position of the lord. He did not indeed serve in the militia, but he could enlist in the King's army, and I have found that some of these serfs rose to rank, even to knighthood—the most coveted of all distinctions in these early times—if they were brave, competent, and fortunate. He, too, had to pay a rent. It was generally in labour—so many days at plough, so many days at harvest, and the like. But in every case he could get off the labour by a money payment—generally a less sum than the ordinary rate of wages, for compulsory labour, as the writers of the time say, was never cheerfully yielded, and seldom satisfactory. He could not leave the manor without leave, but he generally could compound for this by a small annual sum. He could not marry his daughter, or educate his son for the Church, without paying a fine. I have seen hundreds of such fines, and they are always moderate. He could not bring an action against his lord, and in just the same way his lord could not bring an action against the King. He could bring an action against his lord for personal injuries, which was more than his lord could against the King, who could only go to war with the King, if he could get a party, and dethrone him, as English nobles frequently succeeded in doing.

I do not say that everybody held agricultural land, and was a husbandman, though most were. But even the poorest labourer had his own cottage on the same fixity of tenure and the same sort of small rent. I cannot say that harsh doings were unknown, but for a long time I have found no complaint of them. I am sure that such actions were unpopular, and I know, as everyone else does, since I told the story more than twenty years ago, that the great landowners were terribly frightened at the resentment of the peasants, when what might now be thought a very moderate oppression was attempted.

THE COMMON FIELDS.

THE cultivation in all these settlements, parishes, or manors, was of a peculiar kind, and was undoubtedly the result of very ancient custom. There were common fields in which every one of the owners had a certain number of strips, often only a quarter of an acre each, which were separated by a narrow piece of unploughed land. Nothing was sown on these slips but corn, for after the harvest was reaped the sheep and cattle were turned into the common field and went all over it. But besides the common fields there were commons of pasture in which every inhabitant had the right to turn his sheep and cattle. The property in these commons was collective, but the right of pasturage was as much the husbandman's property as his

LAND TENURE IN ENGLAND.

strips were in the common field. Some people, especially the great men, had enclosed fields of their own, and it is said to have been a trick of such men, that they put their own sheep and cattle on the common field till it was eaten bare before they turned them into their own enclosed pastures. Besides this, there was the wood, which did not belong to the householders, but to the lord. It was of some importance to send the cattle into in spring, and the pigs in autumn, and a small sum was paid for this convenience. Now, such a system of cultivation was not good, for it was a hindrance to improvement. But when these estates were enclosed the grossest injustice was done.

SELF-GOVERNMENT IN THE VILLAGE.

WITHIN the limits of the parish, justice was practically administered by the inhabitants themselves. The lord's deputy sat as a judge. If people did what was wrong; if the miller took more than his due, or the alehouse-keeper gave short measure or bad beer, or people broke the peace, or harboured strangers without permission, the offenders were presented by the freeholders, and tried by a jury taken from all the inhabitants. The jury spoke of their own knowledge, and found the person guilty or not. Then the deputy or steward fined him, sometimes hanged him when the offence was very great; the fines going to the lord. The system was not a bad one. If the steward was too severe the freeholders would not present the offenders, and as the fines went to the lord, the machinery of local justice was not permitted to gratify private strife. In my opinion the old manor court was a far better tribunal than the magistrate's parlour, or the quarter sessions. I think it might well have been restored in the Local Government Act of this year.

AGRICULTURE UNIVERSALLY FOLLOWED.

Now, the peculiarity of English life at this time was, that every one cultivated land with his own capital, from the King on the throne to the serf. I have constantly found that artisans are landowners. The hours of labour, as I have proved, were only eight, and, the work over, the mason and carpenter, the smith and the tiler, betook themselves to their little holdings of from 20 to 50 acres. I know this, because I frequently find that men who were working at buildings sell agricultural produce. There never were such workmen. The grand cathedrals and churches, the old abbeys and castles, the old colleges in Oxford and Cambridge, were planned by workmen. I know this, for when, rarely enough, an architect is employed, his wages are very little more than those of an ordinary artisan. Now, these holdings were very useful. Men kept their families on the produce of their small farms, and saved from their wages. There were also two advantages from this universal custom of agriculture. In the first place, it gave the small husbandman the opportunity of seeing how the best agriculture of the time was carried on. In the next, as everyone had property, property was respected. In the many thousand ancient farm accounts which I have read, I have scarcely ever noted that anything was stolen, and this in accounts which vouch for every egg, every chick, and every peck of corn which was grown and disposed of. Our forefathers were, without knowing it—for the word was not invented—co-operators, in the strictest and most statesmanlike manner. And as I shall show presently, these peasants had a very efficient trade union.

THE DESCENT OF LAND.

THE custom of primogeniture was all but universal, as regards the lords and the freeholders. To this, however, there was the remarkable exception of the county of Kent, where the land of a deceased person was divided equally among all his descendants. But there were very curious customs as regards the serfs' land. Sometimes it was divided equally, sometimes it went to the youngest son. In early times no person could give land by will. But, under the circumstances just described, the custom of primogeniture was not a very serious evil. The eldest son had the land, but the younger sons had their share of the stock. Now, many years ago I found out that, as a rule, the stock kept on land, and the capital needed to carry on agriculture, were three times the value of the land. So the younger sons, when they came into their share, got holdings at a fixed rent—for fixed rents were a universal custom—from the eldest son, which they were technically said to hold of him, as the other but smaller freeholders did.

This system led to two changes in the law, both carried by Edward I. near 600 years ago. The lords were allowed to sell their land, the purchaser to occupy the same place and be subject to the same liabilities as the vendor was. The other law permitted entails—that is, allowed a person to give or sell a limited estate, generally on the condition that the estate should go back to the grantor or giver, as he was called, if the descendants of the original purchaser, or donee as the term went, failed. Edward, I am certain, did not anticipate what mischief would come from this concession, and indeed it was hardly manifest for near 200 years after his time, when it became an intolerable nuisance. At the time, however, which I have described, there was hardly an idler in England.

TENANT FARMERS.

THE tenant farmer in our sense of the word was not unknown, and after a time he became common. But he was far from being on a rack or famine rent, as I am accustomed to call that rent in which only the barest subsistence is left to the occupier, and he is plundered in a thousand ways. For if I have made myself at all clear, it was no easy matter to import a stranger into any parish. It was contrary to public sentiment, as it is to this day in Ireland, where such a person, not recently, but by ancient custom, is considered a land grabber. When land came to be let to tenants, the only persons who could be found to take it, or indeed could safely take it, were the existing freeholders, or in some cases the serfs. I have found cases in which a London company has put a very severe fine on certain members of the guild who had offered a higher rent than the present occupier paid, the fine being at least two years' full rent of the premises. I have constantly found, too, that when the land was rented, it was taken in many parcels and for different terms. This proves that it was taken as the tenant's means increased, and that the owner was glad to get tenants. One of the inducements offered to such people was stock at a very moderate cost, and one of the commonest customs was to guarantee the tenant against any loss of his flock beyond a certain amount. We may be sure, that when a landowner offers to insure his tenants against losses, tenants were not over plentiful.

LAND TENURE IN ENGLAND.

THE SERFS OPPRESSED, AND ITS CONSEQUENCES.

THERE was, however, one class of small landowners that the landlords fancied that they could squeeze. These were the serfs. Now, the law books and the lawyers—(it is incredible what mischief pedantic lawyers have done and still do)—had alleged that in strict law the serfs had no rights, as some spiteful and narrow-minded people say about their fellow-countrymen now. But for many years past the serfs had as much security in their holdings, as long as they met the fixed and very moderate dues put on them, as the freeholder had. The clause in the Great Charter which said that no man should be ruined by exorbitant charges—for this is what the words really mean—was held to apply to the serfs. Now, this rent was originally labour; but this labour had been commuted into money. Wages had meanwhile risen from 50 to 100 per cent, so the lords argued that they ought either to work on the old terms or pay an increased ransom for being put to the work. Perhaps it may seem reasonable to us, who are used to far harder bargains. It did not to the serfs, as they soon let the landlords know.

In the early summer of 1381 there burst out in England, and that simultaneously from Scarborough to Southampton, a tremendous insurrection, which was at first completely successful, and brought the landlords and the Government to their knees. At first they surrendered everything which was demanded, even the entire abolition of serfage. This insurrection is known in the histories as Wat Tyler's rebellion, but till I was able to point out its true meaning more than twenty years ago, no one knew what it meant. Never were the better-off classes in such a fright. When the insurrection was put down, mostly because the men trusted the King's and his counsellors' word and disbanded themselves, the landlords were furious. They said in Parliament what they say now—as I have often heard them say—that they would never give in, and they began to give in at once. They tried the favourite parliamentary process of punishment before remedy, but they had to yield. No attempt was made again to exact an increased labour rent, and within a generation the serf tenants became known as copyholders, or tenants by custom, and great men began to buy such property.

THE EARLY TRADE UNIONS.

PEOPLE may naturally ask, how was it that they were able to do so much? The answer is, that the peasant farmers were organised into a gigantic and all-embracing trade union, the like of which I have never discovered in the social history of any community. The nearest approach to it is the present organisation of the Irish tenant farmers. They had their agents and their funds. The agents were the people whom Wiclif called his "poor priests," who knew their passwords, and went unsuspectedly all over the country. Now, these people had taught the peasants that the only worthy people were the men who worked, and that idlers were no good. They went so far as to say that all authority was justified only by the worthiness of the man who claimed and exercised it, and they even extended this doctrine to property. They gathered their conclusions from the study of the Old Testament, in which a good deal is said about the inconvenience of worthless people, and especially

from the early ages of the Israelite people, when "every man did that which was right in his own eyes," and, in consequence, "sat under his own vine and his own fig tree, none daring to make him afraid." They had been told that this book was written by Divine authority, though they were not allowed to read it. When, thanks to Wiclif, they got hold of it in English, they were a good deal surprised and pleased to find how greatly, as they thought, it justified their demands.

The time was one in which insurrection was common. The English people have deposed and put out of the way more kings than any other European nation. The very king who put down the serfs was, eighteen years afterwards, put down himself, deposed, and, as far as we can make out, murdered by his cousin who succeeded him, and the nobles of his cousin's party. In the next century there was plenty of this putting down of kings, and the English people did not get tired of the custom, for they put down two more kings in the seventeenth century. Now, with plenty of examples before them, the serfs could hardly have failed of concluding that a process which the lords found so handy might be serviceable to themselves. For a century and a half after this England was virtually full of trade unions, which were exceedingly effective in securing the rights and promoting the progress of the working classes, artisans and peasants alike. Laws, to be sure, were made against them, but the laws never came into operation, and, in popular language, were not worth the paper they were written on.

THE FRANCHISE IN EARLY TIMES.

BUT the landlords contrived to inflict one blow on the small landowners, the effect of which they probably did not anticipate. At the beginning of the fifteenth century the people had universal suffrage given them, but thirty years afterwards the franchise was limited to the forty-shilling freehold, which was to be in one county only. Now, this seems, to our eyes, a small qualification. In reality it was a large one, being at least eighty acres of arable land, with all the rights of common which were attached to such an estate. Then they swamped these freeholders by giving seats to a number of decayed and miserable villages, called afterwards rotten boroughs, though they might have been called by this name in the beginning. At last the nobles, after disfranchising the peasants, took to quarrelling with each other, and, after thirty years' fighting, destroyed each other and the constitution.

While this fighting was going on, the lawyers bethought themselves of the statute of entails, and began to turn all the old estates into entails. There was this convenience in the process, that if one of the nobles was captured in battle, and lost his life, as he always did, for the rivals showed no mercy to their noble foes, the estate was not lost, but went to his next heir. Two processes were adopted in order to meet this practice. One was that of attainder by Act of Parliament, the other was a fictitious suit. But no one seems to have thought of the more simple and obvious course, that of repealing the Act which allowed such estates to be created. Perhaps the King, who always could pass attainder Acts, thought this convenient, for after the great civil war of the fifteenth century, the government of England became a despotism, in which Parliament was a form.

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CHANGES MADE BY HENRY VIII.

Now, with the exception of what I have stated, the land system of England, and the laws regulating it, were unchanged for centuries. But great changes were made by Henry VIII. He permitted owners to make a will of land, except of course entails; he made these entails liable to forfeiture for treason or bankruptcy, though not for ordinary debts, and he devised another plan for getting rid of entails by a fictitious action. On the whole his legislation on land was useful, though it was far from thorough. The injuries which he inflicted on England—greater than any English king besides ever did—were of a different kind.

Everyone knows that he dissolved the monasteries, and confiscated their land as well as their personal estates. The wealth of some among the shrines was enormous, having been the accumulation of centuries. His Parliament gave him the lands and the goods under a solemn pledge from him that he would never ask them again for extraordinary taxes. What became of this enormous property has never been discovered. Some went to the new families which he founded, and not a few of our old nobility, new enough then, owe their estates to the King's favour; but most of the property was sold, and the money squandered. It is said that one-third of the land in England belonged to the Church. In a very short time all was gone, the land and the goods alike, and the King was in as great straits as ever. He did not like, it seems, after what he had promised, to ask his Parliaments for money, so he committed a fraud on his people—he issued base money, *i.e.*, he put large quantities of base metal into his coins.

Now, Henry was the only King of England—his son's guardians followed his example—who committed this crime. It is said that ordinary criminals look with peculiar contempt on two classes of people with whom they herd—with those who make money by charging others with fictitious crimes, and those who try to put into circulation base money, *i.e.*, are coiners and "smashers." Their dislike is natural. The issue of base money is a crime which peculiarly affects the poor. People in trade soon begin to find it out, and can even make a profit by dealing in the vile stuff. But the poor man is helpless; he is forced to take the trash. To me Henry VIII. is the most entirely detestable person who ever handled the government of this country.

The consequence of this crime, continued during Edward's reign, was that the working classes were impoverished. Prices rose greatly, and as is always the case, wages did not rise with prices. The country was suddenly stricken with poverty. Besides, the new landlords were mere adventurers, who generally had not the means of doing their duty by the land. Everybody was pinched, and, for a century, England became one of the poorest countries in Europe. But, so great is the love of paradox among historians, that a writer has been found who has attempted to glorify this infamous miscreant—this royal "smasher."

WRONGS PUT ON WORKING MEN.

In his son's reign another great injury was inflicted on working men. As I have said, they were, peasants and artisans alike, enrolled in guilds or trade unions. Now, these combinations possessed a good deal of landed property. It was the universal

custom in the old times for people to grant land and annuities in order to secure religious offices for their souls, and generally the income was in excess of the charge. The difference went to the guild or union, and it is quite certain that the funds were considerable enough to relieve what was afterwards exacted for the relief of the poor. Now, on the plea that the funds were devoted to "superstitious uses," Somerset, Edward VI.'s uncle and guardian, confiscated them, and put the greater part of the proceeds into his own pocket. He employed the cash he got in building a vast house, of which no trace now remains, called, most appropriately, Wolf's Den. The property of the city companies was left them, for London in those days was a very awkward place to quarrel with, and the profits of the property, now greatly increased, are enjoyed, not by tradesmen and artisans, who gave the property, but by a set of rich gluttons, who do not in the smallest degree represent the original givers of the property.

At last, as prices kept rising all round, the landowners began a system of rack-renting. Every writer on husbandry during the time of the Stuarts comments on the injury done to English farmers and to agriculture by the exaction of impossible, and therefore famine rents. At the end of the seventeenth century, Gregory King, a very competent student of economical figures, credits the English farmer with the least power of saving among all the saving classes, for he reckons that he cannot lay by more than 25s. a year. The fact is, very little improvement was made in agriculture, and at the present time it is impossible to hope for improvement or recovery, as long as the laws allow a landowner to plunder a tenant's capital. If an occupier makes a genuine improvement of land, whether by culture or building, it ought to be and remain his own, to enjoy or sell; and I am greatly mistaken if the time is distant when this doctrine will become law. Now, it is impossible to examine the land question in England to any advantage, unless one takes into consideration the condition and fortunes of the tenant. I could quote language used by the critics of the English land system, two centuries ago, which would sound as though it were uttered yesterday. But, for all that Lord Bramwell and the people who think with him may say, law and right are not the same things, or we should not have to amend the law, and especially those abominations which are called, I hope contemptuously, judge-made law.

THE CIVIL WAR AND THE RESTORATION.

Now, the system which had been remodelled in the sixteenth century remained till the middle of the seventeenth, when civil war broke out. The financiers of Cromwell's time dropped the old sources of income which the King derived from the lords, and substituted for them a pretty heavy land tax, the tax being heaviest on those who had been in arms against the Parliament. Besides this, they put a direct tax on consumers when they purchased certain luxuries, which they made the dealers in these articles collect, under the name of the excise. But they did not confiscate estates as the Tudors and Stuarts had done, and this mercy of Cromwell's government left the Royalist party the means for reaction. They even permitted or winked at a new form of settling land, which people commonly but erroneously call an

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entail. This consisted in giving the virtual owner a life estate and creating an entail for his descendants or others. They established the principle that such an estate could not be docked without the consent of the life owner, and thus entirely evaded the risk of its being alienated. After the Restoration, when the lawyers who devised this system came into office, they gave the sanction of judge-made law to the new settlement.

Parliament became more powerful and the House of Lords most powerful after the Restoration. Before the civil war, the Lords were a very uninfluential body. After the King came back, they assumed a very great deal of importance, asserted privileges which had no place or being, except in their own conceit, and tried to draw all the business of finance and legislation of the country into their own House. Hence the quarrels between the two Houses were incessant; and though the House of Commons was scandalously corrupt, and in no sense representative, it had spirit enough to defend its own position. But I am concerned with what they did for the land and the landed interest.

DEVICES OF THE LANDLORDS.

THE first thing was, what was to be done with the old rights of the King over the estates of the lords? The Commonwealth had, as I have said, dropped them. At first they thought of putting a permanent tax, equal to the average income which the King obtained, on all landowners without distinction. But the ordinary freeholder and the copyholder were never liable to these dues, and it might be dangerous to put a new burden on them, especially as the freeholders had county votes. The honest thing would have been to charge the sum on those estates which were liable. But honesty was the last thing which the great landowners, now in the ascendant, thought of, and I doubt whether they have yet learned the rudiments of the lesson.

They determined to put the charge on the poor, so they granted the King the hereditary excise. Now, the excise was only payable on retail consumption. The farmer and landowner could brew their beer freely, and without charge. So could anyone who had the conveniences of private brewing. But the workmen in towns had no such conveniences, and so they had to recoup the brewer, who sold beer, for the tax which the Parliament put upon him. It was a grand idea, to increase the wealth of the rich at the expense of the poor! The class which did these things then, do the same things now, as I shall show.

The next thing they did was to pass a corn law, prohibiting any importation of corn except when prices rose to famine, for no one had had experience of the price—80s. a quarter—at which they allowed free importation. The effect of this atrocious law, the object of which was to keep up rents at the cost of the poor, was not felt at first, but it was sufficiently mischievous before the century was over. Before this time, the efforts of the Government were directed towards getting imports of food when seasons were bad. No doubt they were behind us in many things. But they did not denounce the demon of cheapness, or the demon of fine weather, or the demon of improved agriculture, or the demon of plenty, or the demon of fertility, or the demon of improvement and invention. I know from a study of prices, both of food and labour, that workmen are always paid better wages when goods are cheap than

they are when they are dear, or that it is always their own fault if they are not paid better. My inference is from the records of six hundred years, in which there is no exception to be found to the rule which I lay down. I may add, that they took care also to exclude food from Ireland, though it was impossible to pay rack-rents to absentee landlords without trade.

But I have not told the blackest deed of which this wicked Parliament, called in histories the Pensionary Parliament, was guilty. For several sessions the House of Lords attempted to pass a Bill under the modest, not to say attractive, title of the Statute of Frauds and Perjuries. The Act, as it was passed, contains some useful provisions. But one should never be deceived by the title of a Bill, or by its preamble. Both are frequently entirely hypocritical. Now, I had long been puzzling myself with the reason why, in the latter part of the seventeenth century, there was such a sudden and general disappearance of the small freeholders. I knew, for instance, that many such persons had existed on estates belonging to Oxford and Cambridge Colleges, that they had disappeared, and that the colleges held the land. Now, as I had examined their accounts of receipts and payments, I knew that they had not bought the freeholders out, for there was no entry of the transaction. I know, also, that income had mightily increased in these colleges during the seventeenth century, especially towards the end of it. Now, how could this be explained? I found it in the Statute of Frauds.

The first clause in this Act provides that from and after July 24th, 1677, *i.e.*, just after the Act was passed, all interests whatever, created by any process except by deed, shall be treated as tenancies at will only, any former law or usage to the contrary notwithstanding. Of course in modern times there would have been a clause saving existing rights, but no such clause appears here. I am sure that the effect and intention of the Act was to confiscate the estates of these small freeholders, who had no evidence to show in writing of the fact that they held their estates on condition that they satisfied a small fixed rent. I stated this fact, or this interpretation, in the House of Commons; and though there are plenty of lawyers in the House, especially when land questions are discussed, no one disputed what I alleged. It was a convenience to the reactionaries at the time to destroy these freeholders, for many, if not most of them, had Nonconformist or Puritan leanings; and during the rule of the sinners, great alarm was felt at the possible impulses of the saints. Three centuries before, a high-handed Act like this would have provoked an insurrection. But the English people had greatly changed since the days of the Lollards. It is a small matter beside this Act, that a few years earlier, the Parliament had made the condition of the eldest son better than it ever had been, by giving him a favoured position in the distribution of personal property.

LOCAL TAXATION AND OCCUPIERS.

THE rule or practice which put all local taxation on the occupier was established at a time when nearly every person was at once owner and occupier. Some time ago I came across an assessment made in a Surrey village in the year 1600 for local purposes and for certain local charges. The acreage of each inhabitant's holding is

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given. There are fifty-five, some having more than three hundred and fifty acres. Deducting six larger holdings, the average of the rest is a little over nineteen and a quarter acres. The basis of the rate is a penny an acre, *i.e.*, in rents at that time, about 1s. 8d. in the pound. But provision is made that persons holding ten acres and under shall pay the rate only once a year, those under thirty only twice; any further rates being paid by those only who had over thirty acres. But, unlike our modern country gentlemen, who assess themselves, provision is made that persons of much "ability and little occupying" shall not be exempt. In brief, the rate is to be graduated. The country gentlemen near three centuries ago were hard men, but they had some sense of justice, even where their own pockets were concerned. Their successors have left no effort untried to evade their just obligations, and to plunder their poorer neighbours. It is a dangerous doctrine to argue that men have no rights except what the law gives them. Let us suppose that Mr. George's doctrine is accepted and becomes law, and that the property of retired judges in their pensions is not only disputed but annulled. I wonder whether, in that case, Lord Bramwell would still assert that a man has no rights except those which the law gives him.

Now, it will be observed that as far as human power could act through legislation, the landowners during the Parliament of the Restoration had done everything in their power to secure high rents by stinting the food of the poor. They had prohibited importation, except at famine prices; they had excluded from Great Britain agricultural produce from Ireland; they had emancipated their estates from certain calculable charges at the expense of other people, in this case the poor; and they had stolen the property of such small freeholders as had not deeds to show for their property, but only ancient custom. And they had, moreover, by new-fangled conveyances, the constitutional legality of which was very disputable, so hedged round their estates, that no fraud and no vice of the life-owner was in any sense punishable by the loss of property. At the Revolution of 1688 they took another step. In order to secure a high price for produce and get a higher rent, they passed a law under which, when the price of wheat, rye, and barley was below a certain amount—which I may mention was a good deal above the average—a sum of money, gathered from the public taxes, was paid for every quarter of the corn which was exported. The bounty, as it was called, had another effect, as bounties always have. It led husbandmen to gamble for it, and the result was that an increasing area of land was cultivated, and prices instead of rising fell.

THE REVOLUTION AND THE LAND TAX.

Now, the Revolution of 1688 involved a war. The English nobles, with hardly an exception, revolted from James, and forced him to fly the country. Now, James, besides being an arbitrary and bigoted King, was exceedingly vindictive and unforgiving. We may be sure that had he come back by any chance, the condition of those who had deserted him and expelled him would have been far from pleasant. It was necessary, therefore, to endure war, and it was necessary also to find the means with which to maintain war. For a long time, as usual, they tried to get the

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means by taxing the working classes, for no indirect taxation is ever profitable which is not got out of the necessaries or common comforts of life. At last, however, they had to pay something, so the land tax was devised. A valuation was made of all land and houses, and what would have been a very heavy tax, if it had been a fair one, was imposed, viz., 4s. in the pound. But people were allowed to assess themselves, and they valued their property as country gentlemen value their own houses and parks at quarter sessions, at about a twelfth of their real value. The first valuation, not quite so dishonest as that with which I have compared it, was a mere declaration. It was unsatisfactory, and the next year men had to make oath as to the value. The result was still more unsatisfactory—a pretty clear proof of what the value of official oaths is—and in consequence, they had to take the people's word. This valuation has never been altered, and the consequence is that in this day the land tax in certain places is not, practically, a hundredth part of what it is in others. Land in the United Kingdom is more lightly taxed than it is in any civilised community.

THE NEW AGRICULTURE.

DURING the eighteenth century the landowners did a great service, for they took to farming themselves, and especially to the new agriculture. They never were so useful during their long existence, for they made the British husbandman the best agriculturist in the world; though I must add that their descendants have ruined the men whom their forefathers instructed. But though they did this service, they committed a new wrong. They began the system of enclosures, and as they were absolute in both Houses they did it with a high hand. Some of these enclosures were a rearrangement of the old common fields, under which the several owners obtained separate estates, instead of strips in a field. This was a benefit to all parties. But there were the commons. These they divided among the existing owners, proportionately to the size of each person's property. But the labourers, who had as much right to the commons as the landowners, had, we may conclude, no other property. So a little of the common was left, which afterwards became the subject of another enclosure. In this way about nine million acres were enclosed, *i.e.*, turned into private property, in England and Wales. No one knows how much of this was true common. But besides there was a process allowed, under which the enclosure could be effected without an Act of Parliament, for the nine millions of acres were all taken by Acts of Parliament, and I imagine that the common fields were generally distributed by these private arrangements. Then the landowners who had property adjoining the highways began to claim and enclose by their own acts such land as lay by the side of the road, where the poor man's cow, or sheep, or pig, or geese used to feed. I have seen, within the last twenty years, hundreds of acres enclosed from the wayside by one great landowner. People who live in towns do not understand howt his has stinted the peasant, has cut him off from small sources of income, has taken away every plot of ground on which he and his children could amuse themselves, and confined him to the high road. The landowners would have appropriated everything which was left, if some people in Parliament—I was one of them when I was there—had not clipped their talons.

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When the old commons existed, and before the new game laws were invented, poor men used, when they were unemployed, to snare game on the open spaces. I know this from reading the accounts of great people in old times, and noticing what enormous amounts of game they bought. Now, it is plain that had it come off their own land, they need not have bought it. It is plain again that if it came off other people's land, they were paying poachers to trespass; it must, therefore, have come off common land, on which the labourer had as good a right to sport as the squire. No doubt the modern poacher is a very bad lot, but, in many cases, he is exercising a right which the law violently took away from him and conferred on another. I do not excuse his action, but I think that I can account for it.

THE SETTLEMENT OF LAND.

OF course, when the law allowed a man to settle an estate, and continually add to it, it assessed the number of persons who possessed land. Some time ago a lying return was made to Parliament, which has got the name of the modern Domesday, and people pointed to the very large number of persons who owned land. But a little investigation shows that the same person might be counted twenty, fifty, or a hundred times over, and that a totally false impression as to the distribution of land might be and was created. Everything has been done that law could do to make great estates bigger, and little ones less. And the great landowners were not content with ordinary conveyances; they got private Bills passed, settling their estates by Act of Parliament. These Bills, by custom, always originated in the Lords, and were easily smuggled through the House of Commons. Some of us, a very few years ago, joined together to put difficulties in the way of this practice. Now, it is a plain fact in human nature, that when men are protected by law or custom against the consequences of their own follies and vices, they run a great risk of being foolish and vicious. Whether they are or are not in fact, I leave my readers to determine.

FOUR ACRES TO EVERY COTTAGE.

THERE was a statute of Elizabeth, passed almost exactly three hundred years ago, under which persons were prohibited building workmen's cottages unless they added four acres of land to them. Now, the landowners did not like this law; they said that it interfered with agriculture, and particularly with enclosures. I suspect that they thought it made the peasant too independent. So in the days of George III., so recently as that, they got the Act repealed. It seems to me that it was a wise and useful law, and I should like to see it revived. I do not like to see the best agricultural labourers and artisans leave the country. They are not the redundant population. But I know pretty well who are redundant, surplus, excessive. I would rather see such people leave the country by thousands, than see good workmen leave it by tens. I do not agree with Mr. George's theory of population, but it is infinitely nearer the truth than that of Mr. Malthus. But I am so far at one with him as to conclude that society is all the poorer for its idlers, its profligates, and its gamblers, and if it were rid of these people, need not very much fear a superfluity of workers.

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Now, the English land system suffered very little change from the Restoration to very modern times—in some particulars has suffered no change. But the significance a land system is not to be gathered entirely from the legal forms which settle inheritance or distribution, but in those facts which apply to the charges put on it, and the charges which it puts on others. I have pointed out how efforts, and these successful, were made to reduce the contribution of rents to the public necessities to a minimum, and how local taxation was put on occupation only. Now, undoubtedly with the object of improving rents, the magistrates in quarter sessions were empowered to fix the rate of wages to be paid to labourers and artisans, and to inflict penalties on those who took more than their workshops allowed. In other words, the persons most interested in low wages were permitted to settle what they and their tenants should pay, and to fine and imprison those who got more. It has been my fortune to discover some of these assessments for Lancashire and Cheshire, and I have been amazed at the excessive harshness and niggardliness of the squires. It was true that human nature was too strong for these petty tyrants, and that the wages actually paid were about 30 per cent above the legal allowance. But the motive was the same, and it cannot be doubted that these constantly-repeated assessments checked the natural rise in wages. There never was so evil a time for workmen as in the seventeenth century, when these assessments were the rule, except when the spirit of the workman was effectually broken, during the great continental war.

THE ENCLOSURE OF THE COMMONS.

Now, when the commons were filched from the poor and bestowed on the rich it was pleaded that the appropriation would improve agriculture, and that the workmen, by the operation of the poor law, had a first claim on the produce of land. The first argument is not worth much. Many of my readers could make, I do not doubt, a better use of some people's property than such people make of it. But this is not a good reason to allege for stealing that property, and the law, very rightly, would not admit such a plea in extenuation of a theft; and as for the next, the charge of maintaining the poor was not put on the owner who got the land, but on the occupier who tilled it, and on all occupiers alike. I admit that if the poor rate was very heavy the landowner began to suffer; but such landowners had to thank other landowners for the condition to which they were reduced. Where a landowner, as was often the case, owned all the land of the parish, his habit was to drive all the workmen off his property, and compel them to settle in some neighbouring parish where one man did not own everything. In this way he avoided all poor rates, and got the maintenance of workmen paid for out of other people's pockets, when they came in their sickness and old age on the rates, for it was wholly impossible for them to save out of the miserable pittance which they received under the name of wages.

When the distress of the working classes was at the worst, rents rose enormously, constantly ten times above what they stood at a century before. Part of this was due to scarcity, natural or artificial, for the corn laws induced, when the crops were scanty, a famine on workmen. But high prices alone will not raise rents. There is no doubt that great improvements were made in agriculture, and it is just to say,

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that on the whole the great landowners, for a time, were the cause of these improvements. Then, at the time when the struggle was most severe, came the great continental war. There was no need why we should have entered upon it. The form of government which the French thought proper to adopt was no concern of ours. They changed their government and put their King to death. So had we done with ours, a century and a half before; and whether that act could or could not be justified, the deed was our concern, and no other nation's. The King of France was of no near kin to our King, but Charles I. was uncle, by marriage, to the French King. But Pitt, for reasons of his own, plunged the nation into war, the cost of which was borne by the workers, and especially by the working classes, for taxes were laid on all the necessaries and common comforts of life.

PITT'S TAX ON SUCCESSIONS.

Now, when Pitt was desperate for money, he bethought himself of putting a tax on property left by deceased persons. He intended, it seems, to make land pay the same tax which he put on personal property. But he passed the latter tax first, and the landowners threatened at once to desert him, to cast the war to the winds, if he put the same charges on them which he put on savings. So Pitt, who loved power infinitely more than he did justice, yielded; and while the little estates of the working classes could not go to their children, except under a double tax, the great properties of the big landowners descended without even a single tax. Nay, he went further than this, he extended the exemption to money left by will, and directed to be laid out in land, while he brought under the tax the proceeds of land which a man ordered by his will to be sold, and divided among his children. Now, these landowners called themselves patriots, and Pitt a heaven-born Minister. If I had lived in Pitt's time, I am sure I should not have called him anything so profane. As I have been obliged to study much of his doings, and to note how unjust he was in his distribution of public burdens, I should assign his origin to very different surroundings. As he showed so much favour to land, he was at least a very earth-born Minister.

There were occasions, too infrequent indeed, when food was cheaper. These years were always called times of agricultural distress, for when Nature was bountiful and the seasons fair, prices fell. But the landowners began to fear for their rents, and called that distress which was their fellow-countrymen's only hope. But, on the whole, rents kept rising. I regret to say that the just and wise supervision of property, which was and is the duty, I had almost said the justification, of the landowner's existence, became a rarer and rarer knowledge. The rents wrung from the farmer by the oppression of the poor, were squandered at the gambling table and the betting ring, and a disgraceful literature sprung up and was popular, in which the coarse vices and waste of profligates were held up to admiration as the true characteristics of our gentry. The ancient Egyptians, as we are told, worshipped cats and crocodiles, bulls, snakes, and beetles. But they probably explained this strange religion as one of symbols. It is infinitely more degrading for human beings to bow down to and reverence those of their fellow-men, who delight in outraging every law, human and divine, and make a brag of their licentiousness and dishonesty.

I frankly admit that I have no interest in the idlers, still less in the profligates. My respect and my goodwill are exhausted in my sympathy with those who work, with those who will work when they come to maturity, with those who have worked, and are too often condemned to undeserved poverty in old age.

THE FIRST REFORM ACT.

IN 1832, after many efforts and many failures, a reform of the representation of the people became law. But the first Reform Act went a very little way, the House of Lords taking good care to mutilate the proposed Bill. Some impossible boroughs were swept away; but a number of small places, little better or bigger than villages, continued to send representatives. Some of the counties had additional members, but the franchise remained very high, and the freeholders who remained were swamped by the tenant farmers who were enfranchised. And yet, the Parliaments elected under the first Reform Act did a good deal of work.

Among other things, Parliament swept away many of the old and cumbrous processes by which land was conveyed. But it did not touch what are popularly called entails, *i.e.*, the settlements made in pursuance of the desires above referred to, and invented during the time of the Commonwealth. In point of fact, it assisted rather than hindered the accumulation of great estates in few hands, by simplifying the process under which settlements could be made. And at this time there was a perfect passion for buying and settling land; one nobleman, the late Duke of Buckingham, absolutely ruining himself by the speculation. Of course, the expectation was that rents would go on rising, and that the purchase would be proved to be judicious. Equally of course, too, the expectation was based on the hope that the existing corn laws would be retained, that the landowners had a vested interest in the stint and starvation of the poor, and believed that under no circumstances would this right of theirs, as they said it was, be attacked or invaded. Even the Whig statesmen said that anyone who proposed free trade in food was a Bedlamite.

THE NEW POOR LAW.

Now, a very few years before the great attack was made on the corn laws, the Whig party passed the new Poor Law. If any law was ever a breach of faith this law was. The commons had been taken from the poor on the plea that, by the law, the maintenance of the poor was a first charge on the land, and that this maintenance should be unaccompanied by any degrading conditions. No doubt it was hard that persons who had not been responsible for the poverty of the workmen were called on, at the risk of being impoverished themselves, to maintain their neighbours, while the great landowners, who were responsible, thrust the burden on other people's shoulders. It is, however, remarkable that, when the new Poor Law was passed, the rise in wages was a good deal more than the saving of the rates. The new Poor Law, again, was a great stimulus to the old Chartists, who justly identified the Whig party with the breach of faith which the new law implied.

When this Act had been passed, the great organisation for the repeal of the Corn Laws was perfected. The advocates of this change, who really secured to this country the commanding industrial and commercial position which it holds, were

resisted by those men who were dissatisfied with the new Poor Law. They were under the impression—an impression which is utterly erroneous—that low prices induce low wages, high prices high wages. There is only one set of circumstances, always in its nature temporary, under which heightened prices and heightened wages go together. They did so for a short time after the war of 1870-71, for instance, when there was a great demand to fill up the waste of war in France and the speculative activity in Germany. But under ordinary circumstances low prices bring about good wages, high prices poor wages. The cause, as the saying goes, lies in a nutshell. When prices are low—say of food—they who have incomes have more to spare from the necessaries of life, but such a margin creates a greater demand for other things. But the new demand can only be met by an increased employment of labour; but the greater the demand for labour is, the greater is the opportunity for demanding an increase of wages. But when the necessaries of life and its familiar conveniences are dear, the reverse phenomena happen. There is less to spare, less demand, less employment, less wages. An employer does not give better wages merely because he is getting higher prices. If three men seek the work of two, wages fall; if two men seek the work for which three would be gladly hired, wages rise. When a person, therefore, counsels working men to assist in bringing about an artificial rise in prices, he counsels them to empty their pockets and stint their livelihood.

THE REPEAL OF THE CORN LAWS.

WHEN the Corn Laws were repealed, many landowners thought that they were going to be ruined, but no such thing happened. Between 1860—fourteen years after the repeal—and 1879, when British agriculture received its first shock, agricultural rents rose 26½ per cent, and people eagerly bought land, and as eagerly rented it. The fact is, a series of wars kept up prices. The principal source of foreign food for a long time was Russia, and we went to war with that country a quarter of a century ago. Next to it came the United States, and in 1860 war broke out in that country and continued for four years. Eighteen years ago occurred the war between France and Germany, and the waste of war heightened the demand for food. It was only after nearly ten years of peace—though, to be sure, a very unsatisfactory kind of peace—that the production of food became so enormous that it played the mischief with high rents. I find no fault with plenty, especially with plenty for the poor. I should condole with the landowner if rents went down to zero, because I know that he would be a serious loser; but I should bear his sufferings with a very modified regret, if I knew that the result was that no honest man need fear the stint of food.

Some modifications of an essentially trivial kind have been made in the English land system, as it was finally formed at the Restoration; but they do not affect the general public. If land is sold by order of the court, the proceeds are laid out in other land. If estates are tied up under Act of Parliament, so as to prevent a fraud on creditors, the process is only temporary, and with a view to the restoration of the estate, free from incumbrance, to some descendant of the embarrassed owner. Every effort is made to keep the great estates intact, undiminished, so that, as

LAND TENURE IN ENGLAND.

people believe that the possessors of land make laws in their own interests, and will make them as long as they can, and the people permit it, there may be a solid order which shall resist all change, and better themselves as much as they can at the expense of labour. I am amazed that English people put up with what they do. But it seems to be easy for cunning folks to mislead them, and laugh at their folly while they plunder them. I will explain what I mean.

MR. GOSCHEN AND LOCAL TAXATION.

ABOUT twenty years ago, Mr. Goschen, now Chancellor of the Exchequer, was struck at the unfairness under which all local taxation, even if the outlay is destined to materially improve property, is put on occupiers. He got a committee of the House of Commons, over which he presided, the object of which was to inquire into local taxation and its incidence. As is the custom of the House in the construction of committees, half the number was taken from the landlords' party, half from the more popular party. This practice explains the general worthlessness of committees and their reports. The report, as usual, was drawn up by the chairman. The landlords' party voted against it, the more liberal members for it, and the report, as not infrequently happens, was carried by the chairman's casting vote. Of course it had under these circumstances no authority. But Mr. Goschen's action, for he followed up the report with an excellent work on local taxation, had results which he did not dream of.

WHO SHOULD PAY LOCAL TAXES.

Now, it is clear to everyone that land is of no value without roads, and of scanty value unless the roads are kept in repair. To make roads, then, and to repair them, is the landowner's duty and his interest. In the case of building land, the place is not habitable unless it has drainage and water, and the owner of building land, in justice, should be constrained, in consideration of what occupiers pay for it, to supply it with these necessities at his own cost and keep up the supply. To make the occupier pay for these conveniences is to constrain him to improve another man's property at his cost. Generally, when new land is laid out for building, the local authority makes the owner construct roads and sewers. These charges ought, in fairness, to be put on the ground landlord, and the repair of them should be a charge on him.

On the other hand, the cost of the police should be a charge on the occupiers. So should that of lighting streets in towns, which is really a kind of police. So should that of education, though it would be far better if these charges were made on property, and by an equitable valuation. And by property I mean personal as well as real. If I possess property, but no land, I am as much in duty interested in the gift of primary education as those who receive it are. The necessity of it arises from the consciousness that an uneducated nation is heavily handicapped in the competition with other nations. And here I may observe that houses and parks in country places are valued at very little a year. I have known cases in which a nobleman's mansion and park were rated at little more than a grocer's, less than a draper's shop. But then the county gentlemen assess each other, and there is no appeal from their decision.

The just distribution of local taxation is as I describe it. But it is hopeless, till Englishmen understand the system and resolve on reforming it, that anything better than a compromise can be effected. Now, Mr. Goschen proposed that local taxation should be divided into two moieties, one to be paid by the landowner, the other by the occupier. It was only a literary proposal, for I do not think that he brought forward any motion to this effect in the House of Commons during the Parliament of 1868. But the landed interest on the two sides of the House were at once on the alert. Uttering their absurd cry of the peculiar burdens on land—land being more lightly burdened by the State in the United Kingdom than it is in any country in the world—they began to thrust those charges which were from remote times put on the owner, though through the occupier, on the general taxes. In this way they got rid of the charge of prisons and criminals, of a good deal of the police, of the lunatic asylums, to the extent of the excess of charges of such persons over their maintenance in workhouses; and to a great extent of the high roads. Now, as yet, only two kinds of taxes are capable of increase; those which are levied on the consumption of workmen, and those which are paid out of professional and business earnings, which are, of course, only another kind of labour. And all this has been done in the interest and benefit of the idlers, whom a distinguished politician described more truly than politely, a few years ago, that they toil not, neither do they spin.

The earnings of Englishmen are pledged to an enormous debt for the improvement of land in towns. Towards this the ground landowner does not contribute a sixpence, beyond certain charges of an initial character in land, which has been recently occupied. This is the burden of local taxation, sometimes so crushing that workmen are driven at enormous rents into unwholesome houses, tradesmen are kept poor by these prodigious outgoings, and the landowner is annually getting value out of other people's pockets added to his estate. There is a good deal of reason in the cry for the special taxation of ground rents.

The present Parliament has given the country the skeleton of a system of local government, flesh and blood to be added to it by the work of subsequent legislatures. But the nation has had to pay ransom even for this meagre boon. I have made a rough calculation that the landowning class, in exchange for this Bill, have extorted fifty millions sterling from labour. Every little sum which a working man scrapes together, and intends for his widow and children, even if it were £5, has to pay probate duty, and half the probate duty is to go to the relief of the landlords.

Now, when I was in Parliament in the session of 1886, I moved Mr. Goschen's proposal, that local taxation should be divided equally between landowner and occupier, and carried my motion by a majority of forty. Had the Parliament of 1885 lasted, I should have claimed, as is customary, that the Government should give effect to the resolution by legislation. But I have little doubt that my success had more to do with the destruction of that Parliament than any other consideration whatever.

In the same way the Government in 1885 was wrecked by the attempt which the Government made to extend the death duties, in a moderate degree, to landed property. Come what will, the landed interest is resolved, as they were resolved near a century

ago, that they will not pay their share of the public expenditure, but will put all extra charges on labour. Land pays no probate duty. It pays a small succession duty, calculated on the expectancy of life in the case of the heir, this modified payment being spread over several years, and being remitted if the life drops before the payments are made. Personal property pays a probate duty, and pays a legacy duty on the market value of the property. If the recipient of the estate dies the day after the payment is made, the property has to pay probate and legacy duty over again.

THE PROPOSALS TO CONFISCATE RENT, AND TO BUY UP THE LANDOWNERS.

NOW I, for one, do not believe in the justice of confiscating rent. It could be done, for, as economists say, the distribution of wealth is a matter of human institution only. If you do it, you must equally confiscate the estate of the man who has put his savings into land—has bought, say, the house in which he lives, as the property of the Dukes of Bedford and Westminster, and that of Lord Portman, for I am only referring to these three London proprietors as illustrations. But, for my part, I cannot see why it is right to confiscate savings put into land, and not to confiscate savings put into shares or stocks. Still less would I make the State the universal landlord, *i.e.*, make the Government office the owner of all the land in the kingdom. Governments are not to be rashly trusted. They should be narrowly watched, in order to keep them wholesome and commonly honest. If all the land in England were procured, say by purchase, and managed by officials, before the board had been a week in existence, it would be the centre of thousands of nefarious jobs. The wisdom of modern civilisation is to further the distribution of land into as many hands as possible. To concentrate it in a Government office would be barbarism, and ultimately ruin. If, more than twenty years ago, we had taken Mr. Mill's advice, and bought out the landowners, we should have made a precious bargain; indeed should have been obliged, to save society, to repudiate the bargain.

NECESSARY REFORMS.

THE first reform in the English land system which we ought to demand, is the total reversal of the judge-made law—that whatever improvement one man makes on another man's land is the property at once of the landlord. This is the bottom of the present trouble, and it is surprising when one comes to study social questions how much mischief judges have done by what they call their maxims. I have known tradesmen by dozens who have laboriously built up a business and a goodwill in a shop under lease. When their term is at its close, it is the practice of landowners, through their agents, to compel the tenant to submit to a ruinous fine, which entirely confiscates his goodwill and business. I was told by one person who thought his case hard, that not only would the landowner claim what he called his right, but that he asserted that he could let the shop to the same business, and counsel the incoming to assume the outgoing tenant's name. All this is possible under the English land laws, and I think it should come to an end. The English law has only touched the fringe of this grievance as yet, and that only to a moderate extent in agricultural land.

A man's property ought to be secured to him. Now, to carry on any business whatever, a man must have a house over his head, as well as money in his pocket. If he puts his property into buildings, it seems to me as just for the landowner to appropriate them at the end of a term, as it would be to empty his till. If the landowner wants to have them at the end of the term, he should be made to pay for them, and any lease or covenant in contravention of this right of the occupier should be null and void. It is only by such a reform as this that we can rehabilitate agriculture, deal fairly by the tradesman, and improve the dwellings of workmen.

The movement for what is called the enfranchisement of leaseholds is an illustration of my principle; but it only recognises one individual, when half a dozen occupiers may have made improvements. There is no difficulty in deciding what is an improvement. Assessment committees in boards of guardians habitually estimate them, and raise rates in pursuance of them. Nor, on the hypothesis that the person who has individually made the improvement should possess a property in it, is it difficult to arrive at the value of what he has done and made. What is true of house property is true of land used for agricultural purposes. A jury of farmers could determine, within a very small fraction, what is the nature and what is the value of the improvements which a tenant has made on land. This would be even easier if it were the practice of tenant farmers to keep accounts. If what a tenant has done, built, or laid out, does not turn out to be a merchantable improvement, he should stand to his loss. If he has injured the landowner's own property, he should pay for the wrong. I am perfectly certain that, till some principle of this kind is recognised in agricultural finance, there is no hope for the revival of British agriculture. Men will not work if they can foresee that they will be plundered of the fruits of their labour. But it is impossible for any society to be solidly progressive in which one class adopts as its maxim—heads I win, tails you lose, and gives the force of law to its interpretation.

It is in the highest degree expedient that secret conveyances of land should be declared illegal and invalid. If I invest money on a mortgage I am entitled to know whether the estate is encumbered or not, what are the charges on it, and to inspect the most sacred and secret of family papers. Why should not an ordinary creditor have the same information? And mortgages should be as public as wills are, as bills of sale must be. A man may be vapouring about his position and his property when he is really worth nothing, and be taking honest people in by a pretence of wealth, when all the while he has no security on which to run in debt. In the ordinary business of life it is a crime to get goods under false pretences; why should this practice be considered less culpable in a needy landowner? I have known the most serious consequences ensue to tradesmen who have been persuaded that their aristocratic debtors are men of wealth when they have turned out to be paupers.

Again, it is time that the custom of primogeniture should be put an end to. I would not interfere with a man making a will, and dividing his property among his children or relatives as he chooses. I hold that this power in the hands of parents is essential to the discipline of a household, and I think that there is abundant proof of the fact, for experience has shown that the practice of primogeniture is a perpetual protest against the fifth commandment, for there is no rank

or class in life which breeds undutiful and disreputable eldest sons so regularly as the great landowning class does. It is certain that parents can generally be trusted with the interests of their children, and it is certainly an evil thing that a son should be in direct hostility to his father, as he commonly is under a settlement. Besides, the community at large has to provide for the paupers which it makes. It has to do this notoriously in the poorer classes; it does so as effectually in the richer classes. The costs of the public service in this country are yearly increasing, and, according to all accounts, the efficiency of the service is diminishing. The chief claimants on these funds are the younger sons. I admit that, in many cases, entrance comes after competition. But it is a very good outlay for a rich man to get his son crammed for an examination, and then to secure him an overpaid place, in which he very likely gets cent per cent on the preparatory outlay. Nor is the system good from the vulgar estimate of what people spend. When Washington put an end to the custom of primogeniture in the State of Virginia, he was told that the change would destroy all the carriages-and-four. "Aye," said he, "but what a number of carriages-and-two shall we have." Nations are stronger for the diffusion of wealth, not by its accumulation in few hands.

We in this country have to hold our own. People may denounce competition as they please, but the system is absolute between country and country. To permit ourselves to be hampered by customs which were enacted and maintained in the interests of the idlers, is to run the race of industry with shackles on. People are beginning to see this, and they are divided in opinion. Some are for a gigantic combination, say among the colliery owners or the mine owners, combination being a polite expression for conspiracy. Some, and an increasing number, are disciples of Mr. George. But I would plead that it would first be wise to rid ourselves of these ancient, mischievous, and unfair customs, to put duties on landowners as well as to give them rights, and to wait awhile for the consequences of wisdom and justice.

COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY.

BY REV. L. C. CASARTELLI, PH.D., M.A., ST. BEDE'S COLLEGE.

- I. The Prospects of Commercial Education.
- II. The Province of Commercial Geography.
- III. Mutual Re-action of Geography and Trade.
- IV. The Teaching of Commercial Geography, Abroad and at Home.

I.

NOBODY will venture to deny that during the past few years, and more particularly during the past twelve months, a very strong conviction has been growing in the public mind of the necessity of developing Commercial or Business Education in our schools. I do not here refer to "Technical Education," strictly so-called. Of that form of education we have heard a great deal lately, not only during the last twelve months, but during the last nine or ten years. It is only quite recently, however, that we have been getting clearer and more definite ideas of what we mean by this name of Technical Education. Particularly would I complain that this want of "lucidity" (to borrow the late Matthew Arnold's phrase) has told unfavourably upon Commercial Education in the stricter sense. Even just at present the tendency is to look upon commercial teaching as merely one branch, and that a very significant one, of Technical Education. Yet, strictly speaking, the two kinds of mental culture are correlative, not subordinate, one to the other, just as industry and commerce are co-ordinate sister branches of human activity. And, as it is well to begin with clear notions of what we are talking about, I will take the liberty of here repeating a definition which I penned some seven years ago, when first introducing to a Lancashire audience the then unfamiliar views on the subject of Commercial Education, which have now become so general. In a paper on the subject, read before the Manchester Statistical Society—that body of true intellectual pioneers—I said:—

"Speaking in the broadest sense, an education which is 'technical' may be opposed to the purely humanitarian or classical, and therefore is about synonymous with 'practical' education. 'Technical' is that which relates to, or is appropriate to, an art (*τέχνη*), science, or business. Thus we speak of *technical* terms in theology, in law, in manufactures, or in commerce. In this sense we may fairly call any education which prepares directly for a special profession or for trade a *technical* one. But the word 'trade' itself is often used ambiguously, as signifying either 'industry' or 'commerce.' The *industry* of art is properly concerned with the getting of material and the making of goods; *commerce* is concerned with the distribution of the same, by buying and selling, exporting and importing, of what is

already made or going to be made. These are two very distinct provinces of civilised activity; and if there is to be a special training for each, we should do well to distinguish the kind of education devoted to each as 'technological' and 'commercial' respectively." (*)

If in this paper, as on other similar occasions, my remarks apply almost exclusively to the second—and, as I believe, equally important—branch of practical education, that, namely, which has direct reference to the counting house and the bank, rather than to the factory or workshop, it is not because I have no sympathy for the former—technological education—but because I think that that department of teaching has already had its full share, and more than its full share, of able and zealous champions. And it certainly seems to me that for bodies like the Co-operative Wholesale Societies, who are merchants first of all, and manufacturers afterwards, the commercial side of education must have even a preponderating interest.

Already the great step has been taken by our leading educational corporations,—that, I mean, of the actual *recognition* of Commercial Education as entitled to a place, and that an honourable place, in the general scheme of instruction,—a recognition clearly owing to the pressure of public opinion and the conviction of the needs of such developments in face of the growing competition of foreign peoples.

The College of Preceptors has before the public a syllabus of "Examinations for Certificates of Proficiency in Mercantile Subjects," the first of which is to be held at the close of 1888.

The Victoria University has drawn up a scheme of examinations for certificates of technical subjects, of which group IX. embraces the wide range of commercial studies.

The Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board has likewise established a system of "Commercial Certificates," the first examination for which was held in July, 1888.

University College, Liverpool, deserves the credit of being the first academic institution in the country of the highest rank to provide actual teaching for commercial education. It has established a very complete "special curriculum for students preparing for a business life,"—a two years' course. What adds special importance to this course is, that some nine great public mercantile associations, and seventeen banks and insurance companies, besides over three hundred private companies and firms, have expressed their appreciation of it, and agreed to acknowledge the certificates issued.

So, at long last, commercial education has won the "academic" sanction which it had long enjoyed elsewhere, say in Belgium and France.

As far as *examinations* go, then, we are already well equipped; especially if we remember the existence of the commercial certificates which have been issued for several years back by the Union of Lancashire and Cheshire Institutes, and the similar ones granted by the Society of Arts. But I am not so sure that we are

(*) "Commercial Education." Proceedings, Manchester Statistical Society, 1882.—pp. 69-70.

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equally well off in the *teaching* department. In this country we are too apt to forget that examinations are only a means, and not an end. We have for many years past been too much examined and too little taught. It is consoling to find that there are already signs of a reaction setting in. But it will probably be difficult for some time to supply the demand for skilled teaching in these commercial branches of education. It will be a work of time; for the entire range of subjects is so unfamiliar that a whole generation of teachers has yet to be formed. But gradually and surely it will be formed; of that we may be confident.

It will probably be superfluous for me to dwell in this place upon the advantages, and even the necessity, of a good system of Commercial Education to the prosperity of our trade. This is the age of competition, and the battle is to the keenest wits much more than to the most sinewy arms and strongest hands. The great rivals of our English young men—the German, the Swiss, the Belgian—are going forth yearly to every part of the six continents where work is to be done and wealth to be made, to old European countries as well as to the vast regions of the Americas, to our own colonies as well as to the scarcely-explored regions of Africa or the Pacific; and in most cases they go well equipped with just those kinds of special knowledge, and those habits of mind, which have hitherto been lacking to the youths brought up in our schools. It appears, however, that we are by this time pretty well awake to our deficiencies, and, what is more, determined to make them good; and now that even our highest academic bodies have recognised the rights of “the new learning” in the general principle, it becomes of great importance to enter into details, and take stock of our needs in particular departments.

A Commercial Education will be concerned about four groups or divisions of useful knowledge. Firstly, the knowledge concerning those riches of Nature which form the materials of business transactions of every kind; secondly, the knowledge concerning the distribution of those materials over the face of the globe, either as natural products or as objects of trade; thirdly, the knowledge of the means of communicating expeditiously and correctly with those who are involved in such trade transactions in any part of the world; fourthly, the knowledge concerning the mediums of exchange, and the manner of reckoning swiftly and accurately in such mediums.

To the first of these departments of knowledge corresponds the study of raw materials of trade, for which we in England have no special name, as it is a science practically ignored amongst us. The Germans, who teach it regularly, call it “*Warenkunde* ;” or, the Science of Wares. It is one bearing partly on Chemistry, and partly on Natural History.*

To the second division corresponds Commercial Geography, and also Commercial History.

To the third division belongs the systematic and practical training in the use of our own and modern foreign languages—the latter a singularly important and much neglected department.

* Yet we have one admirable handbook of this nameless branch of commercial knowledge in Dr. John Yeats’s “*Natural History of Commerce*.” Philip and Son, 1887.

The last division comprehends Commercial Arithmetic, and Mathematics, the art of Book-keeping, and the various systems of exchange and credit.

It is not the object of this paper to speak of all these different and yet equally important branches; it will be limited to only one subject, viz., Commercial Geography.

II.

WHILST the science of Geography studies our earth as a whole, that department of it which is distinguished as "Commercial" Geography, regards the earth specially and primarily—not as a mere object of knowledge or scientific speculation, but as the fertile source of natural wealth on the one hand, and as the domain, furnished with pathways and storehouses, of the trader and merchant on the other. It is thus not a different science, but an application of the same science; indeed, it has been well called, by a recent writer, "Applied Geography," for the end of Commercial Geography is, of course, practical, being the furtherance of the facilities of trade by means of a fuller and more accurate knowledge of places, roads, and men.

I am quite aware that it is the fashion, just at present, in the higher circles of Scientific Geography to treat Commercial Geography with somewhat of contempt. "In London," said the able secretary of the Manchester Geographical Society, in his recent address on the subject at Preston, "they sneer at the Manchester Geographical Society because the latter spells geography 'calico,' whereas our friends in London spell it 'war.'"^{*} There is really a good deal of truth in this pungently expressed complaint of Mr. Sowerbutts, and the same conviction was certainly forced upon me at the Geographical Section of the British Association, held in Manchester in 1887. But I believe that this tendency to sneer at our science will and must die out with calm reflection. The President of Section E (Sir Charles Wilson) this last year practically devoted his address to the subject of Commercial Geography, particularly discussing the trade routes of ancient and modern times. One of the most eminent scientific geographers of Scotland, Dr. H. R. Mill, has just published an admirable little handbook, entitled "An Elementary Commercial Geography," dealing with every branch of the subject, at the Cambridge University Press.

Nor is there any reason why full academic honours should not be awarded to Commercial Geography; for it must be clearly understood that, though practical or utilitarian in its application, it must be based on the strictest scientific principles and deductions. I shall endeavour to show this further on; for the present I wish to point out the various sub-divisions of his subject to which the teacher of Commercial Geography must devote his attention:—

1. *The natural wealth of various lands.* The earth is the source of all material wealth belonging to the three kingdoms of nature—animal, vegetable, and mineral. Under this head we must study—

^{*} Mr. E. Sowerbutts, F.R.G.S., Inaugural Address at the Harris Institute.—*Preston Guardian*, September 26th, 1888.

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- (a) The extractive riches—coal, metals, salt, mineral oils, &c., of each country.
- (b) The agricultural industries—grain-growing, dairy-farming, market-gardening, cattle breeding and pasturing, poultry-farming; wine growth, and other food and drink industries depending directly on the soil; silkworm-breeding in some countries, ostrich-farming in others, ivory production in yet others.
- (c) The fishery wealth of seas or rivers.

But this knowledge of natural wealth ought to be no mere stringing together of lists, or parrot-like reciting of names and localities of raw materials. To understand the metal wealth of Austria or of Cornwall, the coal deposits of Lancashire or Charleroi, the diamond fields of Kimberley or Minas Geraes, the salt deposits of Cheshire or the banks of the Tees,—we must first have some idea of the geological conformation and the rocks of each of these parts of the world. And the intelligent teacher will point out to his class *why* each of these localities yields its particular mineral treasures in such abundance, and not merely the *fact* that it does so; showing also why the very nature of the earth's crust at other places forbids us to expect those treasures in them, *e.g.*, why we should dig in vain for coal in Kent or Italy, or seek for lithographic stones at Wigan. All this requires that the first attention of the class should be directed to the *physical and geological* maps of the country under examination. Nay, a thorough study of this kind even leads us often to anticipate or predict the discovery of certain forms of natural wealth from the nature of the rocks: thus it was that in 1851, Edward Hammond Hargreaves was led—by observing the similarity of the geological formation of Bathurst, in New South Wales, to that of the gold fields of California—to the first discovery of gold in the Australian Colony,—a discovery which from that year to 1883 had led to the extraction of the precious metal to a value of over £35,000,000!

Similar reasoning applies to the study of the vegetable and animal productions, the agricultural and farming wealth of various countries. It is not sufficient to say that rice grows in the plains of Lombardy and in Carolina, in great parts of Japan and China. We must first point out that all these localities are flat and swampy, and that, as rice requires such marshy ground, combined with a hot climate, it is reasonable to expect to find it flourishing there. Similar calculations led to the acclimatisation of that invaluable febrifuge, quinine, on the coasts of India and Ceylon, whither it was brought from South America, with such notable success. Climate and soil must be brought in to explain the thriving of the mulberry tree and the silkworm breeding, which depends upon it in Northern Italy and Southern France, as in India and China. The vast expanses of the pampas or prairie-lands of the River Plate Valley, and the boundless "bush" land of Australia, afford the natural explanations of the enormous development of the cattle-grazing and meat-preparing trades in the former,—with its 32,500,000 head of horned cattle,—and the equally vast growth of the sheep-farming and the wool trade in the latter, which pastures over 68,500,000 sheep. Even the geological character of the rocks and sub-soil plays its part; so, to quote Dr. John Yeats,—“Different soils, the result of geological formations, are suited to different forms of life. Thus no man who understood the subject would expect to obtain the best crops of wheat from the coal

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formations. Other formations, as the lias in Herefordshire and Monmouthshire, are peculiarly suitable to the growth of the apple tree, which will not thrive so well elsewhere. The trias and other strata, running from the Tyne to the Exe, across England, comprise the best wheat-growing and pasture lands, and are famous for the production of cheese. The lias, which follows to the south-east, produces the most excellent cheese in England. Along the Severn bank it furnishes the double Gloucester; at Melton Mowbray and Leicester it produces Stilton; and in Somersetshire it unites with the triassic red marl to yield the Cheddar. It is the application of these truths to daily practice in life—farming pursuits, and so forth—that renders scientific knowledge valuable." In a recently-published paper, a very model of what a geographical essay ought to be ("The Mahratta Plough," *Asiatic Quarterly Review*, October, 1888), Sir George Birdwood clearly deduces from the geology of the Western Ghâts and the chemical constitution of their rocks, combined with the effects of the climate and its phenomena, such as the monsoons, the formation of that peculiarly rich "cotton soil" which makes the Dekhan the great cotton-bearing region of India. The fisheries of a country, too, are similarly dependent on physical conditions. The vast "bank" outside of Newfoundland holds the secret of the enormous wealth of the fisheries of those waters—the greatest in all the world. The river systems of Scotland and England must be understood in order to appreciate the actual condition or future prospects of the salmon supply.

I think I need add no more to prove that Commercial Geography, at least in this part of its functions, is an eminently scientific branch of knowledge. But I turn to another of its divisions.

2. The naturalist or the mineralogist may be content with the knowledge thus gained of the geographical distribution of animals, plants, and minerals. But the commercial geographer is not satisfied to know that Assam and Ceylon are producing excellent tea; that the Ukraine, British India, and Egypt have large supplies of wheat, too abundant for home consumption; that Chile is unrivalled for the stores of copper ores in the flanks of her Andes; that Baku is probably richer in petroleum than all the United States together; that the West Indies are prolific in lime-fruit and pineapples; or that in the frozen *tundras* of Northern Asia are buried countless thousands of the tusks of the gigantic extinct mammoth. To him all this tea and corn, this copper and petroleum, this fruit and fossil ivory are valuable as the materials of trade. He wants to know how best and most cheaply to bring them to his own country, to furnish the breakfast-table, or to supply the workshops of our teeming population. Hence he must investigate the *ways* or *paths*, across land or ocean, and the *means of carrying* which are in existence, or can be brought into being. He scans the maps to observe where there are breaks in the mountain chains, navigable rivers, safe harbours. He must know something of ocean currents and depths, of trade-winds and monsoons, and the consequent necessary pathways of vessels. But, unlike the physical geographer, he does not stop at merely natural routes; he is equally interested in those which have been produced by the agency of man. The ancient caravan routes of Africa and Central Asia, trodden by hundreds of generations of traders, are still to a large extent in present use. A knowledge of the railway network, which now covers so large a part of the

globe, is an essential part of Commercial Geography. Indeed, in this respect railway lines now rise to the importance of natural features, even if they do not transcend them. Still more important, perhaps, are canals. The cutting of the Suez Canal has effected a change in the commercial relations of the world, the like of which no cataclysm of nature in historic times has ever produced. That of the Panama isthmus will, if ever completed, cause no less a revolution. In a smaller way, the Manchester Ship Canal will have, for the great cotton and woollen districts of Lancashire and Yorkshire, a transcendent importance. To the commercial map-maker and map-student, therefore, such railway and canal communications—and we may add great tunnels, like those of the Cenis, the St. Gothard, and the Vorarlberg through the Alps—will be as important to indicate and to observe as rivers, straits, and mountain passes—nay, often much more important.

3. But the merchant and the commercial geographer have not to deal merely with the earth, its products and its natural features, as they might deal with some Robinson Crusoe's island. The earth, especially in its richer parts, is occupied by teeming *populations*, and it is with them that they must primarily and directly deal, be they civilised or uncivilised. The raw materials of trade must be bought from these various populations of every nation, tribe, and tongue, ranging through the whole gamut of culture, from the cannibals of the South Sea Islands to the shrewd Yankees of the States. To these same multitudinous folks, in turn, must we sell our manufactured goods or our superfluous products. Hence, the study of *man*—that “proper study of mankind,” as the poet truly tells us—must play a very large part in the researches of the commercial geographer. The needs, tastes, manners, and customs; the comparative civilisation, skill in the technical and useful arts, wealth, even religious beliefs of the nations,—all require to be known and taken into account. The customs, again, of different markets, the free or protectionist policies of governments, the security of life and property; besides the whole range of financial systems, systems of credit, standards of currency, weights and measures, must enter into the purview of our science. The teacher must point out how the scarcity of population in British North America—with its 97,200 square miles of coalfields, and population of barely 5,000,000—renders it impossible for that huge treasure-house of fuel to produce at present, and for long years yet to come, more than a paltry 2,000,000 or 3,000,000 tons per year; whilst our own coalfields, whose area is not much over 6,600 square miles, yield an output of some 160,000,000 tons annually. China, again, whose coalfield area is estimated at no less than 200,000 square miles, yields perhaps 3,000,000 tons yearly; not because of scarcity of population, for it has the vastest population on the globe, but for peculiar reasons, to a large extent connected with the religious superstitions of the people. The dislike of the people of India to a gold currency plays a leading part in the difficulties connected with the depreciation of the rupee, which again reacts on Indian industries and trade. The great civil war in the United States had a very decisive influence upon the growth of cotton in Egypt and India. The tastes of the populations of Africa and Asia for certain colours and patterns of clothing directly affect the Lancashire cotton trade. It was a political question which led Napoleon I. to introduce the beet-sugar industry, the result of which has been, after three-quarters of a century, to well nigh ruin the cane-sugar

industry in the West Indies, and in some places to give quite a new development to other natural products, such as cocoa. All these are cases, chosen at random out of scores, where the teacher of Commercial Geography will draw upon distinctly human agencies—religious, social, educational, political, military—to explain modifications of the natural conditions of both the production and the exchange of earth's riches.

One conclusion to be drawn from what is written above will surely be, not only that Commercial Geography covers a very wide field of scientific and historical knowledge, but that it is an extremely interesting department of study. It must be clear that, in the hands of an intelligent teacher, it can be made into a highly stimulative training for the mind. It is not to be a cramming-in of crude facts, but rather a healthful exercise of reasoning, by the constant deducing of effects from ascertained causes, whether natural or artificial. Now, it must be evident that, quite apart from the usefulness of the general knowledge so imparted to the young man of business, this mental training ought to develop a keenness of mind that should be very valuable in any mercantile community.

There is yet another point of view from which Commercial Geography is seen to be of the greatest importance to a community like ours. Great mercantile nations have in all ages been great *colonising* nations, and we are no exception to the rule. Rather, there are special circumstances which make colonisation not only desirable but necessary to us. In addition to the purely commercial needs and advantages which led the Phœnicians and Greeks of olden days to spread their network of colonies all over the then known world, we have also the ever-pressing stress of a population too large for the mother country and ever rapidly expanding. Fortunately this population also possesses in the vast regions of inexhaustible natural wealth which form its world-wide empire beyond the seas a heritage, not merely sufficient, but as yet even too extensive to be fully entered upon and enjoyed. Who can say for how many-fold the actual population of both the colonies and the mother-country there is room and plenteous supply in Australasia, North America, and South Africa? Colonisation, then, is a question interesting all classes of the people, but particularly the working classes. Surely, to be beneficial at all, this colonisation must be carried on *intelligently*; and, for that, it must be carried on with sound *knowledge* of all that relates to the future homes of so many millions of our people. Here, again, widely diffused and accurate notions of Commercial Geography would be of immense value to the community. Here ignorance, whether among the ruling classes or among the masses, would be fatal indeed. Good service is done in this direction by the regularly issued circulars and handbooks of the "Emigrant Information Office," established by the Government, which should always be consulted by the careful teacher of Commercial Geography as giving the latest and surest information.

III.

IF Geography is thus of immense value to trade, we may also lay down with equal truth that trade is of the greatest value to Geography. As a matter of fact, we owe most of our geographical knowledge to Commerce. It is the needs and ambitions of trade, and the practical information collected by traders, that in all ages

have formed the chief stimulus of exploration and travel, and the chief source of the facts in which the science is built. Let us go back a good way to show how true this is. About 1600 B.C., Hata-su, a queen of the 18th Egyptian Dynasty,* sent an expedition to Punt, somewhere on the east African coast, purely for commercial purposes; and this expedition not only brought into notice that part of the world, but also started the subsequent brisk trade in the gums, skins, and various other natural products of the country. The Phœnicians were at one and the same time the greatest merchants and the greatest geographical discoverers of the Old World. They brought within the knowledge of the civilised world the islands of the Mediterranean and the interior of Spain; they pushed their voyages of discovery beyond the Pillars of Hercules, up northward to Cornwall, and southward half-way down West Africa,—perhaps even westward to America. But all these great navigations and discoveries were the outcome of their instincts for trade. If they explored and colonised Southern Spain, it was for the sake of its silver; if they made their way to the delta of the Po, in the Adriatic, it was for amber, brought overland from the shores of the Baltic; if they ventured to the coasts of Britain, it was for tin to make their bronze. For trade purposes they visited or settled in Italy and Gaul, Palestine, and the delta of the Nile, and even India. Their offspring, the Carthaginians, were actuated by similar motives. The most celebrated navigator of antiquity, Hanno, in B.C. 515, made his way along the African coast as far as “the land of the gorillas”—probably near the mouth of the Congo—and his “Periplus” is the most important travel-book, still preserved, of those ages. This voyage, like the subsequent one of Hamilco (B.C. 500), the report of which is unfortunately lost, was entirely for trade purposes. Exactly the same motives led to the great expeditions and discoveries of Prince Henry and the Portuguese navigators, along the African coasts and in India, during the fifteenth century A.D. Similar influences guided the Spaniards to the New World in the sixteenth, and the Dutch to Australasia in the seventeenth. And it is still the need of “new markets” that is stimulating the Europe of to-day to the exploration of the Dark Continent, the creation of a Congo Free State, the occupation of Pacific islands, or the opening out of Siberian and Chinese rivers, as in Captain Wiggins’ bold venture up the Kara Sea and the Yenisei, or Mr. Archibald Little’s up the Yang-tse-Kiang.

Thus we may say, in a true sense, that Geography as a science owes its first principles, its store of facts, and its developments to the impulses of commerce. Surely, then, commerce has a right to demand reciprocal aid and interest from the science.

IV.

IN the final section of this essay it will be proper to inquire whether such a system of teaching Commercial Geography as we have indicated in preceding pages be capable of being actually carried out; if so, whether it is so carried out in any part of the world; and lastly, how we stand in this country regarding this matter, and what are our prospects.

* Her throne was exhibited at the Manchester Jubilee Exhibition (1887) under the dome.

1. If we answer the second of these questions affirmatively—viz., whether commercial geography, as above described, is actually taught anywhere—then the first question regarding its possibility will be solved of itself.

Let me say, then, that for many years Commercial Geography has formed an integral part of business education in many foreign countries. "The Commercial Geography of the Five Parts of the World" is laid down as part of the regular code of French schools for the third year of "Secondary Instruction;" and the president of the Geographical Society of Paris, M. Levasseur, years ago, published what is still one of the best handbooks of the course, and the only commercial atlas I know of.

At Marseilles, M. Bainier delivers at the *École de Commerce* a most elaborate course of Mercantile Geography, part of which has been published in lithographed form.

In Germany, Commercial Geography is systematically taught in the various *Handelschulen* and *Realschulen*. The largest work on Commercial Geography written is German (André's "Geography of the World's Trade," in 3 vols., Stuttgart); Vienna (Karl Zehden) and Switzerland (Egli) each supply good handbooks of the same science.

Belgium is unusually well off for the teaching of Commercial Geography. The courses of lectures given at the Government Institute of Commerce, at Antwerp, and at the Commercial College of Melle, are models of their kind. The University of Louvain has possessed for ten years a special chair of Commercial Geography, and the able occupant of the same (Prof. Vanderlaet) has year by year delivered most valuable and elaborate courses of lectures on special parts of the globe, which have already proved of great service to young Belgians emigrating to the Congo or South America.

Thus, both in actual teaching and in educational literature, Commercial Geography holds and has for years held an honourable place in the educational curriculum of the continental countries.

To show what sort of scope this teaching has, and what ground it covers, I will here reproduce what I have quoted formerly elsewhere,* the syllabus of one or two foreign commercial schools. I begin with that of the Higher School of Commerce in Antwerp, a Government Institution. The programme is as follows:—

"Topographical and statistical details concerning the different countries of Europe, Asia, Africa, America, Polynesia. This information is based on the latest consular reports and most recent communications concerning these following points:—

"(a) Topographical situation; constitution of soil; mineral, vegetable, animal kingdoms.

"(b) Political and social state; institutions, their influence on the prosperity of the country; state of public finance; national wealth; prosperity or duties; causes.

"(c) Chief productions; products which may be usefully exported; table of exports.

* Journal of the Manchester Geographical Society.—Vol. II., p. 331.

“(d) Chief needs of each country; especially what Belgium supplies to it; what Belgium might furnish; table of imports.

“(e) Sketch of characteristics of economic and customs legislation; obstacles to and facilities for trade; tastes and habits of people in regard to commerce.

“(f) Detailed notice of principal markets, their importance, manner of doing business; origin and cause determining commercial relations between different countries.”

The next is that of the Melle School:—

“Cours Supérieur: Description of countries, ports, markets, and chief industrial centres.

“General *aperçu* of commercial and industrial operations of each country, especially in what concerns Belgium—imports on the one hand, exports on the other. Difficulties and facilities encountered by commerce.

“Customs, uses, tastes, tendencies, habits, and manners of the population in relation to trade.

“What Belgian products might be advantageously introduced, and by what means. Goods suitable for return cargoes. Most favourable seasons and ordinary conditions for sale and purchase. Condition and customs of markets.

“National, international, and trans-oceanic routes. Navigation of rivers. Telegraphic lines.

“Emigration.

“Detailed information concerning mercantile shipping, fisheries industry, mining and agriculture.”

This is, perhaps, the place to remark that at each of the Belgian institutions just referred to the lectures are illustrated and completed by the use of an extensive and admirable commercial museum, which is almost as necessary as a good supply of maps to teach the subject thoroughly. But the important question of commercial museums is one that deserves a special paper to itself, and I will only hint at it here.

It stands to reason that a university course of lectures will be of a much higher and more detailed character than the lessons in school. At Louvain, therefore, Professor Vanderlaat selects one country each year, *e.g.*, the Argentine Republic (1879), Roumania (1881), Tunis (1884), New Zealand (1886), &c., and in a course of ten to fifteen lectures treats of the points enumerated in the following syllabus:—

(1) Aspect, relief of surface, orography. (2) The subsoil, geology, mineral wealth. (3) Climate. (4) Hydrography. (5) Flora and fauna. (6) Populations—race, language, religions, manners and customs, social life, domestic life. (7) Agriculture; cattle-breeding. (8) Mines; various industries. (9) Commercial and maritime movements; organisation of credit; public works. (10) History and constitution of government. (11) Future of the country; emigration; colonisation; conditions of success; bibliography.

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2. Turning now to our own country, we find ourselves singularly behindhand. When I began my own courses of lectures in 1879,* I found no assistance in English, except Dr. John Yeats's valuable works on commerce, already referred to (since republished by Philip, of Liverpool). No chair or course of lectures on our subject was in existence. This last year has seen the establishment of the first lectureships for commercial geography and history. To the Harris Institute, of Preston, belongs the honour of being first in the field. My colleague, Mr. John J. Cardwell, who has been elected to occupy the lectureship at the Harris Institute, kindly supplies me with the syllabus of the course he is delivering at that place, and I here quote it for the sake of comparison with the foreign ones given above:—

ECONOMIC AND INDUSTRIAL GEOGRAPHY.

1. LANCASHIRE—Its economic geography and commercial history, to illustrate the rise and development of the textile industries, and the means of communication, of both of which it is the home.
2. GEOLOGY in its relation to COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY:—
 - (a) Geology and surface, as facilitating or opposing obstacles to communication, and as affecting the habitability of the globe.
 - (b) Geology and soil and agriculture.
 - (c) Geology and the economic products of mines and minerals.
3. GREAT BRITAIN—Her commercial supremacy—how obtained—and how to be maintained.
4. IRELAND—Illustrating the effects of legislation on the industrial and commercial prosperity of a country.
5. Selected FOREIGN COUNTRIES [to be determined later] as rival producers to Great Britain.
6. The same, as sources of raw material—markets for finished goods—fields for emigration.
7. Selected BRITISH COLONIES [to be determined later] as sources of raw material—markets for finished goods—fields for emigration—rival producers.
8. EFFECTS ON ENGLISH INDUSTRIES of the introduction of modern spinning and weaving MACHINERY into such countries as INDIA.
9. THE COMMERCIAL FUTURE OF AFRICA.

In the University College, Liverpool, a lectureship has likewise been established for "Economic and Commercial Science," embracing political economy, commercial geography, and commercial history and theory. The lecturer is Mr. E. C. K. Gonner, M.A., and as regards the geographical part of the work I find the following syllabus in the College Calendar, page 69:—

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This course is designed for candidates for the first year college business curriculum. It will also be of assistance to all those who wish to study the facts in connection with the theory of commerce. It will direct itself chiefly to the discussion of the following points:—

*Since published as "Notes of a Course of Lectures on Commercial Geography." Ledsham, 1884, 1886.

“The geographical distribution of raw materials.

“The manufacturing industries of Europe and the United States.

“Means of communication and locomotion.”

TEXT BOOK.—Yeats’s “Recent and Existing Commerce.”

Once more, Dr. H. R. Mill, F.R.S.E., above referred to, has been appointed lecturer on Commercial Geography in the Heriot-Watt College, Edinburgh, but I have not yet had the advantage of seeing the syllabus of that institution.

I believe my readers will agree that such courses of lectures as here sketched out are full of the greatest promise, approaching the subject as they do in the right manner. We can only hope that teaching of this kind will be rapidly multiplied in our midst.

At any rate, I feel that there is a growing conviction of our needs and shortcomings, and that all indications show that at no very distant date commercial geography will hold its legitimate place in the education of our young men, not merely as a useful auxiliary in the daily bread-winning struggle, but also as a capital mental training and a powerful means of intellectual culture.

Lastly, in order to confirm what I have laid down in this paper with an authority far greater than my own, I will conclude by quoting the memorable words of Colonel Sir Charles Wilson, R.E., K.C.B., &c., the Director General of the Ordnance Survey, in his able address as President of the Geographical Section of the British Association in 1888. That distinguished scientific authority spoke as follows (the italics being my own):—

“My object has been to draw attention to *the supreme importance to this country of the science of Commercial Geography*. That science is not confined to a knowledge of the localities in which those products of the earth which have a commercial value are to be found, and of the markets in which they can be sold with the greatest profit. Its higher aims are to divine, by a combination of historical retrospect and scientific foresight, the channels through which commerce will flow in the future, and the points at which new centres of trade must arise in obedience to known laws. A precise knowledge of the form, size, and geological structure of the globe; of its physical features; of the topographical distribution of its mineral and vegetable products, and of the varied forms of animal life, including man, that it sustains; of the influence of geographical environment on man and the lower animals; and of the climatic conditions of the various regions of the earth, is absolutely essential to a successful solution of many of the problems before us.

“If England is to maintain her commanding position in the world of commerce, she must approach these problems in the spirit of Prince Henry the Navigator, and by high scientific training fit her sons to play their part like men in the coming struggle for commercial supremacy. The struggle will be keen, and victory will rest with those who have most fully realised the truth of the maxim, that ‘knowledge is power.’”

ELECTRICITY: LIGHT AND POWER.

BY M. HOLROYD SMITH, M.I.M.E., M.S.T.E. AND E., ETC.

PART I.

SO rapid has been the development of the application of electricity to useful purposes and so great are its possibilities for the future that we may fairly claim to have entered upon the electric age, and the purport of this paper is to recount some of the work that has been achieved and to explain the "how" and the "why," avoiding, as far as possible, technical expressions, and, where they must of necessity occur, giving their meaning.

The explanations are not intended for those "skilled in the art," but are given in the hope that the first principles of the science may be better understood by the general reader.

What electricity is, it is impossible to say; we do not know, nor shall we ever know. Like the questions, "What is life?" "What is matter?" it must remain unanswered; but, though we do not know what it is, we know many things about it, and are constantly learning more. We can produce and measure it; direct and control it, and make it serve a hundred useful ends.

If electro-biology or animal magnetism be accepted, the old-world sages were apparently ignorant of its existence till about 600 years before Christ, when Thales, of Miletus, discovered the peculiar power of acting upon other light substances, manifested by a piece of amber after it had been subjected to rapid friction, and finding this in nothing else, called the action the same name, "electron," the Greek word for amber. We know now that the same property exists in many other substances—sealing wax, for instance; still, the original name has been preserved and become peculiar to this natural force—so much so, that some begrudge its original meaning.

It certainly would sound strange if the word were interpreted, to hear such expressions as the amber telegraph, the amber belt, the amber line, the amber engineer; it may, like "angel," "minister," or "knave," be taken as an example of how the original meaning of a word may be forgotten in its peculiar and recognised use.

The electron of Thales remained a mysterious and unexplainable symptom until well on into the middle ages, and perhaps the first real use of this subtle agent was the mariner's compass.* Little further progress was made until Franklin drew lightning from the clouds.

* The discovery is generally attributed to Flavis, a Neapolitan, but there are grounds for supposing it was brought to Europe from China by one Paulus Venetus, an Italian.

ELECTRICITY: LIGHT AND POWER.

To a novice it might seem that there was nothing in common between the attractive and repellent action of a piece of rubbed amber, the northward pointing tendency of a steel needle after it had been rubbed with loadstone, and the vivid flash of blinding light that precedes a thunder clap; yet, this is so. They are all attributable to the same cause, that mysterious mode of motion which we call electricity. The great world itself may be regarded as a huge dynamo; and there is truth in the saying, "Electricity is life."

The production of electric action by chemical means is a field of research full of interest and instruction; to trace its origin and development, and the many and varied uses to which it has been applied, would occupy more space than is here available. Perhaps the greatest practical use resulting from it is the electric telegraph—

The wondrous wire of magic power
To flash glad tidings o'er the boundless sea,
And link far nations close in word and thought.

To chemical electricity we owe the knowledge and experience that has enabled scientists to develop its modern form; whilst we were dependent upon chemical action for the production of an electric current, there remained the unsurmountable obstacle to progress, viz., cost. The one ruling question in this commercial world is, "will it pay?" and whilst we were dependent upon the decomposition of metals in acids for electric energy, all attempts to produce light or power failed, except as experiments, because of the expense. Not until that immutable law, the conservation of energy, was formulated and proved, and the principle turned to the study of electric action, was there any real advance. It is therefore obvious that electricity cannot be studied alone, and it is only to be properly understood by being studied in conjunction with the general principles of chemistry; the laws of motion, energy, force, and heat; the fundamental principles of mechanics; in fact, more than a mere surface acquaintance with those subjects usually grouped under the title of Natural Philosophy is essential.

It is assumed that the construction and operation of an electric battery is well known. To state it broadly,—if two plates of different metals, say one copper and one zinc, are placed in a vessel containing an acid solution, and a metallic connection is made between these two plates, a current of electricity passes; this would constitute a primary battery, the metals and chemicals to be used, their compositions, the form of cell in which they are placed, would form an endless subject, their name is legion; hardly a week passes but somebody invents (or re-invents) a primary battery, and notwithstanding the comparative completeness of the knowledge of electro-chemical action, it is repeatedly being announced to the world that a new primary battery is discovered that won't wear out, that will produce light and power for nothing, because the elements are so changed in the action as to be worth more when finished with than when new; the "how" is kept a profound secret until a company is formed, and after the money has been subscribed it dies a natural death.

It may be stated that a powerful, safe, and economical primary battery cannot be made until metals and acids become as cheap as coal.

A few years ago a notice appeared in the papers that a Frenchman had travelled from Paris with a small box and conveyed it safely to Glasgow, where a learned Professor of deservedly high repute examined it, and astonished the world by stating that it contained stored electricity capable of developing several hundred horse power if let loose. A meaning and importance has been attached to the Professor's words which he could never have intended, and from them a delusion has become fixed in the popular mind that will be difficult to remove, viz., that electricity can be pumped into a bottle and carried about, and it is only necessary to turn a tap to obtain unlimited energy. Let it be here stated that, strictly speaking, there is no such thing as stored electricity, and that the names, "accumulators," "storage batteries," are misnomers. They should be called "Secondary" batteries, and their value and utility consists in the fact, that instead of absorbing chemical and mineral elements in the production of electric currents, dynamic force is absorbed, that is, the power of a steam engine, waterwheel, &c., and is given out again as electricity. What takes place may be roughly stated thus :—A battery consisting of metals and acids, preferably lead and dilute sulphuric acid, is taken ; the acid has no appreciable effect upon the lead if left alone, but if an electric current is passed through (mark—passed through, not made to stop), it so disturbs the acid and the lead that they get angry with one another, the acid divides itself, one element attacks one lead plate and the other element the other lead plate, and the stronger and the longer the passage of the current the greater the disturbance, the plates become charged, their natural condition is altered, and remains so after the exciting current ceases to flow ; but those plates want to resume their natural condition : join them with a copper wire, they seize the opportunity, and in making friends again reproduce electricity.

There is a limit beyond which these lead plates cannot be excited ; when they have reached this limit no useful effect is produced, no matter how much longer you continue to pass a current through them ; from this follows the fact, that if you want a secondary battery to give off much electricity for some time it must be big and heavy, a fact not sufficiently realised, and one that it would be well for all to remember.

It will be seen from the above that, as "secondary batteries" require a current of electricity to form them, they would be of little commercial value were there no cheaper means of producing electricity than by the employment of primary batteries.

The question may therefore be asked : How, then, can electricity be economical at all ? and the simple answer is, because it can be made from coal* without the consumption of metals and acids ; and as that answer would naturally elicit the further question : How ? an attempt will now be made to give an answer.

* The latent energy of a pound of coal is twelve times greater than the latent energy of a pound of zinc, whilst a pound of zinc costs twenty times as much as a pound of coal.

PART II.

ELECTRICITY has previously been described "as a mode of motion"—the indefinite article is there used because there are other "modes of motion" besides electricity. The very definition itself may seem indefinite, and can only be understood by examining the various manifestations of electric modes of motion. Let us look first to the primary source, viz., heat. Heat, potential or latent, may be regarded as the source, and we may call the sun the great primary battery. Electricity can be produced direct from heat in an apparatus known as a thermopile, and that is the widest and most promising field for further investigation and future development; but inasmuch as we have to remember "will it pay?" they are disregarded here because their present efficiency is too low for them to be of commercial value.

Keeping in view the axiom that heat is the prime source of electricity, let us briefly examine some of its phenomena.

Take an ordinary primary battery with a zinc plate and a copper plate, and couple the terminals by an iron wire, the solution will begin to fume and bubble and boil, and the iron wire will become hot, the passage of the electric current manifests itself by the production of heat. If the battery is strong enough the wire will become red, then white hot, and fuse away.

This is the principle of all electric light, viz., the passage of an electric current producing heat. If the battery and the wire were well arranged little heat would be produced in the battery and intense heat in the wire. It is popularly supposed that the electric light is cold; this is an error—the coldest looking light is the hottest. It is the very intensity of the heat of the arc lamp that produces the blue-white glare. There is nothing hotter. That small bead of light between the two points of the carbon rods is eight times hotter than molten iron. The little wiry-looking thread in the glow lamp gives out light because of the heat produced in it by the passage of electricity. Were it not in the glass globe, from which all the air has practically been exhausted, it would be instantly burnt away. Without pursuing this investigation further, we see that electricity produces heat, and that heat can be made to produce electricity.

Let us now look for manifestations of electricity other than heat (we can find none without).

If, instead of coupling the terminals of the battery by a piece of iron wire, we had taken a piece of copper wire covered with cotton or silk (for anything that is a bad conductor of heat is a bad conductor of electricity), and had wound it round a bar of iron, we should find that the passage of a current of electricity round and round the iron would make it magnetic, that is, capable of attracting and holding other pieces of iron. If we wind another piece of wire round the same bar, but, instead of coupling its ends to the battery we couple them to an instrument so constructed that

it will indicate when a current is passing, then if we continue lifting and replacing the zinc plate in and out of the solution we shall find that the instrument indicates the passage of electricity through the wire that has no connection with the battery at all, but simply wound alongside the battery wire. Again, suppose we coil the battery wire round a paper tube and allow the current to continue to flow through it, and wind the instrument wire round an iron bar small enough to pass into the paper tube, and drop it in and pull it out, we shall find that each time we do so the instrument will indicate the passage of a current.

Take a plain bar of iron, and slowly insert one end into the coil, it will be immediately sucked in and held there as long as the battery current flows through the wire. If the bar were steel instead of iron, and were allowed to be sucked in at one end of the coil and forcibly withdrawn at the other or opposite end, and the process repeated a few times, the steel bar would not only be a magnet whilst in the coil but would remain one after it was removed, and be able to attract and hold pieces of iron although there was no battery sending a current of electricity round it.

If, now, we took the steel magnet, and the bar of soft iron, previously mentioned, with the coil of copper wire wound round it, having its ends attached to the indicating instrument, and approached one end near enough to the steel magnet to feel the pull and suddenly withdrew it (that is waved it to and fro past the end without allowing it to touch), we should find that the instrument would indicate the passage of an electric current through the copper wire, and the nearer it came and the faster it moved the stronger would be the indication.

The above may seem simple experiments and not of much practical use, but they are the A B C of electrical engineering, and if fully mastered and realised will be found to be the foundation upon which much modern work is built; but there is one other simple experiment which has been attended with such important results that it deserves especial notice. All iron is slightly magnetic, all iron will become strongly magnetic if a current of electricity passes round it; so instead of using the steel permanent magnet, take two bars of iron, each with a coil wound round it, join one end of each coil by a flexible wire and connect the other ends to the instrument and repeat the waving process, but more rapidly, and it will be found that the instrument again indicates a current, the slight magnetism in the iron has caused a slight current in the wire, and the slight current in the wire passing round the stationary bar increases the magnetism of the iron, the increased magnetism strengthens the current, and so one acts upon the other; the stronger the magnetism the stronger the current, and the stronger the current the stronger the magnetism; and if these went on increasing, the force would become so strong as to burn up the copper wire; this has been done.

The foregoing experiments have been given in their simplest condition, without describing what constitutes the best form of magnets or how copper discs or coils of wire can in some cases be substituted for the iron bars, or how and why the copper wire has to be insulated, &c., &c.

They are, however, sufficient to show some of the essential facts which are at the service of all who will learn how to use them—the hammer, the vice, the file, and the chisel of the electrical workshop—and it only needs the spirit of adaptation to render them useful. Just one example. It would evidently be fatiguing to continue waving the iron bar with a coil round it to and fro in front of a magnet, and it would naturally suggest itself to a mechanical mind that this bar, and others like it, could be attached to the surface of a wheel, and by rapidly rotating the wheel they could be rapidly made to traverse across the face of the magnet, or to use a technical expression, made to cut the lines of force in the magnetic field. And, further, when by this wheel a small quantity of electricity is obtained, say sufficient to light one small lamp, it will be easily seen that by making a larger machine and employing a steam engine to turn it, large quantities of electricity can be obtained without using any battery at all; and, it may be asked, “Is not electricity the transformation of transmitted energy?”

Some other facts are necessary to be known and understood before we can attempt to make practical use of those already given; perhaps that which is manifest in the mariner's compass is the most important, viz., the north-seeking tendency of one end, and the south-seeking tendency of the other.

It does not follow from this that all “dynamos” or electric instruments must be so placed relative to the earth's axis as to accommodate to the north and south, but another result of this tendency is of the highest importance, namely, that the N. (or north) pole of one magnet attracts the S. (or south) pole of another; but the N. pole repels another N. pole, likewise an S. pole repels another S. pole. This may be shortly expressed by saying opposite poles attract and similar poles repel each other.

If, therefore, two magnets are taken and are held a distance apart, with opposite poles facing each other, and a plain iron bar free to swing upon a pivot be placed between them, and at right angles to them, it will at once swing until it lies in a line with the magnets, and it does not matter which end of the plain iron bar turns to the N. or S. of the magnet; but if the plain iron bar be removed and a steel bar that has been made into a permanent magnet be substituted, and it be so held that the N. of the steel magnet faces the N. of the main magnet, if released it at once swings round and points to S., whilst the end S. has also swung to N.; and if the magnets are large, it will require considerable force to twist them away.

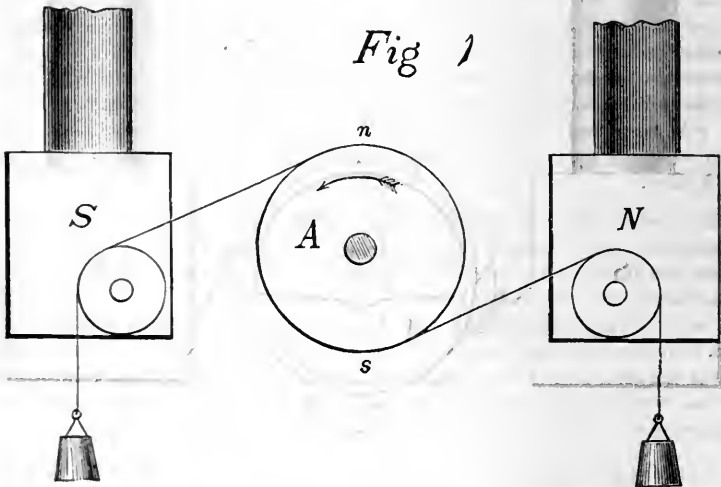
Now, if the order were reversed and an electro-magnet were used in the middle to swing round between the poles of a permanent magnet and it be rapidly turned by any convenient means, it would constitute a magneto-electric machine. The revolving part is technically known as the armature.

It would be entering too much into detail to explain how the ends of the wires would have to be coupled and compensation made for the fact of rotation; sufficient to say that this is accomplished, and the parts fulfilling the object are called “commutators” and “brushes.”

Just go a step further. Remove the stationary steel magnet, and in its place put bars of soft iron with wire wound round it, and, taking advantage of the commutators and brushes, allow the current produced by the revolutions of the armature to flow round the wires of the stationary magnets as well as going to the outside work (lamps, &c.), then the machine becomes an electric generator, now generally known as a "Dynamo."

From what has been said before it will be seen that a machine built on this principle has only to be made to revolve rapidly to produce electric currents, and what is equally important it is only necessary to allow an electric current to flow into the machine to cause it to revolve and make it into an electric motor. Why this is, needs a little further explanation (although the underlying facts have been previously stated).

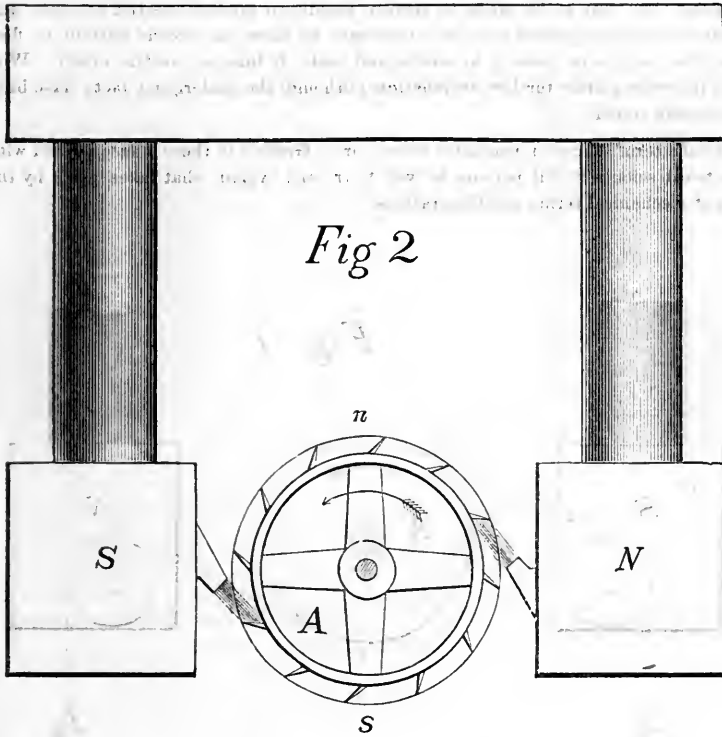
As the term "lines of magnetic force" are "Greek" to those unacquainted with electrical science it will perhaps be well to try and explain what takes place by the use of mechanical terms and illustrations.



Let A, Fig. 1, represent a drum or barrel with two long cords wound round it, the end of one cord passing round the pulley in the box S, the end of the other round the pulley in the box N. Now, if weights be attached, these cords will be pulled off the drum, making it revolve. Notice they are always pulling from the points N and S. This may be taken as illustrating the magnetic attraction.

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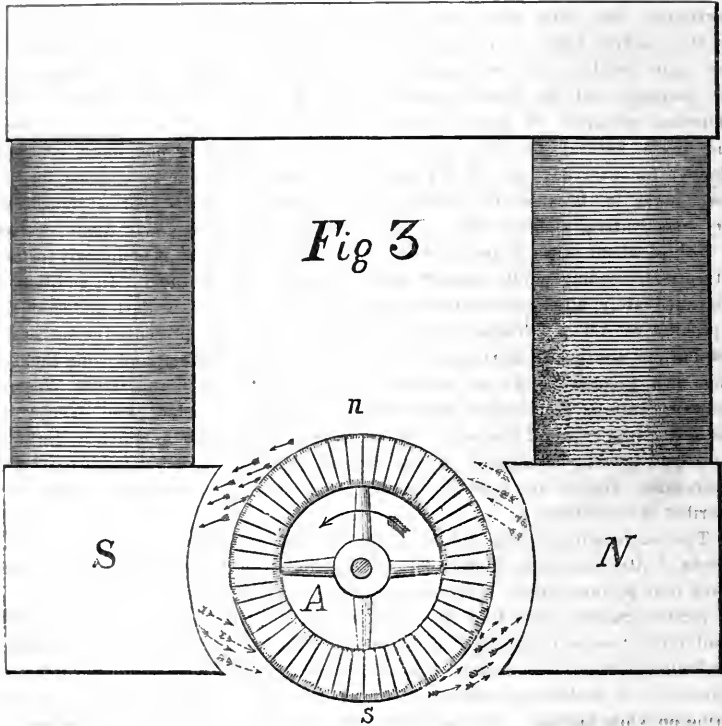
Referring to Fig. 2, if A is a little water-wheel placed between two pipes S and N connected to a cistern full of water, and the water be allowed to flow from the spouts and impinge on the water-wheel, it would be forced round as long as the water supply lasted. This may be taken as illustrating the magnetic repulsion.



If, now, we make the cistern a mass of iron, and the pipes bars of iron, wound with copper wire, and put heavy masses of iron at the bottom, shaped as shown at S and N in Fig. 3, and instead of the pulleys or water-wheel we take an iron ring or cylinder also wound with copper wire, and allow a current of electricity to pass through the wire, the iron will become magnetic and the "armature" A will revolve in the direction indicated by the large arrows, because the magnetic force is

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acting as indicated by the little darts, the dotted darts represent the repelling action, the other darts the pulling action. The movement of a conductor in a magnetic field is omitted as too technical for this article.



From this hasty survey of first principles, it will be seen, as stated at the commencement, that electricity can be produced without the use of chemicals for the decomposition of metals. Mechanical work can be turned into electricity and electricity can be turned into mechanical work.

PART III.

THERE have of late been so many exhibitions, not only in London, but also in the chief provincial towns, all of which have been lighted by electricity, that little need be said as to the display that can be produced by the electric light. In Manchester, last year, the brilliant illumination of the main building by arc lamps, the wonderfully charming fairy fountain in the grounds, and the cheerful homely light of the incandescent lamps in the numerous examples of house furnishing, show conclusively what can be done. And it is natural to ask, how is it that electricity is not more generally adopted for everyday use, if it possesses the many advantages claimed for it? The answer is, because all English people, whatever their political creed, are very conservative, and are slow to take up anything that is new. Again, we are so hedged about with vested interests and monopolies that it is difficult for new enterprises, needing public support and use, to get any foothold. In addition to this, until lately, all electrical enterprise has been held in by the curb and snaffle of a prohibitive Act of Parliament, and, therefore, up to the present, the successful installations are those undertaken by people able to pay for them, and using them on their own premises. As an example of this may be cited the Great Western Railway Station, Paddington, the Grosvenor Gallery, London, and Wentworth Castle, the property and residence of T. G. F. Vernon Wentworth, which is, perhaps, the largest private installation in this country that has attracted the attention of electricians. One of the scientific papers, after giving full technical details, thus describes the lighting:—

“The castle being a place of historic interest, full of valuable paintings and other objects of attraction, some further detailed description of the lighting of the principal rooms may be interesting. Commencing with the east wing, on the upper floor is the picture gallery, extending the whole length of the wing, 170ft. long and 24ft. broad, proportionately high, and is considered to be one of the largest in Yorkshire. The building being of a classical style, the walls are divided by numerous pilasters supporting the architraves which run round, and there are arches near each end resting on white marble. This is lighted entirely with side lights from brackets of light and special design, in appearance resembling the stalks of flowers rising from a group of leaves and drooping over. Leaves of chased brass are placed at intervals on the stem, which terminates in a globular frosted glow lamp specially made for this installation. The effect is heightened by mirrors placed between the pilasters, the lights on either side of these bending gracefully forward so as to be reflected. There are 107 lamps in this room; the appearance of the lights hanging from their graceful stems, either singly, double, or in groups like bunches of fruit, is exceedingly pleasing, if not unique. The pictures are well lighted, and the whole is seen to great advantage. Omitting the remainder of the upper rooms, we descend the grand staircase, which is lighted by a 7-lamp electrolier, and enter the Strafford Room, which is lighted by eight side lights. The walls of this room are lined with valuable

pictures, as, indeed, are all the rooms on the ground floor of the east and south wings. Next follows the dining-room, lighted by twelve side lights and also by a pendant electrolier for the dining-table, &c., containing three groups of lamps under three dome shades, which are capable of sliding backwards and forwards, and connecting with a centre by cone bearings so as to allow of a rocking action in the electrolier when being drawn in one direction or the other. The weight of the electroliers is carried by insulated pulleys on an independent travelling line. This makes a most effective and brilliant way of lighting a dining-room table. Following on is the grand hall, decorated in white and gold, lighted by sixteen side lights. These are for the most part placed in front of mirrors, and on light descending stems proceeding from lions' heads, in keeping with the other decorations. It may be here remarked that the whole of the east wall of this storey is decorated with mirrors, which have lights on each side of them. The lower floors of the eastern wing consist of several libraries and sitting-rooms, which are lighted with side lights on brackets of varied designs.

"The upper rooms, known as the Swan, Roman, Canopy, and Ark, are lined with tapestry (doors included), which is said to be unsurpassed. These are all lighted by pendant pendants of various colours, suspended from brackets above the tapestry.

"These rooms being also furnished as sitting-rooms, there are double-jointed brackets on either side of the fireplace for convenience of reading, as there are also in many other rooms. Referring to the other parts of the house it may be remarked that the whole is well lighted, the kitchen, for example, having six pendant lights.

"The conservatory is lighted up for reading and writing, and for lunching, the effect of the light amongst the ferns and flowers, orange trees and foliage, being charming.

"There are sundry outside lamps for lighting up the approaches. The outside premises consist of steward's house, stables and coach houses, cow houses, and farm-yard; also the laundry, dairy, &c., with other appurtenances.

"The greatest care has been taken not only in the general arrangement, but in all the details, from the boilers to the lamps, to make it as perfect as possible in every respect, everything being of the best quality. In addition to the special arrangement for the simplification of the switches, complete instructions, mounted and framed, are placed near each switch board; in short, the utmost pains are taken to make the whole most simple and intelligent. The installation was completed in December, 1885, and has run ever since without a hitch of any kind, and that, too, without the supervision of any electrician or anybody beyond those already employed on the estate. These facts are of the greatest importance, proving that the electric light can be so arranged as to be perfectly trustworthy, easily and inexpensively managed, and to give no trouble whatever. Its advantages as compared with the paraffin lamps, candles, and lanterns previously used are immense, and with such an example of beauty, brilliance, and elegance it is to be expected that ere long we shall see many of the large and historical mansions similarly lighted, and in this way the owners will secure for themselves the greatest comfort, convenience, and pleasure, whilst adding to their historic treasures that which is one of the greatest triumphs of the present century."

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Hatfield House, the residence of the Marquis of Salisbury, now Prime Minister of England, may be taken as another example. Electric motors pump the water from the river to cisterns in the roof. Electric motors drive the circular saw and other machinery used at the homestead, and all the mansion is beautifully lighted with electric lamps. No smoke, no smell, no matches, very little risk of fire; just press a button, turn a knob, or pull a cord, and the whole room, corridor, hall, gallery, alcove, tower, or vaults are lighted as if by magic.

We are indeed realising "the fairy tale of science and the long results of time." Now, the surgeon, instead of groping in darkness or imperfectly reflected light, can pass a tiny electric lamp down the patient's throat, and see what is required. In Paris ladies frequently wear electric glow-lamps in their hair, or as glittering dewdrops on artificial flowers, and the crowns of pantomimic fairies are often ablaze with electric diamonds; but perhaps the most effective use of electricity for dramatic purposes was when Irving, as Mephistopheles, watching the duel between Faust and Valentine, thrusts his sword between the combatants' swords, and, as they touch, blue sparks glint and crackle, or when, in the Brocken scene, the little imps gambol about his knees, and, as he caresses them, bright flashes as from another and a lower world follow his hand.

All the illustrations given are for luxury or for the hope of gain. There are very few in this country for public utility; perhaps the best example is on some of our lighthouses; yet, though we have two at Dover, they are far surpassed by the light tower at Calais, where the three immense rays of revolving light sweep both land and sea in turn.*

PART IV.

THOUGH there are numerous applications on the continent surpassing what we have in this country, we have to cross to the other side of the Atlantic for public works on a large scale. In New York most of the public streets and squares are lighted by electric arc lamps, and many of the new towns, or cities as they call them, have no gasworks; they realise the superiority of electricity, and adopt it. Even the staid, old-fashioned Quaker city of Philadelphia possesses an installation which, of its kind, is unsurpassed. The Girard College, or Orphan Home, the grounds of which cover several acres, have distributed about them tall columns of light ironwork, surmounted with a cluster of five-arc lamps in clear glass globes covered with reflectors. They are so high as not to dazzle the eye by their brilliancy, and powerful enough to illuminate all the grounds and the streets and houses in the neighbourhood, not with a light equal to daytime, but surpassing the best effect of an American full moon.

* In one respect we do surpass our neighbours, viz., in the employment of powerful electric lamps as search lights on most of our men-of-war.

Perhaps the grandest display of electric light in the world is the torch held aloft in the hand of the Statue of Liberty, presented by the Republic of France to the Republic of America, that has been erected on an island in New York Harbour. It stands there defying the fiercest tempest, flashing a light of welcome to all seeking the shores of the newer and larger world.

The praise given to America needs some qualification, and it is only fair to ask, why has the practical application of electricity there so far outpassed the rest of the world. Though it is largely due to the national characteristic of dash and go-ahead, it is not altogether due to these qualities. An American can "calculate" as well as any man: he is not beaten in this particular even by the Hebrew brotherhood; which is perhaps the reason why so few of the tribe of Judah and Benjamin reside there; and being able to calculate, he finds that light for light, electricity is cheaper than gas; this applies to America more so than here, first because gas there costs about 12s. a thousand instead of 2s. 6d. as here, and secondly because the authorities will permit a rough and ready method of erecting poles and running wires that would not and ought not to be countenanced in a civilised country—thus of course cheapening the cost of installation. And further, in England nearly every hamlet has its gas plant, which means so much money sunk; there new towns and districts are springing up every day, and having no capital account to write off, there is no hesitation in adopting a new method.

Another feature of the American character may be cited as explanatory of the rapid adoption of electricity in that country, viz., the high cost of labour, and as a result the welcome and encouragement given to men who can devise means of lessening the necessity of employing labour. An inventor in America is looked upon as a valuable man to be encouraged, whilst here the custom is to shun and suppress and hinder as far as possible; the natural result being that our best men are drawn there, where their efforts are appreciated and rewarded.

The American tendency to adopt has resulted in obtaining for them a credit for originality more than they deserve. The public are apt to associate an invention with those who develop and bring it into practical use, so let it be here stated that English scientists owe very little to the Americans, whilst the American practice is mostly built upon English science. Theories formulated and experimentally proved by English electricians have found no remunerative field here. They have been communicated through the press, or otherwise, to the United States of America, understood, realised, put into practice, made a commercial success, large companies formed, then brought over here and sold to speculators of the Stock Exchange, who, not able to understand, did not appreciate the fundamental truth as propounded by the originator.

As an illustration of this may be cited the telephone. No capitalists in the old world would find the necessary money for working out the conception and making it a reality; but American ability, enterprise, and legal skill enabled the facts known to scientists here to be developed and so patented, that a large, and strong, and profitable monopoly has been obtained. Having mentioned the telephone, it will be well to correct a popular misconception respecting it. It is generally supposed that the voice is transmitted from the speaker to the hearer; this is not so. No sound

or sound waves are transmitted as through a speaking tube. It is not the voice of your friend you hear, it is the imitation of that voice, an imitation so like the original, it is difficult to realise that it is only a reproduction.

To understand how a telephone really works, the reader must remember the leading principles given as the A B C in the commencement of this article. There it was stated that, by waving a piece of iron in front of a magnet round which a copper wire was wound, electric energy was made to pulsate through the wire. Now, if the piece of iron is a thin sheet, so thin as to be affected by air pressure, then you have only to talk in front of that iron sheet whilst it is held near to the pole of a magnet, and the bulging and straightening of the thin plate has the same effect upon the magnet as waving the iron, viz., it causes electric pulsations to pass through the wire surrounding it. Now, that wire has only to be wound round another magnet, no matter how far away, and the pulsation of electricity will alter the strength of that magnet, causing it to attract and relieve the sheet of metal in front of it, viz., make it vibrate in the same way that the speaker's voice made the first sheet vibrate, and the vibration of the second plate acting upon the air reproduces the sound.

The order therefore is—the speaker's voice vibrates the plate or "diaphragm" of the transmitting telephone, the vibrating plate causes pulsations in the copper wire; those pulsations passing round the magnet of the receiving telephone, vibrate its diaphragm, which reproduces the sound.

The reproduction is so like the original it would be possible for a listener in Manchester to recognise the voice of the speaker in London.

Some idea of the commercial value of this instrument may be given from the statement that in England over £3,500,000 is invested in Telephone Exchange Companies, and the shares of most of them are at a premium.

Whilst on the subject of popular errors it will be well to mention the gravest, viz., the credulity that has enabled a number of unprincipled men to do a large and profitable business in electric health appliances on the fallacious statement of their curative effects. Too strong a protest cannot be raised against such trash, and readers before investing their money in any advertised wonder-working belts had better ask the opinion of someone uninterested in the sale and with sufficient electrical knowledge to be able to advise. Electricity may be life, but even taking that as a fact, it does not make a piece of red flannel with a few strips of crinoline steel stitched into it a life-saving apparatus.

The scientific papers have of late been very strong on this subject, but unfortunately such papers are seldom read by the general public, who are the victims of this charlatany.

PART V.

WHEN Anderson the wizard of the north was in the height of his popularity, one of the wonders of his exhibition was a little electric carriage that ran to and fro on a table in front of the stage, and he used to prophesy that someday carriages would be run in the public street so propelled. That day has come, and it has fallen to Lancashire, the home of co-operative societies, to have the first success-

ful electric tramway ever made ; and the many thousands who yearly visit Blackpool (in addition to the usual numerous attractions of that health-giving place) have now the satisfaction of being taken from end to end of the fine esplanade in commodious tramcars driven by electricity.

No horses, no steam engines, to the casual observer nothing, but the cars running to and fro propelled by some unseen power, stopping, starting, going quickly or slowly at the driver's will, up hill and down hill, sunshine or shower, full or empty, winter and summer, for the last three years, those cars have run, proving beyond the possibility of a doubt, that not only can electricity be used, but also that, by the employment of electricity, the work can be done at a cheaper rate than by any other means.

It is only natural to suppose that the reader will hardly be content with a mere statement of facts, but will probably want to know how it is accomplished, and to better understand this, it will be well briefly to consider what had previously been done.

Referring again to the A B C, it will be remembered that an electro-magnet will attract a bar of iron as long as it is energised by the passage of a current through the surrounding wires, but as soon as the current ceases, the magnetic action ceases, and the piece of iron is let go. This was the principle of the earliest electric motors, and they were constructed as follows:—Across the surface of a wheel or drum, a number of iron bars (usually ten or twelve) were placed with a space between them three or four times the width of the bar ; on either side of the drum an electro-magnet was placed, with the poles nearly touching the bars ; the spindle of the drum was provided with a cam or other device to make and break the flow of electricity from the battery, so set that when a bar is a little distance away, the magnet is energised, drawing the bar rapidly towards it ; but as soon as it gets opposite the electricity ceases, and the impetus of the bar carries it past beyond the range of the magnet, and brings another bar within range, when the magnet is again energised, drawing it forward ; thus bar after bar is attracted, and the wheel made to revolve. Little motors of this type can be seen in every shop where scientific instruments are sold, and it was the kind used by Anderson in his demonstrations previously referred to.

For reasons that cannot easily be explained without becoming too technical, this motor is far from economical, and when more powerful machines were wanted a different construction was resorted to, namely, the pulling action of a coil of wire upon a bar of iron described at the commencement of this article.

A large motor of this description was constructed in 1850, by Professor C. G. Page, of the Smithsonian Institute, Washington, which developed over 10-horse power. He sought to apply his motor to locomotion, and he actually constructed an electric locomotive to demonstrate the practicality of his scheme. But he never achieved much success, as might have been foreseen. Among the improvements which Professor Page introduced was that of making each solenoid double, so that the arms of a U magnet could slip into them, instead of one single bar. As the solenoids attracted most strongly when the cores were almost out of them, he wound his solenoids in short sections, and a sliding commutator worked by the motion of the

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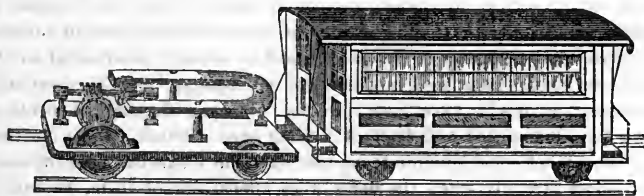
cores successively cut out the sections of coils which the cores had entered and transferred the current to others ahead of them, and thus the range of attraction was greatly increased.

Professor Page, it is interesting now to recall, made the trial trip with his electromagnetic locomotive on Tuesday, April 29th, 1851, starting from Washington, along the track of the Washington and Baltimore Railroad. His locomotive was of 16 horse-power, employing 100 cells of Grove nitric acid battery, each having platinum plates eleven inches square. The progress of the locomotive was at first so slow that a boy was enabled to keep pace with it for several hundred feet; but the speed was soon increased, and Bladensburg, a distance of about five miles and a quarter, was reached, it is said, in thirty-nine minutes.

When within two miles of that place the locomotive began to run, on nearly a level plane, at the rate of nineteen miles an hour, or seven miles faster than the greatest speed theretofore attained. This velocity was continued for a mile, when one of the cells cracked entirely open, which caused the acids to intermix, and, as a consequence, the propelling power was partially weakened. Two of the other cells subsequently met with a similar disaster.

The Professor proceeded cautiously, fearing obstructions on the way, such as the coming of cars in the opposite direction, and cattle on the road. Seven halts were made, occupying in all forty minutes; but, notwithstanding these hindrances and delays, the trip to and from Bladensburg was accomplished in one minute less than two hours. The cells were made of light earthenware, for the purpose of experiment merely, without reference to durability. This part of the apparatus could therefore easily be guarded against mishap. The great point established was that a locomotive on the principle of Professor Page could be made to travel nineteen miles an hour. But it was found, on subsequent trials, that the least jolt, such as that caused by the end of a rail a little above the level, threw the batteries out of working order, and the result was a halt. This defect could not be overcome, and Professor Page reluctantly abandoned his experiments in this special direction.

In this and all previous experiments the source of energy was an electric battery carried by the car, and the above statement, taken from an American record, shows that practical success is hardly to be expected from batteries so employed. Some other means had to be found for supplying the motor with the necessary energy, and Mr. Thomas Hall, of Boston, United States of America, claims to have been the first to think of using the rails for this purpose. The accompanying illustration is taken from the original woodcut of the locomotive.



HALL'S ELECTRIC CAR.

The block was made nearly thirty-seven years ago, and is thus described in an American book:—

“The engine was on the principle of an electro-magnet revolving between the poles of a permanent magnet. The armature had a worm on its shaft which matched into a gear attached to the driving wheels, the latter being insulated by ivory. The track was laid in five-foot sections, and was above forty feet long and five inches wide. Under the platform of the car was a pole-changer attached to a lever; when the engine reached the end of the track it ran against an inclined plane which reversed the pole-changer and sent the engine to the other end of the track, where the same thing was repeated, thus the engine was sent automatically from one end to the other. The current, produced by two Grove cells, was, it is well to note, conveyed to the engine by the rails. Mr. Hall says, that in 1852 he made for Dr. A. L. Henderson, of Buffalo, a model line of railroad with electric engine depôts, telegraph line, and electric railroad signals, together with a figure operating the signals at each end of the line automatically.”

This, he states, was the first model of railroad signals or trains worked by telegraph signals.

Now, it will be easily seen that when the “dynamo” was developed, and it was found that it not only produced electricity, but if supplied with electricity produced power, the field was open for practical work; and with the knowledge of what had already been done, there was no great advance in the electric railway constructed by Dr. Werner Siemens in 1879 and exhibited at Berlin, where the current was taken to the motor on the car by one rail and returned by the other. The little line on the sands at Brighton is generally speaking a repetition thereof, and is an excellent specimen of this method, but upon reflection it will be seen that such a plan is inadmissible in the public streets where horses and carriages are continually crossing and recrossing the rails. For if the rails are conducting a current sufficient to work the number of cars that usually work in a town, then should a horse put one foot on one rail, and another foot on the other rail, it would be instantly killed. This led to the use of the Berlin line being prohibited. And further, if the line is of any length, then the leakage of electricity from rail to rail, through the earth instead of passing through the motor on the cars, would be so great as to render it useless or excessively wasteful. The system therefore fails on the three points that are essential for street tramways, viz., safety to the public, efficiency, and economy.

The cheapest and simplest method is to convey the current to the cars by an overhead wire supported on poles, and this is largely used in America, where the questions are—will it work? and will it pay? and appearances are out of it altogether. Though the employment of overhead conductors would be a great economic gain if adopted on all our English tramways, it is hardly to be expected that the English public would put up with the unsightly thing used in the States, but the unsightliness is quite unnecessary: the supports can be made ornamental as well as useful, and there is no reason why this method should not be adopted in country towns.

ELECTRICITY : LIGHT AND POWER.

The accompanying sketch illustrates one erected in a seaside resort for the purpose of demonstrating what could be done.

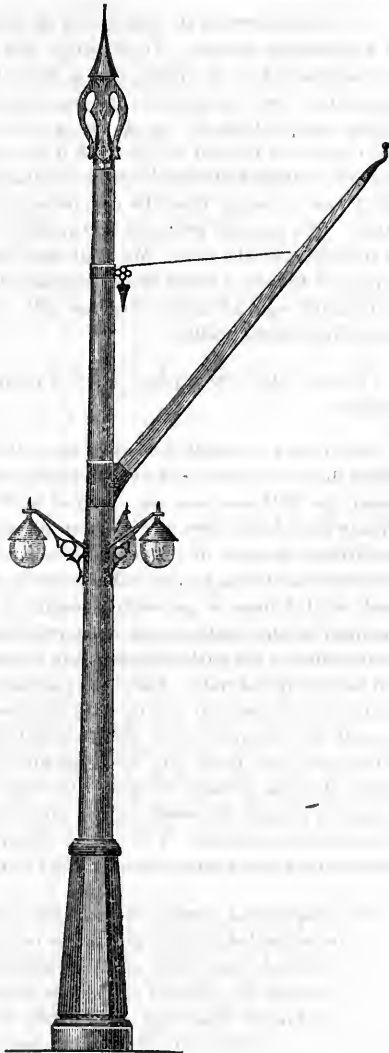
It is to be hoped that the local authorities will, ere long, allow it to be put into daily use, and so kill two birds with one stone, viz.—add to the attractiveness of their town, and enable a tramway which now works at a loss to make some profit.

In speaking about electric locomotion some confusion has arisen by the use of the word "tramway" to designate a light railway.

In England a tramway is generally understood to mean a railway in the public streets of a town subject to other vehicular traffic. This wants to be borne in mind, for it is a much easier thing to work cars by electricity on a track reserved exclusively for their use, than to run them in the public street where so many conflicting interests have to be considered. And as the "go rail come rail" system will only act upon short lengths, and even then is not safe, and as authorities won't permit overhead wires in busy towns, the only remaining way is that employed at Blackpool, viz., by constructing an underground channel in the centre of the track, having a narrow slit or opening in its surface for communication between the electric motor on the car and electric conductors within the channel.

Many carefully-worked-out details are necessary to carry this into effect.

The channel is formed strong enough to support the ordinary traffic of the road, and so as to be easily flushed and cleansed. Its surface consists of steel troughing filled with wooden paving blocks, and forms a good roadway; the sides of the channel are partially formed of creosoted wood, holding



POLE FOR OVERHEAD CONDUCTOR.

porcelain insulators, which carry electric conductors of special-drawn copper, so formed that they can be readily and securely fixed, and the different lengths secured by expansion joints. Two conductors are supplied, first that they may be hidden under either side of the surface and so be protected from injury by any substance falling through the slit in the surface of the channel; and, secondly, to make it possible to deal with points, loops, and crossings. Only the positive electricity passes along the conductors; the return is made by means of the rails, which are electrically connected one with the other.

Communication is made with the cars by means of a collector, which rubs against the copper conductors within the channel. Insulated copper bands, protected by steel plates, pass through the slit or opening in the surface of the road, and by a flexible insulated cord attached to an electrical terminal underneath the car, so that when the car moves the collector is drawn along with sufficient force to clear away any ordinary obstruction; but should an absolute block occur, then a special clip releases the collector, and a breakage is avoided.

From the terminal underneath the car, the current passes to the switch-box, where the quantity and direction of the electricity to and within the motor is regulated, and thereby the speed and direction of the car is controlled.

Switch-boxes are placed at each end of the car, and are provided with removable handles, without which it is impossible to operate them. The driver, who has charge of these handles, can cause the car to move backwards or forwards at will. From the switches the current goes to the motor and there produces mechanical energy.

The motor, running at a high speed, a combination of spur and chain gear is employed to communicate the power to the wheels and drive the car. The gear is specially designed to run smoothly and silently. From the motor the current passes by way of adjustable clips to the axles, and by them through the wheels to the rails and back to the station, where the electricity is generated.

The engines and dynamos are in duplicate, and so made that they produce just the amount of electric energy required, so that, if no car be running, no work is expended (beyond the friction of engines and shafting); if one car, just enough to drive one, and no more; if ten cars, sufficient for them, and so on up to the full capacity of the machines, which are constructed to the requirements of the line.

As an example of the capacity for carrying exceptional traffic with a very small increase in the working expenses, the following statement may be of interest:—

On the line at Blackpool the number of passengers carried during a week of six days in the winter was 2,393, at a cost, for fuel and wages, under £24. During the week ending September 4th, 1886, which was in the height of the season, the number of passengers carried was 44,306, while the cost of wages and fuel was only £45.

The following list will give some idea of the rapid progress being made in the adoption of electricity for traction purposes:—

ELECTRICITY: LIGHT AND POWER.

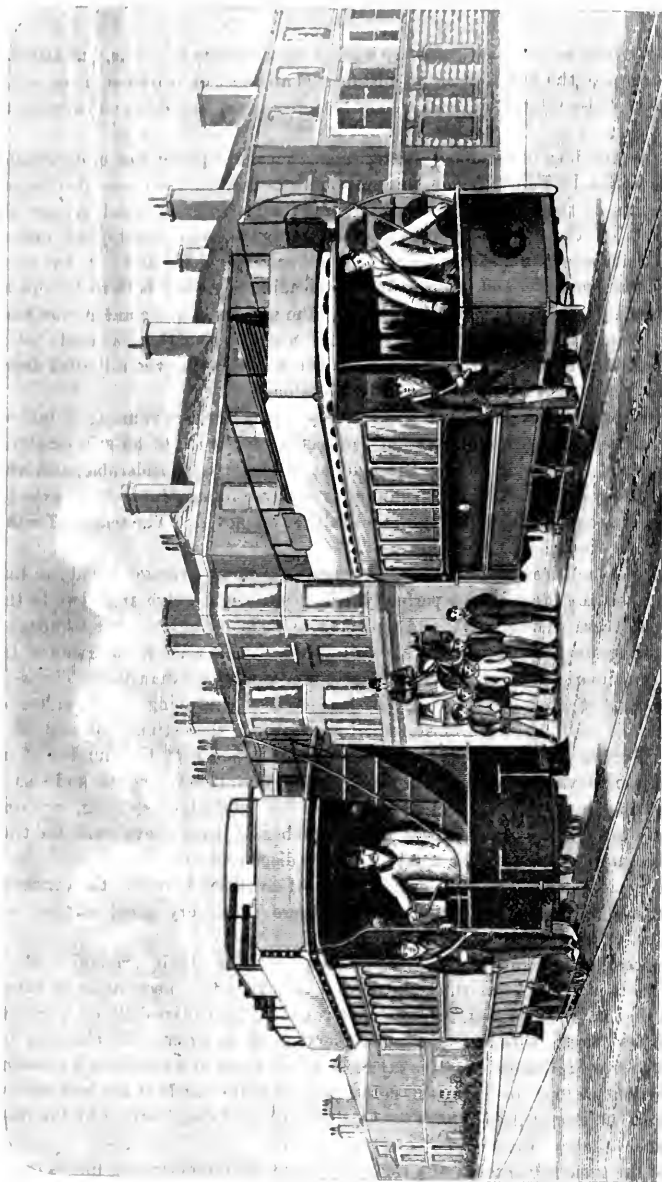
TABLE OF ELECTRIC RAILWAYS IN EUROPE AND AMERICA.

PLACE AND MODE OF WORKING*	LENGTH OF LINE.	ROLLING STOCK.	COST OF WORKING.
EUROPE.			
Lichterfelde, Berlin	R 1.5	2 cars	
Brighton	R 1	2 cars	1.92d. per car mile.
Moedling-Hinterbruhl	O 2.8	12 cars	3.42d. per car mile.
Frankfort-Offenbach	O 4.1	14 cars	3.83d. per car mile.
Zaukeroda Colliery	O 0.45	1 locom. 16 wagons	0.77d. per ton.
Hohenzollern Mine	O 0.47	1 locom. 15 wagons	0.50d. per ton.
Portrush	Th 6	4 cars	2½d. per car mile.
Bessbrook and Newry	Th 3	8 cars	4d. per train mile.
† Blackpool	U 2	10 cars	less than 4d. per car mile.
Brussels	S ..	5 cars	
Hamburg	S ..	2 cars	
AMERICA.			
Baltimore, Md.	Th and O 2	6 cars	16s. 8d. per car per day.
Los Angeles, California	O 3	8 cars	
Port Huron, Michigan	O 4	8 cars	
Windsor, Canada	O 2	2 cars	16s. 8d. per day for power.
Highland Park, Detroit	Th 3½	2 cars	3s. 2½d. per day for fuel.
Dix Road, Detroit, Mich.	O 1¾	4 cars	
Appleton, Wisconsin	O 4½	8 cars	
Scranton, Pennsylvania	O 3½	3 cars	
Denver, Colorado	U 3½	7 cars	{ 6s. 2d. per day for fuel. (Ceased working.)
Montgomery, Alabama	O 11	18 cars	{ 50 per cent less than horse and mule traction.
Kansas City, Missouri	
Orange, New Jersey	O ½	1 car	
Boston, Mass. (short line in sugar refinery)	O ..	1 locom. 3 cars	

* O = Overhead Conductor. R = Ordinary Rails. S = Storage Batteries.

Th = Third Rail. U = Underground Conduit.

† See illustration on following page.



BLACKPOOL ELECTRIC TRAMWAY.

On the list will be seen that some are worked by secondary batteries, but attention must be drawn to the fact that in no instance is any cost of working given, and in no case have those interested in secondary batteries given any detailed statement of the entire cost.

When the first idea of secondary batteries as a means of power was brought before the public notice by Faure, Sellon, and various others, with their modification and improvements of the original Planté cell, it was the generally-received opinion that the problem of the electrical propulsion of tramways, and possibly of railways generally, had been in a measure solved. *Practical experience*, however, has proved this idea to be *erroneous*, and the principal and leading engineers both in Europe and in the United States are fully convinced that, from an *economical* point of view alone, and apart from the various physical difficulties, no invention thus far made for the employment of secondary batteries can be called a success in even a limited degree, and in fact the system has been practically abandoned.

On short roads of one or two miles, with only a very few cars running at intervals of ten to fifteen minutes, and with but few passengers, it *might* be still employed; but on roads of any length, where the amount of traffic is considerable, and where twenty or thirty cars must be kept running at say five minutes' interval, or even less, no system of secondary batteries can practically be employed. The reasons for these assertions may be briefly stated thus:—

Batteries of sufficient power to drive cars carrying, on an average, twenty to thirty passengers, on any other than a perfectly level road, would weigh from two to three tons for each car. The removal and replacing of such batteries, as is admitted by the most sanguine advocates of the system, would be necessary at intervals of from three to four hours, since in that time their power would be exhausted. The *weight* of these batteries alone would practically represent the carrying of, on an average, thirty persons each, making a most important factor in the estimate of cost of the system. To this must be added the considerable expense of the number of men necessarily employed in the constant changing of these heavy weights, and also the fact that the cars must remain idle whilst this changing is going, on which necessarily involves a large increase in the number of cars above what the traffic would absolutely require if such delays could be dispensed with.

In the by no means impossible event of a short circuit occurring in the connecting wires of any of these powerful batteries, there is a very great danger, even probability, of the car being set on fire.

The necessary machinery to charge these batteries, their original cost, the keeping them in repair, and the number of hands required, necessitate an expense so great that it would be *quite impossible* to run, say, thirty cars daily on a tramway of five miles' length, with a five minutes' service, at *anything like the same total cost and yearly expense as would be sufficient to lay down and maintain a permanent direct driving electric line*. On this point, there is in the minds of the best-informed electricians no longer the *slightest doubt*, their opinion being justified by the results of practice.

One of the great advantages of a regularly laid down direct driving line is that the power expended is, as previously stated, *in direct proportion to the work done, since each*

car has the power of controlling the actual generation of the electricity it may require ; thus if one car be running on a level, the machinery is producing only the small quantity of electricity required, whilst if heavily-laden cars are ascending steep gradients, the machinery at once increases the production of electricity to the required extent. This is done without any additional weight on the car ; whereas, whilst batteries must be powerful enough to meet the maximum contingency, an increase in power necessarily means an increased weight carried. Again, secondary batteries suffer very considerable deterioration from a varying discharge, which is not the case in a direct driving system.

PART VI.

SINCE it was realised that a "dynamo" could be used with equal efficiency as an electric generator or an electro-motor, it has been employed in the latter capacity for a host of purposes—driving ventilating fans, pumping water in mines, cutting coal, riveting the iron plates in shipbuilding, using the flow of a river on one side of a mountain to work the stamps of a gold mine on the other, &c. Perhaps the distribution of power to small users is the field wherein it will prove of the greatest value to the greatest number. There is no reason why it should not be taken into the houses the same as gas or water, and used for driving the sewing machine, turning the mangle, or rocking the cradle.

At Boston, United States of America, it is largely used by small tradesmen, who find it cheaper, handier, cleaner, and in every way better to hire power from the Electric Supply Company than to have a small steam or gas engine of their own. Printing works, corn warehouses, clothes makers, engravers, &c., use it and are satisfied.

It is not only for light and power that electricity is useful, but for metallurgical purposes also it is becoming of the highest importance. At the commencement of this article it was stated that the electric arc was most intensely hot, eight times hotter than molten iron.

Just imagine a box with a row of carbon rods connected with the + wire of a powerful generator entering it at one side, and a row of carbon rods connected with the — wire entering at the other, and all these rods nearly touching ; fill the box with any ores you like, and turn the current on—what can resist such heat as would be generated ? This is done, and is successfully done, too, and has made it possible to produce aluminium at such a price as will bring it before long into general use.

To accomplish this has been the dream of the metallurgist for a long time : knowing of its existence in unlimited quantities under our very feet, almost everywhere, and yet not able to extract it from the clay in which it lies hid, except at a cost that prohibited its general use.

Another practical use of electricity is the welding of metal. It is only necessary to clamp the two bars it is desired to unite in vices to which the wires from a suitable generator are attached, then press them slowly and firmly together, and they fuse and become one. Dissimilar metals can be so joined—copper and brass, iron and steel, &c.

THE NATIONAL DEBT.

Only those things that are actually accomplished have been here mentioned ; there is a wide world of possibilities, even assuming that no new discovery is made. Of late the railway companies have been racing one another from London to Edinburgh ; fifty years ago it used to take forty hours, travelling all the time, by the Royal Mail ; this summer the journey has been accomplished in seven and a half hours—a speed (considering the way in which railway carriages are now built and the permanent way constructed) that exceeds the limit of safety.

If the journey must be done in less time, then a new track must be laid and electricity employed, and it would be possible to shoot across the land at a speed of 100 miles an hour with less risk than 60 miles is now run with the steam locomotive.

There is an old saying about “ If stone walls had ears and could speak, how many secrets they could tell.” It is possible to leave an instrument in a room that shall record all that is spoken, and when required shall repeat it to any listener. As yet it is only in the hands of the specialists, and until it becomes more widely known, it will be well to leave it as a mystery.

 THE NATIONAL DEBT :

ITS ORIGIN, GROWTH, AND THE METHODS WHICH HAVE BEEN
ADOPTED FROM TIME TO TIME FOR ITS REDUCTION.

 BY W. A. S. HEWINS.

PART I.—THE ORIGIN AND GROWTH OF THE NATIONAL DEBT.

SECTION I.—EARLY DEBTS.

THERE are many instances of debt contracted on the personal security of the Sovereign long before the management of the public expenses was taken definitely under parliamentary control. Richard II. had been driven to extort money under pretence of borrowing, and the London merchants had refused to assist him unless parliamentary security could be given for the money lent to him. Henry VIII. had contracted loans on the sole authority of the Royal prerogative, and had shuffled out of all responsibility connected with the payment of principal or interest. The debts incurred by the guardians of Edward VI. contributed not a little towards the partial restoration of the currency in 1552. Elizabeth borrowed money in Antwerp, Cologne, and Hamburg, and left debts amounting to a considerable sum at her death ; while, during the reign of James I., the system of mortgaging grants and anticipating their produce was extensively practised. Later on, recourse was frequently had to the goldsmiths, who advanced money at high

rates of interest on the security of the supplies, and realised large profits. The commencement of the National Debt marks the systematic application of principles which had long been familiar, rather than the introduction of an entirely new method of meeting the extraordinary expenses of Government.

The only part of the Public Debt which was incurred before the Revolution of 1688 originated in the *shutting of the Exchequer* on January 2nd, 1672. This came about in the following manner:—Charles II. had been restored to the throne in a burst of enthusiasm. There has seldom been a more loyal Parliament than that which met in 1661, and the credit of the Crown was good. But seven years later, the maladministration of the finances, the sale of Dunkirk, the ingratitude of the King to his old adherents, and, worse than all, the disastrous issue of the first Dutch war, had created feelings of discontent and shame in the nation which the sacrifice of Clarendon was scarcely sufficient to appease. The sudden adoption of the policy which resulted in the triple alliance between England, Holland, and Sweden did much to restore confidence in the Government by putting a temporary check on the ambition of Louis XIV. and the growing power of France. But no sooner was the alliance concluded than Charles, a Catholic at heart, hating the constitutional restraints put upon him by the English Parliament, and favouring the economic interests of France, began to carry on negotiations with the French Government. In May, 1670, a secret treaty was signed at Dover, by which the King engaged to publicly avow himself a member of the Roman Catholic Church, to combine with Louis against Holland, and to support the claims of the House of Bourbon to the Crown of Spain. Trivial pretexts were urged for this attempt to crush the commercial rival of England and France, and to loosen the restraints imposed upon Charles by his Parliament. But the secret treaty could not be executed unless supplies could be obtained from a House of Commons ill-disposed to grant them, and it was not the time to adopt a more unconstitutional means of raising money for a costly war. In the emergency, Clifford, one of the members of the Cabal, suggested that the sum of £1,328,526, the total amount borrowed from the bankers on the security of the supplies, should be appropriated with a view to overcoming the financial difficulties of entering on the Dutch war. Accordingly, on January 2nd, 1672, Charles issued a proclamation to the effect that all payments upon assignments at the Exchequer would be suspended for one year. The consternation in the city was great; the bankers were unable to meet their engagements, and many people were ruined. To appease the discontent aroused by this measure, the King promised to pay 6 per cent while the money was detained, and in 1676 letters patent were issued, charging the King's hereditary revenue with the interest, amounting to rather more than £79,000 per annum. The engagement was regularly kept until the year before Charles's death, when payment was stopped. The creditors urged their claims for twelve years in a court of law, until in 1697 judgment was given against the Government. This decision, however, was set aside by Somers, the Chancellor, notwithstanding the fact that ten out of the twelve judges were opposed to him. The Chancellor's decree was afterwards reversed by the House of Lords, and in 1699 it was enacted that after December 25th, 1701, the hereditary excise should be charged with the interest of

THE NATIONAL DEBT.

the principal sum, at 3 per cent, redeemable on payment of £664,263, or half the principal. The principal was never paid. In 1716 it was incorporated with other public debts in the general fund which was then established, and may, therefore, still be regarded as part of the National Debt. On the death of Charles II. it was found that the sum of £500,000 was due for arrears to the army and other demands, as well as £60,000 to the King's household servants. James II. also left debts amounting to rather more than £1,000,000. But the money in the Exchequer, or in the hands of the receivers, was sufficient to meet those demands, and the liabilities had not been incurred with the consent of Parliament. Before the Revolution of 1688 there was no National Debt except that due to the bankers.

SECTION II.—INTRODUCTION OF THE FUNDING SYSTEM.

WE now enter on a new era in the financial history of England, when the policy of leaving the financial difficulties of one age to be faced by a succeeding age was organised into a system. It is difficult, indeed, to see how the contraction of a National Debt could have been avoided, when we consider the part which England had to play in the continental struggles of the time. We are told by Davenant that, either from the mismanagement of the revenues which followed the introduction of a new régime under William III., or from the interruptions to trade and commerce caused by the war, there was a decrease in the customs. He estimates the total revenue before the war at £2,281,855, and after the war broke out at £2,024,563 per annum, showing a decrease of £257,292, while the liabilities of the nation were continually becoming more serious. In the critical condition of the new Government it was certainly inadvisable to impose additional taxation. But great interests were at stake. The commercial supremacy of Holland was on the wane; the succession in England was unsettled. The real question at issue in William's struggle with Louis was the commercial development of England—whether her energy and resources should reach their full development under the Protestant influences of the Revolution. The issue of the struggle depended very much upon the success of the financial expedients adopted by either country. Although the contraction of a National Debt was made necessary by the financial difficulties of the time rather than dictated by the interests of a political party, the introduction of the Funding System did much to consolidate the new Government on a firm basis, by creating a large class of monied men, who looked for their security to the established order in the Government; and, by strengthening the Whig supremacy, minimised the chances of a successful reaction in favour of the Stuarts.

The most important financial operations of William III.'s reign were the establishment of the Bank of England in 1694 and the Recoinage in 1695-7. The former has contributed more than anything else to the establishment and support of the public credit and to the efficiency of the English currency. Its services, too, in helping the Government at times of great trial, can scarcely be over-estimated. The new company advanced to the Government £1,200,000 at 8 per cent, with £4,000 annually

THE NATIONAL DEBT.

for management, for the payment of which certain duties on the tonnage of ships and some additional excise duties were granted. The Bank Charter provided that, at any time after August 1, 1705, upon twelve months' notice being given, and upon repayment of £1,200,000, with all arrears of interest, the corporation should cease. The bank was prohibited from lending money to the Government upon security of the supplies without the sanction of Parliament; and, while it might deal in bullion and bills, issue notes, or make advances on merchandise, it was not permitted to trade with its own securities. Professor Rogers tells us that the first quotation of bank stock occurs on August 17, 1694, when it is £102. In 1697 a second Act was passed, enlarging the capital of the bank, the new subscribers to be incorporated with the old bank proprietors. The Recoinage Act, the chief merit of which belongs to Montague, was passed at the beginning of 1696. The coinage had long been in a most wretched condition. In spite of severe penalties, the crime of clipping had become increasingly common at the end of the seventeenth century, and some of the coins were less than one-third of their proper weight. The price of gold in June, 1695, was as high as 109s. per oz., guineas were at 30s., while the disturbance in the foreign exchanges is sufficiently indicated by the fact that English bills drawn on Amsterdam were at a discount of from 30 to 36 per cent. The process of recoinage began in February, 1696. To meet the expenses connected with the operations, a loan of £1,200,000 was contracted on the security of a *window tax*, which was granted for seven years. The work at first proceeded very slowly, and the clipped money ceased to be current before the new coinage was ready. In consequence of this a run on the bank took place on May 6, while it was suffering severely from Chamberlain's Land Scheme. The crisis lasted until the end of July. The difficulties of the situation were great, for the Government had borrowed from the bank all the money that could be spared. But the firmness of the directors, and the more rapid issue of the new money, staved off disaster, and in August the danger was past.

During William's reign there were several transactions on the system, already alluded to, of contracting loans on the security of the supplies. It was in this manner that the Dutch bill of costs for bringing William over to England, amounting to £686,000, was paid. The precedent was followed in 1690, when certain duties on beer and other liquors, known as the *hereditary excise*, were granted to William and Mary for their lives, and on the credit of which loans might be contracted to an amount not exceeding £250,000. Debts were also contracted on annuities for lives or for periods of time. A system of annuities, known as *Tontines*, which was frequently adopted on the continent, but attended with small success in England, was tried for the first time in England in 1692. Under this system, the subscribers appoint nominees, divided into classes according to their ages, and the annuities assigned to each class are divided amongst the survivors, until, by lapse of time, none remain. The scheme of 1692, by which it was hoped to raise £1,000,000, realised only £108,000. A second attempt of the same nature, in 1766, met with very ill success, and in 1788, when the younger Pitt tried to raise £1,002,500 by this means, it was found necessary to allow the holders of the tontine shares to change them for long annuities, although they had at first been at a premium. The principle was also applied of the conversion of annuities for single lives into long annuities of 96

THE NATIONAL DEBT.

years, and in 1695-6 we have the first example of a *Perpetual Annuity*. On the recommendation of Montague the Government, for the first time, issued Exchequer Bills in 1697, to supply the lack of currency during the recoinage. These bills, which were made out for sums as low as £5 and £10, at first bore no interest, but on their second issue bore interest at 5d. per diem.

SECTION III.—THE WARS OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

WILLIAM's war with Louis XIV., and his campaign in Ireland, cost rather more than £32,000,000, and at the Treaty of Ryswick, in 1697, the National Debt amounted to £15,000,000. We are told that the rapid increase arose, not so much from the inadequacy of the funds appropriated to the repayment of the loans, as from mismanagement in the application of them to the purposes for which they were granted. It is difficult for us, with our immense debt, to realise the alarm which the phenomenon occasioned, quite apart from the political animosity of those who regarded it as a means of strengthening a Whig Government. Davenant urged that England would never flourish in trade and manufactures unless means were taken to get rid of this burden on the national resources. He predicted that our industry would decay, and that we should have upon us "all the visible marks of a declining people." The reign of Anne, instead of diminishing the debt, increased it by more than £20,000,000. This was entirely due to the war of the Spanish succession, which cost the nation about £50,000,000 in eleven years. In addition to the recognition by France of the Protestant succession, and the expulsion of the Pretender from French dominions, England, by the Treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, secured great commercial advantages, increased Colonial possessions, including Gibraltar and Minorca, and the disgraceful monopoly of the *slave trade* to the Spanish colonies. It has been suggested that the increase in the public debt, in consequence of the war, was counterbalanced by these advantages! Some of the methods adopted in contracting the debt were highly detrimental to the public interests. Large sums, for example, were raised on annuities, the payment of which was charged on certain branches of the revenue already mortgaged. The contraction of a further loan for payment of the annuities was thus rendered necessary until the duties which had been granted became sufficient. Godolphin also continued the practice of raising loans on the security of the supplies; and by his unsuccessful *lottery* schemes in 1710-11, Harley added more than £11,000,000 to the National Debt. In the same year he consolidated certain navy and other debts by the formation of the *South Sea Company*. The holders of tallies, &c., were to be erected by Royal Charter into a company for exclusively trading to the South Seas, in addition to which the Government were to allow 6 per cent for their debt and £8,000 per annum for management.

The opportune death of the Queen on August 1st, 1714, put an end to the brief success of Bolingbroke's Jacobite policy, and with the accession of George I. begins a long period of Whig ascendancy, unbroken for more than fifty years. The amount of the National Debt was then about £54,000,000. Although the reign of George I. was free from foreign wars, except that against Spain in 1718-21, and marked by a

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great increase in prosperity, this amount was reduced by little more than £2,000,000 in 1727. The financial measures adopted during this reign were of great importance. The old system of mortgaging certain branches of the revenue for a limited time, was abandoned in 1715, when a loan was raised on perpetual annuities, redeemable on repayment of the principal, funds being assigned for payment of the interest only. A scheme for the reduction of the interest of the debt, which was justified by the growth in prosperity, was originated by Walpole, and successfully carried out in 1717. This was the establishment of the Aggregate Fund, the General Fund, and the South Sea Fund, by which it was hoped that the burden of the debt on the public resources might be considerably alleviated. During the reign of William III. the Government contracted loans at 7 and 8 per cent, while under Anne the rate of interest was 6 per cent. In 1714 the legal rate of interest was fixed at 5 per cent, but government funds paid a higher rate. The *Aggregate Fund* was formed in 1715, from the united produce of various taxes, which were now made perpetual. In 1717, while Walpole was in opposition, and Stanhope Chancellor of the Exchequer, the duties on houses were consolidated with them, and, after negotiations with the Bank and the South Sea Company, the interest on the capital of the latter was reduced from 6 to 5 per cent by the establishment of the *South Sea Fund*. During the reign of Anne various duties had been granted for a term of 32 years, and £39,855 out of the hereditary excise had been appropriated by an Act of William III. for payment of the interest on the bankers' debt. The *General Fund* was formed from these duties, which were now made perpetual. The surpluses from these three funds became the basis of the first *Sinking Fund*. Nearly all the creditors consented to the reduction of the rate of interest which was the consequence of these measures. In 1727 it was found practicable to effect a further reduction of the interest due to the Bank and the South Sea Company from 5 to 4 per cent, and five years later a similar measure was carried out with regard to the debt of the East India Company. It seems that there was great irregularity in the payment of the interest due to the public creditors, and a scheme was proposed by the South Sea Company to consolidate the floating debts by allowing the creditors to subscribe them into their capital, the company advancing £7,000,000 to the Government. If the scheme had been fully carried out, it is estimated that their total capital would have been upwards of £40,000,000, the interest received by them from the Government being about £2,000,000. The profits from a participation in the South Sea trade were supposed to be very high, and two months after the proposals of the company had been accepted, their stock was at 900. The usual gambling phenomena followed: inflation, contraction, loss of confidence, and ruin to those who had invested their savings. Owing to the schism in the Whig party in 1717, Walpole had been in opposition when the scheme was devised. In the dismay which followed its failure, he did much to calm the public mind by the measures which were adopted at his suggestion. He proposed to transfer £9,000,000 of South Sea stock to the bank, and another £9,000,000 to the East India Company. This scheme was only partially carried out, the sum of £4,000,000 being transferred. An examination into the affairs of the company resulted in the confiscation of the estates of the fraudulent directors, and the

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remission of £7,000,000 to the Government. Only £2,000,000 of their stock was annihilated, and it was found that after the payment of all just liabilities to the company, a dividend of 33½ per cent was practicable. Walpole was chiefly instrumental in bringing about these measures. Aislabie, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who along with other members of the Government had been implicated in the frauds of the company, was expelled from the House, and the close of the Whig schism which followed the death of Sunderland in 1722 secured to Walpole an uninterrupted ascendancy in the Government for twenty years. Except those which have already been noticed, there were few financial measures of great importance connected with the public debt. In 1717, a precedent was established for *votes of credit*, upon rumours of a threatened invasion from Sweden in aid of the Pretender. By this vote the expenditure was limited to £250,000; in the following year there was another vote of credit for an unlimited sum, authorising the increase of the navy; and in 1719, while the sum was unlimited, the increase of the army as well as the navy was authorised. In 1718, the public debt of Scotland, amounting to nearly £250,000, was made a public debt of the United Kingdom, redeemable by Parliament on payment of the principal sum. It might be thought that the long administration of Walpole would have seen a great reduction of the public debt, even if steps could not be taken for the abandonment of the policy which led to its contraction. Not only was it a period of great tranquillity, but the prosperity of the country was greatly increasing. The favourable seasons following 1715 contributed to this happy result. While eleven out of the twenty-three seasons from 1692-1715 were deficient in produce, the price of corn on Lady Day, 1710, being as high as 81s. 9d., and the average for the whole period 45s. 8d.; there were only three bad harvests during Walpole's administration, these being 1727-8 and 1740. But his anxiety to conciliate the landed interest by reducing the land tax prevented him even from applying the produce of his own Sinking Fund to the purpose for which it had been designed. Four years after its establishment nearly £200,000 was granted out of the produce to make good a deficiency due to the East India Company; new debts were contracted, and the future produce of the fund was mortgaged; in 1734, £1,200,000 was appropriated towards raising the supply, and by 1738 all intention of applying the fund to the reduction of the debt seems to have been abandoned. The amount of the debt paid off during the long peace was little more than £4,000,000.

The next step in the growth of the National Debt is the "War of Jenkins' Ears," from 1739 to 1748, which cost the nation more than £43,000,000. It was plainly the interest of the Whigs to preserve peace, for an outbreak of hostilities would afford an opportunity to the Jacobites of gaining the support of foreign powers, and so another attempt might be made on behalf of the Pretender. Besides this, although Walpole did not prove very zealous in the reduction of the debt when the interests of his own party were concerned, it was quite certain that the outbreak of war would put an end, for the time being, to all schemes for that purpose, and clog the commercial progress of the nation by increasing the public burdens. These motives are sufficient to account for his pacific policy; but there was another of much greater weight. There is reason to think that he knew of the existence of the secret treaty between France and Spain,

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known as the Family Compact, which was concluded between the two powers in 1733. By this treaty the two branches of the House of Bourbon undertook to support each other in crushing the naval and commercial supremacy of England; and if war was declared against one power, the other would certainly become involved. But the jealousy between England and Spain was too strong for any effort on the part of Walpole, and the energy displayed by the opposition in fomenting the irritation between the two countries quickly brought on a crisis. The immediate cause of the war was the alleged severities of the Spaniards to English sailors. By the treaty of Utrecht, England had secured the monopoly of the slave trade to the Spanish colonies, but her general commerce had been limited to a single ship of 600 tons burden. The evasion of this clause of the treaty had been met by the exercise of the right of search by the Spaniards. It was alleged that English seamen had been subjected to outrages and indignities; and in March, 1738, the opposition produced a person called Jenkins, who, it was said, had been deprived of his ears by Spanish sailors. The indignation following this incident—the truth of which is extremely doubtful—hurried on the war. England was plainly in the wrong, but the people were too excited to listen to reason. Walpole staved off hostilities for a year, but in 1739 war was declared. We are not concerned with the incidents of the war; it very soon became merged in the war of the Austrian Succession. Parliament was dissolved in 1741, and Walpole, after being several times defeated in the new Parliament, which met in December, resigned office on February 17th, 1742. Pulteney, with whom negotiations were opened, at first declined office, but at his desire a new Government was formed with Lord Wilmington as nominal head, Pelham as Paymaster of the Forces, Carteret as Secretary of State, and Sandys as Chancellor of the Exchequer. On the death of Lord Wilmington in 1743, Henry Pelham, like Walpole in his hatred of war and his financial skill, became First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer, but his accession to power caused no diminution in war expenses. The expenses of the war were met by loans, which were raised on easy terms, until the outbreak of the rebellion in favour of the Young Pretender in 1745. The want of confidence thus occasioned made it necessary to grant a life annuity in addition to the interest of the loan—an experiment which was repeated in the following year. It is also noteworthy that in 1744, when a loan of £1,200,000 at 3 per cent was negotiated, £3 was deducted from each £100 subscribed at the time of payment, and so a fictitious capital of £36,000 was created. This is one of the earliest applications of a principle which was destined to be used with such disastrous consequences a few years later. The precedent was followed in the two last years of the war, when in two loans of £4,000,000 and £6,300,000 at 4 per cent, an additional capital of 10 per cent was granted. The infringement of the Sinking Fund became a recognised policy during the war; its produce was several times anticipated, and in 1740, £1,000,000 was granted from it towards the supplies. The peace of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, put an end to a destructive and costly war. It left Europe divided, as it were, into two great parties, each trying to turn the balance of power to its own side,—England, Austria, Russia, Holland, and Sardinia on the one side, against France, Spain, Prussia, the two Sicilies, and Sweden on the other. A lasting tranquillity was to be hoped for, from the very fear with which the one half of Europe seemed to inspire the other. During the war, Russia had risen from a state of semi-barbarism

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into a position of some importance in western politics; Prussia had gained a great military reputation and Silesia and Glatz; Sardinia, by its acquisition of Lombardy, was laying the foundation of an Italian monarchy. England gained nothing except the confirmation of the Assiento (*Slave Trade*) Treaty with the Spanish colonies for the four years it had still to run. For this she had expended £43,655,192 and had added £31,339,084 to her National Debt.

The financial measures of Pelham during the succeeding peace were remarkably successful. Attention has already been drawn to the reduction of the rate of interest in 1717 and 1727, which was carried out by Walpole. In 1737, Sir John Barnard, a member of the Opposition, made a similar proposal, but owing to the weakness of the Government, the unpopularity of the measure amongst the great companies, and the difficulties with Spain, it had been found impracticable, Walpole himself voting against it. In 1749, however, Pelham found himself strong enough to accomplish what had been impossible in 1737. In the King's Speech on November 16th, the Commons were recommended to apply themselves to the reduction of the debt, and at the end of the month an Act was passed reducing the interest on all the public debt which carried 4 per cent. The holders of this stock, upon giving their consent to the reduction before February 28th, 1750, were to have 4 per cent till December 25th; from that time $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent till December 25th, 1757, and afterwards 3 per cent with the security that no part of these debts, except that due to the East India Company, should be redeemed till after December 25th, 1757. The time allowed for receiving consent to this measure was very short; before the end of the session, however, it was extended to May 30th, 1750, on condition that the interest on these second subscriptions should be reduced from $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent to 3 per cent on December 25th, 1755. Only £3,350,000 remained excluded, the holders of which were paid off in 1751. By this measure an annual saving of £288,517 was effected in the seven years following 1750, and this was increased to £577,034 in 1757. In 1752, greater simplicity was introduced into the public accounts by the adoption of a measure allowing the holders of various annuities granted in 1736 and 1738 to subscribe them into the *Three per Cent Consolidated Annuities*, and consolidating the old Four per Cents, which had been reduced by paying off the proprietors unwilling to accede to the measure of 1749, into a new joint-stock called the *Three per Cent Reduced Annuities*. The financial reforms of Pelham were sufficient to prevent any great increase in the public debt during the six years following the Peace of Aix la Chapelle. In 1754 he died, and Newcastle, his feeble brother, became First Lord of the Treasury. William Pitt had held the post of Paymaster of the Forces since 1746, while Henry Fox was Secretary for War. Under the new administration they continued in these subordinate positions until Newcastle was forced, in 1755, to conciliate Fox by giving him a seat in the Cabinet.

All this time, however, the irritation between England and France, with regard to the boundary of Nova Scotia, had been increasing, and at the beginning of 1755 had ended in open hostilities, although war had not been declared between the two countries. The failure of Byng to save Minorca, and the incapacity of Newcastle to cope with the difficulties of the situation, forced the Government to resign, and

Pitt became Secretary of State, with the Duke of Devonshire as nominal Prime Minister. But the colonial struggle was not to be decided in America. England naturally looked to Austria for continental support during the war with France, but on the refusal of Maria Theresa to strengthen her forces in the Netherlands so as to oppose the threatened advance of French troops on Hanover, negotiations had been opened with Prussia. The union of English and Prussian interests by the Convention of Westminster, which followed these overtures, threw France into the arms of Austria, and so precipitated the diplomatic revolution towards which Maria Theresa's Minister, Kaunitz, had been working since the Treaty of Aix la Chapelle. A defensive alliance between Austria and France was concluded at Versailles in May, 1756, and Europe entered on the Seven Years' War. The results of that war were of the highest importance. It left France humiliated and impoverished, and Prussia elevated into a position of equality with Austria in the political system of Europe. The contraction of German into merely Austrian interests which characterised the policy of the Court of Vienna after the war, prepared the way for the development of Prussia. But its great significance lies in *the establishment of English power in India and North America*. The real question at issue was whether France or England should enjoy colonial supremacy. More than that, the expulsion of the French from Canada, by destroying the one motive the colonists had for dependence on England, *prepared the way for the revolt of the American colonies, while the schemes of taxation necessitated by the expenses of the war, supplied the immediate cause of that revolt*.

The Seven Years' War was the most expensive hitherto in the history of England. At the outbreak of hostilities the National Debt amounted to nearly £72,500,000, while the annual charge for interest, including management and life and terminable annuities, was about £2,600,000. The average naval and military expenditure from 1753 to 1755 had been about £2,000,000; the cost of the war was £82,623,738, of which nearly £60,000,000 were added to the National Debt. This expenditure involved a great increase in taxation. Lyttelton imposed a tax on private individuals and corporations who possessed plate over a certain amount in value, and doubled the tax on cards and dice. Also on the failure of a proposal to tax bricks and tiles in 1756, he substituted a tax on publicans. Under Pitt's administration there was an increase in the house and window tax in 1758, and a new tax at the rate of 1s. in the £ on all offices with a salary exceeding £100, except those connected with the naval and military services. The greatest addition to the taxes was an extra duty of 3s. the barrel on strong beer, raising the price per pot by 1d. The malt duty was also increased from 6d. to 9½d. the bushel for England, and an increase of 1½d. for Scotland.

George III. had succeeded to the throne in 1760, and Pitt, unable to persuade his Cabinet to agree to a declaration of war with Spain—a measure which subsequent events justified, had resigned office with Temple in October, 1761. The resignation of Newcastle, in May, 1762, brought the long period of Whig ascendancy to an end, and cleared the way for the deliberate attempt to substitute “a cabal of the closet and backstairs in place of a national administration,” which formed the policy of Bute. The history of the next twelve years is a history of the blunders which

culminated in the American War of Independence. Grenville's enforcement of the Navigation Act and the Stamp Act of 1765 aroused a storm of indignation amongst the colonists; the short Rockingham administration endeavoured by a repeal to repair the mischief which had been done, but the imposition by Townshend of new port duties in the colonies to supply the deficiency involved in the reduction of the land tax from 4s. to 3s., brought matters to a crisis. The new duties were repealed in 1770, with the exception of the duty on tea. This was retained merely to support the principle of the right to raise a revenue in the colonies, which was the cause of the ill-feeling. The war commenced in 1775, condemned by Burke, Chatham, and all the wisest men of the time. During the peaceful years, 1763-75, certain navy and other debts, amounting to nearly £12,000,000, had been paid off. An annual saving of £15,000 was also effected in 1765 by the substitution of a stock at 3 per cent for navy bills at 4 per cent. This was done when the 3 per cents were below 87. When the American war broke out the National Debt amounted to about £126,000,000, the charge for interest, management, &c., being £4,600,000. The revenue from taxes was £10,000,000, showing an increase of more than £3,000,000 since the Seven Years' War. The American war cost the nation more than £97,000,000, and at the peace, in 1783, the National Debt had increased to £230,000,000.

Reference has been made to the system of funding to a greater extent than the money actually borrowed, which was pursued on several occasions during the reign of George II. The practice, however, was not attended with any great inconvenience until the second half of the American war, when Lord North, whose abilities were not of a high order, had to raise loans for the expenses of the war. As McCulloch observes, there are two courses that may be pursued in contracting for a loan—(1) to give the lender a right to a greater amount of stock than the money he actually advances amounts to, or (2) to restrict the stock created, in the lender's favour, to the amount of the loan, and to make the required bonus by raising the rate of interest. The former method of funding a large capital at a low rate of interest, while affording a temporary relief in the payment of the interest, as long as no attempt is made to discharge the principal, renders it much more difficult to carry out any scheme for the reduction of the debt, and in the end entails a greater permanent burden on the country. The ease with which Walpole and Pelham effected their reforms affords sufficient evidence of the advantage of raising loans without creating a fictitious capital, but the former system has been almost universally followed since the American war, with the result that at the present time the nation is burdened with taxation for the payment of interest on money which has never been devoted to the public service. Lord North's first loan on these principles was contracted in 1776, the year of the American Declaration of Independence, when £2,000,000 was raised by assigning £107. 10s. in the Three per Cents for every £100 lent. A fictitious capital of £150,000 was thus created. This was a comparatively trifling amount; but in 1781, when it was necessary to raise £12,000,000 for the war, the improvidence of the system became quite apparent. The loan was raised at £150 in the Three per Cents and at £25 in the Four per Cents. On the whole, therefore, £660,000 of interest, *i.e.*, rather more than 5½ per cent, was paid for the

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loan, and a fictitious capital of no less than £9,000,000 was created. "It is obvious," says Mc.Culloch, "that had this loan been negotiated without any increase of capital, at 5½ or even 6 per cent, the charge on its account might have been reduced in the course of half a dozen years to 3 or 3½ per cent on the £12,000,000 actually borrowed, whereas, owing to the mode in which it was contracted, nothing could be deducted from the annual charge until after the Three and Four per Cents rose above par, without being previously prepared to offer the holders £21,000,000 for the £12,000,000 they had originally advanced." The total amount of fictitious capital created during the war was more than £23,000,000.

SECTION III.—THE NATIONAL DEBT AT A MAXIMUM.

THIS system of raising loans was still further abused by the younger Pitt and his successors during the great war with revolutionary France. Pitt came into office in 1783, after the Coalition Government of North and Fox, which, it has been said, "partook of the vices of both its parents—the corruption of the one and the violence of the other." He found the public finances in great disorder. The unfunded debt had been suffered to grow to such magnitude, that the outstanding government bills issued during the war with America were at a discount of from 15 to 20 per cent. The fact that Consols were at 56 and 57 is sufficient indication of the low state of public credit. The increase of smuggling and the numerous frauds on the revenue, while pointing as much to an excess of duty on certain articles as to the prevalence of dishonesty, had brought the revenue into such a condition that there was a large deficit even at a time, like that, of reduced expenditure. Besides these evils, lapse of time, changed circumstances, ministerial exigencies, and a low standard of political morality had created or preserved from abolition a vast number of sinecure offices, convenient enough as bribes to bolster up a falling Ministry, but consuming large sums of public money, and supplying a degrading influence in political life. Pitt effected a new arrangement of the offices on the civil list, and abolished the sinecures by suffering them to remain vacant as they fell in. When he died, in 1806, the charge on the revenue for pensions and sinecures was not more than £250,000, and the only source of patronage left to him was the Church. More than £1,000,000 annually was saved by his reforms in the Navy and Ordnance Departments, and the Act of 1794 relating to the Crown Lands increased the revenue from them by nearly £60,000 annually in ten years. In dealing with loans and lottery tickets, Pitt was one of the first Ministers who set before himself the public good rather than the interests of his own political party. It had been the practice for Ministers to settle with a few private friends the terms on which a loan should be contracted—to the advantage of Ministers and lenders. At the end of Lord North's administration, the scrip was at a premium of 10 per cent two days before the names of the subscribers were sent to the Bank from the Treasury. Pitt introduced the principle of open competition for loans, by giving public notice in the city, through the Bank of England, that he would receive proposals and accept the lowest tenders by persons of known credit. These tenders were to be opened in the presence of the Governor and Deputy-Governor of the Bank, in order to guard

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against any partiality on the part of the Chancellor of the Exchequer; and into the hands of these two people a sealed memorandum was previously placed of the lowest terms that would be accepted. In this manner any possible collusion, by a combination among different sets of persons offering the loan, was prevented. He set before himself the reduction of the National Debt as one of the great schemes of his life. In his Budget speech of 1784 he said: "Gradually to redeem and to extinguish our debt ought ever to be the wise pursuit of Government, and every scheme and operation of finance should be directed to that end." By a strange irony of destiny, the Minister who made this avowal in 1784 did more than any who had preceded him to increase the debt; even the Sinking Fund, which he established in 1786, proved to be a delusion, and involved an increase in the debt of little less than £20,000,000. With the instincts of a peace Minister, Pitt would probably have continued the financial reforms initiated by him from 1784-1792. During those years the revenue had increased by more than £2,000,000, in spite of many remissions; and in 1792 the price of Consols was 97. In his Budget speech of 1792, Pitt evidently looked forward to many years of peaceful administration. But the next year saw us involved in a war with revolutionary France, which continued with two short intervals till 1815, and proved more costly than all the other wars put together. It is only fair to say that Ministers did their best to avoid hostilities, but the action of the French in opening the Scheldt removed all possibility of peace, and the French only anticipated what would have been the action of English Ministers, by their declaration of war on February 8th, 1793. Before it came to an end, England had incurred liabilities to the amount of no less than £332,000,000, and of this sum £622,000,000 were added to the National Debt. The money was raised by loans, contracted on the improvident system already alluded to.

There has been much controversy as to the terms on which the loans were negotiated. Mr. Newmarch has strongly defended Pitt's action. He argues that it would have been practically impossible to obtain the necessary amounts if Pitt had enforced the principle of borrowing at par, and that even if the money had been raised at 5 instead of at 3 per cent, the difficulties would frequently have been excessive, and in any case the rate of interest and, therefore, the annual charge, would have been considerably higher than it actually was. The economic condition of England at the outbreak of the war was certainly not reassuring, and it may reasonably be urged that the time was unfavourable to the contraction of loans on advantageous terms. While, however, admitting the difficulties of the position and the necessity of making great sacrifices to defray the expenses of the struggle, it is hard to find any excuse for the extravagant manner in which Pitt put all thought of economy on one side. If the expenditure had been followed by great successes, and a speedy termination of the war, there would have been ample grounds for justification. But he was never fully alive to the situation, and his war measures were miscalculated and mismanaged throughout. In 1795 a loan of £18,000,000 was raised, the conditions being that £18,000,000 in the Three per Cents, and £6,000,000 in the Four per Cents, exclusive of a long annuity of 9s. 6d. per cent, should be assigned to subscribers. As the financial position of the Government became more embarrassed, still more extravagant terms were offered. In 1797 the crisis

was such that cash payments were suspended at the Bank of England. In 1798 a loan of £17,000,000 was raised, the terms being that for every £100 advanced the lender should be entitled to no less than £200 in the Three per Cents, and an annuity of 4s. 11d. per cent for 62½ years; *i.e.*, the nation paid an annual interest of 6 per cent for every £100 borrowed, exclusive of the long annuity. In the same year, the famous Triple Assessment was repealed, and an *Income Tax* imposed at the rate of 10 per cent on all incomes amounting to £200 and upwards, with diminishing rates upon smaller incomes, down to £60 per annum, below which rate the tax was not to apply. It yielded considerably less than Pitt anticipated, and a large part of it was quickly appropriated to pay the interest on loans, for which it had been pledged. The first part of the war was concluded in 1802 by the Peace of Amiens, but hostilities recommenced in the following year, and the same extravagant system of contracting loans was continued after Pitt's death in 1806. In 1815 a loan of no less than £36,000,000 was raised at £174 in the Three per Cents, and at £10 in the Four per Cents, yielding together an interest of £5. 12s. 4d. per cent. The average rate at which Three per Cent Stock was created between 1793 and 1801 was £57. 7s. 6d. of money for £100 stock; and between 1803 and the termination of the war, the average rate was £60. 7s. 6d. for £100 stock. It is estimated that Napoleon's "last hundred days" alone cost the nation £100,000,000, or £1,000,000 per diem. In 1815 the National Debt amounted to more than £860,000,000, exclusive of terminable annuities representing a capitalised value of about £40,000,000. The debt charge was about £32,000,000, while the revenue amounted to £74,200,000, or nearly four times as much as it had been in 1792, the year before the war broke out. Some idea of the enormous pressure of taxation can be obtained from a comparison with our own times. The population of the United Kingdom, which, taking the average of 1813, 1814, and 1815, was about 19,000,000, is now about 35,000,000. The taxes paid then averaged £70,000,000 per annum. So that, even supposing the average wealth of the people per head had not increased, we should have to pay nearly £130,000,000 if we were proportionately taxed, and the debt charge would have to be increased from £23,000,000 to £35,000,000. But the average wealth of the people per head is much greater now than it was at the beginning of the century. According to Mr. Mulhall, £3 now will buy as much in England as £4 would a hundred years ago, while wages in England have doubled since 1780, and working men can buy 44 per cent more of food than they could then, notwithstanding the rise in the prices of beef and butter. We can understand, then, the poverty and wretchedness into which the great mass of the people were plunged in consequence of the great war. Since 1816 the National Debt has been *decreased* by about £130,000,000, in spite of the increase due to the Russian war and other circumstances which will be mentioned. So that the history of the debt divides itself naturally into two parts: in the second part, the reduction of the debt comes into more prominence, and the history of it is, in the main, the history of the various schemes which have been devised for bringing about that reduction. But before the methods which have been adopted are described, it will be well to give an account of the circumstances which have made additions to the debt since it reached its maximum in 1816.

PART II.]

ADDITIONS TO THE NATIONAL DEBT SINCE 1815.

SECTION I.—THE SLAVE LOAN AND THE IRISH FAMINE.

THE war expenditure fell from £54,644,000 in 1815 to £27,293,000 in 1816, and to £17,608,000 in 1817. In 1817 sums began to be applied to the redemption of the debt, and from that time onwards there have been very few years in which the policy of reduction has been laid entirely on one side. Certainly, having regard to the many years of peace, the efforts in that direction have been wretchedly inadequate. But more will be said on this point when we come to the schemes which have been adopted from time to time. The country was thoroughly exhausted by the long war with France, and it was only natural that vigorous attempts should be made to get rid of the burdensome taxes which pressed heavily on all classes of the community. An endeavour was made by Vansittart, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, to retain the income tax at 5 per cent, but, though he offered to repeal the duties on malt, spirits, and other commodities, the feeling in the country was too strong to admit of its retention in any form, and in 1816 it was totally abolished. Not only so, but the Government could not retract their proposition with regard to the malt duty, and so that was sacrificed as well. Revenue to the amount of no less than £18,000,000 was surrendered, and the consolidation of the revenues of Great Britain and Ireland involved a further loss of £1,900,000. To fill the void thus caused, and to make possible the progressive reduction of the debt, it was thought expedient to impose fresh taxes on malt, spirits, tobacco, tea, &c. The new taxes, however, failed, and in 1820 and 1821 there were deficits which had to be made good by means of loans. Vansittart made another miscalculation in 1822, when he repealed various taxes on the assumption that public expenditure would be reduced by the creation of the Navy Three per Cents and the "dead weight" annuities. But this measure, intended to produce a surplus of £5,000,000, was a complete failure. After that time we begin once more to discern the lines of that great movement for fiscal reform and freedom of trade which had been initiated by Shelburne, Burke, and Pitt. In many respects the French Revolution was one of the greatest calamities that ever afflicted the world. We became involved in a long and expensive war, and necessary reforms were thrown fifty years later than they might have been. A firm believer in the doctrines of Adam Smith, there is scarcely room for doubt that William Pitt would have anticipated many of the free trade measures of later years, if it had been his lot to enjoy ten more years of peaceful administration. There are many points of resemblance between the treaty of commerce, Pitt's greatest measure, which he concluded with France in 1786, and that of Mr. Gladstone in 1860, neither of which was any departure from principles of Free Trade. It is not until the appearance of Huskisson that the movement of the end of the eighteenth century was given a new life. The period which has elapsed

since his accession to office in 1823 is one of the most remarkable in English history. Huskisson began his work with an attack on the principle of the Sinking Fund in 1823, and the charge was reduced from £16,000,000 to £5,000,000. This put a large surplus at the disposal of Robinson, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and the window tax, with a moiety of the duties on carriages, horses, and men-servants, was repealed. Further remissions took place in the following years, into the details of which we cannot now enter. Until 1842 the movement was hampered by the difficulty of repealing taxes without detriment to the public services; the revival of the income tax by Sir Robert Peel in 1842 supplied the necessary means for overcoming that difficulty, and the next ten years saw the abolition of export duties, of import duties on raw material, and of certain oppressive excise duties. Mr. Gladstone, strengthening his position by pressing into his service other aids like the extension of the succession duty to real and settled property, cleared the way for further reforms, and the movement was carried to its completion.

While, however, the achievements of the Free Trade leaders have contributed more than anything else to the prosperity of the country, there are few events of the last sixty years which more justly awaken our sympathies than the abolition of slavery in 1833. Reference has already been made to the monopoly of the slave trade to the Spanish colonies which England secured by the Assiento clause in the Treaty of Utrecht. After that time the profits of English slave dealers became enormous, and the trade was directly encouraged by English Acts of Parliament. A great "slave interest" grew up in the country, and scarcely any voice was raised against the iniquitous traffic until the agitation commenced by Wilberforce, Clarkson, Granville Sharp, and others. In 1787 a society was formed for the Abolition of the Slave Trade, under the presidency of Granville Sharp. They very wisely confined their attention to the abolition of the *Trade* and the mitigation of the condition of the negroes, and left the abolition of *Slavery* to future reformers. For thirty years they fought their way against vested interests, the hostility of the Royal Family, and the opportunism of statesmen. After the death of Pitt, Charles James Fox made abolition the main object of his policy, and a restrictive measure was passed; until at last, in 1806, the trade was abolished. The agitation, however, was not allowed to die away. Mr. Fowell Buxton and Lord Brougham took up the cause of the negroes, in the House of Commons, and urged the emancipation of the slaves in the British West Indies. For a while the agitation caused by the Reform Bill and the removal of Lord Brougham to the House of Lords retarded the movement, but at last Lord Stanley, afterwards Earl of Derby, brought forward a motion in the House of Commons, and on August 28th, 1833, while Wilberforce lay dying, the famous Act was passed, abolishing slavery throughout the British colonies. This measure made necessary a loan of no less than £20,000,000 as compensation to the planters. It will be remembered that the war ended by the Treaty of Utrecht, which brought the slave trade to its highest pitch, and added rather more than £21,000,000 to the National Debt.

Exclusive of the Slave Loan, the national expenditure in 1835 was lower than it had been since 1796 by more than £10,000,000, and the National Debt had been reduced to £790,000,000, or more than £100,000,000 less than it had been at the end of the

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war. The terminable annuities, however, had risen from £2,000,000 to £4,000,000. The debt was still further reduced under the administration of Sir Robert Peel, 1842-1846, Mr. Goulburn being Chancellor of the Exchequer. When he brought forward his Budget in 1846, he was able to announce that the balances at the Exchequer had been increased by £5,000,000, that the capital of the debt had been reduced by £7,000,000 since 1842, and the outstanding deficiency bills by £4,000,000, while the charge for the debt had diminished by £1,500,000, with the prospect of a further reduction of £600,000 in a few years' time. This result, moreover, so far from being brought about by an increase in taxation, had been achieved along with an actual *diminution* of nearly £3,000,000. The Government might fairly be congratulated on the prosperous state of the finances. The condition of the country was, however, by no means as prosperous as Mr. Goulburn's Budget seemed to indicate. The craze for railway speculation, which had been at its highest in July, 1845, had been followed by a collapse in 1846, and this, reacting on the cotton, iron, and other trades, coupled with a rise in the price of corn, produced a commercial panic. In the course of the year, there were no less than 220 large failures, the liabilities of 112 of the firms involved amounting to £12,000,000. The bullion in the Bank of England sank to less than £8,000,000, or about one-half the amount of the previous year; the rate of discount was 10 per cent in October, 1847, and Consols were as low as 78. Lord John Russell succeeded Peel in June, 1846, and Sir Charles Wood became Chancellor of the Exchequer. The Bank Act of 1844 was temporarily suspended on October 25th, 1847, after a deputation of London merchants had succeeded in convincing the Prime Minister that its restrictions must be removed. The situation was further complicated by the Chartist agitation, and by the distress in Ireland, the immediate cause of which was the failure of the potato crop. The season of 1844-5 had been remarkable for the first appearance of an extraordinary disease amongst the potatoes, for which the inclemency of the weather in no way accounted. It prevailed at the same time all over Europe and the United States. A partial failure of the crop was the result, but an exceptionally mild winter somewhat mitigated the effects it would otherwise have produced. In 1846, however, there was another failure of the crop, and the consequences to the great number of people who depended on this article of food for their subsistence were most disastrous. It became necessary to supplement private charity by liberal loans from the Government. In his Budget speech of 1847-8, Sir Charles Wood stated that he had already spent £2,000,000 in the relief of those who were starving, and he proposed to raise a loan of £8,000,000 for further expenses. This was another addition to the National Debt. The loan was negotiated at £3. 7s. 6d. per cent in Consols, £89. 10s. being advanced for every £100 stock. The stipulations were that 12 per cent should be paid up at once, and the remainder should be spread over seven months. The difficulties which Sir Charles Wood had to face could not have been foreseen when Mr. Goulburn brought forward his Budget in February, 1846. It was an addition to the debt in a year of progress and peace—except for the Kaffir war, which broke out in 1845, and necessitated a Vote of Credit for £1,100,000—and forms a striking example of the manner in which a good or bad harvest may react on the finances of the country.

SECTION II.—THE RUSSIAN WAR, 1854-6.

THE opium war with China, 1840-43, and the Kafir war, 1848-53, had cost between them about £4,000,000, when Mr. Gladstone became Chancellor of the Exchequer in Lord Aberdeen's administration, at the end of 1852. Mr. Gladstone's first Budget speech was the most remarkable that had been heard in the House of Commons since the days of William Pitt. He came into office in circumstances of great difficulty. Great reforms had been effected in the finances of the country—the excise duties on plate-glass, salt, printed cottons, candles, soap, bricks, &c., having been repealed, while in the customs the import duties had been removed on most of the raw materials of manufacture, and the export duties on British goods and coals. He had to devise a means of carrying forward the work begun by Sir Robert Peel, and that, too, at a time when there had been a large increase in the public expenditure. By his speech—a marvellous example, not only of his oratorical power, but of that faculty of lighting up financial detail with enthusiasm which is the unmistakable stamp of genius—he persuaded the House of Commons to preserve the income tax in its then condition for three years, to forego remission of taxation, and to extend the probate duty to both real and personal property. The secret of his success was not his oratorical power, though that was great, but, as Mr. Giffen says, "the continuity of his mind, his firm grasp of certain leading ideas of which every new speech is a fresh application." A very interesting comparison might be drawn between the position of Mr. Gladstone in 1853 and William Pitt in 1792. On both occasions we were on the eve of an expensive war; both statesmen were apparently looking forward to some years of peace in which valuable reforms might be effected; and, while both may be blamed for not exercising greater foresight, it is certain that their financial operations imparted such strength and elasticity to the industry and commerce of the country, that the nation entered into the struggle better fitted to cope with the difficulties of the situation. In the next Budget of 1854-5 there was an estimated deficit of £2,840,000 in consequence of increased war expenditure. There was a strong temptation to resort to loans as in former years, but Mr. Gladstone protested against burdening posterity with the expenses of the present generation. The nation should be made to feel the evils of a war expenditure by allowing it to encroach on their comforts. "There is pomp and circumstance," he said, "there is glory and excitement about war, which, notwithstanding the miseries it entails, invests it with charms in the eyes of the community, and tends to blind men to those evils to a fearful and dangerous degree. The necessity of meeting from year to year the expenditure which it entails is a salutary and wholesome check, making them feel what they are about, and making them measure the cost of the benefit which they may calculate." Yet, a few weeks later, he was obliged to have recourse to the issue of Exchequer Bonds, *i.e.*, to loans in anticipation of the taxes; and Sir George Lewis, who succeeded him in February, 1855, raised loans on the improvident system that had been in vogue during the great war with France. The first was for £16,000,000, negotiated at £100 in Consols. The same objections may be brought against the Crimean loans as those

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which were urged against the loans of Lord North and William Pitt. The capital of the National Debt was increased quite out of proportion to the money which was actually devoted to the public service. Exchequer Bills for £7,000,000 were issued in August, 1855, and in the following February a new loan of £5,000,000 was contracted, Baron Rothschild accepting the Government terms of £111. 2s. 2d. This was equivalent to an issue of Consols at 90. A second loan of £5,000,000 was contracted in the same year on rather more advantageous terms—Baron Rothschild again accepting the Government proposals. The total expenditure made necessary by the Russian war amounted to £69,277,694. The *reduction* in the National Debt between 1842 and 1854, in spite of the Irish famine, had been £23,000,000. During the war there was, of course, a great rise in the prices of Russian produce. Tallow rose from 36s. or 38s. to 64s. per cwt.; hemp from £30 to £47; linseed from 44s. to 54s. per quarter. The price of Consols fell from £101 in April, 1853, to £85. 2s. 6d. on March 30th, 1854, when war was declared. But, after a short time, the importation of Russian produce from Prussia and Holland—of fibrous materials from India and grain from America—caused the disturbing effect of the war on our commerce to be little felt. A general treaty of peace was concluded on March 30th, 1856, which opened the Black Sea to the commerce of all nations, extended the application of the free navigation of rivers, established by the Congress of Vienna, to the Danube and its mouths, and provided for the admission of Consuls into the Black Sea ports. Sir Stafford Northcote has well summarised the financial effects of the Crimean war:—"A broad distinction must be drawn between the policy pursued from 1842 up to the time of the Russian war, and that which has been pursued since. . . . The principles of Peel and Goulburn were (1) the maintenance of a surplus of revenue over expenditure, with a view to keep up the credit of the country and to operate on the National Debt; (2) the repeal or reduction of taxes upon a settled plan, adopted with a view, so far as its financial aspect is concerned, to render the ordinary sources of revenue more productive by relieving trade and industry from unwise restrictions, and by improving the general condition of the taxpayer; (3) the use of the income tax at a fixed rate, and for definite periods, with a view to give effect to their plans for remission of taxation without endangering the maintenance of an adequate surplus of revenue. . . . The Russian war in its direct, and still more in its indirect consequences, put an end to the policy of 1853. It not only rendered large expenditure necessary, but infected the whole nation, and not this nation only, but all Europe also, with ideas of extravagance. The importance of maintaining an annual surplus of income over expenditure, and of making some provision for the reduction of our debt, has been lost sight of. . . . The Russian war has stirred up in Europe a spirit of restlessness which has made all nations feel it doubly incumbent upon them to look to their means of defence; and, as a consequence of this result, it has set all the world to seek for the means of improving the instruments of attack and defence, and to add enormously to the most unprofitable and the most unsatisfactory of all possible forms of expenditure." A striking example of this was given in 1860, when there was a scare, which has since become chronic, about the national defences. Lord Palmerston introduced his scheme for the fortification of Plymouth, Portsmouth, Devonport,

Dover, and other places. The scheme required the outlay of £9,000,000, which was to be raised on terminable annuities. By 1886 the total capital expenditure had amounted to £7,500,000, and the fortifications are still unfinished. It is unnecessary to describe in detail the expenditure which has been made necessary by the various little wars which have been waged in the last fifty years. The cost of all the wars since 1688 will be seen from the annexed table.—[*Vide Table II.*]

PART III.

THE REDUCTION OF THE DEBT.

SECTION I.—GENERAL VIEW OF THE POLICY SINCE THE GREAT WAR.

THERE is one principle, and that a very trite one, which must be borne in mind in all schemes for the reduction of the debt. The excess of revenue over expenditure is the only real Sinking Fund, and all schemes for the reduction of the National Debt will prove illusory unless they are based on this principle. As with the individual citizen, so with the State; a nation is in the highest degree culpable when year after year it refuses to face its financial position, or trusts, like Mr. Micawber, that "something will turn up," or puts its faith in schemes which Mr. Giffen has described as "modes of gaining the object without the nation being conscious of the process," or contrivances by which, "in a good frame of mind, the nation may be seduced into making a small sacrifice, sufficient to set agoing a self-acting machinery, which will afterwards be beyond its meddling." The progressive reduction of the debt thus depending for its success on a surplus of revenue over expenditure, the question of taxation becomes of the highest importance. Having given a surplus in any particular year or years, what shall be done with it? Ought it to be devoted to the reduction of the debt or to the remission of taxation? The answer to the question depends very much on circumstances. At the end of the great war, and for many years afterwards, the taxes which had been imposed were so great a burden on the industry of the nation, that the reduction of the debt might justly have been put on one side until a reform of the tariff had been effected. The same may be said of the whole period of the Free Trade agitation. "Remove the restraints on the development of industry and commerce; ameliorate the condition of the working classes; and then, with the prosperity of the country on the increase, it will be possible to devote much larger sums to the effective reduction of the debt." Now, what was the actual state of the case? Between 1815 and 1823 the nation evinced its sincerity in reducing the debt, by devoting from £14,000,000 to £17,500,000, year after year to the maintenance of Pitt's Sinking Fund. It was a mistaken policy, but that people were willing to make such an annual sacrifice is greatly to their credit. Huskisson and others saw clearly that persistence in that policy

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would prevent any great measures of tariff reform, and the Sinking Fund was very wisely abolished in 1829. By 1853 the funded debt had been reduced to £761,000,000, and the unfunded debt to £17,742,500, with terminable annuities at £3,930,000, and that reduction, amounting to more than £130,000,000 since the great war, had proceeded along with very large remissions. After the Crimean war the funded debt was £780,000,000, and the unfunded debt £28,000,000, while the terminable annuities represented a capitalised value of £24,000,000, making a total of £832,000,000. In 1857 Mr. Gladstone, firmly set on the improvement of the condition of the great masses of the community, urged the remission of the special war taxes rather than the payment of the debt incurred during the war. Yet between 1857 and 1859 there was an average annual reduction of the debt by nearly £4,400,000. In his Budget of 1860, however, he went still further, and practically suspended the repayment of the debt, and the year 1860 saw an actual increase of £875,000. He renewed £1,000,000 of Exchequer Bonds which fell due in that year, and utilised £2,000,000 of revenue, which hitherto had been applied by means of terminable annuities to the redemption of the debt, for the systematic reform of the tariff; and absorbed other sums in the same manner. At the same time, Mr. Gladstone had then to face a great and growing evil—the growth of expenditure. Between 1853 and 1860 the annual charge for the supply services had increased by £14,000,000, *i e.*, had increased at the rate of 58 per cent, while, Mr. Giffen tells us, the wealth of the community had only increased at the rate of 16½ per cent. The harvest also had not been so good, the average price of wheat being 53s. 3d. in 1860, against 43s. 9d. in 1859 and 44s. 2d. in 1858. Mr. Gladstone was anxious to reduce expenditure and at the same time repeal the duty on paper and articles of food, except the 1s. duty on corn, besides other smaller burdens. Dangerous as the precedent was, there is ample justification for his course of action, although it took twenty years to recover from the shock thus given to the policy of the reduction of the debt. The expenditure was £69,502,000 in 1860, and £72,792,000 in 1861. By 1863, expenditure had again fallen, and there was an annual surplus without intermission during Mr. Gladstone's tenure of office. It cannot but be regretted, however, that this precedent was again followed by Mr. Goschen in 1887. It may certainly be urged that if the growth of expenditure was a serious evil in 1860, it is still more serious at the present time, with a Budget of more than £90,000,000; and Mr. Goschen came into office after a three years' deficit. But in 1887 there was a surplus, and the repeal of 1d. of the income tax does not afford sufficient grounds of justification for reversing a policy so necessary to the wellbeing of the community as the preservation of the Sinking Fund intact.

If the essential requisite for the reduction of the debt is a surplus of revenue over expenditure, it must be admitted that the modern system of forming the estimates is little calculated to secure that result. The system of taking an average for several years, or basing the estimates for the coming year on the receipts of the previous year, gave way in 1874 to the system of making an allowance for the increase of revenue which may be looked for from the growth of population and increased trade and consumption during the ensuing twelve months. This was introduced by Sir Stafford Northcote in his first

Budget, and doubtless ensures much greater accuracy in the estimates. But with the lamentable tendency of expenditure to keep pace with and often go ahead of revenue, it is evident that the system does away with all hope of a large surplus, unless the most rigid economy is enforced. Mr. Lowe, without paying any great regard to the policy of the reduction of the debt, yet formed such low estimates of the revenue that casual surpluses were constantly placed at his disposal during his tenure of office, and he was able to devote large sums to the redemption of the debt. The slovenly system of keeping accounts which was then in vogue cannot be commended, and, as Mr. Buxton says, "it would have shown a more robust virtue on the part of the Government if the reduction of the debt had been made deliberately, and had not been apparently the chance result of miscalculation of revenue." The total amount of debt paid off during Mr. Lowe's tenure of office from 1869-1873, exclusive of sums raised for special purposes, was £36,000,000, or more than £7,000,000 annually, while in addition to this mass of ordinary debt, the special liabilities incurred in consequence of the Alabama arbitration, the Abyssinian war, and the Ashantee war, amounting in all to more than £9,750,000, were discharged. The system introduced in 1874, by putting the estimates on a more accurate basis, made it doubly incumbent on the country to insist on economy in the public services, and so not only provide against deficiencies in the best possible manner, but clear the way for adequate measures for the reduction of the debt. The course of events since 1874 certainly does not encourage the hope that a large reduction may be effected unless special means are employed. In 1874 Sir Stafford Northcote announced a surplus of £5,500,000; in 1875, the public finances were not in a condition "to cause anxiety," and there was a small surplus of £400,000; in 1876, an additional penny was imposed on the income tax; the deficit of 1877 was followed by a still heavier one of £5,500,000 in 1878, and taxation to the amount of £4,200,000 was imposed. The Eastern question had reached a crucial point, and the advance of the Russians on Constantinople induced the Government to ask for a vote of credit for £6,000,000, and the war expenditure in 1877 and 1878 amounted to about £5,500,000. By 1880 the burden of taxation had increased by about £1,600,000 annually; the floating debt had increased from £4,500,000 to £27,300,000; the balances at the Exchequer had fallen from £7,440,000 to £2,273,000; and, although the annual debt charge had been raised by more than £1,500,000 for the purposes of the Sinking Fund, the whole six years, from 1874 to 1880, saw a redemption of only £19,300,000 of debt. Since that time the increase in the public expenditure, chiefly in consequence of the chronic state of war alarms in which all Europe lives, has become a serious danger. In the last thirty years military expenditure has increased by nearly 50 per cent. At the same time, having regard to the growth of prosperity during that period, the burden of the public debt is felt less acutely in England than in any other country of Europe, amounting to 8½ per cent of capital, while the average for the continent is 11 per cent, and the position of England compares very favourably with that of other countries. After the French war, the National Debt of England was nearly double as much as all the debts of Europe put together. At the present time the indebtedness of Europe has grown to £2,165,000,000, that of France amounting to £1,005,000,000.

SECTION II.—THE SINKING FUNDS.

REFERENCE has already been made to the plan, which was adopted in 1717, for the gradual extinction of the National Debt by the application of the surplus from the Aggregate, General, and South Sea Funds to the purchase of stock. The Sinking Fund thus established is generally called after Walpole, its reputed father, although, according to Grellier, it was first suggested in a pamphlet published in 1701, and the Earl of Stanhope actually carried through the operation. The Act establishing the Sinking Fund declares that the various surpluses of which it consisted should be applied to the discharge of the principal and interest of the debt, and "to or for no other use, intent, or purpose whatsoever." The Sinking Fund, however, was very soon applied to other purposes than that for which it was intended. During the first ten years of its existence, about £6,500,000 from the fund was devoted to the redemption of the debt: this was nearly equal to the amount of debt contracted in the same period. In 1727, however, when the augmentation of the forces involved fresh expenditure, and Walpole proposed to raise the land tax for that purpose, it was suggested that it would be "much more eligible to utilise the produce of the Sinking Fund." From 1727 to 1732 the interest of several loans was charged upon the surplus duties, which, according to the original plan, ought to have been appropriated to the Sinking Fund; and in the last year, upon the reduction of the land tax to 1s., Walpole himself moved that the deficiency thus occasioned should be made good from the fund. He added that if this proposal were objected to, he should be obliged to raise the tax from 1s. to 2s. in the pound, and this consideration removed any scruples the "landed interest" might have felt. Soon after, the principle of preserving the Sinking Fund inviolable was abandoned, and in 1735 and 1736 it was anticipated and mortgaged. By an Act passed in 1752, all new taxes were appointed to be carried directly to the Sinking Fund—a plan which ultimately increased its efficiency. But the whole of its produce was appropriated towards the expenses of the three wars which were carried on during its existence; and even in time of peace it was charged with the interest of loans for which no provision was made, or devoted to the current services. From 1733, when its produce was first alienated, till 1786, when it was abolished, only £8,500,000 of debt were paid off by means of the Sinking Fund, and in no year did its produce exceed £2,685,669. Dr. Price pathetically laments the perversion of the fund to improper purposes—"that sacred blessing, once the nation's only hope, prematurely and cruelly destroyed by its own parent." It was his opinion that the Sinking Fund ought to have been invariably utilised for the reduction of the debt, extraordinary expenses being provided for by the contraction of new loans. Dr. Price, a firm believer in the magic of compound interest, was mainly instrumental in the establishment of *Pitt's Sinking Fund* in place of Walpole's in 1786.

Various branches of revenue then existing were united under the name of the *Consolidated Fund*, and from this fund £1,000,000 annually was to be appropriated, which was to be applied for the purchase of stock at the market prices. The fund was to be allowed to accumulate at compound interest, by the addition of the dividends on the stock which it purchased, and the annuities which fell in from time

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to time, until it amounted to £4,000,000. When that took place, the interest on the redeemed debt and the annuities fallen in were to be left at the disposal of Parliament. Another Sinking Fund was established in 1792, consisting of 1 per cent on the nominal capital of each loan, with the addition of the dividends on the capital of the debt redeemed and the savings effected by the reduction of the rate of interest. In 1802 the two funds were united, and applied to the reduction of the debt then existing. The fallacy on which this Sinking Fund was based proved in the end a source of great expense to the nation. As Dr. Hamilton clearly proved, "the increase of revenue or the diminution of expense are the only means by which the Sinking Fund can be enlarged, and its operations rendered more effectual; and all schemes for discharging the National Debt, by Sinking Funds operating at compound interest, or in any other manner, unless in so far as they are founded upon this principle, are completely illusory." A Sinking Fund is not a magician's wand; whatever reduction in the debt is effected through its instrumentality, takes place because "the produce of the taxes required to pay the dividends or interest on the stock purchased by the Sinking Fund Commissioners, instead of being remitted to the contributors, continues to be taken from them and applied to the purchase of fresh stock." When there is a surplus of revenue over expenditure, a Sinking Fund, wisely administered, may lead to the disposal of that surplus in the best possible manner for the reduction of the debt. But, if year after year there is a deficit in the public accounts, no ingeniously-devised scheme can prevent the nation from falling deeper into debt. The ill-advised clinging to a Sinking Fund in years of deficiency has frequently led to the contraction of loans from one set of persons to pay off another set, and so preserve the Sinking Fund intact. Pitt himself pursued this policy, perhaps in the hope that peace might be restored and the process of reduction be continued. It is obvious, however, that such a policy effects nothing but a transference of obligation, without any diminution, or rather with a great increase in the debt. Ricardo was of opinion that the Sinking Fund encouraged expenditure, and instead of diminishing, increased the evils of the funding system. "No securities can be given by Ministers that the Sinking Fund shall be faithfully devoted to the payment of debt, and without such securities we should be much better without such a fund. . . . There cannot be a greater security for the continuance of peace, than the imposing on Ministers the necessity of applying to the people for taxes to support a war. . . . If taxes are, as they ought to be, raised to defray the expenses of a war, what facility will a Sinking Fund give for the raising of them? None whatever. It is not because the possession of a Sinking Fund will enable them to raise new and additional taxes that Ministers prize it, for they know it will have no such effect, but because they know that they will be enabled to substitute the Sinking Fund in lieu of taxes, and to employ it, as they have always done, in war, and in providing for the interest of fresh debt."

Pitt's Sinking Fund not only failed in its object, but increased the National Debt. In consequence of the financial reforms effected by him from 1784-92, there was a considerable excess of revenue, and the debt was reduced by about £5,500,000. This reduction, apparently due to the operation of the Sinking Fund, was really

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brought about by the devotion of the surplus to the purchase of stock. After the outbreak of the war, there was a large annual deficit, but Pitt still clung to the Sinking Fund, and large sums were placed with the Commissioners. In 1807 the scheme was modified by Lord Henry Petty, who proposed to mortgage the war taxes on which the loans were raised, and after paying for interest and management to devote the surplus to the Sinking Fund. This plan, however, had only been tried for one year when his administration came to an end. So great was the delusion which prevailed on the subject that measures were actually taken to prevent the fund from accumulating without any limit, and so deluging the country with a flood of wealth by a too prompt discharge of the public debt. The publication of Dr. Hamilton's work took place in 1813, in which he exposed the fallacies of the Sinking Fund; but the same year had seen a new measure of Vansittart's, intended to restore it to its condition in 1786 and 1792. In 1819 fresh taxes were imposed in order still further to increase the fund, but in 1823 Huskisson moved for a reversal of the policy, with the result that the annual charge was diminished from £16,000,000 to £5,000,000. The appointment of the Finance Committee in 1828 led to renewed attacks on the principle of the fund. They urged that funds for the extinction of debt should not be raised by the creation of it in another shape, and discouraged the maintenance of a Sinking Fund not provided by a real surplus of revenue over expenditure. In 1829 Pitt's Sinking Fund was finally swept away. Although through its agency a nominal reduction of £483,000,000 of debt had been effected, it is obvious that the debt had really been increased; for the nation had been contracting new debt at 5 per cent to pay off old debt at 4½ per cent. The abolition of Pitt's Sinking Fund placed a large surplus at the disposal of Goulburn. He therefore proposed that, when circumstances admitted of the course, a sum of not less than £3,000,000 annually should be applied to the reduction of the debt. His proposal was adopted, and what is called the *Old Sinking Fund* was established. The essential characteristic of the scheme was its foundation on the solid basis of a realised surplus. The money is devoted to the redemption of debt as it comes into the Exchequer, and through the agency of this Sinking Fund a great part of the diminution since 1829 has been effected. The plan is simple and economical, and as it works only where there is a surplus, it is one which even Dr. Hamilton would have commended. There was no other application of the principle of Sinking Fund until the accession to office of Sir Stafford Northcote.

We have already said that the finances of the country were in a remarkably prosperous condition in 1874, Sir Stafford Northcote having to announce a surplus of no less than £5,500,000. It seemed, therefore, that the time had come for taking further measures for the reduction of the debt. With this object Sir Stafford Northcote, in 1875, proposed a scheme which he claimed was free from the fallacies of Pitt's Sinking Fund, and would introduce "a more regular, constant, and stable action" into the system on which the debt is annually redeemed. The total amount of debt on March 31st, 1874, was £772,934,938, and in the course of the year it had been diminished by £3,729,668. The Debt Charge in 1875 was £27,215,000. He proposed to bring the Debt Charge up to £28,000,000 annually, and devote the excess of that over the payments for interest and management to the

formation of a new Sinking Fund. If it should prove necessary to raise loans for casual or temporary purposes, the Debt Charge was to be augmented in proportion to the liabilities so incurred, the £800,000 devoted to the Sinking Fund being preserved inviolable. This sum would be charged upon the Consolidated Fund along with the rest of the Debt Charge, and would appear in the Budget accounts as an ordinary part of the annual expenditure. It was not proposed to increase the Debt Charge to £28,000,000 at one step. In 1876 there was to be an addition of £185,000, and the fund would attain its maximum only in 1877. The scheme was based on the possession of an effective and permanent surplus of £500,000, and on that assumption it was calculated that, if the system was steadily maintained, no less than £192,500,000 of debt could be redeemed in thirty years, while the Sinking Fund itself would amount to £13,000,000. It is needless to say that these anticipations were not and are not likely to be realised, and the actual results which followed from the adoption of the scheme have been very meagre. The New Sinking Fund was initiated by the application of the small sum of £185,000 in 1875; in the course of the year about £280,000 of debt was redeemed, but an additional penny was imposed on the income tax in 1876 for the preservation of the Sinking Fund intact. The increased expenditure on the army and the navy which followed the outbreak of the Russo-Turkish war brought heavy deficits in 1877 and the following years, but a surplus of £226,000 in 1877 sufficed to keep the fund in operation. In 1880 the Debt Charge was increased to £28,800,000, but in 1885 and 1886, by which time the total amount of debt paid off through its agency was nominally £4,900,000, the Sinking Fund was suspended. In the year 1887 there was once more a surplus of revenue over expenditure, but in order to remove a penny from the income tax, Mr. Goschen reduced the Sinking Fund by £2,000,000 a year. Although the net results of the scheme, so far, have in no sense justified the sanguine expectations which attended its adoption in 1875, the principle on which it was based was a sound one, and deserved a fair trial. That the debt has not been reduced by a larger amount is in no way to the disparagement of the Sinking Fund. It cannot be too often asserted that a "surplus" is the essential condition of such a result, and that increased expenditure is the greatest obstacle to the successful application of the principle of the fund. There are five small Sinking Funds in existence at the present time annually redeeming about £200,000 of debt, into the details of which it is unnecessary to enter.

SECTION III.—TERMINABLE ANNUITIES, &c.

THE operation of the Sinking Fund was intended to bring about a direct reduction of the debt. The system of terminable annuities, on the other hand, increases the present burden of the debt with the view of relieving posterity. A certain amount of outstanding debt is cancelled, and in place of it an annuity, including both the interest on the debt and its repayment, is granted for a limited number of years. This system of debt redemption, like every other, depends for its efficacy on a surplus

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of revenue over expenditure. It is open to the objection that the unwillingness of people to take up the annuities on satisfactory terms, makes it difficult to redeem any large amount of debt in this manner. Also, when the annuities fall in, it is not always easy to find stock to cancel with the money which is thus placed at the disposal of the Chancellor of the Exchequer. A notable example of this was the case of the long annuities which fell in in 1860. These annuities had been granted in 1761, when a loan of £11,400,000 was raised for the expenses of the seven years' war. When they fell in, the Debt Charge was reduced by £1,292,000 per annum but Mr. Gladstone, instead of devoting the money which was thus placed at his disposal to the redemption of the National Debt, preferred to carry on the work of fiscal reform, and took off certain taxes which have already been mentioned. Sir John Lubbock strongly objects to the system of terminable annuities: "They must be continued during war," he says, "even if we are borrowing at higher rates; they tie up the hands of Parliament; they assume that the people have not resolution to look the debt fearlessly in the face; they diminish the moral effect of a reduction of the debt." It would occupy too much space to describe in detail the various operations which have been carried on on this principle. The system was established in 1808, and during the first year of its operation annuities were granted to the amount of £58,506 per annum. The Finance Committee of 1828 discovered that the inaccuracies in the tables was causing a weekly loss to the nation of about £8,000. The system was therefore suspended until new tables had been constructed in 1829. Sir Stafford Northcote, comparing the efficacy of terminable annuities and Sinking Funds in 1875, said that while the latter had been instrumental in cancelling £40,000,000 stock, about £120,000,000 had been redeemed by means of the former system—a conclusive proof, he thought, of the superiority of the system.

In this connection, a scheme devised by Mr. Childers and Mr. Gladstone in 1883 must be noticed. All the terminable annuities which had been granted during the last thirty years had been calculated to expire in 1885, the object being to relieve the revenue of a considerable charge in one year, and so leave a large surplus to be devoted to remission of taxation or reduction of debt. The Debt Charge in 1883 was about £29,000,000, made up of the £28,000,000 which was annually applied under the operation of the New Sinking Fund, the £800,000 added in 1880, and a terminable annuity of £120,000 created in 1881, to repay the loan of £2,000,000 to India. Restoring the New Sinking Fund to the original Charge of £28,000,000 in 1885, the terminable annuities falling in, which amounted to £5,135,000, were converted into a single annuity of £684,000 to run for twenty years. The revenue thus set free was devoted to the creation of an annuity of £2,665,000 to run for twenty years in lieu of £40,000,000 Chancery Stock, and three annuities of £1,200,000 each in lieu of £30,250,000 Savings Bank Stock, the first to run for five years, when it was to be renewed by the further cancellation of stock for fifteen years, and at the end of that time to be again renewed; the second to run for ten years, and be similarly renewed; the third for fifteen years, and then be renewed; that is, one-third of the whole amount of the £3,600,000 would be renewable and renewed every three years. If the plan was allowed to operate, it was calculated that an annual saving of £7,230,000 would be effected, and the debt

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reduced by £123,250,000 in thirty years. In 1903, £3,374,000 of annuities would fall in, leaving the £3,600,000 of "rolling annuities" still outstanding. In 1885, however, the terminable annuities of 1883 were suspended, and in 1887 Mr. Goschen reduced the Sinking Fund to £26,000,000.

SECTION IV.—REDUCTION OF THE RATE OF INTEREST.

THE reduction of the annual charge for the National Debt is the next best thing to its redemption. We have already noticed the measures of 1717, 1727, and 1749, by which the interest on the greater part of the debt was reduced successively from 5 to 4 and then to 3 per cent. There were no further reductions of the interest until 1822, when Vansittart converted the Navy Five per Cents into a New Four per Cent Stock, operating on a capital of £149,000,000, and effecting an annual saving of about £1,200,000. In 1824 Robinson converted £70,000,000 of Four per Cents into Three and a Half per Cents Reduced, and in 1830 Goulburn effected an annual saving of £750,000 by the conversion of £153,000,000 New Four per Cents into New Three and a Half per Cents. In 1834 Lord Althorp effected a similar reduction on the Four per Cents of 1826. In 1844 Goulburn continued the work which he had commenced in 1830, by reducing the rate of interest on £250,000,000 of Three and a Half per Cents to 3½ per cent, with an immediate saving of £622,000. In 1854 the rate of interest was to fall to 3 per cent, and it was stipulated that in 1874 the stock should be redeemable at the option of Parliament without notice being given. There were unsuccessful attempts to reduce the rate of interest in 1853 by Mr. Gladstone, in 1867 by Mr. Disraeli, and in 1884 by Mr. Childers, but nothing further was done until the present year (1888), when Mr. Goschen continued the work of Mr. Goulburn, by operating on £166,000,000 of New Three per Cents, and about £250,000,000 of Consols and Reduced Three per Cents. This is the largest conversion of stock ever effected. Mr. Goschen offered the holders the alternative of redemption or conversion of their stock into a New Two and Three Quarter Stock at par, the interest to fall to 2½ per cent in 1903, and guaranteed against redemption until 1923. The same terms were offered to the proprietors of all other Three per Cent Stock. The proposal was very favourably received. On the New Three per Cents the saving will be about £410,000 annually until 1903, when there will be a further annual saving of £410,000; while the entire success of the scheme, which adds nothing to the capital of the debt, would secure a saving of £1,400,000 until 1903, and then £2,800,000.

SECTION V.—LOCAL LOANS, SAVINGS BANK STOCK, &c.

THE system of advancing money to local bodies directly from the Exchequer originated with the loans raised for public works after the great war with France. Till 1829 the receipts from these loans were treated as miscellaneous revenue, but the report of the Finance Committee in 1828 brought about a separation of the accounts from the ordinary revenue and expenditure, the receipts going to increase

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the balances, and the advances, when not raised on Exchequer Bonds or Bills, diminishing them. The receipts thus indirectly contributed to the reduction of the debt by rendering it unnecessary to meet the demand for local loans by the issue of bonds or bills. In 1842, the amount to be annually placed to the credit of the Commissioners for Public Works was fixed at £360,000, but the inconvenience which arose from the fact that the Treasury had to honour the drafts of the Commissioners whenever they chose to issue them, led to the passing of the Public Works Loan Act in 1870. This Act, which was intended to remedy the inconvenience of the old system, provided for the introduction of a separate Bill every year stating the amount of the loans required in the year by the local bodies, the sum thus agreed upon not being exceeded. In 1874 the annual interest on these advances was absorbed into the ordinary revenue, and so the amount applicable from this source in each year to the redemption of the debt was diminished. To compensate for the diminution £17,000,000 Savings Bank Stock were converted into terminable annuities, to run for eleven years, the annual charge of £445,000 just balancing the additional receipts from the local loans. The change, however, was by no means favourable to the reduction of the debt; on the other hand, Sir Stafford Northcote pointed out in 1875 and 1879, that the Treasury did not gain by these advances, for the bad debts more than swallowed up the profits on the good. In 1887 Mr. Goschen stated that the total advances to local bodies up to that time had been £106,000,000, of which £57,200,000 had been repaid, and £11,600,000 granted as gifts, leaving a balance of £37,200,000 outstanding. The annual interest payable on the unfunded debt issued in order to provide for these advances rose from £43,750 in 1875, to £341,000 in 1879, and to £478,000 in 1885, the total for twelve years being £3,800,000. The receipts, however, between 1874 and 1885 exceeded the total payments by £1,340,000, so that the arrangement introduced by Sir Stafford Northcote really caused the application to the ordinary purposes of the revenue of a large sum of money which, under the old system, would have gone towards the redemption of the debt. In 1887, another change took place, when the local loans were separated from the Budget, the receipts and payments being kept in a separate account. From that time their connection with the redemption of the National Debt has ceased.

The first Savings' Bank was introduced at Tottenham in 1804, and they were recognised by law shortly afterwards. In 1817 a fund which was called the Fund for the Banks for Saving, was opened with the National Debt Commissioners, and it was provided that all deposits should be placed with them. The abuses of the system thus introduced led to legislative action in 1826 and 1828. In order to give greater security to depositors, it was enacted that the rules of such Banks should be submitted to a barister appointed by the National Debt Commissioners, and the money deposited was to be invested in the Bank of England in their name. The growth of the system is seen in the increase of the Savings Bank capital. In 1850 it was £28,931,000; in 1860, £41,258,000. In 1863 the Post Office Savings Banks were established, and the total capital held by them and the Trustee Savings Banks amounted to £53,053,000 in 1870. In 1878 the Trustee Savings Banks held £44,293,000, and the Post Office Savings Banks £30,412,000. In 1880 the total had increased to £77,721,084, and in 1886 to £97,718,332. Gradually the excess of

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deposits over withdrawals has left a larger surplus to be invested in Government Stock. These stocks can be taken and invested in terminable annuities, an operation which cancels the stock for a limited number of years, the Government paying a fixed sum annually to the credit of the Savings Banks. The money thus received, if not required for withdrawals or the payment of interest on deposits, is re-invested in the Funds, and so, at the expiration of the terminable annuities, if the price of stock has not varied and all payments have been re-invested, the Savings Banks again hold stock equivalent to that originally cancelled, while a reduction has been effected in the National Debt.

Another subject which may fairly be considered in this place is the purchase of the telegraphs and other useful investments. This expenditure, while increasing the National Debt, is not a dead loss to the community like war expenditure, and may, by proper management, lead to very beneficial results. Certainly, the telegraph purchase has not so far been a profitable investment, however we may sympathise with the principle underlying that policy. The Bill authorising the Postmaster-General to acquire and work the telegraphs was passed in 1868. The cost was estimated at £7,000,000, consisting of £5,715,000 to satisfy the claims of the companies; £700,000 to the railway companies for rent or way leaves; £300,000 for extensions and re-arrangements; and £35,000 to smaller companies to be bought out in consequence of the monopoly claims. The capital required was raised by the issue of £7,000,000 of stock at £92. 4s. It was estimated that the gross revenue would be £673,000, while the expenditure would be £379,500, yielding a profit of £314,340, which would be sufficient to pay the interest on the capital outlay. These anticipations, however, were not realised. Since that time no less than £11,000,000 have been expended; the expenditure has increased and the revenue has not risen proportionately. In consequence of this there has been a considerable loss on the transaction, the interest on the capital invested never having been covered except in 1870 and 1871. Since the purchase in 1868 the total deficiency has been more than £3,000,000. This could be understood if the business had not increased, but there has been a great expansion, and the only explanation of the constant loss must be Government mismanagement. To the £14,000,000 thus expended must be added the £4,000,000 spent in 1875 in the purchase of the Suez Canal Shares. The dividend coupons on the shares had been surrendered for twenty-five years from their issue, and so would not rank as dividend until 1895. It was therefore stipulated that the Khedive should pay 5 per cent interest on £200,000 a year as interest on the purchase money until that time.

TABLE I.—PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE DURING THE GREAT WAR.

YEARS.	INCOME.			EXPENDITURE.			
	Amount of Revenue paid into the Exchequer, the produce of taxation.	Amount receiveds on account of loan and Exchequer Bills, beyond the amount redeemed in the year.	Total Amount raised for Public Uses.	Interest paid on Public Debt funded and Unfunded.	Sums applied to redemption of Public Debt beyond the amount of Loans, &c., in the year.	Current Annual Public Expenditure.	Total Amount Paid and Expended in the year.
1792.....	£ 19,258,814	Nil.	£ 19,258,814	9,767,333	2,421,681	7,070,109	£ 19,859,123
1793.....	19,845,705	4,877,956	24,723,661	9,437,862	..	14,759,208	24,197,070
1794.....	20,193,074	6,998,389	27,191,463	9,890,904	..	17,851,213	27,742,117
1795.....	19,883,520	30,464,831	50,348,351	10,810,728	..	37,603,449	48,414,177
1796.....	21,454,728	22,244,982	43,699,710	11,841,204	..	30,334,087	42,175,291
1797.....	23,126,940	30,356,873	53,483,813	14,270,616	..	36,469,993	50,740,609
1798.....	31,035,363	16,858,503	47,893,866	17,585,518	..	33,541,727	51,127,245
1799.....	35,602,444	21,714,863	57,317,307	17,230,983	..	38,403,421	55,624,401
1800.....	34,145,584	23,030,529	57,176,113	17,381,561	..	39,439,706	56,821,267
1801.....	34,113,146	27,305,271	61,418,417	19,945,624	..	41,383,555	61,329,179
1802.....	36,368,149	14,638,254	51,006,403	19,855,588	..	29,693,619	49,549,207
1803.....	38,609,392	8,752,761	47,362,153	20,699,864	..	28,298,366	48,998,230
1804.....	46,176,492	14,570,763	60,747,255	20,726,772	..	38,649,436	59,376,208
1805.....	50,897,706	16,849,801	67,747,507	22,141,426	..	45,027,892	67,169,318
1806.....	55,796,086	13,035,344	71,831,430	23,000,006	..	45,941,205	68,941,211
1807.....	59,339,321	10,432,934	69,772,255	23,362,685	..	44,250,357	67,613,042
1808.....	62,998,191	12,095,014	75,093,235	23,158,982	..	49,984,105	73,143,087
1809.....	63,719,400	12,298,879	76,017,779	24,213,867	..	52,352,146	76,516,013
1810.....	67,144,342	7,792,444	74,936,986	24,246,946	..	52,618,602	76,865,548
1811.....	65,173,545	19,143,953	84,317,498	24,977,915	..	58,757,308	83,735,233
1812.....	65,037,850	24,790,697	89,828,547	25,546,508	..	63,210,816	88,757,324
1813.....	68,746,363	39,649,383	108,397,645	28,030,239	..	77,913,488	108,943,727
1814.....	71,134,503	34,563,693	105,698,106	30,051,365	..	76,780,895	106,532,260
1815.....	72,210,512	20,241,807	92,452,319	31,576,074	..	60,704,106	92,280,180
1816.....	62,264,546	514,059	62,778,605	32,938,751	..	32,231,020	65,169,771
1817.....	52,055,913	Nil.	52,055,913	36,436,245	1,826,814	22,018,179	55,281,238

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TABLE II.—COST OF EACH WAR SINCE 1688.

DATE.	WAR.	£
1688-97	War of William III. against France, and in Ireland.....	32,643,764
1702-13	War of the Spanish Succession	50,684,956
1718-21	War with Spain	4,547,324
1739-48	War with Spain (Right of Search) and Austrian Succession	43,655,192
1756-63	Seven Years' War. Expenditure continued to 1766.....	82,623,738
1776-85	War of American Independence	97,599,496
1793-1815	Great War with Revolutionary France and Napoleon.	
	War Expenditure continued to 1817	831,446,449
1838-43	Insurrection in Canada. Votes of Credit	2,096,046
1840-43	First War with China	2,201,028
1848-53	Kaffir War. Total Votes of Credit	2,060,000
1854-56	Russian War. Expenditure continued till 1856	69,277,694
1856-7 1860-1)	Second War with China. Total Votes of Credit	6,640,693
1856-7	Persian Expedition. Total Votes of Credit	900,000
1864-5	New Zealand War. Total Votes of Credit.....	764,829
1866-8	Abyssinian Expedition	8,600,000
1874-75	Ashantee War	927,017
1879-80	Zulu and Transvaal Wars.....	4,821,720
1880	Griqualand and Sukukuni Expeditions	472,200
1883	Egyptian Expedition	3,895,500
	Vote to India on Afghan War Account	5,000,000
	Soudan Expedition (Gordon Relief).....	300,000
	Total	£ 1,251,157,646

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TABLE III.—AMOUNT OF THE NATIONAL DEBT AT THE ACCESSION OF EACH MONARCH.

		£		£
1688..	Bankers' Debt	664,263
1702..	At the Accession of Anne	12,767,225	Increase in 14 years	12,102,962
1714..	„ „ George I.	36,175,460	12 „	23,408,235
1727..	„ „ George II.	52,523,023	13 „	16,347,563
1760..	„ „ George III....	102,014,018	33 „	49,490,995
1820..	„ „ George IV.....	834,900,960	60 „	732,886,942
1830..	„ „ William IV. ...	784,803,997	Decrease in 10 years	50,196,963
1837..	„ „ Victoria	787,529,114	Increase in 7 „	2,725,117

TABLE IV.—TOTAL AMOUNT OF THE NATIONAL DEBT AT THE END OF EACH FINANCIAL YEAR, FROM 1841 TO 1854.

Financial Years, ended on January 5th.	Capital of Unredeemed Funded Debt.	Capital of Terminable Annuities.	Amount of Unfunded Debt.	Financial Years, ended on January 5th.
	£	£	£	
1841.....	766,371,725		21,076,3501841
1842.....	772,530,758		18,343,8501842
1843.....	773,068,340		18,187,8001843
1844.....	772,169,092		18,407,3001844
1845.....	769,193,645		18,404,5001845
1846.....	766,672,822	Not	18,380,2001846
1847.....	764,608,284	Computed.	18,310,7001847
1848.....	772,401,851		17,946,5001848
1849.....	774,022,638		17,786,7001849
1850.....	773,168,310		17,758,7001850
1851.....	769,272,562		17,756,6001851
1852.....	765,126,502		17,742,8001852
1853.....	761,622,704		17,742,5001853
1854.....	755,311,701		16,029,6001854

TABLE V.—TOTAL AMOUNT OF THE NATIONAL DEBT AT THE END OF EACH FINANCIAL YEAR SINCE 1855.

Financial Years ended on March 31.	FUNDED DEBT.		UNFUNDED DEBT.	TOTAL AMOUNT OF THE NATIONAL DEBT.
	Capital of Unredeemed Funded Debt, inclusive of Unclaimed Stock and Dividends.	Estimated Capital of Terminable Annuities.		
	£	£	£	£
1855....	752,064,119	30,196,171	23,151,400	805,411,690
1856....	775,730,994	29,943,821	28,182,700	833,857,515
1857....	780,119,722	27,567,532	27,989,000	835,676,254
1858....	779,225,495	24,497,263	25,911,500	829,634,258
1859....	790,480,720	21,999,073	18,277,400	830,757,193
1860....	789,718,208	19,746,264	16,228,300	825,692,772
1861....	788,970,719	18,947,740	16,689,000	824,607,459
1862....	788,229,618	19,388,876	16,517,900	824,136,394
1863....	787,422,928	20,716,727	16,495,400	824,635,055
a 1864....	781,712,401	26,442,428	13,136,000	821,290,829
1865....	780,202,104	24,307,822	10,742,500	815,252,426
1866....	773,941,190	23,833,621	8,187,700	805,962,511
1867....	770,188,625	25,607,076	7,956,800	803,752,501
1868....	b 741,844,981	b 53,258,874	7,911,100	803,014,955
1869....	741,112,640	51,913,623	9,896,100	802,922,363
1870....	741,514,681	49,667,479	6,761,500	797,943,660
1871....	732,043,270	54,413,310	6,091,000	792,547,580
1872....	731,756,962	52,286,775	5,155,100	789,198,837
1873....	727,374,082	50,201,768	4,829,100	782,404,950
1874....	723,514,005	44,941,333	4,479,600	772,934,938
1875....	714,797,715	48,908,742	5,239,300	768,945,757
1876....	713,657,517	45,847,366	11,401,800	770,906,683
1877....	712,621,355	43,449,568	13,943,800	770,014,723
1878....	710,843,007	40,705,718	20,603,000	772,151,725
1879....	709,430,593	37,664,369	25,870,100	772,965,062
1880....	710,476,359	33,784,649	27,344,900	771,605,908
1881....	709,078,526	34,988,435	22,077,500	766,144,461
1882....	d 709,498,547	33,181,875	d 18,007,700	c 754,455,270
1883....	d 712,698,994	27,570,876	d 14,185,400	c 754,455,270
1884....	e 640,631,095	e 91,682,269	14,110,600	746,423,964
1885....	640,181,896	86,115,658	14,033,100	740,330,654
1886....	638,849,694	85,829,917	17,602,800	742,282,411
1887....	637,637,640	81,123,148	17,517,900	736,278,688
1888....	f 609,740,743	78,449,230	17,385,100	705,575,073

a In 1864, £5,000,000 Unredeemed Funded Debt was cancelled, and a Terminable Annuity created in lieu thereof, under 26 Vict., c. 25, s. 2.

b The alterations in the amounts of the Unredeemed Funded Debt and the Terminable Annuities chiefly caused by Conversion of Stock into Terminable Annuities.

c Including outstanding Exchequer Bonds issued for raising money for the purchase of Suez Canal Shares. In 1888, these amounted to £3,189,900.

d Under the National Debt Act, 1881, Bonds amounting to £7,750,000 were converted into £8,603,000 Stock.

e In the course of the financial year 1883-4, £70,241,908 Three per Cent Stock was converted into Terminable Annuities, under the provisions of the National Debt Act, 1883.

f Reduction due to the cancellation of Stock, and the transfer of an equivalent amount of Local Loans Assets to the Local Loans Fund.

TABLE VI.—EXPENDITURE FROM 1876–1888 FOR NATIONAL DEBT, ARMY AND NAVY, CIVIL SERVICES, AND PUBLIC EDUCATION.

	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
I. National Debt Services	26,080,498	27,001,234	27,825,738	27,308,320	27,395,763	28,165,578	28,222,779	28,109,904	28,190,893	28,200,360	21,858,615	26,615,879	25,792,096
II. Naval and Military Expenditure ..	24,804,078	25,477,966	28,562,465	30,249,360	28,490,519	25,781,602	27,401,998	29,378,867	27,816,881	30,561,916	39,534,908	31,918,139	30,758,293
III. Civil Services	6,250,376	5,979,150	6,184,488	6,132,820	6,077,782	6,323,298	6,579,950	6,678,642	6,557,813	6,668,582	6,510,417	6,615,607	6,426,062
IV. Public Education..	2,454,412	2,656,334	3,080,642	3,379,743	3,427,156	3,697,243	3,792,994	3,920,947	4,057,774	4,374,751	4,581,923	4,736,355	4,622,471
V. Total Annual Expenditure	66,881,634	67,971,559	71,841,957	74,006,433	73,670,810	71,648,227	73,859,496	76,697,120	74,941,820	78,157,500	80,936,880	78,348,101	76,021,846

TOTAL EXPENDITURE FOR THIRTEEN YEARS, 1876 TO 1888

£905,583,399.

NAVAL AND MILITARY EXPENDITURE £380,940,925.

NATIONAL DEBT SERVICES..... £351,198,897.

CIVIL SERVICES £82,836,166.

Public Education £48,982,745.

THE NATIONAL DEBT.

TABLE VII.—STATEMENT OF LOANS FOR LOCAL WORKS, &c.
 SHOWING for 31st March of each year, from 1882, the TOTAL SUMS ADVANCED,
 REPAID, and REMITTED from 1792 to the close of each of such years, and the
 TOTAL SUMS OUTSTANDING at the close of the same years.

On March 31st.	Advances to Borrowers.	Principal Repaid by Borrowers.	Principal Remitted.	Principal outstanding against Borrowers.	
				Written off from the Account of the Assets of the Local Loans Fund.	Other Sums Outstanding.
	£	£	£	£	£
1882	96,071,810	50,831,441	11,947,216	33,293,153
1883	98,459,069	52,278,964	11,947,216	34,232,889
1884	100,416,251	53,604,587	11,953,415	34,858,249
1885	102,413,018	55,173,397	11,963,265	35,276,356
1886	104,552,855	56,402,427	11,988,749	36,161,679
1887	106,992,121	57,759,919	12,020,323	37,211,879
1888	110,099,954	59,751,832	12,020,323	633,588	37,694,211

TABLE VIII.—NATIONAL DEBT CHARGES IN 1888.

	£	£
<i>Great Britain.—Funded Debt.</i>		
Three Per Cent Consols	9,693,556	
Three Per Cent Reduced	2,308,597	
New Three Per Cents	4,726,606	
New Three and a Half Per Cents	7,901	
Two and a Half Per Cent Annuities	656,509	
Two and Three Quarter Per Cent Annuities	124,770	
Exchequer Bonds of 1853 (Two and a Half Per Cents)	10,457	
Interest of Government Debt to the Bank of England	330,453	
		17,858,849
<i>Ireland.</i>		
Three Per Cent Consolidated Annuities.	117,086	
Three Per Cent Reduced Annuities	2,581	
New Three Per Cents	673,561	
Two and a Half Per Cents	17,793	
Two and Three Quarter Per Cents.....	3,045	
Interest of Government Debt to the Bank of Ireland.....	78,923	
		892,989
Total Interest of the Funded Debt carried forward..		18,751,838

THE NATIONAL DEBT.

TABLE VIII.—CONTINUED.

	£
Total Interest of the Funded Debt brought forward..	18,751,838
<i>Unfunded Debt.</i>	
	£
Exchequer Bills	88,076
Treasury Bills for Supply Services	67,611
Advances by Bank of England.....	19,132
Total Interest of the Unfunded Debt	174,819
<i>Terminable Annuities.</i>	
Life Annuities	1,051,871
Exchequer Annuities	880
Annuities for various terms of years	30,034
Ditto Trustee Savings Banks, expiring in 1904	362,104
On account of short issue of Life Annuities, April 5th, 1853.	5,000
Ditto Post-office Savings' Banks expiring in 1904..	321,918
Chancery Funds Annuity, expiring in 1904	2,665,835
Red Sea and India Telegraph Co., expiring on Aug. 4th, 1908	36,000
ANNUITIES CREATED UNDER MR. CHILDERS' (ACT, 1883) IN LIEU OF CANCELLED STOCK:—	
Expiring 1889	£1,200,000
" 1893	400,000
" 1894	800,000
" 1899	1,200,000
	3,600,000
Sinking Fund Annuity, expiring in 1894.....	6,907
" " " 1934.....	15,547
Trustee Savings' Banks Deficiency Annuity, expiring in 1908	83,672
Annuity, expiring in 1903.....	35,121
Total Interest on Terminable Annuities..	8,214,889
<i>Management of the Debt.</i>	
Management of Funded Debt by Bank of England	190,387
Ditto ditto Bank of Ireland.....	12,602
Management of Unfunded Debt by Bank of England	1,739
Same Banks for Manufacturing Stock Certificates	91
Total Management of the Debt	204,819
Carried forward	27,346,365

THE NATIONAL DEBT.

TABLE VIII.—CONTINUED.

	£
Brought forward.....	27,346,365
<i>Excluded from Permanent Charge.</i>	
	£
LOCAL LOANS DEBT (FUNDED AND SINKING FUND):—	
Interest on Consols	82,937
Two and a Half Per Cents	145,961
LOCAL (UNFUNDED DEBT):—	
Treasury Bills.....	127,011
Exchequer Bills	21,803
	<hr/>
Total Interest, &c., Local Loans Debt ..	377,712
SUEZ CANAL EXCHEQUER BONDS :—	
Interest, &c.....	199,944
Cape Railway Exchequer Bonds (Interest)	14,000
Total Excluded from Permanent Charge..	<hr/> 591,656
	<hr/>
Total National Debt Charges	£27,938,021

CONCLUSION.

EDMUND BURKE, writing in 1790, before the younger Pitt and his successors had multiplied the Debt fourfold, said: "Public debts, which at first were a security to Governments, by interesting many in the public tranquillity, are likely in their excess to become the means of their subversion. If Governments provide for these debts by heavy impositions, they perish by becoming odious to the people. If they do not provide for them, they will be undone by the efforts of the most dangerous of all parties; I mean an extensive, discontented monied interest, injured and not destroyed." That passage very well expresses the difficulty in which a nation is likely to be placed through the contraction of a large debt. The abstraction of so great an amount of capital from productive industry is in any case a serious evil; but the evil may become a political danger unless it is remedied. The steps which have been taken for the redemption of the debt since it reached its maximum at the end of the war with France have been described, and the only judgment we can pass upon them is that, having regard to the growth of prosperity

THE NATIONAL DEBT.

during that period, they have been lamentably inadequate. England, financially, is immensely strong, the only European nation that succeeds in balancing revenue and expenditure. But this forms no reason for refusing to take definite measures for the reduction of the Debt and so shifting the responsibility on to a future generation, which may be less fitted to bear it than our own. The nation, as a whole, must look well to its finances, and put a curb upon the growing expenditure in all branches of the public services. While there are few subjects of less interest to the ordinary citizen, there are certainly none of greater political importance than the finance of the country. With a firm resolve to look the National Debt in the face, with rigid economy—which is not niggardliness—in the public services, and a willingness to acquiesce in the principle that the revenue in time of peace should exceed the requirements of a peace establishment, the reduction of the Debt, to a country so wealthy as England, should not be an impossibility. It is a duty involving, perhaps, considerable sacrifice on the part of the present generation, but which we owe to posterity. A great deal would be gained if the nation would have done with all hocus-pocus schemes for the automatic payment of the Debt, and would realise that every measure with this object must, if it is to be successful, be based on a surplus of revenue over expenditure.

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 Lord Overstone's "Collection of Tracts on the National Debt."
 Porter's "Progress of the Nation."
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 Ricardo's "Essay on the Funding System."
 Tooke's "History of Prices."
 Dowell's "History of Taxation."
 Thorold Rogers' "First Nine Years of the Bank of England."
 Gladstone's "Financial Statements."
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GREAT STRIKES: THEIR ORIGIN, COST, AND RESULTS.

BY GEORGE HOWELL, F.S.S., M.P.

A COMPLETE record of those industrial conflicts with which we are so familiar, called strikes, has never yet been compiled; and perhaps it would be impossible of accomplishment if attempted. Nor would the time which would have to be devoted to the compilation of such a work repay the writer for all his trouble; and certainly the public interest would weary of the recital. Such a record would resemble Irving's "Annals of Our Time," or a chronological summary, rather than a history, which should give the main facts, and present, in broad outline, the general phases of those industrial conflicts, and indicate their nature, character, and results; and also the causes of the chief contests, and the principles at stake.

There is little variety in the causes which have led to strikes. In many cases the matters in dispute involve extremely trivial questions, the actual differences being such that many persons wonder at the expenditure of money and time, and the energy wasted, as they imagine, in the prolonged struggle which ensues. In other cases, matters of grave principle and policy are involved, in which the public take an interest, and sometimes even take part, though usually adverse to the workmen. But even in those instances which are regarded as trivial, precisely the same principles are at stake; and the workmen often prefer to fight the matter out on a small issue, than wait until it has assumed large dimensions, and covers a wider field.

The entire series of questions involved in the conflicts of capital and labour are not very numerous. They may be comprised under a few general heads, such as: (1) the rate of wages; (2) the hours of labour; (3) the conditions of employment; and (4) the substitution of machinery for hand labour. In actual practice, these branch off into a variety of sub-heads, such as piece-work and day-work; overtime; apprenticeships; sub-contracting; the employment of non-society men. &c.; then local customs have, in days gone by, been a prolific source of trade disputes. Hence some strikes have exercised no influence, and evoked no interest, beyond the extremely narrow sphere of their operations, and the area in which they arose; while in the case of the larger strikes, practically the same principles were at stake in many of them, and precisely the same objects were being contended for—modified, of course, by local circumstances, or by the times in which they took place. Consequently, a brief review of the history of some of the principal strikes, illustrated by a few well-selected examples in more detail, will furnish ample materials for arriving at some sound conclusions as to their main objects, and as to the general economical results of such conflicts in the industrial world.

Combinations of workmen, or associations resembling modern trade unions, have existed in England for more than three-and-a-half centuries; but they were

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exceptions, chiefly in connection with the building trades, as regards which, some are known to have existed before 1562. But, generally speaking, little necessity arose for such combinations prior to the middle of the last century, or indeed until towards its close. Workmen were protected for centuries by the Trade Guilds, and Crafts Guilds, in most of the separate industries of the kingdom; and the ordinances and statutes of these guilds were subsequently embodied in Statute Law.*

The earlier statutes relating to labour, such as 2 and 3 Edward VI., c. 15; 5 Elizabeth, c. 4; 1 James I., c. 6, and others of a similar character, codified, as it were, the Ordinances and Statutes of the Craft Guilds, which had been in force for centuries, and applied their provisions to all the trades of any note or extent, at the time of their enactment. These statutes fixed the hours of labour, the rates of wages, the regulations as to apprentices, the mode of carrying on the several trades, and the general conditions as to employment in all industries under Statute Law. The justices and town magistrates had full authority to enforce all the provisions of all the statutes so enacted.

Trade unions originated with the non-observance, by the employers, of the statutory regulations affecting labour; the workmen endeavouring, by combination amongst themselves, to enforce the provisions of the law, while the masters everywhere, or nearly so, sought to evade them. The earliest strike on record of any note in this connection was the "Revolt of the Weavers," in 1756. The woollen manufactures was one of the oldest staple industries of the kingdom. The Trade Guilds and Craft Guilds of the Woollen Weavers were among the earlier of those established, and were of great importance. The trade was subsequently regulated by 5 and 6 Edward VI., c. 22; by 2 and 3 Mary, c. 11, as to the number of looms one weaver might have; and generally as to apprentices, &c., by 5 Elizabeth, c. 4. The regulations as to the assessment of wages by the justices appears to have fallen into disuse—by reason, perhaps, of the strong combinations of the weavers, those being sufficient to ensure sufficient wages, for a long period prior to 1720. In that year, however, the justices were induced to fix the rate of wages, but the masters resisted the rates so fixed, and they were not enforced by law. In consequence of this, the workmen strengthened their combinations. The masters then determined to attack the right of association. Accordingly, in 1725, combinations of workmen employed in the woollen manufactures were prohibited by 12 George II., c. 34.

The workmen were thus left in the unfortunate position of having no fixed legal rate of wages, and no right of association to enforce a rate, based upon the principle of supply and demand. The injustice of the situation was recognised, and in the following year, 1726, an Act (13 Geo. I., c. 23) was passed ordering the justices once more to fix the rate of wages in the woollen trades. Again the statutory enactment seems to have become inoperative, for we find little reference to it until the year 1756, when the workmen petitioned the justices to fix such rate of wages, according to the law; but as the masters presented a counter petition the justices refused.

* For a history of these guilds see Toulmin Smith's "English Guilds"—Early English Text Society, 1878, price 21s.; and Mr. George Howell's "Conflicts of Capital and Labour," Chatto and Windus, 1878, price 7s. 6d.

Here, again, the men were left without a remedy; they were prohibited from combining, and the justices refused to carry out the provisions of the statute as regards rates of wages. This state of things becoming unbearable the weavers revolted; they struck work, and drove the journeymen who continued working from their looms. This strike led to serious riots, and resulted in a loss to the country, estimated from £15,000 to £20,000, but it was so far successful that the masters gave way. Having agreed to certain proposals of the workmen, peace was restored. The justices were thereupon ordered, by 29 Geo. III., c. 33, to settle the rate of wages in the woollen trades yearly. But the whole conditions of manufacturing industry in this trade were on the eve of great changes, consequent upon the transition from domestic manufacture to the factory system.

The altered conditions of manufacturing life, by the erection of factories, and introduction of motive power and machinery, brought the journeymen together, and led to the formation of associations for mutual protection. Perhaps the first model of the modern trade union was the "Institution," by the cloth workers of Halifax, established in 1796; "its object was to prevent people carrying on trade in violation of custom and law." The chief aim of this society, at its first formation, was to enforce the apprenticeship system, as to journeymen and employers, manufacturers and traders alike. They do not appear to have remembered that the 5th of Eliz., c. 4, was unrepealed, and that they could really have enforced its provisions in a court of law. Possibly this was due to the fact that justices had in certain places refused to enforce the legally-fixed rates of wages, and also that combinations of workmen were prohibited; or to this other fact—that trade had enormously developed by the growth of the factory system, between 1756 and 1796, a period of 40 years; and that wages, during at least a portion of the period, were fairly good. The severe penal laws suppressing all such associations—called the Combination Laws, 39 Geo. III., c. 81, passed in 1799; and 39 and 40 Geo. III., c. 106, passed in 1800—caused some changes in the mode of organisation, and in the methods of its operation, but the "Institution" was not dissolved. Some strikes took place, but it mostly proceeded by petitioning Parliament, in which work it spent from £10,000 to £12,000. The burning of a factory by the exasperated workmen in 1805 led to a compromise, and the struggle for a time ceased.

The framework-knitting industry was not protected by the 5th of Elizabeth, c. 4, as it had not developed into a trade at that period, but the framework-knitters were brought under its provisions by Royal Charter of Charles II., in 1663. But, as the execution and enforcement of the ordinances of this Charter depended upon the action of the Master and Wardens of the Guild, who were employers, the most important of the regulations, that regulating the number of apprentices, was systematically violated; an unlimited number of apprentices was taken; the trade was overcrowded with journeymen; wages were lowered, until almost starvation point was reached, and deep misery fell upon the workers. In 1710 the journeymen petitioned the Company to carry out the regulations of the Charter, but the Master and Wardens refused; strikes ensued; a riot followed, when about 100 frames were destroyed; the opposing masters and their apprentices were thrashed, and then the masters gave in, promising to observe, for the future, the ordinances relating to

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apprentices. But again they were violated, further serious revolts occurred, and much damage to property was done. This led to the passing of an Act—12 Geo. I., c. 34—in the year 1725, prohibiting, under penalty of death, the breaking of frames, destruction of goods in the loom or rack, burning of looms or racks, or the destruction of any tools used in the manufacture. Other penalties of transportation, imprisonment, or fine were imposed in other cases of offences against the law. These were the chief methods which the framework-knitters then resorted to, in revenging themselves upon the employers in cases of dispute.

The condition of the industry was not improved by these outrages, nor by the laws which were enacted to put them down. The masters overstocked the trade with parish apprentices, and the journeymen were reduced to destitution, almost or quite to the point of starvation, especially between 1740 and 1750. The practice of frame-renting greatly aggravated the evils under which the workpeople groaned, and led to further revolts. The increase of the framework-knitting trade from 1750 to 1780 caused an additional influx of boys, and even girls into the trade, and led to the formation of the Stocking Makers' Association for Mutual Protection. So powerful did this Association become, that, in 1778, it practically returned to Parliament Mr. Abel Smith as its representative, the event being celebrated by a large procession in Nottingham. Petitions to Parliament followed; a Committee of Inquiry was instituted, and a Bill was brought in to remedy the grievances complained of. The Bill was rejected in the third reading, in consequence of the persistent opposition of the masters. Upon the news reaching Nottingham the workpeople crowded into the town, broke over 300 of the frames of the manufacturers whose opposition caused the rejection of the Bill, burned a house down, and destroyed other property. On the masters again promising to remove all grievances, peace was restored. But the promises were not fulfilled. For many years the whole district was in a constant state of ferment and riot. After again petitioning Parliament and receiving no redress, the workmen formed a union, in 1814, of all branches of the trade, and thereby endeavoured to regulate the conditions of labour therein.

In the cotton trades, combinations arose with the view of limiting apprentices and regulating the hours and wages of labour. These trades were not under the Statute 5 Elizabeth, c. 4. The first society formed was the Calico Printers' Union, and it seems to have exercised considerable influence for some years, and to have maintained a price list of wages. But with the large development of the cotton manufacturing industry, the employers were able to violate with impunity the statutory enactments in force, to override the "customs of the trade," and to compel the acceptance of their terms. Petitions to Parliament in favour of maintaining the provisions of statutory law were signed by over 300,000 persons; a Committee of Inquiry was instituted, but in the end law was abrogated, at the instance of the manufacturers. The Act 54 Geo. III., c. 96, practically abolished all the statutory safeguards as to wages, hours of labour, apprentices, and conditions of employment, which had been in force for over 100 years, embodying the ordinances, regulations, and customs of the old Guilds. The Spitalfields Acts, relating to the silk trade, were no longer in force; justices no longer assessed, fixed, and enforced wages; and the Combination Acts prohibited associations for mutual help and protection.

But persecution and prosecution did not deter men from combining. Secret societies were formed; in their despair, the workmen committed deeds of violence and outrage, and especially in Glasgow, Paisley, and the surrounding districts, from 1818 to 1823. Similar acts were also committed in various parts of England.

It is a singular fact that all, or nearly all, the earlier industrial conflicts were primarily for the enforcement of the provisions of the Statute Law, the ordinance of the old Guilds, or the "customs of the trade" which had the force of law. The masters tried to evade the provisions of the law, the workmen endeavoured to enforce them. Legal protection (of a sort) was enjoyed for centuries. When employers thought that the enactments were adverse to their interests, they either set them at naught, or tried to abrogate them. But they went further: they sought to prevent combinations among the workpeople, while they themselves were permitted to combine. After the repeal of the protective laws in favour of labour and workmen, the necessity for associated effort became more real, and also more apparent to all classes of wage-earners. The cloth and woollen workers, the calico printers, the silk weavers, the hatters, the shipwrights, and other trades, had combined for mutual protection and support, and to enforce their legal rights, as by law established. The long struggle to repeal the laws, and the final success of the employers, caused the workmen to combine for larger purposes than the mere enforcement of statutory enactments, guild ordinances, and trade customs; then the employers obtained powers to put down all associative effort, for any purposes, culminating in the 40th Geo. III., c. 106, passed in the year 1800.

The provisions of this enactment, and of the others in force, were of such a character that every act of workmen, in combination, was illegal; and any single justice of the peace could convict summarily, and sentence the offending person to two months' imprisonment. A longer term could be inflicted upon indictment, which was often done. But the penal laws were powerless to prevent combinations. In 1805 we find that three linen weavers of Knaresborough were sentenced to three months' imprisonment, for simply soliciting assistance from other workmen for those on strike. In 1816 three carpenters were sent to prison—two for twelve months, and one for one month—for taking part in a strike, where some violence was used. In 1820 twenty-four hatters were prosecuted for taking part in a strike, though no violence was used. The Newton engineers also were prosecuted, and their society suppressed. A large number of shoemakers were sent to gaol for combining. Sometimes the Combination Laws were invoked simply to prevent any demand for increased wages. In one instance the masters resolved not to avail themselves of the Combination Laws—this was the master printers, in 1816; this resulted in cordial relations between the journeymen and their employers. In the district of Leeds and Dewsbury the masters did not put in force the Combination Laws, although the workmen openly combined. In other parts of Yorkshire, Lancashire, Cheshire, and Derbyshire the laws were enforced with brutal severity, many persons being sent to gaol.

No "great strike" was really possible during the existence of the Combination Laws; but many of the labour disputes in that period were very bitter, and some were conducted with personal violence, with gross outrages, and with reckless

destruction of property. It is, however, perfectly certain that, in most cases where violence occurred, the masters acted with so high a hand, that even the excesses of the workmen are to be excused—were even excused by the report of the Committee which sat in 1824. The Combination Laws were so cruel and tyrannical that they were condemned by the Legislature, and were repealed. Among the strikes which took place prior to 1824, of which any authentic record exists, and which are not previously adverted to, the following may be mentioned:—In 1810 there was a strike of carpenters in London for an advance of 4s. per week; after lasting five weeks, the men were successful. In 1816 the masters determined to reduce their wages by 3s. per week; after a resistance of fourteen weeks the men had to give in; but in 1818 they regained 2s. per week without a formal strike. In 1812 the cotton weavers of Glasgow struck; the strike lasted six weeks; no fewer than 40,000 looms were stopped by this strike. The leaders were prosecuted and imprisoned; the association was broken up, and the men gave in. In 1810 the cotton spinners struck work; the masters closed their mills, and compelled all their workpeople to abandon the union before resuming work. The Dewsbury strike, in 1821, lasted till 1823—only one mill being called out at a time. This plan proved successful. The strike of the ship-sawyers of Liverpool, in 1816, for higher wages, lasted fourteen weeks, when they had to submit to a reduction instead. This reduction in wages lasted until 1823, when the men again struck. The masters employed a larger number of apprentices, and also imported sawyers from other districts, during the strike. Some of the latter were violently illused, one being murdered; one of the three men implicated was hanged for the murder, at Lancaster. One of the master's yards was also set on fire. Several other acts of violence seem to have been committed by the sawyers.

The action of the stocking-makers of Leicester was somewhat singular. In 1813 they had a strike, which was unsuccessful, several of the men being imprisoned. The union being broken up, the wages were so reduced that the masters, in 1817, instigated the men to combine. Both parties met, and agreed upon a list of prices. But one after another the masters again began to reduce wages, so that, in 1819, the men struck, to the number of 14,000. After nine weeks' resistance the masters gave in, and agreed to abide by the statement of prices mutually fixed in 1817. In this case the public were on the side of the men, whose wages only averaged from 5s. to 7s. per week. The Lord Lieutenant of the County and the county members subscribed to the funds for keeping those on strike. Sermons were preached in the churches on their behalf, and a benefit was given in the theatre in support of the movement. The conduct of the men was most exemplary throughout. In 1821 there was a similar strike at Nottingham, lasting six weeks, a prosecution being the result, but the conviction was quashed. Where no association existed, frame breaking took place; but, apparently, not otherwise. At Howick, in 1819, the master stocking-makers attempted a reduction; the men appealed to the justices to fix the wages, as they were empowered to do. The justices admitted that they had the power, but refused to use it. The men then prosecuted the masters for combining to reduce their wages; the sheriff declared that the men had substantiated their charges, but no conviction followed. In 1821 the masters again

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attempted a further reduction; the men struck, and they remained out for 28 weeks; the masters then prosecuted 20 of the men, but the sheriff discharged them upon learning from the chief magistrate and others that the men had been perfectly peaceable all the time.

In 1810 there was an obstinate strike of colliers at the Newcastle collieries. Much violence ensued; the military were called out, and one soldier was stabbed. The strike was conducted by a "secret committee," but after lasting four weeks, the men gave in. There were also strikes amongst the coopers of London, in 1808, 1813, 1816, and 1825. For a long time their wages were regulated by the price of bread, but the men resolved to reject that standard, and succeeded. Their wages were advanced in 1813, and again in 1816, when a list was agreed upon, which lasted until 1825, at which date a new "statement" was demanded. Strikes also took place among the paper makers in Kent—the Combination Laws not being enforced, and it is said their existence even was unknown. The men, women, and children were regularly supported during a strike from the club funds.

Strikes occurred in connection with the cloth trade at Wakefield, in 1822, and again in 1824, for an advance of wages. Those who took the place of the men on strike were threatened, but no actual violence was resorted to, except the breaking of some windows and injury to a garden. In 1824 the Yorkshire weavers struck for an advance of wages, and succeeded; one employer had to pay a fine of £100 to the union, as compensation for the loss of time occasioned by the strike. Other strikes occurred in connection with this trade, the masters endeavouring to carry on with non-union men, but they were compelled to give in. The flannel weavers at Rochdale struck in 1823 and 1824 against an infringement of the wages statement of 1815; but as many of the manufacturers supported the men, the others gave in. No violence appears to have taken place during the dispute.

Several strikes occurred among the Scottish colliers, both for an advance of wages and for a rectification of the mode of measurement then adopted as to the output of coal. There does not appear to have been any violence or intimidation. The weavers, calico printers, and cotton weavers in Renfrewshire and Lanarkshire had several strikes between 1810 and 1824, and several acts of violence and some outrages occurred. In Ireland, also, especially in Dublin and Belfast, some strikes took place, chiefly in connection with the woollen and linen trades, and also among the carpenters and cabinet-makers. From 1815 to 1824 the seamen of the northern ports of England struck for advances of wages, and as to the number of hands to man the ships. Acts of violence were common, but no serious outrage occurred; in one case, however, on the Tyne, ten sail of the King's ships, 500 marines, and four regiments were sent to quell the disturbances, and some men were prosecuted.

So far the conflicts between capital and labour were fought under very peculiar, and, as far as the workmen were concerned, most disadvantageous circumstances. In the first place, the workers simply sought to enforce their legal rights, according to statutory enactment, long-established custom, or the ordinances of the trade guild of the industry to which they belonged. Then they had to contend against a series of most tyrannical repressive laws, which prohibited associations for mutual protection and support. The questions mainly involved in the various disputes and

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strikes were almost purely statutory rights—as to the number of apprentices; as to the employment of persons not lawfully apprenticed; as to the statements of wages prepared by the justices, but not enforced, or mutually agreed upon by masters and men, and afterwards infringed by the masters; and generally the hours of labour and conditions of employment customary in the several trades. In some instances the men endeavoured to apply the statutory enactments, ordinances of the guilds, and trade customs to those industries which had grown up since the original provisions were enacted, but which were not specifically included, because non-existent as separate trades at the time. The long struggle of labour for equal rights with capital was severe, and often very bitter; but at last the sad condition of the workmen evoked some sympathy, and obtained some support. Joseph Hume took the matter in hand; a Committee of Inquiry was instituted, and in 1824 the old Combination Laws were repealed. The apparently sudden growth of the unions frightened the masters, who claimed a further inquiry. The demand was conceded, and the Act was reviewed in the following year, 1825. But it was substantially re-enacted, only very slight modifications being introduced and carried.

With the removal of the legal disabilities as regards combination, associations of workmen were formed in most of the leading industries of the kingdom. But in many instances it was an expansion or a development, rather than a new institution. The loose association under prohibitive law, or the secret society; or the combination, partially under the cloak of a friendly society, became a public body, organised for purely trade purposes, with one or two of the old guild objects incorporated, such as funeral benefit and travelling relief. With a freer right of association, the scope of the union was enlarged. Newer developments took place, and the operations of the several trade societies extended to purposes beyond those previously enumerated, though, generally speaking, on the same lines. The strikes subsequent to this date related chiefly to the following, among other matters—Limitation of the number of apprentices; refusal of unionists to work with non-union workmen; limitation of the hours of labour; prohibition of overtime; the increase of wages; uniformity in wages in particular districts—that is to say, payment according to a uniform or standard minimum scale; against piecework; against the introduction of machinery; and against masters who discharged men for belonging to a union, or for taking part in a strike. Subsidiary questions arose out of these, varying according to local circumstances. In the summary of great strikes which follows, care is taken to give examples, as far as practicable, of instances in which some definite principle was at stake, and in which a large number of workmen were interested—either directly, as taking part in the labour struggle, or indirectly, as being affected by the result.

 VARIOUS STRIKES, 1825 to 1847.

Among the Irish printers there were several disputes from 1825 to 1838, chiefly as to the number of apprentices, a minimum rate of wages, and working with non-unionists. There was seldom any dispute as to the actual rate of wages. With respect to unionists working with non-unionists, the rules were so strict that a

member of the union would not set up any simple piece of matter in the shape of a correction, if originally composed by a non-union hand. The printers ultimately agreed to a statement of prices, which statement governed the trade for many years.

The building trades in Dublin were fairly well organised previously to 1838. They opposed piecework, supported a minimum rate of wages, and limited the number of apprentices. There were several outbursts of violence in 1820, in 1826, in 1828, and again in 1836, but there does not appear to have been many regular strikes. Intimidation was often resorted to instead of strikes, as a means of enforcing the demands. In one case, however, there was a strike of plasterers in consequence of the change in the currency; after lasting about three weeks the masters gave in, and a scale of wages was agreed to and settled.

In 1833 the journeymen pattern-setters, or flower-lashers, as they were called, at Paisley struck work, with the avowed object of enforcing piecework, to which the masters were averse. The wages ranged from 10s. to 15s. per week, and the men considered that they could earn more at piecework. Some eight or ten of the hands were prosecuted for leaving their work partly finished. But the rule of the trade was pleaded—"that masters and men could quit each other whenever it suited them;" the Court considered that this plea was proven, and dismissed the case. The journeymen in this trade were alleged to be nearly all young men, under twenty years of age.

The growing activity of trade unions, which so largely developed immediately on the repeal of the Combination Laws, in 1824 and 1825, and which was continued and extended during the next seven years, received a new impetus in 1833, by the establishment of a trade-union newspaper, called the *Pioneer*. But, concurrently with this growth of unionism, the masters felt some alarm at the spread of combination among all sections of the wage-earners, and some efforts were made to minimise its power, and retard its development wherever practicable. There were two ways open to employers—first, by resisting the demands of the men in open conflict; and, secondly, by appealing to the law. As the statutory provisions were weak for their purpose, they sought to apply, and did apply, two legal weapons not before used for the purpose; one was the Act against Administering Unlawful Oaths, the other was the Laws as to Criminal Conspiracy. The first of these was used to crush the Union of the Dorchester Labourers, six of whose members were apprehended, tried and convicted, and sentenced to seven years' transportation—ostensibly for administering unlawful oaths, but in reality for the crime of combination. This conviction was so manifestly unjust, and the sentence was so outrageously cruel, that the case was taken up by the workmen of the Metropolis and the country, and a demand was made for their immediate liberation. A meeting was held in Copenhagen Fields, London, on March 21st, 1834, attended by 400,000 persons; a procession of 50,000 persons, nearly seven miles in length, presented a petition to Lord Melbourne, with 266,000 signatures attached, praying for their release. After some delay, the prayer of the petition was acceded to, and the men were "pardoned," though some of them never heard of it until some years afterwards, and then only by accident.

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Towards the end of 1833 a dispute arose in Derby, but it eventuated in a lockout, rather than in a strike. The masters discharged all the union men, and signed a declaration only to employ non-unionists in the future. About 500 persons in the silk and other trades were thrown out of employment, and, including women and children, about 1,800 had to be supported. Large sums were voted from other districts, and public subscriptions were sent in from the Metropolis and other towns. Over £355 were acknowledged in one week, according to a list published in the *Pioneer*. An effort was made in connection with this "turn-out" to institute a co-operative mill and factory in order to employ the operatives, but the ultimate result of the movement was not so favourable as at first expected. Mr. William Pare was an active supporter of the project, as were also Robert Owen, Dr. Wade, Wm. Cobbett, and others. After a prolonged contest of several months, the men had partially to give in, or, as an officer of the union said, they had to use a stratagem to avoid further suffering, and a total break up of the union. A similar movement on the part of the employers at Leeds eventuated in a like result, the mills being filled with non-unionists, or with men who had renounced the union.

There were numerous strikes between 1838 and 1847, especially in 1842 and 1845, but, other than those specifically referred to, none of any note. In most cases, there were attempts to intimidate the workmen by prosecution, and often the Law of Conspiracy was invoked, because the punishment thereunder was more severe, where conviction followed. But more was done by way of organisation than by labour disputes—many new unions being formed, and some of those long in existence were remodelled or their scope was extended.

 COTTON SPINNERS, 1825 TO 1838.

THERE were about a dozen strikes among the cotton spinners between 1824 and 1838; two of these were general strikes—one in Manchester in 1829, and the other in Glasgow in 1837—involving the same principles in both cases, namely, the introduction of large machinery, and the consequent alteration in the rate of wages thereby. It appears that in Glasgow the average number of spindles to a mule carriage was 300, in Manchester 336. Any variation from this common standard was paid for at a scale of so much per cent for every 12 extra spindles. But, upon the introduction of larger machinery, carrying up to 1,000 spindles, a new scale was introduced involving a reduction from gross wages, as the spindles increased from 300 to 1,000 in Glasgow, to from 1 to 58 per cent; in Manchester, as the spindles increased from 336 to 1,000, to from 1 to 83 per cent. The practical effect of this new arrangement and scale was that the net sum realised by the spinner working 600 to 1,000 spindles only exceeded by a trifling amount the net sum realised by a spinner working 300 or 336 spindles, with about one-half, or even one-third the labour. The proposed alteration entailed momentous consequences to the entire trade. Two general strikes were the result; that in Manchester, with 1,500 members in the union, lasted six months; the one in Glasgow, with 750 members in union out of a total of 1,000 spinners, four months. In both cases the contest was not only long, but was conducted with great vigour; in the end the men were unsuccessful.

ful. The actual reduction in wages earned amounted to 22½ per cent on the average in Glasgow. The actual cost of these strikes is not given, but the strike at one mill (Mr. Dunn's) is said to have cost about £3,000. Altogether, the cost and losses were estimated at £161,380. After these strikes the enlargement of machinery became general everywhere.

In Belfast the severe strike of the cotton spinners in 1825 extinguished the union, so that on the introduction of larger machines in 1837, the wages of the spinners were reduced, contemporaneously with the reductions effected in Glasgow. To this the men submitted, and refused to co-operate with the Glasgow spinners. The hours of labour in all the cotton spinning districts seem to have been the same, namely, sixty-nine actual working hours per week. But the average wages is stated to have been thus:—Belfast, 20s. to 22s., the maximum 25s. per week; Glasgow, 20s. to 40s., the maximum per week; Manchester, 20s. to 27s., maximum per week.

The business of calico printing in Belfast was completely stamped out by a strike. The dispute arose about apprentices. The rules of the union enacted that in each shop the number of apprentices should not exceed that of journeymen; that each apprentice should serve seven years; that each apprentice should pay £5 premium to the shop; and that no apprentice should work at any branch except with the consent of the journeymen. The master desired to add to the number of his apprentices, and he objected to the £5 premium paid to the shop, as he could not find boys enough whose parents could afford to pay the prescribed sum. The men struck; the master persisted in his refusal to comply with their terms; and in the end he retired from the business. The men were thus thrown out of employment, as no other employer embarked in the trade—which, since that date, has never been revived in Belfast. In this union the rules prohibited the employment of women, so that this rule may have operated against continuing the business.

COTTON SPINNERS' STRIKE AT ASHTON-UNDER-LYNE, IN 1830.

In December, 1830, the whole of the spinners and other hands, to the number of about 18,000, in fifty-two factories, at Ashton-under-Lyne, Dukinfield, Mossley, and Stalybridge, left their employment in consequence of a dispute as to wages—the masters offered the reduced price of 3s. 9d. per 1,000 hanks of No. 40's, while the men claimed 4s. 2d. The men at first perambulated the district in vast processions, several thousands strong, with banners flying, and armed with pistols, which they occasionally fired off. The magistrates of Ashton and Manchester issued notices, cautioning the men that these proceedings were illegal, when they were discontinued. On December 18th the masters issued a notice, in which they stated that they had no wish to pay below the fair average price paid in the surrounding districts, and offered to submit the dispute to public examination, and to abide by the result. Without noticing this offer, the deputies of the operative spinners ordered "a general strike of all spinners receiving less than 4s. 2d. per 1,000 hanks, No. 40's, and others in proportion, on Monday, the 27th instant (December, 1830), not one of whom shall return to work until the full price be given." This order was

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intended to apply to the entire district, but only the hands in about 40 mills in Glossop and Longdendale obeyed the mandate, in addition to those previously on strike.

Subsequently the offer of the mill-owners was considered, and the men applied to the masters to fix a meeting. This took place on January 20th, 1831. The masters offered to pay on an average list, or give the 3s. 9d. as at first proposed; the men offered to accept 4s. 1d. instead of 4s. 2d. No agreement was arrived at, and the conference ended where it began. On February 1st the masters resolved to open their mills on the 3rd, to such operatives as chose to resume work on the masters' list price, and all such as did not return to work, their places would be supplied by others. The mills were opened as per notice. Many of the hands resumed work on that day; others subsequently returned when they found that unemployed spinners from other districts flocked to the mills. Many of the old hands were refused employment, either on the ground of being late in accepting the terms, or for having taken part in the strike.

Several very serious outrages occurred in connection with this strike. Some 500 or 600 attacked the workers at the factory of Messrs. Sidebottom and Co., at Millbrook, dragged the spinners into the road, tied them together with cords, turned their coats inside-out, and chalked the obnoxious figures 3s. 9d. on their backs. One master-spinner, Mr. Thomas Ashton, was shot on January 3rd, 1831, for employing non-unionists, and for discharging one man belonging to the union. Mr. Howard, another master, was fired at, as was also Mr. Charles Kershaw, of Mossley. One of the men convicted of the murder of Mr. Thomas Ashton, and the brother of the other, stated that the outrages were done by order of the union. The dispute itself was purely about wages, or the price to be paid for certain work. The masters contended that they paid on a fair average list; the men contended that they paid under a fair price. It was stated in the papers of the time that 20,000 persons were engaged in this struggle, but there is no means of knowing either the cost or the losses sustained on either side.

THE PRESTON STRIKES, 1836-37 AND 1853.

THE strikes in the cotton trade at Preston in the years 1836-7 and 1853 require separate treatment, and therefore these contests are not referred to in the account of the strikes of the cotton spinners at Glasgow and Manchester, previously given. Some peculiarities have been noted with respect to Preston. For instance, it is said that strikes have never originated in Preston, but, having arisen elsewhere, the operatives in Preston have followed suit. Secondly, when a contest has taken place the struggle is stubborn and fierce, and long continued. Thirdly, it is said that, in other towns, strikes have often resulted in concessions to the demands of the work-people, while in Preston they have never succeeded. Many reasons are assigned for these peculiarities, but there is not space to recount or discuss them in this paper.

Many partial strikes took place in Preston prior to 1853, but one only need be noted here. In 1836 much dissatisfaction was generally felt as regards wages in the cotton trades, and concessions had been made to the workpeople in Bolton and other

places. The infection then spread to Preston, and a general strike was the result, lasting for 13 weeks. The dispute itself only involved some 660 spinners, but the quarrel between these 660 spinners and their employers caused the cessation of work of nearly 8,000 weavers, cardroom hands, and other operatives. The spinners having struck, the employers banded themselves together to break up the union. In order to effect this they offered an advance on condition that the operatives would abandon the union. After a stubborn resistance, lasting nine weeks, the masters opened their mills to all who acceded to their terms, and they also imported spinners from other districts to supply the places of those that still refused.

The major portion continued their fruitless resistance for another month, suffering meanwhile an incalculable amount of misery and suffering, and at last were finally compelled to succumb, and accept the terms they had previously rejected. The total loss to the town was estimated at £107,000, but the actual cost of the struggle cannot be ascertained. Indeed, the union was not in a position to spend much money; its funds were inconsiderable, and the relief given to those on strike was very trifling. The great mass of the operatives, both those on strike and those affected by it, were mainly dependent upon public alms for a wretched subsistence during the continuance of the conflict. The most important result of this contest was the adoption of self-acting mules, which enabled employers to dispense with a great many of the spinners, in comparison with the number employed prior to this strike of 1836-37.

From that date to the year 1853 no very important strike occurred at Preston. Partial disputes and isolated strikes did occur, but none of any moment. The operative spinners kept their union alive, and the Masters' Association continued to exist. We find some record of the action of the latter in the disputes which arose in 1846, after which it was inactive until 1853. In the latter year the factory operatives throughout the whole of the cotton districts of Lancashire were on the move for higher wages. The plan appears to have been to take the employers individually, instead of resorting to a general strike. In Preston the spinners and self-acting minders made a general requisition on the employers in April, 1853, to restore the 10 per cent reduction which they had submitted to in 1847—a year of great distress and suffering. It was alleged in the memorial that the condition of the cotton trade in the town of Preston had been flourishing for over two years, and that therefore the employers should not refuse to restore, at a time of prosperity, that which in a time of necessity the operatives were compelled to accept. Some employers promptly and willingly acceded to the request; others granted a partial advance; some absolutely refused any concession, or neglected to take any notice of the memorial. A few isolated strikes took place, which were speedily settled. Towards the end of May the operatives began to organise their movement, and on June 5th a formal demand was agreed to by the operatives for an unconditional advance of 10 per cent, as nothing short of the restoration of an amount equal to the reduction in 1847 would be accepted. On June 9th a circular was despatched to the employers urging them to consent to the advance.

At this time the Stockport operatives, numbering 7,000, were on strike for an advance of 10 per cent, though their wages were then 10 per cent above the wages

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paid at Preston. But it appears that the quality of the goods manufactured at Stockport was better than at Preston, and the cost of living was also higher. Blackburn and Bolton were also involved in this general dispute. The Blackburn employers, for the most part, conceded the advance, and the operatives of that town largely contributed towards the relief of the Stockport workpeople who were still out. In the beginning of August the Stockport employers granted the advance, and the operatives returned to work. During this time the Preston workpeople had been subscribing funds for the "turn-outs" at Stockport, and were also preparing to take their own share in the general contest, unless the concession granted at Blackburn and Stockport was extended also to them.

It is alleged, and is undoubtedly true, that some employers resented the action of their workpeople in subscribing to the funds of the strike, and that in consequence they discharged many of the more active of the leaders. But some of the Preston employers undoubtedly sided with the men; one of them at a public meeting congratulated the workpeople upon the victory at Stockport. But the kernel of the whole question appears to have been in the fact that some of the Preston employers desired the men to renounce the union as a condition precedent to any advance. Preston was therefore selected as the next battle ground. From the middle to the end of August the committee of the operatives were busy holding meetings and organising for the contest. A very curious incident is observable in the Preston strike—some of the employers themselves were ready to grant the advance, and expressed themselves favourable to the equalisation of all the prices paid, so that no master should pay less than the rest. It was upon this basis that the masters combined to resist, rather than against the 10 per cent advance.

At all the mills in Preston, except five, the hands were working at the advanced rate by August 26th; on which date, notices were given to those mills to cease work. The strike at one mill commenced on that day, and at four others on the following day. Before the end of the week one of the masters gave way, leaving only four mills to be dealt with. Notwithstanding this we find that thirty-seven firms in Preston and its district signed the manifesto, issued by the Masters' Association on September 15th, deciding to close their mills until those on strike were prepared to resume work. The responsibility of this step is thrown upon the operatives, but we fail to discover any tangible reason therefor. The masters entered into a bond for the payment of £5,000 to observe the resolutions of their body, and to stand by each other; each master to contribute 5s. per nominal horse-power to the funds. Attempts at arbitration were made, and failed. Prosecutions for intimidation were instituted, and open-air meetings after sunset were prohibited.

The notices expired on October 15th, and on leaving work that Saturday the mills of forty-five firms were locked; two others were under notice, and fifteen were acting independently. The latter did not close during the period of the lockout. The aggregate power of these firms was about 500 horse-power, and they employed 3,000 hands. The total horse-power stopped by the lockout was nearly 3,000, employing about 18,000 hands. The total number affected is said to have been from 20,000 to 30,000 workpeople. But the contest was of much wider dimensions—Preston was for the time only the centre of the battle field. A prolonged strike was going on at

Manchester, while a large proportion of the industrial population of Bury, Accrington, Burnley, Bacup, Padiham, Newchurch, and Rawtenstall were thrown out of employment, the total estimated number being over 65,000 persons.

This industrial conflict was fought with great energy and persistence. Some disturbances took place, and a police proclamation was issued forbidding the sale of songs about the streets, the sellers of which were threatened with the penalties of vagrancy. Subscriptions were poured into Preston in support of those locked out to the extent of £3,000 per week. The London trades formed a committee to aid the lockouts, over £10,000 being collected. The total sum collected appears to have exceeded £105,165. Of this £67,752 were sent to the weavers; £19,839 to the spinners; the remainder to the other branches of the trade affected by the dispute.

On November 4th the masters resolved to give notice that they would reopen their mills on December 5th, from ten till four, for those who wished to apply for employment. Only about 200 applied during the week, but a large number of persons other than those locked out threatened to go to work unless they were relieved, and 673 additional persons had to be provided for during the second week. But the operatives remained out, and the masters continued stubborn. A meeting of the latter was held on December 29th, when they determined to adjourn until January 26th, 1854, as the operatives did not show any disposition to resume work. As the operatives from other districts supported their struggling fellow-workpeople in the contest, the masters of Lancashire determined to support the Preston manufacturers. An important effort was made in London to effect arbitration, but the masters kept aloof. On February 17th Mr. Hollins opened his mill, and his operatives returned to work on terms mutually agreed upon; but this action does not appear to have had the sanction of the operatives generally, for the mill was picketed for some time. This, however, may have been prior to the final arrangement.

On February 8th the associated masters issued another notice to the effect that all the mills would be reopened next day, on Thursday the 9th. Within a week some 1,500 persons had accepted work, and the Poor-law Guardians thereupon refused any more relief to persons able to work. Another 1,000 persons went to work within the next week. On February 23rd the masters held another meeting, declaring their intention to protect those who had returned to work, and then adjourned for a month. They advertised for hands to supply the still-vacant places, and sent emissaries to various parts of the country, and to Ireland, to obtain hands. The importation of strangers caused much indignation amongst the inhabitants, and they addressed a petition to Parliament protesting against "the importation of a large number of unskilled pauper-labourers, brought into the town, and located at the instance of a combination styling itself the Associated Masters of Preston." This indignation manifested itself in riotous proceedings, when all meetings and assemblages were prohibited. But it appears that actual violence was rare. The committees, in all cases, did all they could to prevent any riotous assemblages, cautioning the men "not to find the policemen a job." Now the masters resorted to another extreme measure—the leaders of the workmen were arrested on a charge of conspiracy. This so exasperated the men, that a riot was feared; but the weavers' committee posted a proclamation "adjuring the men to keep the peace,"

as, "to create a disturbance is all that is wanted, for the soldiers are prepared to shoot you down in the streets." After an examination before the magistrates, lasting three days, the whole of the men were committed for trial. But, as the trial was postponed from March 28th to the autumn assizes, and the strike being then over, the prosecution was abandoned by the employers. The prosecution cost the masters over £700. The intention was to get the men tried and convicted at once, but the high-minded judge, Mr. Justice Cresswell, held that the public would have regarded it as an unfair proceeding if the trial took place forthwith, at the then assizes. Its postponement saved the men from probably two years' imprisonment, if not from transportation, as in the case of the Dorchester labourers.

The dispute continued week after week with dogged obstinacy on both sides until towards the end of April, when an incident occurred which hastened the end of the dispute by the utter defeat of the operatives. The outbreak of the Russian war was made an excuse by the Stockport masters to take off the 10 per cent advance. The operatives resented this, and struck. The Preston delegates remonstrated, but without result—nay, they were even insulted and threatened for their interference. This division caused the funds to fall off; the Preston Committee had to borrow £500; the relief became insufficient, and the throstle-spinners gave in. The relief committee, for reasons given, withdrew relief from the cardroom hands; the latter then gave way. On Sunday, April 30th, the committee decided to surrender, and on May 1st this decision was publicly announced. On Monday, May 15th, the men applied for work at all the mills, and the strike practically ended.

This strike lasted seven months, when it came to an abrupt, though not unexpected termination. This contest was unprecedented in the history of labour conflicts; it was fought with obstinate resistance on both sides; the men were, on the whole, generously assisted, and the masters spent large sums, and lost even great fortunes in the struggle. The committees who conducted the agitation and the contest were vilified and accused of dishonesty, but a careful examination of all the balance sheets shows that the total cost, including lots of items well known to a strike committee, was only $11\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the total subscribed; all the rest, or $88\frac{3}{4}$ per cent, was expended in relief to the men and their families. Every committee published a separate balance sheet, in which all the income and expenditure is duly given.

WEAVERS' STRIKE AT PADIHAM, IN 1859.

THIS strike commenced in March, 1859. At that time there were thirteen mills in the place, three of which were used exclusively for spinning. Of the other ten, four remained at work during the strike, while the other six were partially or wholly at a standstill. The operatives worked upon what was called the Blackburn Standard Lists of Prices, fixed in 1852 and 1853. But these lists constituted a sort of basis for calculation, rather than an invariable fixed rate. The actual object of the strike was to raise the prices paid at Padiham up to the Blackburn standard price, which was said to be $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent higher than the rates then given by the Padiham masters. At a meeting held on the first Monday after the notices were served, the masters

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offered a rise of 10 per cent, contending that the other 2½ per cent was only a fair difference on account of local disadvantages alleged to exist at Padiham as compared with Blackburn. The meeting, unfortunately, was an uproarious one, some of the masters being refused a hearing. Ultimately the question of difference was abandoned, as the masters contended that their offer was fully equal to the Blackburn rates.

But other points arose, chiefly as to whether the union should interfere on behalf of its members. The masters resented this; the men stood by their union. Both parties stood upon their dignity; no concession that was offered satisfied either of them, and on March 17th, the notices having expired, the weavers at six of the mills left their looms. The total number who turned out was about 950; most of whom were youths and girls of from 14 to 15 years of age. The masters regarded the strike as not being "a mere question of wages, but one of dictation," and other masters supported them in their resistance. The total sum contributed by the Masters' Defence Association approximated to £7,000. The men were supported partly by the union and partly by subscriptions. According to a list given in the masters' circular of this date, the amount of subscriptions for the week ending May 23rd, 1859, was £425. 9s. 1d. The number of members in the union was said to be 12,000, but in a letter to the *Times* the number is given as 22,000. The number of looms idle was 2,000. In the *Times* letter the masters say that from £5,000 to £6,000 had been expended by August 1st, 1859. A good deal of the discussion at the time related to an employer who settled with his operatives on the basis of the Blackburn list, without any conditions.

Some efforts at conciliation and arbitration were made, but without avail. At last the master manufacturers of Blackburn offered to investigate the matter, and did so. They reported somewhat fully, and gave table rates in an appendix. Their conclusion was that the prices offered by the masters—the 10 per cent advance included—would equal the Blackburn list. The operatives denied this, but the only difference they admitted was "only 1 per cent below on every sort." After some further contention, the matter was taken up by other associations of operatives, who threatened to withhold supplies if the men would not agree to the list as drawn up by the Blackburn masters. Ultimately the operatives agreed to resume work. The strike lasted twenty-seven weeks, but the relief was extended much longer so that none of those who left their work should be punished if they could get no employment. The total expenditure from March 17th to December 28th (forty weeks) was £11,334. 12s. 2d. The average amount paid weekly was £918. 10s. 9d. On the whole, the struggle was carried on without molestation or intimidation. Another strike occurred in 1860, at Colne, with the same object—that of obtaining the Blackburn Standard List of Prices.

LANCASHIRE COTTON OPERATIVES' STRIKES, IN 1877 AND 1878.

The incidents connected with the intensified and bitter struggle of 1878 remind one of the earlier strikes in the cotton trades, as at Ashton-under-Lyne in 1830; at Glasgow in 1836-7; at Preston in 1853; and at Padiham in 1859. The contest in

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1878 is memorable by reason of the numbers engaged in it; estimated at 300,000 hands, directly and indirectly; the cost of the struggle, estimated at £675,000; the losses sustained in wages, profits, and other ways, estimated at £2,700,000; the privation and suffering endured, extending over a period of nine weeks; and the painful events which took place during the period of the strike, some of which created a profound sensation.

The year 1878 opened gloomily for the cotton operatives of Lancashire. In November, 1877, and in some instances earlier, the millowners had met in solemn conclave, and decreed that, on and from January 2nd, 1878, wages should be reduced by 5 per cent. To this proposal the operatives demurred. Trade was admittedly dull, and prices were low, but the men declared that reductions in wages were not the remedy. There had been strikes in various places during the last five months of 1877, with the view of averting a reduction, but none of them were attended with any great success. At Bolton a strike occurred, nominally to restrict the output, but in reality against the apparently inevitable reduction. This strike took place on August 31st, when 950 hand-mule spinners and 850 self-acting winders turned out, the immediate result being that some 10,000 other hands were thrown idle. This strike lasted eight weeks; cost some £20,000; involved a loss in wages, &c., of about £80,000, or a total of £100,000, and caused deep distress—nearly 12,000 families having to be relieved, in one way and another, by subscriptions, and out of public funds. In the end the men resumed work upon the promise that early in the coming year, 1878, the price list should be revised. At Oldham a strike was only averted upon a similar promise of a revised list, to be submitted before February 1st, 1878. But it appears that a second reduction of 5 per cent was enforced ere the close of the year—making a total of 10 per cent reduction. At Ashton-under-Lyne, at Blackburn, at Mossley, at Royton, and at other places there were also strikes, in some localities against 5 per cent reductions, at others against 10 per cent reductions, the latter amount being the ultimate total aimed at by the employers.

On November 9th notices were given of a general reduction of 5 per cent, by the master cotton spinners assembled at Manchester, to all hands, to come into force on the 29th of that month. Other notices were issued on November 14th affecting Oldham and Ashton. Other notices followed involving Accrington, Blackburn, Burnley, Darwen, Harwood, Preston, and numerous other districts. Ultimately a general resolve was arrived at by the employers of North-East and North Lancashire, afterwards extending to other districts, and to the adjoining counties where the cotton industries existed, to enforce a general reduction of 5 per cent on and after January 2nd, 1878. The whole of the Lancashire cotton districts were in a ferment; meetings were held, a paper warfare was carried on, and the operatives generally resolved to resist the proposed reduction. In some cases strikes took place ere the close of the year, as at Macclesfield and at Mossley.

The tug of war which was expected to commence at the very beginning of 1878 was delayed. There was a hesitancy on both sides. At some places the 5 per cent reduction was accepted without resistance, at other places the masters did not at once insist upon the reduction. About the middle of January the manufacturers of North and North-East Lancashire, who had some weeks previously abandoned the

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proposal of 5 per cent reduction, submitted a proposal of 10 per cent reduction as the basis upon which they would meet deputations of the operatives. The proposed reduction of 5 per cent, however, was not formally withdrawn, and at Oldham the weavers struck work on Friday, February 15th, to the number of 1,000 hands. This led to a lockout of some 5,000 operatives, and affected altogether, it is stated, 30,000 persons. The contest lasted five weeks, and cost about £25,000, when the weavers resumed work on the masters' terms.

The final notice of a 10 per cent reduction was given on March 20th by the manufacturers of North and North-East Lancashire, to expire on April 10th. The total number of operatives immediately affected, in the districts of Accrington, Blackburn, Burnley, Darwen, Enfield, Harwood, Preston, and intermediate places, was about 100,000; but other districts were also involved, such as Stockport, Warrington, Macclesfield, &c. In the whole cotton districts some 350,000 looms, it was stated, were in prospect of possible idleness. The date of the notices expired, and during the following week there was great excitement throughout the whole of the cotton districts, but no actual turnout took place until about April 17th, when it was said that some 100,000 hands left work; by the end of the following week it was stated that about 120,000 persons were idle. But more reliable figures published about the middle of May, by which time the masters resorted to a lockout, show that some 70,000 operatives were out by strike and lockout, involving some 200,000 persons, including their families. The number of looms idle was 130,000, and about 8,700,000 spindles; the weekly loss in the average output was said to be equal to 13,000 bales of cotton per week, so that during the first eight weeks the total loss was estimated to equal 104,000 bales. Efforts were made to effect a settlement by arbitration, and at the end of six weeks a vote of the operatives was taken in certain districts as to resuming work, but only 882 votes were given for returning to work, while 13,935 were recorded against it. The loss in wages at this time, in a restricted area, was estimated at £23,000 per week.

The strike and lockout continued for a period of nine weeks, when the operatives determined to resume work at the 10 per cent reduction, though in some places they held out for a short time longer. The contest raged over a very wide area, and involved directly and indirectly some 300,000 persons, including dependants. The money loss in wages was about £75,000 per week; the total loss during the nine weeks was £675,000. Corresponding reductions in wages followed in all the districts which did not participate in the strike, and in places where the 5 per cent had been previously submitted to. The aggregate losses to manufacturers, workpeople, and shopkeepers was estimated to amount to not less than £2,700,000. The privation and suffering of many of the people was intense, poor-law relief being resorted to in numerous places, though in some it was refused.

One of the sad features in connection with this gigantic struggle was the rioting and violence at Blackburn and other places. Mills were set on fire; the house of Mr. Raynsford Jackson was burnt and destroyed; Mr. Jonathan Rogerson, once the secretary of the Blackburn Trades Council, and of the Ironmoulders' Society, of which he was a member, was blinded by a corrosive liquid thrown in his face, at his own door; and 68 persons connected with Blackburn and Preston were indicted, tried,

and convicted, and two were sentenced to fifteen years' penal servitude, one to ten years', and three to seven years', and others to various terms of imprisonment. Some of the cotton districts affected by the dispute and reductions in wages avoided much of the misery and want consequent upon the strike and lockout by timely concessions; but all were sufferers, and none escaped the full extent of the 10 per cent curtailment in wages. The blow inflicted upon the operatives was a severe one, and it was dealt without mercy; this will account for their exasperation.

ENGINEERS' STRIKE AND LOCKOUT, 1851-52.

PRIOR to the year 1850 each of the several branches of the engineering trade had their own separate and independent union. The practice of systematic overtime had so extended in this trade that the workmen in the various branches became very dissatisfied with the practice, and determined, if possible, to put a stop to it. In addition to which, piecework was also extensively resorted to, and this practice was condemned as an innovation injurious to the workmen. These questions, and especially overtime, had engaged the attention of the engineering trades for many years; so far back as 1836 a compromise had been arranged in London as to overtime, which was thereafter to be paid for at an additional rate. The compromise, in so far as London was concerned, seems to have been adhered to, and extra pay was made for overtime. In Lancashire, however, no such general rule existed, and, consequently, disputes were frequent, and strikes often occurred. Indeed, the matters were so often in dispute that strikes, on a small scale, became chronic in the Lancashire district. At last it was determined to deal with the whole matter, and to settle the question once for all.

In September, 1850, a delegate meeting, or conference of the several branches of the engineering trades, consisting of machinists, millwrights, smiths, pattern-makers, &c., was held in Birmingham, when the questions of overtime and piecework were discussed, and a plan of action agreed upon. The most important result of the agitation was the amalgamation of the several small or local unions into one solid body, henceforth to be known as the "Amalgamated Society of Engineers," with the names of the various branches added as a sub-heading to the title, and as indicating the nature of the industries thus amalgamated into one union. The movement in favour of a general union of all the branches of the trade, and their consolidation into one society, was so popular that by the end of 1851 the union had 121 branches in various parts of the country, the total membership being 11,829 members. Its income in that year was £22,807. 8s. 8d.; its expenditure, £13,325; and its total available balance in hand, £22,000. This great expansion and success led the Lancashire delegates to declare "that they were now strong enough to act effectually," a statement concurred in by the members.

The Amalgamated Society of Engineers had from the hour of its birth been pledged to an attempt to abolish systematic overtime and piecework in the iron trades. But the Council of the union did not take any step to give effect to the resolve until July

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1851, when a circular was issued to the whole of the members with the view of ascertaining their opinions as to immediate action, and if so in what direction. Out of the 11,829 members 9,000 voted, and of these only sixteen declared in favour of overtime and piecework. With so overwhelming an opinion in favour of the abolition of these practices, the Council addressed a circular to the masters intimating that overtime and piecework were to cease from and after December 31st, 1851, except in cases of necessity, when, if overtime was resorted to, it must be paid for at the rate of double time. The language and tone of this circular were moderate and conciliatory throughout.

This circular was regarded as an ultimatum, and was accepted by the employers as a declaration of war. An Employers' Association was formed to resist the demands of the workmen, and, as eventually was proved, to try and crush the union. Before the issue of the circular matters became a little complicated by the dispute at Oldham between Messrs. Hibbert and Platt and their workmen, respecting overtime and the employment of labourers in working machines, which the members of the union thought ought only to be worked by mechanics. After some negotiation, the firm consented to a compromise, which the Council of the society regarded as fair; the men refused to acquiesce, and struck, but the Council refused strike pay, and the men returned to work on the condition that the employment of labourers should cease at Christmas, 1851. As the men had determined to strike if the conditions were not adhered to, the masters met after the receipt of the circular and determined to close their establishments should a strike take place.

On January 1st, 1852, the men left their work at the end of the regular day's work of ten hours; and on the 10th the masters closed their establishments, thus making it a lockout instead of a strike. About 15,000 men appear to have been locked out on this occasion. On January 24th the masters issued their declaration to the effect that their establishments would reopen in February to all workmen who would sign the declaration, or document, renouncing the union. Some men returned to work, and after struggling on till the end of March, the society virtually gave up the contest. On March 30th the Manchester District Committee memorialised the masters to withdraw the declaration, stating their willingness to withdraw the circulars of October 2nd and November 24th, 1851; but the masters refused to treat, and stood by the "declaration." By the end of April the men had returned to work, having signed the declaration to leave the union. The sequel shows that this enforced declaration failed of its intended object, the break-up of the union.

The net cost of the strike and lockout, to the Amalgamated Society, was £35,459. 0s. 9d.; but the expenditure largely exceeded that sum, as the total amount paid as donation to men out of work in 1851-52 amounted to £48,670, besides which a large amount was subscribed by other trades, the total being £4,899. 15s. 6d.; and by private persons £4,034. 7s. 3d. The two latter sums were distributed mainly to non-union men locked out by the employers. The total loss of members through the lockout and consequent signing of the declaration was 2,092; but the society recovered over one-half in the following year, and by the end of 1854 the total number of members was equal to that before the lockout. A number of men, rather than sign the declaration, emigrated to the Colonies and to America. This led to

branches being formed, many of which have grown to be healthy branches of the parent society. It is stated that the funds for emigration were mostly advanced by private persons—one gentleman lent £1,000 for the purpose, on their simple bond. All the money so advanced was repaid, with interest.

The object sought by the society was not attained, and much suffering was experienced during the contest; but the institution of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers was worth all the expenditure, for it has grown to be the most powerful and useful association of modern times. The society keeps its own poor, sustains its own sick, buries in decency its own deceased members and their wives, and maintains for its members a rate of wages which could not otherwise have been obtained and continued in this country.

ENGINEERS' STRIKE AT NEWCASTLE FOR NINE HOURS, 1871.

THE strike of the engineers at Newcastle and Gateshead for a working day of nine hours attained something like a world-wide celebrity, because of the manner in which the contest was fought. But the engineers were not the pioneers in the nine hours' movement, even in Newcastle and the adjacent district. The quarrymen of Northumberland claim to have been the first to fight for, and to win, a nine hours' day, after a strike extending over twenty-two weeks, during which time they bravely endured much privation to attain their object. Then followed the masons' strike in Newcastle for the nine hours' day, which was also successful, after a prolonged struggle of eleven months. To this succeeded the strike of carpenters and joiners for a reduction of the working hours from 55½ to 50 hours per week, being nine hours for the first five days of the week, and five working hours on Saturdays. This strike lasted over seven months. These facts show that the "nine hours' system" was a kind of common aspiration among the operatives of all classes along the banks of the Tyne and the surrounding neighbourhood.

The nine hours' movement among the engineering and cognate trades commenced in the Tyneside district as early as 1864 or 1865, in which movement nearly all the towns in the locality were more or less concerned. Some unsuccessful strikes even took place in the Tees district with the view of enforcing the nine hours' day, but they were unsuccessful, mainly in consequence of the depression in trade which suddenly set in, and the money panics which occurred; the movement was therefore abandoned, and the subject was allowed quietly to drop out of notice for a time. Jarrow seems to have narrowly escaped from being the battle field of the nine hours' movement about that time, but it was averted by the conciliatory way in which Mr. Palmer, the head of the large firm by that name, met his workmen and discussed the matter calmly and clearly with them. But the manager of the Jarrow works appears to have discharged Mr. Andrew Gourley on account of his connection with the nine hours' movement. This man subsequently obtained employment at Sunderland, where he revived the movement in 1871, and subsequently became the president of the Sunderland strike committee. The Sunderland engineers took the matter up with avidity and enthusiasm. Their demands having been refused by the employers they went out on strike on April 1st, 1871. The masters seem

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to have determined upon a dogged resistance. They applied for, and obtained the promise of, the assistance of other firms in the district. After about three weeks, one of the largest firms gave way; the masters thereupon became disorganised, and at the end of four weeks and two days the contest ended by a complete victory on the part of the men—the nine hours' system being conceded. Some 3,000 men were concerned in this strike, which was said to have cost about £9,000; but the men were victorious, although, at the time, they were badly supported, mainly, it is presumed, on account of other disputes in other districts—the men in each having their hands full of their own affairs—rather than from any want of sympathy with the movement. Indeed, this is pretty certain from what followed on the Tyne immediately afterwards.

The first meeting of working engineers of Newcastle, in connection with their afterwards famous strike, took place on Easter Monday, April 10th, 1871. The object of the meeting was primarily to render assistance to the Sunderland men who were then on strike. This they resolved to do, and at the same time they also determined to agitate for the nine hours. In the latter resolve the Sunderland men concurred. At a subsequent meeting held on April 22nd, the movement was formally inaugurated, and on the 29th of April the Nine Hours' League was established. On May 2nd a circular was addressed to the employers, requesting that the working hours should be reduced from 59 to 54 hours per week, and soliciting a reply "not later than Friday, the 12th instant." It will be seen that the demand was for 54 hours per week, while in the building trades the strike had been for 50 hours per week. The employers at once met, and resolved that the application be declined. The employers' answer is dated 6th May, 1871. The peculiar thing about it was that the letter was signed by a firm of solicitors. The men were astonished and indignant, on hearing the communication read, to find the letter so signed. At their meeting, on May 13th, to consider the letter, a committee of six were selected to meet the employers, with a view to an amicable settlement. But on the 16th the men employed at a smaller firm hastily went out on strike, contrary to the instructions of the League. This somewhat precipitated the movement. A meeting of delegates took place on May 10th, when the action of the men on strike was condemned, but it was resolved to give immediate notice of a general strike at eight shops, should the demand for the nine hours be refused. By Monday, the 22nd, four other firms were added, so that notices were sent in to twelve firms in all.

On the following day, May 23rd, the employers met, when the following terse resolution was unanimously agreed to—"That united opposition be given to the strike which has commenced." The millers, flour factors, and provision merchants met in the evening of the same day, and resolved "that the wholesale and retail trade determine to sell on strictly cash terms," thus endeavouring to help the engineering firms to crush the strike by a process of starvation. The bankers and other merchants tried to bring about an arrangement or settlement by arbitration, through the mayor. Every effort was made to effect this object, but failed. The employers refused to meet a deputation of delegates, but expressed their willingness "to receive and carefully consider any written communication from the men."

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On May 29th the strike really commenced in earnest. Some 8,000 or 9,000 men were involved in it. The men in the firms not on strike supported those that were. The men employed at Messrs. Stephenson's firm did not join the Nine Hours' League, as the firm did not join the Associated Masters' Association; but they requested a reduction of working hours, and the firm offered to reduce them to 57 per week. This offer, however, the men declined, although they remained at work—many of them contributing to the Nine Hours' League. The men at the North-Eastern Railway works, at Gateshead, also applied for the reduction, but obtained no satisfactory answer. They very generally supported the movement, but many were threatened to be discharged for contributing, and hence their names were not published. By Monday, June 5th, several small firms conceded the nine hours, so that the workmen employed thereat resumed work, and continued at work during the whole period of the strike.

Every effort was made to raise funds, so that those on strike should not severely suffer. The first division of funds took place on June 6th, the second on June 13th, and the third on June 20th, by which time the total number on the books claiming relief was only 3,200, large numbers having left the town, and some having gone back to work on the nine hours' system. The first distribution was 3s. per man, exclusive of any strike pay by the union; subsequently 6d. was added for each child. By the second week in July only 3,046 men were left on the books, and 3s. 8d. per man, with 9d. for each child, was distributed. Much distress was experienced, and some of the men began to waver, especially at the prospect of the threatened importation of foreign labour. But confidence was restored by the prompt action of the League, and firmness was substituted for the temporary appearance of weakness. Funds came in faster, and men found work elsewhere. Towards the end of July the Amalgamated Society of Engineers took the matter up in its corporate capacity, and issued a circular calling for assistance, which was promptly rendered. On August 2nd the employers began to relax, and a placard was issued announcing that on the following day the works would be opened, at a reduction of working hours to 57 per week, with other concessions. The opinion of the men on strike was immediately taken as regards the compromise offered; the men almost unanimously refused the terms. Then the employers sought to fill the shops with foreign labour, and with men from all parts of the country. To meet the expense of this migration and emigration of labour a fund of £21,000 was started by the masters. A large number of foreigners were imported, and a large number of unskilled or only partially skilled men were obtained; but the movement on the part of the masters was strongly resented, not only by those on strike, but by the country generally.

The strike continued week after week, varied in its monotony by rumours, founded and unfounded; by efforts to bring about a settlement; by offers of mediation; by the receipt of large sums from various parts of the country; by the influx of foreign workmen, deputations to the continent to intercept them, or to prevent their coming, and by efforts, successful and otherwise, to induce them to return to their homes; by paper warfare in the local papers and in the *Times* newspaper; and by the distribution of the funds weekly to the persons on strike. At last a rift was seen in the dark cloud, and it appeared just when it looked heavier and blacker than ever.

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Mr. Mundella had made an offer of arbitration, and he visited Newcastle for the purpose of mediation, but nothing came of it, and the men prepared for a prolonged struggle. But Mr. Mundella had laid the foundation, which he followed up by a letter addressed to both parties. Meanwhile, two local men, Mr. Joseph Cowen and Mr. Ralph Philipson (the town clerk), prepared a memorandum of agreement. This was submitted to Sir William Armstrong, who assented to it for his firm, and promised to do his best to induce the other employers to agree to it. Ultimately, after some consultation, the terms were agreed to. The general basis of the agreement was to give the nine hours on January 1st, 1872. Upon hearing this Messrs. Stephenson conceded the demand from and after November 1st, 1871. The strike ended on October 9th, 1872, after lasting 20 weeks. The number of men on strike at the close of the contest was reduced six under 2,000; the total cost would be about £50,000, of which £18,000 was subscribed by the public; estimated loss in wages, £180,000. The gains to the men were, a reduction of working hours by five hours per week, and a consequent rise in wages of about 20 per cent. There was very little disturbance of any kind, but there were several prosecutions by the employers for breaches of contract.

ENGINEERS' STRIKE AT ERITH, 1875-76-77.

THIS was a strike against the extension of piecework, and it commenced on December 8th, 1875. The strike in this instance seems to have been almost suddenly resolved upon, and to have been promptly put into execution. But it was quite on the lines of, and in accordance with, the resolutions of the conference of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, passed at Manchester, on July 29th, 1872. Those resolutions empowered branches to take action promptly as regards an extension of piecework and overtime. Only about 170 men (or 200 in round numbers, as given by the firm at the time) actually went out on strike, belonging to the Engineers' Society and to the Steam Engine Makers' Society respectively. But the influence of the strike extended to other portions of the works, and involved numerous other hands, stated by Messrs. Easton and Anderson to number some 500 men, engaged in departments dependent upon the work of those on strike. As a means of punishment, and with a view to break up the union, the Masters' Association discussed the propriety of resorting to a lockout, but this step was abandoned; instead of which the firm resolved to open their shops on January 22nd, when applications to resume work would be received, on conditions set forth in an "inquiry note," or the old "document" system, of renouncing the union and all its works. The works were accordingly opened on Saturday, January 22nd, but none of their old hands resumed work. By the end of the first week in February it was stated that the firm had sufficient hands to go on with. By the end of the month they stated that they had sufficient men, and that the unionist foreman had been discharged. The strike, however, continued, and the works were nominally closed to society men during the whole of 1876, and until May, 1877, when the strike was declared at an end. A curious episode in connection with this dispute was the institution of a "union" of the non-

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union workmen who took the places of the men on strike. A prosecution was instituted also against several of the union men for picketing. The strike was unsuccessful, but it cost nearly £20,000, besides losses in wages, and the profits of employers, &c. Though fought on a small scale, this strike was regarded as most important, by reason of the principles involved.

THE ENGINEERS' STRIKE IN LONDON, 1879.

DOUBTLESS the victory achieved over the men engaged in the Erith strike led the masters to contemplate retaliation at the earliest convenient moment. The intention was foreshadowed in a circular letter addressed to the master engineers by the secretary of the Iron Trades Employers' Association, towards the close of 1878. In this letter it is stated that a conference is to be held in London on January 7th, 1879, "to arrange preliminaries for the adoption of the resumption of 57½ as the weekly working hours' movement." This curiously-worded document requests an answer on or before January 2nd—the obvious intention being a cleverly-contrived *coup de main*. A copy of the letter above-quoted, and of the circular accompanying it, opportunely fell into the hands of the secretary of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, who immediately issued a manifesto, incorporating letter and circular, to the members of the trade. The manifesto is dated January 3rd, 1879, and commences:—"Fellow-members,—The nine hours' system is in danger, and we have now to explain to you the reasons why it is thought necessary to arrange special measures for the defence of what we believe to be the most precious heritage of our time and trade." The promptitude of the reply, and the attitude of resistance, killed the project. Instead of an attack on the nine hours' system, the masters gave notice of a reduction in wages of 7½ per cent; 22 shops originally gave notice, out of a total of 300, in the metropolitan district. Of those, one-half withdrew their notice within a fortnight after it was given, and subsequently two others followed suit. The strike commenced during the first week in February, when about 1,000 men turned out, instead of 8,300, as was at first contemplated. Two large firms speedily opened their shops, and the men returned to work at the old rates of wages, so that the real contest was restricted to seven shops only.

The number on the strike roll diminished week after week, until the total number fell to about 300. The strike, however, continued over eight months, men gradually going in at the reduction until the shops were filled. The total cost of this strike was about £28,875, exclusive of indirect losses. At the close 293 establishments continued to pay the old rates of wages, and seven shops were working at the reduction, so that neither party could absolutely claim a victory. But the employers were wholly defeated as regards their contemplated attack on the nine hours' system, which had cost the engineers so much money, and even suffering, to obtain and maintain. The men during this strike received on an average 18s. per week, during 33 weeks, so that the privation was not of the character common to prolonged contests of this kind. The battle was fought out by about one man out of a total of

sixteen employed in the district. The reduction affected about 300 or 400 out of 8,300; there was, therefore, a substantial gain on the part of the engineers, even in the matter of wages, in addition to which the working day of nine hours remained intact, and has remained to this day.

MASONS' STRIKE—HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, 1841-42.

ALTHOUGH on a small scale, in so far as numbers were concerned, this was one of the most stubbornly contested strikes ever engaged in by a single society, the objects being confined to a specific matter relating only to one branch of industry. The immediate cause of the strike was the conduct of a foreman, but other questions were involved which gave to the proceedings a much wider significance. The complaints against the foreman were:—(1) That he endeavoured to compel the men to take beer from a particular public-house, supplied by a potman. (2) That, as the masons refused to buy the beer, the foreman locked up the pump, so that they could not get water to drink. (3) That the masons were compelled to sharpen their tools, and to purchase certain tools which other firms supplied. (4) That the conduct of the foreman complained of was coarse, brutal, profane, and grossly tyrannical. The contractors were Messrs. Grissell and Peto. With respect to the beer, Mr. Grissell, at an interview with a deputation from the masons, stated that "he could not make up his mind to allow the men to have any other beer until he had consulted his partner, Mr. Peto, inasmuch as there existed an understanding between them and the brewers of that beer." These understandings were at that time common; they were resorted to in order to avoid the provisions of the Truck Act. With regard to the pump, that was to be unlocked, and the firm agreed to partially remove the causes of complaint as to sharpening tools, and finding those which were customary in the trade. As regards the foreman, concessions were made which led to the hope that all causes of complaint would be removed. For about six weeks an improvement in his conduct was perceivable; but the foreman, it appears, was determined to have his revenge.

Relaxing his old method of exacting a greater amount of work "by cursing and swearing, and using profane and disgusting language," he resorted to other practices which harassed the workmen, and provided him with excuses for their dismissal. This conduct was especially manifested towards all those who had complained to the employers, who had spoken at meetings where his action had been condemned, and who had been concerned in the deputations to the firm. Two instances were particularly referred to during the strike—one was his language towards a workman who had been detained by the death of his wife—in her dying moments he would not desert her bedside. When he got to his work, and explained the cause of his absence, the foreman, George Allen, said "Go back and die with her, and be d—d." The other was the case of Ambrose Prothero, who asked for leave of absence to go to Manchester to bury his mother, and who, because the foreman would not consent to the absence asked for, took French leave, and was away for four days, and on returning to work was discharged. Other cases were also mentioned, such as the case of Thomas Hickey, who was disabled by a fall from a scaffold, and was refused work when he recovered, &c.

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Then came the discharge of the masons who had taken an active part in the meetings and deputations. At last the masons struck work. On Friday, September 10th, 1841, a letter was sent to the contractors informing them that unless the foreman, George Allen, was discharged, they should ask for the back-day on Saturday, the 11th. On that day each man, individually, asked for the wages due, and took away his tools. The strike continued until May 25th, 1842, a period of nearly nine months. The total number of men on strike was about 400. Other branches of trade subscribed nearly £3,500 towards the cost of the contest, but the total cost must have been over £15,000, besides the loss in wages. Only five men went in during the whole period; no case of intimidation occurred, and no breach of the law was committed. The completion of the Houses of Parliament and of the Nelson Column was delayed for several months. This strike was unsuccessful.

BUILDING TRADES, LONDON: STRIKE AND LOCKOUT, 1859-60.

VERY few labour disputes, if any, were more far-reaching in extent and results than the strike and subsequent lockout of the building trades in London, in 1859-60, and which did not in reality end until 1862. It was estimated that at that time there were about 550 master builders in London, employing about 38,000 hands. Besides these there were others, small masters, employing only a few hands, making up perhaps a total of some 40,000 workmen.

The strike was in itself a very trivial affair; it arose upon the discharge of a workman named Joseph Pacey, a mason, who formed one of the deputation to Messrs. Trollope and Sons, to present a memorial in favour of a nine hours' day. The discharge of this one man led immediately to a strike of the masons in the employ of the firm, on July 21st, 1859. The action of the masons was endorsed by the conference of the trades, and the whole of the men employed by Messrs. Trollope and Sons, in all branches of the building trade, were called out on July 22nd.

The nine-hour movement had been growing for some years. It was commenced by the masons in 1853, but an increase of wages was accepted in lieu of a reduction in the hours of labour. In 1858 the movement was recommenced, and the whole of the London building trades took part in it. At a great aggregate meeting held in Exeter Hall, on June 3rd, 1858, it was resolved—"To present a memorial to the master builders, requesting that the hours of labour be reduced from ten to nine hours per day, with the present rate of wages."

The strike of the masons, prematurely entered upon, having been endorsed by the united committee of the trades, and the workmen in this firm in all other branches having also struck, the master builders resolved upon a general lockout of all operatives on the 6th of August, unless meanwhile the strike at Messrs. Trollope and Sons was closed, and demanding that the workmen should sign "a document" renouncing the societies with which they were connected. The total number of men who originally struck work was 312; on August 6th 225 of the largest firms in London, employing nearly 25,000 men, closed their shops. This formidable army of workers, together with their dependants—wives and children—represented over 100,000 persons, all of whom had to be supported in one way or another.

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On September 6th Messrs. Trollope announced to the Master Builders' Association that they had 210 men at work, and on September 12th the master builders opened their shops to such workmen as presented themselves, and agreed to sign the declaration, and work on its conditions and terms. Some men, from time to time, driven by want and hunger, went in; others were brought from a distance to supplant those locked out. The "document" was finally withdrawn on February 6th, 1860, on the recommendation of Lord St. Leonards, and a notice was substituted, to be hung up in all workshops, embodying the law affecting masters and servants, and generally the provisions of 6 Geo. IV., c. 129. On February 27th the strike and lockout was declared at an end. But, as the sequel proved, it was but a truce, if indeed truce it could be called, for the contest did not terminate until 1862.

The total cost of this strike and lockout, and of the subsequent contests which followed in 1861 and 1862, cannot be given; even the most extravagant estimate can hardly exceed the aggregate of the expenditure and losses occasioned by this struggle. The expenditure of the conference of the London trades was £22,750, besides which the bricklayers paid £3,110, the carpenters £5,000, the plasterers £2,370, and the masons £7,650. The enormous losses to trade by this stoppage of the vast building industry of the Metropolis must have been stupendous, and those who took part in the movement can vouch for the fact that the workmen and their families endured intense suffering, in numberless cases extending over two or three years.

The struggle was recommenced by the masters declaring for payment by the hour, instead of by the day. This proposal, it was thought, would finally dispose of the agitation for a "nine-hour day." In this case the several unions conducted their own affairs, without the intervention of a central committee. After another prolonged struggle a compromise was effected which, though not formally accepted, put an end to the contest. The masters gave what they called the Saturday half-holiday, closing their shops at one o'clock, instead of four. Subsequently this was altered to twelve o'clock. Wages were also advanced in subsequent years, so that, in reality, the men succeeded in obtaining an equivalent for the nine-hour day as originally demanded, both as regards time and pay. The indirect outcome of this momentous struggle was quite as advantageous as the economical gains by the workmen, for it led to the political movements which eventuated in the enfranchisement of the masses of the people by the Reform Acts of 1867 and 1833-4.

MASON'S STRIKE AT THE LAW COURTS, 1877-78.

This strike had a two-fold object—an advance of wages of one penny per hour, and a reduction of working hours from 52½ to 50 hours per week. The demand for an increase of wages was first made in November, 1875, but the masters declined to grant the advance. In December, 1876, the masons decided to ask for a reduction of working hours by half an hour each day (in the morning), in consequence of the discontinuance of the early morning trains. On January 27th, 1877,

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a memorial was sent to the master builders of London, in which it was intimated that the resolutions arrived at should come into operation on July 30th, 1877. The masters considered the memorial on February 24th, but deferred any decision till later on in the year. On June 10th the masters were reminded of the memorial, and of their reply, and requested to give some definite answer. On the 12th a reply was received stating that the state of trade did not warrant any increase in wages. The masters were reminded that no notice was taken of the request for a reduction of the working hours. On July 17th a formal reply was given by the masters refusing to concede either demand.

After some further correspondence, a meeting was arranged between the representatives of the masters and the operatives, five on each side. After three hours' discussion, the conference ended without any decision. This was on July 26th; on the evening of the same day the masons met in general meeting, and resolved that on the 28th all men not receiving a promise of tenpence per hour from and after the 30th, should cease work. Accordingly, about 1,700 of the members of the Masons' Society struck on the date named, "scarcely a man refusing to come out." The contest was to prove a severe one. The men were well supported by their union, and by assistance from other trades and shop subscriptions.

As the employers could not obtain competent English masons to carry on the work at the Law Courts, they sought to supply the places of the men on strike with foreign masons. On September 18th five masons landed from Holland. These were, however, induced to return home. On September 22nd some twenty-four German masons arrived; these also were induced to return home. After this large numbers of foreign workmen arrived, some in twos and threes, others in batches—of the latter no fewer than 581 were known to have landed, from Holland, Germany, Italy, France, Canada, and America, besides the isolated immigrants who could not be traced. This importation ceased when it became known on the Continent the object of the masters' agents in engaging men. The influx of foreign labour brought support from English workmen in various parts of the country, but trade was declining and many trades could only express sympathy, being unable, with local demands upon them, to give help.

The strike continued through the winter months, with a large drain on the funds, and not a little distress. On January 31st, 1878, the committee were instructed to obtain a settlement by arbitration, but this the masters refused. On February 11th the central committee of the union submitted reasons for closing the strike. The strike committee issued a counter statement, and the society, by a vote of the whole body, decided to continue the strike by a large majority. On March 7th the men resolved to return to work at 9½d. per hour. But the terms were not generally agreed to by the masters. On March 14th the strike committee resolved to close the strike on March 18th, withdrawing all demands. Thus ended in failure, after a prolonged and severe contest of thirty-three weeks, the masons' strike at the Law Courts. The total cost of the strike was £26,206. 17s. 5d., exclusive of losses in wages, and not counting the suffering endured. The contest was very disastrous to the Masons' Society, but it was conducted in a most peaceable and orderly manner throughout.

THE MANCHESTER CARPENTERS AND JOINERS' STRIKE, 1877.

THIS strike is memorable by reason of the number of men involved in it, its duration, and its cost. On both sides it was fought out with dogged persistency from first to last. In the early part of the year 1877 the joiners of Manchester, Liverpool, Bolton, Oldham, Warrington, and Wigan gave notice that on and after the 1st of May they expected to be paid at the rate of 10d. per hour instead of 8½d. per hour, as then given, and that the working day should be reduced from 52 hours per week to 49½ per week, with some alterations as to overtime, walking time, and other local customs of the trade. The largeness of these demands, and the wide area affected, aroused the master builders of the district, and led to a formidable combination to resist the operatives and their unions. At the first meeting of the Associated Masters, held on February 12th, they resolved to defer action for a month. At the second meeting, held on March 12th, they resolved to support those firms whose men might go on strike, but a concession of one halfpenny per hour was offered as a concession meanwhile, with sixpence extra for lodging money beyond certain distances. On Monday, April 30th, the operatives considered the offers made by the employers, and almost unanimously refused the terms offered. On the following day, May 1st, the men went to their various shops in order to ascertain whether the terms of their memorial were to be conceded, and, if not, whether some reasonable concessions were offered in substitution therefor. No satisfactory offer being made, the men left their work to the number of nearly 3,500, out of a total of nearly 6,000 employed in the district. At the end of six weeks there were 1,400 men still on strike pay. The struggle continued week after week, the masters getting some men from other districts, and importing some from the United States; the Manchester men bravely continuing the struggle for a whole year. The strike lasted fifty-two weeks; the cost is said to have been nearly £80,000, besides loss in wages and profits of over £300,000. The men were ultimately beaten, not even the odd halfpenny, offered at the beginning, being conceded. The cost of the strike to the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and to the General Union of Carpenters is said to have been nearly £30,000, about 1,700 of their members being concerned in the contest.

BOOT AND SHOE MAKERS, NORTHAMPTON, 1857-58-59.

THIS strike arose from an attempt to prevent the introduction of machinery into the manufacture of boots and shoes. Various attempts had been made to apply machinery to this trade, and in 1857 the sewing machine for "closing" the "uppers" was introduced. No serious resistance was offered to the use of the sewing machine in London, in the large towns of the North, or in the South and West of England, by the workmen engaged in the boot and shoe trades. But in the Midland towns—Northampton, Stafford, Daventry, Kettering, Towcester, and Wellingborough—an organised resistance was determined upon. The first of these new machines seems to have been brought to Northampton in November, 1857. Alarm and excitement rapidly spread, and an open-air meeting was forthwith convened, which was attended by large numbers, when it was declared that ruin was threatened to the entire trade,

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by loss of employment, lower wages, and other evils consequent thereupon. A second meeting was held a few days later at the Milton Hall, in Northampton, at which meeting the operatives practically committed themselves to resistance if sewing machines were introduced into the trade.

At the first meeting a deputation was appointed to wait upon the employers with respect to the employment of the new sewing machines, when many of the masters declared that they were unfavourable to their use, and would not adopt them, unless driven thereto by the competition of other masters. This interview seems to have encouraged the men to open resistance. On November 11th the operatives passed a resolution declaring their determination not to "make up" any work for any employer who introduced machine-prepared tops. The men in two shops where these "closed uppers" were being used were at once called out. Nearly all the operatives complied with the order, as did also those employed in a third shop, where similar closed uppers were soon after given out. But a few of the old hands refused to join in the strike, and these were speedily reinforced by a number of fresh hands drawn from the neighbouring villages, under an offer of increased wages.

During December, 1857, and January and February, 1858, meetings were held in the neighbouring towns and villages, and subscriptions were solicited for the support of those on strike. But, although the sympathies of nearly the entire body of the operatives appeared to be in favour of resistance, judging from the meetings held, and the resolutions passed thereat, the funds subscribed were not adequate for the support of those on strike, nor were they in proportion to the apparent enthusiasm evoked. During these three winter months many of the men obtained work elsewhere, so that very little distress was experienced at that period. As no general union existed at this time amongst the operatives, a movement was inaugurated to institute a union. In April, 1858, the Northamptonshire Boot and Shoe Makers' Mutual Protection Society was established, one of the objects of which was, as stated in the rules, to prevent the introduction of machinery into the trade. The great majority of the men hastened to join the new society, but still the number of hands who continued at work was nearly sufficient for the firms whose workmen were on strike, and machine-made tops were made up for the masters elsewhere.

Considerable feeling was evoked in April and May, 1858, against the firms engaged in the strike, and the workpeople who continued in their employ. Several cases of intimidation were brought before the justices, but no serious case of violence seems to have occurred. For some time the strike was confined to the question of machinery, but the Kettering branch of the union complicated the matter by a new rule against apprentices; this weakened the union. The strike continued without success until October, 1858, when it was resolved to extend the strike against all employers who gave work to those who continued to work for the firms struck against after the 16th of that month. The names of the obnoxious persons were printed and circulated. Shortly after this, a shop in Kettering gave notice of a reduction in the price of making up some descriptions of shoes. The men determined to resist the reduction and struck. The general union refused to support them, or were unable to give strike pay. The Kettering branch thereupon seceded, and the general body became weakened and dissatisfied.

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The strike continued until February, 1859, when all the leading houses in Northampton, Stafford, and other places gave notice of their determination to introduce machines, and twenty of the principal shops in Northampton agreed to use machine-made uppers, while seventeen of the employers of Stafford pledged themselves not to employ any fresh hands from Northampton if the men resisted. A general strike was then determined upon. About 1,500 men left the town of Northampton, and went on tramp seeking employment; but many of those who at first joined in the strike returned to their work after two or three weeks. The strike did not on the whole commend itself to the operatives in other towns, nor to the workmen in other trades, so that most of those who left Northampton subsequently returned, to find their places filled with other hands. Much distress was in consequence experienced by those who had engaged in the general strike. Funds were subscribed by various trade societies, in London and elsewhere, but most of the money was expended in providing means for those on tramp; very little was left for the families at home. The strike was finally ended by the employers offering and the men accepting a slight advance in prices for "making up machine-prepared tops." This struggle lasted about eighteen months. No estimate of the losses incurred, or of the actual cost, can be obtained; but it was costly and disastrous to all concerned in all respects.

FLINT GLASS MAKERS' STRIKE, 1858-59.

"THE United Flint Glass Makers' Society" was established in 1844. It was one of the earliest societies which provided support for unemployed members, and superannuation for those disabled by sickness or old age. During the first fifteen years of its existence the union expended some £20,000 in the above and other benefits; £2,000 was spent in support of men out of work during the Crimean war, and £3,000 in 1858, the year of the Indian mutiny, owing to fluctuations and depression in trade. It also assisted the Wolverhampton Tin-plate Workers, the Kidderminster Carpet Weavers, the Preston Operatives, and the Wigan Miners; the Silk Skein Dyers, the Shipwrights, and the Joiners, in the various strikes and lockouts in which these trades had been engaged from 1844 to 1858.

In June, 1858, the rules of the union were revised, when a minimum scale of wages was fixed, and also a rule limiting the number of apprentices. The strike about to be recorded began in October of that year, at Stourbridge, and had reference to the employment of an apprentice to do a journeyman's work, at less than a journeyman's wages. The men at this factory left work at the expiration of fourteen days' notice, on October 23rd. This was followed by another strike early in November, also relating to the apprenticeship rules. Only about fifty men were involved in the dispute connected with the two firms referred to. The masters issued a circular requesting other firms not to employ any of the men on strike. This was agreed to, and some of the firms supplied goods to the masters struck against, when they required such goods for the purposes of their trade. In consequence of this the men determined to call out the operatives in two of the aggressing firms, and notices were thereupon served in the usual way on November 16th, with a threat of further notices should the practice continue. The masters

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replied by a counter notice, resolving to establish an association for mutual protection and support. On December 4th the men held another meeting, and resolved to call out the men from four other factories, unless the masters agreed to their terms. The masters replied by determining upon a lockout, unless the men withdrew from the position they had taken up.

On January 1st, 1859, the lockout commenced at seventeen factories, employing over 500 men; only in seven factories did the men continue at work. By March over 1,100 men were locked out in the districts of Stourbridge, Dudley, Birmingham, Manchester, St. Helens, Warrington, Wordsley, Newcastle, York, Glasgow, Edinburgh, Belfast, and London. The condition of re-employment was the signing of a declaration by the workmen "to give up the Glass Makers' Society." In the face of such a combination of masters, and with a desire to pave the way for reconciliation, the society's rules were modified on January 29th, 1859. The masters took no note of this until March 3rd, when they considered the new rules, and notified further amendments deemed to be necessary. If these rules were so modified, the masters resolved to open their factories on the 14th of March. But they coupled with this another form of declaration, which the men refused to agree to. The rules were modified on March 11th; a conference between the masters and men followed on April 4th. After mutual concessions, the men returned to their work, and the strike ended, after lasting nearly six months. The total cost of the contest cannot be given, but the men were well sustained all the time by the strike pay, ranging from 10s. to 15s. per week per man, according to his position when at work. Though the struggle was severe, there does not appear to have been any violence or intimidation. The result, although a compromise, was favourable to the men.

 THE CHAINMAKERS' STRIKE, 1859-60.

THE principal seat of the chainmaking industry is in the Midlands—at the date of the strike comprising factories at Cradley Heath, Walsall, Dudley, Stourbridge, Wolverhampton, and other places. The number of operatives engaged was about 3,000. The quality of the chains produced in these districts was inferior, and the wages of the operatives lower, than in Northumberland, or in the Glasgow districts. The workpeople also were not so well combined, hence their condition was by no means equal to that of the Newcastle chainmakers, who made the best chains, received the best wages, and had a strong and well-organised union. And these men generously supported their struggling co-workers in the contest to be recorded.

The strike of the chainmakers commenced at Lye, on February 21st, 1859. Under a hundred left their work, because the employer insisted upon the union making good some damage caused by rattening. The outrage was directed against some non-union hands, or men who had abandoned the union. But there was great dissatisfaction existing in consequence of deductions from wages common in this trade. Another strike occurred at a factory close by, in the May following, because the firm had supplied chains to the master where men were on strike. These two

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strikes were still on, when on the 20th of June a resolution was arrived at to demand a rise in wages, and some modifications in the matter of "reductions" then prevalent throughout the district. Notice was served on the masters on July 23rd, that an advance was required on and from the 6th of August. The masters held a meeting in consequence of this notice, and agreed neither to accept the notice nor grant any advance in wages. On the day named all the men left work, except at one factory at Netherton. The masters determined to fight by legal process. Summonses were taken out by two firms at Stourbridge, and one firm at Chester, against the men for leaving work without formal notice, the contention being that a notice served by the officers of the union was not a legal notice, and that each individual must personally give formal notice. At Stourbridge, on August 12th, the magistrates (one of whom was a master-chainmaker) decided that the notice was not a legal notice, but they did not convict, the man giving notice of appeal. At Hawarden, on August 23rd, two men were sentenced to fourteen days' imprisonment, 8s. 6d. costs, and to have £4 deducted from their wages then due. In this case also there was an appeal.

Meanwhile the strike continued. The actual facts in connection with the dispute are difficult to obtain, as the statements of the masters on the one side, and the workmen on the other, vary so widely, both as to the wages earned, and as to the relative amount of the advance demanded, that an expert only can reconcile the statements, if, indeed, they can be reconciled. Both parties protested against each other's list of prices as being inaccurate and false. At last the masters offered to revise the list, if the men would return and work out the fourteen days' notice; the men refused, as they considered the notice given a valid one. Over 2,000 men were out for five weeks, when the merchants stepped in and offered to pay on the advanced list. Some firms resumed work on those terms. Two large firms continued the struggle until November, the strike in this case lasting eighteen weeks; another firm held out until February, 1860, during a period of twenty-seven weeks, the men returning to work on the terms of a fortnight's notice on the old prices, and then on the advanced scale. The total cost of the strike cannot be ascertained, but it was successful, the men, 3,000 in number, gaining about 5s. per week on the average, all round. This contest was accompanied by many serious outrages, followed in two or three cases by convictions. On the whole the men were well supported, both by workers in the district and by unionists elsewhere, and especially by the chain-makers of Newcastle.

Other strikes and labour disputes have taken place in South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire in connection with the chain-making industry, and embracing the nail and rivet trades in the district as well. The wail of woe from the starving strikers of Cradley Heath was familiar enough in 1836. For over six months the men, women, and children engaged in those trades were in a state of semi-starvation, doggedly fighting for a trifling advance in wages. So low were the prices paid, previously to the strike, that the wages stated to be earned were incredible—from 10s. to 12s. the men, and from 3s. 6d. to 5s. the women, working sixty hours per week. The estimated wages which they could earn on the advance asked for were 8s. 6d. per week of 60 hours, by a young woman, and from 13s. to 15s. per week by

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the men. The number of persons engaged in that contest were stated to be over 8,000, including the children, all of whom had to be fed week after week, mostly by the donations and subscriptions of those not connected with the industry. Assistance was rendered by other trades, but altogether insufficient even to supply bread enough for the starving families. The nailmakers obtained an advance first, but the wages only amounted to 8s. per week for men, and 5s. per week for women. The Nut and Bolt Makers' Union, and their secretary, were untiring in their efforts for these poor people, and in the end they were able to obtain some small concessions from the masters to the starving strikers of Cradley Heath.

STRIKES IN THE PRINTING TRADES.

STRIKES of compositors and pressmen have not generally been such as to acquire any notoriety. Usually they are confined to a particular establishment, and if the employer or firm does not give way the "shop is closed." Some few of the London establishments have been regarded as closed for a long period, such as Spottiswoode's, the *Times*, and some others. In 1845 the London employers sought to reduce the price one penny per 1,000 on certain work; the men resisted; after a month's strike the masters gave way. In 1846 and 1847 strikes took place in London and in Edinburgh; in the former case it was a dispute as to apprentices; in the latter the masters combined to break up the men's union; after a severe struggle they succeeded, and thus broke up the Edinburgh Society. The first cost over £500, the other nearly £4,000. In 1858 a strike in Birmingham cost the society nearly £300, but they succeeded in their object. A strike in Sheffield in the same year cost nearly £350, besides which a libel case arising out of the contest cost the society over £1,062.

The work of the printers' societies must not be estimated by the number of strikes which attract public attention. On the contrary, they seem to work unceasingly, in their own quiet way, in maintaining the customs and privileges of the trade, the rates of wages, and prices of piecework, more or less in harmony with their employers. But they have often spent large sums of money in endeavouring to limit the number of apprentices, and to enforce a legal term of apprenticeship. The present condition of the trade shows that, in this respect, they have not been so successful as in the case of wages, hours of labour, and the prices paid for piecework. Notwithstanding the enormous development of printing, the trade is always overstocked with hands.

AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS' STRIKES, 1872-74.

THE condition of agricultural labourers had often been a subject of public comment during the earlier years of the present century, but it was not until 1833 that any real effort had been made to form a union. The Dorsetshire Labourers' Union of that date was squelched by the prosecution, conviction, and sentences to transportation passed upon the leaders in 1834. The terrible tale of distress and endurance

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among the labouring population in the various agricultural districts of England is too large a subject to be entered upon here. Some idea can be formed of the dreadful poverty, the wretched homes, and unexpressed misery to be found in vast districts, solely dependent upon agriculture, by reference to the Parliamentary inquiries in 1841-42, and 1867, and to the earlier volumes of the reports of Poor-law Boards of Commissioners, from 1834 to the date of the National Agricultural Labourers' Union in 1872.

The movement for the formation of this union began in Warwickshire, on February 12th, 1872, the first public meeting being held two days later, and a third on February 21st. Other meetings speedily followed in the locality, and early in March the labourers of Wellesbourne sent in a request to their employers for a rise in wages to 2s. 8d. per day, hours of labour to be from 6 a.m. till 5 p.m., and 3 p.m. on Saturdays, with extra for overtime, the pay for which was to be 4d. per hour. The farmers took no notice of this request, probably regarding the whole thing thus suddenly sprung upon them as a huge joke. On March 11th, however, the labourers of Wellesbourne struck, some 200 men being engaged in the strike. Some of the farmers conceded what the men demanded, others refused and proceeded to evict the cottagers from their homes. On Good Friday (March 29th, 1872) "The Warwickshire Agricultural Labourers' Union" was founded at Leamington, close by. This was followed by a proposal to establish a National Union of Agricultural Labourers, the circular letter as to which was issued on April 27th, 1872, and sent a parts of the kingdom. The response was so great and general that, on May 29th, a National Congress of Labourers' Delegates was convened, and was attended by representatives of twenty-six counties. At this Congress the National Union was founded. At the date of the first annual conference, held on May 28th and 29th, 1873, it was reported that twenty-six district unions had been established, with a total of 982 branches, and over 70,000 members. By 1874 the number of branches had increased to 1,000, with 100,000 members, and the *Labourers' Chronicle* had been established, which reached a circulation of 30,000 copies weekly.

The movement, so modestly begun in Warwickshire, having spread all over the country, the farmers became alarmed, and they determined to form an association to resist the demands of their labourers. But notices were served upon the farmers demanding an increase of wages in various counties, and many partial or local strikes took place. Early in 1873 several larger strikes ensued, followed by a lockout in the Eastern Counties. By means of emigration, migration, and support while on strike, the men were generally successful in obtaining the advance in wages asked for. Early in 1874 further strikes took place, followed by a lockout of 4,000 labourers, in the neighbourhood of Newmarket and adjacent districts, and also by lockouts in East Suffolk, Lincolnshire, and other places. The total cost of these great strikes and lockouts cannot be accurately given, but the union itself voted £24,432. 11s. 7d. during the six months—March to August, 1874, inclusive. Besides this, the branches used their own funds, and various trades contributed liberally, the engineers giving £1,000. Public subscriptions also poured in to aid those locked out or on strike. The aggregate number on strike and locked out cannot be ascertained, but the general result was an improvement in wages all over the country.

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THE CLYDE STRIKE AND LOCKOUT—SHIPBUILDERS, &C., 1877.

THIS industrial conflict attracted more than usual attention, extending over a considerable period of time. The first great strike, also ending in a lockout, on the Clyde, was in 1866, when so much of the shipbuilding formerly carried on in London, along the banks of the Thames, was transferred to the Tyne and the Clyde. With the influx of new work, and possibly with the remembrance of higher wages in the London district, the shipwrights and others in the Clyde district thought that it was their turn to receive some benefit. After that prolonged struggle, in which the men were unsuccessful, the Clyde was pretty free from acute disturbances until 1877, though the shipping trades had felt the up-and-down movements in wages, as well as other trades, and with much the same or similar results.

In March, 1877, the shipwrights, riveters, and others gave notice of a demand for an increase in wages of 15 per cent. The masters refused to comply with the demand, alleging that the state of trade did not then warrant a rise. The other branches appear to have withdrawn the demand, but the shipwrights persisted in it, and struck work to the number of about 3,000, on Wednesday, April 3rd, 1877. The cessation of work by the shipwrights and carpenters very soon caused about 1,400 other men to be idle. After continuing for about eight weeks the shipbuilders resolved upon a lockout, to take place on May 19th, and in consequence there were some 10,000 men thrown idle by the end of May, at which date the losses were computed at £40,000, and the lockout, when it came into full force and operation, extended the number to about 35,000 persons. The strike and lockout lasted twenty-three weeks, the total losses being estimated at £312,000, and the cost to the unions at £150,000. The actual payments by the Boilermakers and Iron Shipbuilders' Society exceeded £13,000. The dispute was ultimately referred to arbitration, after several proposals had been made in that direction, and one after the other refused. The result was a compromise, the terms accepted being extended to other branches of the shipbuilding trades, from Glasgow, to Greenock and Dumbarton.

COAL-MINERS' STRIKE AND LOCKOUT, WEST YORKSHIRE, 1858.

No general strike appears to have taken place in coal mining from 1844 till 1854. As the price of coal was advanced over 62 per cent from 1849 to January 1854, there was in the latter year a general movement for an increase of wages. Many coalowners gave an advance without a strike, but others refused until compelled to do so by a strike or a threatened strike. The estimated rise in wages was 30 per cent, while the rise in prices was 62 per cent; in the former case it was an advance of 30 per cent, or 1s. 1d. per ton, in the latter case it was an advance of 62 per cent, or about 4s. 8d. per ton. This is a fact of importance in estimating the relative advance of wages as compared with an increase of profits. The increase of profits to the coal dealer or merchant was even much greater, the percentage being calculated on the price charged to them at the pit.

When the price of coal fell somewhat, the coalowners determined to reduce the miners' wages by 15 per cent—an amount equal to the advance last given; and it appears that they decided in principle upon a general lockout, if any partial strike

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took place. When the notice for the reduction expired, three collieries were selected by the miners to be stopped until the masters agreed to give the former wages. The masters, on their part, agreed to contribute the 15 per cent stopped from their men towards a fund for supporting those of their own body selected for attack. At this particular time the miners had no general union, though the masters had been in association for many years. The Miners' Union was founded in March, 1858, to resist a reduction. To ensure success, they resolved to limit the output of coal. The first notice of the proposed reduction was given in February, 1858; the strike commenced in March. In September of the same year the masters resolved to lock out their men, and stop the pits, unless the men returned to their work at the pits on strike, and agreed to sign a paper not to support any of the men then on strike.

Nine-tenths of the entire colliers of the district refused to comply with the conditions of the employers, viz., 15 per cent reduction, and a declaration not to support those on strike. About 800 men originally struck; the employers locked out about 2,400 men and boys, so that in October the total number of men stopped was about 3,200. The struggle continued until the end of November, when one of the employers agreed to a $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent reduction in wages, instead of 15 per cent, and withdrew all conditions as to signing the document not to support those still out. Other masters soon followed, and the strike and lockout ended before the close of the year. Though the contest was supposed to be ended on December 18th, 1858, there appears to have been a continuance in some districts until June 6th, 1859.

The total cost of this contest was estimated at £100,000, of which £53,725. 4s. 1d. fell on the men. But the loss was a partial gain, for the reduction was only $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, instead of 15 per cent, so that £13,282. 10s. per annum was secured to the men by this long and expensive struggle, in addition to which they won back the $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent reduction within the following year. The net result, therefore, was a gain in three years equal to the entire cost of the nine months' contest. Several efforts to bring about a termination of the conflict by arbitration were attempted, but none of them were successful. The men were favourable to arbitration; the masters were averse to it, and refused. The miners, as a result of their struggle, did much to perfect their organisation; and they were taught lessons of economy, thrift, and prudence by the severe and prolonged contest, and the misery they had to endure.

YORKSHIRE MINERS—1874 AND 1885.

ONLY two other strikes of any great magnitude have taken place among the Yorkshire miners during the last fifteen years. The first of these occurred in October, 1874, against a reduction of 25 per cent in wages, following after the high rates obtained when coal was at "famine prices" in 1872-73. About 20,000 men and boys were concerned in that strike, which lasted six weeks, and cost about £40,000. The dispute was ultimately settled by arbitration, when a reduction of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent was agreed to, or only one-half the amount attempted to be enforced by the coalowners. The cost of this great strike was borne wholly by the miners, who levied themselves 2s. 6d. per man to recoup the union for the large expenditure incurred. The estimated loss in wages and other ways was over £150,000.

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The second great strike occurred in April, 1885, against a further reduction of 10 per cent. This strike lasted nine weeks; nearly 20,000 men and boys were involved in it, and it cost the union some £10,000, while the loss in wages and other ways was nearly £100,000. After about six weeks' struggle the reduction was enforced. The non-union men, who in this instance were the chief instigators of the strike, rushed back to work, because the union could not give them sufficient allowance out of the funds to keep them out on strike. The leaders of the union appear to have been averse to this contest, seeing that successful resistance to the proposed reduction was impossible. The first of the two strikes mentioned was obviously successful, as only one-half of the attempted reduction was submitted to, and the men cheerfully contributed to the cost. In the second case there were signs of weakness, as the non-union element was strong, and the union was not in a position to endure the strain of a prolonged contest in a depressed market.

THE NORTHUMBERLAND MINERS' STRIKES, IN 1877 AND 1887.

THE Northumberland Miners' Union has been in existence for over twenty-five years, during which period only two general strikes of great magnitude have occurred, though several partial strikes had taken place in particular districts, or at isolated collieries. The first of these took place on May 28th, 1877, against a proposed reduction in wages of 10 per cent for the getting of hard coal, and of 15 per cent for getting soft coal in the several mining districts. The question was, however, complicated with matters relating to free house rent and fuel, involving a further reduction of 12½ per cent, or a total of about 25 per cent in all, on the average. The number of men and boys engaged in that strike was about 14,000, of whom some 12,000 were working colliers. But nearly the whole of the 40 collieries in the county, numbering some 56 pits, and employing 21,250 persons, were involved in the industrial conflict. The men in the first instance offered unconditional arbitration; this was refused. The masters also offered arbitration on the basis of the proposed reduction; this the men refused. The strike lasted about eight weeks; it cost the union nearly £56,000; the estimated loss in wages and other ways being about £160,000. Ultimately the whole matter was referred to arbitration, when the umpire decided that no reduction should take place, but recommended that the cost of production should be lessened wherever possible. Prior to the arbitration the masters had withdrawn the proposals as to rent and fuel.

The second great strike took place on January 25th, 1887, against a proposed reduction of 15 per cent in the wages of the principal portion of the miners, and of 10 per cent in the wages of the remainder. It is alleged that negotiations were pending, and that a settlement was almost arrived at, for accepting a reduction of 10 per cent all round, at the commencement of the dispute, and before the strike actually took place. But some of the men were dissatisfied with the proposals, which dissatisfaction was fanned into resistance by men wholly unconnected with the district. The strike lasted about seventeen weeks; some 14,000 persons were engaged in the contest; and about £40,888 was spent, about £10,888 of which was subscribed outside the union. The estimated loss in wages and other ways to the locality was

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about £218,627. At the commencement of the strike the funds of the union were £30,000, all of which was expended. In the end a reduction of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent was enforced all round. No serious outbreak of violence took place in connection with these strikes, although much excitement existed in the district. In Northumberland generally, all such disputes have been usually settled by arbitration, on the basis of a sliding scale.

DURHAM COAL TRADES.

IN January, 1879, the colliery owners of Durham sought to enforce a reduction in wages to the extent of 20 per cent on the workmen employed underground, and of 15 per cent on those working on the surface. After consultation, and some delay, the miners offered to accept a reduction of 10 per cent and $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent respectively. This the colliery owners declined, but agreed to accept 15 per cent and 10 per cent respectively, instead of adhering to the 20 per cent and 15 per cent, as at first intimated. The workmen, however, adhered to their offer. Thereupon the owners gave the usual notices, and the men left the pits. For six weeks the entire county was idle, in so far as mining was concerned; not a single man went to work during the whole time. The estimated loss in wages was "at least £400,000," while the total number of miners and others involved was about 70,000 men.

The matter was then referred to Judge Bradshaw, who gave to the owners a provisional reduction of $8\frac{3}{4}$ per cent for underground workmen, and $6\frac{3}{4}$ per cent for surface men. The question was finally submitted to Lord Derby, as umpire, who, after three days of careful inquiry, awarded a reduction of 10 per cent and of $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent respectively (precisely the amount of reduction offered by the men weeks before the strike took place), and even pressed the owners to accept it. It is evident that the owners were responsible for that enormously costly contest.

THE MATCHMAKERS' STRIKE, JULY, 1888.

THE latest development of these labour conflicts took place on July 5th, 1888, among the match girls at Messrs. Bryant and May's factory, at Bow, in the East of London. The match-girls were first heard of publicly in April, 1871, when some 5,000 of them marched to Westminster, on a Monday afternoon, to present a petition to Parliament against Mr. Robert Lowe's Budget proposals, putting a tax on lucifer matches. On this occasion the girls managed to slip through the ranks of the police, and made considerable stir in Palace Yard, and even invaded the sacred precincts of Westminster Hall. The protest of the irate match-girls was effective, the Budget proposal as to taxing matches was withdrawn, and the doughty Chancellor of the Exchequer was removed to the Home Office, there to take charges among other matters, of the peace of the Metropolis, and prevent riotous assemblies therein and elsewhere.

The recent strike took place on the dismissal of a girl for disobeying orders as to cutting a larger number of double lengths through the centre at one time than the foreman deemed safe, expedient, or advisable. The girl was reinstated at once, on declaring that she was ignorant of the order, as had two or three others previously.

Meanwhile, however, the news of the dismissal spread through the factory, and some 1,400 women and girls, resenting the action of the foreman, struck work. When told that the girl was reinstated, they said it did not matter, as they meant to have higher wages, or leave their work. No doubt the strike was for better wages: the simmering dissatisfaction simply exploded when the incident referred to took place. The system of fines and stoppages in vogue at the works was alleged as another cause of dissatisfaction, as well as the low wages; but some of the charges made were denied by the firm.

Much excitement and commotion was caused by this strike, because, perhaps, of its novelty, as well as by reason of the poverty of the workers, and of the public character of the firm in question. There was not the semblance of any union amongst the girls, and what funds were obtained for their support were collected, by those outside, from the public. It was generally admitted that the wages of the workpeople were very low, and some of the girls regarded the order not to cut so many matches at one time as an indirect means of lowering the wages still more. This, however, was denied by the foreman, and by the firm, the latter declaring that the entire proceedings were got up by persons outside the factory, and even foreign to the locality.

After about a week, steps were taken to bring about a settlement, and at last the entire matter was referred to the London Trades Council. A meeting was arranged between the firm and a deputation from the council; the whole of the questions involved in the strike were carefully considered, and an agreement was arrived at which put an end to the strike. It is to the credit of both parties to the reference that the decision was accepted in an amicable spirit. One fact alone shows how great an advance has been made in connection with these disputes—the sensitiveness of employers to public opinion, whether expressed by public meetings or in the press. The matter was even discussed at a meeting of the shareholders held soon after the strike, when assurances had to be given that the wages were not so bad as represented, and that the specific complaints made should be attended to in future. The first appearance in public of the match girls was on behalf of the employers; the second was on their own behalf—in both instances they were successful.

SUNDRY STRIKES NOT INCLUDED IN THE FOREGOING LIST.

SPACE will not permit of further examples in detail, but the following list will show that the record is by no means exhausted. Only a few facts can be here given of some strikes, rather memorable in their character at the time they occurred, in one aspect or another. These are simply selected by way of illustration, to show the extent and variety of labour disputes and their results. The following resulted in prosecutions; in some cases convictions and sentences followed, but not in all of them:—

A. The Tailors' Strike in London, in 1867.—Sixteen of the leaders were indicted for conspiracy, but, after conviction, all were discharged on their own recognisances, excepting one who was found guilty of an assault, and was sentenced to three months' imprisonment.

The gas-stokers' strike at Becton, in 1872, when five men were prosecuted, convicted, and sentenced to twelve months' imprisonment, the term being afterwards reduced to four months, after a long and arduous struggle on the part of the trade unions of the whole country.

The shoemakers' strike at Bethnal Green, in 1877.—In this case, also, some of the leaders were prosecuted for picketing; they were convicted, and sentenced to imprisonment.

The bricklayers' strike at Messrs. Doulton's, Lambeth, London, in 1877.—Some of the men were prosecuted for picketing, although even the prosecutors admitted that there was an absence of violence.

The cabinet-makers' strike at Messrs. Peter Graham's, Oxford Street, London, in 1877.—In this instance, also, some of the men were prosecuted for picketing, and sentenced to imprisonment.

B. Ironworkers.—The ironworkers' strike in Staffordshire, in 1865, was against a reduction in wages amounting to 10 per cent. The masters retaliated by a lockout of 30,000 workers, so it was stated, and involving directly and indirectly some 200,000 persons, who were deprived of their means of subsistence. These men, in the end, were compelled to submit to the masters' terms, but the total cost, losses in wages, and losses to the employers were enormous.

The great strike of the ironworkers at Middlesborough, in 1866, was against a reduction in wages; the strike lasted 18 weeks, 12,000 men are said to have been idle, and the losses were estimated at £180,000 in wages, profits, &c., &c.

The strike of the ironworkers at Leeds and Low Moor, in 1866, was also against reductions in wages. The total number of men engaged in it was 1,560, they were out 12 weeks, and the cost and losses were estimated at £36,190.

C. Building Trades.—The strike of the bricklayers and labourers at the New Prison, Manchester, in 1864, against an infringement of trade rules, lasted 13 weeks; the carpenters followed suit, and were out seven weeks. The total cost was stated to be £1,800, exclusive of losses. From that date to the present over 100 strikes have taken place in the building trades, other than those enumerated, with varying results, but generally speaking wages have been advanced and the hours of labour reduced by means of the unions. The great strike of the building operatives of London, in 1872, lasted 12 weeks, some 10,000 men were engaged in it, and it cost quite £120,000. But that strike finally fixed the wages for a long period, and ended in a further reduction of working time on Saturdays, the men thereafter leaving work at 12 o'clock, thus gaining the full Saturday half-holiday.

D. Staffordshire Potteries.—The strike and subsequent lockout of the potters in Staffordshire, in 1866, was with reference to the mode of hiring. After lasting some time the matters in dispute were compromised and settled, but not until some £70,000 was lost in wages and profits to those engaged in the contest. There were about a dozen other strikes in the pottery trades from 1870 to 1880, one of which lasted nine weeks, and cost £3,600, exclusive of wages losses and other losses to the district.

E. Cotton Operatives.—In addition to those already enumerated, the following strikes, among others, appear to have taken place in connection with the cotton industries during the last 20 years. The cotton operatives have turned out at

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Wigan, Perth, Oldham, Glasgow, Macclesfield, Carlisle, Stockport, Leigh, Todmorden, Ashton, Bolton, Bristol, and about a dozen other places. The number of persons engaged in those 25 strikes was about 82,500; the strikes lasted from one to 22 weeks each, respectively; and the aggregate cost is estimated to have been over £180,200.

F. Colliers and Miners.—The strikes among the miners have been very numerous. Besides those given previously, the men went out on strike at some 35 collieries; the total number of men engaged in these strikes was 102,930; the duration of the contests was from 1 to 26 weeks each respectively, the total being 155 weeks; and the aggregate cost, as estimated, was about £396,860. Of these the more important have been: South Wales, 1871, when 18,000 men were out for 12 weeks, costing about £216,000; in 1872, when 2,000 men were out one week, costing £2,000; and again in 1873, when 70,000 men were out 11 weeks, costing £770,000. At Wishaw 1,000 men were out 10 weeks, costing £10,000; at Bestwood 2,000 men were out nine weeks, costing about £18,000; at Rawmarsh, 250 men were out 15 weeks, costing £3,750; at Leeds 2,000 men were out 11 weeks, costing £22,000; at Denaby Main 700 men were out 10 weeks, costing £7,000; at Manvers Main 1,000 men were out 26 weeks, costing £26,000; at Bristol, 500 men were out 12 weeks, costing £6,000.

In addition to the above, and not included in those previously given, there was a strike of 30,000 miners in West Lancashire, on June 6th, 1877, against a reduction of 10 per cent in wages. After a contest lasting six weeks, the men resumed work on the masters' terms. The estimated cost of this strike was £250,000. In May of the same year 6,000 miners of Fife and Clackmannan were locked out for refusing to submit to a 10 per cent reduction. After a severe struggle, the men had to give in. The total loss of this strike was estimated at £190,000, of which £40,000 represented wages alone.

MISCELLANEOUS STRIKES SUMMARISED.

THE strikes specifically dealt with in the preceding pages are not a tithe of the total of recorded strikes during the period. These contests seem to recur periodically, with variations. During the ten years 1870 to 1879, inclusive, there were 2,352 strikes recorded by Mr. Bevan, in the journal of the Statistical Society; but in that list some were omitted, especially in 1874 to 1877 inclusive. But, taking the list as given, the 1,122 strikes during 1870-74 were, generally speaking, for an advance of wages and a reduction in working hours; the 1,230 during 1875-79 were against reductions in wages mainly, or against an increase of working hours. There were some exceptions to this rule, but they were comparatively few in number.

The distribution of strikes during this period, according to trades, was as follows: Building trades, 598; iron and metal trades, 390; colliers and miners, 339; textile trades, 277; clothing and tailoring trades, 163; shipping trades, 140; pottery and glass trades, 63; wood trades, 63; stone trades (other than masons), 54; food and drink trades, 39; carrying trades, 35; carriage building trades, 33; leather trades (other than boot and shoe trades), 28; fibre trades, 22; agricultural trades, 18;

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leaving some 90 other strikes of a miscellaneous character. Of the 598 accredited to the building trades, the carpenters stand first with 187 strikes, the masons next with 151 strikes.

Taking the strikes during this period geographically we find that Scotland stands in the list with 473 strikes, chiefly in connection with the coal, iron, textile, and shipping trades; North and South Wales, 175 strikes—coal, iron, shipping, and mining; Ireland, 65 strikes—linen and shipping chiefly. Then we have Yorkshire with 388 strikes; Lancashire, 159 strikes; Northumberland, 138 strikes; Durham, 131 strikes; all these were connected with mining, the iron and textile trades, and shipping. Staffordshire comes next with 80 strikes, connected with the coal and iron trades, hardware and pottery. Middlesex shows 58 strikes, chiefly in connection with metal, wood, and decorative trades. Warwickshire stands for 52 strikes, chiefly in the coal trades; Gloucestershire, 51 strikes—shipping and agriculture; Monmouth and Cumberland, 33 and 32 respectively—coal, iron, and shipping trades; Nottingham and Derby, 30 and 28 respectively—coal and textile trades; Cheshire, 26 strikes, chiefly shipping and agriculture; Worcestershire, 24 strikes—coal and iron mainly; Leicestershire, 23 strikes—coal and textile trades; Kent and Cambridge, 20 and 19 strikes respectively—agriculture; Suffolk, 11 strikes—agriculture; Northampton, 11 strikes—leather trades and mining; Norfolk, 9; Hampshire, 5; Salop, 4; Westmorland, 4; Sussex, 3; Essex, 1, respectively—chiefly in connection with agriculture, mining, and shipping. This grouping by counties shows the peculiar tendency of strikes according to occupation, as well as in relation to population.

A compiled list of 114 strikes during this period shows that 577 weeks were lost in those strikes alone, involving a cost of £4,468,950; no fewer than 592,230 men being concerned in them. But in the totals previously given the number of weeks lost is set down as 9,027, or 54,162 working days. The aggregate losses in wages, profits, and other ways must, therefore, have been enormous during the ten years 1870 to 1879 inclusive. But this was a period of strike epidemics, not to occur again, let us hope.

Since 1879—that is, from the year 1880 to the close of 1888 inclusive—there have been numerous strikes, but nothing like the proportionate number of those recorded in the previous decade. Generally speaking, the strikes during the last eight years have been for the maintenance of advantages obtained and enjoyed, or, in a few cases, for winning back some of the advances which had been gained, but which were lost prior to 1880. The condition of trade generally, the keenness of competition, and the consequent smallness of profits, have combined to render strikes inopportune.

This paper has extended to such a length, by the mere recital of the principal facts connected with the chief strikes that have taken place in this country, that there is little room for any observations on their policy or results. Indeed, comment is almost superfluous. The record, brief as it is, tells its own tale, and points its own moral. Some few conclusions, however, may be drawn from the annals of these industrial conflicts. Political economists allege that strikes in a falling market fail, while those with a rising market succeed. Generally and broadly speaking, this is true to a certain extent. Strikes for an advance of wages have more generally been successful than strikes against an attempted reduction in wages; the former usually

take place when markets have an upward tendency, the latter when trade is declining, and prices are going down. But strikes against reductions have often been successful, and frequently they prevent wages going down to the level which they might have reached but for resistance.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS.

THE lessons taught by the numerous strikes recorded in the preceding pages appear to be these:—(1). Strikes for an advance of wages usually succeed, either wholly or partially. (2). Strikes to resist a reduction seldom entirely succeed, but they often end in a compromise. (3). Strikes for a reduction of the hours of labour are more persistently contested by employers; they are more prolonged, more bitter, and more costly than mere wages strikes; and they seldom attain the immediate object for which they were inaugurated. But the Saturday half-holiday is almost wholly a result of long-contested struggles for a shorter working day. The employers have preferred giving a Saturday half-holiday to a uniformly shorter day during the first five days of the week. (4). Strikes against overtime have proved so successful that, in nearly all trades, extra is now paid for all the overtime worked, and if actual night-work is required, additional pay is conceded. (5). There have been strikes for and against piecework according to the nature of the industry. In many trades the introduction of the piecework system has been successfully resisted. The customs of trade are so various that each dispute relative to piecework must be considered on its own merits separately, according to the nature of the employment. In this particular, general maxims do not quite apply. (6). With respect to apprentices, both as to the limitation of the number and also the enforcement of a definite term, strikes have been uniformly unsuccessful. Some have been partially successful for a time, but in the end nothing but failure has attended the costly strikes to enforce the old customs and regulations relating to apprenticeships. (7). Strikes against the employment of machinery have always failed. In some instances the use of machinery in a particular handicraft was delayed for a brief period, but generally a strike to prevent its use gave an impetus to its further development. (8). Strikes against individual foremen have, as a rule, been unsuccessful, though there have been instances in which removal has followed; even then, however, the man was not usually discharged. (9). Strikes against the employment of non-unionist workmen were at one time frequent, costly, and bitter. Partial success attended some of them in particular trades or districts, but for the most part they have been disastrous failures. (10). Similarly, lockouts to compel workmen to renounce their union have, in almost every case, utterly failed of their object.

Two final conclusions may be drawn from this record:—(a) Regret that these labour disputes cannot be avoided, and a system of conciliation and arbitration be substituted therefor; (b) Regret that co-operative production should not more generally be adopted, whereby the producer, the distributor, and the consumer should mutually enjoy the full benefits of the creative industry of the nation.

R A T I N G .

THE present system of rating dates back to the time of Queen Elizabeth, but prior to that time it was one of the ordinances of Edward I. "that the poor should be maintained by parsons, rectors of the Church, and by the parishioners, so that none of them die for want of sustenance." There is little doubt that at the time when this ordinance became law, it was merely reducing into writing what was then understood to be the common law of the land, and that the principles of parochial relief, and the duty to administer it, are as ancient as the origin of parishes themselves. It would be foreign to the subject in hand to refer to the various laws prohibiting relief, beyond a certain period, to certain classes who were not considered worthy objects of relief. The objects, which all legislation appears to have had in view, were to test the destitution of those applying for relief, to find suitable work for those capable of performing it, and to relieve those who were really destitute.

From time to time Acts of Parliament were passed bearing on the subject of relief, each successive Act amending some part of a previous Act which was not found to work satisfactorily, but still with the objects kept well before them of the true principles on which relief should be administered. These principles seem to have been that those who could work should be compelled to work, the "sturdy vagabond" should be imprisoned, and those who were actually destitute should be relieved.

The Act of 43 Eliz., chap. 2, was the first Act under which a proper system of raising funds for the relief of the poor was inaugurated. By this Act it was enacted that "the Churchwardens of every parish, and four, three, or two substantial householders there, as shall be thought meet, having respect to the proportion and greatness of the same parish or parishes, to be nominated yearly in Easter week, or within one month after Easter, 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 where the same parish doth lie, shall be called Overseers of the Poor of the same parish. And they, or the greater part of them, shall take order from time to time, by and with the consent of two or more such Justices of Peace as is aforesaid, for setting to work the children of all such whose parents shall not by the said Churchwardens and Overseers, or the greater part of them, be thought able to keep and maintain their children; and also for setting to work all such persons, married or unmarried, having no means to maintain them, and use no ordinary and daily trade of life to get their living by; and also to raise, weekly or otherwise (by taxation of every inhabitant, parson, vicar, and other, and of every occupier of lands, houses, tithes, impropriate, propriations of tithes, coal mines, or saleable underwoods in the said parish, in such competent sum or sums of money as they shall think fit), a convenient stock of flax, hemp, wool, thread, iron, and other

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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 for the putting out of such children to be apprentices, to be gathered out of the same parish according to the ability of the same parish, and to do and execute all other things, as well for the disposing of the same as otherwise concerning the premises as to them shall seem convenient."

The law and practice of rating are based on this statute of Elizabeth. Certain classes of property have, however, since been exempted by the Legislature, and in some other cases property not mentioned in the statute of Elizabeth has become ratable.

Speaking generally, the following classes of property are exempt from rating either wholly, or the extent to which they can be rated is limited by statute:—

- Statute 3 Geo. IV., c. 126—Turnpike Roads.
- „ 3 and 4 Will. IV., c. 30—Churches and Chapels.
- „ 3 and 4 Vict., c. 89—Stock-in-Trade.
- „ 6 and 7 Vict., c. 36—Literary and Scientific Institutions.
- „ 16 and 17 Vict., c. 97—Lunatic Asylums.
- „ 17 and 18 Vict., c. 104—Lighthouses.
- „ 17 and 18 Vict., c. 105—Militia Storehouses.
- „ 18 and 19 Vict., c. 128—Burial Grounds.
- „ 23 and 24 Vict., c. 112—Fortifications.
- „ 26 and 27 Vict., c. 65—Volunteer Storehouses.
- „ 31 and 32 Vict., c. 110—Government Telegraphs.
- „ 32 and 33 Vict., c. 40—Sunday and Ragged Schools.

Crown property is also exempt when solely occupied for Crown purposes.

Subject to the total or partial exemptions conferred by the statutes, all properties beneficially occupied are ratable to the poor rate, and also to all other rates based on the poor rate valuation.

There are several rates levied, varying in different districts according to the mode in which such districts are governed, based on the assessment to the poor rate.

Under the statute of Elizabeth before referred to, the appointment of Overseers had to be made by two or more Justices yearly, in Easter week, or within one month after Easter. It was found inconvenient that the time of appointment should be regulated by a movable feast, and accordingly by the Act 54 Geo. III., c. 91, it is provided that the appointments shall be made in every year on the 25th of March, or within fourteen days after that date. In counties the Overseers are to be appointed by two or more Justices of the Peace of the county, dwelling in or near the parish or division where the parish lies; but in a city or borough, the appointments may be made by Justices having jurisdiction therein, whether they are Justices of the city or borough, or of the county, riding, or division comprising the same or adjoining thereto.

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It is the practice in many parishes for the Vestries to nominate persons for appointment by the Justices, but such Justices are not bound to appoint the persons so nominated, as the appointment vests in the Justices alone. If more than four Overseers are appointed for a parish the appointments are bad. To assist the Overseers, assistant overseers may be appointed. In certain cases the appointment of an assistant overseer may be made by the Vestry. If, however, there is an order in force in the parish, issued by the Poor-law Commissioners, the Poor-law Board, or the Local Government Board, for the appointment of an assistant overseer or collector by the Guardians, the Vestry and Justices cannot appoint an assistant overseer.

Formerly the valuation of property for poor rate purposes was made by the Overseers of the Poor, with powers of calling in the assistance of professional valuers to assist them, with the consent of the Guardians. Such assessment is now made under the provisions (outside the Metropolis) of the Union Assessment Committee Acts. The Metropolis is under a special Act, under which a new valuation is made every five years. The first of these Acts was passed in the year 1862. Several amending Acts have been since passed; it is not, however, intended to refer to the particular Act conferring the power, but to state generally the mode in which assessments are now arrived at.

Under the Act it is the duty of every Board of Guardians to appoint from among themselves any number not less than six nor more than twelve, to be a Committee, consisting partly of *ex-officio* and partly of elected Guardians, to be called the Assessment Committee of the Union, for the investigation and supervision of the valuations to be made within the Union. One-third at least of the Committee must consist of *ex-officio* Guardians, if there are an adequate number of such *ex-officio* Guardians, but if there are not an adequate number of such *ex-officio* Guardians, then the number so deficient is to be made up of elected Guardians.

Where any Union has the same bounds as a municipal borough, the Clerk to the Guardians of the Union, on the appointment of the Assessment Committee, if directed by the Guardians to do so, has to transmit in writing the names of the persons so appointed to the Town Council of the borough, who may thereupon, if they think fit, appoint from themselves a certain number not exceeding the number appointed by the Board of Guardians; and until they cease to be members of the Town Council, or decline to act, they form part of the Assessment Committee for such Union. The Town Council may from time to time supply any vacancies in the number of persons appointed by them.

The preparation of the valuation list devolves in the first instance on the Overseers of the Poor. The Assessment Committee may call on the Overseers, when and as they deem fit, to prepare a new valuation list, or a supplemental valuation list, within a time to be fixed by them. They may extend the time so fixed when necessary. The list so prepared by the Overseers, whether a new or supplemental list, must be deposited by them at the place in the parish in which rate books are deposited or kept. Public notice of the deposit of the list is to be given on the Sunday next following such deposit in the same manner as notice of a poor rate allowed by Justices has to be given.

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All persons assessed or liable to be assessed to the relief of the poor of the parish have the right to inspect and demand and take copies of and extracts from such list, as in the case of a poor rate allowed by the Justices. At the expiration of fourteen days from the time of the notice given of the deposit, the Overseers have to transmit the list to the Assessment Committee, and any Overseer or other ratepayer within the Union then has the right of inspecting and taking copies of and extracts from any of the lists so transmitted.

The deposit of the list in the parish is to enable ratepayers therein to inspect the list. The transmission to the Assessment Committee is to afford any other persons affected by the list the opportunity of inspection.

It is provided by 1 Vict, c. 45, sec. 2, that "All proclamations or notices which under or by virtue of any law or statute, or by custom, or otherwise, have heretofore been made or given in churches or chapels during or after Divine service shall be reduced into writing, and copies thereof, either in writing or in print, or partly in writing and partly in print, shall, previously to the commencement of Divine service on the several days on which such proclamations or notices have heretofore been made or given in the church or chapel of any parish, or at the door of any church or chapel, be affixed on or near to the door of all the churches and chapels within such parish or place." As it was found that in some parishes there was no church or chapel, sec. 4 of the 45 and 46 Vict., c. 20, enacts:—"In a parish in which there is no church or chapel of the parish, a Poor Rate shall be deemed to have been duly published if within fourteen days after the making of the rate notice thereof has been given by affixing such notice in some public and conspicuous place or situation in the parish." There is no necessity that these notices should be affixed to the chapels of Dissenters.

If any person deems himself aggrieved by a valuation list or supplemental valuation list which has been deposited by the Overseers, he may, within twenty-eight days from the notice of deposit, give notice, in writing, of his objection, specifying the grounds of the particular objection. Such notice must be served on the Overseers, and also on the Assessment Committee. A similar power is also conferred on Overseers of any other parish in the Union who may feel themselves aggrieved by such list. In the case of Overseers of another parish in the same Union, they would be aggrieved if property in their parish were assessed at a larger amount than property of a similar character in another parish in the Union, as they would thereby be compelled to make a greater contribution to the common fund of the Union.

If a ratepayer or person aggrieved by a valuation list considers that the premises in respect of which some other person is assessed are unfairly or incorrectly assessed, then, in addition to the notice to the Overseers and Assessment Committee, a similar notice must also be served on the person whose premises are alleged to be unfairly or incorrectly assessed, so that he may have an opportunity of stating his case, and bringing before the Assessment Committee any facts which he may consider support his contention. The objection to a valuation list and supplemental valuation list is heard at a meeting of the Assessment Committee, of which public notice has been given twenty-eight days prior to the holding thereof. The best course, and the

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course generally adopted, is for an Assessment Committee on its appointment to fix the days on which its meetings will be held, to give notice thereof to the Overseers of the several parishes in the Union, and for such Overseers to give notice thereof in their respective parishes. As a rule, objections to assessments are deferred until a rate is made. Objections are seldom made to a valuation list on its deposit, prior to being submitted to an Assessment Committee for approval. When an objection is made to a list prior to its approval by the Assessment Committee, and an alteration is made therein by the Committee, it is necessary that the list should be re-deposited, in order that any person aggrieved by the alteration made by the Committee may have an opportunity of objecting to such alteration. The day for hearing any such objection, *i.e.*, to an alteration in a list prior to its approval, must be one not less than seven nor more than fourteen days from the day when such list is re-deposited, and notice of the re-deposit must be given by the Overseers in the same manner as notice was given of the first deposit. Re-deposit must take place after every alteration. As before stated, the objections generally take place after a list has been approved, and a rate has been made based on the valuation list.

There is a useful enactment in the Union Assessment Committee Amendment Act, 1864, in favour of companies who have not any office or place of business in the parish to which a list relates. Sec. 5 of that Act provides that within fourteen days after the transmission of any valuation or supplemental valuation list, the Committee shall give notice to every Railway, Telegraph, Canal, Gas, and Water Company named in the list as the occupier of any property included therein, and not having any office or place of business in the parish to which the list relates, of the sum or sums set down as the ratable value of the property purporting to be occupied by such company or companies, and such notice may be served by being transmitted through the post to the principal office of the company, or one of their principal offices when there are more than one.

All common fund charges are distributed among the several parishes comprised in the Union, according to the ratable value of each parish at the commencement of each half year, as appearing by the valuation lists for the time being lastly approved of for such parishes. In cases where there is Government property in a parish, which is not ratable, but in respect of which a payment is made as a contribution in aid of the poor rate out of the money annually voted by Parliament for that purpose, the annual value of such property is to be added to the annual ratable value in computing the amount of contribution to the common fund by the parish in which such property is situate. The Government grant is paid to the Overseers, and the amount placed to the credit of the parish.

The Committee may, if they think fit, allow an objector to appear by his agent, attorney, or counsel; but they do not appear to be under any obligation to do so. In making rates the Overseers must rate all hereditaments included therein according to the annual value thereof appearing in the valuation list in force at the time in the parish. There is, however, this exception, that where, by reason of the occupation of any property included in such list, such property has become liable to be rated in parts, not mentioned in such list as ratable hereditaments and separately rated therein, such parts may, where a supplemental valuation list, showing the

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annual ratable value of such parts, has not been approved and delivered, as provided by the Act, and whether such list has or has not been made, be rated according to such amounts as shall be fair apportioned parts of the annual ratable value appearing in such valuation list in force as aforesaid, of the hereditaments out of which such parts have been constituted.

To give an instance: Suppose a house, shop, stable, and farm were assessed together in one sum at the time when a valuation list was approved, and, at the time when a rate was about to be made, the premises were subdivided and let in several occupations, then the premises separately occupied could be assessed on the persons respectively occupying them, so that in the aggregate the total assessment (ratable value) did not exceed the sum at which the whole of the premises were assessed in the valuation list.

If an objector does not obtain such relief as he deems himself entitled to on his objection to the Assessment Committee, he may appeal to the Special Sessions for hearing appeals against rates, as provided by the statute 6 and 7 Will. IV., c. 96, or to the General or Quarter Sessions, under the Acts 43 Eliz., c. 2, sec. 6, and 17 Geo. II., c. 38, sec. 4. Before, however, either of these courses can be taken, sec. I. of the Union Assessment Committee Amendment Act, 1864 (27 and 28 Vict., c. 39), has rendered it a condition precedent to the appeal that the appellant shall have given notice of objection against the valuation list upon which the rate he is appealing against is based, and shall have failed to obtain such relief as he deems himself entitled to. Under the powers conferred by this section, an Assessment Committee may alter a list, and give notice to the Overseers of a parish requiring them to alter their current rate according to the alteration so made. When an appeal to the Sessions is necessary, care should be taken to ascertain that the appeal is made in proper time, and that due notice is given both to the Overseers and to the Assessment Committee.

A person who has once given to the Assessment Committee notice of objection against a valuation list and failed to obtain such relief as he deems just, may appeal to the Quarter Sessions against any subsequent poor rate made in conformity with the list, and it is not necessary that previous to appealing he should repeat his application to the Assessment Committee for relief.

An appeal to Special or Quarter Sessions must be made to the next practicable Sessions after the making of the rate. Twenty-one days' notice must be given prior to the Sessions to the Overseers and Assessment Committee, and if there is time to give twenty-one days' notice after the first meeting of the Assessment Committee at which the objection could be heard, prior to the holding of the Sessions, the appeal must be to those Sessions. So far as regards the notice to the Assessment Committee, as before stated, the objection to a list deposited prior to approval by the Assessment Committee must be given within twenty-eight days' from the notice of deposit by the Overseers. Other notices should comply with the rules laid down by the Assessment Committee of the Union for the conduct of their business.

If an Assessment Committee have not fixed days on which to hold their meetings for hearing objections, then it will be necessary for the Committee, after the receipt of a notice of objection, to hold a meeting within a reasonable time thereof, and to

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inform the objector when his objection will be heard. In giving a notice of objection, care should be taken to include all the grounds on which the objector relies, as in the event of an appeal he will be confined to the grounds given in his notice to the Assessment Committee.

Provision is made for the appointment by the Guardians of a competent person to assist the Committee in the valuation of the ratable hereditaments of the Union for such period as they, on the application of the Assessment Committee, shall see fit, at a salary or other settled remuneration to be paid out of the common fund. There is also power given to the Assessment Committee, with the consent of the Guardians, to appoint or employ a person to survey and value the ratable hereditaments comprised in any valuation list. The amount at which premises should be assessed is defined by Section XV. of the Union Assessment Committee Act, 1862. This section enacts as follows:—The gross estimated rental for the purpose of the schedule to this Act shall be the rent at which the hereditaments might reasonably be expected to let from year to year, free of all usual tenants' rates and taxes, and tithe commutation rent charge, if any, provided that nothing herein contained shall repeal or interfere with the provisions contained in the first section of the said Act (6 and 7 Will. IV., c. 96), defining the net annual value of the hereditaments to be rated. It is not always easy to decide at what amount hereditaments might reasonably be expected to let from year to year. As a rule, where premises are actually let to a tenant from year to year, the tenant agreeing to pay the usual tenants' rates and taxes, and tithe commutation rent charge, if any, such rent should be accepted as the gross estimated rental thereof.

It very often happens that premises are not let in this manner. The tenant may be under some obligation to repair, the landlord may agree to pay a certain portion of the rates, there may be relationship between the landlord and tenant. In each of these cases the rent paid would not be within the definition in the Act. Again, the owner might, in one case, be a person who would exact the last farthing, in another case he might prefer his property always occupied rather than risk a constant change of tenants, and with that object accept a less rent. Then, again, there is a considerable difference in the character of tenants. There are tenants who take special care of the premises in their occupation. Others are never satisfied without continual alterations. The premises might be of such a class that a suitable tenant could not be procured in the district, and the neighbourhood one to which a stranger with no associations therein would go. The question in each case becomes what could the premises reasonably be expected to let at from year to year? Mansions are a class of property very difficult to deal with. In many cases a mansion is erected to suit the particular fancy of the owner. It may be too large for an ordinary tenant, and, as a rule, anyone desiring to live in a mansion prefers to consult his own taste in the arrangement of his house. A mansion may be of such a size that it is an utter impossibility to find a tenant with the means to maintain it. Yet the premises must be assessed. Many valuers, in valuing this class of property, do so by first ascertaining the "structural value" thereof, and charging a certain percentage on such value, varying according to the amount thereof. The greater amount of money expended on such property, and the less

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percentage the owner may reasonably expect to realise on his outlay. Sometimes a person is compelled to reside in a particular neighbourhood, and he must necessarily take the house best suited to his requirements; he may be lucky, and get a house at a low rent, or he may be unfortunate, and have to pay a high rent. The rate is to be laid upon an estimate of the net annual value of the property rated, not in any one year, but taking one year with another. There is no doubt that the actual rent is a very material element for consideration in fixing the value of the premises. Structural value is almost invariably introduced when an appeal takes place, and there is no doubt this is also an element which must be considered. In addition to these, the state of repair of the property, the expense of keeping it up, and the desirability of the neighbourhood must also be taken into account.

The law of supply and demand has a very considerable influence on the rents of house property.

At the present time, owing to the depressed state of agriculture, rents of farms are falling rapidly, and the value of farms is very much less now than it was some years ago. The seasons have latterly been prejudicial to the farming interest. The rent, however, of a farm is not increased solely on account of one good season, and in fixing the value for assessment purposes the result of a number of years' farming operations should be taken into consideration.

In other classes of property, as Railways, Tramways, Gas and Water Works, and similar properties, the rating is based on the profits of the undertaking. Take, for instance, the case of a Gas Works. The question asked is, what will a hypothetical tenant give for such an undertaking? By reference to the published balance sheets of the company, the gross receipts from all sources can easily be ascertained for one year, *i.e.*, from sale of gas, residual products, &c. From this amount the expenditure necessary to produce the result has to be deducted, and this information can also be extracted from the balance sheets before referred to. In this way the net receipts are arrived at. From this amount the tenant's allowances, such as interest on working capital, and the cost of repairs, renewal fund, &c., have to be deducted. Having arrived at this amount, the value of the entire undertaking is discovered. The gas works and fixed plant must be separately valued, as that portion of the undertaking must be assessed separately in the parish in which it is situate. The remainder must be assessed in the several parishes where a supply of gas is afforded, based on the revenue derived by the company from each parish.

The amount deducted from the gross estimated rental, to arrive at the ratable value, varies in different Unions. The deductions allowed are intended to cover the cost of repairs and insurance, and the other expenses, if any, necessary to maintain the property in a state to command the rent.

In some Unions a uniform deduction of 33½ per cent is made from the gross estimated rental in all classes of property.

In other Unions the deductions vary according to the class of property. For instance: In the case of land without buildings, a deduction of only 5 per cent is allowed; land with buildings, 7½ per cent; houses at £6 and upwards, 15 per cent; cottages under £6, 20 per cent; mills and like property, 25 per cent. So long as the assessment of property is merely for the "Union," the rate of deduction does

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not much matter, with this exception: It may happen that a municipal borough or a local government district extends into two Unions, and in that case the whole of the property within the borough or local government district should be assessed on precisely the same basis, and the same deductions from the gross, to arrive at the ratable value should be made, or the ratepayers in one part of the district would be contributing a larger proportion than their fair share of the expenses of the district. It is contended by some persons that ground rents should be separately rated. If, however, they were separately assessed, a corresponding deduction should be made from the assessment of the premises out of which the ground rent issues. It is usual in leases of land for building purposes for the lessee to covenant to pay all rates and taxes to which the premises are liable, and it is often contended that, if ground rents were assessed, this would be imposing on the ground landlord a burden which the lessee had covenanted to bear. There is no doubt considerable force in this contention. A ground landlord, however, receives his ground rent whether the lessee has his property occupied or not, and he thus has a "beneficial occupation" of the land. Cases frequently occur where property is erected on land subject to a large ground rent; the property is unoccupied, and the whole of the rates for it are lost to the parish, while all the time the owner of the ground rent receives such rent clear of all deductions except property tax.

The expenditure of rates in a district in improvements has a tendency to increase the value of land for building purposes. If ground rents have to be assessed, there would be no necessity for a deduction from the amount of the ground rent to arrive at the ratable value, as there would be no outlay required to maintain the land in a condition to command the rent. There are, of course, instances where land is sub-leased at a larger amount than the original lessor receives. The best plan would, in my opinion, be to assess property as it is assessed at present, but to confer power on persons paying ground rent, on proof of payment of rates, to deduct a proportionate part of such rates according to the amount of ground rent paid on payment of such rent. If property was unoccupied, make the owner liable to pay rates on the amount of ground rent paid, and to deduct the amount of rates so paid on the next payment of ground rent.

It would certainly be much better if one assessment could govern every tax, and if the collection of all taxes could be made by one authority. At the present time there are:—

The Poor Rate, collected by the Overseers.

The Borough Rate, possibly included in such Poor Rate, or collected separately by the Overseers.

The General District Rate, collected by the Borough Collector or the Local Board Collector.

The Burial Board Rate, collected either by the Overseers, the Borough Collector, or Local Board Collector.

The School Board Rate, by the Overseers.

In some districts, a Lighting Rate, by the Overseers.

Private Improvement Rate, by the Borough Collector or the Local Board Collector.

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The Highway Rate, in districts not under a Corporation, or Local Board or Improvement Act District, by the Surveyor of Highways.

The whole of these rates must be based on the ratable value as appearing by the valuation list approved by the Assessment Committee.

Income Tax Assessment, by the Collector of Income Tax.

It would be better if one assessment for all purposes were made, and, in different columns in the rate book, set out the amount required for the several different purposes; the different areas would of course be kept distinct in the rate book, but each ratepayer would have a demand made on him for the full amount to which he would be liable for the current year.

In conclusion it may, perhaps, be as well to refer to the County Assessment for County Rate purposes. This assessment is made periodically by a Committee of County Justices. For the purposes of such assessment in Lancashire, the County Assessment Committee call on the Overseers of the several parishes in the county to supply them with the amount at which the various classes of property, such as Mills, Print Works, Coal Mines, Railways, &c., are assessed. They also obtain from the Surveyors of Taxes the actual rentals of the same classes, as returned for the purposes of the Income Tax. The amounts at which similar properties in different Unions are respectively assessed are compared, and a standard is fixed by the Committee. The Committee then proceed to adjust the values in the several parishes and bring the whole as far as possible to the same basis. For instance: Suppose the mills in A Union were assessed at an amount 10 per cent below what precisely similar mills in B Union were assessed. To place the same on an equal basis it would be necessary to increase the total of the mill property in the B Union $11\frac{1}{3}$ per cent to place it on the same basis as the mill property in A Union. This principle is carried out as far as possible in regard to all properties, and by that means an equal assessment is arrived at.

LEATHER.

BY SPARKE EVANS, J.P., AVONSIDE TANNERY, BRISTOL.

CIVILISATION brings its disadvantages. Grassy downs, where the ancient Briton roamed unrestricted, have given place to ploughed fields and hard roads, so that boots become not only a luxury but a necessity. Unfortunately, in the baneful competition for cheapness, the manufacturers of the present day have stooped to the grinding terms of the buyer, and have supplied him with an article which, though it retains a flashy appearance for some days, will last but a few weeks, when the miserable footgear admits water through the sole, gapes at the side, or turns over on the fashionable heel. Naturally the most important part of a shoe is the sole, and the hides from which English sole leather is principally made are drawn from two sources; the more expensive from the English hide market—that is, from the backs of the beasts which are slaughtered in England for the usual supply of beef. It appears that next to wool, according to Kelly's Post-office Directory, "the leather trade forms one of the largest industries connected with animal products of the United Kingdom. In 1869 the foreign imports of hides, skins, &c., exceeded in value four-and-a-half millions sterling, and the annual value of hides from home-slaughtered animals is estimated at £5,787,500;" but an enormous number of hides are annually imported from foreign countries, from the Cape, and Australia, which are generally of a thinner description. The larger proportion comes to us, however, from the vast plains or prairies of South America, and particularly from the ports of Buenos Ayres, Monte Video, Rio Grande, and Paysandu. Thus it may be estimated that the total import of these heavy hides into the United Kingdom now averages about three-quarters of a million annually. The number of horned cattle roaming over the prairies of the Argentine Republic alone, in the year 1886, was estimated at fourteen millions, and eighty millions of sheep, whilst the valleys of the River Plate and its tributaries are supposed to contain more than twenty-two millions of horned cattle, which are bought at prices varying from 25s. to 32s. per head. The hides which produce the best leather are from the oxen which are killed when three to four years old. These have been previously branded by their owners and re-branded by those to whom they are sold—each buyer marking with his own monogram. There used to be occasionally five or seven brands on the same hide, and unfortunately placed on the side or rump, so as to present a conspicuous mark to the men who followed the flying herds on horseback; but strong representations having been made by the English tanners to the growers of cattle as to its deteriorating effect on the hide, the brands are now much fewer in number, and generally placed on a less-valuable part of the hide. Formerly there was a great waste in the mode of slaughtering, much of the meat being allowed to perish—the bones were stacked as hedgerows to get rid of them. Now, however, all is saved—the meat sent home to Europe as extract, or dried in the sun as jerked beef for the Brazilian market, and the black population in the Southern States of America. The flesh dried in the sun is called "tasajo." From forty to fifty tons of this are annually sent away from Monte Video,

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besides a million-and-a-half of horns, 25,000 tons of bone ashes and bones, 900,000 salted hides, and 2,000 tons of extract and preserved meat. This statement is on the authority of the "Bourse Auxcuirs de Liege." The bones and blood are utilised for manure; whilst the hides are eventually sold to the European tanners at a price equal or superior to that of the meat itself, say from 5d. to 7d. per lb. The male cattle are castrated at an early age, as the skin and the meat of an ox is preferred to that of a bull. Homer probably was not aware of this when he makes the shields of his heroes to be covered with bull's hide. In the autumn the animals are driven to the slaughter-house, where they are killed by a stab, piercing the spinal cord in the neck, and whilst warm are skinned with great rapidity, two men frequently taking off the hide in five minutes; and this is effected without damaging the hide—the men, from great practice, producing far better work than the English slaughter-man. The hide is then subjected to a process of pickling, and afterwards sent laid flat in cargoes for the European and American markets. Formerly many of the cargoes went to London and other English ports, but, unfortunately, the excessive charges of brokers, factors, warehousing, loading, carting, and other expenses have diverted the great imports to Antwerp, where, at less expense, greater attention is paid to the mode of receiving and sorting the hides; the heavier hides being reshipped to England, whilst the lighter are retained for the use of Continental tanners. As a general rule the hides from the River Plate are thicker than the English. The cattle in a wild state, especially those in a cold climate, produce a thicker hide; whilst the high breeding of English beasts has a tendency to lessen the thickness of the pelt. Once in the possession of the tanner, the hides are first soaked in water to divest them of all the dirt, salt, blood, and other impurities, then placed in pits containing lime-water for from ten to twenty days, according to the weather, which acting on the hair allows its removal with the superfluous flesh; the hide is rounded into the shape of butts and offal, and after cleaning away the lime in water it is then transferred to the tanyard proper, and submerged in weak liquor made from oak bark and other tanning materials, according to the use to which it is intended to apply the leather; oak bark being chiefly employed in the expensive sole leather specially adapted for what is popularly known as the West-end trade, where comfort is sought and paid for, at extreme prices. Valonia is an admirable tanning agent, and when used in proper portions with bark produces the most durable as well as impermeable sole leather. Myrabolams, imported from India, make a light-coloured and light-weighting leather, fitted for strapping purposes. Terra Japonica is employed with advantage for dressing leather, but, when used in excess, produces leather of the very worst quality, being light, porous, and in hot weather, or on a wet day, staining the feet of the wearer. The very name of the article of this tanning material is a misnomer, as it is neither an earth, nor does it come from Japan, but is the dried juice of a tree imported from India. The time occupied in tanning varies according to the thickness of the pelt and the mode adopted in the manufacture. As to the mode of tanning, new processes are constantly being introduced, a great many of which are new only in name. Without knowing it, the inventors are often followers of scientific adventurers who have tried the same plans many years before, and failed to make them succeed; indeed it is almost impossible to conduct a chemist or an engineer

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over a tannery where first-class leather is produced, without hearing the remark that "evidently great improvement could be made in the process, particularly as to the economy both of time and labour;" nor is the remark to be wondered at, when this trade is contrasted with the advances made in others. Amongst the innumerable processes may be mentioned the ingenious mode of floating the butt part of the hide to and fro by mechanical means; another by moving the liquor whilst the leather remains in suspension, as being less expensive than handling; a third mode was tying the whole pack head and tail together like packs of children's cards, and then running them through rollers, from pit to pit, thus pressing out the old liquors to make room for the new. Another plan was to run the woozes so that the strength was kept up to a uniform height; a fifth mode was that of sewing the hides in the shape of bags, which were suspended, filled with terra liquor, which naturally forced its way through the sides of the bag, and thus leather of a very inferior description was made in course of comparatively few hours. So with vacuum and electricity—every ingenious young tanner has tried some new process or other; but with age comes experience, and with experience wisdom, and one and all seem to have found the truth of the axiom that "quick tanning is slow selling." Hence it is that some of our largest and best manufacturers are adhering to the old process, who boast that it takes on an average fifteen months from the time the hide enters the yard, to the time it leaves as finished leather. The long-process tanners say that really good leather is only made by allowing the tanning to penetrate the pelt slowly, so as not to break or disturb unnecessarily the beautiful network of fibres which forms part of the original hide. Sole leather, to be of the best quality, should be impervious to damp, elastic, and durable. The addition of indiarubber and similar substances only tends to make it very costly and disagreeable to wear, as it prevents the natural perspiration of the foot escaping, keeping the feet clammy and cold. As to the addition of glucose, or similar weight-producing materials, the recent shameful revelations before the Committee of the House of Commons, on the manner in which the British army has been served by contractors, by the use of this compound, is enough to brand with infamy, those who have thus victimised the Government, and the public. Mr. J. G. Hepburn says "if leather stuffed with glucose were placed in a stove, it would be found that all, or nearly all the extra weight would dry out." To avoid, however, imposition of any kind, the best way is not to trust to one's own sharpness in discovering adulteration, and thus living in a constant worry, but to do business only with those whose habit of fair dealing places them above suspicion. A good test to find which leather will best resist water is the mode adopted with regard to tiles on the model farm at Windsor. When the late Prince Albert laid out the farm, he employed the services of a Scotchman who was too shrewd to be cheated, and too honest to be bribed. He placed a sample of the tiles, sent in competition from various parts of the country, in line on a frame about five feet high, and by claying up the end of the tile formed with water a miniature pool in each; then by looking underneath it was soon seen which of the tiles gave the greatest resistance to the water. A pair of soles from half-a-dozen different tanners placed in the same way (grain up) will soon show which is the most likely to be of service on a wet day.

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Thus, writing on shoes, brings to remembrance Tom Coryat, one of the very oddest of oddities, who is even mentioned in "Fuller's Worthies," quoted in the *Leisure Hour*, and who is said to have walked during his five months' travel in Europe nearly two thousand miles in one pair of shoes, and nine hundred miles on one pair of soles; thus the shoes he set out in he brought safely home, and hung them up for a memorial in Odcome Church, Somersetshire, of which village his father had been rector. A labourer working on the sharp cutting flints of a Hampshire farm has been known to wear a pair of boots weighing eight pounds, but these must have been very heavily ironed; and a Gloucestershire man, named Edwin Edwards, a labourer in a Bristol ironfoundry, used to walk six miles to his work daily, and back at night. He paid 13s. for his country-made boots, which he wore for twelve months, when after repairing they lasted another year; leaving his house at Oldland Common at 4 a.m., and calling his companions on his way to work; and this he did for twenty-two years. Thus he must have walked at least seven thousand two hundred miles in the same boots; stood to his hard labour all day, and did not return home until 8 p.m. at the earliest. His courage and his constitution, with his boots, must have been like iron.*

Few trades have undergone such rapid changes as that of shoemaking. The old order is changed indeed, and frequently for the worse; the village shoemaker has been largely exterminated by pale-faced boys and women, working in large factories. Formerly when one stopped at the cross roads, the village shoemaker was the readiest and pleasantest to give information, and not a little proud of his garden, where grew the earliest potatoes and the red and white currants, whilst the air was filled with the sweet scent of the ten-week stock, and the mignonette. Then boots were made that would last twelve months, now the average time of wear for factory-made men's boots is six months; whilst women require three pairs a year, and children even four, and so badly are many of these made that they are scarcely worth repairing. An enormously increased number are thus required for annual consumption; the Bristol district alone supplying from two to three million pairs every year.

Perhaps the most curious and ancient piece of leather in the world has recently been discovered in Egypt by Villiers Stuart, M.P., who has published an account of the funeral tent of an Egyptian queen. It appears that the profusion of articles of the 18th dynasty which were offered for sale by the Arabs and others, led to the important discovery of the tombs of the ancient royal families of Egypt. About forty royal mummies of kings, queens, princes, and princesses, together with about 6,000 articles belonging to their sepulchres, furniture and equipment, were found in the utmost confusion, scattered about at random, probably by the robber Arabs who had discovered, after the lapse of thousands of years, the secret burial-place of the ancient monarchs of Egypt. Amongst the various articles were statuettes, boxes and caskets, vases, goblets, articles of wearing apparel,

* Since the above was written we have received the following unsolicited confirmation of the foregoing as to the durability of good sole leather:—"October 3, 1888.—I repaired a pair of boots the other day which had been in wear three years; I made them for a stonemason, and he has worn them constantly. To Messrs. P. and S. Evans and Co., Bristol."

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papyri, &c. The story is too long for repetition here, so we must content ourselves by inserting only the following description of the funeral tent, which, from its being made of leather, will be specially interesting in the present article:—

“Prominent among the sepulchral paraphernalia found with the royal mummies at Deirel Bahari is the splendid leather canopy; it is a perfectly unique example of ancient Egyptian tapestry, and constituted the funeral tent of Queen Isi em Kheb. The tent itself may be described as a mosaic of leather work, consisting of thousands of pieces of gazelle hide stitched together with thread of colours to match. The edges are neatly bound with a pink cord of twisted leather, sewn on with a stout pink thread; each colour is a separate piece—no one section bearing two colours; thus each square of the chessboard-patterned footstool, upon which the gazelles are kneeling, is a distinct morsel stitched to its neighbours. The whole work is, in fact, a mosaic one, and is the only example yet discovered of what may be called ancient Egyptian tapestry. The colours consist of bright pink, deep golden yellow, pale primrose, bluish green, and pale blue. They are wonderfully well preserved, considering that they were laid on not long after the Trojan war, and are contemporary with Solomon. Much of the surface still retains a gloss similar to that of a kid glove. The pink, yellow, and green have not faded at all, though dulled to some extent by the dust of ages. The leather of which the tent is made is tanned with the bark of the acacia tree—it was one of the few timber trees which the Egyptians possessed. It is so fragile from age that it requires the greatest care in handling, some parts of it breaking almost with a touch. For this reason it is not yet exhibited in the British Museum to the general public. We are able to fix the date of this piece of tapestry pretty exactly. The queen for whom it was made was mother-in-law to the Shishak who besieged and took Jerusalem three or four years after the death of Solomon, B.C. 980. She appears to have died young; we may therefore allow about twenty years between the two events, which would make this specimen of needlework only a century later than the Trojan war. Since the busy fingers of the Egyptian damsels stitched together those multitudinous morsels of gazelle leather, the kingdoms of Israel and Judah, and the Greek and Roman Empires, the Macedonian, the Assyrian, and Persian Empires, and many of the mediæval kingdoms and dynasties have come and gone, and all the time that artistic piece of leather patchwork has lain undisturbed in the silent vault, amid the wild gorges of the Lybian hills, alongside its mistress and her gazelle; and now after all those centuries it has come forth nearly in its pristine brightness of hue, to tell its story, to be the wonder and admiration of nineteenth-century tourists, and to show us what manner of tapestry was in fashion and served as a canopy to cover the shrine of the funeral boat on its way to its final destination, two thousand nine hundred years ago.”

Another singular discovery has been recently made at Hamburg, where in levelling the old fortifications, an ancient tanyard was discovered, and in the pits some leather, which must have been buried probably from three to four hundred years, and is still of better quality than some of the rubbish which unfortunately is put into low-priced boots and shoes. It is supposed that the former inhabitants, surprised by the approach of a foreign army, hastily threw up fortifications, without waiting for the unfortunate tanner to remove all his leather from the pits.

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Before concluding this article it is curious to note to what a horrible variety of uses skin and leather have been sometimes applied. In the dreadful days of the first French Revolution, there was a tannery at Mendon where human skins were tanned, and a horrible curiosity is said to be contained amongst a collection in the town of Frankfort-on-the-Maine. It is a drumhead made from the skin of a French marquis, who was guillotined while France was under the bloody rule of Robespierre. Dr. Praddington, of Bewdley, says, according to tradition, a pirate northman, who had stolen the sanctus bell from the high altar in Worcester Cathedral, was flayed, and his skin affixed to the north doors, as a punishment for such sacrilege. The doors having been removed, are now to be seen in the crypt of the Cathedral, and small fragments of skin may still be seen beneath the ironwork with which they are strengthened. This skin was subjected to microscopical observation by Mr. John Tuckett, of the Royal College of Surgeons, who reported as follows:— "I am perfectly satisfied that it is human skin, taken from some part of the body of a light-haired person where little hair grows." It may have been noticed that now-a-days very few old shoes and scraps of leather are observable lying in our streets, or dust heaps, or by the hedgerows; this is in a great measure due to the collection of all old scraps of leather, which are taken to mills, where they are cut up almost into fine dust; to this is added about 40 per cent of indiaruöber, and the whole is then subjected to a pressure of 6,000 or 10,000 lbs. per square foot. The substance is then coloured, and is sold at prices some 50 per cent below that of natural leather. It is manifestly a very poor substitute, as it is wholly wanting in fibre; in fact if it were not for the insane craze for cheap articles, which buyers vainly hope to substitute for those which, though the original cost is greater, are yet in the end cheaper, we should never hear of this compound, which might almost as well be made of sawdust as leather dust. In consequence of the manufacture and sale of large quantities of inferior leather, many old-established tanners are now stamping theirs with a trade mark, which is some guarantee to the buyer, as he may be sure no man will put his name or trade mark on an inferior article. It is hoped by this means to enable those who desire to buy the best quality of leather, to be able to secure what they want, namely, a reliable article at a moderate cost.

The following figures (kindly supplied by Messrs. T. J. and T. Powell, hide and leather factors, London) may be relied on for their accuracy, and show a very considerable falling off in the import of hides into the United Kingdom:—

IMPORT OF RIO GRANDE AND RIVER PLATE HIDES:—

In 1866—	HIDES.	In 1887—	HIDES.
Dry.....	9,391	Dry	42,235
Salted	921,692	Salted	267,888
	931,083		310,123

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	IMPORTS IN 1877—HIDES.	IN 1887—HIDES.
River Plate—Dry	29,478 19,907
„ Salted	374,732 184,653
West Coast, S.A.	16,593 29,119
Rio Grande—Salted	167,415 83,235
„ Dry	2,580 22,328
Brazils.....	208,778 74,506
U.S.A.	106,329 14,038
West Indies	11,490 33,385
Australian, Cape and Mauritius	257,938 301,103
	1,175,333	762,274

Thus showing a decline in the number imported last year as compared with the year 1877 of 413,059.

BOOT AND SHOE MAKING: AS IT WAS AND AS IT IS.

BY AN "OLD CRAFT."

THE sale of boots and shoes in connection with the co-operative movement has grown so large that it needs no apology for making reference thereto in this publication. Besides its monetary importance, this industry, looked at from an economical point of view, should be of interest to every wearer of boots. Upwards of 600 registered societies are now engaged more or less in this business, and the aggregate turnover exceeds £300,000 per annum, and realises a net profit to these societies of not less a sum than £30,000 a year.

In addition to those societies which have already entered into the business, there are upwards of 400 stores which, up to the present time, have not seen their way to commence in this branch. It will therefore be seen that the business is capable of enormous development; and if proof of this were needed, we have only to draw attention to the number of members already belonging to the retail stores in England and Wales, which number nearly, if not quite, 900,000 members, and reckoning five to a family, and that they only take two pairs of boots per annum—which is under the actual consumption—and assuming every member acted with true co-operative spirit, and drew their supply of boots and shoes only from *their own shops*, the present turnover would be increased more than *eight times*. If, in addition, we add the natural increment which is going on by the setting up of new societies, and the increasing membership of old ones, the manufacture of boots and shoes within the movement may be said to have but barely commenced.

The object of this paper, however, is to furnish some information—and, as far as possible, free from technical terms—of the progress which, during the last thirty

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years, has been made in the method of manufacturing boots and shoes. The generality of people have but the slightest knowledge of what a complete change the introduction of machinery has made in this industry. The idea which the people usually have of shoemaking is some rude notion formed through what has come under their immediate observation when noticing some "old craft" at work on the seat, and that wholesale shoe manufacturing was simply a development of that process; and if they had any other knowledge as to the application of machinery by which hand labour was superseded, the belief was strongly entertained that only goods of a very inferior kind could be so made. There is some reason for such an opinion being held, as when machinery was first brought into use in shoe factories, neither employers or employed possessed the necessary skill to use them, except in the production of goods of the commonest description, and but little taste or skill was shown either in the selection and adaptation of material, or in the workmanship employed thereon. The sewing machine produced the first revolution, and machine has followed machine in rapid succession; and we are indebted to the inventive genius of the American for the major portion; so that at the present time there are but few domestic industries in which machinery plays a greater part. Previous to the introduction of the sewing machine—which was strongly opposed by the operatives, at that time under a fear that it would lessen the demand for labour—but little wholesale manufacturing was done. Shops for the sale of ready-made goods were only to be met with in large centres of population, and it was only about the year 1850 that they began to increase in number. What wholesale manufacturing was done was confined to hand labour, and no workmen in any trade were worse remunerated; shoemaking was, in fact, looked down upon by other artisans as a kind of inferior trade—and well they might, for the skill and ability which the average workman engaged in shoemaking possessed was never half appreciated; and whilst workmen in other trades had their hours of work somewhat defined, the hours of labour for the shoemaker were regulated chiefly by the rising and setting of the sun in summer, and by the quantity of "double-wick flat tallow candles" he was enabled to purchase in the winter months—six o'clock in the morning to eight or nine in the evening during the "long days," and from seven to nine in the winter, were considered ordinary hours, except on Saturdays, when the shoemaker's day usually finished much nearer Sunday morning than Saturday noon. If the introduction of machinery had conferred no other blessing on the shoemaker than the limitation of working hours, its use could be justified. What a change has been wrought! The shoemaker, or cordwainer, as he was technically termed, is now sought after; the number of men engaged in making shoes solely by hand labour are so few that they can practically command what wages they choose, and which will increase year by year, as no one is now being apprenticed to the business, and in a very few years it will have practically died out, as no one but those possessing ample means will be able or willing to pay the extra cost for the goods so made. A good craft who can make handsewn work is an artist to all intents and purposes; he is expected to box the compass—that is, to make any class of work given him to do. Many could turn their hands to lastmaking, in addition to shoemaking. They would sit for hours fitting up lasts to the measure of the customers' feet, and for the skill

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and labour not a penny piece was ever paid to them; for the time employed in putting a crude and ill-shaped last into a resemblance to the human foot they received but small thanks; in fact, although they received, as above stated, no payment for this work, they had to do it—and they did it—and the pride with which they spoke of what they had accomplished was, under such circumstances, pardonable.

A shoemaker, thirty years ago, was expected to cut patterns, do the clicking, or cutting out the tops, close the uppers—which, in the case of gentlemen's riding or jockey boots, dress Wellingtons, and such goods usually worn by the middle and upper classes, required great skill—and some of the prize boots of that time, when shown at our modern exhibitions, cause not a little amount of interest. The bottoming, or making, as it was called, was also performed by the same person, except in a shop here and there where the extent of the trade enabled the employer to keep a boot closer constantly employed; and this may be said to have been the only division of labour.

The generality of people, prior to the introduction of the sewing machine, wore plain boots, which, no doubt, tended to their greater durability. The introduction of too much stitching simply helps to destroy the leather. The pair of light, or what was designated Sunday boots, were expected to last for years; but then they were very probably only put on the feet twenty times a year, and then but for a very short time, and subjected to no hard wear; and further, these goods were much heavier than what workmen and workwomen of to-day would be content to wear for their ordinary work. In the country, the shoemaker would make one pair of lasts do duty for feet of different dimensions; difficulties as to measurement and conformation were got over by tacking innumerable small pieces of leather on the models, and in this way provide for "corns and bunions," which were quite as numerous, if not more so, when boots were entirely made by hand. The average wage of a journeyman shoemaker, forty years ago, was certainly much under fifteen shillings per week in the wholesale trade, and it is very questionable if it exceeded this anywhere, except, perhaps, some very few exclusively first-class bespoke shops. Any quantity of men's boots were bottomed in Northampton and district at *thirteenpence* per pair; out of that the workman had to find what grindery he required to complete the work. The writer can testify from experience and observation that it takes a ready workman to make and finish two pairs of such goods per day, and it was but a small percentage who could do it. No wonder the handsewn shoemaker has about departed, the wages were so poor about that period; and this, together with the introduction of bottoming boots by riveting them together, acted as a deterrent to youths being put to learn the trade, which, by the continued expansion of machine-made boots, has continued so that at the present time wages for handsewn work is certainly 150 per cent more for some classes of work than it was in 1840. There is, however, one branch of "handsewn" productions which has not kept pace with the rest. I allude to boots for the British army. No customers are more exacting, and none pay so miserably for the labour. There certainly wants a reform in this particular; but no doubt before very long the ridiculous idea that handsewn boots are the best and only boots fit to march in will be changed, and when that takes place the British soldier will be far better and more economically shod, and the labourer better rewarded.

Despite the small income of the old cordwainer, he was always ahead of his fellows in political and social knowledge. His occupation enabled him to read and study almost without ceasing work; at any rate, he was able to continue working and listen to others reading. By these means he was in the villages the one man who spoke with authority; it was of more consequence for him to be in possession of the latest political information than to bother his head as to which horse was favourite for the St. Leger.

In the modern factory, where everything is regulated to meet the speed of machinery, the workmen have no time—assuming they had the inclination—to study when at work, as they formerly did. The noise and whirl of machinery has put an end to the possibility of discussion, and nothing more astonishes the old country shoemaker when visiting our modern factories than the perfection to which machinery has been brought to do the work formerly done by the hand. But if it is borne in mind that all this change has been wrought in less than twenty-five years, it is impossible to forecast what the next decade has in store, as the inventive genius of the civilised world is available for the use of the British manufacturer. The shoe factory of 1888 bears no more resemblance to the workshop of 1848 than an Oldham cotton mill does to the “spinning wheel.”

Boot and shoe making is now divided into many distinct and separate departments, and as machinery is increased, greater sub-division is necessary. There is now the clicking room, where the first process is carried on—that of cutting out the tops or uppers, every workman taking a special part; here all *patterns* are so regulated and numbered that it is scarcely possible a man can err in his work. Following the clickers are what are designated “sorters,” whose duty it is to see that the tops are sent out of the room uniform to sample. It should be also stated that in all large businesses the cutting and ranging the patterns and the preparation of designs are under the special care of a qualified person. The room where the bottom stuff, or the sole, &c., are cut out is called the press room. In the old days the leather was given out in the rough state to the workman, and he was expected to put it into shape, relying entirely on his own skill and judgment. This is now all changed; the sole, as well as other patterns, are all prepared and graduated to a proper scale, by which steel dies are made, and instead of the soles, &c., being cut out by hand, eccentric and other presses of great power are used for this purpose; in fact, wherever a machine can be brought into use in this department it is. Following this there is now the heel-building room, where what was formerly done by hand, and very often most unsatisfactorily done, is now entirely performed by power. This process has put an end to the “cracking” of the heels, which caused so much trouble and annoyance to the manufacturer prior to the introduction of heeling machinery. From the clicking room the work is passed on to the fitters and machinists, whose duty it is to prepare the uppers for the laster. In this department the treadle sewing machine, running at the rate of about 600 stitches per minute, has been superseded by others specially constructed, driven by power, and which make an average of 1,200 stitches, or double that of the old shuttle machine. During this year, still further improvements have been brought across the Atlantic, and a machine introduced which runs at greater speed, and being duplex in

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character—that is, working two needles at one operation—performs 100 per cent more work in the same time, and, what is of infinitely greater importance, does it better. There is also a machine for working button-holes, one of the most ingenious, as it is certainly one of the most useful, perfectly automatic—and this machine will make, under the charge of a competent operator, eight button-holes per minute throughout the day. It would occupy too much space to describe all the various operations in this department. Suffice it to say that, wherever possible, labour-saving machinery is introduced.

When the tops have been closed, or machined, as it is now called, they are transferred to another distinct department to have the bottoms put to them. In this process, a further sub-division is made, there being the “lasting,” which is the most important, and requires greatest care, for unless the boot or shoe is well lasted, it is spoiled. The slipshod fashion in which some operatives perform this part of the work has led to the introduction of a machine for this purpose. The cost of this has prevented it being largely brought into use, but before many years have passed away every well-equipped factory will be supplied with them; and considering that these machines will do the work of many men, it will cause a greater revolution in shoemaking than anything that has gone before. These machines are being run by large American firms on the “other side” with great success. There are many ways of bottoming boots nowadays—riveting, standard screwing, machine screwing, the *ab intra* process, the combination method, viz., “screwing and sewing,” and for comfort, solidity, and durability nothing excels the latter, not even “handsewn.”

The laster or riveter having completed his part of the work, the boot has then to have the heel attached, which is done by a very simple and rapid process by specially constructed machines. That accomplished, it is passed on to the “parer,” where, by the use of a lathe, all the loose leather and projection are removed, and made ready for the finisher, which is also a distinct operation. A good finisher will earn as much again wage, in less hours, than the old cordwainer did thirty years ago. Machines are now being introduced to perform a portion of this operation.

Work is usually given out a dozen pairs at a time, and wages are practically fixed on that basis, as extras are paid on single pairs or specials. It is, however, very questionable if it is not greatly to the advantage of the worker to have out the larger quantity, even at the less price; at anyrate, they mostly prefer it.

To run a shoe factory with profit it is absolutely necessary there should be, on an average, five weeks' orders on hand; less than this means the operatives in every department will be alternately short of work. *Too little thought is given to this* by the outside world, and manufacturers, in order to reduce the time in getting out orders, are compelled, against their will, to run their factories inordinate hours. All practical men know that if the work is to be done as it should be, a week in each department is little enough in the regular way, and this means that each order will take *four weeks in execution*. To produce it in less time than this, some portion has to be neglected, or preceding orders laid on one side, and preference given to the later ones; which, if done to any great extent, simply disorganises the whole factory by turning everything “upside down.” When the work was performed throughout by one man it was quite easy to lay one pair down and take up another, but this is

impossible now without throwing out of work hands in some departments. This phase of manufacturing never presents itself to the mind of the thousands who have had no experience therein.

It is not possible in the space allotted to give more than a mere epitome of the subject. Before closing, however, some reference should be made to the improvements of the various kinds of material now used in bootmaking, and modern science has made available what was, not long since, considered *useless*. Such is the demand for leather that every animal with a skin on it is required for some purpose or other. Every part of the globe is ransacked to secure raw hides; and whilst India alone supplies our market with millions of hides—in a tanned state as well as raw—Singapore, Africa, Australia, New Zealand, the Falkland Islands, South America, China, Japan, and other countries furnish us with skins; and, in addition, a large quantity of tanning and currying material from which leather now used in the manufacture of boots and shoes is produced. The facilities now available for the rapid and regular transportation of goods from one country to another has lessened the cost of raw material, and the development of machinery has so economised production, that the population were at no time supplied with boots and shoes at so little cost.

And whilst this has been done, the workpeople have been improving their position. The operatives in scarcely any industry have been more benefited by the use of machinery than shoemakers, and when the organisation and regulation in our factories are conformed to what is necessary, by the new order of things, to obtain the maximum result, still greater advantages will accrue to the workmen.

The efforts which have been put forth, and the money that has been spent, during the last few years to obtain perfect models so that boots and shoes could be produced more in accord with the natural requirements of the feet has been most encouraging and successful. Every well-appointed retail co-operative store has upon its shelves goods, in shape and quality, so varied, that every customer's wants may be readily met. English-made boots are to be found in most of the markets of the world; and although English manufacturers have to contend with hostile tariffs, and with the superior technical skill of the French and German workmen, the solidity and durability of our manufactures is such, that in spite of all obstacles, our foreign business keeps well to the front; and if the workmen will but add to their work the neatness and cleanliness which is the special characteristic of continental productions, the trade will continue to develop at home and abroad.

THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON EDUCATION.

BY HENRY SLATTER, J.P.

THERE probably never was a time when the subject of national education aroused so much interest and attracted so much attention as it does at the present moment. This is chiefly due to the publication of the Report of the Royal Commission; but the fact that the elections for the London School Board and for most of the chief provincial towns are about to occur, undoubtedly adds a considerable stimulus to the discussion now going on. Whatever difference of opinion may prevail as to the conclusions arrived at, there cannot be two opinions as to the painstaking and laborious character of the investigation which the Royal Commissioners have pursued, nor as to their desire to obtain the fullest and most valuable evidence as to the operation of the Education Acts, and the present position of the country in regard to this great question. Witnesses of every grade in society, of every variety in social position, from the country squire and parson to the urban manufacturer and artisan, were examined; while the large number of amiable enthusiasts who are afflicted with crotchets on the education question were not without opportunities of having their special views represented to the Commissioners. The result of these laborious inquiries is embodied in four volumes of appalling dimensions, which few beyond those specially interested will find leisure to peruse. Fortunately, excellent summaries or digests are available for those who desire to make themselves familiar with the chief points both in the evidence brought before the Commissioners, and the conclusions to which this evidence has led them.

The circumstances under which the Commission was appointed, and the well-known views of many of the gentlemen selected to serve on it, induced a very strong opinion that it was intended to aid the cause of denominational, or, as its advocates, without any very good apparent reason, prefer to term it, "voluntary" education; and the course of the inquiry, so far from removing this impression, deepened and intensified it, while the conclusions and recommendations arrived at are distinctly in antagonism to the maintenance in an effective manner of the Board School system, and are undoubtedly intended to favour denominationalism, more especially in connection with the Church of England.

It was very natural that, notwithstanding their numerous points of divergence, there should be many subjects upon which the Commissioners were unanimous. A brief summary of the most important recommendations made may be useful in considering the conclusions arrived at.

SCHOOL SUPPLY.

UPON this point there was little difference of opinion among the Commissioners, though the minority are rather stronger in their views than the majority as to the necessity in some districts of providing school accommodation for one-fifth of the population; one-sixth being accepted as generally sufficient. The supply of school

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accommodation throughout the country is regarded as sufficient; but this is so unequally distributed that in some places there prevails an educational destitution, while in others there exists an abundance. The migration of people from the agricultural districts to London has, to a large extent, emptied village schools, and made it necessary to build others in the metropolis. By the Act of 1870 School Boards are bound to supply such additional accommodation as may be required by the district or borough they represent; and if they fail to do this the Department can compel them to carry out the Act, or remove them from office if they decline to do so. Cases have occurred where the question arose as to whether a School Board had power to say a school (erected by a denomination) was unnecessary, and in one instance the Education Department refused the grant to a school which the board of the borough declared to be unnecessary. In another case the Department compelled a board to erect a school rather than allow a clergyman, who was willing, to do so. The Commissioners think that a remedy for these grievances would consist in a more liberal interpretation of the word "suitability" as applied to schools, and in a close adherence to the provisions of the Act of 1870, requiring that schools should be maintained to which the parents could not object on religious grounds. The question of geographical convenience does not appear to have been dealt with, yet it is obvious that it should be a first consideration that suitable schools should exist within a reasonable distance of the home of every child, except those who live in isolated or inaccessible localities. With regard to the space to be allowed for each child, the Commissioners appear to be in accord with modern ideas upon the subject of fresh air and ventilation, and recommend that in all future buildings ten square feet per child be allowed for those in average attendance.

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

A LARGE body of evidence was given on this subject, and it appeared that a great variety of modes existed even among School Boards as well as in voluntary schools. In the latter personal supervision existed to a much larger extent than in the board schools, but the former had a compensating advantage in their staff of inspectors, who relieved them of much of the routine work. In Liverpool, a conference of board and voluntary school managers had been held, and an agreement was come to as to a uniform system of management; and the Commissioners recommend this course to the managers of voluntary schools generally.

INSPECTORS OF SCHOOLS.

At the present time the staff of inspectors is reported to comprise

- 12 Chief inspectors.
- 120 Inspectors.
- 30 Sub-inspectors.
- 152 Inspectors' assistants.

The chief point discussed under this head, and upon which much conflicting evidence was given and opinion expressed, was whether the inspectorship should be opened to teachers. The Commissioners conclude that no artificial barrier should be maintained which excludes capable elementary teachers from becoming inspectors. To accomplish this purpose they would increase the inducements for teachers to become

assistant inspectors by increasing the initial salary to £200 per annum. They so far concede the claim for women inspectors, that they would allow a sub-inspectress to assist the head inspector in infant schools and the earlier standards in other schools.

TEACHERS AND STAFF.

UPON this subject a great body of evidence was placed before the Commission, which appeared to prove that there was rather an excess in the number of trained male teachers, and that there was a growing demand for fully-qualified female teachers. This, no doubt, arises from the employment of women in mixed schools, in preference to men, on account of the lower salaries which are thought sufficient for the weaker sex. Proper recognition is given in the report to the admirable work done by ladies of high social position who have devoted themselves to education with most excellent and refining results. Very marked success has attended the efforts of the Roman Catholic ladies in this direction. The question of the position of uncertificated teachers occupied much of the time of the Commission, and strenuous efforts were made to induce the members to try and reduce the number of untrained and uncertificated teachers. These suggestions do not appear to have had much weight with the Commission, as no precise change is proposed, though there was obviously a distinct preference for the certificated teacher. The Commissioners have to admit, however, that there are some untrained teachers whose natural aptitude for the work would make it a national loss if they were excluded from the profession. This admission is of considerable importance, and might be carried much further; for though we are now far in advance of the time when the man who failed in any other occupation was considered good enough to set up for a teacher, and some extraordinary and ludicrous results followed, yet, even now, little pains are taken to ascertain whether a man or woman is possessed of the gift of teaching power. Without this, erudition and learning are of little value in a teacher, but with it considerable success may be achieved even by those who have not had the instruction of a training college. The Commissioners are of opinion that the head master, while devoting himself to the superintendence of the school as his most important duty, should not altogether dissociate himself from actual teaching. Much conflicting evidence was given on the pupil-teacher system, one class of witnesses strongly condemning it, and another warmly supporting it. The result was that the Commissioners decided to let the system remain in operation, with some modifications. One of these is, that pupil teachers should be allowed to withdraw at the age of sixteen, if they found the work uncongenial, or themselves unsuited to it. What is called the "centre system," by which pupil teachers assemble at some central school for instruction, was highly spoken of by some witnesses, but does not appear to have commended itself very strongly to the Commissioners. It is obviously only applicable to large towns, and would appear likely to make the work of pupil teachers, already too hard, much more difficult and laborious. It is pleasing to note that the Commissioners, rather than impose more difficult duties upon the pupil teachers, have recommended that their studies be made somewhat lighter by having more time given them for their own improvement in ordinary school hours.

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TRAINING COLLEGES.

It was only natural that upon a subject which the Nonconformists consider furnishes them with a great grievance, there should be much conflict of evidence and opinion. The existing colleges are nearly all in connection with the Church of England; and students attending them have to conform to the doctrines and observances of that Church, without the protection of a conscience clause. The majority decline to recommend any change in this matter, but would not object to undenominational colleges getting grants from the State, provided there was a conscience clause in the trust deed. This seems a distinctly one-sided arrangement. The conscience of a Nonconformist is of no account in a Church of England training college; but a young Churchman or Churchwoman must not be exposed to the danger of dissent, or, as it would probably be termed by many ecclesiastics, heretical teaching. The Commissioners are agreed that for a certain number of selected students a third year at a training college would be an improvement on the present limit of two years. The minority of the Commissioners naturally dissent from their colleagues on the question of the conscience clause in the existing training colleges, and they add a recommendation that colleges, and other places where higher education is given, might be made available for the training of teachers, with the safeguard of a conscience clause added. The Commissioners do not appear to have looked with any favour upon the establishment of day training colleges in the large towns, and yet there can be no doubt that the establishment of such institutions would be a most economical and valuable measure, and one highly appreciated by many who cannot afford the expense of going through a term in a residential training college. The main objection to this is, that order and discipline are better maintained under the residential system; but when it is considered that in the ordinary life of a teacher his nights are spent at home, while his days are given to teaching, it would appear that a system of training which corresponded with the conditions under which the teacher would afterwards have to work would be quite as effective, if not more beneficial, than that acquired in the somewhat artificial atmosphere of the training college as at present constituted.

ATTENDANCE AND COMPULSION.

ONE of the most important changes introduced into our educational system by Mr. Forster's Act of 1870 was the power given to compel parents to send their children to school. A large number of organisations of varied character existed at that time for advancing education, and liberal sums of money were subscribed for the purpose. But the people whose children most needed education refused or neglected to send them to school, and no progress could be made with this class unless power was given to compel them to do their duty in this respect. The clauses in the Act compelling the attendance of all children between certain ages at school was the first declaration made by law that it was the duty of every parent to send his child to school, and on a review of the operation of the Act the Commissioners ascribe a very large proportion of the greatly-increased attendance to the operation of the compulsory clauses. In this respect it must be remembered that voluntary schools and board schools have alike had the benefit of the service of the attendance officers,

though their salaries and other expenses have to be met by the School Board. Complaints were made to the Commissioners as to the unwillingness of magistrates, in many cases, to enforce the provisions of the Act in regard to penalties for non-attendance at school; and there is no doubt the justices do find it a most unpleasant and disagreeable duty. A recent case at Birkenhead, where the assistant stipendiary threatened to strike on account of the large number of summonses for non-attendance which he was called upon to deal with, forcibly illustrates this. The Commissioners, however, do not make any recommendation to relieve magistrates of the duty imposed upon them by the Act.

The question of exemption from school attendance occupied considerable time and attention. It is one which has been variously treated in this district (Lancashire). In the large manufacturing towns, more particularly those where the cotton trade is the chief industry, opportunities are offered for the employment of children at an early age, and there is a natural disposition on the part of parents to get the children away from school and into the factory as quickly as possible, frequently without much regard for the interests of the children, but only with a desire to increase their own income. The Commissioners lend no encouragement to such motives as these, as they are unanimous in determining that eleven years shall be the standard for half-time exemption, and thirteen for total exemption. In agricultural districts special provision is made for children wanted for farming operations to be exempt from attendance at school in busy seasons, on condition that they attend regularly during the remainder of the year. In regard to half-timers the Commissioners emphatically state that only such children as are "beneficially and necessarily" employed should come under that head; and they desire the Education Department to give clear instructions to inspectors on this point.

RELIGIOUS AND MORAL TRAINING.

It was quite evident from the character of the Commission that this was a subject upon which considerable difference of opinion was likely to arise, and it is therefore rather surprising to find so much unanimity upon the necessity of religious and moral training. A section of the Commission were undoubtedly in favour of the education given in board schools being purely secular, but they discovered from the evidence, if they did not know it before, that public opinion appears to be so strongly in favour of religious instruction, that they did not care to press futile objections. Out of 2,225 School Boards in England, representing 16,000,000 of people, only seven had adopted a purely secular form of teaching. In Wales, owing, as a distinguished Welshman says, to a peculiar system of intolerance (presumably of a clerical character), some fifty boards had adopted the secular system. The important provision of the conscience clause is differently dealt with by the two parties on the Commission. The majority recommend a striking change in asking that the registers be marked as soon as the schools open, and before the religious instruction is given. This would have the effect of compelling all children to be in the school while the religious teaching was given, and would undoubtedly tend to much inconvenience and discomfort. In large towns children withdrawn from such instruction might have accommodation found for them in a classroom or some other part of the building,

but in the large number of schools that have no facilities for such an arrangement, the children would simply sit apart from the others, and would be objects of derision to many of their unfeeling and intolerant comrades. There certainly cannot be much real protection of conscience in such a method, and the present one, which enables the parent to keep the child at home till the secular instruction commences, is one that ought not to be lightly disturbed. The majority appear to think that the Cowper-Temple, or conscience, clause has given satisfaction because it has not been extensively availed of, but they appear to have taken little account of the great reluctance of parents to require their children to take any course calculated to mark them out as singular or peculiar; to say nothing of the persecution which intolerant managers (clerical and lay) do not hesitate to practice to those who dare to dissent from their views.

The recommendations as to moral training are comprehensive, and include nearly every virtue necessary to lay the foundation of good citizenship, viz.:—"Duty and reverence to parents, honour and truthfulness in word and act, honesty, purity, temperance, consideration and respect for others, obedience, cleanliness, good manners, duty to country, discouragement of bad language, and the like." The Commissioners complain that this branch of the inspector's duty has not received the attention it deserved in recent years, and they recommend that it be classed among the first duties of an inspector. There can be little doubt that there is much force in this complaint and recommendation. So much attention has been compulsory in regard to other matters by which grants could be earned that neither inspectors, teachers, or scholars have had much time to devote to questions relating to moral training.

Upon this point, the minority, while not dissenting from their colleagues, think it necessary to add that the value of moral training depends very largely upon the personal character of the teachers; and unless the latter have high moral qualities added to intellectual power, their teaching will fail of its proper effect. They recognise that the great body of teachers have done admirable service in this respect.

THE CURRICULUM OF INSTRUCTION.

UPON this point, the chief division of opinion was as to the value and effectiveness of the present system of standards. The objectors to the plan urge that it "hinders the clever, overpresses the dull, and produces bad classification." Others consider that the system is applicable in large schools, but that more elasticity is needed for smaller ones. In this respect the Commissioners are unanimous. The minority suggest in regard to this class of schools that, excluding infants, the scholars should be divided into three classes, the work in each of which should represent a two years' course of duty. The Commissioners appear to have been unable to make any recommendation likely to remove the defects of the present system by which clever children are kept in one standard between one examination and the next. It is true they say that "They are of opinion that perfect freedom in the classification of scholars, according to their abilities, should be permitted." This is precisely what is wanted, but they do not say by what authority (teachers, managers, or others) it has to be carried out.

MANUAL OR TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION.

PUBLIC attention has recently been directed in a very marked manner to this subject, but nearly every writer and speaker admit the difficulty of defining exactly what is meant by "technical" instruction. It is therefore interesting to have a definition from the Commissioners as to the meaning they attach to the term. The majority define it as "instruction in those scientific or artistic principles which underlie the industrial occupations of the people (including especially handicrafts, manufactures, mining, and agricultural labour), as well as instruction in the manual practice involved in the application of such principles." The minority put it in a much more condensed form as "instruction in the principles and practice of domestic, commercial, agricultural, and industrial work." Neither the majority or the minority appear to think the teaching included in these definitions to be to any great extent the work of elementary schools, but rather to be the proper function of a municipality, or, where that does not exist, of the rating authority. The extent to which they think technical instruction should be attempted in elementary schools is, that boys over ten years of age should have some instruction in industries and the use of tools; and that a workshop should be established in connection with some higher institution to which boys of exceptional ability should be sent for two afternoons in a week, and that their presence there should count as an attendance at school. Much stress is laid by the Commissioners on the importance of drawing as an effective preparation for advanced technical training, and of the growing importance of an acquaintance with modern languages. Upon these last points there will be a general concurrence in the views of the Commissioners. The necessity for a knowledge of drawing, in almost every industry, is becoming more apparent daily, and many school boards provide for its being taught in all their principal schools; and it is certain that indifference, on the part of our youths and young men, to the cultivation of those modern languages in which the greater part of the business of the world is transacted has led to that "foreign competition" which has caused so many offices that ought to be filled by Englishmen to be occupied by foreigners. In these two spheres—drawing and modern languages—there is a vast field for the improvement of the rising generation; but the use of tools, and other phases of the technical instruction question, will not be found so easy to deal with. So far as the technical instruction is directed to ascertaining the capabilities of a boy, and discovering what occupation he is best fitted for, it will doubtless be an advantage. It will also be of considerable importance that boys should have in these schools opportunities of studying the theory and principles of their trade, and the nature of the materials they work with, in a higher degree than is usually possible in the workshop or factory. But there is a danger in connection with technical schools which, if disregarded, may lead to results of quite an opposite character to those desired by their promoters. So long as they are confined to the teaching of trades or occupations which the scholars are engaged in or intended for, really good results may be expected from the additional instruction they thus acquire; but if they are allowed to take up any trade or occupation to which they may take a passing or temporary fancy, they may, after a short and imperfect training, attempt the work of a trade for which they are unfit, and, by taking work at a cheap rate, displace

competent workmen; and so injure rather than advance the condition of the trade to which they have attached themselves, and impair the national reputation of our workmen.

VARIOUS CLASSES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

UNDER this comprehensive head, the Commissioners deal with several aspects of the great education question. They first contrast the efficiency of the schools conducted under the voluntary and board systems, and have to admit that in board schools "the results are higher, taking them all round; but many of the best schools are not board schools." This superiority is ascribed to the fact that, having the rates to fall back upon, the board school managers have a larger purse, and can secure more attractive and convenient schools, and larger staffs. The majority naturally make out as good a case as they can for the continuance of voluntary schools, and more especially claim for the small ones in the rural districts special grants in aid. There seems some reason for the claim, though these are precisely the most ultra-denominational, and are usually, under the squire and the parson, appanages of the Church of England, and where dissenters and others who do not conform to its doctrines and observances are, to put it very mildly, at a great disadvantage. This is a point which does attract much notice with the inspectors, many of whom are members of the dominant Church; but if any extension in the grants of public money is to be made to these schools, some better provision for protecting the conscience of the minority ought to be provided, and any violation of its conditions should entail disqualification for the grant in such a stringent manner as to make the managers of such schools careful to avoid further violations.

The Commissioners recognise the fact that an admitted defect in our system is the want of inducements to boys and girls to interest themselves in intellectual pursuits when their school term is over, and they have commenced to work. There is no doubt that this is a great evil. The large majority of our young people think of nothing more when their day's work is done than how they can best pass away their leisure hours. They have little ambition or desire for improvement in the only way it can be obtained—that is, by application and study. There might have been some justification for them when the hours of labour were longer, and little attraction was presented in our evening schools. Now the latter are abundant and varied, and supply most interesting lessons. Science is made attractive by a variety of experiments, art is made popular, and the language of other countries easy of acquisition. Physical education and the development of the powers of the body are also given a consideration that was for long years neglected. The disposition of the Commissioners appears to be to give to evening classes, or, as they are termed, continuation schools, more of a recreative character, and experience shows that this will tend greatly to their success. The Commissioners recommend that considerable relaxation from the ordinary requirements of the code should be made in regard to these schools, so that more might be paid to them in the shape of a fixed grant, and less as the result of individual examination. On the question as to whether attendance at these schools should be compulsory, the general opinion is against any such enforcement, though the minority suggest that it might be applied, to a limited extent, in the case of those who are under sixteen years of age, and have not passed Standard VI.

GOVERNMENT EXAMINATION AND OVER-PRESSURE.

THERE was considerable diversity in the evidence put before the Commission on the question of over-pressure, but the inspectors are, on the whole, unanimously of opinion that there is very little of it existing. It may be doubted whether inspectors are the best authorities on the subject, as the pressure would be applied before the examination, and they could only judge as to whether any evil results manifested themselves in the appearance or demeanour of the children. There can be no doubt the system of "payment by results," as it is termed, tempts teachers to push children forward without much regard to the welfare of the scholars, and that the evil results would have been much greater but for the humane feelings of the large body of the teachers. The majority of the Commissioners do not suggest any serious or important alterations in regard to inspection, and those of the minority on this point are more important. They consider every child presented on the day of examination should be liable to be examined, and that up to Standard VI. the examination should be mainly oral. They think the inspector should either have been a teacher himself or well-grounded in the work he examines, and should be possessed of a pleasant and sympathetic manner, so as to secure the confidence of the scholars. Many teachers would be delighted to hear that this qualification was more general among the present inspectors than they find it to be. The minority also suggest that the inspector should make a report on the progress of the school, class by class, in the various subjects. They also attach importance to visits without notice, or "surprise visits" by the inspectors, so that they may see the school working in its ordinary manner.

THE GOVERNMENT GRANT.

THIS question is intimately associated with that under the last head. What is called "the merit grant" was the subject of considerable discussion. This is given now for general good work in a school under the heads "fair," "good," or "excellent." It is recommended that this classification be discontinued, and that in its stead the grant be devoted, in such proportions as the inspector may deem expedient, to reward superior intelligence shown by scholars in particular subjects, or other merits not now recognised by grants. This, it should be said, is the view of the majority, from which their colleagues do not appear to have dissented. The majority object to the limitation to the grant from the department to 17s. 6d. per head but do not define any higher sum to which they think it should be raised; contenting themselves with the suggestion that any modification of the present limit must be considered in relation to the general question of the Parliamentary Grant. The minority on this point state that the Parliamentary Grant, or rather the method of distributing it, was criticised with more severity than any other part of the educational system, especially that portion of it which makes the payment follow closely the percentage of success calculated on individual passes. They consider that the amount of the grant must vary according to the ascertained efficiency of the school at the annual inspection; but they add that they think the best method of securing efficient inspection and proper payment to good schools would be the organisation of national education under representative management over areas of sufficient extent, which should aim rather at seeing that local authorities did their duty than minutely

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testing the results of instruction. They further recommend that the present method of assessing payment on the standard subjects be discontinued—a proposal that would involve a radical charge. Dr. Dale and Mr. Heller are prepared to go so far as to altogether abandon the system of “payment by results.” Their colleagues in the minority recommend that a larger portion of the grant should be permanently fixed, subject to better guarantees as to buildings, teachers, and curriculum; and that more money be allowed for cookery, drawing, science, and organising masters. They recognise the claim of small village schools to special aid; and make rather an important advance in the direction of free education when they propose that the Capitation Grant should increase in proportion to the lowness of the school fee charged, and diminish with the rising of the fee above the general average of the country.

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF SCHOOLS.

THE Commissioners refer to the growing expense of public elementary education, as illustrated by the fact that the cost per scholar to the State is now £1. 19s. 5d. per annum, as against £1. 14s. 8d. twelve years ago. This is, by some witnesses, assigned to extravagance, but appears much more likely to be the result of a higher standard of comfort and consideration for the children. It is remarkable that immediately after referring to the matter with what appears to be an eye to economy, the Commissioners proceed to make the recommendation which has aroused so much hostile criticism, namely, that the local educational authority shall be empowered to supplement from the local rates the voluntary subscription given to the support of denominational schools to the extent of not more than ten shillings for each child in average attendance. The control of the school would remain, as before, in the hands of the denominational managers, the ratepayers having only the privilege of paying the taxes asked for on this account. A country, which, after a long struggle, abolished church rates, is not likely to consent to pay for having the day schools which it has to support out of the rates, placed in the hands of irresponsible clerical managers.

THERE are many other points in the report of the Commission which are of very great interest and value. Some of these have been indicated by passing reference; others must be passed over, with the certainty that, in the course of the great controversy upon which we have now entered, every important point relating to this vital question will be fully ventilated. It would be a welcome assurance to the nation if it could feel that every person approaching the subject would regard it and deal with it irrespective of party and creed, and as one upon which the future prosperity of our country depends to a degree which can scarcely be exaggerated. The announcement made on the consideration of the Education Estimates that there was no prospect of the Government undertaking to give effect to the recommendations of the majority of the Commissioners, is the natural outcome of the opposition which those recommendations have raised, even in such bodies as diocesan church synods, and it is not improbable that the work of the Commission will result in leaving educational matters in the *status quo*.

THE SYSTEM OF CREDIT AS PRACTISED BY CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

BY J. C. GRAY.

THE "credit system," especially when considered in connection with the dealings of co-operative societies, is not a pleasant subject to write upon, but, at the present juncture, it would appear to be almost a matter of necessity for co-operators to take up this matter in earnest.

The publication of the Annual Return of the Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies relating to the business transactions of Industrial and Provident Societies for the year 1886, marks a distinct period in co-operative history. It discloses the flourishing existence of a state of things, or system of doing business, which many of us fondly hoped had, through organised co-operative action, become almost, if not entirely, extinct. Indeed, for years past it has been the proud boast of co-operators, in private as well as on public platforms, that they have been instrumental in displacing the thriftless system of buying goods on credit, and have substituted in its place the plan of prompt cash payments. It comes, therefore, upon the majority of co-operators as a matter for surprise to discover that the system of giving credit to members for goods purchased obtains to such an alarming extent in connection with co-operative societies.

The old pioneers, knowing the baneful effects of the system of trading at that time in vogue, were very careful to insert in their first constitution a provision requiring all members to pay cash for goods. None knew better than those brave old reformers what a curse the system of trading on deferred payments could prove to poor working men with limited incomes; what temptations were, in this manner, placed in the way of poor families incurring liabilities from which they could never hope to be free, and thereby in many cases putting themselves in the power of unscrupulous traders who did not hesitate to take full advantage of the position they thus obtained,—the customers having to suffer in many ways, but especially in regard to the price and the quality of the goods they consumed. Our founders, therefore, determined at the very outset that the new system which they intended to originate should take a sound position in regard to this important question, and that they would take their stand on the principle of every man and woman discharging their liabilities in the world as they went along, without fear of the "shop book," with its heavy burden of debt, haunting them constantly like some dreadful nightmare.

In face, then, of the somewhat formidable indictment with which our movement is charged in the Blue Book before mentioned, we may well ask how comes it that co-operators in these latter days have so far forgotten first principles as to have adopted a method of trading from which the founders of our system recoiled, and which, had it been adopted in the early days of the co-operative movement, would certainly have proved its ruin.

THE SYSTEM OF CREDIT AS PRACTISED BY CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

We propose in this article to analyse to some extent the Registrar's Returns to which we have alluded, and endeavour to see how far the movement deserves the reproach thus cast upon it. We will inquire, as far as possible, into the causes which have operated to bring about this departure from principle, and also ascertain how far remedial measures can be suggested. Let us commence, then, by giving a statement of the case as it appears in the

RETURN OF THE REGISTRAR FOR 1886.

COUNTY.	Number of Societies making Returns.	Number of Societies giving Credit.	Per cent of Societies.
ENGLAND.			
Bedford	6	2	33.33
Berks	3	1	33.33
Buckingham	9	3	33.33
Cambridge	3	1	33.33
Cheshire.....	30	22	73.33
Cornwall	9	7	77.77
Cumberland	21	15	71.43
Derby	37	21	56.75
Devon	7	3	42.85
Dorset	4	3	75.00
Durham	56	32	57.14
Essex	14	5	35.71
Gloucester	10	3	30.00
Hants	5	3	60.00
Hereford	1	0	00.00
Hertford	7	4	57.14
Kent	21	11	52.38
Lancaster	192	108	56.25
Leicester	29	5	17.24
Lincoln	9	6	66.66
Middlesex	48	12	25.00
Monmouth	4	2	50.00
Norfolk	3	0	00.00
Northampton.....	40	18	45.00
Northumberland	42	19	45.23
Nottingham	34	7	20.58
Oxford	7	4	57.14
Salop	6	2	33.33
Somerset	8	4	50.00
Stafford	14	12	85.71
Suffolk	10	5	50.00
Surrey..	15	5	33.33
Sussex	5	3	60.00
Warwick.....	22	12	54.54
Westmoreland	7	4	57.14
Wilts	8	7	87.50
Worcester	11	6	54.54
York	189	134	70.89
Total England	946	511	54.01

THE SYSTEM OF CREDIT AS PRACTISED BY CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

RETURN OF THE REGISTRAR FOR 1886.—*Con.*

COUNTY.	Number of Societies making Returns.	Number of Societies giving Credit.	Per cent of Societies.
WALES.			
Carnarvon	1	0	00·00
Denbigh	1	1	100·00
Glamorgan	17	14	82·35
Montgomery	1	0	00·00
Total Wales	20	15	75·00
SCOTLAND.			
Aberdeen	3	1	33·33
Argyle	1	1	100·00
Ayr	27	12	44·44
Banff	2	2	100·00
Berwick	1	1	100·00
Bute	1	1	100·00
Caithness	2	0	00·00
Clackmannan	9	8	88·88
Dumbarton	11	5	45·45
Dumfries	6	5	83·33
Ebinburgh	27	15	55·55
Fife	33	23	69·69
Forfar	21	12	57·14
Haddington	4	4	100·00
Inverness	2	2	100·00
Kincardine	1	0	00·00
Kiurross	3	2	66·66
Lanark	72	40	55·55
Linlithgow	6	2	33·33
Peebles	3	3	100·00
Perth	17	12	70·58
Renfrew	32	18	56·25
Roxburgh	4	3	75·00
Selkirk	4	4	100·00
Stirling	28	19	67·85
Total Scotland	320	195	60·93
IRELAND.			
Antrim	4	4	100·00
Armagh	1	0	00·00
Cork	1	1	100·00
Dublin	2	0	00·00
Louth	1	0	00·00
Total Ireland	9	5	55·55

THE SYSTEM OF CREDIT AS PRACTISED BY CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

RETURN OF THE REGISTRAR FOR 1886.—*Con.*

SUMMARY.

	Societies making Returns.	Societies giving Credit.	Per cent of Societies giving Credit.
England	946	511	54·01
Wales	20	15	75·00
Scotland	320	195	60·93
Ireland	9	5	55·55
	1295	726	56·06

According to the above statement it will be seen that 1,295 societies in Great Britain and Ireland made returns to the Registrar. Of this number no less than 726 practised a system of giving credit to a greater or less extent—48 societies did not make returns, but, as we take the official return as the basis of our argument, these defaulters will not enter into our calculations. Now, we must admit that a bald statement of this description, were it not capable of being more satisfactorily explained, would be rather an ugly blot upon the operations of co-operative societies. We do not doubt that the secretaries or other officials of the various co-operative societies have truthfully stated the position of their societies in relation to this question, but the term "credit" is capable of so many different interpretations that we think we are justified in examining rather more closely into these returns, and thus, if possible, ascertain the exact nature of the "credit" to which they allude.

We will therefore proceed to a further analysis of the official returns. For this purpose, as it is our intention to deal only with the retail societies, we must deduct from the statement previously given in England twenty-eight societies, in which are comprised clubs, loan societies, trading banks, and other associations which do not properly come under the head of co-operative societies, only two of which are stated as giving credit. We must also deduct the Co-operative Wholesale Society, the Co-operative Newspaper Society, and nineteen productive societies, all of which are down in the return as giving credit. The character of the various businesses engaged in by these societies being entirely different from that of the distributive stores, almost necessitates credit being indulged in to some slight degree, therefore we shall find it best to separate these exceptional cases from the retail societies and deal with the latter on their merits.

In Scotland the same argument applies to *five* societies, viz.—the Scottish Wholesale Society, two productive societies, and two land and building societies which are stated as giving credit; and thirteen land and building societies which are included in the Returns but do not give credit.

THE SYSTEM OF CREDIT AS PRACTISED BY CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

We get by this deduction the following table:—

	Retail Societies.		Number giving Credit.		Per cent of Societies giving Credit.
England	897	..	488	..	54.40
Wales	20	..	15	..	75.00
Scotland	302	..	190	..	62.91
Ireland	9	..	5	..	55.55
	<hr/>		<hr/>		<hr/>
	1228		698		56.84

The difference in the percentage between this and the preceding table is scarcely appreciable, but at any rate we now know exactly the nature of the societies with which we have to deal. By the above table we see that the percentage of societies selling goods on credit is largest in Wales, next Scotland, then Ireland, and is the lowest in England.

ANALYSIS OF THE OFFICIAL RETURN.

By the analysis and summary contained on pages 349, 350, and 351 we obtain an insight into the system of credit in all its various degrees, viz.:—

- (1) Without limit or conditions;
- (2) Limited by fixed time for payment;
- (3) Restricted to a fixed sum per member;
- (4) Limited to some proportion, or amount of, share capital held by a member;
- (5) Confined to certain special articles, such as *Coal, Bread, Flour, or Drapery*, with specified time for payment.

Now, although, as a matter of principle, we hold all "credit" to be wrong, it is quite true the evil may exist in a variety of degrees—some not so bad in their effect as others—so, for present purposes, we place these degrees in the order as they appear here, allotting to each the place of precedence in proportion as we believe it to be the more dangerous in practice.

It will at once be seen by this process of analysis, that the bare statement of facts contained in the Registrar's Return becomes considerably modified. Of the 698 societies which are reported as giving credit, only 87 practice the system without limit or condition.

Small as this number is compared with the total of 698, it is far from satisfactory to have to acknowledge that so many of our societies carry on this un-co-operative method of doing business. For this species of credit there can be no defence. It places within reach of the thriftless and improvident the means of plunging hopelessly into debts that in many cases they can never liquidate, and fixes

Continued on page 351.

THE SYSTEM OF CREDIT AS PRACTISED BY CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

ANALYSIS OF THE OFFICIAL RETURN.

The following analysis will give some idea as to the conditions under which this credit is given:—

COUNTY.	Number of Retail Societies giving credit.	Without limit or conditions.	Limited by fixed time for payment.	Restricted to some fixed sum per member.	Limited to some proportion, or amount of, share capital held by a member.	Confined to certain special articles, such as Coal, Bread, Flour, or Drapery, with specified time for payment.
ENGLAND.						
Bedford	2	..	1	..	1	..
Berks	1	..	1
Buckingham	3	..	1	1	..	1
Cambridge	1	1
Cheshire	22	3	5	14
Cornwall	7	1	1	5
Cumberland	15	..	3	12
Derby	21	7	3	7	..	4
Devon	2	..	1	..	1	..
Dorset	3	..	1	..	2	..
Durham	31	2	5	2	20	2
Essex	5	2	2	1
Gloucester	3	..	1	1	1	..
Hants	3	..	3
Hereford	0
Hertford	4	2	2
Kent	10	1	5	2	2	..
Lancaster	100	12	19	12	51	6
Leicester	4	2	1	..	1	..
Lincoln	6	1	..	2	2	1
Middlesex	10	5	3	1	1	..
Monmouth	2	2
Norfolk	0
Northampton	17	2	5	4	5	1
Northumberland	18	1	6	3	5	3
Nottingham	7	..	5	..	1	1
Oxford	4	..	2	..	2	..
Salop	2	1	1	..
Somerset	4	2	2
Stafford	12	4	2	..	6	..
Suffolk	5	5	..
Surrey	5	1	2	1	..	1
Sussex	3	1	2
Warwick	11	4	1	1	4	1
Westmoreland	4	..	1	..	3	..
Wilts	7	..	2	1	4	..
Worcester	6	1	1	..	2	2
York	128	23	26	8	46	25
	488	79	113	77	168	51

THE SYSTEM OF CREDIT AS PRACTISED BY CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

ANALYSIS OF THE OFFICIAL RETURN.—*Con.*

COUNTY.	Number of Retail Societies giving credit.	Without limit or conditions.	Limited by fixed time for payment.	Restricted to some fixed sum per member.	Limited to some proportion, or amount of, share capital held by a member.	Confined to certain special articles, such as <i>Coal, Bread, Flour, or Drapery</i> , with specified time for payment.
WALES.						
Carnarvon	0
Denbigh	1	..	1
Glamorgan	14	2	1	2	9	..
Montgomery	0
	15	2	2	2	9	..
SCOTLAND.						
Aberdeen.....	1	1	..
Argyle.....	1	1	..
Ayr	12	..	1	..	9	2
Banff	2	2	..
Berwick	1	1	..
Bute	1	1	..
Caithness	0
Clackmannan	8	..	2	..	6	..
Dumbarton	5	5	..
Dumfries.....	5	5	..
Edinburgh	14	..	1	2	11	..
Fife	22	3	19	..
Forfar	12	2	..	2	8	..
Haddington	4	2	2	..
Inverness	2	1	1
Kincardine	0
Kinross	2	2	..
Lanark	39	3	1	2	32	1
Linlithgow	2	2	..
Peebles	3	3	..
Perth	12	1	2	2	7	..
Renfrew	16	..	2	1	13	..
Roxburgh	3	1	2	..
Selkirk	4	4	..
Stirling	19	1	18	..
	190	6	9	16	155	4
IRELAND.						
Antrim	4	..	1	..	3	..
Armagh	0
Cork	1	1	..
Dublin.....	0
Louth	0
	5	..	1	..	4	..

THE SYSTEM OF CREDIT AS PRACTISED BY CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

ANALYSIS OF THE OFFICIAL RETURN.—*Con.*

SUMMARY.

	Number of Retail Societies giving credit.	Without limit or conditions.	Limited by fixed time for payment.	Restricted to some fixed sum per member.	Limited to some proportion, or amount of share capital held by a member.	Confined to certain special articles, such as <i>Cod, Bread, Flour, or Drapery</i> , with specified time for payment.
England	488	79	113	77	168	51
Wales	15	2	2	2	9	..
Scotland	190	6	9	16	155	4
Ireland	5	..	1	..	4	..
	698	87	125	95	336	55

Continued from page 348.

upon such people a burden which fastens its weight upon them for life. It was such as these that co-operation was intended to redeem, and societies that lend themselves to this thriftless habit have not half comprehended their mission.

In regard to the two stages or degrees appearing next in order on the list, viz., the 125 societies which give credit "limited by fixed time for payment," and the 95 societies which "restrict the amount of credit to a fixed sum per member," we must confess that, speaking generally, we find them very little better in degree than the 87 first named, which give credit without limit or conditions. In both of these systems a premium is offered to improvidence and thriftlessness. In the one case the "fixed time" for payment ranges from two days to three months; in the other the "fixed sum" varies from 10s. to £40 per member. It is very evident that these conditions will allow of considerable amounts being run up as debts which the debtors will, in a majority of cases, have to discharge by instalments, thus increasing the risk of eventual loss and causing a large amount of extra work to the officials of the society, with expenses consequent thereon, which under a system of ready-money payments would not be incurred.

As regards the three varieties of the credit system so far dealt with, the societies do not possess any security for the recovery of these debts beyond the power given them by common law. In the case of some it is, we believe, their practice not to pay dividend on the purchases of members who do not discharge the whole of their debts at the end of the quarter. If such be the case we may gather, from the amounts regularly appearing in societies' balance sheets under the proper designation as "accounts owing by members," and in some other instances where such amounts are quietly and ingeniously made to figure in the accounts as part of the "stock on hand," that many members are unable to pay off these liabilities when due, and thus forfeit their right to dividend on their purchases. In this way members lose all the advantages which it is intended should be conferred upon them by a system of co-operative trading.

It is, however, in division (4), where societies to the number of 336 "limit the credit to some proportion, or amount, of share capital," that we find the societies hardest to convince of the evils of the credit system. They can enter into plausible arguments as to the soundness of their system. They will tell you there is no risk of loss in the way they manage this credit business; in fact, some will not acknowledge that they do give credit so long as a member in making purchases does not exceed the amount of his share capital. This reasoning, however, does not make their position sound, and if closely examined it will be found to rest upon a misconception of the relation of one thing to another. We are quite willing to grant that some societies have been very prosperous while trading on this system, but while some have prospered, others have been ruined by it.

In co-operative businesses, above all others, share capital and trade transactions ought to be treated as separate and entirely distinct. To look upon share capital as a trade deposit, on which members can obtain goods, is a sure method of making the position of any society weak and unsound. Share capital is subscribed for the purpose of establishing a society in its business—to build and stock shops and warehouses—to enable it to enter the markets and purchase upon the best possible terms; as such, therefore, share capital ought always to be kept intact, and not be subject to spasmodic drafts upon its resources, by way of recouping trade debts.

In most cases of this limitation of credit by shares, the proportion is three-fourths, but in many societies members are allowed to trade on the whole amount. Now, we may safely say that very few societies could afford to have three-fourths of their share capital locked up in stock or trade debts, much less could they contrive to spare the whole of it for such a purpose; besides, as the stock goes out, either for cash or on credit, it must be replenished, otherwise the trade of the society will suffer. It is therefore patent enough that one of three things must happen under such a system—(1) That if the capital raised is only just sufficient to carry on the business of the society, only a portion of the members trade on the credit system at the expense of the remainder, who pay ready money; (2) that, if the capital is limited, as in (1), and *all* the members take credit to the full extent allowed, the society must always be in debt to the firms from whom it obtains its wholesale

supplies; or (3), where the whole, or a greater portion of the members, can trade upon their holdings without inconvenience to the society, it is a proof that the share or loan capital is largely in excess of what is really required for the purpose of the society's business.

Regarding these alternatives, we cannot believe that any co-operator would, wilfully and knowingly, trade at the expense of his fellow-member, but such is certainly the case where credit is given under such conditions as prevail in clause (1). Nor can we suppose that co-operative morality has sunk so low, that co-operators would go into debt for their wholesale supplies in order to obtain the means of gratifying their desire for a system of trading based on deferred payments. But there is no doubt that under the conditions of clause (2) such a result would obtain. A slight consideration of this clause (2) might also help to explain the cause of something which is a puzzle to many co-operators, *i.e.*, the inability of some of the societies to deal with the Wholesale Society, so far as the bulk of their trade is concerned. It is quite clear that, in the case of societies whose members trade upon their shares to a greater extent than the surplus capital will allow, these societies cannot afford to pay prompt cash for their goods, and thus cannot trade with the Wholesale Society. It would be an interesting study to find out how far this credit system is responsible for the lack of that general co-operative loyalty which the Wholesale Society, as the creation of the distributive stores, has so much right to expect.

So far as clause (3) is concerned, in face of the risk incurred by such an unwarrantable mixing together of shares and trade, we should feel much disposed to copy the example set by one or two of our largest societies, and limit the share holding of each member strictly to the amount really required for the working of the society, repaying the overplus of capital to the members, to be used by them as deposits on trading account, or otherwise as they thought fit.

We have now dealt with all the various degrees of the credit system with the exception of the one last mentioned on our list, *viz.*—credit “confined to certain special articles such as *Coal, Flour, Bread, or Drapery.*” This kind of credit is most capable of explanation; in fact, so many and varied are the reasons that are given by societies for these exceptions to their general rule of ready-money-payments, that we propose to leave the discussion of these reasons until we have examined a little more closely into the causes.

For this purpose we make use of some particulars which have been obtained by the Central Co-operative Board, in reply to an exhaustive circular of inquiry sent out by it with a view to getting more detailed information relating to the various credit systems. We only propose, at present, to make use of the answers given to the questions put to the societies as to the reasons why, in their opinion, credit is desirable or advantageous in connection with their trading operations. After analysing these replies and getting as clear an insight as we possibly can into the causes which have the effect in the eyes of some of making a system of credit desirable, we will endeavour to see how far remedies can be suggested.

THE SYSTEM OF CREDIT AS PRACTISED BY CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

SUMMARY OF ANSWERS GIVEN BY SOCIETIES IN REPLY TO THE CIRCULAR ISSUED BY THE
CENTRAL CO-OPERATIVE BOARD.

TABLE I.—VARIETIES OF CREDIT.

	Midland Section.	Northern Section.	North-Western Section.	Scottish Section.	Southern Section.	Western Section.	TOTAL.
Number of Societies making Returns	25	42	119	93	27	11	317
Number having ceased to give credit since the publication of the Registrar's Return	2	5	3	3	4	..	17
Number of Societies giving <i>general</i> credit	19	32	91	77	21	7	247
Number of Societies giving <i>special</i> credit	4	5	25	13	2	4	53
ANALYSIS OF SPECIAL CREDIT :—							
Coal only	3	..	17	4	24
Butchery only	4	4
Corn only	1	1
Corn and Flour only	2	2
Corn and Coal only	1	1
Flour and Coal only	1	1
Grocery only	1	1	2
Bread only	1	1	1	1	4
Bread, Flour, and Coal only..	1	1
Fishing Materials only	1	1
Furniture only	1	1
Drapery only	1	1	2
Drapery and Boots only	1	..	1	2
Drapery, Boots, and Furniture only	1	..	1
Furniture and Tailoring only..	1	1
Drapery and Coal only	1	1	2
Drapery, Furniture, and Coal only	1	1
Drapery, Boots, and Coal only	2	2
	4	5	25	13	2	4	53

As distinguished from the above we ought to state that nine societies which are included in the 247 giving *general* credit make exceptions to their rule, and demand cash payments in the following departments, viz. :—Four societies in Butchery, three in Drapery, one in Coal, and one in Bread and Coal, thus contradicting the idea that these departments cannot be worked on the ready-money system.

THE SYSTEM OF CREDIT AS PRACTISED BY CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

TABLE II.—CAUSES OF CREDIT BEING ALLOWED, AND RESULTS ARISING THEREFROM.

	Midland Section.	Northern Section.	North-Western Section.	Scottish Section.	Southern Section.	Western Section.	TOTAL.
I. Receipt of wages at too great intervals	7	24	39	34	11	9	124
II. Sickness, distress, temporary want of employment, bad trade in the district..	13	11	35	19	9	4	91
III. Convenience in regard to members living at a distance	14	25	47	33	12	8	139
IV. The advantage of being able to send children for goods without risking money in their charge	1	1	6	8	1	0	17
V. (a) Credit being the custom of the locality; (b) societies having started on credit lines and not now able to discontinue the system; (c) the desire on the part of some societies to compete with the shopkeepers of the district by offering the same facilities for obtaining goods on easy terms	10	10	43	44	9	4	120
VI. Average amount owing for goods	£ 4628	£ 20629	£ 35753	£ 42463	£ 3851	£ 6112	£ 113436
N.B.—Only a portion of the replying societies give an estimate of this item, hence it is necessarily incomplete.							
VII. Number of societies in which losses have occurred through giving credit. . .	15	17	88	52	17	6	195

SPECIAL CREDIT.

FROM the foregoing summary in Table I., it will be seen that the abstract of the Registrar's Return relative to the variety of ways in which credit is given, proves to be fairly correct. In the abstract referred to, it was shown that 55 societies confined their credit to certain specified articles. Our own returns show 53 such societies; but we are now able, from the additional information thus obtained, to gauge more

accurately the reasons actuating the societies practising these special methods. For instance, there are no less than 18 different kinds of special credit, the most common being that of giving credit "on coal only," which is the case with 24 societies out of the 53 named. Ten societies allow credit on drapery, either alone or combined with some other department such as boots or furniture; while butchery and bread come next in order with 4 societies each. Now, the reasons stated why it is deemed necessary to give this special credit are so very contradictory that it will perhaps be best to let the societies speak for themselves through their secretaries. To take this course will assure their reasons being placed before our readers in an unbiassed manner. In the first place we will take coal, and select one or two replies bearing on this article of consumption. They are as follow:—

Answer No. 1. "We only give credit on account of the coal business, which, as you are aware, cannot be transacted on the ready-money principle."

Answer No. 2. "It is the custom of the district to give credit on coal; if the society did not offer the same facilities, the members would go elsewhere, and the society would lose the trade."

Answer No. 3. "We give credit for our own convenience in working the coal department, as we do not know until the returns come in how much has been supplied. Say a member orders one ton of coal—it is loaded up and taken to the machine to weigh, it may be 23 or 24 cwt.—instead of taking it off and sending the bare ton, we send the whole quantity; thus saving the men's time. Our members do not complain of the excess quantity, for which they are willing to pay."

The three societies giving the above answers, all find it possible to conduct their business on the ready-money system, with the solitary exception of the coal department.

As a set-off against these, we will now give the reply of another society which allows credit on every class of goods *except coal and bread*. This answer states: "We give credit on all goods except bread and coal, which are paid for in advance. Copper checks are purchased for bread, before the bread is delivered. On a Saturday, a member, after paying for his week's grocery goods, buys his bread checks, four, five, or so on to fourteen or more, and hands them to the vanmen for loaves. Coal is paid for on order, sometimes one, and sometimes four days, or even a week before delivery. Most members can tell beforehand how much bread and coal they require, but with groceries and other articles it is not so."

Now, it is apparent from these contradictory returns, that some societies are able to carry the ready-money system into departments where others declare it impossible to be worked. We have previously pointed out instances where societies allow credit on groceries alone, and insist upon ready money for all other articles, such as drapery, furniture, boots, &c., &c. Now, it is exactly the opposite with other societies, which obtain ready money for groceries, but say they are obliged to adopt the credit system in regard to the other classes of goods, because a larger amount of money is involved in their purchase, and the members are not able to pay down the whole sum at once.

On the whole, after carefully weighing the various reasons given for this special credit, we come to the conclusion that there is really no necessity for it if societies will but make up their minds to do without it.

In almost every case where societies assign a special reason why certain portions of their business should be conducted on the credit system, we have, on the other hand, instances of societies making it binding that these very departments, thus treated exceptionally on credit lines, can be best worked on the ready-money system. Therefore we should earnestly recommend those societies which find difficulties in connection with these special departments, and yet are anxious to conduct their business on the system of cash payments, to take counsel with those societies which appear to have arrived at a solution of these difficulties.

Before passing from the consideration of this Table I., we may just remark that its most pleasing feature is that, since the publication of the Registrar's Return, 17 societies have discontinued the practice of giving credit.

CAUSES OF CREDIT.

TABLE II. gives a summary of the *causes* which are assigned by 300 societies, replying to the circular before mentioned, as influencing their decision to practise the credit system. Taking them in the order in which they appear in the table, we have—

(1.) Receipt of wages at too great intervals.

No less than 124 societies state this as a reason. In the majority of instances it is said that fortnightly payments prevail—in a few the interval extends to a month. This clause more especially applies to the agricultural and mining districts.

(2.) Sickness, distress, temporary want of employment, bad trade in the district.

This cause is stated by 91 societies. One of the greatest factors in this is the distress consequent on lack of employment caused by fluctuations in trade. Also in the case of the agricultural labourer, whose earnings are affected by bad seasons.

(3.) Convenience in regard to members living at a distance.

This appears to be a very prominent reason, as it is given by 139 societies. It seems to apply especially to those societies which make a practice of delivering goods by cart or van to members residing at some distance from the store, and the societies generally object to allowing their vanmen to receive cash for goods. We can, however, scarcely see the force of this objection. It is possible, we should imagine, to engage as vanmen and carters persons who could be implicitly trusted as regards honesty. At any rate, it would be a very easy matter to require that they should give a sufficient legal security for the proper custody of any sums entrusted to their care. Indeed we know that in some societies the vanmen do receive cash for goods, and the arrangement works perfectly well. Therefore we cannot recognise this as a fatal objection to ready-money dealing.

(4.) The advantage of being able to send children for goods without risking money in their charge.

Only 17 societies offer this reason. No doubt there is some amount of force in it, but possibly the difficulty might be overcome by some means other than that of resorting to credit.

(5.) *Credit trading being the custom of the locality.*

Under this head we have various explanations given by 120 societies. A very frequent reason assigned is "the desire on the part of societies to compete with the shopkeepers of the district by offering equal facilities for obtaining goods on easy terms." In our judgment it is a great mistake for co-operators to offer baits of this description to secure the trade of unwilling people. Our movement is supposed to be actuated by high ideals; we pretend to be social reformers—trade reformers, if you please—but if it is to be anything more than a name we must be prepared to take our stand upon principle. Some people are pleased to say that there are no principles involved in the practice of co-operation, that it is simply self-interest and selfishness that has brought about its unprecedented success. However that may be, we claim at any rate that, in regard to this system of credit, there is a very important principle involved. Our principle in this case is that we will endeavour to reform trading operations in such a manner that it shall not be easy for poor people to become entangled in debt; and further, that we, as joint members, will trade together on one common understanding and share the proceeds equitably in proportion to what we have each done towards making them. A just division can only be made where all deal on the same basis. If one member of the community pays ready money and another obtains his goods on credit, an injustice is certainly done to the former. If a member is poor and distressed, it is no true charity to furnish him with the means of slipping easily and quietly into debt; and if, on the other hand, a member is well able to pay for the goods he obtains, he ought not to expect other people to give him credit.

Now, we firmly believe that the time has come when co-operators should make a definite stand on this question, and grapple with it under whatever guise it may present itself. Let those who thoroughly value the principle of emancipating men and women from the thralldom of debt be prepared to stand by themselves as genuine co-operators. Credit customers are profitable to nobody, least of all to themselves; therefore it is no business of ours to tempt them into our ranks by alluring baits held out in the shape of facilities for credit and thriftlessness. Being persuaded in our own minds that the only safe principle of dealing is for each one to pay his way in the world as he goes along, we will by all means in our power try to induce others to follow our example and join with us in our work, but it is no part of our duty to go out to these people and say—"If you cannot adopt our methods we will then alter our plans to suit you."

It has long been our opinion that co-operative members were made too cheaply, and that our rapid advance in members has only been acquired by the sacrifice of many vital principles. The study of these details of the credit system has still further forced this belief upon our conviction. The chief aim of many societies seems to be to make *members*, with an utter disregard as to whether at the same time they make *co-operators*. We know in these cases that the hope generally is to make

members first and then educate them to become co-operators ; but, alas, too often the would-be educators find in their pupils their own masters, and are consequently obliged to follow their dictation and vote, with the natural result that genuine co-operative impulse is smothered. We don't hesitate to affirm that co-operation loses much of its beneficial influence through pandering to these outside and unsympathetic individuals.

It must not be supposed, however, that all those who practice the credit system are perfectly satisfied with its workings. To prove the contrary, we give a few extracts from the opinions written by the secretaries of societies where the system is in operation. We make no apology for introducing these extracts, as we attach the utmost importance to the necessity of bringing our readers as closely as possible into contact with those gentlemen who have been good enough to give us their experience in relation to this question.

Extract No. 1. "Credit is not desirable, but I think we should lose a lot of members if we demanded *cash*. The principal reason, in my opinion, is the great mistake that was made years ago, by allowing the credit system to creep in for the sake of increasing the sales. All that we can do now is to keep them within reasonable limits."

No. 2. "We do not think it desirable, and shall stop it as soon as circumstances will permit."

No. 3. "The great loss we are sustaining by having so much money out causing us to require more capital to carry on our business than would be necessary providing we could get these debts in. It is a slow and tedious job, when working men have been allowed to get behind, to get them up again. I am sure all who have the interest of co-operation at heart will be glad the Central Board has taken this matter up, and sincerely hope they will be able to *devise* and *advise* societies how to proceed in this matter."

No. 4. "In the great majority of cases the members have been born a week or two over soon, and like credit."

No. 5. "The credit system is expensive in upholding and working out, by reason of cost of books and in additional staff of hands."

No. 6. "We live not far from a large store that gives considerable credit, which handicaps us, and therefore offers that credit facility which we have no desire to offer if we could avoid it."

No. 7. "The credit system is a source of continual annoyance, as members are regularly getting too much and have to be stopped."

No. 8. "Credit system ought never to have been allowed. It is very hurtful to the principles of co-operation. In 1881 our society was nearly ruined by it."

No. 9. "Unfortunately the ready-money system was not adopted when the society was commenced. The only reason for credit is, in my opinion, that, having been so long accustomed to it, our members will not give it up."

No. 10. "The chief cause is improvident habits, although in some cases it is not so, but bad management. Some people seem as if they cannot do without credit, and do badly with it. It is a great curse."

No. 11. "Credit exists mainly through the bad habit of always being a week behind, but is not of course desirable on that account."

No. 12. "I have long felt the necessity of threshing out this question, believing as I do that the unthrifty habits of the people are to a great extent behind the whole."

No. 13. "It is an encouragement to improvident habits."

No. 14. "Improvidence and drunkenness are the prime factors. No *real* benefit results from giving credit. In many cases it only furnishes facilities for buying liquor."

No. 15. "Its worst features are that members eat up their profits as they are made; also a great addition is caused to the shop work by booking so much, and requiring a higher capital to work the trade."

No. 16. "Credit has been allowed by the society since it started more than 50 years ago, and it is not easy stopping it; the general cause being unthrifty habits. The bad habit descends from father to son and from mother to daughter. We have lost hundreds of pounds by it."

No. 17. "I cannot refrain from adding, in reference to your questions, that they touch a very serious defect in the co-operative system of distribution. The giving of credit leads to a complication of difficulties with which the stores may for a time grapple, but there is great fear of eventual failure if a gradual movement is not soon made all round towards ready-money lines. If the Central Board succeeds in awakening directors of societies to their duty, they will do inestimable service at the present time to our common cause."

Only the other day we heard an official of a society, which has gone through a severe crisis brought about in a large degree by the prevalence of credit, relating his experience. He said:—"We have put some of our members into court in order to get the money, and have succeeded in getting judgment in our favour in every case. But what is the use of so doing? Our experience is that whenever a member has been sued in court for debt you never again see that member inside your store as a customer. Therefore, the result is this:—If a member owes us say £10 or £12 for goods, and is doing a good weekly trade with our store, paying pretty well as he goes along, but always keeping this £10 or £12 behind, we prefer, in order to retain his custom, to let him owe this money rather than sue him and make him pay up. Of course, these debts are a dead weight on the society and prevent its progress, but we cannot avoid this state of things so long as we have the credit system."

These experiences show that a widespread dissatisfaction exists even amongst those who are compelled by surrounding circumstances to practice the credit system. We have, therefore, the greater hope for the future.

LOSSES BY CREDIT DEALING.

By reference again to our Table II., it will be noticed that 195 societies out of 300 making returns admit having made losses by giving credit. These losses have occurred, too, in many societies professing to have a sufficient safeguard by limiting the amount of credit to be allowed to any member in proportion to the share capital of that member, so that it is evident when once the system gets firm foothold in a society, it is very difficult to confine it within specified limits.

We cannot attempt to form an estimate of the sum to which losses have amounted, because the societies give no details under this head. We are afraid, however, that even taking into account the 195 societies which admit loss, our returns are very incomplete in this respect, as losses occur which are never allowed to appear in the accounts, but are simply written off without the members generally knowing anything about them.

From inquiries made, it is certain that very loose methods are adopted in keeping account of the debts contracted by members. Sometimes a book may be used by the shopman, but oftener than not we have found the accounts kept on loose sheets which never come under the notice of the auditors, and are never checked as between shopmen and the members owing the accounts. Then again, how often do we find the amount owing for goods secreted in the amount set down as "stock on hand," thus keeping the bulk of the members in ignorance of the existence of credit, the truth very frequently dawning upon them only when they find the society bordering on ruin; having, on the strength of worthless assets in the shape of bad debts, paid away dividends in excess of the profits made. To this source can be traced the downfall of many once promising societies.

So much for the action of credit upon societies. But what can we say as to its action upon the members themselves? Can we expect that a member who grows up under this system will ever comprehend the value of thrift and economy so well as one who is taught by co-operation to practice these virtues in his everyday life, not only in his home, but in thought for the future also? It is a well-known practice with many people to be always a week or two behind in the world. Habit has become in their case a second nature. So long as left to their own resources they could not throw it off however they were to try. It is here where co-operation should step in and give them backbone to resist the temptation, and make a new start in life. This is part of our duty as co-operators, and we should not shirk it. One of the most important features of co-operation is, that it teaches men how to live, and how to become good citizens. A man can hardly be a good citizen unless he pays his way and is a solvent citizen, therefore our duty in this respect is very important.

We may perhaps be excused for calling in here the aid of a witness, of whose impartiality there can be no question, and who is most strong in his denunciation of credit. We refer to an article in the *Fortnightly Review* of September last, written by Judge Chalmers, of the Birmingham County Court. He says:—"Last

year, according to the official returns, more than 40,000 actions were brought in this one court, to recover debts under £20. Taking the family at five persons, the 40,000 defendants represent a population of 200,000 people. A considerable deduction must no doubt be made for the same man being sued two or more times the same year. Still, the fact remains that a vast body of people in the town will not pay their small debts without the compulsion of law, the ultimate sanction being the power of imprisonment. The law costs incurred profit neither party to the bargain. It is true, of course, that the majority of the defendants can pay in full or in part, but will not do so unless under compulsion. . . . The system is all against the honest man who pays his way. He has to pay, not only for himself, but also for those who can't or won't pay. . . . I venture to suggest that it would be well to try the effect of legislation, which would curtail credit, and bring people nearer to the system of cash payments. The wage-earning classes spend their wages week by week, but at present they spend them in paying debts, instead of in buying goods. If they could be brought back approximately to ready-money dealings, it would be equivalent to an increase in their wages, for they would get more goods for the same amount of money."

It is to be hoped that this searching criticism of credit, by so competent an authority, will have due weight with co-operators. It is certain that we can, if we choose, without the aid of any special legislation for the purpose, curtail and abolish credit, so far as our societies are concerned; and if this curtailment is such a necessary reform as Judge Chalmers affirms it to be, co-operators should not be slow to take the lead in this march of progress, and abolish the system altogether.

REMEDIES OR ALTERNATIVES FOR CREDIT.

We have said sufficient to show the evils of credit, from whatever view it may be regarded, but our duty would be but half fulfilled were we to stop short without endeavouring to direct attention to better methods. We will therefore try to suggest what, in our opinion, would be preferable in practice, not only as regards the well-being of the societies, but also in respect to the training of our members in habits of thrift, forethought, and economy.

With Cause V., Table II., we do not propose to deal, because in our previous remarks upon it we expressed an opinion that co-operators should not bend to "the custom of any locality" if that custom does not coincide with co-operative principles. Co-operators should at all times be willing to aid in moralising bad customs, and should welcome converts from such customs. But it is a risky business to attempt to convert people from bad habits by practising such bad habits one's-self; the result generally is that the evil habit becomes confirmed, and the would-be reformer becomes a devotee of the habit or custom he sought to efface. We say, then, there is no remedy to suggest in a case like this beyond letting it severely alone.

But what we do want to deal with at present are those cases where general credit is now given, owing to causes stated in Table II. (I., II., III., IV.), which causes appear worthy of consideration because they imply (1) distress, (2) inconvenience to members, which co-operators should be ever willing to remove whenever possible.

We will take Causes I. and II. jointly, as they appear both to be generally worked on the same lines, *i.e.*, whether a member requires credit on account of receiving his wages fortnightly, or whether, on account of sickness and distress, he is obliged to have a certain amount of capital invested in the society before he can be allowed credit. Hence he must not be a penniless member. According to the rule of most societies, in order to have fifteen shillings' worth of credit he must have £1 invested in the society. Consequently he must either first save his £1 and invest it in the society, or, until he gets his £1 accumulated for him, he must trade on ready-money lines. Now, it appears from this that the man with the fortnightly wages is bound to trade for ready money at the time he is poorest—that is, when he has not even £1 to invest in the society; and the man who is in distress must pay ready money just at the moment when his distress is greatest, because he has not the necessary £1 to invest in the society. But as soon as they, by hook or crook, scrape this amount together and become capitalists to that extent, and their direct necessity gone, they can at once proceed to take credit for future goods out of these hard-scraped savings. What an incentive to thrift is this! In effect we say to our members, "We insist upon your practice of self-denial until you have scraped together this £1, but having accomplished that you can proceed to dissipate the greater portion of it as soon as you think fit. Ready-money payments for a certain number of weeks will insure you an accumulation of dividends to the extent of £1. So far, you have paid your way in the world, week by week, but now you are privileged to drop behind for a week or so, if you thus desire."

From the reasons given from time to time for this species of credit we have always supposed that the actuating motives were charity and sympathy with those in distress, but in our view it really fails when most required. Now, our idea is, that all these cases of distress and want of funds on account of fortnightly payments should each be dealt with on its own merits, and that any assistance granted should not take the form of credit on goods, but should be in the nature of a *loan* from the society to the individual. Every application should be dealt with by the committee of the society, and be thoroughly inquired into in order to ascertain whether or not it is a genuine case of need. Of course it would be naturally expected that the committee would exercise reticence and discretion in relation to anything that was made known to them in the course of their inquiries, and would not divulge outside the committee-room anything of a personal nature relative to the applicant. When the committee had ascertained that the application was a deserving one, and that the necessity for help had not been brought about by thriftless habits or spendthrift propensities, they could then, on the security of one or two sureties, advance a loan sufficient to tide over the difficulty, and enable the borrower to trade at the store and pay ready money. The loan could be made by bond, executed by the borrower and sureties, with stipulations as to payment of interest and repayment of the principal.

The borrower, if in great distress, would thus be able to start, without any capital, as a thoroughgoing co-operator, reaping the full benefits to be derived from the dividends on his consumption. The dividend thus obtained would pay interest upon the loan and leave a considerable surplus, which should be accumulated and applied towards the reduction of the loan until it was entirely repaid; afterwards, the member would begin to accumulate capital on his own account by means of his future dividends.

By this means a society would always be able to show its assets and liabilities in a perfectly reliable form. There would be no fictitious assets cloaked up in "stock," nor debts put down which were not capable of being realised. Of course, due care would have to be taken to accept none but trustworthy persons as sureties.

This method would apply equally to cases where members were short of funds on account of deferred payment of wages, as well as to those members in distress. At the same time, we must confess, we think this "fortnightly wages" difficulty very much magnified. Is it a fact that co-operators have been trading for all these years on this system of dividing profits with the consumer, and yet have not succeeded in placing in the hands of members a fortnight's funds in advance of their daily requirements? If this is the case it would appear that much of our labour has been lost, and, instead of our system converting working men into capitalists, and thus evolving out of their previous poverty the possibilities of a higher state of social life, we have only succeeded, in many cases, in making profits which were eaten up as soon as made. It is calculated that, if a member will be strictly loyal to his store, and spend say 10s. per week there, *the dividend arising from those purchases will in a year's time amount to no less a sum than four or five weeks' total expenditure.* Thus, if a member chooses to eat up his dividends each year he can, practically speaking, *live upon his profits* for a period of four or five weeks. We have reason to believe that this course is often followed, and, instead of accumulating profits and becoming capitalists, members are too frequently tempted to lay hold of their profits and cause them to disappear. But, however these cases of destitution arise, we believe they would be best dealt with by way of temporary loan, and thus sooner place the member in a position to reap the fullest advantage from co-operative trading.

We next come to Causes III. and IV., Table II., which relate more especially to the convenience of members who live at a distance, and to those who send their children to make purchases. Now, suppose a store in any town enlarges its borders and takes in members at a distance from its centre, in order to give such members the advantages of co-operation, we do not see why the trade of these outside members should be conducted at a sacrifice to those members nearest the centre, who in all probability started the store, and who, no doubt, being near of access, attend personally and pay ready money for all they purchase. Of course, we agree that every facility should be given to members at a distance for trading, as far as possible, on equal terms with those who dwell nearer the store. If it is not possible to place a branch store in any given district, then the wants of the members resident in that district should be catered for by vans, or "branches on wheels" as we have heard them described. Possibly the working expenses can be better kept down by that means than by erecting a branch store. But, given this facility, we do not

admit that the giving of time for payment is a necessary sequel. We have said before that these vanmen, in our opinion, should be placed on the same basis as shopmen, and made responsible for any cash they receive. But if there is any deep-rooted objection to this course, the only way open, to avoid the creeping in of a general credit system, is that *deposit accounts* should be opened with those members who wish to send orders without sending cash at the same time.

The system of trade deposit accounts is in operation in connection with the civil service stores and several supply associations, and in this respect co-operators might well take a leaf out of their book. Trade deposit accounts should be separate from all other descriptions of deposit, and each member depositing would have a special form of book for the purpose, in which his purchases would be entered, and his deposit accounted for. A member need not deposit more than he would estimate as sufficient to cover the cost of any goods which he might require in the interval of his visits to the store. Of course it would be desirable to give interest on all credit balances, but there should be a stipulation that trading deposits should be limited to some specified sum—say £5 or £10; this would obviate any danger of the society being flooded with deposits in excess of what were really required for the safe conduct of its business. The deposit system would also answer in cases of the special credit previously mentioned, such as coal, drapery, furniture, &c., if the difficulties stated by the societies are really insurmountable in any other way; but we imagine that more can be done in the direction of clearing away these special systems of credit by the different societies interested comparing notes with each other than by any other method.

We leave this matter to the consideration of the co-operative societies generally, but especially to those societies which are most interested in this important question, by reason of their contact with it in some of its various forms. In doing so we would earnestly urge them to use their best endeavours to cut off from their practice all methods which cramp or confine, or in any way tend to destroy, the beneficial influences and the immense possibilities which are involved in the practice of thorough co-operation.

OUR FRUIT-GROWING INDUSTRY.

BY GEORGE T. TURNER.

INTRODUCTORY.

IN making an attempt to lay before the readers of this "Annual" a comprehensive statement in connection with this subject, I must confess to the great disadvantage of not being a fruit-grower, in the commercial sense of the term, nor am I directly or indirectly associated with any of the several movements which have more or less recently been started in connection with it. My experience as a tenant-farmer, and my present position in connection with the agricultural press, are the only pleas I can offer in extenuation of having undertaken to do my best in an honest and unbiassed endeavour to sum up the evidence hitherto adduced, and to venture an opinion or two upon it, solely on my own personal responsibility. I candidly admit that some of the later developments which have arisen out of what is being called a "national movement" appear to me as savouring strongly of ulterior political objects, and, consequently, I feel great diffidence in referring to them. But in the short paper I propose to write I hope to be able to deal with the several salient points solely on their merits, according to my lights, and to point out the seeming possibilities which underlie proposed efforts to grow better fruit, and more of it, in this country.

I do not make any attempt to give technical details as to fruit-growing; I could only give them at second-hand, and I do not consider them to come within the scope of this notice. At recent conferences held in London and elsewhere, a number of papers have been read, some of which have been valuable, whilst others have been of the most impracticable and visionary character. To some of these I may have to allude, but most of them have already been before the public. The points for consideration here, appear to me to be the present position of the British fruit-growing industry, and the possibilities of improving it; on these broad lines I hope to have the forbearance of my readers in attempting to deal with them.

THE POSITION.

OUTSIDE certain tolerably well-defined districts, fruit-growing in this country can scarcely be classed as an industry apart from that of agriculture. As a rule, it is not separately carried on in the vicinity of large towns, as market-gardening is, but is rather the outcome of accumulated experiences in respect of the special adaptability of soil and climate to the growth of orchard-fruit, bush-fruit, and strawberries as farm produce. Thus the apple orchards of Devonshire, Worcestershire, and Herefordshire are devoted mainly to the production of cider, whilst the apple

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orchards of Kent grow fruit for market. Then the cherry orchards of Kent and Worcestershire are as much a feature of certain districts in these counties as are hops, which are also an adjunct to the ordinary agriculture of these counties, coming under the category of "extraordinary cultivation" in the matter of tithes. On the Kent hills a considerable acreage is in the hands of small, or comparatively small, occupiers, who devote themselves almost entirely to the growth of strawberries and bush fruit, say from fifteen to thirty miles from London, and in this case the industry stands pretty much on its own basis. Then, again, there are a few very large fruit-growers in Kent, some of them devoting a couple of thousand acres or more to the growing of fruit, as in the case of Mr. Thomas Wood, of Swanley, who has also established a large and completely successful jam factory in connection therewith. But, outside cases of this kind, fruit-growing has not yet been made a "business" to anything like the extent it might be. Possibly this circumstance may be due, in part, to the slowness of the British bucolic mind in adapting itself to altered conditions brought about by the increase of population and the very rapid growth of towns during recent years; but I am inclined to attribute it mainly to the adverse influences of foreign competition, prohibitive railway rates, the cost of marketing, the uncertainties of our climate, and the question of land tenure. The agriculture of this country has, for more than a decade, been under the cloud of adversity; and so acute have the difficulties become during the past few years, that farmers' wits have been sharpened quite to the extent of seizing any and every practicable opportunity of undertaking new and promising industries within their reach. Unfortunately, farmers, as a class, have lost so much capital that they are not able to incur much expenditure of a nature which involves a tardy and uncertain return, and the landowners are very much in the same position. Consequently, those who are now in the occupation of land have their energies damped by adversity, and the unpromising outlook for the future, whilst those who would otherwise invest money in the cultivation of the land are not at present able to see a profitable return for it. It is to be hoped that the very prominent manner in which the subject of fruit-growing has of late been brought before public notice will lead to some good, and it would seem that nothing can be more likely to conduce to such result than the careful consideration of existing hindrances to the industry, as it stands at present. It will, therefore, be convenient to deal with them seriatim.

Our climate is such as to make ordinary fruit-cultivation a very uncertain investment. For example, the recent summer has caused apples and pears to ripen imperfectly, and they will not keep; not only so, but the appearance of the fruit is much against its sale even whilst marketable. I bought some American apples when they first came in this season and put them beside some choice varieties out of my own garden, and so far as appearance is concerned there certainly was a great contrast; the American fruit was of a beautiful colour, whilst mine were blotched as though they had been sprinkled with a blacking brush. The season did this; the one lot had been ripened in sunshine, whilst the other had matured in cold, wet, sunless weather. This season has been an exceptional one, it is true, but our fruit-growers have climatic difficulties to contend with which heavily handicap them in competing with foreign produce. I do not instance this by way of suggesting

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that fruit-growers should be discouraged thereby, but because it is the one thing which is completely out of the power of man to remedy or guard against. Yet some of our fruit "reformers" appear to lose sight of it entirely when dealing with the question of foreign competition.

The influence of imported fruit on our markets is one of the chief factors in the difficulties of the position. The climates of exporting countries are such as to enable foreign growers to get first to our markets; consequently they secure all the best prices, and when our own fruit comes into consumption the public are already half satiated, or at all events will no longer pay high rates for it. The same thing applies to early vegetables; but with that part of the subject I do not propose to deal separately. It is the same every year; apples, pears, plums and other stone fruit, grapes, and especially strawberries, are all placed before the British public before the British fruit-grower can get them to market. I apprehend that this will continue to be so in spite of every effort fruit-growers in this country may make to prevent it. The foreigner gets first sunshine and sends first fruit to Covent Garden.

So far, I take it to be beyond the power of all the associations, formed or to be formed, to relieve the British fruit-grower in respect of his natural climate or to protect him against his natural enemies.

Preferential railway rates have hitherto been sufficient in their own oppressive incidence to crush the very vitals of the fruit-growers' industry in this country. As compared with the rates charged for the transit of native produce, those for imported fruit and vegetables over the same lines of railway—through the farms and literally past the homesteads of native growers—have been a disgrace to the legislatures whose duty it has been to protect national interests. But amongst our rulers are the very men whose interests lie in the maintenance of these unfair rates for foreign produce, and the easy manner in which the Railway and Canal Traffic Bill passed through Grand Committee, and subsequently became law, filled me with profound mistrust as to its working to the benefit of home producers. This is not the place for me to discuss the measure, which will soon be in active operation, but I take it to be of the utmost importance to point out in this connection that whereas "preferential" rates for foreign produce were under the old régime illegal but always practised, they are now legalised presumptively, inasmuch as it will rest with a Court of Railway Commissioners to decide whether they are "necessary, for the purpose of securing in the interests of the public the traffic in respect of which they are made." As to the remainder of the clause purporting to render it incumbent on railway companies to make "no difference" in rates for "home and foreign merchandise," I do not value it for the paper on which it is printed. Here, at all events, is a gap in the hedge through which the proverbial "coach and six" may be driven with ease and safety. All this remains to be proved; all I can say is, that if British fruit-growers think the Act, when in working order, will help them against the foreigner, I do not share their sanguine expectations. Up to now the preferential rates charged by railways on foreign produce—I am speaking more especially of fruit and early vegetables—have been essentially prohibitive. The railway companies obtained the Acts of Parliament under which to construct their several lines ostensibly on the ground that such lines when constructed would be for the public

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good; and, presumably, for the especial good of those districts through which they passed. But the lines running south from London are now, primarily, highroads to the continent; and the companies having become legalised monopolists—and having driven all other traffic off the roads—charge the fruit-growers and hop-growers of Kent more than double the rates for which similar foreign produce is brought by through trains daily and nightly past their very doors. It has always appeared to me that railway companies ignore the very patent fact that their first duty and obligation is to the public and not to their shareholders; but they have now got to a point which is suggestive of the ulterior object of certain railway companies being the glorification of professional chairmen. Be that as it may, the cost of transit is a vital question to all fruit-growers, and I take it that unless they are placed on at least an equal footing with their foreign competitors the fruit-growing industry of this country must remain crippled to a serious extent.

Marketing and distribution entail great difficulties on our fruit-growers. At best our native fruits come before the public, as I have already pointed out, "the day after the fair," and they come for a short season in such quantities that great fluctuations in values occur, and after the best of the trade is over the unpicked fruit sometimes will not realise enough to pay the cost of gathering and marketing. Thus the railway companies, and the salesmen in London after paying themselves, sometimes bring the consignor in debt. It needs no argument to show that there must be something wrong when a crop of fruit—or of anything else, for that matter—being sound and good, will not pay for ingathering and marketing, let alone the cost of production. I am not prepared to say that salesmen's commission charges are excessive, nor do I suggest that they fail, as a rule, to make the best return possible for their consignors. It is the system which is at fault, and the remedy, however difficult of application, is certainly not far to seek. Distribution, as carried out by the trade, is imperfect and spasmodic, and the interests of consumers are as badly served as those of producers. But with this matter I can better deal when considering the proposed remedial measures.

The question of rental and security for tenants' capital is the stop buffer against which the progressive industry of fruit-growing often comes to a dead stop. Unless protected by a long lease, with compensation clauses at the end of it, occupiers are not likely to plant orchards, nor indeed to go very far in any direction of fruit-growing for market. The great obstacle is the fact of so many landowners being simply tenants-in-tail, and after they have paid the settlements, mortgages, and other charges on the land they inherit as limited owners, they have, of late years, too often found themselves in the position of residuary legatees with no residue to the estate. However willing such landowners may be—as many of them certainly are—to grant tenants every facility in their power for improving the land of their fathers, by fruit cultivation or any other possible means, yet they are unable to grant covenants giving requisite security to such tenants for unexhausted improvements; because, at the expiration of such covenants, in the event of a fresh tenant willing to pay for them not being found, the liability would fall on the landowner, who would, presumably, be unable to meet it. I hope not to be misunderstood in respect of this matter. I am not alluding to any individual cases but to the broad and general working of the

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laws of entail and settlement after ten years of acute agricultural depression, and I hold that whether the limited owner be entitled to the pity of an unsympathetic world or not he certainly is now in a very difficult position. The system is inimical to the best interests of agriculture, and has helped to reduce it to its present depressed and debased condition; and although it is said that Lord Cairns's Act theoretically renders saleable every acre of land in England, no startling results have yet come to light, and I fear the limited owner is practically much in the same position as he was before the passing of that measure.

I have now enumerated and briefly sketched the difficulties which beset the fruit-growing industry in this country, so far as I understand the matter, and it will, I think, be generally admitted that the position is susceptible of material improvement. How that is to be brought about remains to be considered.

SOME PROPOSED REMEDIES.

It has been suggested that one-half the grass land of this country should be broken up and worked by the spade, presumably to grow fruit, but ostensibly to provide labour for five million men! "Work for Workless Workers" is the cry of the reformers, and I find they hail from the Cobden Club. That fact alone will cause many to shrink from a movement which, under the guise of philanthropy, may prove to be essentially political. I am offering no opinion of my own, but simply stating what I know to be a fact, namely, that the advocacy of wild schemes such as that I have mentioned has caused some thoughtful men to look upon the movements of the National Fruit Growers' League with suspicion. Again, I may point out that at the recent conference held under the auspices of that association at the Memorial Hall, Farringdon Street, E.C., under the presidency of Sir George Campbell, M.P., the following resolution, proposed by Mr. Hussey Vivian, "representing the Cobden Club," was carried:—

That this meeting calls on the Government to provide facilities for the encouragement and establishment of small fruit gardens, as advocated by the National Fruit Growers' League.

Now, the scheme "advocated" by this association was that expounded in a paper read by Mr. Sampson Morgan on "Fruit-growing, as a Solution of the Unemployed Difficulty," which I find summarised in a daily paper as follows:—

In the United Kingdom, he said, the movement in the direction of permanent pastures continued, so that at present we had over 15,671,000 acres laid down for grass, being nearly half the land rented or owned in Great Britain. This meant that, were half the land at present laid down for grass broken up and worked by the spade, we should have an opening at once for over 5,000,000 men, who would be profitably occupied on the land in raising at home some of the food products we imported from abroad.

I have not seen a report of this paper, but one read by the same gentleman, on the same subject, at the St. Albans Conference, held under the auspices of the same association, has been published in a supplement to the *Horticultural Times* of September 8, and in it I find the following statements:—

Considering that, through each year, some thousands of industrious men are thrown out of employment solely from the want of work, that all this time in England alone there are lying idle and useless over 3,000,000 acres to all intents and purposes of unproductive though fertile

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land, most of which is capable of bearing profitable crops, and that we import daily thousands of tons of produce from abroad, it must be clear that if this land alone were properly utilised, there could hardly be an idle hand in the State.

In Scotland, over 2,000,000 acres of land, have been laid down for sport, and inasmuch as each acre, or each acre and a-half, will suffice to keep a man, there would be room enough on such a space to form village homesteads sufficient to employ and keep over a million people at the very least.

Now, I say that if they deem it advisable, the Legislature can, by a very simple plan, that is, the creation of "small fruit farms," provide an effectual and permanent remedy for the agricultural distress, secure to every labourer in the United Kingdom an allotment of land under an approved system, which, from a monetary point of view, would be without cost to the State.

Freehold land in large plots suitable for the culture of early produce and choice fruit can be had in quantity at an average rate of £20 per acre, or at an annual rental, say, of £1. Suppose 100 acres are bought and divided off into two-acre plots. Upon each plot I propose to erect a cottage, and give to each labourer 50 feet of glasshouse or 100 feet of frames—whichever they preferred—or an extra quantity of fruit trees instead. One acre out of the two I should plant with special fruit trees, and from each two-acre plot any steady and industrious man could obtain a permanent living sufficient for himself and family. The cost for the two acres, cottage, glass erections, 200 special fruit trees, necessary seeds, plants, and manures, would be £125, which, let to return 5 per cent on the investment, would mean £6. 5s. per annum; the security would be ample. Thus for, say, 2s. 6d. each per week, a million labourers could secure a perfect little homestead, from which, by the aid of frugality, industry, and the spade, they would be enabled to produce the very things we import from abroad. From each two-acre plot might be raised poultry, eggs, fresh and preserved vegetables, fruit juices, essences, and hardy fruit; also choice early produce of every kind. The best would be selected and sent away for sale, the rest would suffice to keep the labourer and his family almost from one year's end to the other. Under these circumstances, the most inexperienced could not fail to obtain a certain living. But it may be said that with such a quantity of allotments and glass erections, over-production would soon be the prelude of the labourer's doom. To this I reply that most of the labourers would prefer to do without glass from want of experience, and choose the extra fruit trees instead, so that 75 per cent, at least, would be devoid of glass erections of any kind.

Now, this programme appears to me to be altogether a visionary one, and I believe—from what has hitherto been seen in respect of the working of the Allotments Acts—an impracticable one; not only so, but bearing in mind the source from which it has originated, and the character of the support it is receiving, I cannot help regarding it as a new and alternative rendering of the "three acres and a cow" scheme. Other papers have been read under the auspices of the National Fruit Growers' League, the tenour of which confirms me in this conclusion, which is further strengthened by the following letter which appeared in the columns of the *Standard*:—

FRUIT-GROWING FOR PROFIT.

Sir,—It having come to the knowledge of the League that an impression prevails that some of the numerous limited companies being started for fruit and flower growing are connected with, or promoted by, this League, we beg to state that this is not the case. We advise your readers, before investing in any of these companies, to make themselves fully acquainted with the important facts this League is publishing, which will be sent free to anyone interested in the question.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

HENRY CLARK, Secretary.

The National Fruit Growers' League,
59 and 60, Chancery Lane, Oct. 23.

I have, therefore, nothing more to say in this connection.

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POSSIBLE REMEDIAL MEASURES.

PUTTING at one side all political schemes, the future development of the fruit-growing industry appears to me to rest with private enterprise and co-operative limited liability companies. With regard to the former, there is the example of several large fruit-growers, whilst some landowners have tried both. The cost of bringing land into the profitable cultivation of fruit is very great, and some useful statistics have been compiled by Mr. W. E. Bear, of Streatham, from inquiries made by him amongst the fruit-growers of Kent. These were embodied in a paper read by Mr. Bear, on October 19, at the Apple and Pear Conference, held under the auspices of the Royal Horticultural Society, at Chiswick, and I quote them as follows:—

I have asked Mr. Charles Whitehead, of Maidstone, to give me his estimates for the present time, and . . . I must point out that they do not include the cost of preparing the land, or any portion of the rent, tithe, rates, and labour expenses after planting which fall due before the trees come into profit.

COST OF PLANTING ONE ACRE OF FRUIT.

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Standard apple trees, 22ft. apart (90 trees)	6	0	0			
Planting and staking	2	17	6			
					8	17
Plums or damsons, 18ft. apart (134 trees).....	7	15	0			
Planting and staking	3	15	0			
					11	10
Apples and plums mixed, 20ft. apart (108 trees)	7	0	0			
Planting and staking	3	5	0			
					10	5
Bush fruit trees under apples, 1,440 to the acre, 5½ft. apart, at 13s. per 100	9	0	0			
Planting bush trees	2	15	0			
90 apples, and planting and staking	8	17	6			
					24	2
Bush fruit with plums or damsons—1,440 bush fruit trees	9	0	0			
Planting ditto.....	2	15	0			
134 plum or damson trees, and planting and staking.....	11	15	0			
					23	10
Strawberries, 30in. × 18in. = 11,616 plants, say 12s. 6d. per 1,000	7	4	3			
Planting	1	15	0			
					8	19
Strawberries, 30in. × 12in. = 17,424 plants at 12s. 6d.	10	18	6			
Planting	2	7	6			
					13	6
Raspberries, in rows 4ft. apart, 3 plants to a hill or centre, = 10,890 plants.....	10	17	6			
Planting	2	5	0			
					13	2

Mr. Whitehead adds: "All these rates are according to present cost of fruit trees and present labour wages. The land, of course, must be deeply ploughed, and in many cases a subsoil plough should follow the ordinary plough. Harrowing also is necessary to get a level surface. Upon land in cultivation a good dressing of manure would be necessary—say twenty tons per acre. Some land would require trenching."

Mr. Albert Bath, of Sevenoaks, has also kindly sent me some estimates, which represent the actual cost of planting now being carried out under his superintendence.

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COST OF MANURING, PLOUGHING, SUBSOILING, TREES, AND PLANTING PER ACRE.

	£	s.	d.
Apple plantation, trees 20ft. × 20ft. apart	21	0	0
Plums, 20ft. × 20ft.	18	16	0
Pears, about same as apples.....	21	0	0
Mixed plantation of apples, pears, plums, 20ft. × 20ft., with bottom fruit— currants and gooseberries.....	35	8	0
Raspberries (manuring and cultivation as above, excepting subsoiling).....	17	5	0
Strawberries, ditto	13	7	0

Mr. Bath remarks that fruit trees and raspberry canes are as cheap as they were six years ago, but that apple trees are in great demand, and will soon be dearer.

Although the planting of strawberries and raspberries does not come under the head of orchard planting, the estimates for these crops are allowed to appear in the list. I may add that Mr. William Vinson, of Orpington, Kent, has kindly given his estimates of the cost of planting of an acre of these varieties of soft fruit. Including the first year's cultivation, rent, rates, &c., he says, raspberries cost about £15 an acre, and strawberries about £10.

The veriest outsider must see from these figures—and especially from those relating to orchard planting—that it would be very risky for a tenant to engage in that enterprise without security as to compensation for the unexhausted value of his improvements; and it is to be borne in mind that Mr. Whitehead's totals should be larger than they are, because they do not include additional expenditure incurred while waiting for the trees and bushes to bear.

These figures are valuable as showing the actual outlay which must be incurred in prosecuting this industry.

I have before me the prospectus of the English Apple and Fruit Growing Company Limited, proposing to purchase a property known as the Speed Gate Farm, comprising about 300 acres of freehold land, near Farningham Road Station, Kent, for the purpose of fruit-growing on commercial principles. The prospectus states that

The cultivation of apples will form the main purpose of the company, apples being the leading and most important fruit, and it is intended to devote the greater portion of the land thereto, it having been specially selected for the purpose. The trees will be planted and grown on the most approved principles, the finest varieties being grown in large quantities, so as to afford a continuous supply of the choicest fruit. Pears, plums, strawberries, and other of the small fruits which yield a quick return will be cultivated in suitable situations, and the remaining land utilised in various ways so as to be remunerative.

Here there appears to be a reasonable prospect of making good returns, inasmuch as the proposed capital will admit of every known appliance being brought to bear upon the industry, both directly and indirectly in its collateral channels. I know nothing whatever of this speculation, but mention it simply as an example of what appears to me to be a reasonable way of going to work. I believe there are other similar schemes being promoted.

Near Swanley, in Kent, a horticultural and technical college has been established where practical instruction in the cultivation of fruit will be given by duly-qualified teachers. In connection with this college and training grounds, it is stated that an experiment is to be tried amongst the neighbouring labourers based somewhat on the *métayage* system common in some parts of France. The idea is to prove, by demonstration, "whether a man and his family can obtain a comfortable living from the intelligent cultivation of two to three acres of land." A "director of the college" writing to the *Morning Post* says, in reference to this project:—

Twenty families is the number we propose to commence with in practically testing this important question. This undertaking is distinct from the college, but it will be carried on under the superintendence of the staff, who have heartily promised to give every assistance in

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their power, especially as it will aid in giving the students experience. Our experiments will differ in many respects from the *métayage* system. One important difference is that we shall give employment and wages to the colonists for three days of the week, thus enabling them to provide necessaries while they are cultivating their land, which will have been roughly prepared and made ready for spade cultivation. Another difference is that we shall save them having to find a market for their produce, as we shall sell it with our own. In a year or two it ought to pay them better to give all their time to the cultivation of their own land. We shall give special terms, which will ensure long tenure, subject only to clauses necessary for our own protection. As soon as a tenant has returned to us the cost of trees, &c., with which his land was stocked, he will have the right to transfer his interest in his holding. We hope to be able to give deserving men the opportunity of purchasing the freehold by easy payments.

Here, at all events, is something tangible, and the scheme—although somewhat hazy in its details at present—has the merit of being possible, and also of being free from surface politics.

In the event of joint-stock companies for fruit-growing making headway, this college may do good service by furnishing trained experts as managers for their several departments; and I, for one, shall watch the development of its "colonisation" scheme with interest and sympathy.

CONCLUSION.

To sum up the foregoing statements, and to point a moral from them, is all that remains for me to do. I trust I have had the indulgence of readers of this "Annual," so far, as having endeavoured to put the matter before them from an unprejudiced outsider's point of view; and, if so, I must ask their further forbearance whilst very briefly offering a few suggestions which occur to me on a review of the evidence.

As matters now stand, and as they are likely to remain in the immediate future, I fail entirely to see that any material change for the better will accrue to the fruit-growing industry of this country until the small cultivators own their land—that is to say, so far as the greater production of fruit is concerned. How that is to be done is a problem I cannot attempt to solve; but the position appears to be suggestive of the necessity for a legislative measure for England, based on the principles of Lord Ashbourne's Irish Land Purchase Act. I must not be understood to offer a political alternative for one which I have condemned; I wish merely to call attention to one measure which has been successful in enabling tenants to purchase their holdings on terms which are practically equivalent to ordinary rental. The day has not yet come for such a measure to be passed in the interests of English occupiers of land, but it will come, I believe. Meanwhile—and it is a far cry—what can be done? To answer my own question, I think that the "writing-up" the subject of fruit-growing has received will result in more large ventures on the part of private individuals and philanthropic landowners, who will have at their command every resource known at present to the ingenuity of man. They will sell fruit to distant provincial markets direct, and without the intervention of the London agent, as some do now; they will preserve choice fruits in refrigerating chambers, and market them as required; they will "evaporate" certain fruits, and to some extent may hold their own against this particular class of imported product; they will make jam of a quality which will certainly hold its own against the mysterious and

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uncertain compounds sold under that designation by town manufacturers; they will grow fruit and early vegetables under glass, and try to come into market a little less behind the foreigner; and they will conduct the entire and comprehensive industry of fruit-growing on thoroughly business principles. I take it that all this can best be done by private enterprise and the employment of large capital. Next on the list come joint-stock or co-operative fruit farms, with the land purchased, and under the best procurable management; the details of working being the same, but the scope, at present, much smaller. And what about the rest of the fruit-growers?

Well, I am afraid they will remain, for the present, very much as they are now. They have much to contend with which they cannot help, yet they have something to learn. I live in the Weald of Kent, and know something of the state of affairs as they exist now and as they have existed for these fourteen years past. I meet fruit-growers and fruit salesmen in the train and in the markets. The old story of the salesman is that the growers do not gather their fruit properly, do not sort it reasonably, send it to market like potatoes, and—all the rest of it. The growers say that they cannot re-plant orchards, and however much care they take the results of marketing are usually so meagre, often so unremunerative, and always so uncertain, that they cannot afford to do more whilst railway rates are so high, and foreign competition so overwhelming. All this is true, both ways. But at London Bridge Railway Station, as the train draws up alongside and overlooking what was at one time the Terminus, there are the vans unloading continental stuff, which has been sent through by special night "market goods trains," all nicely packed in suitable packages for market—where it usually makes a lot more money than the produce of the land through which these cheap-freighted fast continental "market goods trains" have passed. Putting on one side the preferential rates at which these "foreign market goods" are carried—as I have already referred to them—there is the patent fact that the foreign produce is "packed" in a manner of which our native growers have not as yet formed an idea. Here, then, is a detail, of no small importance, in which the ordinary fruit-grower in this country might help himself. If he goes to Covent Garden Market he will see what these packages are like, and he might easily take this one leaf out of his enemy's book.

Possibly, if home-grown fruit were packed in more readily marketable condition the growers might obtain better local custom. At present the towns situated in fruit-growing districts are often badly supplied with fruit in the fruit season; it is sent to London and has to be brought back again. There is too much "sending to London." Growers might, I think, market their fruit locally to a far greater extent and much more advantageously than they have been in the habit of doing, and the smaller growers might retail it to their profit. But farmers, little and big, detest retailing; those who are not ashamed to do it think it too much trouble—and so the lump buyer gets the lion's share of the profits.

How far the market distribution of home-grown fruits may be improved, and developed, by means of pressure brought to bear on railway companies in respect of freight rates and suitable accommodation for transit, remains to be seen. Mr. D. Tallerman has suggested that a "Farm Produce Train" should carry, at fixed minimum rates, light farm produce—fruit, vegetables, butter, &c.—on all railways

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once a day by Parliamentary regulation; and the suggestion might well be considered by the Board of Agriculture—when we get it! To Mr. Tallerman is also due a suggestion to the effect that by the use of what is termed a “Blackman Fan” existing hop oasts, or kilns, may be economically utilised for drying or “evaporating” fruits, apples especially; and if this should prove correct fruit drying would be an easy adjunct to many farms in Kent and Worcestershire.

I am sorry to say I see no direct tangible advantage likely to accrue to the “landless” tillers of the soil from this most recent agrarian “movement.” That the agitation, if I may so call it, will have its practical results, I have no doubt; but the only way in which the “workless workers” will be likely to be benefited appears to me to be in connection with the increased demand for manual labour which the capital employed in private and co-operative fruit-growing enterprises must necessitate. If the toilers on the land find this much to their advantage arising out of all the talk and demonstration on the subject recently made public I shall be glad; it will be quite as much as I expect.

 ADDENDA.

SINCE this article was written, the “Agricultural Returns” of Great Britain have been issued by the Government, and the following particulars will be of interest:—“THE extent of land returned as under the culture of small fruit, such as gooseberries, currants, strawberries, &c., whether in orchards or in market gardens, amounts this year to 36,700 acres. In many counties the collecting officers report that the practice among farmers of appropriating land to the growth both of fruit and vegetables has further extended in order to meet the demand for them; and though the additional quantities of land may, as regards individual occupiers, be relatively small, in the aggregate they become considerable. It is stated in a report from the county of Norfolk that from only one small station on the Eastern and Midland Railway nearly a hundred tons of fruit are sent weekly to Manchester and other towns in the north of England, at certain periods of the year; and this is cited as a single illustration only of what is being done throughout that county.

“There is this year a decrease of 3,056 acres in the area of orchards in Great Britain, it being now 199,178 acres, but the smaller extent here shown must be considered in connection with the newly-ascertained acreage of small fruit, the apparent deficiency having doubtless arisen from part of the land which should last year have been returned as growing small fruit having then, in some cases, been placed in the orchards column of the schedule. The acreage now returned may, it is confidently believed, be taken to represent more accurately than in any preceding year the actual area so covered; the land under grass or upon which small fruit is grown or which is left fallow in orchards, as may happen to be the case, being included under these several heads in the returns.

“The acreage under market gardens is this year 67,383 acres, as compared with 62,666 in 1887, an increase of 4,717 acres.”

THE ADVANTAGES AND NECESSITY
OF A
CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE CENTRE OF SUPPLY,
AS
ESTABLISHED IN THE ORGANISATION
OF THE
ENGLISH AND SCOTTISH WHOLESALE SOCIETIES.

—
BY H. R. BAILEY.
—

THE appearance again so soon of a short treatise on a subject commonly supposed to be so well understood as the advantages accruing from a well-organised centre of supply—a subject upon which there already exist so many carefully-compiled explanatory and statistical reviews—may be thought to require some explanation. Our explanation for the course we have taken in placing this before our co-operative readers, and those as yet not interested in the movement, is, that the former may be strengthened in their work, while the latter may be added to our number.

In a short treatise such as this is we cannot by any means deal exhaustively with the writings of either Dr. Adam Smith, as set forth in his "Wealth of Nations," or by Professor William Taylor, in his "Inquiry into the Principles of the Distribution of Wealth most conducive to Human Happiness." Nor can we go fully into the works of Robert Owen or John Stuart Mill, as they applied their reasoning to the question of co-operation in its application to social philosophy. Sufficient is it for us to know that (excepting Dr. Smith) these great writers and thinkers agree that the application of co-operation is one thing needful in spreading happiness amongst the wage-receiving class, and that the application of co-operative effort as worked by our movement of to-day, met with their approval and good wishes.

Since the days when Dr. Adam Smith applied himself to study within the walls of Baliol College, Oxford, great changes have taken place in the general condition of the working classes, reforms of the most beneficial character have been introduced; still, the rich grow richer at the expense of the poor, the poor remain as it were careless as to the accumulation of wealth by the few; while in the hands of the masses there exists, if properly applied, a lever which can and will regenerate and reorganise society.

The co-operative movement has so far developed a power of organisation in saving the waste of profits of retail and wholesale dealers that every co-operator, being himself a joint proprietor and capitalist, may share equally in the profits of production and consumption. That a saving to a large extent is now made, cannot but be admitted; still, excessive waste continues by the immense waste of labour, and consumption of

the labour of others in the endless wholesale and retail establishments that everywhere meet the eye; this is the distance of the consumer from the producer. John Stuart Mill, in his work on "Political Economy," in the chapter on the probable future of the working classes, said:—"The last great step in advance in reference to the co-operative store system was the formation in the north of England of a Wholesale Society, to dispense with the service of the wholesale merchant, as well as of the retail dealer, and extend to the societies the advantage which each society gives to its own members, by an agency for co-operative purchases of foreign as well as domestic commodities direct from the producer." The hopeful view at this time taken by John Stuart Mill was not based on light thought, but upon a serious and general survey of the whole question. Nor was the hopeful view taken by Mill misplaced, for, from the progress made and practically illustrated in the quarterly and annual returns of the English and Scottish Wholesale Societies, well-grounded proofs of the advance and advantages of these institutions are shown.

Co-operation is best understood at the point where it comes into actual contact with the general public, at the store. It is at the store that the working man and his family are accustomed to buy those household commodities which years of experience have now taught them can be better and more cheaply obtained through the medium of co-operation than by any other means; it is at the store that the great buying and consuming public directly reap the advantages accruing from the profits which their custom has assisted in making.

Unfortunately, to the bulk of the working community co-operation simply means a cheap shop, and little consideration is bestowed upon the way in which this cheapness is arrived at, or the labour and thought which are expended in directing the principles of co-operation to its legitimate end.

At first it was deemed a sufficient advantage—and a very great one it was, too—for directors and managers of co-operative societies to be able to buy in the best and cheapest markets, and give their customers the full benefit arising from such a course; but it was soon found out by the early pioneers of the movement that the wholesale dealers and the commission agents took all they could by the way of profit out of the buyers and managers of the early retail societies; hence, as the business knowledge of co-operators extended, and as the wisdom of co-operation came to be more fully established, a still wider range of action was opened out, and co-operators became producers and wholesale buyers.

The foundation and subsequent development of the Co-operative Wholesale Societies are now matters of co-operative history, and the various industrial concerns with which the societies are identified, are of a very important and extensive character.

By means of these federations, the distance between producer and consumer has been still further reduced, and the working man gains a direct interest in the manufacture of the different articles of use and consumption manufactured by the Co-operative Wholesale Societies, and sold direct through them to their members, thus supplying the affiliated societies with commodities at first hand.

An important lesson in economy is now engrafted upon the minds of the leaders of co-operative thought—that the multiplication of distributors does not make more

necessary distribution to be done, but increases the cost, seldom ever cheapening the process, while the co-operative system limits the distributors to the required number for the distribution of the commodities required for the consumer.

So far, in applying ourselves to the work of extending the movement, we have learned to remember that—

Slowly moves the rock of ages,
 Slowly grows the forest king,
 Slowly to perfection cometh
 Every good and righteous thing.

There are very few persons outside the movement who know of the existence of the Co-operative Wholesale Societies, and fewer still, amongst the members of the retail stores, who could, if asked the question, describe their constitution or the mode and extent of their workings. Even members of the committees of management of our retail stores are often found who speak of the Wholesale Societies as some company or society outside themselves, something to be carefully watched and looked after, that it does not act injuriously to the retail store; hence it is well for us to reproduce facts of the Wholesales' beneficial work in the cause of co-operation, and to inspire sentiments of true co-operative brotherhood in the breast of all members of our retail store system.

Notwithstanding the rapid strides made by this country during the last twenty-five years in those things that make nations truly famous, notwithstanding our steady advance along the path of civil and religious liberty, and a wish for the welfare and happiness of mankind; our pre-eminence in literature, science and art, in commerce and free-trade, the intelligence, order, and increasing education that characterise our working population—independently of all this real progress, we do not as a people seem as forward as we ought to be in the knowledge by which all the advantages of civilisation and liberty are consolidated and secured—"the knowledge of the science of organisation." It is a great mistake to suppose, because as a nation we have gone on so well without much method or co-operation, that therefore it is unnecessary.

The question naturally suggesting itself to one's mind is—Having reached a certain point without, how much further could we have gone with organisation? Mutual association for mutual help should be made one of the first duties of every man's life. We see in the economic working of the Wholesale Societies the carrying out of the great mutual principle, and we cannot apply capital and labour in companionship for the bettering of the wage-receiving class in a more satisfactory union than as applied in the productive departments of the Wholesale Societies of England and Scotland.

A correspondent in the *London Quarterly Review* for January, 1887, says on the system of co-operative production as conducted by the Wholesale Societies, and speaking of co-operative production in general—"What this common bond of union should be, it is not for outsiders to determine, but to us it seems that, in the Wholesale Societies, co-operators have exactly what is needful and needed for such a purpose. These great societies, doing a business of over £7,000,000 a year, are now

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE CENTRE OF SUPPLY.

the centres of co-operative capital and trade, and might easily concentrate the surplus capital in the stores for the purpose of production, and in the stores might find a ready outlet for the goods produced, while in case of failure in particular instances, the loss being spread so widely would be scarcely felt. In an equitable distribution of profit, regard would be had to the claims of each of the factors in production—capital, labour, and trade.”

It is not our intention in this paper to enter into the question of bonus or division of profits upon labour; that we leave for another article. It may at some period be applied in the workshops of the English, as it is now so arranged in the Scottish Wholesale Society; it is for the shareholders of the former to so order, and its directorate will see it carried out.

The advantages of the Co-operative Wholesale Society to the retail distributive societies are manifold. By their incorporation under the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, the liability of the shareholders, as in the case of the store, is limited; their shareholders are composed of societies only, hence no individual interest. The share capital is transferable. On a society wishing to join the Wholesale Society it must make application, in the case of the English, to Balloon Street, Manchester; in that of the Scottish, to the Registered Office of the Society, at Paisley Road, Glasgow. Forms will be supplied, and the applying society will be required to take up one five pound share for every ten of its members; 5 per cent interest is allowed on shares from the profits of the societies; not less than one shilling per share must be paid on the number of shares taken up. After admittance as a member or shareholder, the society can allow its dividend and interest to accumulate, and thus pay up its shares by this means. Many societies have saved thousands of pounds through purchasing from the Wholesale Societies, by the means of dividend upon their purchases—in the case of one society the large amount of over £2,000 per annum has been saved to the society, simply through its trading dividend from the Wholesale Society.

The total trade of the English Wholesale Society, from 1864 to 1897, amounts to £56,917,318; while the trade of the Scottish, from 1868 to 1887, was £15,532,718. The assets of the English Wholesale exceed £1,500,000, while those of the Scottish are £500,000.

The steady increase in the business of the Societies becomes very apparent when shown in tabulated form—

Year.	Sales for the year:—	
	English Wholesale Society. £	Scottish Wholesale Society. £
1865	120,754
1875	1,964,829
1885	4,793,151
1887	5,713,235

847 societies are now affiliated with the English Wholesale Society, and 236 with that of the Scottish.

The general business arrangements of departments under which these large federative societies are worked may be classed:—1. The productive works. 2. The foreign purchasing and collective. 3. Home purchasing and distributive. 4. The shipping. 5. Banking. 6. General office.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE CENTRE OF SUPPLY.

1. In the productive works department of the English Wholesale Society, the manufacture of articles is carried on at the following places:—Leicester: Boots and shoes. Heckmondwike: Boots and shoes, and the tanning and currying of leather. Lower Crumpsall: Biscuits and sweets; also blacklead, washing powder, and soft soap. Durham: Soaps of all kinds; also the "Congress" soap. Batley: Woollen cloth, and clothing. Newcastle: Pit clothing. London: Cocoa and chocolate. Enderby: Boots and shoes. Manchester: Furniture. While at Dunston-upon-Tyne a large corn mill is in course of erection for the milling of the society's own requirements in flour, &c.

The Scottish Wholesale Society also, at Glasgow, manufacture at their own works boots and shoes, ready-made clothing, shirts, furniture, &c., &c., and conduct their own printing establishment, which as yet the English Wholesale Society have not engaged in.

Large quantities of the goods produced at these works are sent direct to the retail stores, while stocks are also held in the distributive centres of the Wholesale Societies, which the managers of the retail stores visit and make their own selections from.

2. After the important factor of producing through our own works, comes the purchasing and collecting of supplies from home and other countries. To this end the Wholesale Societies have by their representatives opened out depôts for the purchase of goods in the principal markets of the world:—In Ireland for the purchase of butter, bacon, and eggs at Cork, Limerick, Kilmallock, Waterford, Tralee, and Armagh; in this country the Wholesale Society is the largest purchaser of butter in these markets. From New York, in America, large supplies of bacon, butter, and cheese, &c.; from Copenhagen, Denmark, and Hamburg, butter, fruit, &c.; France, sugars and fruits. One of the most successful collecting departments is the London tea and coffee. Although not long established, its progress is very marked; its rapid growth and the increasing confidence of the retail societies in it, are the best proofs of this assertion.

As in the first stage in bringing the consumer nearer to the producer through the productive works, the produce of other countries is brought home to the door of our retail store through the agency of the Wholesale Societies.

The Wholesale Societies' representatives in other countries have no other interest to serve than that of the distributive stores, hence their success depends upon the continuance of orders to buy, coming from the stores. Tea we have at last received direct from the markets of China and India, thus removing the costly middleman, who encumbers this trade in particular.

Besides the establishment of collecting depôts, with a representative from the central office located in the country, the buyer, and one of the committee, have visited Greece and Turkey, and bought large quantities of currants, raisins, and figs. These visits have been very profitable—last year the purchases of fruit alone amounted to over £100,000. Similar visits have been made by the heads of other departments to the continent for the purchase of various classes of goods—to France for woollens and dress goods, to the Rhine for apples, &c., and to Hungary for flour.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE CENTRE OF SUPPLY.

The total purchases made by our representatives located in Ireland and foreign countries during the year ending September, 1888, amount to £1,512,000 in value, under the following heads:—

Butter.....	£1,052,000
Eggs	71,000
Cheese.....	112,000
Bacon and hams	131,000
Flour	81,000
Sundries.....	65,000

Having, in a very brief manner, noted the productive and foreign collective agencies in connection with the Wholesale Societies, we now come to the home purchasing and distributive department.

The Wholesale Societies possess warehouses not to be surpassed in size and adaptability for business purposes by any of the largest traders in this or any other country. The facilities for conducting their business are the most complete; their business is one of the largest; their principles of conducting that business are the most secure; no credit, hence no bad debts; by not taking credit they avail themselves of the very best cash terms from all with whom they do business; the quick turnover of their stock enables them at all times to have goods of the most marketable kind; the largeness of their transactions commands the attention of the largest producers and brokers throughout the markets of the world; hence the benefit they are to the societies by and for whom they exist.

The warehouses at Manchester of the English, and at Glasgow of the Scottish Wholesale, cover a very large area, while branches of the former are established at Newcastle, London, and Bristol, with salerooms at Leeds and Huddersfield, to facilitate the despatch of business. The large and well-arranged bacon factory at the Newcastle Branch is turning out over ninety tons of bacon and hams per week. The Scottish Wholesale have branches at Leith, Kilmarnock, Dundee, and Enniskillen, and the stocks held in the various branches of these Wholesale centres comprise grocery, provisions, draperies, boots and shoes, hardware, furniture, crockery, and, to use an old and common phrase, "other goods too numerous to mention." At Longton, in Staffordshire, a depôt for the stocking of crockery is now organised, and working satisfactorily.

The addition of the Shipping Department to the business of the Wholesale Society has added to its importance, and given it a prestige in the mercantile world which it would never have enjoyed without it. Besides the cargoes conveyed for others, its boats are at all times ready for use in our own trade. This year one of its boats proceeds to the East to load with currants, raisins, and other fruits purchased by its buyers in Greece and Turkey.

Ardent co-operators are looking to the time when their own vessels shall plough the mighty ocean, taking out to the ports of America their own production, and, in return, bringing back corn, meat, and other necessities of life with which that prolific country abounds. The Wholesale is now owner of five steamers, the "Equity," "Federation," "Pioneer," "Progress," and "Unity."

Having arranged in a very satisfactory manner the purchase and transport of merchandise from port to port from merchants and manufacturers over the whole of

the commercial world, the most economic way of payment in settlement for goods bought has not been overlooked in the organisation of the society's business arrangements. The consideration and inquiry into the system of banking brought with it the establishment of the Wholesale Society's Bank Department. This has also added much commercial prestige to the working of the society's affairs, the yearly turnover now in this department exceeding eighteen millions per annum. In the Bank Department is also conducted the cash arrangements of the society, and from it all payments are made, and official receipts issued for cash paid into the society, either for goods or shares.

The General Office and its duties form no small part of the society's management. The balance sheet of either the English or Scottish Wholesale Society is a document of considerable interest, important in its magnitude, showing, as it does, the exact position, financially, of every department in the society's business, either in productive works or branch departments. It exhibits a detailed cash, trade, expenses, bank, profit and loss, and general statement account: it also shows the Dr. and Cr. balance of every society's trade with the society from quarter to quarter; further, the share and loan capital account of every shareholding society in the federation; in fact, giving details shown in the balance sheets of few, if any, companies doing, in any way, what may be considered a large business.

The arrangements for collecting information from all the productive works, purchasing centres and branches of trade, are worked on the daily summary system, with statements rendered weekly, both in regard to cash and goods, so that the check upon its business is as complete as human effort can well make it.

To societies trading with the Wholesale Societies, by rendering a weekly statement of account to them they are in possession of information as to their exact indebtedness or otherwise; and further, at the close of the quarter, when the balance sheets of the Wholesales are issued, of seeing the position as rendered in the printed sheet. These safeguards, with a strict audit of accounts by qualified accountants, together with the criticisms of the officers and representatives of the shareholding societies in their own boardrooms, and at the quarterly meetings of the Wholesale Societies, constitute checks which will at all times keep these institutions in a safe and sound position—if healthy examination of the societies' position from time to time will accomplish the object.

From a casual observation of the remarks made in the previous portion of this paper, it will be seen that we speak of two Wholesale Societies. The directorates of these societies have long since discovered that "unity is strength." The Scottish Wholesale Society make all their purchases of the class of goods supplied by the branches of the English through the foreign and Irish branches of the Wholesales, all their tea trade is transacted through the London Tea Department, and their Liverpool goods are supplied by the Liverpool Purchasing Department. The English Wholesale co-operates with the Scottish, and purchases all Greenock sugars and all Scotch goods through the Scotch Wholesale Society.

The necessity for inter-federal relationship between the Wholesale Societies is as pressing and as needful as the necessity for retail societies being members of the Wholesale. But for it the two Wholesales would be found in the same markets,

competing against each other; but for this union of interests two sets of buyers would be employed to do the work in a less satisfactory manner and at more cost than one set does at present.

It is the interest of the merchant or trading class to keep the retail stores away from the Wholesale Societies if possible, and to accomplish this object they sometimes use means not of the most honourable kind, judging from cases which have from time to time come to light through their Trade Defence Associations.

It is not needful to go into the details of the working of the various departments. In the pages of this "Annual" will be found full explanations on each department of the Wholesale Societies.

On the necessity and advantages of wholesale co-operation we cannot find clearer language and stronger arguments than those put in a lecture delivered a short time ago by Mr. Maxwell, president of the Scottish Wholesale, who said, in the course of his remarks, that the strongest proof of their vast power as a buyer is to be found in the expressions of the wholesale merchants who have again and again said:—"If ever they are to regain their former position in the commerce of England it must be by following the tactics of co-operators, namely, by founding a great central agency, in which all will be interested." They forget that we have an object in view, to which our successful Wholesales are but the stepping-stones. We are social reformers, they are only profit-hunters. In Glasgow, lately, at a meeting of over two hundred agents, merchants, &c., it was publicly stated that the Wholesale was only to be compared to the "devil let loose upon trade." This is most valuable testimony as to the advantages of wholesale co-operation.

While each of these great institutions might have gone on for ever on parallel lines, each supplying the wants of its own constituency satisfactorily, and each believing they could do without the other in the conduct of their respective trades, but a very few years' separate working determined another great co-operative truth to those who administered the Wholesales. They were deeply impressed with the advantages and benefits gained by aggregating the purchasing power of the various societies. It now required very little business acumen to see that if they could make their purchases still larger, a corresponding gain would be secured to the consumer.

It will be observed here that neither of these great centres paid the least attention to that now threadbare argument we hear so frequently from those who have not yet seen their way to join the Wholesale, namely, "That we can buy in nearly as large quantities as the Wholesale, therefore we are likely to get as good terms." The Scottish Wholesale might have taken up this position with more truth and propriety than any other society, owing to its immense turnover; but it would have been an un-co-operative and false position. The societies had said that combination was necessary from principle—it had been proved more economical in practice; therefore, to increase combination was to extend the advantages already gained. If wholesale co-operation was a necessity, as had been admitted, then the union of England and Scotland for buying purposes was but a natural sequence. What becomes now of the societies who say they can buy as well as the Wholesales? Those giant centres have a purchasing power of £7,000,000 annually. Why, the next purchasing power in the movement is not a seventeenth of this amount.

We would impress the fact especially upon those who claim for our large retail societies that they can do so much better because of their size than a smaller society. What, then, on the same principle, about the society that can buy sixteen or seventeen times as much as the largest retail society? It is too transparent to discuss—it has proved a fallacy in prices quoted, and samples submitted, which should be more convincing than any argument, however ingeniously framed. If the argument was a sound one, and followed to its logical conclusion, then every society, as it grew large and powerful, should leave the Wholesale membership and buy for themselves; leaving only the small and poor societies to carry on the work of united effort. Apart from this being an outrage on co-operative principle, it would defeat the very object it was intended to serve, namely, better buying. Every additional buyer put upon a market, with a limited supply, must have a tendency to raise prices; which would be the case if all our large societies created separate demands, and bought in thirty or forty parcels what could have been more advantageously bought in one parcel.

The *Scottish Co-operator* of 1868 says:—"The North of England Wholesale Society continues to excite much jealousy on the part of a number of the larger retail societies, the executive of which appear to think that by purchasing from it their name and prestige would be gone. This is a weakness unworthy of them, for they would be the first to urge their own members to buy exclusively from co-operative sources."

The article goes on to say—"Had the whole of the larger societies in England been only true to their co-operative profession, the Wholesale would long ere this have been able to open branches in various parts of the country." Such was the feeling towards those societies who prided themselves on being able to do without the Wholesale twenty years ago. To-day the feeling may be absent, but the facts remain the same, only in a less degree, as very few really important societies are now outside the Wholesale influence. There can be little doubt now, in any unbiassed mind, regarding the position of the two Wholesales compared with our largest retail societies in regard to buying power. You will possibly excuse me for giving the personal experience of a deputation on this point. Travelling through a large part of the United States and Canada, a few years ago, on Wholesale business, they saw for themselves the position taken up by the Wholesales on that great continent. The deputation had to record every price quoted, and every bargain made. They had, therefore, a capital opportunity of comparing the terms on which the Wholesales bought, and the current prices published daily, and in some markets hourly. They visited the packing houses of Chicago, where purchases were made to be forwarded to the different branches direct, and made terms for flour at the mills in Minneapolis to come direct to Glasgow and Leith. They visited cheese factories in New York State, where they saw cheese made that would shortly find its way to the two Wholesale Societies without the aid of a single intermediary. They found that, while goods may be sent direct, it is no guarantee that the agent's commission is not included in the price, many of the American producers having an agreement with the agents on this side that there shall be a commission on all goods of theirs sold in this country, even though the agents may not have seen or handled the goods, nor have taken any part in the selling of them.

The Wholesales have frequently closed an account when they could not break down this iniquitous system. Perhaps the most marvellous success of all their united action—the greatest triumph of all their co-operative efforts—will be found in the step taken in 1882.

Up to that time England and Scotland bought the vast quantities of tea required by their respective societies from the markets which suited them best respectively, and a great trade was the result, even of that policy.

In 1882 they agreed to merge their large purchasing powers to secure better terms, and to carry out true co-operative principles. The result was astounding—their sales rushed up on both sides of the border. The joint committee found the greatest difficulty in keeping pace with the rapid increase of trade. Societies that had not given their tea trade previously, now became most consistent buyers. Their own members, they explained, who formerly purchased their tea elsewhere, now purchased extensively at the store. The wholesale value of teas sent out by the London centre for this year cannot be much less than half a million sterling. While co-operators are positive they have had much better value for their money than heretofore, yet there has been a huge profit to divide annually that formerly went to line the pocket of the middleman, who had been displaced. The committees of the two Wholesales are to be congratulated on their united action in providing pure teas at the lowest possible prices. Again they have proved the necessity of wholesale co-operation.

If the combination of individuals, and then of societies, has been productive of so much good, what can be the reason that some societies keep outside this truly Co-operative Union? If it is true that the strong should give of their strength to the weak, in what better way can the large and powerful societies display their co-operative consistency than by becoming connected with the Wholesale, where the capital, the influence, and the trade of the prosperous can do much to invigorate and sustain the weak and sickly? Again and again the Wholesale has saved a society from ruin by its pecuniary assistance, its great experience, and its co-operative sympathy. Many societies that are a credit to the movement would have been relegated to the co-operative obituary but for the aid which the Wholesale is always at hand to give. It is well to remember that every society that sinks out of sight destroys the chance of co-operation thriving in that locality for years to come. Reading papers and sympathetic advice are excellent in themselves, and have had good results; but when a society is in distress, when its members' confidence is somewhat shaken, when a run is made on its capital, there is no other agency but the Wholesale has the power to save the good name of co-operation, and renew confidence among its wavering members. Can a society, then, that takes no part in this good work, and give as their only reason that they can do as well for themselves out side—can such a society claim to be true co-operators?

If there is anything at present that should inspire us to widen our operations and join, not only in sentiment, but in practice, with those who are striving for the brotherhood of man, it is the fact that in various countries throughout Europe co-operation is becoming a recognised factor for the people's good. The day is not

far distant when, instead of merely congratulatory messages to Congress being our only relationship with foreign co-operators, we shall be exchanging the products of our different countries.

Then, again, as England and Scotland have proved, "wholesale co-operation will be a necessity." The brotherhood of mankind, it may be urged, can be reached without this close business relationship; but will anyone say that the close brotherly feeling which now binds English and Scottish co-operators would have had that intensity, that mutual and reciprocal affection, if it had not been for the battles we have fought and won side by side against our common foe, the middleman? What part does the isolated society play in this international effort on behalf of the workers? Whatever are its sympathies, its support is given to the middleman, and against the combination of the people—a support which the middleman is not slow to turn to profit, as he parades his wares before some unthinking committee, telling them that one of the largest stores in the kingdom buys from him in preference to buying from the Wholesale; that the Wholesale is not fit to compete with him, else these large and prosperous societies would not buy from him. This bait has been known to work well, the result being that the Wholesale had months', sometimes years', work to bring back that unthinking society to consistency. It may be urged that it is not the fault of the society, it is their fault. In this indirect way they can do much to unhinge the confidence of many who otherwise would stand shoulder to shoulder. The battalion which refuses to fight with its comrades plays distinctly into the hands of the common enemy. It again may be urged that we have a right to act by ourselves. We will admit this at once; but no man who has studied the history of our great cause dare say that we should have succeeded as we have done if each had followed his own inclination.

The leading thought in this movement seems to me to be the "greatest possible good to the greatest possible number." Trade and friendly societies are but developments of this new social theory. Co-operation is perhaps the most important. All these, it must be admitted, spring from one common source; all these movements are more or less directed against a common foe—the individual capitalist.

This is more particularly true of co-operation, which is aiming at the diffusion of wealth among the many, in the hope of making it subservient to labour.

Shopkeeping has been superseded with great advantage to the masses by association; yet there are to be found societies, both in England and Scotland, who seem content with this progress.

If co-operation means to do more than the displacement of a few grocers and drapers; if it only means shopkeeping, and profits made from such to be spent as they are received—then many of us who have given it our leisure for years have mistaken its aims, and have been fighting for what has been won forty years ago. Why should the shopkeeper be singled out as a target by some co-operators? Why should he only be removed, while the more polished and powerful class of middlemen are retained? Is it because they are more difficult to remove—is there more cohesion among them than we find among retailers? Does it not seem as if there was a kind of cruelty in disposing of one section of middlemen, and that the weakest, while another section is encouraged not only to live extravagantly, but to become a

positive drag on co-operation? Distribution will not be complete till we have a clear field between consumer and producer. Then will we meet in line to consider and decide on the best methods whereby we can overcome the difficulties that stand in the way of assimilating the interests of capital and labour.

Financially, the two Wholesales present a unique position. They have a working capital of nearly one million and a quarter. Here is a power of itself. This fact is well known in all the markets of the world, with the result, that all are eager to place the Wholesales on the most favourable terms. The working expenses of the English Wholesale Society in distribution have only averaged 3 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per £ on sales for the last twenty years. Will anyone say that the enormous fortunes of merchants, the costly houses and carriages, and luxurious living, is maintained on 3 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per £ of their sales, or less than 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent? This is a most important question to those who buy past the Wholesale. The fact of getting your goods at producers' prices, less, say 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent, is one of the wonders of co-operation. If the subject was put before any large meeting of co-operators in this fashion who up till now have not seen their way to join the Wholesale, we are sanguine what the result would be. Merchants frankly admit they cannot conduct their business on such a margin; many indirect benefits and advantages are conferred on some societies by the Wholesales, for which they get no credit. Frequently merchants quote below the Wholesales with some articles, in the hope of getting orders for other goods. If the Wholesales were removed there would be fewer orders of this kind.

During the twenty-three years from 1864 to 1887 the English Wholesale divided profits amounting to £717,196. The Scottish, in nineteen years, from 1868 till 1887, divided £320,454, or together, £976,509; if taken to date, not less than one million sterling has been the monetary gain of co-operation. Can you wonder at the distressed cry of the middlemen against the Wholesales? or, can you wonder at their anxiety to keep close to the few societies who still believe in them? Then the practice of the Wholesale is unassailable in its mode of dealing with its members. Every week a printed price list is sent forth to each society, keeping all abreast of the times. Merchants who have price lists leave, as a rule, the prices blank, so that they may fill them in to suit circumstances; the Wholesale, on the other hand, fix prices for large and small societies alike, according to the quantities they purchase; thus the societies in membership have every confidence in the administration, because they hold the power of moulding the administration to their own will. The directors, in turn, labour assiduously to retain the confidence of the shareholders. Thus each are doing their utmost to spread the benefits of associated effort, their circle of operations ever widening and extending, each striving to hasten the time—

When man to man, the world o'er,
Shall brithers be and a' that.

The monetary gains of wholesale co-operation, although great, sink into insignificance compared with the other advantages and benefits which it confers on the movement. It grasps in one hand the rich and powerful societies, while in the other it holds the poor and humble, all sharing the benefits of combination alike, and all subject to a democratic government to which all may aspire, and in the election of which all have a voice.

THE MANCHESTER SHIP CANAL.

Co-operation is not a system of spoliation, but an earnest and determined attempt to regulate the commerce of the world in such a way that its profits and advantages shall be appropriated for the benefit of the many instead of the few. But this cannot be done without unity—unity of the individual member with the retail store, and unity of the retail with the Wholesale Societies. The late Lord Brougham said, more than twenty years ago, that “Co-operation would become a power in the State.” It is; but not so powerful as it might be if our power was rightly applied—applied by the power of association for the many, instead of associations aiding the individual at the expense of the many. Trade and commercial operations in the past, and to a very large extent at the present, are conducted to the advantage of the few. It is only by a sound application of co-operative principles that this course of things can be altered, and that the wage-receiving class can become participators of the wealth which now is so unequally divided.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE ORIGIN

AND

DEVELOPMENT OF THE MANCHESTER SHIP CANAL.

INITIATION OF THE FIRST NAVIGABLE WATERWAY BETWEEN
MANCHESTER AND THE ESTUARY OF THE MERSEY.

WHAT was probably the first step taken in connection with the improvement of the navigable capacity of the Rivers Mersey and Irwell, between Manchester and the estuary of the Mersey, is to be found in “A Map of the Rivers Mersey and Irwell, from Bank-Key to Manchester; with an Account of the rising of the Water, and how many Locks it will require to make it Navigable. Surveyed by order of the Gentlemen at Manchester by Tho. Steers, 1712.” This survey was made about nine years precedent to the first application to Parliament for the necessary authority to effect improvements. The map has upon it a memorandum stating: “The Inland parts of Lancashire and Yorkshire being favour’d with great variety of valuable manufactures in Woollen, Linnen, Cotton, &c., and that in very great quantities: has made that Neighbourhood as populous if not more so (London and Middlesex excepted) as the same extent of any part of Great Britain: The Trades of these Counties extend considerably through the whole Island, as well as abroad, and the consumption of Groceries, Irish-Wool, Dying Stuffs, and other Imported goods consequently very great: but as yet not favour’d with the Conveniency of Water Carriage thro’ Providence from the Port of Liverpool, up to the most considerable Inland Town of Trade in Lancashire, Manchester has afforded

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the Best, not yet employed Rivers of Mersey and Irwell for that purpose. Those Rivers are described from Bank-Key (whither from Liverpool ye Navigation at present is used). The Conveniences of the Navigation carri'd thence to Manchester, might one time or other be of the greatest Importance in time of War, in Joyning a communication of the East and West Seas of Great Britain with only 28 miles of Land Carriage, the Trade made more easy by an expensive Land Carriage (cause in a deep and flat Country) being turned into an easy and cheap Water Carriage, and Cheshire served with Coals, Flaggs & Slate far cheaper than at Present, &c."

In 1720 an application was made to Parliament for powers to make the rivers Mersey and Irwell navigable. These powers were conferred by the statute 7, George I., cap. 15, entitled "An Act for making the Rivers Mersey and Irwell navigable from Liverpool to Manchester." Under this statute, which received the Royal Assent on 17th June, 1720, thirty-five inhabitants of Manchester, with Sir Oswald Mosley, of Ancoats, at their head, and three inhabitants of Liverpool, were appointed undertakers of the navigation, and were empowered to make the rivers navigable, portable, and passable, and to scour, enlarge, or straiten the rivers, or to make new cuts as should be necessary and proper, subject to Commissioners, who were appointed for determining differences between the undertakers and the owners of mills, weirs, or lands adjacent to the rivers. The preamble of the statute sets forth that: "the making and keeping the Rivers Mercy and Irwell, in the Counties Palatine of Lancaster and Chester, navigable and passable for boats, barges, lighters, and other vessels from a place called Liverpoole to a place called Hunt's Bank, in Manchester, will be very beneficial to trade, advantageous to the poor, and convenient for the carriage of Coals, Cannel, Stone, Timber, and other goods, wares, and merchandises, to and from the towns adjacent, and will very much tend to the employing and increase of watermen and seamen, and be a means to preserve the highways."

By the 18th section of the statute it is declared: "That the said Rivers Mercy and Irwell are, and for ever hereafter shall be, esteemed and taken to be navigable from Liverpoole aforesaid: and that all the King's liege people whatsoever with their goods and merchandizes, may have and lawfully enjoy their free passage in, along, through, and upon the said rivers, or any part thereof, between Liverpoole and Manchester, with boats and other vessels, and all necessary and convenient liberties for navigating the same, without any obstruction from any person whatever, paying such rates and duties as are by this Act appointed to be paid to the said undertakers." To reimburse the undertakers for "the great charges and expenses they should be at," the undertakers were empowered to charge a duty of not exceeding 3s. 4d. per ton on the coal, stone, or other materials or commodities conveyed in boats on the rivers from Bank Key.

The 22nd clause of the Act enjoins, that as the Mersey "hath been heretofore and now is navigable from Liverpool to Bank Quay, that all goods and merchandises (as heretofore the same have been) shall remain free and exempted from paying any toll or duty to the undertakers."

By the 23rd clause, both the rivers and the works connected with the navigation are rendered independent of any laws relating to sewers.

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On 6th June, 1721, the rivers Mersey and Irwell were navigable to Liverpool for vessels of 50 tons.

On 27th April, 1753, the Mersey and Irwell Navigation Company issued the following advertisement:—"The Proprietors of the Mersey and Irwell Navigation give notice that they will for the future carry goods and merchandise for those persons who employ their flats in summer as well as in winter, at the following prices, viz., From Bank Key to the Key at Manchester at 6d. per hundred, from the 1st May to the 11th November, and at 7d. per hundred from the 11th November to the 1st May; and from the Key at Manchester to Bank Key at 4d. per hundred at all times.—N.B. There are good convenient warehouses at both Keys, and great care will be taken of all goods that come up or go down the river."

OUR COTTON TRADE.

A RETROSPECTIVE GLANCE.

IN 1756 the population of Manchester was computed to be 19,839 persons. Dr. Aikin, in his "History of Manchester," thus describes the Manchester manufacturer as known in that earlier time:—"An eminent manufacturer of that age used to be in his warehouse before six in the morning, accompanied by his children and apprentices. At seven they all came in to breakfast, which consisted of one large dish of water pottage, made of oatmeal, water, and a little salt, boiled thick and poured into a dish; at each side there was a pan or basin of milk, and the master and the apprentices, each with a wooden spoon in his hand, without loss of time, dipped into the same dish, and thence into the milk pan, and as soon as it was finished they all returned to their work."

Spinning and weaving in those days were domestic operations; the factory system, combining all the operations under one roof, and carrying out a rigid subdivision of labour, had not been instituted. The ingenious mechanism and the applications of steam power, which enables us to clothe the world with marvellously cheap apparel, were then unthought of. The "cottons" then made were really a mixture of linen and cotton. No process had then been discovered enabling the spinner so to manipulate cotton yarn as to be strong enough to serve for warps (the threads which run the length of the cloth), so the manufacturers imported linen warps from Ireland and Germany, and gave these out to the weaver to work up with the weft (the cross threads) into cloth. Whilst the weaver was making the cloth, the cotton used for weft was picked and cleaned by the younger members of the family, while the wife and elder daughters carded and spun. It often happened that the weaver's own family could not furnish the whole supply of weft required. One weaver would keep three spinners at work, hence the weaver had often to purchase of other families, and had frequently to trudge several miles to accomplish this object. At this period a weaver's cottage, with a two-loom shop, rented from 40s. to 45s. the year.

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In 1761 the celebrated Duke of Bridgewater, justly styled "The Father of British Inland Navigation," had completed a short canal from his coal mines, at Worsley, to Castlefield, Knot Mill, Manchester, the length being $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles. His Grace carried out this work entirely at his own private cost, with the services of the famous canal engineer, Brindley. The advantages resulting from this waterway were very great. This is evidenced by the fact that coal, which up to that time sold at 2s. 6d. per cwt., at once fell to 7d. per cwt. This considerable reduction in price greatly stimulated the production of coal at the mines of the noble Duke. It also afforded a great saving to the householder, and most important of all, it has had a remarkable effect in developing the cotton trade by lessening the cost of production materially, by enabling the cheap supplies of that fuel upon which, through the genius of James Watt, the cotton industry, soon after the opening of the Worsley Canal, the future of the cotton trade principally depended.

In 1765 there were only eight flats* employed in the trade between Manchester and Liverpool. About this time, however, a considerable impetus was given to the trade of Manchester through the institution of a system of despatching agents of the manufacturers and merchants, provided with samples and patterns of Manchester goods, who rode all over the kingdom seeking orders.

In 1767 a further stimulus to the cotton industry was brought about by the influence of an invention by James Hargreaves, a poor weaver, of Blackburn, of the spinning jenny. The persecution of his fellow-operatives compelled him to leave his native place, being bitterly opposed to the introduction of machinery as prejudicial to manual labour. This benefactor to his species died in Nottingham Workhouse, in 1777, in obscurity and poverty, and unrewarded for his valuable invention.

In 1769 an ingenious barber, who, in 1760, occupied a cellar in Bolton, who was named Arkwright, obtained a patent for the spinning frame. This important invention completely revolutionised the cotton industry. Arkwright, when not engaged in shaving, used to devote himself to all sorts of mechanical experiments. The result of nine years' investigation led to his important invention. He afterwards became Sir Richard Arkwright.

On the 5th January, 1769, the same year that Arkwright patented his spinning frame, James Watt took out his patent for his steam engine, or, as he styled it, fire-engine. But for an Act passed in 1775 to continue the patent right until the year 1800, Watt would have been entirely deprived of the reward of his labour.

In 1774 Samuel Crompton, a Bolton spinner, invented what was at first known as the "muslin wheel," but afterwards became better known as the "mule," being so called because it was a sort of cross between the spinning frame of Arkwright and the spinning jenny of Hargreaves. For many years Crompton lived in Oldham in comparative poverty.

The operatives caused riots on account of the introduction of machinery, and were constantly molesting Crompton, raising the cry "men, not machines." However, in 1812, the Government awarded him £5,000 as national reward, probably, in a great measure, because the duty levied on the cotton imported amounted to £1,000 a day.

* The term applied to the barges which plied on the navigation.

PROVISION OF A SECOND NAVIGABLE WATERWAY BETWEEN
MANCHESTER AND THE ESTUARY OF THE MERSEY.

THE Duke of Bridgewater was so satisfied with the success of his first experiment, the Worsley Canal, that he applied to Parliament and obtained powers to construct an extension of his canal from a point called Waters Meeting, $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the terminus of his Worsley Canal, at Castlefield, to Runcorn, on the estuary of the Mersey, a distance of $23\frac{1}{2}$ miles. The canal is made of one level between Manchester and Runcorn. The descent into the Mersey estuary is effected by a flight of ten locks, the fall being $82\frac{1}{2}$ feet from the level of the canal into the tide-way at low water. The Duke of Bridgewater was influenced to carry out this great design, which he did entirely at his own personal cost, because of the high charges for carriage between Manchester and Liverpool, the charge by road conveyance being 40s. per ton, and by the Mersey and Irwell Navigation 12s. per ton. The Duke was restricted by the Act authorising his construction of the canal to 6s. per ton. The Bridgewater Canal service was not only cheaper, but more rapid, regular, and efficient. These advantages made the Bridgewater Canal a serious rival of the Mersey and Irwell Navigation. The undertakers, although they charged 12s. a ton, found, however, that their outlay yielded more benefit to the public than profit to themselves.

Overtures were made by the proprietors of the Mersey and Irwell Company, offering to the Duke of Bridgewater, soon after the opening of the Runcorn Canal, to sell their entire interest in the undertaking for £5,000. They were, however, not successful in their efforts. The undertakers ultimately disposed of their interest in the navigation to a new proprietary, under indentures dated 23rd and 24th June, 1779, for the sum of £10,000.

At this period Manchester is computed, according to an estimate made in 1774, to have been inhabited by 40,032 persons. The import of raw cotton in 1780 was about 3,000 tons. The exports of cotton goods amounted in value to £355,000. In 1780 there was received £3,528 as dock dues at Liverpool by 2,261 vessels.

In 1794 the new proprietary, formed in 1779, obtained another statute,³⁴ George III., cap. 37, entitled "An Act for altering an Act passed in the seventh of George the First, entitled an Act for making the rivers Mersey and Irwell navigable from Liverpool to Manchester, in the County Palatine of Lancaster: by incorporating the Proprietors of the said navigation, and to declare their respective shares therein to be personal property." This Act obtained the Royal Assent 28th March, 1794. Under this statute the interested parties were incorporated as The Company of Proprietors of the Mersey and Irwell Navigation.

The proprietors made many efforts of an enterprising and judicious character to render the waterway more efficient, in view of the increasing requirements of Manchester and the adjacent districts. Among these were a cut from Latchford, just above Warrington, to Runcorn, eight miles in length, which, besides being

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shorter, avoided the tidal estuary, which could not be navigated by barge craft with the same facility. Another cut, the Woolston cut, just above Latchford, not quite two miles in length, was made to avoid a circuitous route by the river of over three miles. A short cut at Butchersfield, near Lymm, saved a couple of miles. And a fourth cut at Stickings, just below Barton, shortened the course by about half a mile.

The Mersey and Irwell Navigation Company were enabled by these improvements to hold their own in competition with the Bridgewater Canal, and ultimately a mutual understanding was arranged with regard to the charges to be imposed, the outcome of which was the establishment of what was practically a monopoly. The merchants and manufacturers of Manchester and the district, of which it is the entrepot, were virtually in the hands of the waterways' monopoly, and their operations were so severely handicapped that it became necessary to seek a remedy. In 1821 great inconvenience was caused to traders, partly from defective management and partly from inadequate accommodation, serious congestion of traffic frequently occurring through the increasing volume of business. When complaints of excessive charges and inordinate delays in the despatch and delivery of goods were made, traders were told that if they were not satisfied their accounts would be closed. This treatment so irritated the traders of Lancashire, that they determined to take measures for breaking up the waterways' monopoly.

ESTABLISHMENT OF A COMPETITIVE MEANS OF
COMMUNICATION.

IN 1824 Mr. Joseph Sandars, of Liverpool, called attention to the serious losses to trade, arising from delays and oppressive charges. In October of that year, the promoters of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway first applied to Parliament for powers to carry out that undertaking. Their first application was not successful, but in the following Session they obtained a statute, 7 Geo. IV., cap. 49, entitled—“An Act for making and maintaining a Railway or Tramroad from the town of Liverpool to the town of Manchester, with certain branches therefrom, all in the county of Lancaster.” This Act received the Royal Assent on 5th May, 1826. The Liverpool and Manchester Railway soon became an accomplished fact, and soon proved itself a most successful enterprise. This additional means of intercommunication was opened on September 15th, 1830. The waterway men quickly accommodated themselves to the new order of things, conscious that their monopoly no longer existed.

In 1824, simultaneously with the first application to Parliament by the promoters of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, an application for powers was also made by the promoters of a proposed Manchester Ship Canal. The route to be followed was from the mouth of the Dee, crossing the estuary of that river diagonally by a dredged channel to a point at Dawpool, near to Parkgate, in Cheshire, on the south shore of the Wirral Peninsula. The Manchester and Dee Ship Canal project was

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simply a miniature, when viewed in relation to the colossal proportions of the Manchester waterway now in course of construction. The canal was to be entered from a full-tide dock, with nine acres of water area, with about half-a-mile of quay frontage. Access was to be obtained to this from the estuary of the Dee through a basin about eight acres in extent, after which vessels would pass through a half-tide basin, with an area of about 2½ acres. The basin was to be open to the estuary by an entrance 132 feet wide, between the extremities of two piers which would protect the entrance basins, and were to be respectively 990 feet and 2,640 feet in length. The dimensions of the locks were to be 115 feet in length, and 33 feet in breadth. The top width of the canal was to be 70 feet. It was intended to pass from Parkgate by way of Frodsham, Lymm, and Altrincham, entering Manchester from the south, through Didsbury. The length of the canal would have been fifty miles. The Bill was rejected, not, however, upon its merits, but because the standing orders of the House had not been properly complied with, neither had any proper survey of the route been made, or plans prepared. The project, whatever its merits might have been, was met with the most relentless opposition.

In 1840 the Company of Proprietors of the Mersey and Irwell Navigation seriously contemplated its conversion into a ship canal, and obtained reports from several eminent engineers with a view to its improvement. Nothing, however, of a practical character was done. An interesting conversazione was held in the Royal Victoria Gallery of Practical Science, Manchester, in 1841, convened for the discussion of—"The Improvement of the Mersey and Irwell Navigation." The proceedings extended over four sittings, which were held respectively on January 28th, February 11th, 18th, and 25th, 1841. At this conversazione the schemes of Mr. H. R. Palmer (vice-president at that time of the Institute of Civil Engineers) and Mr. J. F. La Trobe Bateman formed the subjects of prolonged discussion. The main feature of Mr. Palmer's scheme was the construction of five locks between the point of the intersection of the tide with the river current at Woolston and Hunt's Bank, just above Victoria Bridge, Manchester, a distance of about 20 miles by the river courses of the Mersey and Irwell, the elevation of which, at a point just below Throstle Nest, is 49 feet above the river bed at Woolston. It was proposed that each of the locks should have a rise of 10 feet. The depth was to be 12 feet, and the locks were to provide for vessels of 600 tons. The plan of Mr. Bateman was to make an embankment across the Mersey at Runcorn Gap. This would maintain deep water between Runcorn and Warrington. By means of tidal locks, vessels could enter from the open estuary, and by sluice gates the scouring of the sand banks of the estuary could be accomplished by the ebbing tide. Above Warrington there would be no difficulty in improving the Mersey and Irwell to Manchester. At the second sitting of the conversazione, in a letter which the late Sir William Fairbairn wrote from London, being unable to be present, there was made the following prediction:—"Any improvement which will enable ocean-going vessels to discharge their cargoes in Manchester, would form an epoch of such magnitude in the history of Manchester as would quadruple her population and render her the first, as well as the most enterprising, city in Europe." This prediction has now every prospect of the fulfilment of its anticipations.

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DEVELOPMENTS SINCE 1841.

THIRTY-ONE years passed away without any important change, until 1872, when the Bridgewater Navigation Company Limited was formed, and acquired the Bridgewater Canal undertakings and the Mersey and Irwell Navigation. The Bridgewater Navigation Company was formed in August, 1872, the original capital being £500,000, in 500 shares of £1,000 each. Not long afterwards the capital of the company was increased to £1,300,000, divided into shares of £10 each. Of the new capital, £1,000,000 was issued in shares of £10 each. Of this the amount called up was £3. 10s., on 27th April, 1880; the balance of £300,000 was issued as 30,000 Preference Shares of £10 each. These Preference Shares were fully paid up in December, 1883, and had priority over the Ordinary Shares to receive 5 per cent. The authorised capital of the Bridgewater Navigation, on January 1st, 1885, was £1,500,000. The actual capital on that date was £930,000, made up as follows:—

Ordinary £10 Shares (£3. 10s. paid)	£350,000
Five Per Cent Preference Shares (fully paid up).....	300,000
Four Per Cent Debenture Bonds	200,000
Loans on Mersey and Irwell Bonds	80,000

£930,000

The Ordinary Shares received an average annual dividend of 8 per cent, with sometimes an additional bonus of one shilling per share. On July 1st, 1884, the selling price of Ordinary Shares (£3. 10s. paid) was £8, and Preference Shares (£10 paid) sold at £13. 10s.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MERSEY AND IRWELL NAVIGATION.

THE Mersey and Irwell Navigation begins at the confluence of the Irk with the Irwell, at Hunt's Bank, just above the Manchester Cathedral, immediately in front of Exchange Station, and just beyond Victoria Bridge. The navigation of the Irwell, from Hunt's Bank to the confluence of the Mersey and Irwell, at Lower Irlam, is ten miles. The Irwell here merges itself in the Mersey and loses its name, although much the greater stream. The navigation proceeds hence along the Mersey, passing Partington on the south bank, and on the right bank Hollinfares, then Warburton on the south; and at Butchersfield Lock, about 16½ miles from Hunt's Bank, the navigation, by a short cut of a quarter of a mile, avoids a diversion of the river of about a mile and a half at Rixton Leys, the navigation passing Lymm about a mile south. After proceeding by the river course a mile and a half, the navigation by the Woolston cut of a mile and three quarters, to avoid a deviation of the river course of about three and a half miles, and half a mile from Woolston, the navigation follows a cut called the Latchford and Runcorn Canal, eight miles in length. Passing by Arpley Meadows and Norton Priory, it debouches into the Mersey at the Old Quay Docks, at Runcorn Gap. The total length of the course of the Mersey and Irwell Navigation is 28 miles 3¼ furlongs.

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The following particulars of distances and the situations of the locks and their fall on the Mersey and Irwell Navigation will be found interesting :—

TABLE OF DISTANCES.

	Miles.	Furlongs.
Hunt's Bank to Albert Bridge	0	5½
Albert Bridge to Barton Lock	5	6
Barton Lock to Sandywarps Lock.....	5	2½
Sandywarps Lock to Butchersfield Lock	1	4½
Length of Woolston Cut.....	1	6
Woolston to Latchford	0	5
Latchford and Runcorn Canal	7	7
	28	3½
Mersey Estuary—Runcorn to Liverpool	16	0
	44	3½

LIST OF LOCKS.

Situation.	Fall.	Feet.	Inches.
Throstle Nest	9	0	
Mode Wheel	7	0	
Barton	7	6	
Stickings	3	6	
Holmes Bridge	4	0	
Calamanco	6	0	
Sandywarps (removed)	0	6	
Millbank	5	0	
Butchersfield	2	0	
Woolston	*6	0	
Howley Quay	*7	6	
	58	6	

DESCRIPTION OF THE BRIDGEWATER CANALS SYSTEM.

	Miles.	Furlongs.
Distance from the terminal Wharves at Castlefield, Knot Mill, Manchester, to Waters Meeting	3	2
Distance from Waters Meeting to the Barton Aqueduct.....	2	2
Distance from Barton Aqueduct to Worsley	2	2
Distance from Worsley to Leigh	6	0
Total length—Worsley and Leigh Branch.....	10	4

* These are the "falls" of these two locks at low water, as high spring tides flow through them.

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	Miles.	Furlongs.
Distance from Waters Meeting to Altrincham	4	5
Distance from Altrincham to Lymm	6	0
Distance from Lymm to Preston Brook	9	4
Distance from Preston Brook to Runcorn	4	7
		25 0
Length of extension from Runcorn to Weston Point	1	0

SUMMARY.

Canal from Castlefield to Waters Meeting.....	3	2
Worsley and Leigh Canal	10	4
Runcorn Canal	25	0
Extension to Weston Point	1	0
		39 6

The original cost of the canals now known as the Bridgewater Canals Undertaking of the Manchester Ship Canal Company, was £250,000. In addition to this extensive outlay, entirely the private expenditure of the most noble Francis Egerton, sixth Earl and third and last Duke of Bridgewater, his Grace also expended £169,000 on a system of subterranean canals at his collieries at Worsley, the aggregate length being 18 miles. These tunnelled canals enabled the coal to be loaded in small boats at the level of the workings and passed into the Worsley Canal for transit to Manchester. The total expenditure of the noble Duke was thus £419,000. The collieries and the underground canals are still the property of the Bridgewater Trustees.

About 3,000,000 tons of traffic pass over the Bridgewater Canals every year, involving the transport of 100,000 barge loads. At least 60,000 barges yearly, more than 1,000 weekly, pass through the Runcorn Locks of the Bridgewater Canal.

Evidence is not wanting that the keen attention paid by our competitors on the Continent and in America to all matters affecting transit, and the diligence with which they systematically carry out improvements likely to facilitate and cheapen transport, have had a great deal to do with the increased severity of foreign competition. Notwithstanding that the cheaper facilities enjoyed by our competitors place us at a serious disadvantage, yet the subject, until quite recently, scarcely received that share of attention which its important bearing on the prosperity of the country demands. The widespread complaints of the decay, and, in some cases, the total extinction, of important industries, resulting entirely from the too great cost of carriage between the producing centres and the consuming markets abroad, at last aroused the public mind. The commercial bondage of the people of the great manufacturing district, of which Manchester is the great centre, was thus graphically described by the *Times* :—

“Five-and-a-half millions of people are at the mercy of a combination holding a pass between them and the rest of the human race, and making the same use of their coign of vantage as the mediæval barons did on the embattled toll-gates thrown

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across the world's highways. City, port, dock, and railway vie in extortion, and levy duties to the extent of human forbearance. Many million tons of material and of manufactures pass annually to and fro between the port and the industrious region at the back of it, and on every ton Liverpool has its profit." This description does not in the least exaggerate the disadvantages under which the trade of the most important industrial district in the world was conducted.

The problem which required to be solved, as regards the interests of the Manchester district, was to avoid the high charges of the railway and port authorities. The solution lay in the provision of access to Manchester for vessels which bring our enormous supplies of raw materials, and of grain and provisions, and take back the products of our varied range of manufactures.

In the *Manchester Guardian* of October 14th, 1876, a letter appeared with the heading, "The Irwell Navigable for Deep Sea Steamers."

On December 1st, 1876, a special article, by a promoter of the canal, entitled "The Clyde and the Irwell," appeared in the columns of the *Manchester Guardian*. This article was very interesting and instructive, and was intended to impress the public with the importance of the projected tidal navigation. During February, 1877, a memorial for presentation to the Manchester Chamber of Commerce was organised, and on February 26th, 1877, a letter was addressed to the secretary of the Chamber of Commerce, enclosing a memorial for presentation to the directors, addressed to the Chamber and signed by thirty-nine of the most influential Manchester mercantile houses, chiefly members of the Chamber. The subscribers stated that they had "the opinion that the Chamber of Commerce would confer a benefit upon the community, by instituting an inquiry as to whether or not a Manchester Tidal Navigation could be accomplished at such cost as would permit of a profitable return upon the outlay."

On February 28th the memorial received the careful consideration of the Board of Directors of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, the result being the adoption of a resolution affirming in general terms the advantages which must accrue from the realisation of the project. The Board also expressed its willingness to hear an exposition of the project.

On April 4th, 1877, a special article on "The Irwell Navigation Scheme," by the author of the article on "The Clyde and the Irwell," appeared in the *Manchester Guardian*. On April 23rd, 1877, an exposition of the tidal navigation project was given before the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, then in York Chambers, King Street, which stood on the site where now stands the new building of the Manchester and County Bank.

The main features of the proposed tidal navigation were as follows:—It was proposed to improve portions of the Mersey and Irwell so as to provide a channel—a direct tidal channel—providing access to Manchester for vessels of the largest draught which could navigate the Suez Canal.

At Manchester there would be a tidal range of high-water spring tides of 15 feet from low water, and at high-water neap tides a range of 12 feet.

The low-water depth at the basin to be constructed at Manchester would be 22 feet, which, with a tidal range of 15 feet, would give a total depth at high water of 37 feet.

From Manchester to the sea the minimum depth at high-water spring tides would also be 37 feet, or 10 feet more than the Clyde navigation to Glasgow. At low-water spring tides the minimum depth would be 22 feet, or 12 feet more water than at low water on the Mersey bar.

The proposed channel throughout its whole length would be sufficiently wide to allow of two of the broadest-beamed vessels passing each other with ease and safety.

The entire length of the proposed channel would be 37 miles, 19 miles of which would be excavation or deepening, and 18 miles of training in the estuary. It was proposed that the bottom width be 80 feet, and width at the level of high water 228 feet.

The estimated outlay was £4,500,000.

On April 25th, 1877, the Manchester Chamber of Commerce passed a resolution expressing, *inter alia*, that—"There is no doubt it would be of the greatest service to the interests and trade of the district to have an improved waterway."

This, however, led to no practical steps being taken to organise a movement for the execution of the Tidal Navigation project. The matter virtually rested in abeyance for about four years and a half.

On October 29th, 1881, there appeared in the columns of the *Manchester Guardian* a letter addressed to the editor, entitled "A Sea-way to Manchester." In this letter the correspondent directed attention to the eloquent eulogy pronounced by Sir William Vernon Harcourt on the efforts of the Cathedral city of St. Mungo. The correspondent observed, "As a native of Manchester I must confess to a feeling of envy when I read in your columns this eloquent tribute to the energy of the citizens of Glasgow, and, with my enthusiasm aroused, I will, with your permission, inquire why the movement for the establishment of a deep-sea navigation to Manchester is not brought into greater prominence? I am well convinced that if an able exposition of the advantages which would most certainly accrue to Manchester, as they have to Glasgow, were placed before the public, the subject would so gain the attention which its enormous importance merits."

Between the end of October, 1881, and the end of January, 1882, a considerable correspondence in discussion of the projected Tidal Navigation ensued in the Manchester and Salford daily and weekly journals, and in those of Warrington, Oldham, and Preston, some of the correspondence appearing in Metropolitan journals.

At the end of March, 1882, the late Mr. Peter Spence published, in pamphlet form, a reprint of his evidence given (at the suggestion of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce) before the House of Commons Committee on Railway Rates (1881-2). In this capable pamphlet Mr. Spence observes:—"The following figures show that a wagon and horses road service could carry the goods for 25 per cent less than the present charges of the companies. On the nearly level road between Manchester and Liverpool a man, two horses, and a wagon could, in three days, take four tons of goods from Manchester to Liverpool, and bring four tons back, at a cost of 15s. per day, or 45s. in all. As the station-to-station rate of the companies is 7s. 6d. per ton, their charge for carrying four tons to Liverpool and bringing four tons back is 60s. The saving, by a horse tram-road, as existing before the days of Stephenson, would be much more than this, as a horse can draw upon rails nearly eight times

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more than upon an ordinary road. A plate railway has recently been proposed, which would admit of the use of ordinary road wagon wheels, and thus save all terminal expenses at stations. By a ship canal betwixt Manchester and Liverpool the economy of carriage would obviously be far greater than by any other system; steam navigation being beyond controversy the cheapest known mode of inland transit. I may add that the Manchester Ship Canal Scheme has the approval of able engineers."

This pamphlet was entitled "How the Railway Companies are Crippling British Industry, and Destroying the Canals, with Suggestions for Reforming the Whole System of Railway Charges and Rescuing the Waterways Permanently for the Nation." The pamphlet was afterwards circulated largely by the promoters, with the view of educating the public mind as to the imperative necessity of the Manchester Ship Canal.

On May 20th, 1882, a pamphlet was published entitled "The Proposed Manchester Ship Canal: Facts and Figures in Favour of a Tidal Navigation to Manchester, Showing How to Solve the Cheap Transport Problem for the Great Import and Export Trade of Lancashire and the West Riding. By Mancuniensis." This pamphlet was reviewed by the *Manchester Guardian*, which it pronounced as "An able and complete statement of the reasons for desiring the execution of such a canal;" and "the writer has done his part in putting the enormous advantages of the scheme clearly before the public." It was also very favourably reviewed by the *Manchester City News*, the *Warrington Guardian*, and the local press generally; and also by the *Edinburgh Review*, *Fraser's Magazine*, and the *Builder*.

This pamphlet was pretty freely distributed among the leading citizens in order to impress upon them the necessity and feasibility of the projected waterway. It was decided to convene a meeting of the leading merchants and manufacturers, and the municipal representatives of Manchester, Salford, and the numerous industrial towns which form its environment.

This meeting was held on June 27th, 1882, and the following resolutions were adopted:—

(1). "That, in the opinion of this meeting, it is of the first importance that Manchester be brought into direct communication with the sea by means of a Tidal Navigation for ocean-going steamers."

(2). "That a Provisional Committee be formed for the purpose of inquiring into the best means of carrying out the project."

(3). "That the Provisional Committee be empowered to obtain a detailed survey by some competent engineer or engineers, for the purpose of ascertaining, approximately, the cost of the construction of the proposed Tidal Navigation, and should the report of such engineer or engineers be satisfactory, that the committee be empowered to form a company to be called 'The Manchester Tidal Navigation Company.'"

(4). "That a Guarantee Fund be obtained to cover such expenses as might be incurred by the Provisional Committee in carrying out the objects for which it has been formed."

THE MANCHESTER SHIP CANAL.

The *Manchester Guardian* thus commented on the meeting:—"It must be conceded that the promoters of the scheme for a Ship Canal to Manchester have at last succeeded in attracting genuine attention to the proposal. Although it is now rather more than five years since an engineer formally explained to the Manchester Chamber of Commerce the details of the scheme, it is no exaggeration to say that until the last month or two most people have regarded the idea as a wild dream, pleasant to contemplate, but too good ever to come true."

STAGES OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE MANCHESTER SHIP CANAL MOVEMENT, AFTER
THE FORMATION OF THE PROVISIONAL COMMITTEE, UP TO THE COMMENCEMENT
OF THE PARLIAMENTARY CAMPAIGN.

	1882.
MEETING of Provisional Committee at temporary offices	July 7.
Meeting of Provisional Committee and Subscribers to Guarantee Fund, in the Old Town Hall, Manchester, at which the reports of the engineers were submitted, when it was decided to go on with the undertaking	Sept. 26.
Great mass meeting of working men in the Free Trade Hall, Manchester..	Nov. 13.
Great meeting of citizens, convened by the Mayor, and held in the Town Hall, Manchester.....	Nov. 14.
Manchester City Council resolves to give the project hearty approval and strenuous support	Nov. 20.
Deposit of the Parliamentary Plans and Book of Reference.....	Nov. 30.
Salford Town Council adopts resolution expressing approval of the project	Dec. 6.
Great meeting of the burgesses of Salford, convened by the Mayor, and held in the Town Hall.....	Dec. 8.
The Parliamentary Bill deposited	Dec. 15.
Important Conference of Mayors and Town Clerks of boroughs interested in the project	Dec. 20.
	1883.
Payment of the Parliamentary Deposit of £229,905	Jan. 15.
Alleged non-compliance with Standing Orders	Jan. 19.
Great meeting of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, which resolved to petition for suspension of Standing Orders.....	Feb. 5.
* Standing Orders suspended	Mar. 5.

* It is worthy of special reference, as illustrating the force and extent of public sympathy, that in the course of a few days petitions were presented, to the number of 326, by Municipalities, Chambers of Commerce (including one from the Associated Chamber of Commerce), Limited Liability Companies, and one signed by 187,346 inhabitants and ratepayers of Manchester, Salford, and surrounding districts.

THE MANCHESTER SHIP CANAL.

COMMENCEMENT OF THE PARLIAMENTARY INQUIRY.

THE most arduous, prolonged, and costly struggle in the annals of Private Bill legislation commenced before a Select Committee of the House of Commons on May 1st, 1883.

The inquiry lasted during thirty-nine days, terminating on July 6th. The Committee declared the preamble proven, and—a proceeding said to be without precedent—entirely on its own initiative, inserted the following clause in the Bill:—“And whereas it appeared from the evidence adduced, that if the scheme could be carried out with due regard to existing interests, the Manchester Ship Canal would afford valuable facilities, and ought to be sanctioned.”

The inquiry by the Select Committee of the House of Lords commenced on July 30th, 1883.

This inquiry was conducted in a somewhat precipitate manner, mainly because the inquiry only commenced just before the closing of the session.

The proceedings only lasted ten days, terminating on August 9th, 1883. The preamble was not proven. The terms of the decision were:—“It is not expedient to proceed with this Bill in the present Session of Parliament.”

As a matter of fact, the Bill was incomplete. No plans had been deposited for the proposed channel along the centre of the estuary. Had the Bill passed, another Bill would have been necessary to complete the undertaking from Runcorn to a point between Eastham and Garston.

The Liverpool opponents made a strong point of what was intended to cover the real objection to the canal in their own minds, that was an allegation of serious injury to the Port of Liverpool by physical disturbance of the estuary of the Mersey and professed apprehension of the possible ruin of Liverpool in consequence, by interfering with the approach to Liverpool. The promoters, however, were undaunted, notwithstanding this disappointment after a costly fight. The necessary arrangements were made for another conflict, and the Guarantee Fund was very liberally supplemented.

FURTHER DEVELOPMENTS AFTER THE FAILURE OF THE FIRST EFFORT UP TO THE
COMMENCEMENT OF THE PARLIAMENTARY INQUIRY IN THE SESSION OF 1884.

1883.

GREAT public meeting in the Free Trade Hall, Manchester, in support of
the movementOct. 31.

Town Council of Salford adopts resolution expressing regretOct. 31.

Great meeting of burgesses in the Salford Town Hall in support of the
Ship Canal.....Nov. 30.

1884.

Association of Chambers of Commerce adopts resolution in approval of
the Ship CanalFeb. 21.

THE MANCHESTER SHIP CANAL.

THE SECOND PARLIAMENTARY CAMPAIGN—SESSION 1884.

THE inquiry by the Select Committee of the House of Lords was commenced on March 11th, 1884.

This inquiry was the longest of any, extending over forty-one days, the proceedings terminating on May 24th, 1884, the decision being that the preamble was proven.

In honour of the passing of the Bill by the Lords Committee a great demonstration of the trades of Manchester and Salford was held at the Pomona Gardens, Cornbrook, on Saturday, June 21st, 1884, in which 60,000 persons took part.

The inquiry before the Select Committee of the House of Commons commenced on July 7th, 1884.

The proceedings lasted twenty days, and terminated on August 1st, 1884. The decision was that the preamble was not proven. The Committee were influenced in their decision not to pass the Bill in that Session because of the solemn pledge, given by the Liverpool interests, not to oppose a new Bill which should ask for powers to carry the canal along the shore of the estuary instead of in the middle.

THE THIRD PARLIAMENTARY CAMPAIGN.

ALTHOUGH only a fortnight had elapsed after the adverse decision of the House of Commons Select Committee, the promoters, though bitterly disappointed at this second reverse, were assembled, with the subscribers to the Guarantee Fund, at a great meeting in the Manchester Town Hall, on August 15th, 1884, when over 1,000 subscribers were present. In spite of the fact that the expenses had already amounted to £100,000, the meeting was unanimous in resolving to authorise the Provisional Committee to again appeal to Parliament.

On the same day—in the evening—a great meeting was held in the Free Trade Hall, Manchester, and at both meetings resolutions were passed in favour of the municipal corporations of Manchester, Salford, and Warrington being invited to subscribe to the Guarantee Fund.

On October 6th, 1884, at a town's meeting convened by the Mayor of Manchester, and held in the Town Hall, it was resolved to consent to the Corporation of Manchester becoming joint promoters of the Bill, and to contribute the proceeds of a rate of sevenpence in the pound.

On October 9th, 1884, the Salford Town Council passed a similar resolution, subject to the approval of a town's meeting, which was afterwards given.

On October 23rd, 1884, at a town's meeting convened by the Mayor of Warrington, a similar resolution was adopted.

On October 28th, 1884, a town's meeting convened by the Mayor of Salford approved of the resolution passed by the Salford Town Council to become joint promoters and subscribers to the Guarantee Fund.

 THE MANCHESTER SHIP CANAL.

On January 28th, 1885, the Manchester Chamber of Commerce authorised certain directors of the chamber to give evidence before the Parliamentary Committees on behalf of the chamber in favour of the ship canal project.

On February 4th, 1885, the Salford Corporation appointed several members of the corporation to give evidence on behalf of the corporation before the Parliamentary Committees in favour of the canal.

On February 16th, 1885, the Manchester Corporation authorised any of its members or officers to be at the service of the Provisional Committee of the Manchester Canal to give evidence in support of the Parliamentary Bill, if required.

On March 12th, 1885, an inquiry was commenced before a Select Committee of the House of Lords.

The proceedings extended over thirty days, terminating on May 7th, 1885. The decision was that the preamble was proved.

The inquiry before the Select Committee of the House of Commons commenced on June 15th, 1885.

The proceedings occupied thirty-five days. The preamble of the Act was obtained by the unanimous decision of the Committee on July 30th, 1885. The chairman said:—"The conclusion we have come to, I am very glad to say, is unanimous." The inquiry was finished on August 3rd, and the Bill reported to the House on the same date. The Act was read a third time on August 5th, and received the Royal assent August 6th, 1885.

 THE FINAL AND SUCCESSFUL EFFORTS.

THE members of the Board of the Manchester Ship Canal Company succeeded in raising the necessary capital. The works were commenced at Eastham, in November, 1887, without any flourish of trumpets; and it need scarcely be stated that the contractor for the construction of the canal, and the engineer, under the control of the Board, are acting together in perfect unison, and have a thorough appreciation of the importance of the great work they have before them.

The shareholders and all interested in the Manchester Ship Canal Company may rest assured that the canal will be opened for traffic on January 1st, 1892, and that the traffic necessary to ensure a respectable dividend may be said to be assured.

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES,
 TABLE (1).—GENERAL SUMMARY of RETURNS
 (Compiled from Official

YEAR.	NUMBER OF SOCIETIES.			Number of Members.	CAPITAL AT END OF YEAR.		Sales.	Net Profit.
	Registered in the year.	Not Making Returns.	Making Returns.		Share.	Loan.		
1862	a454	g68	332	90,341	£ 428,376	£ 54,499	£ 2,333,523	£ 165,562
1863	51	73	381	111,163	579,902	76,738	2,673,778	216,005
1864	146	110	394	b129,429	684,182	89,122	2,836,606	224,460
1865	101	182	403	b124,659	819,367	107,263	3,373,847	279,226
1866	163	240	441	b144,072	1,046,310	118,023	4,462,676	372,307
1867	137	192	577	171,897	1,475,199	136,734	6,001,153	398,578
1868	190	93	673	211,781	1,711,643	177,706	7,122,360	424,420
1869	65	133	754	229,861	1,816,672	179,054	7,353,363	438,101
1870	67	153	748	248,108	2,035,626	197,029	8,201,685	553,435
1871	56	235	746	262,188	2,305,951	215,453	9,463,771	666,399
1872	141	113	935	330,550	2,969,573	371,541	13,012,120	936,715
1873	226	138	983	387,765	3,581,405	496,830	15,639,714	1,110,658
1874	130	232	1,031	412,733	3,905,093	587,342	16,374,053	1,228,038
1875	117	285	1,170	480,076	4,403,547	849,990	18,499,901	1,429,090
1876	82	177	1,167	508,067	5,141,390	919,772	19,921,054	1,743,980
1877	67	246	1,148	529,081	5,445,449	1,073,275	21,390,447	1,924,551
1878	52	121	1,185	560,993	5,647,443	1,145,717	21,402,219	1,837,660
1879	52	146	1,151	572,621	5,755,522	1,496,343	20,382,772	1,857,790
1880	69	100	1,183	604,063	6,232,093	1,341,290	23,248,314	c1,868,599
1881	66	..	1,240	643,617	6,940,173	1,483,583	24,945,063	1,981,109
1882	67	115	1,288	687,158	7,591,241	1,622,431	27,541,212	2,155,398
1883	55	170	1,291	729,957	7,921,356	1,577,086	29,336,028	2,434,996
1884	78	63	1,400	797,950	8,646,188	1,830,836	30,424,101	2,723,794
1885	84	50	1,441	850,659	9,211,259	1,945,834	31,305,910	2,988,690
1886	83	65	1,486	894,488	9,747,452	2,160,090	32,730,745	3,070,111
*1887
Totals ..							£399,976,415	£33,029,672

a The Total Number Registered

b Reduced by 13,278 for 1864, 23,927 for 1865, and 30,921 for 1866, being the number of "Individual Members"

c Estimated on the basis of the returns made

d Includes Joint-

e The return states this sum to be "Investments other than in Trade," which may mean investments in the

g Estimated. * The Parliamentary Returns to

UNITED KINGDOM.

for each Year, from 1862 to 1886 inclusive.

(Sources, and Corrected.)

Trade Expenses.	Trade Stock.	CAPITAL INVESTED IN		Profit Devoted to Education.	Amount of Reserve Fund.	YEAR.
		Industrial and Provident Societies, and other than Trade.	Joint-stock Companies.			
£	£	£	£	£	£	
127,749	1862
167,620	1863
163,147	1864
181,766	1865
219,746	1866
255,923	583,539	d494,429	3,203	32,629	1867
294,451	671,165	137,397	166,398	3,636	33,109	1868
280,116	784,847	117,586	178,367	3,814	38,630	1869
311,910	912,102	126,736	204,876	4,275	52,990	1870
346,415	1,029,446	145,004	262,594	5,097	66,631	1871
479,130	1,383,063	318,477	382,846	6,696	93,601	1872
556,540	1,627,402	370,402	449,039	7,107	102,722	1873
594,455	1,781,053	418,301	522,081	7,949	116,829	1874
686,178	2,095,675	667,825	553,454	10,879	241,930	1875
1,279,856	2,664,042	1876
1,381,961	2,648,282	1877
1,494,607	2,609,729	1878
1,537,138	2,857,214	1879
1,429,160	2,880,076	e3,447,347	13,910	1880
....	3,053,333	13,825	1881
1,692,107	3,452,942	e4,281,264	14,778	1882
1,820,804	3,709,555	e4,497,718	16,788	1883
1,936,485	3,575,836	e4,550,890	19,154	1884
2,082,539	3,729,492	e5,433,120	20,712	1885
1,800,347	4,072,765	3,858,940	19,878	1886
....	1887*

to the end of 1862.

returned by the Wholesale Society, and which were included in the returns from the Retail Societies, to the Central Co-operative Board for 1881.

stock Companies,

Wholesale, Corn Mills, Joint-stock Companies, Building Departments, Banks, Mortgages, Loans, &c.

December 31st of this year are not yet issued.

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES,
 TABLE (2).—GENERAL SUMMARY of RETURNS
 (Compiled from Official

YEAR.	NUMBER OF SOCIETIES			Number of Members.	CAPITAL AT END OF YEAR.		Sales.	Net Profit.
	Registered in the Year.	Not Making Returns.	Making Returns.		Share.	Loan.		
1862	a454	g68	332	90,341	£ 428,376	£ 54,499	£ 2,333,523	£ 165,562
1863	51	73	381	111,163	579,902	76,738	2,673,778	216,005
1864	146	110	394	b129,429	684,182	89,122	2,886,606	224,460
1865	101	182	403	b124,659	819,367	107,263	3,373,847	279,226
1866	163	240	441	b144,072	1,046,310	118,023	4,462,676	372,307
1867	137	192	577	171,897	1,475,199	136,734	6,001,153	398,578
1868	190	93	673	211,781	1,711,643	177,706	7,122,360	424,420
1869	65	133	754	229,861	1,816,672	179,054	7,353,363	438,101
1870	67	153	748	248,108	2,035,626	197,029	8,201,685	553,435
1871	56	235	746	262,188	2,305,951	215,453	9,463,771	666,399
1872	138	104	927	339,986	2,968,758	371,531	12,992,345	935,551
1873	225	135	973	387,301	3,579,962	496,740	15,623,553	1,109,795
1874	128	227	1,026	412,252	3,903,608	586,972	16,358,278	1,227,226
1875	116	283	1,163	479,284	4,793,909	844,620	18,484,382	1,427,365
1876	82	170	1,165	507,857	5,140,219	919,762	19,909,699	1,742,501
1877	66	240	1,144	528,576	5,437,959	1,073,265	21,374,013	1,922,361
1878	52	119	1,181	560,703	5,645,883	1,145,707	21,385,646	1,836,371
1879	51	146	1,145	573,084	5,747,907	1,496,143	20,365,602	1,856,308
1880	67	100	1,177	603,541	6,224,271	1,341,190	23,231,677	c1,866,839
1881	62	..	1,230	642,783	6,937,284	1,483,583	24,926,005	1,979,576
1882	66	113	1,276	685,981	7,581,739	1,622,253	27,509,055	2,153,699
1883	55	165	1,282	728,905	7,912,216	1,576,845	29,303,441	2,432,621
1884	76	57	1,391	896,845	8,636,960	1,830,624	30,392,112	2,722,103
1885	84	47	1,431	849,616	9,202,138	1,945,508	31,273,156	2,986,155
1886	82	62	1,474	893,153	9,738,278	2,159,746	32,684,244	3,067,436
*1887
Totals..							£399,635,970	£33,004,400

a The Total Number Registered

b Reduced by 18,278 for 1864, 23,927 for 1865, and 30,921 for 1866, being the number of "Individual Members"

c Estimated on the basis of the returns made

d Includes Joint-

The return states this sum to be "Investments other than in Trade," which may mean investments in the

* The Parliamentary Returns to December 31st

GREAT BRITAIN.

for each Year, from 1862 to 1886 inclusive.

Sources, and Corrected.)

Trade Expenses.	Trade Stock.	CAPITAL INVESTED IN		Profit Devoted to Education.	Amount of Reserve Fund.	YEAR.
		Industrial and Provident Societies, and other than Trade.	Joint-stock Companies.			
£	£	£	£	£	£	
127,749	1862
167,620	1863
163,147	1864
181,766	1865
219,746	1866
255,923	583,539	d494,429	3,203	32,629	1867
294,451	671,165	137,397	166,398	3,636	33,109	1868
280,116	784,847	117,586	178,367	3,814	38,630	1869
311,910	912,102	126,736	204,876	4,275	52,990	1870
346,415	1,029,446	145,004	262,594	5,097	66,631	1871
477,846	1,383,063	318,477	382,846	6,696	93,601	1872
555,766	1,627,402	370,402	449,039	7,107	102,722	1873
593,548	1,781,053	418,301	522,081	7,949	116,829	1874
685,118	2,094,325	667,825	553,454	10,879	241,930	1875
1,279,392	2,664,042	1876
1,381,285	2,647,309	1877
1,493,842	2,609,729	1878
1,536,282	2,857,214	1879
1,428,303	2,878,832	e3,429,935	17,407	13,910	1880
....	3,051,665	13,822	1881
1,689,823	3,450,481	e4,281,243	14,778	1882
1,818,880	3,706,978	e4,490,477	16,788	1883
1,933,297	3,572,226	4,543,388	19,154	1884
2,080,427	3,726,756	5,425,319	20,712	1885
1,797,696	4,068,831	3,858,451	19,878	1886
....	1887*

to the end of 1862.
 returned by the Wholesale Society, and which were included in the returns from the Retail Societies.
 to the Central Co-operative Board for 1881.
 stock Companies.
 Wholesale, Corn Mills, Joint-stock Companies, Building Departments, Banks, Mortgages, Loans, &c.
 of this year are not yet issued.

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES,

TABLE (3).—GENERAL SUMMARY of RETURNS

(Compiled from Official

YEAR.	NUMBER OF SOCIETIES			Number of Members.	CAPITAL.		Sales.	Net Profit.
	Registered in the Year.	Not Making Returns.	Making Returns.		Share.	Loan.		
1862	454	68	332	90,341	£ 428,376	£ 54,499	£ 2,333,523	£ 165,562
1863	51	73	381	111,163	579,902	76,738	2,673,778	216,005
1864	146	110	394	129,429	684,182	89,122	2,836,606	224,460
1865	101	182	403	124,659	819,367	107,263	3,373,847	279,226
1866	163	240	441	144,072	1,046,310	118,023	4,462,676	372,307
1867	137	192	577	171,897	1,475,199	136,734	6,001,153	398,578
1868	190	93	673	211,781	1,711,643	177,706	7,122,360	424,420
1869	65	133	754	229,861	1,816,672	179,054	7,353,363	438,101
1870	67	153	748	248,108	2,035,626	197,029	8,201,685	553,435
1871	56	235	746	262,188	2,305,951	215,453	9,463,771	666,399
1872	113	66	749	301,157	2,786,965	344,509	11,397,225	809,237
1873	186	69	790	340,930	3,344,104	431,808	13,651,127	959,493
1874	113	177	810	357,821	3,653,582	498,052	14,295,762	1,072,139
1875	98	237	926	420,024	4,470,857	742,073	16,206,570	1,250,570
1876	72	113	937	444,547	4,825,642	774,809	17,619,247	1,541,384
1877	58	186	896	461,666	5,092,958	916,955	18,697,788	1,680,370
1878	48	65	963	490,584	5,264,855	965,499	18,719,081	1,583,925
1879	40	106	937	504,117	5,374,179	1,324,970	17,816,037	1,598,156
1880	53	62	953	526,686	5,806,545	1,124,795	20,129,217	1,600,000
1881	50	..	971	552,353	6,431,553	1,205,145	21,276,850	1,657,564
1882	51	82	1,012	593,262	7,058,025	1,293,595	23,607,809	1,814,375
1883	42	158	990	622,871	7,281,448	1,203,764	24,776,980	2,036,826
1884	64	48	1,079	672,780	7,879,686	1,359,007	25,600,250	2,237,210
1885	73	47	1,114	717,019	8,364,367	1,408,941	25,858,065	2,419,615
1886	67	61	1,141	751,117	8,793,068	1,551,989	26,747,174	2,476,651
*1887
Totals ..							£350,221,944	£28,476,008

* The Parliamentary Returns to December 31st of this year are not yet issued.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

for each Year, from 1862 to 1886 inclusive.

Sources, and Corrected.)

Trade Expenses.	Trade Stock.	CAPITAL INVESTED IN		Profit Devoted to Education.	Amount of Reserve Fund.	YEAR.
		Industrial and Provident Societies, and other than Trade.	Joint-stock Companies.			
£	£	£	£	£	£	
127,749	1862
167,620	1863
163,147	1864
181,766	1865
219,746	1866
255,923	583,539	494,429	3,203	32,629	1867
294,451	671,165	137,397	166,398	3,636	33,109	1868
280,116	784,847	117,586	178,367	3,814	38,630	1869
311,910	912,102	126,736	204,876	4,275	52,990	1870
346,415	1,029,446	145,004	262,594	5,097	66,631	1871
419,567	1,219,092	300,712	380,043	6,461	79,292	1872
488,464	1,439,137	337,811	443,724	6,864	83,149	1873
517,445	1,572,264	386,640	510,057	7,486	98,732	1874
598,080	1,852,437	636,400	538,140	10,454	220,011	1875
1,137,053	2,377,380	1876
1,222,664	2,310,041	1877
1,315,364	2,286,795	1878
1,353,832	2,486,704	1879
1,285,875	2,512,039	†3,226,370	13,262	1880
....	2,585,443	13,314	1881
1,499,633	2,969,957	†3,919,455	14,070	1882
1,606,424	3,160,569	†4,113,995	15,903	1883
1,684,070	2,932,817	†4,118,751	18,062	1884
1,825,717	3,044,534	†4,811,819	19,374	1885
1,525,194	3,323,450	†3,475,319	18,440	1886
....	1887*

† "Investments at end of year"—the class not stated.

CO-OPERATIVE

TABLE (4).--GENERAL SUMMARY of RETURNS

(Compiled from Official

YEAR.	NO. OF SOCIETIES			Number of Members.	CAPITAL AT END OF YEAR.	
	Registered.	Not Making Returns.	Making Returns.		Share.	Loan.
1872	25	38	178	38,829	£ 181,793	£ 27,022
1873	39	66	188	46,371	235,858	64,932
1874	15	50	216	54,431	250,026	88,920
1875	18	46	237	59,260	323,052	102,547
1876	10	57	228	63,310	314,577	144,953
1877	8	54	248	66,910	345,001	156,310
1878	4	54	218	70,119	381,028	180,208
1879	11	*40	208	68,967	373,728	171,173
1880	14	38	224	76,855	417,726	216,395
1881	12	9	259	90,430	505,731	278,438
1882	15	31	264	92,719	523,714	328,658
1883	13	7	292	106,034	630,768	373,081
1884	12	9	312	124,065	757,274	471,617
1885	11	..	317	132,597	837,771	536,567
1886	15	1	333	142,036	945,210	607,757
‡1887
						Totals..£

* Not stated, but estimated at about 40.

‡ The Parliamentary Returns to December 31st of this year are not yet issued.

SOCIETIES, SCOTLAND.

for each Year, from 1872 to 1886 inclusive.

Sources, and Corrected.)

Sales.	Net Profit.	Trade Expenses.	Trade Stock.	CAPITAL INVESTED IN		Profit Devoted to Education.	Amount of Reserve Fund.	YEAR.
				Industrial and Provident Societies and other than Trade	Joint-stock Companies.			
£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	
1,595,120	126,314	58,279	163,971	17,765	2,803	235	14,309	..1872
1,972,426	150,302	67,302	188,265	32,591	5,315	243	19,573	..1873
2,062,516	155,087	76,103	208,789	31,661	12,024	463	18,097	..1874
2,277,812	176,795	87,038	241,888	31,425	15,314	425	21,919	..1875
2,290,452	201,117	142,339	286,6621876
2,676,225	241,991	158,621	337,2681877
2,666,565	252,446	178,478	322,9341878
2,549,565	258,152	182,450	370,5101879
3,102,460	266,839	142,428	366,793	203,565	17,407	6481880
3,649,155	322,012	..	466,222	5081881
3,901,246	339,324	190,190	480,524	†361,788	..	7081882
4,526,461	395,795	212,456	546,409	†376,482	..	8851883
4,791,862	484,893	249,227	639,409	†424,637	..	1,0921884
5,415,091	566,540	254,710	682,222	†613,500	..	1,3381885
5,937,070	590,785	272,502	745,381	†383,132	..	1,4381886
..1887†
49,414,026	4,528,392							

† "Investments at end of year;" the class of investment is not stated.

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES, IRELAND.

TABLE (5).—GENERAL SUMMARY OF RETURNS for each Year, from 1872 to 1886 inclusive.

(Compiled from Official Sources, and Corrected.)

YEAR.	NUMBER OF SOCIETIES.			Number of Members.	CAPITAL AT END OF YEAR.		Sales.	Net Profit.	Trade Expenses.	Trade Stock.	CAPITAL INVESTED IN		Profit Devoted to Education.	Amount of Reserve Fund.
	Registered.	Not Making Returns.	Making Returns.		Share.	Loan.					Industrial and Societies.	Joint-stock Companies.		
1872.....	3	9	8	564	1,815	10	19,775	1,164	1,284
1873.....	1	3	5	464	1,443	90	16,161	863	774
1874.....	2	5	5	481	1,485	370	15,775	812	907
1875.....	1	2	7	792	9,638	5,370	15,519	1,725	1,060	1,350	67
1876.....	..	7	2	210	1,171	10	11,355	1,479	464
1877.....	1	6	4	505	7,490	10	16,434	2,190	676	973
1878.....	..	2	4	290	1,560	10	16,573	1,289	765	15
1879.....	1	..	6	537	7,615	200	17,170	1,482	856	71
1880.....	2	..	6	522	7,822	100	16,637	1,760	857	1,244
1881.....	4	..	10	834	2,889	..	19,058	1,533	1,039	1,668	3	..
1882.....	1	2	12	1,177	9,502	178	32,157	1,699	2,284	2,461
1883.....	..	5	9	1,052	9,140	241	32,587	2,375	1,924	2,577
1884.....	2	6	9	1,105	9,228	212	31,989	1,691	3,188	3,610
1885.....	..	3	10	1,043	9,121	326	32,754	2,535	2,112	2,736
1886.....	1	3	12	1,385	9,174	314	46,501	2,675	2,651	3,984
*1887.....
						Totals .£	340,445	£25,272						

* The Parliamentary Returns to December 31st of this year are not yet issued. † "Investments at end of year;" the class not stated.

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

STATISTICS SHOWING THE POSITION AND PROGRESS OF THE CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT FROM 1862 TO 1886.

THE foregoing tables are continued from the last year's Annual, with the figures for the year 1886 added. The Parliamentary Returns for 1887 are not yet issued.

Table 1, which relates to the whole of the societies in the United Kingdom, shows that at the end of 1886 there were 1,551 enrolled; of these 1,486 had furnished returns, whilst 65 had omitted to do so.

These 1,551 societies had a membership of 894,488 persons; their sales for the year were £32,730,745; they realised a net profit of £3,070,111, and granted £19,878 to educational purposes.

Compared with the figures for 1876, the foregoing results show very substantial increases, viz., 76 per cent in membership, 64 per cent in sales, and 76 per cent in profit.

The total sales for the twenty-five years 1862 to 1886 are £399,976,415, on which a net profit of £33,029,672 has been realised.

Table No. 2 relates to societies in Great Britain; No. 3 to England and Wales; No. 4 to Scotland; and No. 5 to Ireland.

In the case of Ireland, we note that only two societies out of nine made returns to the Registrar in 1876; whilst in 1886, 12 out of 15 made returns. It is obvious that the conditions of comparison are not equal: we have therefore omitted the percentages.

From the last three tables we extract the following comparisons:—

CO-OPERATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES DURING 1876 AND 1886.

	1876.		1886.		Increase per cent.
Societies (making returns) ..No.	937	..	1,141	..	22
Members	444,547	..	751,117	..	69
Capital (share and loan).....£	5,600,451	..	10,345,057	..	84
Sales	£ 17,619,247	..	26,747,174	..	52
Profits	£ 1,541,384	..	2,476,651	..	60

CO-OPERATION IN SCOTLAND DURING 1876 AND 1886.

	1876.		1886.		Increase per cent.
Societies (making returns) ..No.	228	..	333	..	46
Members	63,310	..	142,036	..	124
Capital (share and loan).....£	459,530	..	1,552,967	..	238
Sales	£ 2,290,452	..	5,937,070	..	159
Profits	£ 201,117	..	590,785	..	193

CO-OPERATION IN IRELAND DURING 1876 AND 1886.

	1876.		1886.
Societies	No. 2	12
Members	No. 210	1,335
Capital (share and loan)	£ 1,181	9,518
Sales	£ 11,355	46,501
Profits	£ 1,479	2,675

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES,

BIRD'S-EYE VIEW

TABLE (6), showing the Sales of all Societies which,

NAMES OF SOCIETIES.		COUNTIES.	1868	1869	1870
			£	£	£
1	Rochdale Equitable Pioneers..	Lancashire..	290,540	236,439	222,138
2	Rochdale Co-op. Corn Mill....	—	326,659	235,823
3	Co-operative Wholesale Society	—	412,240	507,217	677,734
4	Civil Service Supply Association	Middlesex ..	217,283	345,390	492,418
5	Sowerby Bridge Corn Mill....	Yorkshire
6	Halifax Industrial	—
7	Leeds Industrial and Corn Mill.	—
8	Oldham Industrial	Lancashire..
9	Bury District	—
10	Rochdale Cotton Manufact'ring	—
11	Halifax Corn Mill	Yorkshire
12	Oldham Star Corn Mill	Lancashire..
TOTALS.....			1,246,722	1,324,869	1,392,290

NAMES OF SOCIETIES.		COUNTIES.	1878	1879	1880
			£	£	£
1	Rochdale Equitable Pioneers..	Lancashire..	299,039	270,070	283,655
2	Rochdale Co-op. Corn Mill....	—	285,920	270,337	301,836
3	Co-operative Wholesale Society	—	2,705,625	2,645,331	3,339,681
4	Civil Service Supply Association	Middlesex ..	1,384,042	1,474,923	1,420,619
5	Sowerby Bridge Corn Mill....	Yorkshire ..	468,001	447,301	565,194
6	Halifax Industrial	—	209,571	207,539
7	Leeds Industrial and Corn Mill.	—	358,865	360,017	412,225
8	Oldham Industrial	Lancashire..	279,999	261,813	303,012
9	Bury District	—	241,886	217,282	231,918
10	Rochdale Cotton Manufact'ring	—
11	Halifax Corn Mill	Yorkshire ..	224,018
12	Oldham Star Corn Mill	Lancashire..
13	Manchester Equitable.....	—	208,513	242,966
14	Bolton	—
15	Gateshead, Durham	Durham
16	Barnsley British	Yorkshire
17	Oldham Equitable	Lancashire..
18	Huddersfield.....	Yorkshire
19	Newcastle-upon-Tyne	Nrthmbrld..
20	Acerington and Church	Lancashire..
21	Bishop Auckland.....	Durham
22	Brighouse.....	Yorkshire
TOTALS.....			6,456,966	6,155,587	7,308,645

ENGLAND AND WALES.

OF SALES.

during the years 1868 to 1887, exceeded £200,000 a year.

1871	1872	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	
£	£	£	£	£	£	£	
246,674	267,572	287,212	298,889	305,657	305,191	311,715	1
....	215,584	240,836	244,864	202,988	252,045	2
758,764	1,153,132	1,636,950	1,964,829	2,247,395	2,697,366	2,827,052	3
625,305	712,399	819,428	896,094	925,332	983,545	946,780	4
206,979	218,645	286,964	338,246	338,364	406,017	460,013	5
....	235,730	264,137	273,186	270,499	237,754	237,447	6
....	312,308	386,536	390,645	365,639	374,166	7
....	213,600	237,845	253,438	284,977	316,903	8
....	209,382	223,622	212,814	231,692	251,057	9
....	209,654	10
....	207,648	244,262	11
....	219,664	12
1,837,722	2,803,062	4,270,817	5,073,765	5,147,132	5,719,829	6,441,104	
1881	1882	1883	1884	1885	1886	1887	
£	£	£	£	£	£	£	
272,141	274,627	276,457	262,270	252,072	246,031	256,736	1
299,672	286,966	259,396	209,912	2
3,574,095	4,038,238	4,546,891	4,675,371	4,793,151	5,223,179	5,713,235	3
1,488,507	1,603,670	1,682,655	1,691,455	1,758,648	1,743,306	1,732,483	4
589,929	594,664	499,260	395,502	343,723	333,655	357,886	5
....	206,058	224,780	226,175	224,870	224,259	6
432,811	438,478	486,784	490,332	495,297	480,204	526,002	7
310,387	320,336	335,672	344,647	330,038	312,230	322,090	8
225,689	240,227	250,123	249,978	256,545	240,239	236,042	9
....	206,549	10
....	240,363	203,877	222,008	11
....	12
242,535	254,124	258,935	240,241	232,998	229,886	233,181	13
219,657	254,414	295,437	326,201	324,467	335,877	327,288	14
200,261	225,202	248,364	248,295	268,720	269,585	266,005	15
....	215,421	253,512	266,616	260,112	283,903	293,876	16
....	210,581	235,678	239,364	227,873	228,946	228,523	17
....	201,718	208,710	209,426	252,682	18
....	239,877	286,686	312,719	338,030	328,848	19
....	200,608	208,307	209,291	211,226	20
....	200,931	209,969	21
....	204,127	22
7,855,684	9,158,666	10,283,809	10,592,621	10,494,722	11,109,589	12,353,015	

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES—ENGLAND AND WALES.

BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF SALES.

TABLE (7), showing the SALES of all SOCIETIES which during the years 1884 to 1887 were over £100,000 and under £200,000 a year; also SALES of the same SOCIETIES for the year 1877.

No.	NAME OF SOCIETY.	COUNTY.	1877.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.
			£	£	£	£	£
1	Bacup	Lancashire ..	145,593	109,561
2	Leigh	„ ..	145,353	116,293	109,903	107,695	111,840
3	Failsworth	„ ..	68,783	117,815	111,469	104,499	104,840
4	Eccles	„ ..	140,933	109,225	114,814	120,839	130,986
5	Oldham Star Corn Mill.	„ ..	219,664	172,922	188,949	153,913	171,363
6	Pendleton	„ ..	40,873	114,297	134,255	176,461
7	Rochdale Manufact....	„ ..	146,345	180,850	187,380	190,101	(over)
8	„ Co-op. Corn Mill.	„ ..	252,045	192,633	166,873	149,548
9	Huddersfield	Yorkshire ..	119,261	195,293	181,736	(over)	(over)
10	Halifax Flour.....	„ ..	244,262	(over)	(over)	192,217	(over)
11	Keighley	„ ..	52,828	104,097	101,010	106,626	117,378
12	Brighouse	„ ..	131,775	171,620	178,360	188,355	(over)
13	Heckmondwike	„ ..	159,297	142,311	137,951	135,592	141,475
14	Bradford	„ ..	105,338	141,700	136,824	146,567	171,991
15	Dewsbury	„ ..	141,927	137,742	138,377	145,519	148,641
16	Todmorden	„ ..	75,735	101,302	102,336	101,672	113,193
17	Bishop Auckland	Durham	91,705	199,366	198,783	(over)	(over)
18	Crook	„ ..	95,039	146,421	148,065	150,369	162,894
19	Blaydon	„ ..	122,155	149,152	157,850	165,770	165,913
20	Chester-le-Street	„ ..	88,421	124,434	130,235	148,521	162,071
21	Haswell	„ ..	52,373	116,507	115,342	109,021	100,350
22	Cleator Moor	Cumberland..	107,176	109,529	106,213	109,734	122,847
23	Crewe Friendly	Cheshire	98,743	132,374	130,554	130,530	139,273
24	Leicester.....	Leicestershire	149,812	142,368	150,711	143,362	137,194
25	Plymouth	Devonshire	126,091	122,989	130,559	141,825
26	Derby	Derbyshire ..	98,908	104,477	110,828	109,127	114,195
27	Lincoln	Lincolnshire..	38,728	100,288	102,090	114,483
28	Burnley	Lancashire ..	37,950	125,215	170,876
29	Radeliffe & Pilkington.	„ ..	94,146	101,161	109,965
30	Batley	Yorkshire ..	79,988	102,795	109,957
31	Stratford	Essex	43,009	103,370	117,935
32	Gloucester.....	Gloucestersh.	55,151	110,867	118,037
33	Woolwich Royal Arsenal	Kent	18,977	105,038
34	Preston	Lancashire ..	58,858	101,078
35	Middlesborough	Yorkshire ..	39,660	100,137
			3,560,811	3,251,738	3,367,609	3,837,214	3,831,784

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN ENGLAND AND WALES WITH
AN ANNUAL TRADE OF OVER £200,000.

(See Table 6, pages 416-17.)

THE number of societies coming under this head is now twenty, of which nine are in Lancashire, seven in Yorkshire, two in Durham, and one each in Middlesex and Northumberland. This number shows an increase of three on the year.

The combined sales of these twenty societies amount to £12,353,015, being 46 per cent of the entire sales of societies in England and Wales. The Wholesale Society comes first with a business of £5,713,235, and is followed by the Civil Service Supply, with sales amounting to £1,732,483; next come Leeds Society and Corn Mill, Sowerby Bridge Corn Mill, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Oldham, and Bolton Industrial Societies, all of whose sales considerably exceed £300,000. The sales of the remaining thirteen societies are under that sum.

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN ENGLAND AND WALES WITH AN
ANNUAL TRADE OF BETWEEN £100,000 AND £200,000.

(See Table 7, page 418.)

THREE fresh societies make their appearance in table 7 this year, viz., Woolwich, with a trade of £105,038, Preston £101,078, and Middlesborough £100,137; whilst Halifax Corn Mill is transferred to table 7, its sales having increased from £192,217 in 1886, to £222,008 in 1887.

Of the twenty-nine societies coming under this head for 1887, Lancashire furnishes nine, Yorkshire seven, Durham four, and Cumberland, Cheshire, Leicestershire, Devonshire, Derbyshire, Lincolnshire, Essex, Gloucestershire, Kent one each. Their total sales are £3,831,784, or over 14 per cent of the total sales of societies in England and Wales.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES.

FROM the report of the Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies, for the year ending December 31st, 1886, we have extracted those societies whose assets, compared with their liabilities, showed a deficiency of £1,000 and upwards at the date of their last valuation.

In going through the returns we find, that out of a total of 12,528 societies whose names appear therein, only 6,427 have made returns during the period 1881 to 1885.

Of these 6,427 societies, 676 show a deficiency on the date of the last valuation of more than £1,000.

Turning to the county summary, we find that 612 of these societies have made returns of members numbering 423,986, the receipts being £1,412,148, and the expenditure £1,296,569. The aggregate deficiency at the date of the last valuation was £2,153,173.

The remaining 64 societies who have not made returns of members, receipts, and expenditure, show a deficiency of £184,229; the total deficiency of the 676 societies being £2,697,402.

The county average of deficiency per member varies somewhat, the highest being Oxford with £19·08; whilst the lowest is Glamorgan with £0·79.

Referring to the county returns we find that Lancashire heads the list with 88 societies, and a total deficiency of £274,914; 85 of these societies return a membership of 135,394, and a deficiency of £240,189, the average being £1·77 per member. The remaining three societies who do not make returns of members, &c., show a deficiency of £34,725.

Yorkshire follows with 86 societies, and a total deficiency of £206,502; 74 of these societies have an aggregate deficiency of £185,613, and a membership numbering 30,493 members, the average deficiency being £6·08; whilst the remaining 12 societies have a deficiency of £20,889.

Middlesex comes next with 61 societies, and a total deficiency of £757,056; the number of societies who have made returns being 59, with 52,874 members, and a deficiency of £750,668, being £14·19 per member. Two societies who have not made returns of members, &c., have a deficiency of £6,388.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES.

We give below a number of societies, showing the largest deficiencies, also the average per member:—

Name of Society.	No. of Members.	Amount of Deficiency.	Average Deficiency Per Member.
		£	£
Essex Provident, Chelmsford	4,187 ..	51,727 ..	12·35
Royal Standard Benefit, London	9,765 ..	142,294 ..	14·57
Loyal King's Lodge I.O. Old Friends, London	3,237 ..	70,697 ..	21·84
Great Eastern Railway Provident, London	5,174 ..	50,368 ..	9·73
Great Western „ „ „	9,144 ..	151,594 ..	16·57
Primitive Methodist Itinerant Preachers' Friendly, Nottingham	975 ..	94,133 ..	96·54
London, Brighton, and South Coast Railway Provident, Brighton	3,412 ..	160,153 ..	46·93
Cannon Street Male Adult Provident Institution, Birmingham	9,598 ..	115,994 ..	12·08
Great Northern Railway Locomotive Sick, Doncaster	5,878 ..	55,826 ..	9·49

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN ENGLAND AND WALES.

COUNTY SUMMARY OF THE ANNUAL AND VALUATION RETURNS MADE BY FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN ENGLAND AND WALES, SHOWING THE DEFICIENCIES OF ASSETS OF ALL SOCIETIES OF £1,000 AND UPWARDS EACH.

COUNTRIES.	ANNUAL RETURNS, 1881-1885.				VALUATION RETURNS.				Total No. of Societies to which the Valuation relates.	
	No. of Societies making Returns and Expenditure.	Particulars of Returns made.		Deficit of Societies not making Annual Returns of Members.	Deficit	Total Deficiency.	Per Member.			
		No. of Members.	Amount of Receipts.					Amount of Expenditure.		Of Societies making Annual Returns of Members.
ENGLAND :										
Bedfordshire	3	458	£ 1,949	£ 1,991	1	2,444	£ 3,602	£ 7-86	£ 6,046	4
Berkshire	3	1,148	5,771	4,833	9,655	8-41	9,655	3
Buckinghamshire	3	633	2,866	2,855	5,783	9-13	5,783	3
Cambridgeshire	3	577	1,185	1,159	4	7,557	3,428	5-94	10,985	7
Cheshire	20	11,823	19,270	19,467	4	9,533	43,367	3-66	52,900	21
Cornwall	2	185	1,646	2,047	1	2,031	3,086	16-68	5,117	3
Cumberland	3	505	2,739	2,446	5,769	11-42	5,769	3
Derbyshire	19	9,690	22,728	21,720	1	1,483	31,128	3-21	32,611	20
Devonshire	8	3,539	10,458	10,507	1	3,751	14,304	4-04	18,055	9
Dorsetshire	2	704	3,099	2,434	3,265	4-63	3,265	2
Durham	27	6,795	35,192	35,442	2	3,265	60,758	8-94	64,023	29
Essex	7	7,376	56,795	63,476	2	3,578	67,243	9-11	70,821	9
Gloucestershire	10	5,356	8,529	8,387	30,398	5-67	30,398	10
Hampshire	11	7,892	25,166	24,269	35,986	4-56	35,986	11
Herefordshire	2	813	7,522	6,747	6,241	7-67	6,241	2
Hertfordshire	5	2,027	16,480	15,699	20,305	10-01	20,305	5

Huntingdonshire	1	108	590	812	1	1,467	1,701	15-75	3,168	2
Kent	21	4,610	27,350	27,118	1	4,033	83,550	18-12	87,583	22
Lancashire	85	135,394	173,464	150,467	3	34,725	240,189	1-77	274,914	88
Leicestershire	14	2,717	9,862	8,311	23,168	8-52	23,168	14
Lincolnshire	27	4,472	19,073	19,161	1	1,509	45,357	10-14	46,866	28
Middlesex	59	52,874	400,517	362,679	2	6,388	750,668	14-19	757,056	61
Monmouthshire	8	1,919	6,506	5,929	1	1,489	12,853	6-69	14,342	9
Norfolk	10	2,166	9,060	8,711	18,460	8-52	18,460	10
Northamptonshire	14	3,693	12,889	12,004	1	1,354	24,750	6-70	26,104	15
Northumberland	7	1,406	5,464	5,182	3	34,518	9,741	6-92	44,259	10
Nottinghamshire	11	10,977	33,737	29,757	3	4,810	118,625	10-80	123,435	14
Oxfordshire	7	702	4,256	4,235	13,396	19-08	13,396	7
Shropshire	2	524	2,352	2,451	2	5,632	3,141	6-00	8,773	4
Somersetshire	2	376	1,541	1,482	5,960	15-85	5,960	2
Staffordshire	29	24,165	51,714	49,799	3	5,518	57,705	2-38	63,233	32
Suffolk	11	3,502	22,233	18,679	26,802	7-65	26,802	11
Surrey	15	4,915	27,056	19,993	34,079	6-89	34,079	15
Sussex	17	10,893	53,446	50,515	2	2,786	187,989	18-08	190,725	19
Warwickshire	13	13,838	114,954	100,383	166,215	11-91	166,215	13
Westmoreland	2	380	2,504	2,066	4,726	12-43	4,726	2
Wiltshire	16	8,391	32,426	29,767	2	2,187	57,740	6-83	59,927	18
Yorkshire	74	30,493	95,998	90,961	12	20,880	185,613	6-08	206,502	86
WALES:										
Cardiganshire	2	298	742	763	3,228	10-83	3,228	2
Carmarthenshire	2	298	1,128	1,017	1	1,127	2,669	8-95	3,796	3
Carnarvonshire	3	610	1,982	2,016	6,297	10-32	6,297	3
Denbighshire	6	1,466	7,291	7,275	2	9,009	10,843	7-39	19,532	8
Flintshire	2	272	1,216	839	1	1,415	2,421	8-90	3,866	3
Glamorganshire	12	40,052	57,827	45,585	6	10,545	31,772	0-79	42,317	18
Merionethshire	4	903	1,433	1,656	9,097	10-07	9,097	4
Montgomeryshire	4	1,232	5,399	6,169	14,455	11-73	14,455	4
Pembrokeshire	1	219	1,094	811	1,170	5-34	1,170	1
Radnorshire	2	891	4,892	5,154	1	1,206	12,003	13-47	13,209	3
CHANNEL ISLANDS:										
Jersey	1	179	1,256	1,450	2,472	13-80	2,472	1
Totals	612	423,986	1,412,148	1,296,569	61	184,229	2,513,173	5-92	2,697,402	676

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN

TABLE showing the ANNUAL RETURNS and VALUATIONS of 676 FRIENDLY SOCIETIES
DEFICIENCY of £1,000 and UPWARDS

ANNUAL RETURNS—1881 TO 1885.

NAME OF SOCIETY.	REGISTERED OFFICE.	Date of Establishment.	No. of Members.
BEDFORDSHIRE.			
Provident	British School, Ampthill	1836	1
Court Foresters' Progress, A.O.F.	Schoolroom, Elstow	1872	2
Temple of Peace Friendly	Black Lion Inn, Leighton Buzzard	1842	8
Marston New Union Friendly	Mr. John Copperwheat's, Marston	1851	4
BERKSHIRE.			
Abingdon Loyal & Ind. Berkshire O. of F.	Cock and Tree Inn, Ock-street, Abingdon.	1860	5
Compton Pilgrims' Benefit	British School, Compton, Newbury	1835	6
Knowl Hill Friendly Benefit	Seven Stars Inn, Knowl Hill, Twyford	1841	7
BUCKINGHAMSHIRE.			
Dinton Provident Benefit	Boot Inn, Dinton	1846	8
Court North Star, A.O.F.	William-street, Slough	1843	9
Weedon Union Club	Wesleyan School, Weedon, Hardwicke....	1836	10
CAMBRIDGESHIRE.			
Sons of Benevolence Lodge of A.S.	Griffin Inn, Isleham	1853	11
Shepherds by the Wood Friendly Benefit.	Queen's Head Inn, Kirtling, Newmarket..	1864	12
Court Unity and Love, A.O.F.	Globe Inn, Main-street, Littleport.....	1861	13
Temperance Benefit	Providence School, March	1839	14
Royston Friendly	Royston	1836	15
Amicable and Brotherly	National School, Great Shelford.....	1851	16
Temperance Mutual Benefit	Baptist Meeting-house, Waterbeach	1840	17
CHESHIRE.			
Acton Provident Club and Friendly	Almshouse Inn, Acton, Nantwich	1850	18
Alderley Friendly	School, near the Church, Nether, Alderley ..	1814	19
Court Wheatsheaf, A.O.F.	Wheatshaf Inn, Antrobus	1861	20
Court Delamere, A.O.F.	Fox and Barrel Inn, Little Budworth	1837	21
St. James's Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Red Lion Inn, Christleton, Chester	1839	22
Pride of Crewe Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Rifleman Inn, 67, Beach-street, Crewe	1871	23
Countess of Stamford and Warrington F.	School-room, Dunham Massey	1838	24
Hyde Funeral	Clarke's Arms Inn, Hyde-lane, Hyde.....	1856	25
West Kirby Benevolent	Grange, West Kirby, Birkenhead	1828	26
Court Canute, A.O.F.	Wes. Schoolroom, Prince's-st., Knutsford..	1852	27
Knutsford District, A.O.F.	Malt-street, Knutsford	1853	28
Court Bethesda, A.O.F.	Blk Greyhound, Lostock Gralam, Knutsfrd	1857	29
Loyal Union Friendly	Wesleyan S. School, Mill-st., Macclesfield..	1817	30
Loyal Lily and Laurel, I.O.O.F., M.U.	91, Mill-street, Macclesfield	1852	31
Laurel Grove Lodge, U.O.F.G.	105, Chester-road, Macclesfield	1838	32
Loyal United Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Bate Hill, Chestergate, Macclesfield	1857	33
Malpas United Friendly	Lion Hotel, Malpas	1823	34
Nantwich Philanthropic Union	Swann Inn, Welsh-row, Nantwich	1821	35
Neston Independent Friendly	Nag's Head Inn, Neston	1840	36
Parish of Eastham Friendly	Black Lion Inn, Little Sutton, Birkenhead	1838	37
Wallasey Independent Friendly	Black Horse Inn, Wallasey	1822	38
Court Success to the Salt Trade, A.O.F.	Town Hall, Winsford	1836	39
Loyal Weaver Lodge Friendly	76, High-street, Winsford	1857	40
Annual Provident Friendly	High-street, Winsford	1843	41
CORNWALL.			
Bodmin Tradesmen's Friendly	Schoolroom, Mountfolly, Bodmin	1822	42
St. Mellion Friendly	Sun Inn, St. Mellion	1841	43
Tradesmen and Farmers' United	Lecture Hall, Stratton	1842	44
CUMBERLAND.			
N. of England Railway Servants' Prov. B.	Victoria Hotel, English-street, Carlisle ..	1868	45
Border Chieftain Lodge, I.U.O.M.	Mechanics' Hall, Longtown	1843	46
Loyal Lebanon Tent, I.O.R.	Tangier Buildings, Tangier-st., Whitehaven	1856	47
DERBYSHIRE.			
Loyal Holden Friendly	National Schoolroom, Aston-on-Trent	1879	48

a Number of years for which returns have been received.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

in ENGLAND and WALES, each of whose ASSETS, compared with its LIABILITIES, showed a at the date of its last Valuation.

VALUATIONS AND QUINQUENNIAL RETURNS.

No. of Years.	BENEFIT FUND. TOTAL		Year of Valuation.	RATE OF INTEREST PER CENT.		LIABILITIES.		ASSETS AND DEFICIENCIES.				Reference Letters (see Footnote).	
	Receipts.	Expenditure.		Used in Valuation.	Realised.	Present Value of Benefits	Other Liabilities (if any).	Present Value of Contributions.	Amount of Funds.	Other Assets (if any).	Deficiency.		
£	£				£	£	£	£	£	£	£		
1	1881	3	3·2 to 5·2	6,973	408	3,252	1,685	2,444	A.D.F.	
2	3	698	1884	3	2·75	4,524	963	2,981	468	1,082	1,066	D.E.	
3	5	519	1885	4	2·8 to 6·3	2,474	69	1,277	1,128	A.D.	
4	5	732	1881	3	2·6	3,492	1,376	648	1,468	D.	
5	4	816	1879	Nil	2·2 to 2·8	9,400	21	4,897	278	4,246	A.D.F.	
6	..	4,032	1885	3	Say 1·0	19,004	670	14,845	1,465	3,964	D.	
7	4	923	1885	3	3·0	6,482	255	2,831	1,861	2,045	D.	
8	5	446	1885	3	Under 2·0	2,390	8	1,114	140	131	1,013	D.	
9	3	1,854	1884	3	Say 3·0	14,481	2,732	9,159	1,138	3,188	3,728	E.	
10	4	566	1885	3	Say 2·0	3,216	10	1,381	533	270	1,042	D.	
11	1885	3	Say 2·2	1,341	470	2,352	348	2,111	A.D.	
12	1885	3	Say 2·4	4,229	33	2,588	671	1,005	A.D.	
13	1884	3	Say 2·0	7,709	175	4,943	686	83	2,222	D.	
14	5	716	1884	3	1·9 to 4·8	3,406	482	1,753	824	1,911	A.D.	
15	1885	3½	3·7	13,517	104	522	10,880	2,219	A.C.	
16	2	222	1883	3	2·6	3,457	1,962	444	1,051	D.F.	
17	5	217	1880	3	Under 2·0	1,806	639	101	1,066	D.F.	
18	4	611	1884	3	2·8	4,200	1,229	705	2,266	D.	
19	5	1,719	2,045	1885	3½	3·3 to 4·0	7,411	3,297	3,101	1,243	D.
20	5	963	1,145	1885	3	3·0	9,863	1,035	4,000	2,388	1,845	2,663	A.E.
21	5	917	916	1885	3	Not stated.	5,195	2	2,650	907	2	1,638	A.J.
22	1884	3	3·13	4,227	2,425	611	1,191	A.D.	
23	5	1,185	1,162	1885	3	1·3 to 4·7	5,816	3,850	376	1,090	A.D.
24	3	768	700	1884	3	1·9 to 4·6	5,864	12	3,159	473	80	2,164	D.
25	4	2,868	2,050	1885	3	Say 3·8	15,499	*5,889	17,417	1,699	2,363	A.D.
26	5	1,173	995	1885	3½	3·5 to 3·9	5,143	32	2,256	1,330	1,589	D.F.
27	1	594	630	1880	3	Say 4·0	15,551	1,406	6,270	3,061	2,980	4,646	A.D.E.
28	2	1,158	1,394	1880	3	2·4 to 4·4	18,835	61	7,573	3,234	61	3,028	A.D.
29	1·85	3	3·0 to 4·0	9,730	1,195	4,778	1,975	2,144	2,028	A.D.E.	
30	5	861	944	1885	3	2·5 to 3·1	3,553	11	1,249	1,100	123	1,087	A.D.
31	1880	3	3·2 to 4·2	4,610	1,962	239	2,409	A.F.	
32	5	466	677	1885	3	Say 2·9	2,509	1,329	90	1,090
33	2	222	243	1·80	3	Say 2·8	2,957	1,449	324	1,184	A.F.
34	2	989	962	1884	3	3·3 to 4·5	16,834	5,371	3,662	7,891	A.D.F.
35	5	1,443	1,372	1884	3	2·8 to 3·6	6,279	*123	4,025	478	1,904	D.F.
36	1	168	180	1885	3	3·9	3,775	1,312	1,097	1,366	D.
37	1881	8	2·8 to 3·4	7,896	654	2,616	2,029	3,905	A.D.F.	
38	5	1,171	1,364	1884	3	Say 3·1	4,124	45	1,999	1,036	1,134	F.
39	2	484	518	1885	3	3·75	5,994	535	2,726	542	1,243	2,018	A.B.D.E.
40	5	869	967	1884	3	2·51	4,702	442	2,524	1,061	1,559	D.
41	4	641	588	1885	3	3·3	4,782	2,347	801	1,634	D.
42	5	1,251	1,620	1884	3	2·1 to 4·1	6,042	845	3,196	†2,001	D.
43	5	395	427	1884	3	2·2 to 2·7	2,081	48	774	270	1,085	D.
44	1885	3	Say 2·7	4,122	169	1,597	663	3,031	D.	
45	5	694	696	1884	3	3·5 to 4·6	3,710	2,144	217	1,349
46	5	1,461	1,086	18·4	3	2·4	8,581	3,674	1,885	12	3,010
47	5	584	634	1885	3	Under 4·0	3,466	1,243	813	1,410	A.D.
48	5	1,507	1,628	1885	3	4·3	6,918	224	3,043	1,715	4	2,380

A.—The society's experience does not appear to have been compared with the tables used.

B.—Negative values have not been eliminated.

C.—Expenses of management unprovided for.

D.—The society charges uniform contributions for all ages at entry.

E.—Death benefits treated as re-assured with District.

F.—Valuation made by one of the public valuers under the Friendly Societies Act, 1875.

* Includes amount of negative values. † In another valuation made at the same date, but not making allowance for society's own experience, the same valuer brought out a surplus of £703.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN

TABLE showing the ANNUAL RETURNS and VALUATIONS of 676

ANNUAL RETURNS—1881 TO 1885.

NAME OF SOCIETY	REGISTERED OFFICE.	Date of Establish- ment.	No. of Members.
DERBYSHIRE—Continued.			
Benign Friendly Benefit	Devonshire Arms Inn, Beoley	1794	138 49
Birchwood Friendly Benefit	Wesleyan F. Church Sch'l'rm, Birchwood.	1857	296 50
Chinley New Club	Chapel School, Chinley	1821	47 51
Granville Colliery Co. Ltd. Miners' Accid.	Gresley Arms Inn, Church Gresley	1872	258 52
Church Gresley Primitive Methodist Prov.	People's Hall, Church Gresley	1858	270 53
Stephenson's Fav'rite Ldge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Star Inn, Clay Cross	1840	73 54
Free U. Loco. Eng. & Fireman's Friendly	Bridge Inn, Barlow-st., London-rd., Derby	1841	463 55
Royal Victoria Lodge, O.D.	144, Ashbourne-road, Derby	1863	102 56
Lily of the Valley Lodge, I.I.O.O.F., L.U.	Grapes Inn, Green-lane, Derby	1857	180 57
Dore and Totley Sick and Funeral	Hare and Hounds Inn, Dore	1856	195 58
Friendly Benefit	Edensor Inn, Edensor	1809	142 59
Glossop Dale Funeral Friendlv	Norfolk Arms Inn, Glossop	1830	6,271 60
Trent Valley Lodge, Albion O.O.F., N.U.	Turk's Head Inn, Gibb-street, Long Eaton	1871	161 61
Longford Friendly	Clubroom, Longford	1879	256 62
Oakbrook Friendly	Royal Oak Inn, Oakbrook	1814	271 63
Baptist Benefit	Baptist School, Ripley	1840	102 64
Pride of the Village	Plough Inn, Sandiacre	1874	119 65
Spondon Friendly Benefit	Church of England Schools, Spondon	1794	66
Loyal Victoria Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Crown Inn, Staveley	1872	149 67
DEVONSHIRE.			
Western Mutual Benefit and Provident ..	Lyme-street, Axminster	1857	420 68
Beer Male Friendly	National School-room, Beer, Axminster ..	1768	176 69
F'dly B. Scv. for Yeomen, T'smen, & Mech.	White Hart Inn, Chudleigh	1820	48 70
Devonp't. Stonehouse & Plymouth Sk. & D	Carlton Inn, St. Aubyn-street, Devonport.	1845	286 71
Devonport Penny Death	98, Fore-street, Devonport	1861	1,849 72
South Molton and Barnstaple Annuitant.	46, West-street, South Molton	1809	139 73
United Breth. Fishrmn, Pilots, & Watrmen	Bethel Schoolroom, Plymouth	1852	182 74
Stonehouse United Funeral Friendly	Talbot Arms Hotel, Union-st., Stonehouse	1850	439 75
Fraternal Provident	Infant School, Teignmouth	1842	76
DORSETSHIRE.			
Loyal Gt. Western Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Oddfellows' Hall, Barrack-st., Bridport ..	1860	524 77
Stower Provost Friendly	King's College Arms, Stower Provost	1831	180 78
DURHAM.			
Star of Hope Division, S.T.	Sons of Temperance Hall, Black Hill	1867	271 79
Court Pride of Brandon, A.O.F.	Brandon Colliery Inn, Brandon Colliery ..	1860	166 80
Matrons' Friendly	Fighting Cocks Inn, Chester-le-Street	1828	280 81
Miners' Refuge Lodge, L.O.A.S., A.U.	Love's Hotel, Crook	1842	334 82
King William III. Lodge, G.P.I.L.O.	Snn Inn, Crook	1864	92 83
Passion Flower Lodge, A.F.G.	Queen's Head Inn, Silver-street, Durham.	1866	86 84
Court Beech Grove, A.O.F.	Edmondsley Inn, Edmondsley, Chstr-le-St.	1860	85
Old Etherley Colliery Friendly	Infant School, Etherley, Darlington	1858	585 86
North-Eastern Railway Provident	67, West-street, Gateshead	1857	1644 87
West Hartlepool Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Vict. Hotel, Whitby-st., West Hartlepool ..	1860	183 88
Court Henry, A.O.F.	Market Hotel, West Hartlepool	1864	223 89
Cleveland Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Cleveland Hotel Lynn-st., West Hartlepool	1870	82 90
Court Braddyl, A.O.F.	Dun Cow Inn, South Hetton	1839	416 91
Venerable Bede Ldge, A.N.O.U.O.F., B.U.	Foresters' Arms, Jarrow	1862	216 92
Bede Metal & Chm. Co.'s Wrks. Per. S. & B.	3, Bede Buildings, Jarrow	1875	150 93
Adelaide and South Durham Friendly ..	British School, Church-st., Old Shildon ..	1843	193 94
Court St. John, A.O.F.	Cross Keys Inn, Old Shildon	1836	254 95
Vine Blossom Lodge, A.F.G.	Mechanics' Arms Inn, East-st., S. Shields.	1864	192 96
Garden of Eden Lodge, A.F.G.	Adam & Eve Inn, Laygate-lane, S. Shields.	1864	121 97
Rose of Sharon Lodge, A.F.G.	Scarboro' Spa Inn, King-street, S. Shields.	1868	114 98
Shepherds' Refuge Lodge, I.O.A.S.	Royal Oak Hotel, Spennymoor	1857	104 99
Loyal Albert Lodge, O.D.	Globe Inn, High-st., Sunderland	1863	100 100

a Number of years for which returns have been received.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES in ENGLAND and WALES, &c.—CONTINUED.

VALUATIONS AND QUINQUENNIAL RETURNS.

	BENEFIT FUND. TOTAL			Year of Valuation.	RATE OF INTEREST PER CENT.		LIABILITIES.		ASSETS AND DEFICIENCIES.				Reference Letters (see Footnotes).
	a No. of Years.	Receipts.	Expenditure.		Used in Valuation.	Realised.	Present Value of Benefits	Other Liabilities (if any).	Present Value of Contributions.	Amount of Funds.	Other Assets (if any).	Deficiency.	
	£	£				£	£	£	£	£			
49	4	726	698	1885	3	2.5 to 3.5	4,237	3,126	918	1,198	D.F.
50	5	1,242	997	1885	3	Say 4.0	5,078	2,902	1,072	1,104	A.D.
51	5	994	614	18.43	3	3.0 to 3.5	2,937	68	732	872	1,401	A.D.F.
52	5	860	897	1885	4	3.9 to 4.3	4,245	771	2,572	373	2,066	A.D.
53	5	1,227	1,057	1884	3	2.3 to 3.1	6,078	4,400	535	1,143	D.F.
54	5	422	973	1880	3	Nil.	2,469	1,192	26	1,251	A.F.
55	3	3,668	3,324	1884	3	3.6 to 4.2	17,907	116	10,635	4,267	404	2,677	D.
56	3	354	420	1884	3	3.0	2,917	236	1,631	408	1,119	A.D.
57	4	735	793	1885	3	3.0	4,800	918	3,360	207	970	1,181	A.E.
58	5	1,344	1,408	1885	3	3.0 to 5.7	6,291	12	2,759	2,276	1,268	D.F.
59	5	1,201	1,114	1884	3	3.7 to 4.7	5,885	2,215	2,325	1	1,944	A.F.
60	5	3,063	2,665	1885	3	Say 3.4	15,831	*321	9,969	2,505	3,658	D.F.
61	5	857	845	1885	3	Nearly nil.	4,038	47	2,297	152	35	1,601	D.
62	5	1,547	1,253	1883	3	3.0 to 4.0	7,481	967	3,118	4,100	195	1,055	A.D.F.
63	4	1,538	1,225	1884	3	3.9	9,799	2,103	5,360	2,336	A.D.
64	5	609	743	1835	3	Say 3.5	2,979	126	1,275	641	1,189	D.F.
65	4	497	483	1881	3	3.5	3,152	1,335	196	1,591	D.
66	1882	3	3.0 to 4.3	6,436	537	2,630	2,850	1,483	A.D.F.
67	4	947	1,188	1880	4	Nearly 6.0	4,597	2,051	980	1,566	A.F.
68	5	2,426	2,000	1884	3	Say 3.3	10,904	7,595	1,931	1,318	D.
69	5	509	524	1885	3	Under 3.0	2,536	1,470	115	1,001	D.
70	5	473	1,147	1884	3	Say 4.5	2,834	63	282	1,073	1,542	D.
71	5	1,452	1,315	1884	3	1.5 to 4.8	5,923	3,529	1,297	1,097	A.D.
72	5	2,569	2,425	1880	3	3.0	10,123	*313	5,241	2,963	2,232	A.B.D.
73	4	1,461	1,339	1884	3	3.6	8,448	7	3,236	3,128	2,091
74	1	224	205	1882	3	3.0	6,593	3,044	497	3,052	A.D.
75	4	1,344	1,552	1884	3	Say 2.7	5,856	966	3,634	817	1,971	A.B.D.
76	1880	3	Say 3.5	7,757	2,352	1,654	3,751	A.D.
77	4	2,947	2,330	1884	3	2.6 to 3.7	16,722	107	11,609	3,933	1,327	A.F.
78	1	152	104	1835	3	Say 2.3	3,339	1,463	483	1,438	A.D.
79	5	1,372	1,097	1884	3	1.8 to 2.2	7,343	5,274	707	169	1,193	A.D.
80	2	407	441	1881	3	1.7 to 2.5	5,349	2,933	196	58	2,112	A.
81	5	670	617	1881	3	2.7 to 3.5	2,800	178	1,257	535	178	1,008	A.D.F.
82	5	2,004	2,130	1880	3	Say 2.4	8,007	5,383	391	2,323	A.D.
83	5	431	477	1885	3	1.6	2,801	1,743	46	1,012	A.D.
84	3	267	273	1884	3	2.0 to 2.5	2,551	1,451	39	1,061	A.D.
85	1885	3	3.9	7,606	4,233	1,222	2,181
86	1	717	787	1885	3	4.1 to 4.5	23,735	11,636	2,635	1,047	8,407	D.
87	5	12,023	11,336	1885	3	3.7 to 4.2	62,602	44,761	5,043	1,049	11,749	A.D.
88	4	888	919	1885	3	Nil to 4.5	5,209	2,999	50	2,160	A.D.
89	3	841	706	1884	3	2.7 to 3.8	6,435	135	4,230	1,104	13	1,223
90	5	378	377	1885	3	Nil.	2,140	1,127	10	1,003	A.D.
91	4	2,202	1,980	1884	3	Under 4.0	11,224	8,464	1,667	1,093	A.A.
92	5	1,507	1,661	1884	3	2.8	7,405	535	5,316	176	12	2,436	D.
93	5	773	889	1884	3	2.5	3,806	2,277	55	1,474	A.D.
94	5	1,562	1,902	1835	4	4.0 to 4.7	5,527	171	3,426	961	1,911	A.O.
95	2	551	639	1884	3	3.0 to 5.6	7,790	3,777	955	3,058	A.
96	5	1,085	1,078	1884	3	3.0 to 3.8	5,858	266	3,320	564	2,240	A.D.
97	5	726	849	1885	3	2.8 to 4.5	3,333	1,962	134	1,287	A.D.
98	5	694	551	1885	3	Nearly 5.0	3,224	1,843	281	1,100	A.D.
99	3	452	539	1880	3	1.5 to 2.8	3,683	2,543	87	12	1,071	A.D.
100	3	321	224	1885	3	1.6	3,333	1,599	297	1,433	A.D.

A.—The society's experience does not appear to have been compared with the tables used.

B.—Negative values have not been eliminated.

D.—The society charges uniform contributions for all ages at entry.

E.—Death benefits treated as re-assured with District.

F.—Valuation made by one of the public valuers under the Friendly Societies Act, 1875.

* Includes amount of negative values.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN

TABLE showing the ANNUAL RETURNS and VALUATIONS of 676

ANNUAL RETURNS—1881 TO 1885.

NAME OF SOCIETY.	REGISTERED OFFICE.	Date of Establishment.	No. of Members.
DURHAM—Continued.			
Orchard Lodge.....	Albert Rooms, Coronation-st., Sunderland..	1863	212
General St. Ruth Lodge, N.A.I.U.O.O.F..	The Café, Bedford-street, Sunderland...	1868	56
Court Braddyll, A.O.F.....	Locomo. Inn, Trimdon Coll., Trimdn Grnge	1852	103
Orange Blossom Lodge, U.O.F.G.....	Swan Inn, Walridge, Coll., Chester-le-St..	1867	123
Court Lord Howden, A.O.F.....	Caradoc Arms Inn, Wingate Grange.....	1840	181
Lily of the Valley Lodge of Free Gardeners	Victoria Hotel, Witton-le-Wear.....	1864	324
Court Roseville.....	Red Lion Inn, Wolviston, Stokton-on-Tees	1839	148
ESSEX.			
Friendly Society for Hundred of Hinchford	Savings Bank, Castle Hedingham.....	1830	98
Essex Provident.....	Duke-street, Chelmsford.....	1818	4,187
F. & B. Society of G. & Little Chesterford	Crown and Thistle Inn, Great Chesterford	1815	156
Society of Good Fellowship.....	White Horse Inn, Dengie.....	1808	111
F. S. for Margaret Roding & Neighbourhd.	Schoolroom, Margaret Roding, Dunmow..	1834	463
Ongar General Friendly.....	Mr. C. Mott's, Chipping Ongar.....	1831	788
Good Samaritan Lodge, L.O.A.S.....	Hoop's Inn, Saffron Waldon.....	1863	114
Hand & Heart Railway Servants' Friendlv	Dorset Arms Tavern, Leyton-rd., Stratford	1877	40
W. & O. With'm Abbey Dis. I.O.O.F., M.U.	C. Spiller's, High Bridge-st., Waltham Abbey	1848	1644
GLOUCESTERSHIRE.			
Bisley Schoolroom Club.....	Schoolroom, Bisley.....	1865	78
New Year's United Union Benefit.....	Three Crowns, John-st., St. Philip's, Bristol	1829	79
W. & O. Fund, Bristol United Dist., A.O.F.	Crown and Dove Inn, Bridewell-street....	1842	4,131
Britannia Benefit Club.....	Noel Arms Hotel, Chipping Campden.....	1842	183
Cotswold Corinthum.....	Bear Inn, Dyer-street, Cirencester.....	1871	175
Duke of Beaufort Lodge of Philanthropists	Ring of Bells Inn, Coalpit Heath.....	1867	97
Mutual Assistance.....	White Hart Inn, Market-place, Fairford..	1852	86
Loyal Maiseimore Lodge, I.L.O.O.F., L.U.	White Hart Inn, Maiseimore, Gloucester..	1849	158
Loyal Vict. Lodge, City of London O.O.F.	Red Lion Inn, Newent.....	1843	127
Thornbury Friendly.....	Swan Hotel, Thornbury.....	1835	212
HAMPSHIRE.			
Westbury Junior Friendly Benefit.....	White Lion Inn, Westbury-on-Trym.....	1839	122
Duke of Edinburgh Lodge, L. & I. M.O.F.	Schoolroom, Amporn, Andover.....	1870	159
Stoney Heath Foresters'.....	George & Dragon, Baughurst, Basingstoke	1848	122
New Forest Lodge, M.O.F.....	Red Lion Inn, Boldre.....	1846	105
Cron dall United Brethren Benefit.....	Boys' School, Cron dall.....	1831	246
Fawley Friendly Benefit.....	Falcon Inn, Fawley.....	1825	109
Union Burial Fund.....	17, Church-road, Landport, Portsmouth..	1809	5,505
South of Eng. Mutual Benefit Insurance.	Queen's Head, Hard, Portsea, Portsmouth	1845	1,174
United North Waltham Pilgrim.....	Primitive Methodist Chapel, N. Waltham..	1844	208
Isle of Wight Benefit.....	Lamb Inn, St. James's-square, Newport..	1833	53
Union Benefit.....	King's Head Inn, Newport, Isle of Wight..	1856	89
HEREFORDSHIRE.			
Herefordshire Friendly.....	50, Commercial-street, Hereford.....	1838	762
Hereford Friendly.....	Green Dragon Hotel, Hereford.....	1766	51
HERTFORDSHIRE.			
Provident.....	National School, Little Berkhamstead.....	1828	746
Bishop's Stortford Friendly.....	Coach and Horses Inn, Bishop's Stortford	1839	702
Hertford Provident Benefit.....	Town Hall, Hertford.....	1837	239
Friendly.....	National Schoolroom, Sarratt.....	1819	248
Hand-in-Hand Benefit.....	Rose and Crown Inn, Tring.....	1858	92
HUNTINGDONSHIRE.			
St. Ives Union Benefit.....	Independent Chapel, St. Ives.....	1848	108
Friendly.....	Mr. Foster's, St. Neot's.....	1794	146
KENT.			
Court Triumph of Bearstead, A.O.F.....	White Horse Inn, Bearstead.....	1865	176
Borstal Prison Mutual Benefit.....	Her Majesty's Prison, Borstal, Rochester..	1880	74

a Number of years for which returns have been received.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES in ENGLAND and WALES, &c.—CONTINUED.

VALUATIONS AND QUINQUENNIAL RETURNS.

	a. No. of Years.	BENEFIT FUND. TOTAL		Year of Valuation.	Rate of Interest PER CENT.	LIABILITIES.		ASSETS AND DEFICIENCIES.				Reference Letters (see Footnotes).	
		Receipts.	Expenditure.			Used in Valuation.	Realised.	Present Value of Benefits	Other Liabilities (if any).	Present Value of Contributions.	Amount of Funds.		Other Assets (if any).
		£	£			£	£	£	£	£	£		
101	5	1,283	1,449	1884	3	Say 4·2	6,467	900	3,274	996	3,157	F.
102	1	58	77	1884	3	Nil to 2·3	2,017	177	830	43	319	1,002	D.E.
103	1880	3	1·4 to 2·7	3,974	655	2,599	53	893	1,084	A.D.E.
104	..	755	744	1884	3	2·4	4,337	30	2,374	417	25	1,551	A.D.
105	4	1,105	1,575	1885	3	Say 3·0	1,753	630	18	5	1,100	D.
106	3	1,120	1,073	1885	3	Say 3·1	9,190	6,295	687	2,208	A.D.
107	5	950	1,052	1885	3	4·5 to 4·7	4,574	489	3,033	499	1,531	A.D.
108	5	764	2,161	1884	3	Nearly 3·8	5,548	139	162	2,358	3,167	A.F.
109	5	45,458	5,1832	1883	4	Just over 4·0	196,559	177	63,251	76,758	51,727
110	5	966	1,165	1881	3	Say 3·6	5,157	1,701	2,008	1,448	A.D.
111	1881	3	Over 4·0	3,322	1,842	869	1,111	A.D.
112	5	3,954	3,357	1884	3	3·1	15,464	733	7,334	6,623	2,240	A.*
113	3	3,976	3,819	1885	3	Say 3·3	25,719	961	12,311	10,303	3,566	A.D.F.
114	1881	3	Over 4·0	8,175	4,866	842	2,467	A.
115	4	298	205	1882	3	Nil to 1·9	2,290	130	1,307	104	1,009	A.*
116	3	1,379	937	1885	3	1·43 to 4·25	12,846	2,591	6,671	4,680	4,086	A.D.
117	5	537	499	1884	3	1·8 to 2·6	2,509	1,057	260	1,192	A.D.
118	5	680	636	1885	3	2·0 to 2·8	2,808	229	1,528	245	1,264	A.D.
119	1	1,396	1,24	1885	3	4·3	40,950	1,382	14,239	12,048	16,045
120	5	1,107	1,009	1885	3	Under 3·0	5,932	2,150	1,066	2,716
121	5	843	1,025	1885	3	2·3	4,386	2,744	293	1,439	D.
122	2	226	210	1880	3	Nil to 3·0	2,990	1,655	198	1,137	D.F.
123	2	318	382	1880	3	Say 2·5	4,363	757	2,065	975	2,080	A.D.F.
124	5	1,080	1,117	1884	3	Say 3·4	4,468	2,178	1,116	1,174	A.D.
125	5	987	943	1884	3	1·7 to 4·0	4,569	684	2,318	1,231	1,704
126	5	1,405	1,286	1885	3	1·9 to 2·4	5,715	*904	4,548	424	1,647	D.F.
127	5	1,564	1,658	1885	3	4·4 to 5·1	7,657	97	1,940	2,041	3,778	A.D.F.
128	5	741	503	1881	Nil.	Nil to 1·8	6,781	3,194	356	45	3,286	A.O.F.
129	5	751	858	1885	3	2·6	4,635	2,314	738	1,633	D.
130	5	756	757	1882	3	2·0 to 2·2	3,629	1,378	638	1,613	D.
131	5	1,040	1,167	1884	4	2·5 to 4·4	4,557	2,073	698	1,786	A.D.
132	2	339	373	1882	3	Nearly 3·0	3,933	*183	1,401	642	2,073	A.D.F.
133	3	13,354	12,787	1885	4	3·0 to 4·2	80,640	44,601	21,918	14,121	B.D.
134	5	4,250	3,366	1884	4	4·6 to 4·9	12,692	745	6,772	3,501	3,164	B.
135	2	679	455	1884	4	1·6 to 4·0	6,022	3,263	1,267	1,492	A.
136	5	821	1,324	1884	3	3·3 to 4·2	3,870	469	1,715	1,685	A.D.
137	5	571	1,021	1884	3	Say 3·9	3,598	1,139	1,000	1,459	A.D.
138	5	6,880	5,952	1881	3	Say 3·4	27,808	343	11,464	11,750	4,937	A.F.
139	5	1,142	795	1881	3	4·0 to 4·3	5,399	833	3,248	14	1,304	A.D.F.
140	5	6,648	7,376	1885	3	Say 3·1	36,440	1,414	14,143	9,664	14,047
141	5	4,468	3,226	1883	3	Say 3·2	20,302	665	13,309	5,791	93	1,674	A.F.
142	5	2,229	1,412	1885	3	3·2	9,963	1,242	6,203	3,323	15	1,659	F.
143	5	2,387	3,442	1885	3	4·1	11,191	3,784	5,484	1,923
144	2	198	243	1883	3	2·3 to 3·7	2,844	320	1,597	565	1,002	A.D.F.
145	5	590	812	1881	3	Say 3·0	8,647	1,086	860	1,701	A.D.
146	1884	3½	Under 4·0	3,329	587	1,174	1,275	1,467	A.F.
147	1	171	132	1879	3	1·6 to 1·9	4,521	3,063	367	1,091	A.
148	5	200	152	1884	3	Under 3·0	1,338	125	265	47	1,151	D.F.

A.—The society's experience does not appear to have been compared with the tables used.

B.—Negative values have not been eliminated.

C.—The society charges uniform contributions for all ages at entry.

D.—Death benefits treated as re-assured with District.

F.—Valuation made by one of the public valuers under the Friendly Societies Act, 1875.

* Includes amount of negative values.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN

TABLE showing the ANNUAL RETURNS and VALUATIONS of 676

ANNUAL RETURNS—1881 to 1885.

NAME OF SOCIETY	REGISTERED OFFICE.	Date of Establish- ment.	No. of Members.
<i>KENT—Continued.</i>			
Bridge Friendly	Red Lion Inn, Bridge	1837	424
United Kentish Britons	Seven Stars Inn, Orange-st., Canterbury..	1807	150
Canterbury Friendly	21, St. Peter-street, Canterbury	1784	462
Union Friendly	Black Dog Inn, Castle-street, Canterbury.	1784	93
Court Victoria, A.O.F.	Foresters' Hall, 47, High-st., Canterbury..	1846	630
Phoenix Friendly	Bull Hotel, Dartford	1833	45
Deal United Friendly Association, No. 2.	Alma Tavern, Deal	1848	118
Mutual Union Friendly	Clarendon Hotel, Gravesend	1836	86
New United Brotherly	White Swan, Blackheath-rd., Greenwich..	1788	97
Herne Economic Friendly	Lower Red Lion Inn, Herne	1841	202
Court Princess Royal, A.O.F.	Station Hotel, Parade, Herne Bay	1862	170
Leigh Good Intent Benefit	Fleur de Lys Inn, Leigh	1849	183
Lenham Friendly	Chequers Inn, Lenham	1840	172
Amicable Society of Friendly Brothers ..	Monk a Head Inn, Stone-street, Maidstone	1796	120
Kent Lodge of Druids' Philanthropic....	Roebuck Inn, Maidstone	1860	95
Court Good Intent, A.O.F.	Good Intent Inn, Milton, Sittingbourne ..	1852	447
Penshurst Friendly	Leicester Arms Inn, Penshurst	1844	133
Petham Friendly	Chequers Inn, Petham, Canterbury	1837	256
Court Cinqe Ports, A.O.F.	New Inn, Harnett-street, Sandwich	1859	315
Tunbridge United Provident	181, High-street, Tunbridge	1845	323
<i>LANCASHIRE.</i>			
Society of Goodfellowship	Black Horse Hotel, Accrington	1817	134
Christ Church Sunday School Sick	Christ Church School, Accrington	1859	191
Industrious Bee Lodge, N.I.O.O.F.	Castle Inn, Whalley-road, Accrington	1861	171
Accrington B. S. School Sick and Friendly	Baptist School, Willow-street, Accrington.	1834	909
Hospitality Lodge, Druids' Friendly	Swan Inn, Astley, Manchester	1852	278
Atherton Church Sunday School Sick ..	National School, Atherton, Manchester ..	1820	365
Irwell Terrace Sick and Burial	Irwell-terrace Baptist School, Bacup	1858	155
Bedford Leigh Sick and Burial	Red Lion Inn, Chapel-st., Bedford Leigh..	1846	432
Independent Order of Druids	Eagle and Child Inn, Besses-o'-th'-Barn ..	1830	94
St. George's Female Friendly	St. George's Presbyterian Schl., Blackburn	1840	79
Duke of Cumberland Lodge, P.I.L.O.	Red Lion Inn, Northgate, Blackburn	1869	127
Small Bridge Equitable Sick and Burial.	Co-operative store, Brickfield	1860	443
St. Mary's Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Crown Inn, Cartmel	1836	301
Clayton-le-Moors Ch. S. School Friendly.	All Saints' S. School, Clayton-le-Moors ..	1840	464
Colne Wesleyan Friendly Sick	Wesleyan Vestry, Colne	1834	347
Rising Sun Lodge, F.U.O.M.	Rising Sun Inn, Dixon Ground, Coniston.	1836	280
Dalton-in-Furness L. U. S. of Mechanics.	Co-op. Stores, Chapel-st., Dalton-in-Furness	1863	185
Orphans' Protection Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U	Blue Anchor Inn, Eccleston, Chorley	1829	128
New Jerusalem S. School Sick and Burial	Wicken Tree-lane, Failsworth	1850	438
Farnworth Friendly	Schoolroom, Farnworth, Widnes	1835	471
Hope and Glory Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U. ..	Golden Lion, Moses Gate, F'nworth, Bolton	1821	359
Industrial B. of H. Sick & Life Assur. F.	89, Market-street, Farnworth, Bolton ..	1873	1,891
Benevolent Society for Relief of the Sick.	B. Chapel, Goodshaw, Crawshawb'th, Man.	1837	674
Fruitful Vine Lodge, U.O.F.G.	Waggon and Horses Inn, Gorton	1867	159
Trinity Baptist Sick Union	Sunday School, Slackburn-st., Haslingden	1845	530
Haslingden Chur. S. School Sick & Burial	Parish Church School, Haslingden	1843	326
Amicable Society of Hawkshead	Town Hall, Hawkshead	1792	191
Perseverance Tent, I.O.R.	Mission Hall, Waterloo-street, St. Helens.	1836	127
Morecambe Bay Lodge, F. I. Mechanics..	Schoolroom, Heysham	1843	209
Benevolence Lodge, O.D.	Red Lion Inn, Hindley	1829	473
Hindley Industrial Shepherds' Friendly..	Black Horse Inn, Hindley	1853	96
Higher Hurst Sick and Burial	Meth. N. Con. Schl., Queen-st., Higher Hurst	1847	185
Duke of Edinburgh Lodge, I.O.A.S., A.U.	New Inn, Firs-lane, Leigh	1866	160
Littleboro' Trinity Ch. Adult Sick & Fun.	Trinity Church Schoolroom, Littleborough	1844	498

a Number of years for which returns have been received.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES in ENGLAND and WALES, &c.—CONTINUED.

VALUATIONS AND QUINTENNIAL RETURNS.

	a. No. of Years.	BENEFIT FUND. TOTAL		Year of Valuation.	Used in Valuation.	RATE OF INTEREST PER CENT.		LIABILITIES.		ASSETS AND DEFICIENCIES.				Reference Letters (see Footnotes).
		Receipts.	Expenditure.			Realised.	Present Value of Benefits	Other Liabilities (if any).	Present Value of Contributions.	Amount of Funds.	Other Assets (if any).	Deficiency.		
		£	£				£	£	£	£	£	£		
149	5	2,256	2,374	1884	3	Under 3·0	13,343	6,724	1,524	5,095	D.	
150	1884	4	3·7 to 4·5	16,153	8,589	8,581	4,083	A.D.	
151	3	2,259	2,768	1885	3	Say 3·5	19,160	7,622	4,665	6,873	A.D.	
152	5	839	957	1885	3½	Under 3·5	3,489	890	1,269	1,390	A.D.	
153	5	3,553	3,234	1885	3	Say 3·5	37,575	47	13,998	6,167	17,577	D.	
154	5	934	917	1885	3	Say 3·2	4,209	1,390	1,570	1,259	A.D.F.	
155	5	696	649	1884	3	Under 3·0	3,316	1,679	547	1,090	A.D.	
156	5	2,697	3,267	1881	3	About 3·0	21,295	434	8,240	1,848	11,641	A.D.F.	
157	1	1,004	1,566	1884	3	Under 3·0	3,878	1,244	1,357	1,277	D.	
158	5	1,272	1,089	1884	3	Say 2·3	7,605	2,822	1,249	3,534	D.	
159	2	481	389	1884	3	Under 3·0	9,233	8	4,337	1,466	3,438	D.	
160	5	1,295	1,068	1884	3	3·0 to 4·2	7,462	385	2,962	1,737	3,148	A.D.F.	
161	3	582	580	1884	3	Say 2·4	5,628	1,678	791	3,159	A.D.F.	
162	5	1,238	1,370	1884	3	2·2 to 3·1	4,823	219	1,687	1,037	380	1,938	A.D.	
163	5	554	497	1883	3	Under 2·5	4,165	*31	1,635	824	1,737	F.	
164	3	1,449	1,242	1885	3	Over 3·0	12,984	6	5,739	2,258	5,002	D.	
165	5	1,375	1,135	1884	3	Under 3·0	4,708	*254	2,626	945	1,421	F.	
166	5	1,249	1,168	1884	3	Under 2·5	8,545	2,982	1,880	3,683	A.D.F.	
167	5	2,587	1,849	1885	3½	Under 3·5	15,973	6,898	2,692	6,473	
168	5	769	790	1885	3	Under 3·5	3,841	1,878	570	1,398	A.B.D.	
169	5	750	664	1884	4	3·7 to 5·3	3,295	1,323	900	7	1,065	A.D.	
170	5	547	367	1885	3	2·7	3,899	1,905	878	1,116	D.	
171	1885	3	Nil to 1·5	2,469	1,031	49	15	1,324	
172	4	3,596	2,248	1884	4	5·3 to 8·2	17,496	7,503	6,998	2,990	A.D.	
173	3	820	746	1885	4	3·5 to 4·9	6,065	3,220	1,651	1,194	A.D.	
174	4	403	435	1885	3	2·1 to 3·8	3,696	1,644	439	1,618	A.D.	
175	5	638	472	1885	3	4 to 1·8	3,808	6	1,587	1,068	1,159	D.F.	
176	5	758	639	1885	3	2·7 to 4·2	4,461	2,035	1,074	1,352	A.D.	
177	5	459	567	1885	3	2·3 to 2·6	2,233	994	212	10	1,067	A.D.	
178	5	156	159	1885	Nil.	Nil.	2,749	523	1,013	1,208	A.F.	
179	5	489	356	1885	3	2·4 to 3·6	3,254	5	1,666	450	11	1,132	D.	
180	3	1,081	695	1884	3	3·7	8,938	5,512	2,084	1,342	A.D.	
181	3	849	1,134	1885	3	3·5 to 3·9	8,424	8,066	1,821	3,537	F.	
182	5	1,533	1,114	1885	3½	3·5 to 3·8	7,722	2,796	1,788	3,143	A.D.	
183	5	1,948	1,532	1885	4	4·2 to 5·1	7,695	301	3,013	3,042	70	1,871	D.	
184	5	1,475	1,402	1885	3	2·9 to 5·6	9,177	3,916	1,044	13	4,204	A.D.	
185	1885	4	4·6 to 6·5	10,496	6,077	1,111	3,398	A.D.	
186	1	114	101	1885	3	3·1 to 3·8	3,358	11	1,264	943	1,162	F.	
187	5	890	522	1885	3	3·5 to 4·5	5,549	2,554	1,596	1,399	A.	
188	3	1,633	1,953	1885	4	4·0 to 4·7	8,632	584	4,337	2,821	2,008	A.	
189	5	2,508	2,159	1885	4	4·2 to 5·0	8,339	750	4,330	3,189	1,570	E.	
190	5	2,125	1,916	1882	3	Nil.	9,328	3,615	7,230	128	3615	1,970	A.	
191	2	815	683	1880	3	2·5 to 4·0	11,202	300	4,477	3,245	3,780	D.F.	
192	5	823	645	1880	3	2·7 to 2·8	4,451	903	2,347	458	961	1,588	A.D.E.	
193	4	1,035	852	1882	3	1·0 to 4·0	9,935	4,041	1,438	4,456	A.D.	
194	5	672	350	1885	3	3·5	4,645	45	2,264	1,404	1,022	A.D.	
195	5	1,691	3,044	1884	3	3·7 to 3·9	8,008	2,647	1,567	4,894	A.D.F.	
196	2	265	225	1884	3	Nil to 2·0	8,530	638	2,156	114	761	1,132	A.D.E.	
197	5	1,048	995	1884	3	3·1 to 3·6	5,776	2,969	899	1,908	D.	
198	5	2,616	2,527	1884	3	3·3 to 4·1	11,317	7,683	2,280	1,849	A.D.	
199	5	501	594	1884	3	9 to 2·5	8,942	159	1,577	204	2,320	A.D.	
200	5	802	613	1885	3	2·8 to 3·7	4,276	2,221	1,032	1,023	A.D.	
201	5	493	451	1884	3	2·1 to 2·9	3,286	2,041	235	1,010	L.	
202	5	1,286	942	1885	3½	3·7 to 4·2	6,516	3,165	1,803	1,548	A.D.	

A.—The society's experience does not appear to have been compared with the tables used.

B.—Negative values have not been eliminated.

D.—The society charges uniform contributions for all ages at entry.

E.—Death benefits treated as re-assured with District.

F.—Valuation made by one of the public valuers under the Friendly Societies Act, 1875.

* Includes amount of negative values.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN

TABLE showing the ANNUAL RETURNS and VALUATIONS OF 676

ANNUAL RETURNS—1881 TO 1885.

NAME OF SOCIETY.	REGISTERED OFFICE.	Date of Establish- ment.	No. of Members.
<i>LANCASHIRE—Continued.</i>			
Friendly and Benevolent Society of Pilots	Pilotage Offices, Canning Pierhd, N. L'pool	1819	295
Benevolent Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Lamb Inn, Wavertree, Liverpool	1895	452
Loyal Good Intent Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Coffee House, Church-rd., Wavrtree, L'pool	1842	171
Liverpool Law Clerks'	10, Water-street, Liverpool	1873	66
True Heart's Cont'nt Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Golden Ball Inn, Longton, Preston	1839	166
Lumb Banti-t School Sick and Burial ..	Baptist Chapel, Cumb, Manchester	1845	153
Talbot Clifton Friendly	Talbot Hotel, Lytham, Preston	1840	286
Sincere Sick and Burial	Ogden's Chambers, 97, Bridge-st., M'chstr.	1839	16,998
St. John's Burial	22, Oxford Chambers, Manchester	1844	6,683
Independent Burial	Bridge Inn, Fairfield-st., Ardwick, M'chstr.	1835	4,683
Ducie Benefit	Roby Rooms, Aytoun-st., Portland-st., M'r.	1842	5,782
Hulme Philanthropic Burial	5, Hyde-street, Hulme, Manchester	1942	3,316
Manchester Law Clerks' Friendly	Law Library Rooms, Kennedy-st., M'chstr.	1848	190
Pendleton & Charlestown Sick & Burial..	Pendleton Independent Chpl., Padihn, M'r.	1836	527
Hulme Friendly Burial	178, City-road, Hulme, Manchester	1853	10,097
Earl of Scarborough Lodge, N.I.O.O.F.	48, Bury-street, Salford, Manchester	1858	254
Arthur Wellington Lodge, N.A.I.U.O.O.F.	Geo. & Dragon, Lr. Moss-lane, Hulme, M'r.	1860	189
London-road Railway Station Benefit.	No. 1 Arch, Birmingham-st., Manchester..	1862	107
Second Temperance Burial	Lever-st. Chapel Schoolroom, Manchester	1847	4,780
Humane Perseverance Sick and Burial..	Ogden's Chambers, 97, Bridge-st., M'chstr.	1839	13,296
M'chstr&Dis. Builders' Foremn&Clerks P.A.	Falstaff Hotel, Market-place, Manchester.	1877	74
Court The Rock, A.O.F.	Bootle Arms Inn, Melling Rocks, Melling.	1857	169
Middletun and District Sick and Burial..	National School, Long-street, Middleton..	1829	546
U. Methodist Free Churches Prov. Benefit	U.M.F.C. Sund. Schl., Moorhouse, Milnrow	1851	365
Newchrch Hope Ldg. Oddfellows' Friendly	Oddfellows' Hall, Newchurch	1890	427
Newton Heath All Saints' Adult Sick & B.	758, Oldham-road, Newton Heath	1877	402
Unanimous and Friendly Sick and Burial	Independnt Meth. Schl., George-st., Oldham	1836	2,989
Townfield Sunday School Friendly	Townfield School, Oldham	1830	369
Openshaw Provident Sick and Burial....	Sundav School, Openshaw	1838	78
Ormskirk Catholic	Buck-i'-th'-Vine Inn, Burscough-st., Ormsk.	1807	174
Court Two Sisters, A.O.F.	Black Bear Inn, Moor-street, Ormskirk ..	1834	342
Parr Friendly	National School, Parr	1865	209
Loyal West Coast Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U..	Golden Ball Inn, Pilling	1838	112
United Brotherly Legal Burial	Three Tnns Inn, North-road, Preston	1835	8,012
Preston Catholic Burial	Catholic School, Fox-street, Preston	1846	14,334
Preston Temperance United Brotherly B.	Wilkins' Temp'nce Hotel, North-rd., Prestn	1836	9,120
Peaceable Friendly Burial	Temperance Hall, North-road, Preston ..	1827	6,890
Preston United Catholic Burial	St. Augustine's School, Preston	1861	7,136
Grand Prot. Inst.& Assn. of Loyal Orangemn	36, Frank-street, Preston	1864	571
Court Stranger's Relief, A.O.F.	Grant's Arms, Market-place, Ramsbottom	1847	129
Trnth Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Black Bull Inn, Ribchester	1830	118
Traveller's Rest Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U. ..	Hesketh Arms Inn, Rufford, Ormskirk....	1831	209
Sick and Burial	Dusty Miller Inn, Sudden, Rochdale	1850	906
Sutton Friendly	National School, Sutton	1-63	142
Thornton Friendly Union	Sunday Schl., Thornton, Poulton-le-Fyde.	1850	71
Loyal Hand & Heart Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Volunteer Inn, Turton	1828	135
Working Man's Friend Lodge, F.U.O.M.	Grapes Inn, Market-street, Ulverstone..	1865	309
Benevolent Star Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	White Bull, Horsemarket-st., Warrington.	1838	154
Waterft. Flower of Flock Lodge, Druids F.	Glen-terrace Inn, Waterfoot	1862	248
Waterfoot Good Intent Lodge, O.F.	Brougham Hall, Waterfoot	1881	250
Old Time Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Legs of Man Inn, Wigan	1830	258
Wigan Methodist Free Church Sick & B.	Methodist Free Church School, Wigan....	1859	472
Lanc. & Ches. Miners' Permanent Relief.	Miners' Hall, Millgate, Wigan	1872	..
Wingates Church Sick	Church School, Wingates, Westhoughton.	1861	269

a Number of years for which returns have been received.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES in ENGLAND and WALES, &c.—CONTINUED.

VALUATIONS AND QUINQUENNIAL RETURNS.

	BENEFIT FUND. TOTAL			Year of Valuation.	RATE OF INTEREST PER CENT.		LIABILITIES.		ASSETS AND DEFICIENCIES.				Reference Letters (see Footnotes).
	a. No. of Years.	Receipts.	Expenditure.		Used in Valuation.	Realised.	Present Value of Benefits	Other Liabilities (if any).	Present Value of Contributions.	Amount of Funds.	Other Assets (if any).	Deficiency.	
	£	£				£	£	£	£	£	£		
203	4	4,400	4,418	1885	3	1.7 to 6.0	39,719	9,714	21,892	1,869	3,397	122,275	A.D.
204	1	811	735	1885	34	3.6 to 3.9	15,912	322	7,736	5,566	2,932	F.
205	2	583	661	1885	34	3.9 to 4.3	5,825	5	3,413	1,093	1,924	F.
206	2	155	80	1885	3	4.2	2,543	600	480	1,468	D.
207	2	900	237	1885	3	2.8 to 3.6	4,152	1,622	1,932	1,198	F.
208	2	145	150	1882	3	1.9 to 2.3	9,138	1	1,330	653	1,156	A.D.
209	3	1,235	1,325	1884	3	3.5 to 3.6	11,083	4,663	2,341	4,079
210	4	19402	18511	1885	34	3.5 to 4.5	105,356	*27,774	109,296	6,931	17,443	A.C.D.
211	5	6,428	5,727	1885	34	3.7 to 4.6	23,468	0,296	16,418	3,070	9,236	3,980	A.D.
212	5	2,731	1,775	1885	3	2.8 to 3.0	8,712	*1,112	6,961	1,425	1,488	A.D.
213	5	5,939	5,603	1885	34	3.1 to 4.0	20,889	7,499	21,425	4,115	2,843	A.
214	4	2,297	2,129	1884	34	3.2 to 4.4	14,715	4,202	8,265	3,406	4,132	3,114	A.D.
215	3	2,396	1,040	1884	34	3.6	13,789	3,649	6,388	3,752	A.
216	3	952	876	1885	3	1.2 to 3.9	10,434	*76	5,434	2,502	2,574	A.
217	4	6,857	4,999	1885	34	2.8 to 3.9	47,980	10,233	37,176	10,837	10,140	A.
218	5	1,632	1,557	1884	3	2.3 to 2.7	8,044	*16	5,061	618	2,381	A.
219	4	1,256	1,308	1885	3	2.9 to 3.0	6,514	1,543	3,442	510	2,555	1,550	D.E.F.
220	4	368	463	1884	3	1.3 to 4.6	3,367	432	2,160	144	9	1,486	A.
221	5	4,491	3,570	1884	34	3.1 to 4.6	12,356	*2,397	9,916	2,884	108	1,715	A.D.
222	4	15015	13941	1885	34	3.6 to 4.3	72,797	16,344	74,325	6,774	8,042	A.
223	5	987	391	1883	3	9 to 2.9	11,885	71	2,689	806	7,961	A.D.F.
224	3	453	557	1884	3	1.7 to 2.3	4,283	55	2,340	232	2	1,704	A.D.
225	1	314	205	1884	3	4.0 to 4.2	12,611	5,584	2,252	4,775	C.D.
226	2	503	297	1884	34	3.2 to 4.1	4,236	359	2,024	1,202	1,369	A.D.
227	4	1,676	1,476	1885	3	2.3 to 3.5	10,222	34	4,445	4,665	1,146	D.
228	5	1,965	1,010	1885	3	3.6 to 3.8	10,062	18	4,176	4,677	1,222	F.
229	5	11,275	7,834	1881	3	4.7 to 5.2	50,491	414	29,931	11,224	9,750	A.D.
230	5	802	685	1885	4	3.7 to 4.9	4,951	2,237	569	2,154	A.D.
231	1	75	84	1885	3	2.7 to 3.6	2,240	254	1,128	359	1,007	A.D.F.
232	4	910	725	1885	3	3.2 to 5.2	5,022	2,542	935	1,545	A.D.
233	3	1,279	1,270	1883	34	3.4 to 3.7	10,549	*20	3,303	2,535	4,231	D.F.
234	5	906	889	1885	3	1.6 to 2.1	5,051	*332	3,261	623	1,499	A.O.
235	4	525	516	1885	3	9.9 to 10.8	3,222	1,415	308	1,499	F.
236	5	6,322	6,135	1885	34	2.6 to 4.6	17,737	*9,326	21,360	2,739	2,964	D.
237	2	7,378	6,342	1884	3	3.4 to 4.2	50,727	38,314	5,587	786	6,040	A.D.
238	2	2,807	2,289	1884	3	3.3 to 4.3	29,080	20,973	5,870	2,057	D.
239	3	3,270	2,631	1884	3	3.2 to 3.6	21,940	16,767	3,351	65	1,757	D.
240	3	3,669	2,665	1885	3	2.8 to 3.2	24,274	19,312	8,623	398	1,001	A.D.
241	4	2,011	1,730	1884	3	2.5 to 3.4	12,383	7,842	1,700	3,391
242	5	685	573	1885	3	3.3 to 3.9	3,339	3	1,710	509	1,113	D.
243	5	641	4.2	1885	3	3.1 to 4.1	3,030	1,232	639	7	1,092	D.
244	1	162	172	1885	3	2.4 to 2.7	5,207	19	2,389	619	2,318	D.F.
245	4	1,409	1,216	1885	3	3.1 to 4.9	9,533	*3,117	8,569	1,936	2,145	D.
246	5	639	492	1885	3	1.7 to 3.1	4,111	1,865	550	164	1,532
247	4	253	189	1884	3	2.0 to 2.4	2,239	925	268	1,046	A.D.
248	5	771	827	1885	3	1.4 to 3.0	3,637	27	1,678	924	1,062	F.
249	3	943	969	1885	3	2.3 to 3.2	10,312	47	5,127	623	5,104	D.F.
250	4	1,005	853	1885	3	2.7	4,488	2,330	599	1,059	D.
251	4	876	1,136	1884	3	2.2 to 3.4	5,859	2,679	1,335	1,845	A.D.
252	5	978	1,079	1885	3	1.2 to 3.3	5,961	2,752	1,484	1,725	A.D.
253	5	1,629	1,643	1885	3	Say 5	6,578	4,177	1,835	1,066	A.D.
254	5	2,401	2,123	1885	3	2.2 to 3.8	12,011	133	7,446	810	21	3,873
255	1881	3	2.7 to 4.0	53,773	28,680	30,093
256	4	401	349	1884	3	1.5 to 4.2	3,593	23	1,455	506	1,655	D.

A.—The society's experience does not appear to have been compared with the tables used.

C.—Expenses of management unprovided for.

D.—The society charges uniform contributions for all ages at entry.

E.—Death benefits treated as re-assured with District.

F.—Valuation made by one of the public valuers under the Friendly Societies Act, 1875.

* Including amount of negative values. † These results appear to be of doubtful trustworthiness. ‡ In addition to this deficiency, which is in respect of incumbent liabilities, the valuer estimates that there is an annual deficiency of £434 in respect of every 10,000 members connected with the fund, so far as concerns the current risks of the society.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN

TABLE showing the ANNUAL RETURNS and VALUATIONS of 676

ANNUAL RETURNS—1881 TO 1885.

NAME OF SOCIETY.	REGISTERED OFFICE.	Date of Establishment.	No. of Members.
LEICESTERSHIRE.			
Rose of Desford Lodge, N.A.I.U.O.O.F.	Roebuck Inn, Desford	1872	140
United Brethren's Friendly	Independent Chapel, Earl Shilton	1885	237
Enderby Female Friendly	National Schoolroom, Enderby	1886	235
Prince of Wales Friendly	Schoolroom, Harby	1893	97
Provident Friendly	Schoolroom, Bowden-lane, Mrkt. Harboro'	1887	590
Benevolent Friends'	Horse and Groom Inn, Queenborough	1887	79
Court Star of the West, A.O.F.	Red Lion Inn, Sapcote	1865	138
Snarestone Friendly	Crown Inn, Snarestone, Atherstone	1886	287
Friend y	Schoolroom, Walcote	1819	81
Great Wigston Friendly	Queen's Head Inn, Wigston Magna	1843	180
Victoria Friendly	National School, Wigston Magna	1870	246
Lord Nelson Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Nelson Inn, High-street, Woodville	1866	139
Alexandra Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Princess of Wales Inn, High-st., Woodville	1863	71
Ebenezer Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Wesleyan Schoolroom, Woodville	1868	207
LINCOLNSHIRE.			
Hand and Heart Lodge, N.A.I.U.O.O.F.	Red Lion Inn, Ancaster	1840	198
Bardney Friendly Institution	Black Horse Inn, Bardney	1888	144
Chaplin Lodge, N.A.I.U.O.O.F.	Golden Cross Inn, Billingshay	1847	146
General Johnson Lodge, N.A.I.U.O.O.F.	Nag's Head Hotel, Bonrn	1843	148
Court Joy and Friendship, A.O.F.	Foresters' Hall, Foresters'-street, Brigg	1886	200
Court Sir John Beckett, A.O.F.	Beckett's Arms, Corringham	1872	47
Covenham Foresters' Friendly	Plough Inn, Covenham	1841	218
Rowland Independent Ord. of Oddfellows	George Hotel, Crowland	1888	76
Ct. Brackenbury, Independent Foresters.	Foresters' Hall, Donington-on-Bain, Louth	1841	217
Loyal Good Intent Friendly	King's Arms Inn, Haxey	1871	74
Haydor Friendly	National Schoolroom, Haydor, Grantham.	1846	127
Court Harrison's Hope, A.O.F.	Railway Hotel, Kirkstead	1840	106
Court Kirton, A.O.F.	Peacock Inn, Kirton	1842	282
Court Heart's Ease, A.O.F.	White Hart Inn, Leake	1845	210
Chaplin Lodge, O.D.	Sloop Inn, Newland, Lincoln	1873	285
Court Heneage, A.O.F.	National School, Ludford	1875	200
Court Old Adam and Eve, A.O.F.	Horn Inn, Messingham	1888	105
Navenby Benefit	Schoolroom, Navenby, Grantham	1811	83
Court Rutland, A.O.F.	Fox's Brush Inn, Ropsley	1841	182
Sleaford Friendly	Congregational Schoolroom, Sleaford	1823	225
Waterloo Lodge, Oddfellows' Friendly	White Bull Inn, Sleaford	1843	352
Ll. Pride L'colnshire L., A.O.O.F., Notts.U.	Rose and Crown Inn, Sleaford	1845	116
Benefit	Corn Exchange, Spalding	1888	204
Lord Willoughby Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Red Lion Inn, Spilsby	1867	184
Court Village Pride, A.O.F.	Berridge Arms Inn, Sutterton, Spalding	1840	230
Fleet and Long Sutton Christian Friendly	Baptist Chapel, Long Sutton	1773	143
Thurby Provident Association	Bell Inn, Thurby	1852	105
Court Foresters' Home, A.O.F.	High-street, Willingham, Gainsborough	1840	193
MIDDLESEX.			
Hope Friendly Socy. of Painters & Glaziers	Blue Posts, Newman-street, Oxford-st., W.	1836	180
Original Free and Easy	Black Bull, Holborn, W.C.	1778	58
Uxbridge Benefit	Public Rooms, Uxbridge	1819	116
Royal Standard Benefit	42, Great Ormond-st. Bloomsbury, W.C.	1828	9,765
British and Foreign Musicians'	18, Rathbone-place, Oxford-street, W.	1822	308
Chesterfield Union Benefit	Chesterfield Arms, Sheph'ds' M'kt Mayfair	1818	108
United Society of Ironmongers	23, Regina-road, Finsbury Park, N.	1826	518
London Post-office Sick Benefit	Foresters' Hall, Clerkenwell-road, E.C.	1851	592
London United Clickers' & Assistants' B.	Portugal Hotel, Fleet-street, E.C.	1832	319
Constitutional Union Socy. of Gunmakers	32, Old Bond-street, W.	1810	52
Royal Oak Benefit	19, Russell-street, Covent Garden, W.C.	1837	1,903

a Number of years for which returns have been received.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES in ENGLAND AND WALES, &c.—CONTINUED.

VALUATIONS AND QUINQUENNIAL RETURNS.

	BENEFIT FUND. TOTAL			Year of Valuation.	RATE OF INTEREST PER CENT.		LIABILITIES.		ASSETS AND DEFICIENCIES.				Reference Letters (see Fo notes).
	a No. of Years.	Receipts.	Expenditure.		Used in Valuation.	Realised.	Present Value of Benefits	Other Liabilities (if any).	Present Value of Contributions.	Amount of Funds.	Other Assets (if any).	Deficiency.	
		£	£			£	£	£	£	£	£	£	
257	3	440	286	1885	3	1·6 to 2·1	3,616	516	2,546	854	6	1,126	A.
258	1	275	282	1885	3	2·1 to 4·1	6,744	712	3,661	1,454	2,341	D.F.
259	5	558	478	1881	3	·4 to 2·9	2,650	1,295	245	1,110	A.D.
260	3	419	399	1885	3	2·6 to 4·1	2,214	286	935	200	185	1,180	D.F.
261	2	1,429	1,024	1882	3	Say 4	16,356	7,814	3,304	5,238
262	2	549	573	1885	3	3·3 to 4·7	2,797	62	799	919	122	1,019	D.F.
263	5	605	401	1885	3	4·2	3,737	1,918	664	16	1,139	A.D.
264	4	1,638	1,480	1882	3	Say 3·7	8,402	583	2,915	4,049	2,021	A.D.F.
265	2	275	212	1881	3	Doubtful	2,517	324	972	341	331	1,197	A.D.
266	5	867	697	1884	3	2·4 to 3·4	4,966	599	2,279	1,067	461	1,758	D.F.
267	5	620	495	1884	3	2·8 to 3·0	3,302	740	2,409	334	245	1,054	D.F.
268	5	658	675	1885	3	2·1 to 2·5	3,607	3,607	169	96	1,885	D.
269	5	504	518	1885	3	·9	2,398	215	1,074	74	10	1,455	D.
270	5	1,025	791	1885	3	2·3 to 4·1	4,882	1	2,826	862	1,195	A.D.
271	1	195	239	1881	3	2·4 to 4·2	4,766	2,293	898	1,670	A.D.
272	5	794	844	1885	3	1·6 to 1·8	4,260	404	2,363	190	2,111	D.F.
273	5	754	528	1885	3½	2·4 to 6·1	3,494	676	2,254	751	1,165	A.D.
274	3	456	390	1885	3	3·3 to 4·1	3,663	449	2,226	604	1,282	D.F.
275	4	1,036	1,469	1884	4	2·5 to 6·6	6,336	2,641	780	36	2,379	D.
276	4	224	231	1884	3	Nil.	1,744	525	10	1,209	A.D.
277	5	903	1,006	1884	3½	1·8 to 3·5	6,074	92	2,294	690	3,182
278	5	419	384	1885	3	·7 to 3·6	2,429	738	360	184	1,147	A.D.
279	5	1,078	1,049	1884	3	2·2 to 3·8	6,420	142	2,780	1,320	2,462	A.D.
280	5	336	424	1885	3	1·8 to 2·5	2,038	850	119	1,069	A.D.
281	1	121	71	1885	3	2·0 to 4·9	2,686	643	1,523	661	1,150	D.F.
282	5	531	444	1885	3	3·5	2,944	1,240	655	1,049	A.
283	5	1,229	1,026	1885	3	1·8 to 2·8	7,727	532	3,491	1,203	2,095	1,470	A.E.
284	5	246	266	1884	3	2·9 to 3·3	5,524	3,063	736	1,725	A.
285	1884	3	1·9 to 2·7	4,078	2,385	184	1,509	A.
286	4	721	617	1885	3	1·1 to 2·4	4,885	*1,260	4,171	735	26	1,213
287	5	544	578	1885	4	·9 to 5·6	3,025	866	213	1,946	A.O.
288	5	636	924	1883	3	3·7 to 4·1	2,652	110	825	613	198	1,126	A.D.F.
289	3	484	480	1881	3	2·4 to 2·8	3,915	2,150	484	1,281	A.D.
290	5	1,084	1,209	1885	3	3·1	6,422	2,499	1,138	2,785	D.
291	5	2,205	2,056	1885	3	1·7 to 3·7	3,515	1,700	6,802	2,292	1,121	A.D.
292	4	548	534	1885	3	3·0 to 3·4	2,925	835	2,170	495	1,095	A.D.
293	5	1,192	1,310	1884	3	3·7 to 4·4	5,990	2,730	1,079	2,181	D.
294	2	330	247	1885	3	3·6 to 4·1	4,300	2	2,226	744	44	1,288	D.
295	4	992	927	1885	3	2·6 to 4·0	6,907	1,665	3,318	1,072	1,940	1,733	A.E.
296	5	940	928	1885	3	2·4 to 3·4	3,494	1,395	414	1,685	A.
297	1	119	126	1880	3	2·4 to 3·5	3,412	582	1,972	283	1,739	A.D.F.
298	5	956	959	1884	4	5·2 to 5·4	5,259	1,833	832	2,594	A.D.
299	5	1,313	1,337	1885	3	2·4 to 3·1	6,188	302	3,021	617	2,852	A.D.F.
300	5	692	737	1885	3	2·5 to 3·0	3,361	1,259	840	1,262	C.D.F.
301	5	1,379	981	1885	3	4·3 to 4·5	9,174	119	2,377	2,957	3,959	A.
302	5	121,738	109,690	1883	4	4·0	402,789	14,275	221,147	109,009	4,614	142,294	D.
303	1885	3	2·8 to 3·1	13,334	480	5,902	3,259	811	4,342	D.
304	4	818	1,479	1885	3	3·2 to 4·2	5,224	1,814	2,226	1,184	A.D.F.
305	5	5,355	3,620	1883	3	3·1 to 3·2	56,366	62	13,007	9,701	33,730	D.
306	5	1,014	868	1885	3	1·9 to 2·2	10,443	6	7,491	406	2,552	F.
307	3	1,575	1,696	1883	3	3·0 to 3·1	21,058	7,407	2,332	11,319	D.
308	5	656	743	1884	3	Say 2·8	4,088	981	773	2,284	F.F.
309	5	25,465	23,504	1884	3½	3·2 to 3·7	96,969	5,007	52,078	24,416	894	24,588	D.

A.—The society's experience does not appear to have been compared with the tables used.

C.—Expenses of management unprovided for.

D.—The society charges uniform contributions for all ages at entry.

E.—Death benefits treated as re-assured with District.

F.—Valuations made by one of the public valuers under the Friendly Societies Act, 1875.

* Includes amount of negative values. † These are the figures as they should stand according to the particulars of the valuation. The value, by an error of principle in dealing with the re-assurances with district, brought out a surplus of £93. ‡ These are the figures as they should stand according to the particulars of the valuation. The value, by an error of principle in dealing with the re-assurances, brought out a deficiency of £373.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN

TABLE showing the ANNUAL RETURNS and VALUATIONS of 676

ANNUAL RETURNS—1881 to 1885.

NAME OF SOCIETY.	REGISTERED OFFICE.	Date of Establishment.	No. of Members.
<i>MIDDLESEX—Continued.</i>			
Phoenix Philan. Socy. of Painters & Glaziers	Spread Eagle, Mortimer-street, W.	1822	188
Stationers' Mutual Benefit	186, Aldersgate-street, E.C.	1845	667
Law Writers' Provident Institution	4, Freemasons' Hall, Gt. Queen-st., W.C.	1842	257
London Friendly Institution	21, New Bridge-street, Blackfriars, E.C.	1824	1,690
Loyal United Brethren Benefit	Oporto Stores, 44, Broad-street, W.C.	1832	50
New U. Friendly Brothers' Birmingham B.	Queen Victoria, Exm'th-st., Commercial-rd., E	1898	70
Trinity House Clerks' W. and O. Fund	Trinity House, Tower Hill, E.C.	1847	40
Original U. F. S. of Cooks & Confectioners	Peacock, Maiden-lane, Covent Garden, W.C	1826	174
Loyal King's Lodge, I.O. Old Friends	10, Upper St. Martin's-lane, W.C.	1836	3,237
Grand Hope Benefit	Farrington Hotel, Farrington-street, E.C.	1820	2,001
Loyal Rose and Crown Lodge Old Friends	Bull, North-hill, Highgate, N.	1844	124
Shakespeare Sick and Burial Fund	Fitzroy Arms, Cardington-st., Hampsted-rd.	1851	240
United Kingdom Benefit	27, Great Ormond-street, W.C.	1839	2,673
W. & O. Fund, N. London D., I.O.O.F., M.U	Guildford Arms, Guildford-st., Russell-sq.	1846	8,935
Loyal Peace & Harmony Socy. Old Friends	Crown Tavern, Clerkenwell Green, E.C.	1843	1,475
Great Eastern Railway Provident	Bishopgate Station, E.	1851	5,174
Horseshoe Fund	Box Tree, Great-lane, Houndsditch, E.	1856	106
Cricketers' Fund Friendly	St. John's Tavern, Lords' Cricket-gd., N.W	1857	88
Railway Guards' Universal	Birkbeck Ins., Bream's Bldgs, Chancery-lane	1849	2,361
Stationers & Paper Manufacturers' Prov.	66, Cannon-street, E.C.	1840	138
M.B.A. Oil & Cirmen, Drigists, Drysltrs, &c.	City Arms, Blomfield-street, E.C.	1846	74
Social Union Friendly	George and Dragon, 104, Houndsditch, E.	1844	76
Lovers of Justice and Peace	Green Man, Mansell-street, E.	1824	107
Club des Independants	Blue Posts Tavern, 81, Newman-st., W.	1856	108
Mutual Friends' Friendly	20, Little St. Andrew-street, W.C.	1859	146
North-West London Farriers' United	Chester Arms, Albany-st., Regent's Park.	1860	289
U. Brothers' Benefit Painters & Glaziers.	17, Howland-street, Fitzroy-square, W.	1836	184
Gift and Burial Fund, Grand City, O.O.F.	Hand & Sh'rs, 1, Middle-st., Cloth Fair, E.C.	1862	225
Don Cossack Gift Fund Friendly	Two Brewers, Bunhill-row, St. Luke's, E.C.	1852	90
Music Publishers' & Concert Assn'ts' Prov.	St. James's Hall, Piccadilly, W.	1863	211
United Christian Sick and Burial	Methodist Chapel, Jubilee-st., Stepney, E.	1864	145
Loyal United Friends' Benefit	18, Princes-street, Spitalfields, E.	1871	102
Havelock, No. 2, Gift Fund	Lord Palmerston, Hewlett-rd., Old Ford, E.	1864	176
Lond. Opt'ive Gas Meter Makers' Pension	Bull's Head Tav., Lever-st., St. Luke's, E.C.	1865	126
United Brethren	8, Gt. Alie-st., Leman-st., Whitechapel, E.	1856	151
Foreign United Brothers' Benefit	49, Mansell-street, Goodman's Fields, E.	1866	59
City of London Jewish Tailors' Benefit.	Horse & Trumpeter, Jewry-st., Aldgate, E.	1867	124
Loyal Ancient I.O.O.F. Sick & Burial Fund	Spr'd Eagle, Mortimer-st., Mid'sex Hosp., W.	1857	277
Consolidated Benefit	54, High-street, Islington, N.	1869	54
Sick Fund, U.O.T.A.S.P.	Great Central Hall, Norton Folgate, E.	1868	387
Railway Officers' and Servants' Sick	29, Moorgate Sta.-bldgs, Finsbury Pmnt, E.C.	1872	..
Clothiers' Cutters' Sick, Pen., & Bur. B'fit.	City Arms, Blomfield-street, E.C.	1834	212
Wormw'd Scrubs & Millbnk Pria. Mn. B'fit.	Wormwood Scrubs Prison, W.	1873	135
Hon'ble & I. O. of Rechabites, S.C. B'hood	Star Coffee Tavern, 79, Wigmore-street, W.	1873	140
Harmony and Concord Benefit	49, Mansell-street, Aldgate, E.	1875	63
F. B. S. of Managers of Printing Machines	White Swan, New-street-square, E.C.	1847	304
Metropolitan Railway Mutual Provident.	Chapel-st. Works, Edgware-rd. Sta., N.W.	1877	1,245
Great Western Railway Provident	Great Western Terminus, Paddington, W.	1880	9,144
Ch. of Eng. Temperance Women's Benefit	112, Palace Chmbs., Bridge-st., W'mstr, S.W.	1880	223
Holborn Restaurant United Friendly Asso.	218, High Holborn, W.C.	1881	103
<i>MONMOUTHSHIRE.</i>			
Loyal Endeavour Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Union Hotel, Abersychan	1841	100
Loyal Prince Albert Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Castle Inn, Abertillery	1862	131
Pride of Monmouth Lodge, I.O.A.S., A.U.	Red Lion Inn, Blaينا	1871	116
Lily of the Valley Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Railway Hotel, Crumlin	1868	..

a Number of years for which returns have been received.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES in ENGLAND and WALES, &c.—CONTINUED.

VALUATIONS AND QUINQUENNIAL RETURNS.

	BENEFIT FUND. TOTAL.			Year of Valuation.	RATE OF INTEREST PER CENT.		LIABILITIES.		ASSETS AND DEFICIENCIES.				Reference Letters (see Footnotes).
	a. No. of Years.	Receipts.	Expenditure.		Used in Valuation.	Realised.	Present Value of Benefits	Other Liabilities (if any).	Present Value of Contributions.	Amount of Funds.	Other Assets (if any).	Deficiency.	
	£	£				£	£	£	£	£	£		
310	4	1,437	1,608	1885	3	Say 2-8	6,418	3,881	478	747	1,317	D.
311	5	5,370	4,647	1885	3	3-2	32,175	569	11,627	10,948	90	10,084
312	5	2,985	1,958	1885	3	2-7 to 2-9	30,123	6,783	5,620	17,720	A.F.
313	8	22,979	22,965	1884	4	Say 4-2	78,099	*1,063	36,119	30,921	†1,125	13,247	F.
314	5	849	1,138	1884	3	4-3 to 4-5	2,407	496	872	693	134	1,144	D.
315	5	984	932	1885	3	2-3 to 2-5	1,441	68	126	968	1,015	A.D.F.
316	5	2,962	2,862	1885	3	2-2 to 4-5	16,984	460	6,645	5,338	3,333	2,118	A.F.
317	1	1,531	1,929	1884	3	2-3 to 3-1	5,671	2,626	770	430	1,845
318	1	5,929	3,871	1885	3	2-0 to 2-4	133,774	56,735	6,842	70,697
319	3	13,311	11,578	1884	3	2-7 to 2-8	66,585	30,098	11,856	24,631	A.D.F.
320	3	498	473	1885	3	2-8 to 2-9	3,749	359	1,887	782	128	1,311	D.F.
321	5	1,096	1,529	1885	3	2-6 to 2-8	5,789	549	2,878	1,192	2,268	D.
322	5	30,041	24,977	1884	4	3-0 to 4-7	114,228	6,032	67,656	12,879	814	33,502	D.
323	1	1,474	1,148	1884	4	3-9 to 4-6	35,809	*174	16,530	4,355	8,909	6,189	D.F.
324	5	9,775	8,478	1884	3	1-4 to 4-7	47,107	2,061	29,396	6,831	18,401
325	5	13,081	14,656	1884	4	4-5 to 4-7	162,667	81,953	11,090	19,316	50,368	D.
326	5	1,110	1,072	1885	3	8- to 4-1	3,192	1,468	347	1,377	D.
327	4	1,406	552	1882	3	2-7 to 2-8	6,799	1,039	3,296	2,464	D.F.
328	5	39,327	30,331	1884	4	3-8 to 4-0	164,012	83,368	31,201	41,639	7,744
329	1	1,599	1,214	1885	3	3-9 to 4-6	40,599	762	29,787	3,626	6,424
330	5	1,235	1,119	1884	3	2-7 to 3-2	4,717	732	2,244	1,179	2,026	A.F.
331	2	392	380	1884	3	2-5 to 2-7	2,531	979	1,632	401	1,477	A.D.F.
332	5	958	831	1885	3	2-3 to 2-5	4,280	1,618	3,236	638	2,024	A.D.
333	5	667	720	1884	3	2-2 to 2-8	2,385	428	1,289	280	1,244	D.
334	2	360	351	1885	3	2-3 to 2-8	3,841	77	2,618	181	1,119	D.
335	4	1,597	1,441	1885	3	Say 2-2	7,720	724	6,350	635	1,459	D.F.
336	5	1,661	2,016	1885	3	2-7 to 3-0	8,074	3,823	844	89	3,368
337	1	247	255	1883	3	Say 2-5	5,683	505	2,523	119	3,541	D.F.
338	5	547	558	1884	3	2-3 to 2-6	2,577	1,082	194	1,301	A.D.
339	1	347	191	1885	3	2-2 to 2-6	8,830	4,038	2,266	2,076
340	5	1,047	1,013	1884	3	2-4	7,802	3,367	513	3,323
341	5	922	596	1884	3	1-7 to 2-6	3,431	982	2,176	658	280	1,299
342	5	832	799	1885	3	2-2 to 3-0	5,403	1,938	289	3,176	A.D.
343	2	155	111	1881	3	2-3 to 5-3	10,697	565	658	9,479	A.C.
344	5	1,081	982	1884	3	2-0 to 2-3	5,095	607	3,363	472	4	1,863	A.D.
345	3	335	370	1884	3	2-1 to 2-7	4,857	38	1,485	131	3,299	D.
346	5	1,171	1,010	1885	3	2-3 to 2-6	5,514	1,037	4,181	776	1,594	D.
347	5	1,625	1,706	1884	3	2-7 to 2-9	6,500	240	3,448	878	833	1,590
348	5	315	258	1885	3	2-2 to 2-7	2,409	913	220	1,276	A.D.F.
349	5	974	1,059	1885	3	2-5	5,081	16	3,260	135	1,702	D.
350	1885	3	3	36,327	33,074	1,493	314	2,046
351	5	2,376	1,885	1885	3	2-7 to 3-1	9,916	4,970	2,914	2,032	A.
352	5	594	479	1884	3	2-0 to 2-3	3,044	1	1,482	310	1,263	A.F.
353	4	831	929	1884	3	9- to 3-1	3,276	450	2,183	295	1,248	D.
354	5	342	328	1884	3	2-4 to 2-8	3,888	47	1,503	161	2,271	D.
355	5	3,320	2,700	1885	3	2-7	19,338	9,515	2,608	4	7,201	D.
356	3	5,307	5,155	1883	3	1-8 to 2-9	52,900	11,176	25,940	295	5,503	82,338	D.F.
357	5	52,967	52,612	1884	3	Say 1-5	321,842	47,470	216,120	1,598	151,594	F.
358	5	978	549	1884	3	Nil to 2-6	6,018	512	5,124	250	1,151	A.F.
359	5	925	143	1885	3	Say 2-7	4,563	1,903	795	1,865	A.D.
360	5	749	783	1885	3	2-9 to 5-5	3,241	6	1,513	442	1,292	D.F.
361	5	992	912	1885	3	9- to 4-2	4,932	15	2,236	769	1,803	F.
362	3	332	424	1885	3	Nil to 7-8	3,072	1,340	2,219	51	920	1,222	A.D.E.
363	1885	3	Doubtful	3,636	35	1,580	602	1,489	F.

A.—The society's experience does not appear to have been compared with the tables used.

C.—Expenses of management unprovided for.

D.—The society charges uniform contributions for all ages at entry.

E.—Death benefits treated as re-assured with District.

F.—Valuation made by one of the public valuers under the Friendly Societies Act, 1875.

* Includes amount of negative values. † Surplus in death benefit fund. ‡ Deficiency in sick pay fund.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN

TABLE showing the ANNUAL RETURNS and VALUATIONS of 676

ANNUAL RETURNS—1881 to 1885.

NAME OF SOCIETY.	REGISTERED OFFICE.	Date of Establishment.	No. of Members.
MONMOUTHSHIRE—Continued.			
Bee on the Briar Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Lamb Inn, Ebbw Vale	1870	121
Loyal Priory Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Sloop Inn, Llandogo, Coleford	1844	126
Celynen Colliers W'kmen's Sick & F. Fund	Beaufort Arms Inn, Newbridge	1881	1,113
Rhosyn Glann Ffrwd Ldge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Commercial Inn, Talywain	1872	104
St. Peter's Lodge, L.O.A.S., A.U.	North-Western Hotel, Tredegar	1871	108
NORFOLK.			
North-East Norfolk Friendly	Mr. Sandford's Office, Cromer	1848	380
Loyal Albion Lodge, I.O.O.F., N. & N.U.	Albton Inn, Cromer	1855	282
Mutual Benefit	Cock Inn, Diss	1845	71
Neatishead New Friendly	Schoolroom, Neatishead	1887	205
Ormesby Independent Friendly	King's Head Inn, Great Ormesby	1874	141
Raynham Provident Benefit	Clubroom, East Raynham, Brandon	1868	225
Friendly	Dun Cow Inn, Salthouse	1791	140
Sutton New Friendly	Sutton	1840	436
Working Men's Provident	Wesleyan Schoolroom, Wells	1864	109
Winterton Provident Friendly	National School, Winterton	1857	177
NORTHAMPTONSHIRE.			
Croughton Benefit	Schoolroom, Croughton	1877	..
Piddington Friendly	Mr. George Howes, Hackleton	1819	234
Higham Ferrers Female Benefit	Grammar School, Higham Ferrers	1868	719
Provident Friendly	British Schoolroom, Kettering	1886	224
Middleton Cheney	Red Lion Inn, Middleton Cheney	1854	108
British Workman's Friendly	Cardigan Arms Inn, Moulton	1804	189
Friendly and Humane	Schoolroom, Naseby	1794	92
Northampton Equit. Friendly Institution.	50, Broad-street, Northampton	1884	106
Paulerspury Friendly	Schoolroom, Paulerspury, Towcester	1886	163
Potterspurv, Yardley, Goblon & Furtho B.C	Schoolroom, Potterspurv, Stony Stratford	1840	895
Raunds Tradesmen's Sick Benefit	Cock Inn, Raunds	1839	225
Friendly	Old Friar Inn, Twywell, Thrapston	1884	97
Welford Friendly and Humane	Schoolroom, Welford, Rugby	1771	234
Female Benefit	Freeman's School, Wellingborough	1835	850
Wootton Friendly	Schoolroom, Wootton	1886	107
NORTHUMBERLAND.			
Violet of Eden Lodge, A.F.G.	Harbour Inn, Amble	1867	214
Daisy Lodge, A.F.G.	Choppington Inn, Scotlnd Gate, Bedlington	1865	258
Border Union Lodge, N.I.O.O.F.	Old Masonic Hall, Gringley-on-Tweed	1875	329
Sir Rowland Stanley Errington Lodge	Angel Inn, Main-street, Corbridge	1867	..
Harvest Home Friendly Benefit	Blenheim Hotel, Blenheim-st., Nwcastle-o-T	1844	..
Newcastle-on-Tyne Highland	Star Hotel, Northumberland-st., Nwcastle-o-T	1854	180
Nrthumberland & Durham Miners' Per. R.F.	37, Northumberland-st., Nwcastle-on-Tyne	1863	..
Loyal Vernon Lodge, N.I.O.O.F.	Clarence Hotel, Shieldfield	1868	144
Passion Flower Lodge, A.F.G.	Royal Arms Inn, Nile-st., North Shields	1871	152
Captain Blackett Lodge, I.U.O.M.	Black Bull Inn, Wylam	1874	129
NOTTINGHAMSHIRE.			
Good Samaritan Lodge, I. United Brthrs	Bowling Green Inn, Old Basford	1881	103
Collingham Mutual Help Friendly	Grey Horse Inn, High-st., Nrth Collingham	1838	166
Farmers' Glory Lodge Friendly	White Hart Inn, Gringley-on-the-Hill	1883	121
Friendly	New Con. Schlrm., Nrth-st., Hucknll Trkrd	1822	..
Widows' Hope Lodge, N.A.I.U.O.O.F.	Bull's Hd. Inn, East Leake, Loughborough	1869	149
Court Forget-Me-Not, A.O.F.	Railway Hotel, South Leverton, Lincoln	1840	79
William the Fourth Lodge, N.A.I.U.O.O.F.	Dke. of Cumbrind Inn, Middlegate, Newark	1843	..
Nelson Lodge, O.D.	18, Chatham-street, Newark	1870	187
Providnt Funeral Frndly, N.A.I.U.O.O.F.	83, Lower Talbot-street, Nottingham	1840	8682
Prim. Meth. Itinerant Preachers' Frndly.	70, Forest-road West, Nottingham	1841	975
Victory Lodge, I.O.F., M.U.	Red Lion Inn, East Retford	1838	214

a Number of years for which returns have been received.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES in ENGLAND and WALES, &c.—CONTINUED.

VALUATIONS AND QUINQUENNIAL RETURNS.

	BENEFIT FUND. TOTAL			Year of Valuation.	RATE OF INTEREST PER CENT.		LIABILITIES.		ASSETS AND DEFICIENCIES.				Reference Letters (see Footnotes).
	a No. of Years.	Receipts.	Expendi- ture.		Used in Valuation.	Realised.	Present Value of Benefits	Other Liabili- ties (if any).	Present Value of Contribu- tions.	Amount of Funds.	Other Assets (if any).	Deficiency.	
		£	£			£	£	£	£	£	£		
364	5	510	440	1885	3	1·4 to 4·1	3,879	45	2,022	302	1,600	D.F.
365	2	285	349	1885	3	1·2 to 4·0	3,234	1,724	994	1,116	D.F.
366	5	3,262	2,609	1885	3	Nil to 2·4	17,630	126	13,629	790	3,337	D.
367	2	255	320	1885	3	·8 to 4·4	2,873	*4	1,546	260	1,071	F.
368	1	121	83	1885	3	2·8 to 4·6	3,851	324	1,775	64	924	1,412	A.D.E.
369	5	2,158	1,556	1879	3	3·3 to 3·4	7,297	1,515	4,544	2,481	1,787
370	4	1,136	1,083	1884	3	2·1 to 2·4	7,497	5,463	773	51	1,211	A.D.
371	5	472	435	1885	3	4·5 to 4·7	2,376	10	829	400	106	1,051	D.
372	5	1,194	1,344	1881	3	3·5 to 3·6	5,108	507	2,580	1,926	1,109	A.
373	5	659	536	1885	3	2·3 to 2·6	3,609	1,685	605	1,919	D.
374	5	968	782	1885	3	2·0 to 4·5	5,997	2,778	708	250	2,261	A.
375	1	192	295	1885	3	3·2 to 3·6	5,132	605	2,200	1,125	2,412	A.D.
376	1	451	638	1882	3	3·0	11,261	1,460	5,840	3,002	3,879
377	5	941	1,249	1883	3	2·1 to 4·0	3,247	1,244	198	1,805	D.
378	5	889	793	1884	3	2·6 to 2·9	4,715	2,059	1,030	1,626
379	1882	3	2·3 to 2·8	2,741	227	1,277	256	81	1,354	A.
380	4	913	1,032	1885	3	2·1 to 2·7	3,621	352	2,265	475	1,263	A.D.
381	5	1,618	1,408	1885	3	2·6	6,705	2,189	6,138	1,675	1,081	A.D.
382	1	295	222	1881	3	2·9 to 5·0	5,660	2,891	1,515	1,254	A.
383	5	478	364	1884	3	2·5	2,741	1,376	245	1,120	D.
384	5	755	761	1885	4	3·9 to 4·9	3,295	435	1,745	390	1,596	A.D.
385	1	88	52	1881	3	Nil to 2·6	2,541	11	1,170	122	1,260	A.D.
386	5	786	925	1881	3	4·0 to 4·5	3,765	1,488	1,112	1,165	A.
387	5	944	1,070	1885	3	4·7	2,843	1,373	275	1,195	D.
388	4	1,103	1,152	1881	3	2·4 to 4·1	8,359	50	2,922	902	4,585	A.D.
389	4	1,079	765	1884	3	3·4 to 4·8	5,330	2,474	1,615	1,241	A.C.D.
390	2	213	165	1885	3-3½	3·7 to 4·2	2,402	240	960	452	116	1,514	A.D.F.
391	5	1,131	1,148	1882	3	2·6 to 2·9	7,745	213	3,115	737	4,111	A.D.F.
392	4	2,003	1,740	1885	3	3·4 to 3·7	9,912	2,046	6,693	2,511	650	2,039	D.F.
393	5	978	1,200	1884	3	3·1 to 4·5	3,278	260	2,081	191	1,266	A.D.
394	4	932	838	1884	3	1·0 to 2·3	5,790	323	4,310	518	1,285	A.D.
395	5	1,514	1,628	1884	3	Nil to 3·3	6,600	385	5,135	160	1,690	A.D.
396	5	1,290	1,087	1885	3	1·8 to 2·6	8,066	1,384	6,533	356	1,510	1,051	A.E.
397	1884	3	1·4	3,201	1,619	436	1,146	A.D.F.
398	1885	3	4·1 to 4·4	3,621	220	1,328	511	2,002	A.D.F.
399	4	725	661	1884	3	Nil.	5,066	3,320	426	12	1,308	A.D.
400	1882	3	3·5 to 3·9	128,402	97,032	†31,370
401	2	233	227	1884	3	Nil to 3·3	3,160	1,640	94	19	1,407	A.D.
402	4	514	489	1884	3	2·5	3,750	1,976	330	1,444	A.D.
403	2	256	252	1884	3	1·6 to 2·4	3,746	300	2,015	432	43	1,556	A.D.
404	5	629	557	1885	3	2·7 to 3·0	3,084	1,376	534	1,174	D.F.
405	5	965	1,181	1885	3	2·7 to 4·3	5,186	29	2,484	585	2,146	F.
406	1	143	130	1884	3	2·6 to 3·7	3,123	1,514	584	1	1,074
407	1881	3½	3·2 to 4·2	4,890	591	1,790	1,644	269	1,778	D.
408	5	727	749	1885	4	3·0 to 5·5	3,937	1,483	704	1,750	A.D.
409	5	338	423	1884	4	3·8 to 4·9	2,031	695	154	1,182	A.D.
410	1884	3	2·1 to 2·6	2,607	3	1,139	375	3	1,098	A.
411	4	779	601	1884	3	1·1 to 3·3	4,397	2,689	910	1,898	A.
412	4	10,546	8,558	1882	3½	3·8 to 4·6	51,769	2,386	33,128	10,332	10,635	F.
413	3	17,704	15,603	1882	3-3½	2·8 to 4·0	182,915	57,436	29,049	2,297	94,133	A.F.
414	3	1,106	1,199	1880	3	1·9 to 5·6	7,570	3,552	1,849	3,169	F.

A.—The society's experience does not appear to have been compared with the tables used.

D.—The society charges uniform contributions for all ages at entry.

E.—Death benefits treated as re-assured with District.

F.—Valuation made by one of the public valuers under the Friendly Societies Act, 1875.

Includes amount of negative values. † This deficiency of £31,370 is in respect of incumbent benefits. The valuer estimates the deficiency in respect of current risks to be at the rate of £223 per annum in respect of every 10,000 members.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN

TABLE showing the ANNUAL RETURNS and VALUATIONS of 676

ANNUAL RETURNS—1881 TO 1885.

NAME OF SOCIETY.	REGISTERED OFFICE.	Date of Establishment.	No. of Members.
NOTTINGHAMSHIRE—Continued.			
Loyal Harmonic Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Denman's Head Inn, Sutton-in-Ashfield . .	1858	97 415
Loyal Morning Star Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U. . .	Swan Inn, Upper Green, Sutton-in-Ashfield	1873	.. 416
Friendly	Punchbowl Inn, Woodborough	1826	204 417
OXFORDSHIRE.			
Valentia Club	School-house, Bletchington	1856	72 418
Combe Friendly	Royal Oak Inn, Combe	1880	96 419
Northleigh Friendly Benefit	National Schoolroom, Northleigh	1867	109 420
College Servants' Benefit	Ancient Druid Tavern, George-st., Oxford.	1812	142 421
Stratton Audley Benefit Friendly	Schoolroom, Stratton Audley	1863	93 422
Court British Queen, A.O.F.	Black Horse Inn, Thame	1855	117 423
Alliance Benefit	Three Horseshoes Inn, Wootton	1857	73 424
SHROPSHIRE.			
Bridgewater Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Red Lion Inn, Church-street, Ellesmere . .	1833	885 425
Cambrian Railways Friendly	Cambrian Works, Oswestry	1865	.. 426
Loyal St. George's Lodge, U.S.O.F.G.	Cock Inn, Watling-street, Wellington . .	1844	189 427
Great Wollaston Friendly	Halfway House Inn, Great Wollaston . . .	1821	.. 428
SOMERSETSHIRE.			
Bathford Friendly	National School, Bathford, Bath	1837	127 429
Wellington Mutual Assistance Friendly . .	Schoolhouse, Courtland-road, Wellington.	1833	249 430
STAFFORDSHIRE.			
Needwood Forest Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Crown Inn, Arlewas	1868	76 431
Bloxwich Independent Oddfellows	Bull's Head Inn, Bloxwich	1827	233 432
Bloxwich Church of England Benefit	Public Room, Bloxwich	1844	212 433
Miners' Bloxwich Church of Eng. Benefit	Public Room, Bloxwich	1849	78 434
Unity Lodge, U.O.F.G.	Vine Inn, Roebuck-lane, West Bromwich..	1867	127 435
First Bucknall Friendly	Travellers' Rest Inn, Bucknall	1855	142 436
Royal Victoria Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Corporation Arms, New-st., Burton-on-Trent	1860	251 437
Loyal Miners' Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Apedale-road, Chesterton	1855	.. 438
Court Hope and Anchor, A.O.F.	Queen's Head Inn, Cradley Heath	1859	135 439
Endon Friendly	Plough Inn, Endon	1820	329 440
Gladstone Lodge, L.O.A.S., A.U.	Queen Inn, Litchfield-street, Hanley . . .	1867	216 441
Hanley Equalised District, O.D.	Angel Inn, Hanley	1874	619 442
Court King of the Forest, A.O.F.	George and Dragon Inn, Horseley Heath . .	1858	74 443
Keele Union Friendly	Sneyd's Arms Inn, Keele	1820	80 444
Kingsley Friendly	Royal Oak Inn, Kingsley	1738	149 445
Leek Independent Male Humane	West-street Sunday School, Leek	1819	224 446
Leek Benevolent Burial	29, York-street, Leek	1840	10780 447
W. & O. Fuud, Lichfield, Dis. I.O.O.F., M.U	Turk's Head Inn, Sandford-st., Lichfield . .	1830	1,293 448
Court Widows' Friend, I.O.F.	Prim. Meth. School, Newcastle-under-Lyme	1862	205 449
Ebenezer Provident	Wesleyan Schoolroom, Smethwick	1837	102 450
Nrth Staffs. Coal & Ironstone W. Per. R. S.	94, Liverpool-road, Stoke-on-Trent	1870	5,644 451
Loyal Mountford Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U. . .	Black's Head Inn, Upper Tean	1842	161 452
Wesleyan Mutual Provident Sick	Wesleyan School, John-street, Tunstall . .	1847	302 453
Loyal Prince Albert Lodge, I.I.O.O.F., L.U.	Three Tuns Inn, Market-place, Uttoxeter..	1856	.. 454
Walsall Church of England Benefit	Guildhall Assembly Rooms, Walsall	1840	156 455
Pride of Wednesfield Tradesmen's Frndly	New Inn, Wednesfield	1865	143 456
Lodge No. 1, Benevolent Loyal Britons . .	86, Walsall-street, Willenhall	1831	168 457
Willenhall Sick, Medical, and Burial . . .	Lit. Inst., Upper Lichfield-st., Willenhall.	1857	1,265 458
Wolverhampton Friendly	1, St. Peter's-square, Wolverhampton . . .	1854	431 459
Queen Adelaide Lodge, O.W.L.O.O.F. . . .	Yew Tree Inn, Pool-st., Wolverhampton . .	1858	.. 460
Mid. Counties Ind. Hearts of Oak Frndly.	Crown & Cushion, Bilston-st., Wvrhmptn.	1864	120 461
Wlvrhmptn Gt. Wsly. Loco. Per S.&B.	Stafford-road Works, Wolverhampton . . .	1877	450 462
SUFFOLK.			
Hand-in-Haud	Mill Inn, Aldeburg	1870	55 463
Benefit	Vestry of Independent Chapel, Boxford . .	1836	211 464

a Number of years for which returns have been received.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES in ENGLAND and WALES, &c.—CONTINUED.

VALUATIONS AND QUINQUENNIAL RETURNS.

	BENEFIT FUND. TOTAL			Year of Valuation.	RATE OF INTEREST PER CENT.		LIABILITIES.		ASSETS AND DEFICIENCIES.				Reference Letters (see Footnotes).
	a No. of Years.	Receipts.	Expenditure.		Used in Valuation.	Realised.	Present Value of Benefits	Other Liabilities (if any).	Present Value of Contributions.	Amount of Funds.	Other Assets (if any).	Deficiency.	
	£	£				£	£	£	£	£	£		
415	1	118	126	1880	3	2.9 to 4.0	3,439	1,907	657	1,475	D.F.
416	1880	3	2.1 to 2.8	3,249	1,109	201	1,939	D.F.
417	4	687	630	1885	3	1.1 to 1.4	4,377	233	2,073	608	500	1,429	D.F.
418	4	266	404	1880	3	2.4 to 5.6	2,845	316	1,055	251	1,855	A D.F.
419	5	337	327	1885	3	1.7 to 4.4	2,287	7	714	111	147	1,322	D.
420	5	464	352	1884	3	1.6 to 2.5	3,014	19	1,852	357	1,315	A.F.
421	5	1,658	1,689	1885	3	2.6 to 2.8	7,177	485	3,880	1,549	2,239	D.
422	5	543	406	1884	3	2.1 to 2.5	4,084	122	1,469	451	2,236	A.D.
423	5	792	814	1884	3	Say 3.0	5,733	25	2,116	605	2	3,085	A.
424	3	196	243	1883	3	2.0 to 2.6	2,862	*20	1,272	216	1,394	D.F.
425	3	1,420	1,399	1880	3	2.7 to 3.5	10,231	5,143	3,870	1,218	F.
426	1885	3	Nil.	6,550	2,312	185	4,053	D.
427	4	932	1,052	1885	3	2.8 to 3.0	4,783	2,250	599	11	1,923	D.
428	1882	3	3.2 to 3.9	7,339	881	3,795	2,846	1,579	D.F.
429	3	516	611	1884	3	2.5 to 3.0	4,329	741	2,059	1,071	371	1,569	A.D.F.
430	5	1,025	871	1884	3	2.6 to 5.2	8,206	2,741	1,074	4,391	A.
431	3	182	196	1885	3	Nil to 2.6	2,190	370	1,371	77	1,112	D.F.
432	4	1,075	1,336	1881	4	3.5 to 4.3	5,517	1,891	2,488	1,138	A.D.
433	3	1,028	1,173	1881	4	3.6 to 4.6	5,847	2,799	1,833	1,163	A.D.
434	5	660	826	1885	3	2.2 to 2.5	2,555	1,063	277	122	1,093	D.
435	3	399	439	1885	3	Nil to 4.1	3,248	388	2,587	18	1,031	A.D.
436	5	895	814	1884	3½	3.2 to 4.3	6,100	22	1,762	1,275	3,085
437	3	1,125	953	1883	3	3.2 to 5.4	6,824	4,702	1,015	15	1,092
438	1880	3	3.7 to 4.6	8,361	5,629	1,378	1,359	F.
439	1	177	181	1884	3	2.3 to 5.1	4,686	52	2,382	616	67	1,673
440	4	2,084	2,115	1885	3	2.7 to 3.6	11,233	2,939	3,434	1,845	3,015	D.
441	4	1,116	858	1885	3	2.9 to 3.9	5,592	1,361	3,607	792	1,251	1,303	D.E.
442	1	656	591	1884	3	1.7	22,547	20,767	672	1,108	A.D.
443	5	569	654	1884	3	3.4 to 3.8	2,606	15	1,420	113	58	1,030	A.
444	5	984	1,309	1881	3	4.9 to 5.0	5,344	298	1,175	1,540	2,927	D.
445	5	1,362	1,524	1885	3	2.0 to 3.6	4,850	*211	2,127	1,756	1,178	D.F.
446	4	1,582	1,840	1884	3	2.9 to 4.5	8,291	2,671	2,755	2,865	F.
447	3	2,676	1,880	1885	3	2.0 to 2.8	29,777	*1,084	26,313	2,424	2,094	D.F.
448	1	197	94	1885	3	3.5 to 4.0	6,035	670	2,423	2,090	2,192	D.F.
449	5	939	931	1884	3	3.7 to 4.9	4,777	1,745	951	2,081	D.
450	5	1,117	1,425	1881	3½	3.3 to 4.7	7,033	553	3,057	869	3,660
451	5	16,988	14,528	1885	3	2.8 to 3.6	8,064	5,571	12,493	D.
452	5	1,056	1,227	1885	3	2.7 to 2.9	4,726	1,943	1,162	1,621	F.
453	5	2,002	1,645	1884	4	3.8 to 4.6	8,040	258	4,575	2,058	1,665
454	1884	3	Nil.	1,856	763	40	1,053	A.D.
455	5	1,280	1,282	1884	3	3.1 to 4.3	4,331	730	3,245	707	1,709	D.
456	3	735	736	1881	3	2.0 to 5.8	4,755	1,633	3,655	922	1,811	A.D.
457	5	1,471	1,815	1884	4	3.9 to 4.7	5,295	27	2,199	2,061	8	1,054	A.D.
454	5	5,348	5,271	1884	3-3½	3.8 to 4.7	23,057	2	11,492	4,941	3,623	A.
459	4	752	969	1884	3	2.2 to 3.9	3,478	1,872	3,859	435	1,056	A.
460	1885	3	2.9 to 4.4	8,002	3,533	4,909	2,114	3,106	A.D.E.
461	4	852	732	1885	3	Nil to 4.8	5,233	3,163	537	1,533	A.D.
462	5	2,407	2,365	1885	3	Nil to 2.2	13,209	549	7,237	192	6,309	A.D.
463	1	72	135	1884	3½	2.0 to 3.5	2,656	186	995	571	1,276	D.F.
464	5	920	792	1884	3	1.1 to 3.6	4,235	146	2,693	692	89	1,017	A.D.

A.—The society's experience does not appear to have been compared with the tables used.

D.—The society charges uniform contributions for all ages at entry.

E.—Death benefits treated as re-assured with District.

F.—Valuation made by one of the public valuers under the Friendly Societies Act, 1875.

* Includes amount of negative values. † This deficiency of £2,493 is in respect of incumbent benefits. The valuer estimates the deficiency in respect of current risks to be at the rate of £1,364 per annum, or £487 per annum per 10,000 members, according as they are under Schedule B or Schedule A respectively.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN

TABLE showing the ANNUAL RETURNS and VALUATIONS of 676

ANNUAL RETURNS—1881 TO 1885.

NAME OF SOCIETY.	REGISTERED OFFICE.	Date of Establishment.	No. of Members.
SUFFOLK—Continued.			
Wesleyan Methodist Benefit Friendly....	Wesleyan Vestry-room, Brandon.....	1838	131 465
West Suffolk Friendly	48, Crosser-street, Bury St. Edmunds	1830	765 466
Suffolk & Cam. Agri. Labourers' Union F. Friendly.....	Tollgate-lane, Bury St. Edmunds	1875	157 467
Mutual Assurance Benefit	St. Nicholas Ind. Chpl, Queen-st., Ipswich.	1845	93 468
W. & O. Fund, Star of East Lodge, I.O.O.F. Mutual Benefit.....	35, St. Matthew-street, Ipswich	1884	276 469
Drillman's and Poor Man's Friendly	Great Eastern Hotel, Lowestoft	1847	118 470
Stowmarket Provident	British Schoolroom, Long Melford.....	1838	460 471
	Angel Inn, Peasenhall.....	1840	72 472
	Bury-street, Stowmarket	1832	1,164 473
SURREY.			
Battersea Provident	St. Peter's Clubhouse, Battersea, S.W.....	1835	106 474
West Surrey General Benefit	6, New-road, Guildford	1846	2,269 475
Oakwood Hill Friendly	Punch Bowl Inn, Oakwood-hill, Ockley ..	1844	404 476
Christian Brotherly	5, Lambeth-road, S.E	1783	81 477
Spanish Leather Dressers' Friendly	Crown & Cushion, Page's-wk, Brmndsy, S.E	1801	150 478
Loyal Magna Charta Ldge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Literary Institute, Egham	1844	316 479
United Brothers' Friendly	Blue Ball Inn, Walton-on-Hill	1848	80 480
Sherwood Friendly	The Institution, York-place, Battersea, S.W	1856	243 481
A.O. of Comical Fellows, L. U. Friendly ..	St. George's Tav. Colemn-rd., Cmbwrl. S.E.	1848	402 482
L. Albion Ben., Ldge 3, Imprvd O. Old F.	32, Union-street, Borough, S.E	1826	168 483
Court Volunteer, A.O.F.	Wellington Inn, George-street, Croydon..	1862	132 484
P. of Bermondsey, Indep. Shepherds F..	Queen's Head, Fendale-st., Bermondsey, S.E	1866	183 485
London and S.W. Railway Guards M.B.F.	Guard's-room, Waterloo Station, S.E.	1869	162 486
Lodge 26, A.O.C.F.	Crown Tavern, Battersea, Park-rd., S.W. ..	1871	154 487
Morocco Leather Finishers' Sick Club....	Prince of Wales, Riley-st., Bermondsey, S.E	1867	95 488
SUSSEX.			
Five Oaks Friendly	Five Oaks Inn, Billingshurst	1841	143 489
Hand-in-Hand Friendly	Crown Inn, Bognor	1866	77 490
London, Brighton, & Sth. Coast Railway P.	London, Brightn, & S.C. Rly. S'tion, Brightn	1842	3,412 491
W. & O. F., Brighton Dist., I.O.O.F., M.U.	Oddfellows' Hall, Queen's-road, Brighton..	1841	4,599 492
Loyal Dolphin Lodge, I.I.O.O.F., L.U.	Mazepa Inn, Ann-street, Brighton	1860	.. 493
Court Star of Ditchling, A.O.F.	White Horse Inn, Ditchling.....	1859	.. 494
Loyal Southern Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Club Hotel, Pevensey-road, Eastbourne ..	1845	255 495
Queen's Own, Eastbourne, O.O.F.	Prince of Wales, Seaside-road, Eastbourne	1860	173 496
Forest Row Equitable Association	Swan Inn, Forest-row, East Grinstead....	1841	134 497
Benevolent Society of Hastings	Town Hall, Hastings	1841	225 498
Haywards Heath, Indep. Oddfellows F.	Liverpool Arms Inn, Haywards Heath....	1853	106 499
Hurstpierpoint Tradesmen's Friendly ..	New Inn, Hurstpierpoint	1843	154 500
Court Prosperity, A.O.F.	Sussex Hotel, Hurstpierpoint	1859	165 501
Court Tillgate Forest, A.O.F.	Black Swan Inn, Peas Pottage, Crawley ..	1871	127 502
Phoenix Lodge, A.O.O.F.	Queen's Head Inn, Rye	1871	174 503
Coolham Friendly	Selsey Arms Inn, Coolham Green, Shipley	1836	235 504
Shipley Temperate Friendly	Free Schoolroom, Shipley.....	1841	187 505
Band of Friendship Benefit.....	Wesleyan Chapel Schoolroom, Shoreham	1846	83 506
Staplefield Economical Friendly	Jolly Farmers' Inn, Staplefield, Crawley..	1864	144 507
WARWICKSHIRE.			
Old Meeting Friendly Fund	Hurst-st. Schools, Hurst-st., Birmingham.	1819	435 508
Birmingham Unitarian Brotherly Benefit	Unit. Domestic Mission-rms, Birmingham	1798	806 509
True Blue Friendly	White Horse, Congreve-st., Birmingham..	1817	239 510
Cannon-st. Male Adult Prov. Institution.	97, Newhall-street, Birmingham.....	1841	9,598 511
Church of the Saviour Prov. Institution..	43, Colmore-row, Birmingham.....	1858	454 512
Tradesmen's	Coach and Horses, Coleshill, Birmingham	1826	82 513
Coventry Friendly & Provident Institution	Provident Dispensary, Coventry.....	1841	770 514
Provident Friendly	Golden Lion Inn, Bull Ring, Coventry....	1844	154 515
Female Friendly.....	Old Church Schoolhouse, Foleshill	1856	126 516

α Number of years for which returns have been received.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES in ENGLAND and WALES, &c.—CONTINUED.

VALUATIONS AND QUINQUENNIAL RETURNS.

	BENEFIT FUND. TOTAL.			Year of Valuation.	RATE OF INTEREST PER CENT.		LIABILITIES.		ASSETS AND DEFICIENCIES.				Reference Letters (see Footnotes).
	a No. of Years.	Receipts.	Expendi- ture.		Used in Valuation.	Realised.	Present Value of Benefits	Other Liabilities (if any).	Present Value of Contributions.	Amount of Funds.	Other Assets (if any).	Deficiency.	
		£	£			£	£	£	£	£	£		
465	5	777	683	1885	3	2·3 to 2·8	3,644	118	1,968	576	1,223	A.D.
466	5	8,625	6,460	1882	3	Say 3·5	35,489	11,512	22,885	1,085	F.
467	5	1,081	1,087	1884	3	2·0 to 2·3	4,131	2,051	607	1,478	A.
468	5	785	875	1884	3	3·5 to 3·6	8,856	45	1,755	431	1,665	A.F.
469	5	2,995	2,009	1885	3	3·1 to 3·8	14,412	693	3,572	8,608	2,925	F.
470	1	59	57	1885	3	2·4 to 3·3	1,927	108	583	442	1,010	D.F.
471	5	3,087	3,385	1885	3	3·1 to 3·3	12,307	459	6,046	2,586	4,164	F.
472	4	409	499	1884	3	2·2 to 2·7	2,436	99	728	455	30	1,322	D.
473	2	3,473	2,697	1883	3	3·9 to 4·4	39,233	1,492	14,919	16,212	9,644	A.F.
474	5	844	897	1884	3	3·0	4,159	*30	1,625	1,136	1,423	D.F.
475	5	10,900	5,517	1884	3	3·0 to 3·3	55,001	35,943	17,918	1,145
476	5	1,697	1,030	1884	3	2·2 to 3·2	12,264	4,388	3,244	488	4,144	A.D.
477	5	793	494	1885	3	3·4 to 3·6	5,832	1,585	2,101	2,196	A.D.F.
478	5	1,810	1,969	1885	3	3·1 to 3·3	8,895	81	4,097	1,988	2,841	F.
479	5	2,584	1,916	1884	3	2·8 to 4·6	11,794	47	7,954	2,580	1,357	F.
480	5	870	400	1884	3	2·2 to 2·6	3,188	130	1,009	309	1,950	A.D.F.
481	3	1,229	1,224	1885	3	4·3 to 4·8	9,477	844	5,624	2,132	2,515	A.D.F.
482	4	2,255	2,112	1885	3	3·0	13,655	189	7,117	1,864	4,863	D.
483	4	1,295	1,700	1885	3	1·7 to 2·8	2,739	28	1,354	223	1,190
484	3	448	433	1884	3	Nil to 3·8	4,279	12	2,265	746	5	1,275	A.
485	5	1,144	939	1885	3	Nil to 4·5	6,130	493	3,944	614	2,065	A.D.
486	4	259	147	1884	3	2·8 to 3·4	3,656	11	863	447	2,352	D.F.
487	5	826	635	1885	3	Nil to 4·4	6,672	20	2,854	309	3,529	A.D.F.
488	5	652	553	1884	3	2·0 to 2·5	3,661	1,863	569	1,229	A.D.F.
489	5	542	560	1884	3	2·4 to 2·7	3,186	1,463	352	1,371	A.D.
490	5	535	391	1885	3	1·8 to 2·0	2,784	1,196	391	1,197	A.D.
491	5	31,860	32,604	1884	4	4·1 to 4·6	232,721	12,792	73,015	7,345	160,153	A.
492	5	8,329	5,310	1885	3	3·7 to 4·9	33,963	6,194	14,675	21,278	7,793	1,416	D.F.
493	1884	3	2·7	3,569	1,593	320	1,656	A.
494	1884	3	2·1 to 4·3	3,936	2,249	607	1,089	A.
495	3	1,378	1,309	1885	4	4·2 to 4·8	8,301	4,003	2,740	1,558	F.
496	5	1,297	1,101	1884	3	1·7 to 3·9	5,562	63	3,527	544	1,559	D.
497	5	589	299	1885	3	2·3 to 2·6	3,609	1,377	1,093	1,139
498	5	2,842	3,865	1884	3	4·3 to 4·9	10,945	202	4,055	3,137	3,955	A.D.
499	4	999	644	1885	3	1·9 to 4·3	6,691	2,671	2,412	1,608	A.
500	2	558	506	1881	3	3·5	7,734	276	3,245	1,523	3,342	A.D.
501	3	716	433	1884	3	2·3 to 2·8	5,786	35	3,700	953	1,168	A.
502	2	338	240	1884	3	1·8 to 2·2	4,202	2,687	494	1,021
503	1	215	134	1884	3	2·3 to 2·7	5,700	2,606	398	2,696	A.D.
504	5	1,247	1,388	1884	3	2·2	4,930	105	3,554	424	1,117	A.D.
505	5	1,012	667	1884	3	3·0	5,748	22	3,270	1,110	1,390	A.
506	5	727	831	1885	3	3·5	3,035	1,091	861	1,583	A.
507	3	262	209	1884	3	2·5	3,647	417	1,670	573	1,816	A.D.
508	5	4,148	3,042	1884	3	3·5 to 4·2	18,828	87	6,044	9,532	3,339	A.F.
509	5	4,250	3,533	1884	3	4·4 to 4·5	23,474	75	3,589	11,303	8,157	A.F.
510	5	1,687	2,268	1884	3	4·0 to 4·4	14,155	1,637	1,089	3,653	11,100	D.F.
511	6	33,042	75,638	1884	3	3·6 to 3·8	396,877	195,728	84,556	699	115,994
512	5	2,343	1,933	1884	3	2·3 to 4·8	8,842	6,244	1,187	1,411	A.
513	5	705	804	1885	3	3·4 to 4·7	2,839	250	1,602	423	101	1,563	D.
514	5	5,927	4,503	1884	3	3·4 to 3·8	25,339	2,801	14,071	9,473	174	4,937	A.F.
515	5	1,133	1,301	1885	3	3·2 to 3·4	6,195	722	2,891	988	719	2,319	A.D.
516	2	218	228	1881	3	2·6 to 3·0	2,361	801	337	1,223	A.D.

A.—The society's experience does not appear to have been compared with the tables used.

D.—The society charges uniform contributions for all ages at entry.

F.—Valuation made by one of the public valuers under the Friendly Societies Act, 1875.

* Includes amount of negative values.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN

TABLE showing the ANNUAL RETURNS and VALUATIONS of 676

ANNUAL RETURNS—1881 TO 1885.

NAME OF SOCIETY.	REGISTERED OFFICE.	Date of Establishment.	No. of Members.	
WARWICKSHIRE—Continued.				
Kenilworth Friendly Insurance	Institute, Kenilworth	1839	113	517
Mid. Rly. Enginn. & Firemn's L.A. & P.I.F.	Locomotive Depart., Midland Rly., Saltley	1865	567	518
Becher Club and Equitable Assurance ..	57, Ely-street, Stratford-on-Avon	1838	348	519
L. Warwickshire Hero Ldge of Oddfellows	Duke of Marlborough Inn, Studley	1872	146	520
WESTMORLAND.				
Loyal Lowther Lodge, U.A.O.D.	Lowther Castle Inn, Hackthorpe, Penrith.	1853	167	521
Staveley, I.O.O.F.	Working Men's Hall, Staveley, Kendal....	1840	213	522
WILTSHIRE.				
Great Bedwyn Friendly	Schoolroom, Great Bedwyn	1821	359	523
Bratton Friendly	Schoolroom, B. Chapel, Bratton, Westbury	1843	324	524
Moral Man's Friendly	Schlrn., Old Chpl., Cstle Combe, Chphenhm	1863	210	525
Victoria Benefit Club	White Horse Inn, Cricklade	1836	172	526
Court Savernake Forest, A.O.F.	Royal Oak Inn, Marlborough	1845	811	527
Benefit	Mildenhall, Marlborough	1838	101	528
Primitive Methodists' Friendly	Prim. Meth. Chpl., Fisherton-st., Salisbury	1838	180	529
G.W. Railway Locom. & Carr. Depart. S.F.	C'mittee-rooms, G.W. Rly. Works, Swindon	1843	5,985	530
Court White Horse, A.O.F.	Laverton Institute, Bratton-rd., Westbury	1859	59	531
Westbury Leigh Sick Benefit	Schoolrm, Baptist Chapel, Westbury Leigh	1881	160	532
Spadesbourne Lodge of Oddfellows	Roebuck Inn, Bromsgrove	1835	125	533
Loyal Philanthropic Benevolent	Barley Mow Inn, Hanbury-st., Droitwich..	1852	123	534
Dudley Provident	Saracen's Head Inn, Stone-st., Dudley ..	1849	46	535
Beech Tree Loyal Lodge, I.O.M.M.	Address in Halesowen not known	1858	..	536
Hasbury Primitive Methodist Chapel F..	Prim. Meth. Chapel, Hasbury, Halesowen.	1864	..	537
Loyal Britons' Friendly	National Schoolroom, Ripple, Tewkesbury	1818	80	538
Loyal Britons' of Severn Stoke Friendly..	Boar's Head Inn, Severn Stoke, Worcester	1845	103	539
Court Perseverance, A.O.F.	New Inn, Enville-street, Stourbridge....	1852	53	540
YORKSHIRE.				
Court Ancient Briton, A.O.F.	Royal Oak Inn, Aberford	1839	122	541
Star of Providence Lodge, F.G.	Brown Cow Inn, Ackworth	1837	83	542
Golden Fleece Friendly	Craven Arms Inn, Appletreewick	1865	51	543
Askrigg Equitable and Benevolent	King's Arms Inn, Askrigg, Bedale	1809	113	544
Loyal Philanthropic Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Oddfellows' Arms Inn, Emgate, Bedale ..	1835	301	545
Bingley District, G.U.O.O.F.	Old King's Head Inn, Main-st., Bingley ..	1874	423	546
Earl Grey Lodge, U.A.O.D.	Black Bull Inn, Birstall	1844	117	547
Prov. S. Indep. Churches, W. Riding York.	Horton Lane Chapel, Bradford	1837	83	548
Nonpariel Friendly	Gladstone Hotel, City-road, Bradford ..	1866	107	549
Olive Branch Lodge, F. and I.O.O.F.	Caledonia Hotel, Caledonia-st., Bradford..	1867	..	550
Daisy Lodge, N.I.O.O.F.	Exchange Hotel, City-road, Bradford ..	1870	129	551
Lord Bingley Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	White Horse Inn, Bramham, Tadcaster ..	1842	74	552
Amicable	Ship Inn, Bridlington, Kingston-on-Hull..	1862	151	553
Sun Dew Lodge, A.F.G.	Queen's Arms Inn, Chapel Allerton	1844	149	554
Strangers' Repose Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U. .	Bay Horse Inn, Clifford	1872	83	555
Court Compassion, A.O.F.	Foresters' Hall, Cowling, Leeds	1831	204	556
Benevolent Friendly	Friendly Society's Hall, Cross Hills, Leeds	1851	153	557
Rose of the Valley Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U..	Royal Oak Inn, Dacre Banks, Leeds....	1833	273	558
Court Restoration, A.O.F.	Black Horse Inn, Dalton	1830	..	559
Darley Sick and Funeral Benefit	New Inn, Darley, Ripley	1864	129	560
Great Northern Railway Locomotive Sick	Gt. Nthern Rlway Locomotive Wks, D'caster	1850	5,878	561
Court Alfred the Great, A.O.F.	Temperance Hall, Mill-street, Driffield ..	1833	212	562
Garden of Eden Lodge, U.O.F.G.	Temperance Hall, Mill-street, Driffield..	1869	206	563
Duke of Cornwall Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Cross Keys Inn, Dunnington, York	1845	125	564

a Number of years for which returns have been received

ENGLAND AND WALES.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES in ENGLAND and WALES, &c.—CONTINUED.

VALUATIONS AND QUINQUENNIAL RETURNS.

No. of Years.	BENEFIT FUND. TOTAL		Year of Valuation.	RATE OF INTEREST PER CENT.		LIABILITIES.		ASSETS AND DEFICIENCIES.				Reference Letters (see Footnotes).	
	Receipts.	Expenditure.		Used in Valuation.	Realised.	Present Value of Benefits	Other Liabilities (if any).	Present Value of Contributions.	Amount of Funds.	Other Assets (if any).	Deficiency.		
	£	£				£	£	£	£	£	£		
517	5	846	1,028	1883	3	3:1 to 8:5	4,844	384	1,803	997	363	2,045	A.
518	5	7,674	3,988	1882	3	3:1 to 4:0	33,335	15,210	7,369	10,756	D.
519	4	2,540	1,533	1884	3	3:1 to 3:2	14,668	1,020	5,100	8,296	2,292
520	2	441	534	1885	3½	3:3 to 7:5	4,834	2,086	1,169	1,079	F.
521	5	1,098	633	1884	3	3:3 to 3:6	6,494	2,332	1,633	2,469	A.D.
522	5	1,406	1,433	1884	3	3:7 to 4:1	6,010	466	3,258	961	2,257	A.D.
523	5	2,218	2,168	1885	3	3:4 to 8:5	14,850	4,023	5,861	4,466	A.F.
524	5	1,610	1,284	1884	3	2:8 to 3:0	6,072	1,162	4,306	1,615	20	1,293	A.
525	5	601	513	1884	3	1:7 to 1:9	4,355	2,339	420	1,596	A.D.
526	5	735	830	1881	3	2:7 to 3:3	5,273	1,417	358	3,498	A.D.
527	5	2,411	1,936	1884	3	2:9 to 3:2	10,784	6,376	2,754	1,654	A.
528	5	950	960	1885	3	3:2 to 3:1	3,626	163	1,632	1,051	23	1,083	A.D.F.
529	5	946	1,054	1881	3	2:2 to 2:6	4,578	2,863	409	1,306	A.
530	5	20,345	18,700	1885	3	3:3 to 3:9	108,962	* 4,050	76,699	5,104	31,269	F.
531	5	510	234	1885	3	3:8 to 3:2	3,171	351	1,403	929	1,193	A.D.
532	4	343	202	1885	3	Nil to 2:0	2,833	1,472	198	1,163
533	1	187	188	1880	3	2:6 to 7:2	5,127	1,123	3,404	1,112	1,734	A.F.
534	2	444	528	1881	3	3:6 to 5:2	5,151	2,417	1,033	1,706	A.D.
535	5	411	373	1884	3	1:0 to 3:9	2,470	109	915	463	1,201	A.W.
536	1883	3	Nil to 2:6	2,984	514	2,058	253	78	1,104	A.D.
537	1882	3	1:0 to 3:8	3,231	784	2,352	580	1,083	A.D.
538	2	201	246	1881	3	3:8 to 4:7	3,460	785	478	44	2,153	A.D.
539	1	161	135	1882	3½	3:7 to 4:0	2,711	953	543	1,215	D.F.
540	5	348	437	1884	3	Say 2½	2,535	1,231	1,014	32	1,510	1,210	E.
541	5	536	549	1884	3	2:6 to 3:4	3,418	72	1,236	576	7	1,621	D.
542	1	84	78	1881	3	3:0 to 6:1	2,256	897	233	1,066	A.D.
543	1	49	62	1885	3	2:5 to 2:8	1,769	580	602	339	1,408	A.D.
544	5	772	902	1885	3	1:4 to 4:4	4,075	1,017	1,896	1,162	D.
545	5	2,232	3,116	1880	3½	3:8 to 4:3	12,425	3,967	1,463	6,995	F.
546	1	69	111	1885	3	1:6 to 2:7	2,660	* 75	1,499	110	1,126	D.
547	1	186	202	1885	3	1:5 to 4:0	3,657	1,275	1,294	16	1,072	D.
548	5	4,279	4,535	1885	3½	4:8 to 5:4	19,162	187	3,751	9,943	2,173	3,477	A.F.
549	3	352	334	1885	3	2:3 to 4:8	3,401	1,659	192	1,550	F.
550	1884	3	3:1 to 3:8	2,240	3	766	345	1,132	D.F.
551	5	467	387	1884	3	2:1 to 2:6	2,838	448	1,787	292	1,207	D.F.
552	1	68	81	1880	3	Not stated.	2,419	788	392	1,239	D.F.
553	4	573	502	1885	3½	3:5 to 3:8	3,767	468	1,798	515	1,922	A.D.
554	5	914	823	1885	3	2:1 to 3:7	4,068	474	2,369	841	1,332	A.D.
555	2	165	146	1880	3	2:0 to 2:3	2,522	1,148	898	1,066	D.F.
556	1	161	138	1884	3	1:1 to 2:5	4,332	1,693	1,899	1,340	A.D.
557	5	756	545	1885	3	2:2 to 2:1	4,969	2,023	1,877	1,069	A.D.F.
558	5	1,648	1,569	1885	3	1:5 to 4:1	7,886	19	3,204	3,539	1,162	D.
559	1880	3	4:2 to 7:9	4,150	2,181	635	1,334	A.D.
560	1	181	168	1882	3	2:8 to 3:4	5,458	8	1,793	997	2,766	A.D.
561	5	33,113	39,324	1884	3	5:5 to 1:9	169,970	578	113,813	909	55,826	D.F.
562	5	1,118	947	1885	3	2:4 to 3:0	7,178	3,570	771	2,837	A.D.
563	5	1,075	725	1880	3	Nil to 3:3	4,851	2,772	630	1,449	A.D.
564	1	117	159	1884	3	2:6 to 2:9	4,058	372	1,655	375	2,400	A.D.

A.—The society's experience does not appear to have been compared with the tables used.

D.—The society charges uniform contributions for all ages at entry.

E.—Death benefits treated as re-assured with District.

F.—Valuation made by one of the public valuers under the Friendly Societies Act, 1875.

* Includes amount of negative value.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN

TABLE showing the ANNUAL RETURNS and VALUATIONS of 676

ANNUAL RETURNS—1881 to 1885.

NAME OF SOCIETY.	REGISTERED OFFICE.	Date of Estab- lish- ment.	No. of Members.
<i>YORKSHIRE—Continued.</i>			
Hope and Prosperity Foresters' Friendly.	Spangled Bull Inn, Earlsheaton, Dewabury	1862	100
Earl Wilton Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Spangled Bull Inn, Earlsheaton.	1835	566
Court Crown, A.O.F.	Mechanics' Institute, Eccleshill.	1834	230
Loyal Morning Star Lodge, N.I.O.O.F.	Wheatsheaf Inn, Albert-street, Goole	1864	153
Court Mount Moriah, A.O.F.	New Inn, Guiseley, Leeds	1834	151
Amicable Provident	Vestry Square Chapel, Halifax	1817	323
Woodlands Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Victoria Hall, Haworth, Kelghley	1844	218
L. St. Paul's Indep. Oddfellows Horsforth	Black Bull Inn, Horsforth	1828	572
Love Hovingham Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Mt Shovel Inn, Hovingham	1842	187
Grand Union Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Hope and Anchor, King-st., Huddersfield.	1865	574
Court Hotham, A.O.F.	Oddfellows' Hall, Hutton Cranawick, Hull.	1839	257
Travellers' Home Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Old Wheatsheaf, Hutton Ruddy, Yarm	1835	108
Light of the Valley Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	King's Head Inn, Keighley	1875	101
Good Intent Burial	Oddfellows' Hall, Lowgate, Kingston-n-Hull	1842	2,577
Loyal St. George Lodge, N.I.O.O.F.	Black Swan, Dock-st., Kingston-on-Hull	1858	152
J. R. Stephenson Lodge, U.O.F.G.	Spring Bank Hotel, Kingston-on-Hull	1868	101
Brownridge Lodge, U.O.F.G.	Protestant Hall, Kingston-on-Hull	1861	164
Loyal Bannister Lodge, N.I.O.O.F.	Portland Arms, Porter-st., Kingston-on-Hull	1872	582
Court Ansel, A.O.F.	Foresters' Hall, Kingston-on-Hull	1838	205
Court Land of Goshen, A.O.F.	White Swan Inn, Kippax, Leeds	1841	263
Green Elm Lodge, U.O.F.G.	Old Tree Inn, High-street, Kippax	1872	585
Bethesda Association Friendly	Wesleyan New Schoolrm, Holbeck, Leeds.	1834	278
Tulip Lodge, N.I.O.O.F.	Foresters' Arms, Cleveland-st., Leeds	1854	587
Rose of England Lodge, N.I.O.O.F.	Star and Garter Hotel, Leeds	1857	77
Samaritan Friendly	Little Holbeck Board Schls, Holbeck, Leeds	1862	321
Professional Gardeners' Friendly	Green Dragon Hotel, Guildford-st., Leeds.	1867	110
Sir Charles Napier Senate, A.O.R.	Ship Inn, Lee Moor, Stanley, Wakefield	1854	202
Bethell's Benefit	Hare and Hounds Inn, Leven, Hull	1838	201
Loftus Provident Benefit	Schoolroom, Liverton Mines, Loftus	1874	593
Court Dundas, A.O.F.	Town Hall, High-st, Loftus, Saltburn-by-Sea	1839	360
Keighley Economical District, A.O.F.	Masons' Arms Inn, Longcroft, Keighley	1834	432
Court Lily of the Vale, A.O.F.	Lord Nelson Inn, Luddenden, Manchester	1834	161
New Industry Lodge of Oddfellows F	White Horse Inn, Townend, Morley	1823	177
Hope at the Fountain Lodge Friendly	Commercial Inn, Commercial-st., Morley	1857	169
Poor Man's Guardian Lodge, A.S.	Black Swan Inn, Normanton	1834	278
Blooming Heather Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Golden Lion, Osmotherly, Northallerton	1835	108
Court Hopeful Royal Foresters' Friendly.	Spread Eagle Hotel, Penistone, Sheffield	1831	222
Loyal Hope Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	White Hart, Penistone Bridge, Penistone	1853	602
Frdly & Brthly Soc. of Tdsmen & Others	Black Moor Head Inn, Pontefract	1857	317
Alexander Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	King's Arms Inn, Green Side, Pudsey	1834	120
White Swan, I.O.F.	Seaton	1869	95
Pride of Craven Lodge, Settle, F.U.O.M.	Mechanics' Hall Buildings, Duke-st., Settle	1851	194
Court Forester's Hope, A.O.F.	Old Duke William Inn, Shelf	1834	96
Crown Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	New Inn, Low-street, Sherburn	1838	27
Court Langley, A.O.F.	New Inn, Sherburn	1873	199
Free Will Tent, I.O.R., S.U.	12, Bolckow-st., N. Skelton, Marske-by-Sea	1872	64
Society of Ancient Shepherds	Shepherds' Arms, Stainton Dale, Scarborough	1856	105
Sir Robert Peel Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Forge Tavern, Stubbins, Elsecar	1867	612
Court Victory's Pride, A.O.F.	Readingroom, Sutton-on-Hall	1858	199
Lord Bruce Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Oddfellows' Hall, Swainby, Northalton	1842	138
Independent Order of Druids	New Inn, Thornton-le-Dale, Pickering	1836	267
Freedom Lodge, O.D.	Blue Ball Inn, Thurstone, Penistone	1834	238
Saddleworth Friendly Family Burial	Hare and Hounds Inn, Upper Mill, Oldham	1881	8,190
Rose of Castle Howard Benefit	Boys' Schoolroom, Welburn, York	1837	118

a Number of years for which returns have been received.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES in ENGLAND and WALES, &c.—CONTINUED.

VALUATIONS AND QUINQUENNIAL RETURNS.

BENEFIT FUND. TOTAL			Year of Valuation.	RATE OF INTEREST PER CENT.		LIABILITIES.		ASSETS AND DEFICIENCIES.				Reference Letters (see Footnotes).	
a No. of Years.	Receipts.	Expendi- ture.		Used in Valuation.	Realised.	Present Value of Benefits	Other Liabili- ties (if any).	Present Value of Contri- butions.	Amount of Funds.	Other Assets (if any).	Deficiency.		
	£	£			£	£	£	£	£	£			
565	2	243	295	1881	3	4·3 to 5·3	3,926	1,196	788	299	1,643	A.D.
566	1	1884	3	3·5 to 4·4	11,120	3,203	2,112	5,805	A.D.
567	1	1,245	971	1884	3	4·0 to 4·5	6,031	3,093	1,694	1,244	A.
568	1	124	171	1881	3	Nil to 4·2	4,378	2,754	289	1,335	A.D.
569	4	486	402	1885	3	4·2	4,234	4	1,898	628	1,712	A.
570	5	1,550	1,144	1884	3½	3·7 to 4·0	8,965	129	3,107	3,968	2,019	D.F.
571	4	1,125	716	1885	3	1·4 to 3·3	7,188	2,795	2,151	2,242	A.D.
572	1885	3	3·0 to 3·6	3,754	6	1,629	668	1,463	F.
573	4	694	587	1885	3	2·3 to 3·8	5,410	12	2,243	629	2,550	F.D.
574	1885	3	4·4 to 5·9	5,153	7	2,590	983	1,587	D.F.
575	3	734	559	1885	3	2·5 to 2·6	6,808	3,496	2,019	1,293	A.D.
576	1	149	138	1880	3	1·4 to 1·5	4,010	1,893	703	1,414	F.
577	1	106	92	1882	3	7 to 2·6	3,287	1,788	407	1,092	A.D.
578	5	2,351	1,906	1884	3	3·7	10,013	6,181	2,532	1,300	D.
579	1	181	218	1885	3	2·2 to 3·1	4,893	2,540	283	2,070	A.D.
580	4	360	410	1885	3	1·7 to 2·4	2,623	2	1,278	57	1,230	A.D.
581	4	776	609	1885	3	2·0 to 2·5	4,301	2,889	409	1,003	A.D.
582	1881	3	2·2 to 2·7	3,223	1,809	302	1,112	A.D.
583	3	995	1,085	1884	3	3·2 to 3·3	5,131	1,875	3,542	484	1,938	1,042	D.E.
584	1	296	360	1881	3	3·0 to 3·3	6,246	3,743	596	1,907	A.D.
585	1885	3	Nil to 1·7	2,230	954	41	1,235	D.
586	5	1,767	1,561	1884	3	3·2	7,929	2,185	3,755	1,989	A.D.
587	1885	3	Don'tful.	2,124	980	75	31	1,038	D.
588	4	313	265	1885	3	Nil to 4·4	1,994	906	1,131	121	1,048	D.
589	2	746	540	1885	3	3·5 to 4·3	10,034	44	4,660	2,841	10	2,567	D.
590	5	500	373	1885	3	3·0 to 3·4	3,577	31	1,034	766	315	1,493	D.
591	4	809	846	1885	3	4 to 2·9	5,492	95	3,203	212	50	2,122	A.D.
592	2	459	439	1882	3	2·2 to 4·5	5,889	2,816	2,063	1,010	A.D.
593	1885	3	2·1 to 3·2	4,528	2,609	294	11	1,614
594	5	2,501	2,241	1884	3½	3·5 to 4·3	12,389	48	6,550	2,372	3,515	A.
595	1	120	86	1885	3	2·8 to 4·4	3,703	1,876	289	1,538	A.D.
596	1	153	152	1884	3	3·2 to 3·6	4,395	1,408	1,488	5	1,494	D.
597	5	1,172	838	1881	3	7 to 4·0	5,558	255	2,550	1,934	1,329	A.D.
598	2	433	470	1885	3	1·7 to 3·3	6,377	3,879	665	1,833	A.D.
599	5	1,554	1,507	1880	3	2·8 to 4·4	6,699	*927	4,192	1,224	1,610	D.F.
600	1	106	143	1885	3	1·8 to 2·5	2,669	1,358	253	1,058	F.
601	5	1,035	756	1884	3	3·1 to 3·9	6,017	370	2,963	1,524	1,900	A.D.
602	1885	4	2·2 to 5·2	6,190	2,924	1,999	1,267	A.D.
603	4	1,924	1,479	1882	3	5·9 to 8·3	9,520	3,194	2,416	3,910	A.D.
604	3	474	445	1885	3	3·7 to 4·0	3,561	1,596	919	1,046	D.F.
605	5	558	341	1885	3	4·0 to 5·1	2,923	1,071	581	1,271	A.D.F.
606	5	1,016	1,009	1885	3	3·4 to 3·8	5,759	250	2,711	1,164	2,134	D.F.
607	4	335	360	1884	3	1·5 to 3·6	2,955	587	890	569	679	1,404	A.D.E.
608	1	83	29	1880	3	Nil.	1,477	401	Nil	1,076	F.
609	5	902	699	1885	3	3·2 to 3·4	4,902	148	2,497	867	1,086
610	5	419	426	1881	3	Nil to 2·9	3,566	348	2,400	1	374	1,139	A.E.
611	5	515	532	1885	3	2·2 to 3·0	2,944	1,238	159	1,547	A.D.
612	1885	3	2·0 to 3·8	2,946	589	1,649	125	698	1,063	D.E.
613	4	915	552	1884	3	3·4 to 3·8	5,235	2,665	1,510	1,060	A.D.
614	5	918	942	1885	3	Nil to 4·1	5,001	13	2,272	610	2,132	F.
615	5	1,253	933	1881	3	3·4 to 3·6	7,654	2,964	2,281	2,409	A.D.
616	5	1,003	1,006	1884	3	3·4 to 3·9	5,633	2,774	1,018	1,841	A.D.
617	5	2,198	1,860	1885	3	3·3 to 3·7	12,376	*1,454	9,129	2,038	2,663	D.F.
618	3	391	380	1885	3	3·4 to 3·7	3,503	41	1,552	917	1,075	D.

A.—The society's experience does not appear to have been compared with the tables used.

D.—The society charges uniform contributions for all ages at entry.

E.—Death benefits treated as re-assured with District.

F.—Valuation made by one of the public valuers under the Friendly Societies Act.

* Includes amount of negative values.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN

TABLE showing the ANNUAL RETURNS and VALUATIONS of 676

ANNUAL RETURNS—1881 TO 1885.

NAME OF SOCIETY.	REGISTERED OFFICE.	Date of Establishment.	No. of Members.
YORKSHIRE—Continued.			
Atlas Lodge, Independent Druids	Falstaff Inn, Wicker	1877	276 619
Holbeck and New Wortley Sick and Burial Court Flower of England, A.O.F.	Zion School, New Wortley	1843	235 620
Lord Byron Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Town Hall, Yeadon	1842	92 621
Loyal Albion Lodge, N.I.O.O.F.	Barn's Hotel, Market-street, York	1845	254 622
Old York Ebor District, G.U.O.O.F.	Victoria Hall, York	1859	223 623
Lord Wenlock Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Prince of Wales Inn, Skeldergate, York	1861	1,298 624
York North Eastern Railway Friendly ..	Golden Lion, St. Sampson's-square, York ..	1864	625
	Coach and Horses, 42, Micklegate, York ..	1874	206 626
WALES.—CARDIGANSHIRE.			
F.Temperature Soc. of New Quay & Vicinity	New Quay, Llandyssil	1843	155 627
Penrhyncoch Friendly	Farmers' Arms, Penrhyncoch, Bow-st., R.S.O	1830	143 628
CARMARTHENSHIRE.			
Capel Hendre Friendly	Capel Hendre	1863	629
Llangunnon Natives Benefit	Star Inn, Llangunnon	1841	180 630
Britons	Edwinstford Arms Inn, Talley, Llandilo ..	1806	168 631
CARNARVONSHIRE.			
Ederyn Friendly	National Schoolroom, Ederyn	1859	212 632
Glan Ivor Mutual Assistance	Glan Moelyn School, Llanrug	1853	208 633
Caredigion Nant Machno Friendly	White Horse, Penmachno, Bettws-y-coed..	1839	190 634
DENBIGHSHIRE.			
Loyal Wynnstay Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U. ...	Hampden Arms Inn, Acrefair	1832	180 635
St. Peter's Lodge, I.O.F. Friendly	Hand Hotel, Chirk	1831	398 636
Chirk Union Friendly	Hand Hotel, Chirk	1825	312 637
Cader Dimel Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Goat Inn, Cymro, Corwen	1872	196 638
Lavar Friendly	New Inn, Glyn Ceiriog, Llangollen	1843	280 639
Rock of Horeb Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Black Horse Inn, Groes Pant, Ruabon	1870	100 640
North Wales Miners' Permanent Relief ..	Cerney Cottage, Mos*, Wrexham	1878	641
Alma Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Carnarvon Castle, Bridge-st., Wrexham ..	1873	642
FLINTSHIRE.			
St. Asaph Brotherly	Railway Inn, St. Asaph	1829	643
Towers of Cambria Lodge, O.D.	Cross Keys Inn, Holywell	1865	94 644
Court Jackson's Glory, A.O.F.	Rising Sun Inn, Nannerch, Mold	1840	178 645
GLAMORGANSHIRE.			
Loyal Longdon Lodge, I.O.L.A., M.U.	Globe Inn, Aberavon	1863	157 646
Court Loyal Tonda, A.O.F.	Star Inn, Aberkenfig	1861	647
Cardiff Shipwrights' Provident Benefit ..	Cardigan Arms Inn, Bute Town, Cardiff ..	1838	426 648
Monmouthshire & S.W. Miners' Per. Prov.	Dock Chambers, Bute-street, Cardiff	1881	37,459 649
Cwmaman Benefit	British Schoolroom, Cwmaman, Aberdare ..	1873	917 650
Cyrrwen Bee Friendly	Leigh Arms Inn, Llangnick	1843	651
White Hart Inn, Llanvabon	White Hart Inn, Llanvabon	1844	61 652
Lily of the Valley Friendly	White Hart Inn, Llanvabon	1863	147 653
Loyal Silurian Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Swan Inn, Bridge-street, Maesteg	1854	654
Good Samaritan or Tradesmen & Fireman's	Globe Inn, Merthyr Tydvil	1848	655
Court Pride of Penclawdd, A.O.F.	Ship and Castle Inn, Penclawdd	1875	127 656
Court R. D. Burnie, A.O.F.	Mermaid Inn, Port Tennant, Swansea	1875	113 657
Loyal Sketty Lodge, G.U.O.O.F.	Cross Inn, Sketty	1844	658
Court Vivian, A.O.F.	Bosh Inn, Sketty	1859	659
Court Robin Hood, A.O.F.	Robin Hood Hotel, Fleet-st., Swansea	1860	308 660

a Number of years for which returns have been received.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES in ENGLAND AND WALES, &c.—CONTINUED.

VALUATIONS AND QUINQUENNIAL RETURNS.

BENEFIT FUND, TOTAL			Year of Valuation.	RATE OF INTEREST PER CENT.		LIABILITIES.		ASSETS AND DEFICIENCIES.				Reference Letters (see Footnotes).	
a No. of Years.	Receipts.	Expenditure.		Used in Valuation.	Realised.	Present Value of Benefits	Other Liabilities. (if any).	Present Value of Contributions.	Amount of Funds.	Other Assets (if any).	Deficiency.		
	£	£				£	£	£	£	£	£		
619	5	1,988	1,243	1885	3	3·1 to 3·7	8,349	435	5,699	1,800	1,686	A.D.
620	5	1,378	1,118	1885	3	3·5	6,644	2,419	2,311	1,914	A.D.
621	4	312	225	1885	3	5·2	2,895	34	1,446	380	1,103	A.
622	4	1,033	820	1884	3	2·6 to 3·0	6,429	200	4,143	1,514	1,062	A.D.
623	1	235	210	1884	3	Nil to 2·2	5,828	31	3,253	618	1,988	A.D.
624	2	508	467	1881	3	·7 to 2·5	9,667	5,240	322	4,105	A.D.
625	1885	3	2·2 to 3·5	6,988	531	3,548	1,737	2,239	A.D.
626	4	642	591	1885	3	Nil to 1·6	5,438	7	2,033	150	64	3,208	A.D.
627	1	124	125	1881	3	2·7 to 4·4	3,632	1,442	462	1,728	A.D.
628	4	618	638	1885	3	2·6 to 3·2	4,340	2,289	551	1,500	F.
629	5	1885	3	2·0 to 2·6	2,085	664	294	1,127	A.D.
630	4	519	512	1881	3	1·5 to 4·3	3,560	1,712	846	1,002	A.D.
631	5	609	505	1885	3½	3·5 to 3·8	3,982	1,556	759	1,667	A.D.
632	2	276	131	1884	3	2·5	5,298	2,266	1,219	1,813
633	4	845	899	1885	3	3·0	4,088	2,055	509	1,524	A.D.
634	5	861	986	1884	3	2·5	5,365	1,973	432	2,960	A.D.
635	4	862	978	1880	3	Doubtful.	6,123	3,727	238	2,158	D.
636	5	2,771	2,774	1881	3	3·4 to 4·4	11,246	7,437	2,490	1,519	A.D.
637	5	2,018	1,960	1884	3	3·3 to 3·8	9,819	5,557	2,151	2,111	A.D.
638	1	160	214	1880	3	Nil	4,033	1,894	847	1,292	D.F.
639	5	1,387	1,271	1884	3	4·0 to 4·2	7,091	2,754	1,841	2,496	A.D.
640	1	94	78	1880	3	Nil	3,183	1,489	227	1,467	F.
641	1883	3	1·0 to 2·8	13,599	5,691	7,908
642	1880	3	1·7 to 4·8	5,043	179	3,756	865	1,101	A.D.
643	1881	3	2·0 to 2·6	2,713	873	395	1,445	A.D.
644	3	321	270	1881	3	2·4 to 2·7	3,012	1,580	121	128	1,183	A.D.
645	5	895	569	1884	3	1·9 to 2·5	4,978	1,131	2,675	1,076	1,120	1,238	E.
646	4	659	647	1885	3	3·3 to 4·1	4,238	1,013	2,171	656	1,013	1,411	D.
647	1885	3½	·5 to 5·0	6,209	219	4,067	1,150	33	1,178	D.
648	3	1,796	1,917	1885	4	3·1 to 4·9	19,126	6,044	1,904	11,778	A.D.
649	3	50,546	38,531	1885	3	Nil to 2·6	32,267	27,031	+ 5,236
650	5	2,449	2,279	1884	3	1·0 to 2·2	11,939	10,476	455	1,008	A.D.
651	1882	3	2·4 to 3·5	2,904	1,337	447	1,120	A.D.
652	3	213	216	1881	3	3·4 to 4·2	2,404	736	412	1,256	A.D.
653	2	141	195	1881	3	3·6 to 4·4	2,345	709	303	1,333	A.D.
654	1880	3	3·5 to 4·3	5,994	2,504	862	2,628	F.
655	1885	3	2·8 to 3·1	3,306	1,611	646	1,049	A.D.
656	3	496	465	1885	3	Nil to 3·2	3,465	1,944	109	1,412	A.D.
657	3	393	380	1885	3	Nil to 4·1	3,206	1,946	68	1,192	A.D.
658	1881	4	4·0 to 5·0	4,655	2,025	698	93	1,839	A.D.
659	1884	3½	3·1 to 4·0	5,456	2,337	388	2,731	A.D.
660	2	770	641	1885	3	2·5 to 3·5	9,434	5,669	753	3,013	A.D.

A.—The society's experience does not appear to have been compared with the tables used.

D.—The society charges uniform contributions for all ages at entry.

E.—Death benefits treated as re-assured with District.

F.—Valuation made by one of the public valuers under the Friendly Societies Act.

* The valuer points out that in addition to this deficiency on incumbent liabilities, there is a yearly deficiency in respect of current risks of £2,029 for every 10,000 members.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN

TABLE showing the ANNUAL RETURNS and VALUATIONS of 676

ANNUAL RETURNS—1881 to 1885.

NAME OF SOCIETY.	REGISTERED OFFICE.	Date of Establishment.	No. of Members.
<i>GLAMORGANSHIRE—Continued.</i>			
Court Rose of Glentawe, A.O.F.	Maltster's Arms, Carmarthen-rd., Swansea	1869	113 661
Court Mariners' Pride, A.O.F.	New Oxford, Lower Oxford-st., Swansea..	1872	109 662
Court Thomas, A.O.F.	Wauwen Inn, Wauwen	1873	120 663
<i>MERIONETHSHIRE.</i>			
Aberdovey Friendly	13, Sea View-terrace, Aberdovey.....	1856	130 664
Slate Quarries Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Market Hall, Dolygarregddu, Festiniog ..	1873	330 665
Loyal Moelwyn Lodge, I.O.O.F., M.U.	Shiloh Vestry-room, Festinog	1837	328 666
Llandrillo Friendly	Llandrillo, Corwen	1836	115 667
<i>MONTGOMERYSHIRE.</i>			
Good Samaritan Friendly	Lion Inn, Llansaintfraid, R.S.O.....	1831	176 668
Welshpool Second Friendly	Buck Inn, High-street, Welshpool	1795	449 669
Court Powis, A.O.F.	Gullet Inn, Welshpool.....	1842	314 670
First Friendly	Bull Inn, Welshpool.....	1773	293 671
<i>PEMBROKESHIRE.</i>			
Llawhaden Castle Friendly	New Inn, Llawhaden, Narberth	1841	219 672
<i>RADNORSHIRE.</i>			
St. David's Lodge	Bridge End Inn, Howey, Llandrindod, Wells	1862	.. 673
N.F. Rhayader & Llans'tfraid Cwmdauddwr	Schlrn, Llans'tfr'd Cwmdauddwr, Rhayader	1824	583 674
New Club	Mr. J. G. Abel, Hereford-st., Presteign....	1805	308 675
<i>CHANNEL ISLANDS.</i>			
Jersey Victoria Benefit.....	Lyric Hall, Cattle-st., St. Helier's, Jersey..	1837	179 676

a Number of years for which returns have been received.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES in ENGLAND and WALES, &c.—CONTINUED.

VALUATIONS AND QUINQUENNIAL RETURNS.

BENEFIT FUND. TOTAL			Year of Valuation.	RATE OF INTEREST PER CENT.		LIABILITIES.		ASSETS AND DEFICIENCIES.				Reference Letters (see Footnotes).	
a No. of Years.	Receipts.	Expendi- ture.		Used in Valuation.	Realised.	Present Value of Benefits	Other Liabili- ties. (if any).	Present Value of Contributions.	Amount of Funds.	Other Assets (if any).	Deficiency.		
	£	£				£	£	£	£	£	£		
661	1	151	115	1885	3	2·0 to 3·4	4,221	2,627	406	1,188	A.D.
662	1	119	108	1885	3	Nil to 2·5	3,093	1,678	80	1,935	A.D.
663	1	94	91	1885	3	2·5 to 3·2	4,055	2,148	296	1,611
664	1	104	124	1884	3½	2·5	3,145	1,545	426	1,174	A.D.
665	2	603	557	1880	3	2·2 to 2·6	7,905	5,190	437	2,278	F.
666	1	257	412	1880	3	2·3 to 3·4	9,887	5,142	438	4,307	D.F.
667	5	469	563	1884	3	2·4 to 2·8	1,985	640	1,164	123	1,383	D.
668	5	861	1,180	1885	3	1·8 to 2·4	3,294	440	1,768	347	1,619	A.D.
669	2	1,758	2,126	1881	3	3·7 to 4·4	16,380	5,268	5,436	5,676
670	5	2,389	2,422	1885	3½	3·2 to 3·8	11,901	5,120	4,041	2,740	A.D.
671	1	391	381	1881	3	3·5 to 4·2	10,941	675	3,519	3,677	4,420	A.D.
672	5	1,094	811	1884	3	2·4 to 2·7	5,246	382	2,551	1,371	586	1,170	A.D.
673	1881	3	2·4 to 3·0	2,113	828	79	1,206	A.D.
674	5	2,815	2,729	1884	3	3·2 to 3·5	17,337	60	5,814	4,053	7,530	D.
675	5	2,077	2,425	1884	3	3·5 to 4·5	10,512	19	3,837	2,221	4,473	D.
676	5	1,256	1,450	1884	3	2·2 to 4·0	6,439	2,670	1,297	2,472	A.D.

A.—The society's experience does not appear to have been compared with the tables used.

D.—The society charges uniform contributions for all ages at entry.

F.—Valuation made by one of the public valuers under the Friendly Societies Act, 1875.

IMPORT DUTIES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

NOTE.—In this Table subdivisions of Articles of a similar nature, and subject to the same Rate of Duty, are classed under one head.

TABLE showing the several ARTICLES subject to IMPORT DUTIES in the UNITED KINGDOM, and the RATE of DUTY levied upon each ARTICLE distinguishing the DUTIES as ORDINARY IMPORT DUTIES and those levied to countervail EXCISE and other INLAND REVENUE upon BRITISH PRODUCTIONS, according to the TARIFF in operation at 14th August, 1888.

ARTICLES.		Rates of Duty.
ORDINARY IMPORT DUTIES.		
COCOA	per lb.	£ s. d. 0 0 1
Husks and Shells	per cwt.	0 2 0
Cocoa or Chocolate, ground, prepared or in any way manufactured	per lb.	0 0 2
COFFEE, raw	per cwt.	0 14 0
Kiln-dried, roasted, or ground	per lb.	0 0 2
Coffee and chicory, mixed	,,	0 0 2
CHICORY—		
Raw or kiln-dried	per cwt.	0 13 3
Roasted or ground	per lb.	0 0 2
FRUIT:—		
Currants, Figs and Fig Cake, Plums, Prunes, and Raisins	per cwt.	0 7 0
TEA	per lb.	0 0 6
TOBACCO:—		
Unmanufactured, Stemmed, or Unstemmed:—		
Containing in every 100lbs. { 10lbs. or more of moisture.	,,	0 3 2
weight thereof { less than 10lbs. of moisture.	,,	0 3 6
TOBACCO—Manufactured:—		
Cigars	,,	0 5 0
Cavendish or Negrohead	,,	0 4 6
Snuff containing in every { more than 13lbs. of moisture..	,,	0 3 9
100lbs. weight thereof { not more than 13lbs. of moisture	,,	0 4 6
Other Manufactured Tobacco, and Cavendish or Negro- head Manufactured in Bond from Unmanufactured Tobacco	,,	0 4 0

IMPORT DUTIES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

ARTICLES.		Rates of Duty.
		£ s. d.
*WINE:—		
Not exceeding 30 degrees of Proof Spirit	per gallon	0 1 0
Exceeding 30 degrees but not exceeding 42 degrees of Proof Spirit	"	0 2 6
And for every degree or part of a degree beyond the highest above charged, an additional duty	"	0 0 3
Degree not to include fractions of next higher degree. Wine includes lees of Wine.		
Additional duty on Sparkling Wine Imported in Bottle—		
Not exceeding the proved market value of 15s. per gallon	"	0 1 0
Exceeding the proved market value of 15s. per gallon ..	"	0 2 6
Beer and Ale, the worts of which were, before fermenta- tion, of a specific gravity of 1,057 degrees	{ per barrel } { of 36 gal. }	0 6 6
And so on in proportion for any difference in gravity.		And so in proportion for any difference in gravity.
BEER, MUM, AND SPRUCE:—		
The worts of which were, before fermentation, of a specific gravity—		
Not exceeding 1,215 degrees	"	1 6 0
Exceeding 1,215 degrees	"	1 10 6
IMPORT DUTIES TO COUNTERVAIL EXCISE DUTY UPON BRITISH SPIRITS.		
SPIRITS AND STRONG WATERS:—		
Rum, Brandy, Geneva, and Unenumerated Spirits	{ per proof } { gallon }	0 10 4
Perfumed Spirits and Cologne Water	per gallon	0 16 6
Liquers, Cordials, or other preparations containing Spirits, in Bottle, not tested for strength.....	"	0 14 0
Chloroform	per lb.	0 3 0
Chloral Hydrate	"	0 1 3
Collodion	per gallon	1 4 0
Ether, Acetic	per lb.	0 1 9
Ether, Sulphuric	per gallon	1 5 0
Ethyl, Iodide of	"	0 13 0
Soap, Transparent, in the manufacture of which Spirit has been used	per lb.	0 0 3
Varnish containing Alcohol—See Spirit Duties.		
IMPORT DUTIES TO COUNTERVAIL STAMP DUTIES ON BRITISH MADE ARTICLES.		
CARDS, Playing	{ per doz. } { packs }	0 3 9
PLATE, Gold	per oz. Troy	0 17 0
" Silver	"	0 1 6

* The total number of articles and subdivisions of articles in the English Tariff of Import Duties was 53 in May, 1875, as compared with 397 in 1859, and 1,046 in 1840. No Export Duties are levied in the United Kingdom.

IMPORTS.

STATEMENT showing the AVERAGE PRICE of the undermentioned ARTICLES IMPORTED into the UNITED KINGDOM, DEDUCED from the QUANTITIES and VALUES (as stated in the Statistical Abstracts of the United Kingdom), in EACH of the YEARS from 1854 to 1886.

[Extracted from a Parliamentary paper prepared by Mr. R. GIFFEN, of the Board of Trade.]

YEARS.	ANIMALS.			Bacon. Per cwt.	Hams. Per cwt.	Beef. Per cwt.	Butter and Butter- ine. Per cwt.	Candles, Stearine. doz. lbs.	Cheese. Per cwt.
	Oxen and Bulls. Each.	Calves. Each.	Sheep and Lambs. Each.						
	£	£	s.	s.	s.	s.	£	d.	£
1854	12-00	4-00	29-61	41-59	60-00	39-30	4-50	151-44	2-33
1855	17-00	4-00	34-78	50-64	66-00	41-85	4-58	149-46	2-68
1856	17-50	4-50	36-15	57-09	69-50	37-96	5-13	144-70	2-69
1857	18-75	4-00	46-95	56-75	68-75	49-59	4-67	144-62	2-48
1858	14-57	3-92	44-52	48-21	59-01	38-78	4-75	147-93	2-34
1859	17-44	4-25	35-53	53-55	56-57	41-12	4-89	148-82	2-56
1860	18-18	5-27	34-60	58-11	68-69	31-89	4-85	151-51	2-74
1861	17-92	4-83	39-37	52-04	51-34	34-35	4-94	123-37	2-32
1862	17-12	4-60	38-02	36-83	36-74	35-78	4-75	124-59	2-20
1863	16-05	4-23	31-09	28-65	34-02	29-74	4-60	114-19	2-50
1864	16-46	4-88	35-22	42-63	44-16	29-99	5-36	102-05	2-61
1865	18-71	4-33	39-11	60-68	54-02	34-49	5-49	91-59	2-89
1866	18-82	5-10	38-04	58-77	58-87	48-42	5-12	88-15	3-21
1867	19-07	4-89	35-04	51-86	51-39	50-52	5-13	94-27	2-82
1868	17-43	4-44	30-90	55-49	59-65	44-93	5-78	94-09	2-94
1869	19-63	4-80	34-35	65-52	68-87	36-68	5-50	91-50	3-15
1870	18-00	4-22	34-37	62-14	66-72	42-78	5-86	92-88	3-14
1871	17-83	3-50	39-03	49-20	59-95	42-06	5-20	88-85	2-75
1872	19-28	3-36	41-17	41-00	51-91	36-72	5-30	93-01	2-87
1873	20-25	4-95	42-83	40-88	54-68	39-90	5-44	93-33	2-99
1874	19-99	4-73	42-44	45-74	55-14	39-99	5-59	93-81	3-02
1875	21-52	4-77	44-35	52-31	59-47	42-15	5-79	91-79	2-89
1876	21-04	4-74	42-77	53-43	59-75	45-66	5-86	88-01	2-77
1877	21-82	4-78	48-22	47-87	54-40	49-71	5-83	88-30	2-88
1878	22-61	4-88	48-69	38-59	48-03	48-45	5-54	81-85	2-51
1879	21-88	4-74	47-68	34-37	43-77	47-71	5-07	74-34	2-14
1880	22-05	4-75	48-16	40-03	46-53	47-64	5-22	69-30	2-87
1881	21-76	4-66	46-88	45-86	49-04	49-85	5-31	70-76	2-85
1882	21-25	4-69	45-51	53-04	55-56	51-57	5-23	*67-36	2-80
1883	21-57	4-67	45-13	53-08	60-55	52-91	5-04	*67-94	2-72
1884	21-99	4-73	45-49	49-24	59-15	51-31	5-07	*72-60	2-60
1885	21-14	4-56	43-28	40-55	50-91	49-01	4-82	*68-91	2-22
1886	18-06	3-93	38-70	37-73	47-43	43-68	4-57	*63-42	2-23

* From 1854 to 1870 the prices have been deduced from the computed real values, and from 1871 to 1886 inclusive, from the declared values of the articles imported.

* Average price of Candles of all sorts. The price of a dozen lbs. of Candles of all sorts for 1831 would be 70-49d., a decrease of 0-38 per cent, on the price of Stearine only.

I M P O R T S .

STATEMENT showing the AVERAGE PRICE of the undermentioned ARTICLES IMPORTED into the UNITED KINGDOM, DEDUCED from the QUANTITIES and VALUES (as stated in the Statistical Abstracts of the United Kingdom), in EACH of the YEARS from 1854 to 1886.

[Extracted from a Parliamentary paper prepared by Mr. R. GIFFEN, of the Board of Trade.]

YEARS.	Cocoa.	Coffee.	CORN.							Flour of other kinds. Per cwt.
			Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Maize.	Other kinds.	Flour of Wheat.		
			Per cwt.	Per cwt.	Per cwt.	Per cwt.	Per cwt.	Per cwt.		
	d.	£	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.	
1854	3·34	2·65	15·73	8·47	9·87	9·50	10·15	21·78	*—	
1855	4·64	2·96	16·75	9·23	9·40	10·14	9·59	24·20	*—	
1856	5·49	2·94	14·41	8·96	8·73	7·43	8·49	20·54	*—	
1857	8·86	3·27	12·84	9·30	8·42	8·26	8·57	18·03	7·32	
1858	6·03	3·21	9·85	7·20	7·70	7·04	7·96	16·54	8·40	
1859	5·69	3·35	10·05	7·37	7·54	6·69	8·06	14·38	8·09	
1860	7·31	3·44	12·99	8·90	8·33	7·98	8·53	16·99	11·28	
1861	6·42	3·52	12·72	8·52	8·01	7·37	8·14	16·08	12·13	
1862	6·48	3·93	11·31	7·60	7·55	6·53	7·52	14·95	9·57	
1863	6·24	3·97	9·86	7·65	6·82	6·35	7·35	13·50	8·48	
1864	6·66	3·69	9·20	6·60	6·57	6·29	7·44	12·55	8·38	
1865	7·08	3·73	9·33	6·46	7·18	6·30	7·98	13·44	7·74	
1866	8·07	3·61	11·21	8·88	8·21	6·33	8·43	15·27	8·94	
1867	6·96	3·55	14·42	9·97	9·18	8·98	8·85	19·59	14·56	
1868	5·90	3·13	13·52	10·16	9·56	8·43	9·55	18·31	11·48	
1869	5·90	3·18	10·35	8·39	8·44	6·72	8·69	14·04	9·47	
1870	6·04	3·08	10·53	7·85	8·09	6·91	8·42	14·09	12·09	
1871	5·45	3·15	11·84	7·93	7·64	7·69	8·53	17·59	20·95	
1872	7·45	3·54	12·42	8·23	7·28	7·09	8·19	18·63	15·71	
1873	7·43	4·42	13·01	8·69	8·06	7·06	8·55	18·83	15·72	
1874	7·13	5·03	12·15	9·34	8·99	8·46	9·27	18·23	14·62	
1875	6·50	4·73	10·61	8·39	8·70	7·95	9·02	15·87	14·67	
1876	6·57	4·68	10·43	7·67	8·24	6·39	8·20	15·91	12·66	
1877	7·86	4·83	12·49	8·33	7·73	6·47	7·64	18·46	13·46	
1878	9·15	4·66	10·99	7·83	7·14	6·04	7·88	17·33	12·50	
1879	10·00	4·40	10·56	8·32	6·68	5·43	7·67	15·85	12·10	
1880	8·86	4·44	11·08	8·56	7·14	6·00	8·15	16·49	12·11	
1881	8·27	3·87	11·04	8·30	7·32	6·22	8·04	16·21	12·17	
1882	7·51	3·81	10·67	7·12	6·75	7·15	7·81	16·33	10·09	
1883	7·97	3·51	9·81	6·98	6·62	6·53	7·68	15·12	8·15	
1884	8·38	3·30	8·41	6·52	6·49	5·89	6·68	13·47	9·19	
1885	8·43	3·19	7·83	5·90	6·51	5·39	6·35	12·19	9·34	
1886	7·85	3·27	7·55	5·78	5·89	4·91	6·20	11·20	9·71	

* From 1854 to 1870 the prices have been deduced from the computed real values, and from 1871 to 1886 inclusive, from the declared values of the articles imported.

* Cannot be given.

IMPORTS.

STATEMENT showing the AVERAGE PRICE of the undermentioned ARTICLES IMPORTED into the UNITED KINGDOM, DEDUCED from the QUANTITIES and VALUES (as stated in the Statistical Abstracts of the United Kingdom), in EACH of the YEARS from 1854 to 1886.

[Extracted from a Parliamentary paper prepared by Mr. R. GIFFEN, of the Board of Trade.]

YEARS.	Eggs. Per doz.	FRUIT.			Hides, Dry and Wet. Per cwt.	Hops. Per cwt.	Lard. Per cwt.	Leather. Per lb.	Leather Gloves. Per pair.
		Currants. Per cwt.	Raisins. Per cwt.	Oranges and Lemons. Per bush.					
	d.	s.	s.	s.	£	£	s.	d.	d.
1854	5·40	21·73	31·55	9·02	2·52	9·52	51·50	22·35	15·44
1855	6·84	64·63	29·48	10·90	2·90	6·97	52·50	18·86	15·09
1856	6·84	55·26	45·58	12·27	3·73	2·50	61·97	26·47	18·06
1857	7·20	37·09	45·26	12·11	4·06	2·94	65·61	23·95	20·08
1858	6·49	26·28	29·20	10·82	2·97	2·82	53·42	17·79	24·15
1859	6·52	29·96	35·56	10·87	3·44	2·25	55·12	21·63	26·03
1860	8·22	22·58	33·02	10·23	3·44	8·25	59·29	20·66	26·01
1861	7·80	22·03	28·59	10·33	3·04	4·41	53·23	18·46	26·00
1862	7·36	19·96	25·52	12·32	2·93	5·40	42·30	20·39	26·00
1863	7·27	21·32	27·53	11·27	2·72	4·25	38·55	21·74	26·00
1864	7·17	18·83	29·22	10·71	2·79	5·57	45·14	20·21	25·99
1865	7·34	17·08	30·99	10·28	2·62	5·57	68·43	19·93	26·00
1866	7·26	19·96	28·56	10·39	2·57	6·63	70·64	20·66	27·00
1867	7·16	18·15	28·74	10·25	2·75	5·49	50·66	20·38	27·44
1868	7·57	17·45	32·84	9·70	3·07	2·98	64·36	19·90	28·00
1869	7·34	24·71	35·68	9·57	3·03	3·41	72·71	19·97	26·00
1870	7·37	22·63	32·48	6·70	3·21	3·35	66·81	19·11	26·00
1871	9·09	27·99	33·13	8·49	2·99	4·09	54·86	18·39	23·66
1872	9·55	27·82	37·23	9·68	3·42	5·00	45·21	18·06	26·67
1873	10·29	25·73	35·26	9·74	3·53	4·91	44·37	17·58	26·76
1874	10·30	26·54	36·25	9·67	3·63	6·36	47·26	19·64	27·47
1875	9·95	26·93	37·71	9·35	3·48	4·63	60·52	17·84	25·77
1876	10·02	28·04	36·26	8·41	3·13	4·56	56·20	17·96	24·59
1877	9·48	28·09	34·22	8·77	3·09	4·68	49·70	17·06	24·45
1878	9·23	26·03	31·66	8·28	2·93	3·74	39·35	15·78	24·53
1879	8·62	25·69	34·35	7·68	2·88	4·64	33·80	18·13	24·20
1880	8·61	26·16	36·88	8·00	3·12	4·60	39·94	17·97	23·94
1881	8·84	27·42	36·59	7·65	3·18	4·71	51·44	17·37	23·95
1882	8·44	26·72	37·45	7·86	3·15	9·27	55·95	16·82	23·87
1883	8·37	27·72	35·97	7·62	3·18	8·39	52·65	17·56	23·25
1884	8·44	26·67	34·16	7·18	3·19	6·29	43·87	16·91	22·37
1885	8·42	25·85	32·68	6·80	3·15	3·75	36·88	17·13	21·94
1886	8·02	25·65	32·94	6·78	2·96	2·91	34·50	17·08	21·70

† From 1854 to 1870 the prices have been deduced from the computed real values, and from 1871 to 1886 inclusive, from the declared values of the articles imported.

I M P O R T S .

STATEMENT showing the AVERAGE PRICE of the undermentioned ARTICLES IMPORTED into the UNITED KINGDOM, DEDUCED from the QUANTITIES and VALUES (as stated in the Statistical Abstracts of the United Kingdom), in EACH of the YEARS from 1854 to 1886.

[Extracted from a Parliamentary paper prepared by Mr. R. GIFFEN, of the Board of Trade.]

M E T A L S .

YEARS.	M E T A L S .							
	COPPER.			Iron in Bars.	Lead, Pig and Sheet.	Tin in Blocks, Ingots, Bars, or Slabs and Regulus.	ZINC.	
	Ore.	Regulus.	Un-wrought and Partly Wrought.				Crude in Cakes.	Manu- factures.
	Per ton.	Per ton.	Per ton.	Per ton.	Per ton.	Per cwt.	Per ton.	Per cwt.
1854 ..	£ 18.66	£ 45.00	£ 120.60	£ 12.65	£ 21.50	£ 5.94	£ 23.50	£ —
1855 ..	17.21	51.00	121.23	14.50	22.33	5.90	23.62	—
1856 ..	18.93	51.50	111.10	14.94	23.15	6.78	25.85	—
1857 ..	16.31	47.80	114.06	13.32	22.56	6.45	29.74	1.75
1858 ..	17.06	43.20	100.54	12.58	20.81	5.95	24.09	1.57
1859 ..	17.21	44.40	103.18	12.72	21.35	6.87	20.70	1.38
1860 ..	17.26	42.55	96.89	12.20	21.13	6.65	20.19	1.42
1861 ..	15.93	40.69	89.54	11.13	19.04	5.96	17.62	1.18
1862 ..	15.33	38.80	89.90	10.99	19.44	5.79	18.11	1.16
1863 ..	14.65	38.23	90.52	11.32	19.54	6.00	18.39	1.18
1864 ..	15.23	39.59	91.43	11.59	19.97	5.07	22.21	1.37
1865 ..	15.03	36.75	89.63	11.35	19.22	4.65	21.82	1.30
1866 ..	13.01	34.65	79.11	10.42	19.44	4.02	21.55	1.44
1867 ..	11.71	32.44	73.57	10.22	18.75	4.43	21.19	1.34
1868 ..	12.51	33.46	71.88	9.29	18.08	4.84	20.27	1.28
1869 ..	11.44	30.26	70.07	9.09	18.30	6.16	20.33	1.26
1870 ..	11.89	28.67	67.54	9.00	17.63	6.37	18.40	1.18
1871 ..	13.65	35.77	67.65	9.52	21.47	6.34	20.55	1.18
1872 ..	17.23	41.12	92.01	11.19	21.89	6.92	20.30	1.32
1873 ..	16.54	40.80	88.09	13.24	24.55	6.70	23.38	1.47
1874 ..	14.91	38.18	83.07	14.41	22.78	4.91	22.21	1.47
1875 ..	13.78	39.52	84.95	14.70	22.57	4.33	22.57	1.44
1876 ..	12.38	36.81	78.67	12.84	21.70	3.77	22.58	1.40
1877 ..	10.10	35.66	71.82	10.65	21.34	3.49	20.49	1.29
1878 ..	8.65	34.40	64.95	9.90	18.15	3.13	18.64	1.19
1879 ..	8.69	32.45	60.07	9.19	15.00	3.41	16.62	1.12
1880 ..	9.37	36.43	66.57	10.12	16.44	4.45	18.94	1.16
1881 ..	7.81	36.60	64.55	12.28	14.84	4.61	16.40	1.07
1882 ..	9.73	32.95	68.81	10.03	14.42	5.23	16.93	1.09
1883 ..	10.34	31.83	65.04	10.06	12.83	4.69	15.70	1.00
1884 ..	11.10	28.77	56.30	10.10	11.21	4.07	14.69	0.97
1885 ..	7.04	24.70	46.92	9.95	11.21	4.23	14.11	0.92
1886 ..	6.85	22.74	42.30	9.07	12.73	4.81	14.32	0.90

¶ From 1854 to 1870 the prices have been deduced from the computed real values, and from 1871 to 1886 inclusive, from the declared values of the articles imported.

* Cannot be given.

I M P O R T S .

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[Extracted from a Parliamentary paper prepared by Mr. R. GIFFEN, of the Board of Trade.]

YEARS.	MEAT.		OIL.						
	Salted or Fresh.	Pre-served, other than Salted.	Train.	Spermaceti or Head Matter.	Palm.	Cocoa Nut.	Olive.	Seed.	Turpentine
	Per cwt.	Per cwt.	Per ton.	Per ton.	Per cwt.	Per cwt.	Per ton.	Per ton.	Per cwt.
1854	£ —	£ —	40·60	107·75	s. 46·00	s. 49·00	£ 57·87	£ 46·41	s. 44·50
1855	£ —	£ —	48·16	125·35	43·50	44·00	55·48	56·59	34·83
1856	£ —	£ —	47·00	106·50	43·00	42·00	52·52	49·14	33·75
1857	2·25	3·50	42·36	82·28	43·72	47·32	55·35	44·79	38·00
1858	2·00	3·50	35·20	86·53	38·89	38·01	47·83	40·54	39·87
1859	2·16	3·50	32·62	94·91	45·05	41·23	50·59	36·98	36·48
1860	2·50	3·50	33·39	100·91	44·67	47·16	59·83	42·03	33·69
1861	2·50	3·50	35·64	95·85	42·68	46·97	56·85	40·63	47·35
1862	2·50	3·50	42·08	89·12	39·83	52·23	57·42	47·31	90·21
1863	2·50	3·50	46·71	80·72	35·93	47·06	57·30	44·05	77·01
1864	2·50	3·50	46·31	68·17	33·65	38·17	57·38	42·70	69·50
1865	2·50	3·50	44·27	102·01	36·32	43·24	52·64	46·50	50·34
1866	2·79	3·50	45·95	124·05	40·21	46·70	57·13	44·63	40·27
1867	2·80	3·32	40·23	115·74	38·62	49·67	62·24	40·70	30·57
1868	2·80	2·91	37·08	95·61	39·41	50·16	67·49	35·13	29·21
1869	2·80	2·93	39·38	94·27	33·89	43·33	52·83	38·47	28·90
1870	2·80	2·88	37·31	83·89	36·48	39·54	51·11	44·30	30·06
1871	2·55	2·60	33·01	83·71	34·75	37·51	48·56	39·06	35·59
1872	2·50	2·70	34·79	89·78	35·87	37·90	49·66	39·53	42·68
1873	2·71	2·81	34·14	89·61	33·67	34·53	44·39	38·27	35·87
1874	2·81	2·85	32·72	94·02	33·57	36·00	44·78	35·37	27·13
1875	2·89	3·46	32·90	95·75	33·35	37·56	43·98	33·43	23·72
1876	3·05	3·13	33·07	90·23	34·77	37·86	45·34	35·65	23·02
1877	2·99	3·06	32·78	86·04	35·62	38·64	47·45	38·44	25·22
1878	2·93	2·99	29·32	69·13	34·80	43·47	49·90	36·33	22·09
1879	2·88	2·98	25·73	56·74	30·52	39·81	45·00	32·03	22·58
1880	2·88	2·91	26·59	67·12	29·43	33·93	44·78	30·91	27·89
1881	2·90	2·85	27·90	63·45	29·09	29·77	40·87	31·33	34·90
1882	3·35	3·02	29·40	67·72	30·49	31·40	40·39	32·87	35·75
1883	2·96	2·87	29·68	65·51	35·11	34·69	38·61	34·82	31·75
1884	2·82	3·09	27·96	56·69	33·50	32·43	41·59	30·98	24·23
1885	2·61	2·94	26·52	47·62	26·90	29·78	40·51	28·45	25·16
1886	2·18	2·71	21·39	39·73	20·92	27·34	38·29	24·28	26·62

† From 1854 to 1870 the prices have been deduced from the computed real values, and from 1871 to 1886 inclusive from the declared values of the articles imported.

* Cannot be given.

I M P O R T S .

STATEMENT showing the AVERAGE PRICE of the undermentioned ARTICLES IMPORTED into the UNITED KINGDOM, DEDUCED from the QUANTITIES and VALUES (as stated in the Statistical Abstracts of the United Kingdom), in EACH of the YEARS from 1854 to 1886.

[Extracted from a Parliamentary paper prepared by Mr. R. GIFFEN, of the Board of Trade.]

YEARS.	Oil Seed-cake. Per ton.	Paper for Writing or Printing. Per cwt.	PETROLEUM.		Pork. Per cwt.	Potatoes. Per cwt.	Rice not in the Husk. Per cwt.
			Unrefined. Per gal.	Refined. Per gal.			
1854	£ 9.15	s. *—	d. *—	d. *—	s. 47.13	s. 3.00	s. 14.10
1855	10.10	*—	*—	*—	47.96	3.50	14.62
1856	8.60	*—	*—	*—	49.27	3.50	10.76
1857	8.33	*—	*—	*—	52.63	3.67	11.47
1858	8.25	*—	*—	*—	45.11	3.92	9.02
1859	7.65	*—	*—	*—	46.90	3.43	11.14
1860	8.37	*—	*—	*—	46.84	4.87	13.42
1861	8.54	56.15	*—	*—	50.67	5.83	12.90
1862	8.20	51.33	*—	*—	35.92	4.93	12.26
1863	7.63	51.33	15.19	22.44	36.71	3.85	12.16
1864	7.85	51.33	16.19	24.18	46.39	3.84	11.35
1865	7.82	51.33	19.15	35.91	51.88	4.00	13.73
1866	8.05	51.33	16.24	22.71	55.55	4.84	13.58
1867	8.07	51.33	10.99	15.98	46.83	5.78	14.64
1868	8.69	51.33	10.64	17.55	50.50	4.74	12.29
1869	8.55	51.33	12.48	19.90	60.34	4.73	10.67
1870	8.94	51.33	13.02	19.18	62.22	6.35	10.58
1871	9.50	51.22	12.98	16.59	46.81	5.31	10.19
1872	9.33	56.33	11.61	16.85	40.99	5.48	10.00
1873	9.61	60.80	13.66	14.30	44.46	5.65	9.92
1874	10.01	53.09	11.53	11.10	43.68	5.19	10.33
1075	10.17	47.11	6.64	9.62	44.28	4.55	8.95
1876	9.29	48.64	8.06	13.74	42.83	5.78	9.06
1877	8.91	49.92	6.88	12.66	40.05	5.90	10.55
1878	8.08	49.51	6.41	9.70	33.87	5.46	10.48
1879	7.51	37.40	6.81	7.68	31.34	5.76	10.15
1880	8.06	36.62	5.08	8.15	33.43	5.84	9.52
1881	7.98	36.18	4.26	7.96	35.73	5.44	8.64
1882	7.67	35.29	*—	6.92	40.18	6.67	7.98
1883	7.55	33.02	*—	7.39	40.43	6.16	8.20
1884	7.56	30.49	*—	7.75	36.74	6.74	8.14
1885	7.18	29.92	*—	7.44	35.96	6.33	7.82
1886	6.37	31.21	*—	7.04	33.98	5.90	7.48

† From 1854 to 1870 the prices have been deduced from the computed real values, and from 1871 to 1886 inclusive, from the declared values of the articles imported.

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[Extracted from a Parliamentary paper prepared by Mr. R. GIFFEN, of the Board of Trade.]

YEARS.	SEEDS.		SKINS.			SPICES.		
	Flax or Linseed. Per qr.	Rapc. Per qr.	Sheep and Lambs Undressed Each.	Seal. Each.	Goat, Undressed Each.	Cinnamon Per lb.	Pepper. Per lb.	Of other sorts. Per lb.
	£	£	d.	s.	d.	d.	d.	d.
1854 ..	3·07	2·91	12·13	5·61	15·73	15·95	4 94	*—
1855 ..	3·36	3·57	12·02	6·71	19·48	15·86	4·96	*—
1856 ..	2·71	2·96	19·10	8·17	24·51	17·45	4·99	*—
1857 ..	2·91	2·96	17·45	6·81	22·51	17·63	4·87	6·30
1858 ..	2·66	2·64	16·51	7·63	23·54	15·02	4·31	4·61
1859 ..	2·39	2·24	21·85	6·89	27·46	15·50	4·44	6·09
1860 ..	2·55	2·86	20·16	8·18	25·95	16·13	4·43	6·00
1861 ..	2·68	2·85	21·59	4·69	26·97	17·43	4·07	5·16
1862 ..	2·95	3·15	17·99	4·47	23·58	17·92	4·05	5·44
1863 ..	3·05	2·96	16·13	3·88	30·46	19·28	3·72	5·06
1864 ..	2·75	2·69	15·46	3·49	26·89	23·09	3·51	5·35
1865 ..	2·77	3·06	19·07	3·27	32·18	24·50	3·48	4·71
1866 ..	2·91	2·75	21·19	3·65	28·22	21·28	3·56	5·37
1867 ..	2·98	2·57	19·47	4·71	23·28	20·59	3·54	4·07
1868 ..	2·68	2·54	17·64	6·24	24·50	25·60	3·71	5·25
1869 ..	2·63	2·80	16·01	8·55	30·27	29·23	4·54	4 64
1870 ..	2·69	3·15	18·18	7·38	28·20	27·39	5·20	4 99
1871 ..	2·81	2·87	26·50	5·49	30·24	21·83	5·35	5·33
1872 ..	2·98	2·52	33·61	11·59	38·23	24·85	6·56	7·03
1873 ..	2·86	2·62	37·96	9·75	30·75	25·84	7·46	7·36
1874 ..	2·78	2·37	32·74	11·55	33·65	26·19	6·94	8·46
1875 ..	2·62	2·33	33·95	11·95	32·89	25·97	5·47	7·34
1876 ..	2·49	2·53	31·24	7 23	28 78	22 05	4 27	7 38
1877 ..	2 67	2 84	29 79	6 46	32 48	21 12	4 18	6 96
1878 ..	2 47	2 45	30 17	11 64	29 14	19 97	3 70	7 21
1879 ..	2 48	2 11	29 95	11 52	27 66	18 64	3 73	7 29
1880 ..	2 56	2 02	33 38	19 08	27 58	15 28	4 40	7 56
1881 ..	2 40	2 05	29 75	17 32	27 64	16 75	5 36	7 61
1882 ..	2 16	1 88	31 76	20 58	23 78	13 49	5 64	6 49
1883 ..	2 06	2 15	29 57	13 20	22 89	13 61	6 42	6 37
1884 ..	2 12	1 96	30 83	16 75	24 23	10 49	7 10	5 15
1885 ..	2 14	1 62	29 12	15 84	22 29	8 82	7 35	5 29
1886 ..	2 05	1 36	25 26	16 30	25 39	8 07	7 40	4 74

† From 1854 to 1870 the prices have been deduced from the computed real values, and from 1871 to 1886 inclusive, from the declared values of the articles imported.

* Cannot be given.

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[Extracted from a Parliamentary paper prepared by Mr. R. GIFFEN, of the Board of Trade.]

YEARS.	SUGAR.				Tea. Per lb.	TOBACCO.		
	Refined and Sugar Candy. Per cwt.	Raw. Per cwt.	Molasses. Per cwt.	Tallow and Stearine. Per cwt.		Cigars. Per lb.	Cavendish or Negro Head. Per lb.	Unmanufactured. Per lb.
	s.	s.	s.	s.	d.	s.	d.	d.
1854 ..	28·57	21·10	11·35	*62·64	15·50	†—	†—	7·89
1855 ..	34·04	26·33	13·91	55·68	15·06	†—	†—	8·49
1856 ..	36·06	29·45	15·64	52·19	14·61	†—	†—	10·61
1857 ..	45·98	35·14	18·04	54·54	17·41	†—	†—	10·82
1858 ..	38·97	27·35	10·10	49·42	16·57	†—	†—	8·97
1859 ..	36·00	25·91	10·02	55·01	18·58	†—	†—	7·72
1860 ..	34·21	26·85	12·47	56·36	18·65	†—	†—	7·33
1861 ..	34·65	23·39	10·21	50·74	17·02	9·65	10·14	9·08
1862 ..	33·75	22·11	9·62	45·80	19·19	9·58	19·98	12·00
1863 ..	33·62	21·50	9·50	42·29	18·71	8·66	18·47	11·61
1864 ..	35·29	26·79	13·12	41·07	18·21	8·30	15·50	10·42
1865 ..	31·06	22·05	11·95	46·10	19·88	7·81	10·51	10·10
1866 ..	31·04	20·29	12·59	45·64	19·27	7·88	8·06	9·28
1867 ..	31·59	21·80	13·99	44·05	18·87	7·89	6·95	7·68
1868 ..	31·68	22·62	12·29	48·05	19·27	7·80	8·23	8·54
1869 ..	33·21	24·54	12·66	45·33	17·78	6·32	9·04	8·46
1870 ..	32·09	22·57	9·54	43·35	17·18	8·20	9·87	8·85
1871 ..	36·15	25·10	9·88	42·02	16·44	13·00	12·23	8·09
1872 ..	36·35	26·20	10·07	42·88	16·78	14·12	10·74	8·24
1873 ..	33·84	23·97	9·44	41·28	16·67	13·76	11·68	7·72
1874 ..	30·70	22·42	10·74	40·36	17·00	13·74	11·48	8·34
1875 ..	30·33	21·16	10·94	42·30	16·73	13·75	12·36	8·63
1876 ..	29·45	20·92	9·39	42·77	16·42	14·22	12·19	8·36
1877 ..	33·79	25·73	9·48	41·96	15·98	12·29	10·50	8·05
1878 ..	29·26	21·47	8·70	39·39	15·29	12·71	9·41	6·73
1879 ..	27·39	20·22	7·39	35·87	14·68	12·01	9·04	7·20
1880 ..	29·23	21·71	8·15	35·12	13·47	13·71	10·07	7·04
1881 ..	28·93	21·72	9·21	35·24	12·82	13·95	10·22	6·85
1882 ..	28·67	21·11	8·76	40·35	12·58	14·21	10·66	7·67
1883 ..	27·22	20·10	8·34	40·48	12·46	12·41	11·50	7·63
1884 ..	20·89	15·51	7·15	37·78	11·78	10·96	12·13	7·87
1885 ..	18·15	13·89	7·08	31·32	12·06	12·21	11·02	7·92
1886 ..	16·70	13·07	6·40	25·68	11·77	10·93	11·22	7·23

¶ From 1854 to 1870 the prices have been deduced from the computed real values, and from 1871 to 1886 inclusive, from the declared values of the articles imported.

* Average price of Tallow. The quantity of Stearine imported in 1854 was too small to cause any appreciable alteration in the figures given in the table.

† Cannot be given.

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[Extracted from a Parliamentary paper prepared by Mr. R. GIFFEN, of the Board of Trade.]

YEARS.	WOOD AND TIMBER.				Wool, Sheep, Lamb, Alpaca, and the Llama Tribe.	WOOLLEN & WORSTED YARN.		Yeast. Per cwt.
	Hewn.	Sawn or Split.	Staves.	Mahogany		Berlin Wool and Yarns used for Fancy Pur- poses.	Yarn for Weaving.	
	Per load.	Per load.	Per load.	Per ton.		Per lb.	Per lb.	
	£	£	£	£	d.	d.	d.	£
1854..	4.35	3.72	6.15	10.67	14.70	70.31	56.00	2.75
1855..	4.18	3.61	8.27	9.55	15.78	69.64	36.00	2.37
1856..	3.98	3.14	7.82	10.56	17.89	71.71	36.00	2.44
1857..	3.48	2.77	7.88	10.33	17.91	71.61	36.00	2.32
1858..	3.24	2.41	7.89	10.37	16.99	69.38	36.00	1.85
1859..	3.47	2.85	7.46	11.19	17.69	69.72	36.01	2.19
1860..	3.69	3.11	7.87	11.26	17.84	71.96	36.00	2.17
1861..	3.78	2.89	7.15	10.71	15.85	66.00	54.00	2.02
1862..	3.81	2.91	7.88	9.24	16.43	66.00	54.00	2.00
1863..	3.60	2.87	7.79	8.57	16.08	66.00	54.00	2.01
1864..	3.60	2.86	9.37	9.41	18.02	66.00	54.00	1.01
1865..	3.33	2.88	9.61	9.87	16.89	66.00	54.00	2.02
1866..	3.05	2.73	10.37	9.88	17.59	66.00	54.00	2.06
1867..	2.91	2.58	9.68	9.12	16.61	58.36	47.41	2.08
1868..	3.03	2.54	9.57	7.94	14.36	54.00	42.00	2.00
1869..	3.27	2.56	8.87	7.61	13.65	54.00	42.00	2.04
1870..	3.25	2.59	9.19	7.98	14.42	48.70	37.45	2.22
1871..	2.82	2.28	7.20	9.61	13.32	42.35	22.58	2.50
1872..	2.91	2.46	9.41	11.08	14.51	47.04	28.34	2.48
1873..	3.24	3.08	9.96	11.59	14.75	43.68	27.27	2.54
1874..	3.22	3.26	7.43	9.89	14.71	48.36	27.32	2.58
1875..	2.87	2.79	6.63	9.14	15.41	47.87	27.24	2.47
1876..	2.90	2.80	6.63	8.51	14.54	46.29	28.60	2.46
1877..	2.81	2.88	6.32	9.13	14.38	46.81	28.55	2.45
1878..	2.45	2.49	4.89	8.38	13.90	47.70	28.89	2.60
1879..	2.10	2.17	4.84	8.10	13.56	45.37	29.54	2.61
1880..	2.47	2.59	4.54	8.68	13.66	40.87	28.98	2.62
1881..	2.57	2.50	4.94	9.21	13.87	42.32	29.48	2.63
1882..	2.62	2.58	5.18	9.75	12.27	42.53	29.89	2.67
1883..	2.61	2.41	4.53	9.85	12.08	43.04	30.18	2.80
1884..	2.39	2.28	4.11	9.03	12.09	43.95	30.13	2.76
1885..	2.40	2.27	4.32	8.70	10.05	42.33	29.10	2.79
1886..	2.16	2.17	4.07	8.27	9.08	44.58	28.73	2.76

¶ From 1854 to 1870 the prices have been deduced from the computed real values, and from 1871 to 1886 inclusive, from the declared values of the articles imported.

THE RAILWAYS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An effort was made to induce Parliament during the Session of 1888 to consider the question of buying up the railway interest of the United Kingdom. Therefore it may be worth while to show not only the enormous capital sunk in these undertakings, but also what is being added annually to the amount. During the year 1887 the capital paid up was increased by 17½ millions, and this it appears brought up the capital sum to the grand total of 846 millions. Both in the gross and in comparison with the extent of line open the capital has increased; as per mile of line open it amounts to £43,210, or £362 per mile above 1886. Judged by the net receipts, 1887 was a shade better than 1886, the proportion to total paid-up capital being exactly 4 per cent, as against 3.99 per cent. The working expenditure has stood at 52 per cent of the gross receipts for two years, under which it has not been since 1872, with the exception of 1880, when it was 51 per cent. Dividing the different classes of capital and separating the three countries they stand as follows:—

CAPITAL INVESTED.

	Stock and Shares.			Loans and Debentures.		
	Ordinary.	Guaranteed.	Preferential.	Loans.	Debenture Stock.	Total Capital.
England & Wales ..}	263,966,572	82,299,919	177,195,547	8,305,883	170,786,482	702,554,403
Scotland	34,174,041	13,575,694	35,980,436	2,674,669	20,555,122	106,959,962
Ireland.....	16,654,704	1,497,089	8,275,700	1,442,042	8,587,754	36,457,289
United Kingdom	314,795,317	97,372,702	221,451,683	12,422,594	199,920,358	845,971,654

RECEIPTS, GROSS AND NET.

The companies had in all 19,578 miles of line open on December 31st last (England 13,825, Scotland 3,079, and Ireland 2,674), and their gross net receipts were as under:—

	Passenger Traffic.	Goods Traffic.	Total Receipts.	Net Receipts.	Per Cent Expenditure.
England and Wales	26,076,764	31,692,729	60,502,925	28,738,721	53
Scotland	2,990,264	4,368,500	7,610,667	3,837,050	50
Ireland.....	1,506,259	1,280,070	2,829,784	1,304,339	54
	30,573,287	37,341,299	70,943,376	33,880,110	52

RETURN TO THE SHAREHOLDERS.

The net receipts were equal to 4 per cent on the total paid-up capital, but the shareholders did not realise that return. A few were lucky enough to obtain as much

THE RAILWAYS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

as 13½ per cent, but on nearly sixty millions of the share capital no dividend at all was paid. The following table shows the rate of dividend paid on the ordinary, guaranteed, and preferential stock in the United Kingdom:—

Rate per cent of Dividend Paid.	Ordinary.	Guaranteed.	Preferred.
Capital of new companies, the lines of which were in course of construction:			
No dividend paid	1,696,289	22,301
3 per cent paid	108,576
4 " "	4,264,503	1,830,498
5 " "	42,431	22,550
Capital of constructed lines upon which no dividend was paid	45,891,336	30,000	11,920,689
Dividends paid:			
Not exceeding 1 per cent	3,682,253	1,704,994
Exceeding 1 and not exceeding 2 per cent	4,019,741	101,180	202,779
" 2 " 3 "	25,402,123	431,404
" 3 " 4 "	36,467,461	54,874,404	137,080,626
" 4 " 5 "	76,313,760	38,191,571	64,135,587
" 5 " 6 "	71,819,729	4,119,580	3,895,255
" 6 " 7 "	38,188,031
" 7 " 8 "	3,685,800	5,967
" 8 " 9 "	677,958	40,000
" 9 " 10 "	827,326	50,000
" 10 " 11 "
" 11 " 12 "
" 12 " 13 "	30,000
At 13½ per cent	1,678,000	165,000
Total United Kingdom....	314,795,317	97,372,702	221,451,683

Of the loans and debenture stock, on about 150 millions " 3 and not exceeding 4 per cent was paid, and on about 60 millions 4 and not exceeding 5."

To show how the public ride and what are the receipts from the separate classes, we give the number of passengers and the receipts:—

NUMBER OF PASSENGERS.

	1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class.	Total.	Season.
England and Wales	25,260,910	58,005,233	564,508,813	647,774,956	990,815
Scotland	4,695,255	1,930,158	59,807,204	66,432,617	51,579
Ireland	1,367,624	4,203,965	13,899,369	19,470,958	23,695
United Kingdom	31,323,789	64,139,356	638,215,386	733,678,531	1,066,089

RECEIPTS FROM PASSENGERS.

	1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class.	Season.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£
England and Wales	2,541,431	2,399,960	15,785,424	1,744,207	22,471,022
Scotland	374,001	78,971	1,815,462	178,362	2,445,796
Ireland	166,076	309,872	692,158	50,430	1,218,536
United Kingdom	3,081,508	2,788,803	18,293,044	1,972,999	26,136,354

**INCOME TAX RATES FROM ITS FIRST IMPOSITION IN 1842
TO THE PRESENT TIME.**

From and to April 5th.	Income free under.	On £100	On £100	Chancellor of the Exchequer.	Premier.
		to £150.	and upw'ds.		
		Rate in the £			
1842 to 1846	£ 150	—	7d.	Henry Goulburn.	Sir Robert Peel.
1846 „ 1852	Do.	—	7d.	Sir Charles Wood.	Lord John Russell.
1852 „ 1853	Do.	—	7d.	Benjamin Disraeli.	Earl of Derby.
1853 „ 1854	100	5d.	7d.	William E. Gladstone.	Earl of Aberdeen.
1854 „ 1855	Do.	10d.	1s. 2d.	Do.	Do.
1855 „ 1857	Do.	11½d.	1s. 4d.	Sir G. Cornwall Lewis.	Viscount Palmerston.
1857 „ 1858	Do.	5d.	7d.	Do.	Do.
1858 „ 1859	Do.	5d.	5d.	Do.	Do.
1859 „ 1860	Do.	6½d.	9d.	Benjamin Disraeli.	Earl of Derby.
1860 „ 1861	Do.	7d.	10d.	William E. Gladstone.	Viscount Palmerston.
1861 „ 1863	*100	6d.	9d.	Do.	Do.
1863 „ 1864	Do.		7d.	Do.	Do.
1864 „ 1865	Do.		6d.	Do.	Do.
1865 „ 1866	Do.		4d.	Do.	Do.
1866 „ 1867	Do.		4d.	Do.	Earl Russell.
1867 „ 1868	Do.		5d.	Benjamin Disraeli.	Earl of Derby.
1868 „ 1869	Do.		6d.	George Ward Hunt.	Benjamin Disraeli.
1869 „ 1870	Do.		5d.	Robert Lowe.	William E. Gladstone.
1870 „ 1871	Do.		4d.	Do.	Do.
1871 „ 1872	Do.		6d.	Do.	Do.
1872 „ 1873	Do.		4d.	Do.	Do.
1873 „ 1874	Do.		3d.	Do.	Do.
1874 „ 1876	Do.		2d.	Sir Stafford Northcote.	Benjamin Disraeli.
1876 „ 1878	†150		3d.	Do.	Earl of Beaconsfield.
1878 „ 1880	Do.		5d.	Do.	Do.
1880 „ 1881	Do.		6d.	William E. Gladstone.	William E. Gladstone.
1881 „ 1882	Do.		5d.	Do.	Do.
1882 „ 1883	Do.		6½d.	Do.	Do.
1883 „ 1884	Do.		5d.	Hugh C. E. Childers.	Do.
1884 „ 1885	Do.		6d.	Do.	Do.
1885 „ 1886	Do.		8d.	Sir M. Hicks-Beach.	Marquis of Salisbury.
1886 „ 1887	{ Do.		8d.	Sir William Harcourt.	William E. Gladstone.
1886 „	{ Do.		8d.	Ld. Randolph Churchill.	Marquis of Salisbury.
1887 „ 1888	Do.		7d.	G. J. Goschen.	Do.

**TOTAL ANNUAL VALUE OF PROPERTY AND INCOME
ASSESSED, 1875—87.**

Year.	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.	Year.
1875	£481,774,580	£53,934,528	£35,347,059	£571,056,167	1875
1877	480,425,213	54,441,576	35,464,600	570,331,389	1877
1878	486,698,836	55,712,709	35,929,649	578,294,971	1878
1879	485,939,056	55,897,204	36,210,037	578,046,297	1879
1880	485,676,370	55,079,954	36,140,577	576,896,901	1880
1881	493,583,819	55,530,028	36,110,043	585,223,890	1881
1882	507,644,153	57,607,470	36,199,354	601,450,977	1882
1883	516,948,272	59,406,708	36,481,078	612,836,058	1883
1884	530,538,379	61,117,685	36,854,135	628,510,199	1884
1885	533,429,560	61,125,422	36,912,150	631,467,132	1885
1886	533,038,774	60,057,933	36,758,915	629,855,622	1886
1887	535,040,455	57,910,114	36,447,393	629,397,962	1887

* Differential rate upon scale of incomes abolished. Incomes under £100 are exempt; and incomes of £100 and under £199 per annum have an abatement from the assessment of £60:—thus, £100 pays on £40; £160 upon £100; £199 upon £139; but £200 pays on £200.

† Under £150 exempt; if under £400 the tax is not chargeable upon the first £120.

**AN ACCOUNT OF THE PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM FOR THE YEAR
ENDING MARCH 31st, 1888;**

DISTINGUISHING THE SEVERAL AMOUNTS RAISED BY TAXATION AND THOSE RECEIVED FROM OTHER SOURCES OF REVENUE.

INCOME.		EXPENDITURE.	
TAXATION:—	£	PUBLIC DEBT:—	£
Customs	19,630,000	Interest and other Charges	19,599,207
Excise	25,620,000	Redemption of Debt	6,614,704
Land Tax and House Duty	2,970,000		
Property and Income Tax	14,440,000	Army	26,213,911
Stamps	13,000,000	Navy	18,483,330
	<u>75,660,000</u>	Post-office	5,403,438
SERVICES UNDERTAKEN BY THE CROWN:—		Telegraphs	1,940,042
Postal	8,650,000	Packet Service	697,901
Telegraphs	1,950,000		
Miscellaneous	387,437	CIVIL SERVICES—VARIOUS PAYMENTS:—	8,041,351
	<u>10,987,437</u>	Civil Departments	19,701,950
CIVIL SERVICES—VARIOUS RECEIPTS:—		Customs	935,961
Civil Departments, &c.	1,268,296	Inland Revenue	1,771,785
Fee and Patent Stamps	740,521		
Customs	48,835		
Inland Revenue	42,203		
	<u>2,099,855</u>		
MISCELLANEOUS:—			
Interest on Advances, &c.	242,479		
Crown Lands—Net Rents	390,000		
Profits from Bank of England	153,895		
Profit from Savings Banks	67,001		
Indian Revenue, on account of Army..	28,027		
Various Receipts	173,560		
	<u>1,054,962</u>		
	<u>£89,802,254</u>	Excess of Income over Expenditure	2,378,609
			<u>£89,802,254</u>

AVERAGE PRICE PER £100 of the THREE PER CENT CONSOLIDATED STOCK of the PUBLIC FUNDS of the UNITED KINGDOM, in EACH MONTH in EACH YEAR from 1873 to 1887.

MONTHS.	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	MONTHS.
January....	£ 92½	92½	92½	93½	95½	95½	95½	97½	98½	99½	101½	101½	99½	99½	£ 100½	January.
February...	92½	92½	92½	94½	95½	95½	98½	98½	98½	99½	102½	101½	99½	100½	100½	February.
March.....	92½	92	93	94½	96½	95½	96½	97½	99½	100½	102½	101½	97½	100½	101½	March.
April.....	93½	92½	93½	94½	95½	94½	98½	98½	100½	101½	102½	102½	96½	100½	102½	April.
May.....	93½	93½	94	96	94½	96½	98½	99½	102½	102	101½	101½	99½	101½	103½	May.
June.....	92½	92½	93	94	94½	95½	97½	98½	100½	100½	100½	100½	99½	100½	101½	June.
July.....	92½	92½	94½	95½	94½	95½	97½	98½	101½	99½	99½	100½	99½	101½	101½	July.
August....	92½	92½	94½	96½	95½	94½	97½	97½	100½	99½	99½	100½	100	101½	101½	August.
September..	92½	92½	94½	95½	95½	94½	97½	97½	99½	99½	100½	101½	100½	100½	101½	September.
October....	92½	92½	94½	95½	95½	94½	98	98½	98½	101½	101½	100½	100½	100½	102½	October.
November...	92½	93½	94½	95½	96½	95½	98½	99½	100½	102½	101½	100½	100½	101½	103½	November.
December...	92	91½	93½	94	95½	94½	97½	98½	99½	100½	100½	99½	100	100½	101½	December.
Average for the Year..	92½	92½	93½	95	95½	95½	97½	98½	100	100½	101½	101	99½	100½	101½	(Average for the Year.)

AVERAGE MINIMUM RATE PER CENT OF DISCOUNT CHARGED BY THE BANK OF ENGLAND, IN EACH MONTH IN EACH YEAR FROM 1873 TO 1887.

MONTHS.	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	MONTHS.
January....	4½	3¾	4½	4½	2	3½	4½	3	3½	5½	4½	3	5	3½	5	January.
February...	3½	3½	3½	4	2	2	3	3	3½	5½	3½	3½	5	2½	4	February.
March.....	3½	3½	3½	3½	2	2½	2½	3	3	4	3	3½	3½	2	3½	March.
April.....	4	3½	3½	2½	2	3	2½	3	3	3	3	2½	3½	2	2½	April.
May.....	5½	4	3½	2	2½	3	2	3	2½	3	3½	2½	2½	2½	2	May.
June.....	6½	2	3½	2	3	2½	2	2½	2½	3	4	2½	2	2½	2	June.
July.....	4½	3	3	2	2½	3½	2	2½	2½	3	4	2	2	2½	2	July.
August.....	3½	3½	2½	2	2½	4½	2	2½	2½	3½	4	2	2	2½	2½	August.
September..	3½	3	2	2	3	5	2	2½	4	4½	3½	2	2	3½	4	September.
October.....	6	3½	3½	2	4½	5½	2	2½	3½	5	3	2½	2	3½	4	October.
November...	8½	4½	3½	2	4½	5½	2½	2½	5	5	3	4½	2½	4	4	November.
December..	5½	6	3	2	4	5	3	2½	5	5	3	5	3½	4½	4	December.
Average for the Year..}	4½	3½	3½	2½	2½	3½	2½	2½	3½	4½	3½	2½	3	3	3½	{ Average for the Year.

BURTHENS ON LAND.

NEW SCALE OF LAW COSTS ON THE SALE, PURCHASE, OR MORTGAGE OF
REAL PROPERTY, HOUSES, OR LAND.

	For the 1st £1,000.	For the 2nd and 3rd £1,000.	For the 4th and each subsequent £1,000 up to £10,000.	For each subsequent £1,000 up to £100,000.*
	Per £100. £ s. d.	Per £100. £ s. d.	Per £100. £ s. d.	Per £100. £ s. d.
Vendor's solicitor for negotiating a sale of property by private contract	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 5 0
Do., do., for conducting a sale of property by public auction, including the conditions of sale—				
When the property is sold	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 5 0	0 2 6
When the property is not sold, then on the reserved price †	0 10 0	0 5 0	0 2 6	0 1 3
Do., do., for deducing title to freehold, copyhold, or leasehold property, and perusing, and completing conveyance (including preparation of contract, or conditions of sale, if any)	1 10 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 5 0
Purchaser's solicitor for negotiating a purchase of property by private contract ..	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 5 0
Do., do., for investigating title to freehold, copyhold, or leasehold property, and preparing and completing conveyance (including perusal and completion of contract, if any)	1 10 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 5 0
Mortgagor's solicitor for deducing title to freehold, copyhold, or leasehold property, perusing mortgage, and completing	1 10 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 5 0
Mortgagee's solicitor for negotiating loan ..	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 5 0	0 2 6
Do., do., for investigating title to freehold, copyhold, or leasehold property; and preparing and completing mortgage....	1 10 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 5 0
Vendor's or mortgagor's solicitor for procuring execution and acknowledgment of deed by a married woman	2 10 0	extra.		

* Every transaction exceeding £100,000 to be charged for as if it were for £100,000.
† A minimum charge of £5 to be made whether a sale is effected or not.

THE DEATH DUTIES.

PROBATE AND ACCOUNT DUTY.

This duty is now regulated by 44 Vict., cap. 12 (1881), and is payable on the Affidavits for Probate and Letters of Administration; and also on the accounts which have to be rendered in special cases of benefits accruing to anyone by reason of the death of another person.

The rates of duty are as follow:—

Under £100 no duty.

Where value exceeds £100 and not £500, £1 for each £50, or fraction of £50.

" " £500 " £1,000, £1. 5s. " " "

" " £1,000, £3 for each £100, or fraction of £100. " "

Where the gross value of an estate does not exceed £300, a fixed duty of 30s. only is payable to cover all duties.

In the case of persons dying domiciled in the United Kingdom, debts and funeral expenses are deducted before calculating the duty.

LEGACY AND SUCCESSION DUTIES.

Legacy duty is payable in respect of personal estate, and succession duty in respect of real estate.

Rates of duty are as follow:—

To children of the deceased, or their descendants; or to the father or mother or other lineal ancestor of the deceased .. £1. 10s. per cent.

To brothers and sisters of the deceased, or their descendants. £4. 10s. per cent.

To brothers and sisters of the father or mother of the deceased, or their descendants..... £6. 10s. per cent.

To brothers and sisters of the grandfather or grandmother of the deceased, or their descendants £7. 10s. per cent.

To any person in any other degree of collateral consanguinity, or to a stranger in blood..... £11. 10s. per cent.

The husband or wife of deceased is exempt from duty.

If the husband or wife is a relative of the deceased, the duty on a legacy to either is calculated at the lower rate.

The legacy duty is payable on the capital value.

Succession duty is paid on the value of any annuity equal to the net income of the property, which annuity would continue during the life of the successor.

Where the whole personal estate does not exceed £300 no legacy duty is payable.

All pecuniary legacies, residues, or share of residue, although not of the amount of £20, are subject to duty.

In case of persons dying leaving issue, the probate duty covers all legacy duty which would formerly have been paid by such issue.

Where the principal value of the whole succession does not exceed £100, or when the value of the individual succession is less than £20, no succession duty is payable.

Persons domiciled in the United Kingdom pay legacy duty on all movable property wherever situate.

Persons domiciled abroad are altogether exempt from legacy duty on movable property.

By the Customs and Inland Revenue Act, 1885 (48 and 49 Vict., c. 51), a yearly duty of 5 per cent is to be levied upon the net annual value, income or profits, of the real and personal property of any body, corporate or incorporate. But there are a number of exemptions, the most important of which are:—Property belonging to the counties and certain other public bodies, charities, friendly societies, savings banks, and trading concerns.

EXPECTATION OF LIFE.

EXPECTATION OF LIFE TABLES were constructed by the late Dr. Farr, of the General Register Office, and were calculated on the death-rates of 1838-54; but since that time very important changes have occurred in the death-rates at different ages; and consequently new tables have been constructed by Dr. W. Ogle, who succeeded Dr. Farr, on the basis of the death-rates of 1871-80. The following table gives the results both of the older and the later calculations; the first two columns in the male and female parts, respectively, giving the survivors at each year of life out of a million born of the corresponding sex, by the older and the newer calculation; and the two other columns giving similarly the expectation of life at each year.

AGE.	MALES.				FEMALES.				AGE.
	OF 1,000,000 BORN, THE NUMBER SURVIVING AT THE END OF EACH YEAR OF LIFE.		MEAN AFTER-LIFETIME (EXPECTATION OF LIFE).		OF 1,000,000 BORN, THE NUMBER SURVIVING AT THE END OF EACH YEAR OF LIFE.		MEAN AFTER-LIFETIME (EXPECTATION OF LIFE).		
	1838-54.	1871-80.	1838-54.	1871-80.	1838-54.	1871-80.	1838-54.	1871-80.	
Col'm'n	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Col'm'n
0	1,000,000	1,000,000	39.91	41.35	1,000,000	1,000,000	41.85	44.62	0
1	836,405	841,417	46.65	48.05	865,288	871,266	47.31	50.14	1
2	782,626	790,201	48.83	50.14	811,711	820,490	49.40	52.22	2
3	754,849	763,737	49.61	50.85	782,990	793,859	50.20	52.09	3
4	736,845	746,587	49.81	51.01	764,060	775,427	50.43	53.20	4
5	723,716	734,068	49.71	50.87	750,550	762,622	50.83	53.08	5
6	713,881	726,815	49.39	50.38	740,584	755,718	50.00	52.56	6
7	706,156	721,103	48.92	49.77	732,771	750,276	49.53	51.94	7
8	699,688	716,809	48.37	49.10	726,116	745,631	48.98	51.26	8
9	694,346	712,387	47.74	48.37	720,537	741,727	48.35	50.53	9
10	689,857	708,990	47.05	47.60	715,769	738,382	47.67	49.76	10
11	685,982	706,146	46.31	46.79	711,581	735,405	46.95	48.96	11
12	682,512	703,595	45.54	45.96	707,770	732,697	46.20	48.13	12
13	679,256	701,200	44.76	45.11	704,155	730,123	45.44	47.30	13
14	676,057	698,840	43.97	44.26	700,581	727,571	44.66	46.47	14
15	672,776	696,419	43.13	43.41	696,917	724,956	43.90	45.63	15
16	669,296	693,695	42.40	42.58	693,050	722,084	43.14	44.81	16
17	665,529	690,746	41.64	41.76	688,894	718,993	42.40	44.00	17
18	661,402	687,507	40.90	40.96	684,378	715,622	41.67	43.21	18
19	656,868	683,941	40.17	40.17	679,468	711,946	40.97	42.43	19
20	651,908	680,033	39.43	39.40	674,119	707,949	40.29	41.66	20
21	646,502	675,769	38.80	38.64	668,345	703,616	39.63	40.92	21
22	641,023	671,344	38.13	37.89	662,474	699,141	38.98	40.18	22
23	635,486	666,754	37.46	37.15	656,509	694,521	38.33	39.44	23
24	629,882	661,997	36.79	36.41	650,463	689,753	37.68	38.71	24
25	624,221	657,077	36.12	35.68	644,342	684,858	37.04	37.98	25
26	618,508	651,998	35.44	34.96	638,148	679,822	36.39	37.26	26
27	612,781	646,757	34.77	34.24	631,891	674,661	35.75	36.54	27
28	606,906	641,353	34.10	33.52	625,575	669,372	35.10	35.83	28
29	601,026	635,778	33.43	32.81	619,201	663,959	34.46	35.11	29
30	595,089	630,033	32.76	32.10	612,774	658,418	33.81	34.41	30
31	589,094	624,124	32.09	31.40	606,296	652,747	33.17	33.70	31
32	583,036	618,056	31.42	30.71	599,769	646,957	32.53	33.00	32
33	576,912	611,827	30.74	30.01	593,196	641,045	31.88	32.30	33
34	570,716	605,430	30.07	29.33	586,575	635,003	31.23	31.60	34
35	564,441	598,860	29.40	28.64	579,908	628,842	30.59	30.90	35
36	558,083	592,107	28.73	27.96	573,192	622,554	29.94	30.21	36
37	551,634	585,167	28.06	27.29	566,431	616,144	29.29	29.52	37
38	545,084	578,019	27.39	26.62	559,619	609,599	28.64	28.83	38
39	538,428	570,656	26.72	25.96	552,758	602,924	27.99	28.15	39
40	531,657	563,077	26.06	25.30	545,844	596,113	27.34	27.46	40
41	524,761	555,254	25.39	24.65	538,876	589,167	26.69	26.78	41
42	517,734	547,288	24.73	24.00	531,849	582,104	26.03	26.10	42
43	510,567	539,161	24.07	23.35	524,765	574,919	25.38	25.42	43
44	503,247	530,858	23.41	22.71	517,617	567,612	24.72	24.74	44

EXPECTATION OF LIFE.

AGE.	MALES.				FEMALES.				AGE.
	OF 1,000,000 BORN, THE NUMBER SURVIVING AT THE END OF EACH YEAR OF LIFE.		MEAN AFTER-LIFETIME (EXPECTATION OF LIFE).		OF 1,000,000 BORN, THE NUMBER SURVIVING AT THE END OF EACH YEAR OF LIFE.		MEAN AFTER-LIFETIME (EXPECTATION OF LIFE).		
	1888-54.	1871-80.	1888-54.	1871-80.	1888-54.	1871-80.	1888-54.	1871-80.	
Col'mm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Col'mm
45	495,770	522,374	22.76	22.07	510,408	560,174	24.06	24.06	45
46	468,126	513,702	22.11	21.44	503,122	552,602	23.40	23.38	46
47	480,308	504,836	21.46	20.80	495,768	544,892	22.74	22.71	47
48	472,306	495,761	20.82	20.18	488,339	537,043	22.08	22.03	48
49	464,114	486,479	20.17	19.55	480,833	529,048	21.42	21.36	49
50	455,727	476,980	19.54	18.93	473,245	520,901	20.75	20.68	50
51	447,139	467,254	18.90	18.31	465,572	512,607	20.09	20.01	51
52	438,099	457,022	18.28	17.71	457,814	504,188	19.42	19.34	52
53	428,801	446,510	17.67	17.12	449,966	495,645	18.75	18.66	53
54	419,256	435,729	17.06	16.53	442,027	486,973	18.08	17.98	54
55	409,460	424,677	16.45	15.95	433,331	477,440	17.43	17.33	55
56	399,408	413,351	15.86	15.37	424,239	467,443	16.79	16.69	56
57	389,088	401,740	15.26	14.80	414,761	456,992	16.17	16.06	57
58	378,481	389,827	14.68	14.24	404,895	446,079	15.55	15.45	58
59	367,570	377,591	14.10	13.68	394,636	434,695	14.94	14.84	59
60	356,330	365,011	13.53	13.14	383,974	422,835	14.34	14.24	60
61	344,744	352,071	12.96	12.60	372,895	410,477	13.75	13.65	61
62	332,789	338,820	12.41	12.07	361,387	397,644	13.17	13.08	62
63	320,451	325,256	11.87	11.56	349,436	384,319	12.60	12.51	63
64	307,720	311,968	11.34	11.05	337,031	370,495	12.05	11.96	64
65	294,588	297,156	10.82	10.55	324,165	356,165	11.51	11.42	65
66	281,064	282,638	10.32	10.07	310,833	341,326	10.98	10.90	66
67	267,160	267,829	9.83	9.60	297,048	325,968	10.47	10.39	67
68	252,901	252,763	9.36	9.14	282,819	310,170	9.97	9.89	68
69	238,328	237,487	8.90	8.70	268,177	293,899	9.48	9.41	69
70	223,490	222,056	8.45	8.27	253,161	277,225	9.02	8.95	70
71	208,453	206,539	8.03	7.85	237,822	260,207	8.57	8.50	71
72	193,297	190,971	7.62	7.45	222,230	242,934	8.13	8.07	72
73	178,114	175,449	7.22	7.07	206,464	225,497	7.71	7.65	73
74	163,003	160,074	6.85	6.70	190,620	208,003	7.31	7.25	74
75	148,076	144,960	6.49	6.34	174,800	190,566	6.93	6.87	75
76	133,453	130,227	6.15	6.00	159,126	173,316	6.56	6.51	76
77	119,251	115,966	5.82	5.68	143,722	156,392	6.21	6.16	77
78	105,592	102,369	5.51	5.37	128,711	139,927	5.88	5.82	78
79	92,587	89,449	5.21	5.07	114,229	124,065	5.56	5.50	79
80	80,343	77,354	4.93	4.79	100,394	108,985	5.26	5.20	80
81	68,946	66,153	4.66	4.51	87,323	94,662	4.98	4.90	81
82	58,471	55,842	4.41	4.26	75,119	81,905	4.71	4.63	82
83	48,970	46,489	4.17	4.01	63,862	68,966	4.45	4.37	83
84	40,471	38,132	3.95	3.78	53,615	57,723	4.21	4.12	84
85	32,979	30,785	3.73	3.56	44,419	47,631	3.98	3.88	85
86	26,476	24,436	3.53	3.36	36,284	38,710	3.76	3.66	86
87	20,926	19,054	3.34	3.17	29,202	30,958	3.56	3.46	87
88	16,268	14,576	3.16	2.99	23,135	24,338	3.36	3.26	88
89	12,428	10,926	3.00	2.82	18,027	18,788	3.18	3.08	89
90	9,321	8,015	2.84	2.66	13,802	14,225	3.01	2.90	90
91	6,859	5,748	2.69	2.51	10,376	10,553	2.85	2.74	91
92	4,946	4,025	2.55	2.37	7,650	7,658	2.70	2.58	92
93	3,492	2,749	2.41	2.24	5,526	5,429	2.55	2.44	93
94	2,411	1,823	2.29	2.12	3,908	3,756	2.42	2.30	94
95	1,628	1,183	2.17	2.01	2,704	2,533	2.29	2.17	95
96	1,071	742	2.06	1.90	1,827	1,661	2.17	2.11	96
97	688	452	1.95	1.81	1,204	1,057	2.06	2.03	97
98	490	266	1.85	1.72	774	658	1.96	1.83	98
99	262	151	1.76	1.65	483	389	1.86	1.73	99
100	154	82	1.68	1.61	295	225	1.76	1.62	100

RULES BY WHICH THE PERSONAL ESTATES OF PERSONS DYING INTESTATE ARE DISTRIBUTED.

If the Intestate die leaving

His representatives take in the proportion following:—

Wife and child, or children	One-third to wife, rest to child or children; and if children are dead, then to the representatives (that is, their lineal descendants), except such child or children, not heirs-at-law, who had estate by settlement of intestate, or were advanced by him in his lifetime, equal to other shares.
Wife only, no blood relations	Half to wife, other half to the Crown.
Wife, no near relations	Half to wife, rest to next-of-kin in equal degree to intestate, or their legal representatives.
No wife or child	All to next-of-kin and their legal representatives
No wife, but child, children, or representatives of them, whether such child or children by one or more wives	All to him, her, or them.
Children by two wives	Equally to all.
If no child, children, or representatives of them	All to next-of-kin in equal degree to intestate.
Child, and grandchild by deceased child	Half to child, half to grandchild, who takes by representation.
Husband	Whole to him.
Father, and brother or sister	Whole to father.
Mother, and brother or sister	Whole to them equally.
Wife, mother, brothers, sisters, and nieces ...	Half to wife, residue to mother, brothers, sisters, and nieces.
Wife, and father	Half to wife, and half to father.
Wife, mother, nephews, and nieces	Half to wife, one-fourth to mother, and other fourth to nephews and nieces.
Wife, brothers or sisters, and mother	Half to wife, half to brothers or sisters, and mother
Mother, but no wife, child, father, brother, sister, nephew, or niece	The whole to mother.
Wife, and mother	Half to wife, half to mother.
Brother or sister of whole blood, and brother or sister of half blood	Equally to both.
Posthumous brother or sister, and mother	Equally to both.
Posthumous brother or sister, and brother or sister born in lifetime of father	Equally to both.
Father's father, and mother's mother	Equally to both.
Uncle or aunt's children, and brother's or sister's grandchildren	Equally to all.
Grandmother, uncle, or aunt	All to grandmother.
Two aunts, nephew, and niece	Equally to all.
Uncle, and deceased uncle's child	All to uncle.
Uncle by mother's side, and deceased uncle or aunt's child	All to uncle.
Nephew by brother, and nephew by half-sister	Equally <i>per capita</i> .*
Nephew by deceased brother, and nephews and nieces by deceased sister	Each in equal shares <i>per capita</i> , and not <i>per stirpes</i> .
Brother and grandfather	Whole to brother.
Brother's grandson, and brother or sister's daughter	All to daughter.
Brother and two aunts	All to brother.
Brother, and wife	Half to brother, half to wife.
Mother, and brother	Equally.
Wife, mother, and children of a deceased brother (or sister)	{ Half to wife, a fourth to mother, and a fourth <i>per stirpes</i> to deceased brother's or sister's children.
Wife, brother, or sister, and children of a deceased brother or sister	{ Half to wife, one-fourth to brother or sister <i>per capita</i> , one-fourth to deceased brother's or sister's children <i>per stirpes</i> .
Brother or sister, and children of a deceased brother or sister	{ Half to brother or sister <i>per capita</i> , half to children of deceased brother or sister <i>per stirpes</i> .
Grandfather, no nearer relation	All to grandfather.

* That is, taking individually, and not by representation. Thus, if A die, leaving three brothers or sisters, they each take an equal part of his effects in his or her own right. But if either of them die, leaving children, his children would take his share *per stirpes*, that is *through him*, and not in their own rights.

By the Act 19 & 20 Vict. all special local customs relating to the estates of intestates are abolished.

PUBLIC ACTS OF PARLIAMENT PASSED DURING THE
SESSION 1888
IN THE 51ST YEAR OF HER MAJESTY'S REIGN.

* * * *The figure before each Act denotes the Chapter.*

1. An Act to apply certain sums out of the Consolidated Fund to the service of the years ending on March 31, 1887, 1888, and 1889.
2. An Act for reducing the rate of interest on the National Debt.
3. An Act for further promoting the revision of the Statute Law by repealing superfluous expressions of enactment, and enactments which have ceased to be in force or have become unnecessary.
4. An Act to provide, during twelve months, for the discipline and regulation of the Army.
5. An Act to empower the Secretary of State in Council of India to raise money in the United Kingdom for the purchase of the Oude and Rohilkund Railway, and for the construction, extension, and equipment of railways in India, through the agency of companies and for other purposes relating thereto.
6. An Act for facilitating the proceedings of the Commissioners appointed to inquire into the working of the Metropolitan Board of Works.
7. An Act to impose certain Duties of Customs on spirits imported into the Isle of Man.
8. An Act to grant certain Duties of Customs and Inland Revenue, to alter other Duties, and to amend the laws relating to Customs and Inland Revenue.
9. An Act to amend the Roads and Bridges (Scotland) Act, 1878.
10. An Act to provide for the qualification and registration of electors for the purposes of local government in England and Wales.
11. An Act to make further provision for the restoration and repair of Westminster Abbey.
12. An Act to amend the Electric Lighting Act, 1882.
13. An Act to amend section 1 of the Land Law (Ireland) Act, 1887, in regard to leaseholders.
14. An Act to grant a Duty of Customs on wine imported in bottle, and to make provision in relation thereto.
15. An Act to make certain amendments in the law consequential on the passing of the National Debt (Conversion) Act, 1888.
16. An Act to apply the sum of £5,570,712 out of the Consolidated Fund to the service of the year ending March 31, 1889.
17. An Act to amend the law relating to the recovery of penalties for the unauthorised performance of copyright musical compositions.

PUBLIC ACTS OF PARLIAMENT PASSED DURING THE SESSION 1888.

18. An Act to carry into effect an International Convention respecting the liquor traffic in the North Sea.
19. An Act to amend the Habitual Drunkards Act, 1879.
20. An Act to facilitate the sale of glebe lands.
21. An Act to amend the law of distress for rent.
22. An Act to amend the Factory and Workshops Act, 1878.
23. An Act to make better provision as to the appointment of deputies for recorders, stipendiary magistrates, and clerks of the peace.
24. An Act to amend the law with respect to the appliances to be carried by British merchant ships for saving life at sea.
25. An Act for the better regulation of railway and canal traffic and other purposes.
26. An Act to apply the sum of £20,693,325 out of the Consolidated Fund to the service of the year ending March 31, 1889.
27. An Act to amend the Supreme Court of Judicature Act (Ireland), 1877.
28. An Act to remove doubts as to the validity of certain marriages solemnised by a person falsely pretending to be an ordained clergyman of the Church of England.
29. An Act to confer powers on Lloyd's with respect to signal stations and telegraph communications and for other purposes.
30. An Act to amend the Fishery Acts in Ireland.
31. An Act to make better provision respecting national defence.
32. An Act for defraying the expenses of carrying into effect an agreement for naval defence with the Australasian Colonies and providing for the defence of certain ports and coaling stations, and for making further provision for Imperial defence.
33. An Act to consolidate the law relating to excise licenses for hawkers.
34. An Act to enable municipal corporations in Ireland to apply municipal funds in the promotion of local Bills in Parliament.
35. An Act to constitute a special Commission to inquire into the charges and allegations made against certain members of Parliament and other persons by the defendants in the recent trial of an action entitled *O'Donnell v. Walter and Another*.
36. An Act to amend the law of bail in Scotland.
37. An Act to amend the Acts relating to the planting of timber in Ireland.
38. An Act to continue various expiring Acts.
39. An Act to grant money for the purpose of certain local loans; and for other purposes relating to local loans.
40. An Act to further amend the Acts relating to the raising the money by the Metropolitan Board of Works, and for other purposes.
41. An Act to amend the laws relating to local government in England and Wales, and for other purposes connected therewith.
42. An Act to consolidate and amend the law relating to mortmain and to the disposition of land for charitable uses.
43. An Act to consolidate and amend the County Courts Acts.

THE QUEEN AND ROYAL FAMILY.

THE QUEEN.—VICTORIA, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, &c., Queen, Defender of the Faith. Her Majesty was born at Kensington Palace, May 24, 1819; succeeded to the throne, June 20, 1837, on the death of her uncle King William IV.; was crowned June 28, 1838; and married, February 10, 1840, to his Royal Highness Prince Albert. Her Majesty is the only child of his late Royal Highness Edward, Duke of Kent, son of King George III. The children of her Majesty are:—

Her Royal Highness Victoria Adelaide Mary Louisa, PRINCESS ROYAL OF ENGLAND AND PRUSSIA, born November 21, 1840, and married to his Royal Highness William, the Crown Prince of Germany, January 25, 1858, afterwards the Emperor Frederick of Germany, and has issue, living, three sons and four daughters.

His Royal Highness Albert Edward, PRINCE OF WALES, born November 9, 1841; married, March 10, 1863, Alexandra of Denmark (Princess of Wales), born December 1, 1844, and has issue, Prince Albert Victor, born January 8, 1864; George Frederick Ernest Albert, born June 3, 1865; Louisa Victoria Alexandra Dagmar, born February 20, 1867; Victoria Alexandra Olga Mary, born July 6, 1868; and Maud Charlotte Mary Victoria, born November 26, 1869; Alexander John Charles Albert, born April 6, 1871, died April 7, 1871.

Her Royal Highness Alice Maud Mary, born April 25, 1843; died December 14, 1878; married his Royal Highness Prince Frederick Louis of Hesse, July 1, 1862; had issue five daughters and two sons; the second son died by an accident, May, 1873; the youngest daughter died November 15, 1878.

His Royal Highness Alfred Ernest Albert, Duke of Edinburgh, born August 6, 1844; married the Grand Duchess Marie of Russia, January 23, 1874; and has had issue a son, born October 15, 1874, and four daughters, born October 29, 1875, November 25, 1876, September 1, 1878, and March, 1884.

Her Royal Highness Helena Augusta Victoria, born May 25, 1846; married to his Royal Highness Prince Frederick Christian Charles Augustus of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Angustenburg, July 5, 1866; and has issue living two sons and two daughters.

Her Royal Highness Louisa Carolina Alberta, born March 18, 1848; married to the Marquis of Lorne, eldest son of the Duke of Argyll, March 21, 1871.

His Royal Highness Arthur William Patrick Albert, Duke of Connaught, born May 1, 1850; married Princess Louise Margaret of Prussia, March 13, 1879; issue, a daughter, born January 15, 1882; a son, born January 13, 1883; and a daughter, born March 17th, 1886.

His Royal Highness Leopold George Duncan Albert, Duke of Albany, born April 7, 1853; married, April 27, 1882, Princess Helen of Waldeck; died, March 28, 1884; issue, a daughter, born February 26, 1883, and a son, born July 19, 1884.

Her Royal Highness Beatrice Mary Victoria Fedore, born April 14, 1857; married, July 23, 1885, to Prince Henry of Battenberg; issue, a son, born November 23, 1886, and a daughter, born October 24, 1887.

LIST OF ADMINISTRATIONS IN THE PRESENT CENTURY.

Ernest Augustus William Adolphus George Frederick, DUKE OF CUMBERLAND, second cousin to her Majesty, born September 21, 1845; married Princess Thyra of Denmark.

Augusta Wilhelmina Louisa, DUCHESS OF CAMBRIDGE, daughter of the Landgrave of Hesse and annt to her Majesty, born July 25, 1797; married, May 7, 1818, the late Duke of Cambridge.

George William Frederick Charles, K.G., DUKE OF CAMBRIDGE, cousin to her Majesty, born March 26, 1819.

Augusta Caroline Charlotte Elizabeth Mary Sophia Louisa, daughter of the late Duke of Cambridge and cousin to her Majesty, born July 19, 1822; married, June 28, 1843, to Frederick, Grand Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, and has issue a son.

Mary Adelaide Wilhelmina Elizabeth, daughter of the late Duke of Cambridge and cousin to her Majesty, born November 27, 1833; married Prince Teck, June 12, 1866; has issue three sons and one daughter.

LIST OF ADMINISTRATIONS IN THE PRESENT CENTURY.

Date.	Prime Minister.	Duration.		Chancellor.	Exchequer.	Home Secretary.	Foreign Sec.
		Yrs.	Days.				
Dec. 23, 1783	William Pitt	17	84	{ Thurlow... { Loughboro'.	William Pitt.	Portland	Grenville.
Mar. 17, 1801	Hy. Addington ..	3	59	Eldon.....	H. Addington.	Portland, Pelham, C. Yorke.	Hawkesbury.
May 15, 1804	William Pitt	1	272	Eldon.....	William Pitt.	Hawkesbury....	{ Harrowby. { Mulgrave. { Charles J. Fox. { Visc. Howick.
Feb. 11, 1806	Lord Grenville ..	1	48	Erskine....	Lord H. Petty	Spencer.....	{ Bathurst. { G. Canning.
Mar. 31, 1807	Duke of Portland	2	246	Eldon.....	S. Perceval ..	Hawkesbury...	{ Bathurst. { Wellesley.
Dec. 2, 1809	Spencer Perceval	2	190	Eldon.....	S. Perceval ..	R. Ryder	{ Bathurst. { Wellesley.
June 9, 1812	Earl of Liverpool	14	319	Eldon.....	{ N. Vansittart. { F. J. Robinson	Sidmouth	Castlereagh. G. Canning.
Apr. 24, 1827	George Canning.	0	134	Lyndhurst.	G. Canning ..	{ Sturges Bourne.. { Lansdowne ..	Dudley.
Sept. 5, 1827	Visct. Goderich..	0	142	Lyndhurst.	J. C. Herries ..	Lansdowne	Dudley.
Jan. 25, 1828	D. of Wellington.	2	301	Lyndhurst.	H. Goulburn ..	Robert Peel	{ Dudley. { Aberdeen.
Nov. 23, 1830	Earl Grey	3	298	Brougham ..	Althorp.....	Melbourne	Palmerston.
July 18, 1834	Visct. Melbourne	0	161	Brougham ..	Althorp.....	Duncannon	Palmerston.
Dec. 26, 1834	Sir Robert Peel..	0	113	Lyndhurst.	Sir R. Peel ..	H. Goulburn	Wellington.
Apr. 18, 1835	Visct. Melbourne	6	141	{ In Comm.. { Cottenham ..	T. S. Rice	Lord J. Russell..	Palmerston.
Sept. 6, 1841	Sir Robert Peel..	4	303	Lyndhurst.	H. Goulburn ..	Sir J. Graham ..	Aberdeen. { Palmerston. { Granville.
July 6, 1846	Ld. John Russell	5	296	{ Cottenham .. { Truro	Sir C. Wood ..	Sir George Grey ..	{ Palmerston. { Granville.
Feb. 27, 1852	Earl of Derby ..	0	305	St. Leonards	B. Disraeli ..	S. H. Walpole ..	Malmesbury. { Lord J. Russell. { Clarendon.
Dec. 23, 1852	Earl of Aberdeen	2	44	Cranworth ..	W. Gladstone.	Palmerston	{ Clarendon.
Feb. 10, 1855	Lord Palmerston	3	15	Cranworth ..	{ W. Gladstone.. { Sir G. C. Lewis	Sir George Grey ..	Clarendon.
Feb. 23, 1858	Earl of Derby ..	1	113	Chelmsford..	B. Disraeli ..	S. H. Walpole ..	Palmerston.
June 18, 1859	Lord Palmerston	6	141	{ Campbell .. { Westbury ..	W. Gladstone.	{ Sir G. C. Lewis.. { Sir George Grey.	Russell.
Nov. 6, 1855	Earl Russell	0	242	Cranworth ..	W. Gladstone.	Sir George Grey ..	Clarendon.
July 6, 1866	Earl of Derby ..	1	236	Chelmsford..	B. Disraeli ..	{ S. H. Walpole .. { Gathorne Hardy.	Stanley.
Feb. 27, 1868	Benjmn. Disraeli	0	235	Cairns	G. W. Hunt ..	G. Hardy	Stanley.
Dec. 9, 1868	W. E. Gladstone.	5	74	{ Hatherley.. { Selborne ..	{ Robert Lowe.. { W. Gladstone.	{ H. A. Bruce { Robert Lowe	{ Clarendon.. { Granville. { Derby.
Feb. 21, 1874	Benjamin Disraeli { Earl Beaconsfield.	6	67	Cairns	S. Northcote ..	R. A. Cross	{ Salisbury.
Apr. 23, 1880	W. E. Gladstone.	5	57	Selborne ..	{ W. Gladstone.. { H. C. E. Childers	Sir W. Harcourt ..	Granville.
June 24, 1885	Mrq. of Salisbury	0	237	Halsbury ..	Hicks-Beach..	R. A. Cross	Salisbury.
Feb. 7, 1886	W. E. Gladstone.	0	139	Herschel ..	W. Harcourt..	H. C. E. Childers	Rosebery.
July 24, 1886	Mrq. of Salisbury			Halsbury ..	{ Lrd. Churchill. { G. J. Goschen.	H. Matthews ..	{ Adesleigh. { Salisbury.

THE SALISBURY MINISTRY.

THE SALISBURY MINISTRY.

Prime Minister—Marquis of SALISBURY.
 First Lord of the Treasury—Right Hon. W. H. SMITH.
 Lord High Chancellor—Lord HALSBURY.
 Lord Privy Seal—Earl CADOGAN.
 Lord President of the Council—Viscount CRANBROOK.
 Chancellor of the Exchequer—The Right Hon. G. J. GOSCHEN.

SECRETARIES OF STATE.

Home—Right Hon. HENRY MATTHEWS, Q.C.
 War—Right Hon. EDWARD STANHOPE.
 Foreign—Marquis of SALISBURY.
 India—Right Hon. Viscount CROSS.
 The Colonies—Right Hon. Lord KNUTSFORD.
 First Lord of the Admiralty—Right Hon. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON.
 Secretary—A. B. FORWOOD, Esq.
 President of the Board of Trade—Right Hon. Sir M. E. HICKS-BEACH.
 President of the Local Government Board—Right Hon. CHARLES T. RITCHIE.
 Postmaster-General—Right Hon. CECIL RAIKES.
 Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland—Marquis of LONDONDERRY.
 Lord Chancellor of Ireland—Lord ASHBOURNE.
 Lord Advocate of Scotland—Right Hon. J. H. A. MACDONALD, Q.C.
 Chief Secretary for Ireland—Right Hon. ARTHUR JAMES BALFOUR.
 Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster—Right Hon. Duke of RUTLAND.
 Junior Lords of the Treasury—H. S. HERBERT, Colonel WALBROND, and
 Sir HERBERT MAXWELL.
 Attorney-General for England—Sir R. WEBSTER, Q.C.
 Solicitor-General for England—Sir EDWARD CLARKE, Q.C.

PRIME MINISTERS FOR FIFTY-FIVE YEARS. THE CABINET.

PRIME MINISTERS FOR FIFTY-FIVE YEARS.

Sir Robert Peel December 15, 1834	Earl of Derby July 8, 1866
Viscount Melbourne..... April 18, 1835	Mr. Disraeli.. March to December, 1868
Sir Robert Peel August 31, 1841	Mr. Gladstone December 9, 1868
Lord John Russell July 6, 1846	Earl Beaconsfield February 21, 1874
Earl of Derby February 27, 1852	Mr. Gladstone April 29, 1880
Earl of Aberdeen.... December 28, 1852	and Ch. of Ex. to April, 1883.
Viscount Palmerston.. February 26, 1855	Marquess of Salisbury.... June 24, 1885
Earl of Derby February 26, 1858	Mr. Gladstone..... February 2, 1886
Viscount Palmerston June 18, 1859	Marquess of Salisbury .. August 3, 1886
Earl Russell..... October 28, 1865	

Nineteen changes of Governments have taken place in the last fifty-five years, but in that time only nine men have been Premiers, and of these Mr. Gladstone and the Marquess of Salisbury are the sole survivors. Mr. Gladstone has been Premier longer than any other statesman since the Earl of Liverpool, who held office nearly fifteen years in succession.

In 1865 the number of members of the Lower House was finally fixed at 670, as against 658 in previous years; England returning 465, Wales 30, Scotland 72, and Ireland 103 members. The previous distribution had been—England 469, Wales 30, Scotland 60, and Ireland 103 seats. There are now 377 county members, as against 283; 284 borough members, as against 360; and 9 University members, as against 9.

THE CABINET.

Office.	Minister.	Age.
Prime Minister	Lord SALISBURY £5,000..	58
First Lord of the Treasury	Right Hon. W. H. SMITH.... 5,000..	63
Lord Chancellor	Lord HALSBURY..... 10,000..	63
President of the Council	Lord CRANBROOK 2,000..	74
Chancellor of the Exchequer	Right Hon. G. J. GOSCHEN.. 5,000..	57
Foreign Secretary.....	Lord SALISBURY 5,000..	—
Home Secretary	Right Hon. H. MATTHEWS.. 5,000..	62
Colonial Secretary	Rt. Hon. Lord KNUTSFORD... 5,000..	63
Indian Secretary	Lord CROSS 5,000..	65
War Secretary	Right Hon. E. STANHOPE.. 5,000..	48
First Lord of the Admiralty	Lord G. HAMILTON 4,500..	43
Chief Secretary for Ireland.....	Right Hon. A. J. BALFOUR.. 4,425..	41
Lord Chancellor for Ireland	Lord ASHBOURNE 8,000..	50
President of the Board of Trade	Rt. Hon. Sir M. E. HIGGS-BEACH 2,000..	51
Chancellor of the Duchy	Duke of RUTLAND..... 2,000..	70
Secretary for Scotland.....	Marquis of LOTHIAN..... 2,000..	56
	Average Age.....	57

PARLIAMENTS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM. PRINCIPAL SOVEREIGNS OF EUROPE, ETC.

PARLIAMENTS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Assembled.			Dissolved.			Duration.			Assembled.			Dissolved.			Duration.		
GEORGE III.			GEORGE IV.			WILLIAM IV.			WILLIAM IV.			VICTORIA.			WILLIAM IV.		
Yrs. m. d.			Yrs. m. d.			Yrs. m. d.			Yrs. m. d.			Yrs. m. d.			Yrs. m. d.		
1	Sept. 27, 1796*	June 29, 1802	5	9	2	11	Jan. 29, 1833	Dec. 30, 1834	1	11	1	11	Jan. 29, 1833	Dec. 30, 1834	1	11	1
2	Oct. 29, 1802	Oct. 25, 1806	3	11	27	12	Feb. 19, 1835	July 17, 1837	2	4	23	12	Feb. 19, 1835	July 17, 1837	2	4	23
3	Dec. 15, 1806	April 23, 1807	0	4	14	13	Nov. 15, 1837	June 23, 1841	3	7	3	13	Nov. 15, 1837	June 23, 1841	3	7	3
4	June 23, 1807	Sept. 29, 1812	5	3	7	14	Aug. 19, 1841	July 23, 1847	5	11	4	14	Aug. 19, 1841	July 23, 1847	5	11	4
5	Nov. 24, 1812	June 10, 1818	5	6	16	15	Nov. 18, 1847	July 1, 1852	4	7	13	15	Nov. 18, 1847	July 1, 1852	4	7	13
6	Jan. 14, 1819	Feb. 29, 1820	1	1	15	16	Nov. 4, 1852	Mar. 21, 1857	4	4	17	16	Nov. 4, 1852	Mar. 21, 1857	4	4	17
7	April 23, 1820	June 2, 1826	6	1	9	17	April 30, 1857	April 23, 1859	1	11	23	17	April 30, 1857	April 23, 1859	1	11	23
8	Nov. 14, 1826	July 24, 1830	3	8	10	18	May 31, 1859	July 6, 1865	6	1	6	18	May 31, 1859	July 6, 1865	6	1	6
9	Oct. 26, 1830	April 22, 1831	0	5	27	19	Feb. 1, 1866	Nov. 11, 1868	2	9	10	19	Feb. 1, 1866	Nov. 11, 1868	2	9	10
10	June 14, 1831	Dec. 3, 1832	1	5	9	20	Dec. 10, 1868	Jan. 26, 1874	5	1	16	20	Dec. 10, 1868	Jan. 26, 1874	5	1	16
						21	Mar. 5, 1874	Mar. 25, 1880	6	0	20	21	Mar. 5, 1874	Mar. 25, 1880	6	0	20
						22	April 29, 1880	Nov. 18, 1885	5	6	20	22	April 29, 1880	Nov. 18, 1885	5	6	20
						23	Jan. 12, 1886	June 25, 1886	0	5	5	23	Jan. 12, 1886	June 25, 1886	0	5	5
						24	Aug. 5, 1886					24	Aug. 5, 1886				

* Parliament first met after the Union with Ireland, Jan. 22, 1801.

PRINCIPAL SOVEREIGNS OF EUROPE, &c.

Countries.	Sovereigns.	When Born.	Began to Reign.
England, &c.	VICTORIA	May 24..1819	June 20..1837
France (Republic) ...	M. F. S. Carnot (Pres.)	Aug. 11..1837	Dec. 3..1887
Russia	Alexander III.	Mar. 10..1845	Mar. 13..1881
Austria	Francis Joseph	Aug. 18..1830	Dec. 2..1848
Germany	William II.	Jan. 27..1859	June 15..1888
Bavaria			
Belgium	Leopold II.	April 9..1835	Dec. 10..1865
Brazil (South America)	Pedro II.	Dec. 2..1825	April 7..1831
Denmark	Christian IX.	April 8..1818	Nov. 15..1863
Greece	George	Dec. 24..1845	June 6..1863
Italy	Humbert	Mar. 14..1844	Jan. 9..1878
Holland	William III.	Feb. 19..1817	Mar. 17..1849
Ottoman Empire ...	Abdul Hamid II.	Sept. 20..1842	Aug. 30..1876
Portugal	Louis	Oct. 31..1838	Nov. 11..1861
Saxony	Albert	April 23..1828	Oct. 29..1873
Spain			
Sweden and Norway ..	Oscar II.	Jan. 21..1829	Sept. 20..1872
United States (Amer.)	Grov. Cleveland (Pres.)	Mar. 18..1837	Mar. 4..1885
Wurtemberg	Charles	Mar. 6..1823	June 25..1864

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES OF
AMERICA.

	YEAR.
<i>Declaration of Independence</i>	4th July, 1776
General Washington first President	1789 and 1793
John Adams	1797
Thomas Jefferson.....	1801 and 1805
James Madison.....	1809 and 1813
James Monroe	1817 and 1821
John Quincy Adams	1825
Gen. Andrew Jackson	1829 and 1833
Martin Van Buren.....	1837
Gen. William Henry Harrison (died 4th April).....	1841
John Tyler (previously Vice-President)	1841
James Knox Polk	1845
General Zachary Taylor (died 9th July, 1850)	1849
Millard Fillmore (previously Vice-President).....	1850
General Franklin Pierce	1853
James Buchanan	1857
Abraham Lincoln (Assassinated 14th April, 1865)	1861 and 1865
Andrew Johnson (previously Vice-President).....	1865
General Ulysses S. Grant	1869 and 1873
Rutherford Birchard Hayes, after long contest with Tilden	1877
General Garfield (Shot July 2 ; died September 19)	1881
Chester A. Arthur, Vice-President, succeeded September 20	1881
Grover Cleveland	1885

The United States of America form a Federal Republic, consisting of 38 partially independent States, divisible as follows:—6 Eastern, or New England, 4 Middle, 10 Southern, 18 Western; and 1 Federal district, and 8 organised Territories, the centre of North America.

The area in English square miles is estimated at 5,034,459, or 1,942,053,760 acres, exclusive of the vast district of Alaska, comprising 369,529,600 acres. One-fourth only is civilised.

The estimated population of the whole of the Territories, including the States, is about 57,000,000. The increase in the ten years, 1870—1880, was 11,594,795.

FOREIGN MONIES AND THEIR ENGLISH EQUIVALENTS.

COUNTRY.	GOLD COINS. Denomination.	Sterling Value.	SILVER COINS. Denomination.	Gold, i.e. Gold or Silver as 15 to 10.	
				s. d.	s. d.
* America	See United States	£ s. d.			
* Austro-Hungary	Ducat 8-florin or gulden piece	0 9 4 0 15 10	Florin or gulden of 100 kreutzer. ½-florin	1 11½ 0 5½	
* Belgium	See France, and footnote				
Brazil	10 milreis	1 2 5½	1 milreis of 1,000 reis	2 0 3	
Chili, Colombia, Uruguay	10 milreis	0 18 9	1 peso of 100 centavos	3 11½	
China	doublon or 5-peso piece	0 18 9	Tael of 10 mace or 100 canderin or 1000 cash	0 6½	
* Denmark	10-crown piece	0 11 0½	1 crown of 100 Øre	1 0 4	
Egypt	10-piastre piece	1 0 5	1 piastre of 40 paras	0 2 2½	
Finland	10-markka piece	0 7 11½	1 mark of 100 penni	0 9 4	
* France	10-franc piece	0 7 11½	5-franc piece 1 franc of 100 centimes	3 11½ 0 8½	
* German Empire	Crown of 10 reichsmarks	0 9 9½	1 reichsmark of 100 pfennige	0 10 4	
* Great Britain	Sovereign of 20 shillings	1 0 0	Crown of 5 shillings Shilling of 12 pence	4 7½ 0 11	
* Greece	See France, and footnote				
* Holland and Java	Ducat 10-florin piece	0 9 4½ 0 16 6½	Rixdaler of 2½ florins Florin of 100 cents	4 2 1 8	
India	Mohur of 15 rupees	1 9 2½	Rupee of 16 annas, 64 pice, or 192 pies.	1 10½	
* Italy	See France, and footnote				
Japan	10-yen piece	2 0 11½	1 yen of 100 sen	4 8½	
* Mexico	10-peso piece	2 0 5½	1 peso of 100 centavos	4 8½	
* Netherlands	See Holland				
* Norway and Sweden	See Denmark, and footnote				
Ottoman Empire	Turkish pound of 100 piastres	0 18 0½	1 piastre of 40 paras	0 10	
Persia	Toman of 10 kiams	0 9 5	Kran 20 shahia	0 10	
Peru and Venezuela	10-sol piece	1 19 7½	Sol of 10 dineros or 100 cents	3 11½	
* Portugal	Crown of 10 milreis	2 4 4½	Teston of 100 reis	0 4½	
* Prussia	See German Empire				
Romania	See France, and footnote				
* Russia	8-rouble piece	0 9 10	(Rouble of 100 kopecks 1 Tchetvertak or ¼ rouble)	3 2 0 9 4	
Servia and Bulgaria	See France, and footnote				
* Spain	Doublon of 10 escudos 25-peseta piece	1 0 7½ 0 19 10	Escudos (or ¼ dollar) of 10 reals Peseta of 100 centimos	2 0 3 0 8½	
* Switzerland	10-piastre piece	0 4 9½	Piastre (Trade dollar)	0 5½ 4 3½	
Tunis	See Ottoman Empire				
Turkey	See Ottoman Empire				
* United States	Eagle of 10 dollars	2 1 1½	Dollar of 100 cents ½ dollar of 50 cents	4 2 3 1 11½	
Uruguay	See Chili, and footnote				
Venezuela	See Peru, and footnote				

Intrinsic Value with Silver per Troy Ounce.

EXPLANATORY NOTES.—France, Belgium, Italy, Greece, and Switzerland constitute what is known as the "Latin" Union, and their coins are alike in weight and fineness, occasionally differing, however, in name. The same system has been in part adopted by Spain, Servia, Bulgaria, Russia, Finland, and Roumania, but they have not joined the Union. Francs and centimes of France, Belgium, and Switzerland are respectively designated lire and centesimi in Italy; drachmal and lepta in Greece; dinars and paras in Servia; pesetas and centimos in Spain; levs and banis in Roumania; levas and stotnikis in Bulgaria. Similarly the Scandinavian countries, Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, employ coins of the same weight and fineness, their names being also alike. The Venezolano (of 10 decimos) of Venezuela and the sol (of 10 dineros) of Peru are alike interchangeable, as also are the peso of Chili, Colombia, and Uruguay.

In all British colonies, English money of every denomination is current. The exchange value of the money of those countries indicated by a * is determined by the rate of exchange for the day, and may be taken as approximately that given in the last column. The rate given in the daily papers generally represents the number of the standard coins (those printed in italics) that are equivalent to one sovereign. The Spanish rate is given in terms of the old dollar (= 2 escudos). The exchange value of the rupees depends on the rate for "India Council Bills." In all "bi-metallic" countries pure gold is taken as being worth 15½ times its weight of pure silver. This proportion corresponds to giving standard silver a constant value of 60½d., as in the last column of the table.

THE ENGLISH MILE COMPARED WITH OTHER EUROPEAN MEASURES.

	English Stat. Mile.	English Geog. Mile.	French Kilometre.	German Geog. Mile.	Russian Verst.	Austrian Mile.	Dutch Uro.	Norwegian Mile.	Swedish Mile.	Danish Mile.	Swiss Stund.
English Statute Mile	1.000	0.867	1.609	0.217	1.608	0.212	0.289	0.142	0.151	0.218	0.335
English Geog. Mile	1.153	1.000	1.855	0.250	1.788	0.245	0.338	0.164	0.169	0.246	0.385
Kilometre	0.621	0.540	1.000	0.185	0.997	0.132	0.180	0.083	0.084	0.133	0.203
German Geog. Mile	4.610	4.000	7.420	1.000	6.953	0.978	1.333	0.667	0.694	0.965	1.543
Russian Verst	0.662	0.575	1.067	0.144	1.000	0.141	0.192	0.094	0.100	0.142	0.222
Austrian Mile	4.714	4.089	7.556	1.022	7.112	1.000	1.363	0.673	0.710	1.006	1.578
Dutch Uro	3.458	3.000	5.565	0.750	5.215	0.734	1.000	0.498	0.520	0.733	1.157
Norwegian Mile	7.231	6.091	11.259	1.323	10.589	1.485	2.035	1.000	1.057	1.499	2.350
Swedish Mile	6.744	5.764	10.332	1.441	10.019	1.409	1.921	0.943	1.000	1.419	2.244
Danish Mile	4.682	4.062	7.586	1.016	7.078	0.994	1.351	0.667	0.705	1.080	1.567
Swiss Stund	2.997	2.592	4.808	0.648	4.505	0.634	0.864	0.425	0.449	0.688	1.060

AN ALPHABETICAL LIST
OF THE
LORDS SPIRITUAL AND TEMPORAL
IN THE
SECOND SESSION OF THE TWENTY-FOURTH PARLIAMENT
OF THE
UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

NAME.	NAME.
Abercorn, James Marquess of. (<i>Duke of Abercorn.</i>)	Ashford, William Countts Lord. (<i>Viscount Bury.</i>)
Abercromby, George Ralph Lord.	Auckland, William George Lord.
Aberdare, Henry Austin Lord.	Aveland, Gilbert Henry Lord.
Abergavenny, William Marquess of.	Aylesford, Charles Wightwick Earl of.
Abingdon, Montagn Arthur Earl of.	
Abinger, William Frederick Lord.	Bagot, William Lord.
Acton, John Emerich Edward Lord.	Balinhard, Jas. Lord. (<i>Earl of Southesk.</i>)
Ailesbury, Ernest Augustus Charles Marquess of.	Balfour of Burley, Alexander Hugh Lord. (<i>Elected for Scotland.</i>)
Ailsa, Archibald Marquess of.	Bandon, James Francis Earl of. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)
Airlie, David Stanley William Earl of. (<i>Elected for Scotland.</i>)	Bangor, Henry William Crosbie Viscount. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)
Albany, His Royal Highness Leopold Charles Edward George Albert Duke of.	Bangor, James Colquhoun Bishop of.
Albemarle, George Thomas Earl of.	Barrogill, George Philips Alexander Lord. (<i>Earl of Caithness.</i>)
Alcester, Frederick Beauchamp Paget Lord.	Bateman, William Bateman Lord.
Alington, Henry Gerard Lord.	Bath, John Alexander Marquess of.
Amherst, William Archer Earl.	Bath and Wells, Arthur Charles Bishop of.
Amptill, Arthur Oliver Villiers Lord.	Bathurst, Allen Alexander Earl.
Anglesey, Henry Marquess of.	Beauchamp, Frederick Earl.
Annaly, Luke George Lord.	Beaufort, Henry Charles Fitzroy Duke of.
Annesley, Hugh Earl. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)	Beaumont, Henry Lord.
Ardilau, Arthur Edward Lord.	Bedford, Francis Chas. Hastings Duke of.
Arundell of Wardour, John Francis Lord.	Belmore, Somerset Richard Earl of. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)
Ashbourne, Edward Lord.	Belper, Henry Lord.
Ashburnham, Bertram Earl of.	Berkeley, ——— Earl of.
Ashburton, Alexander Hugh Lord.	Berwick, Richard Henry Lord.
	Blachford, Frederic Lord.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

NAME.	NAME.
Blackburn, Colin Lord. (<i>A Lord of Appeal in Ordinary.</i>)	Cambridge, His Royal Highness George William Frederick Charles Duke of.
Blantyre, Charles Lord. (<i>Elected for Scotland.</i>)	Camden, John Charles Marquess.
Bolingbroke and St. John, Henry Viscount.	Camoys, Francis Robert Lord.
Bolton, William Henry Lord.	Camperdown, Robert Adam Philips Haldane Earl of.
Boston, George Florance Lord.	Canterbury, Edward White Archbishop of.
Botreaux, Charles Edward Hastings Lord. (<i>Earl of Loudoun.</i>)	Canterbury, Henry Charles Viscount.
Boyle, Richard Edmund Saint Lawrence Lord. (<i>Earl of Cork and Orrery.</i>)	Carew, Robert Shapland George Julian Lord
Brabourne, Edward Hugessen Lord.	Carleton, Henry Bentinck Lord. (<i>Earl of Shannon.</i>)
Bradford, Orlando George Chas. Earl of.	Carlingford, Chichester Samuel Lord.
Bramwell, George William Wilshere Lord.	Carlisle, William George Earl of.
Brancepeth, Gustavus Russell Lord. (<i>Viscount Boyne.</i>)	Carlisle, Harvey Bishop of.
Brandon, Wm. Alexander Louis Stephen Duke of. (<i>Duke of Hamilton.</i>)	Carnarvon, Henry Howard Molyneux Earl of.
Brassey, Thomas Lord.	Carrington, Charles Robert Lord.
Braybrooke, Charles Cornwallis Lord.	Carysfort, William Lord. (<i>Earl of Carysfort.</i>)
Braye, Alfred Thomas Townshend Lord.	Castlemaine, Richard Lord. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)
Breadalbane, Gavin Marquess of.	Castletown, Bernard Edward Barnaby Lord.
Bridport, Alexander Nelson Viscount.	Cathcart, Alan Frederick Earl.
Bristol, Frederick Wm. John Marquess of.	Cawdor, John Frederick Vaughan Earl.
Brodrick, William Lord. (<i>Viscount Midleton.</i>)	Charlemont, James Molyneux Lord. (<i>Earl of Charlemont.</i>)
Brooke, George Guy Earl, and Earl of Warwick.	Chaworth, William Lord. (<i>Earl of Meath.</i>)
Brougham and Vaux, Henry Chas. Lord.	Chelmsford, Frederick Augustus Lord.
Brownlow, Adelbert Wellington Brownlow Earl.	Chesham, Charles Compton William Lord.
Buckingham and Chandos, Richard Plantagenet Campbell Duke of.	Chester, William Bishop of.
Buckinghamshire, Sidney Carr Earl of.	Chesterfield, Hy. Edwyn Chandos Earl of.
Burton, Michael Arthur Lord.	Chichester, Walter John Earl of.
Bute, John Patrick Marquess of.	Chichester, Richard Bishop of.
Byron, George Frederick William Lord.	Cholmondeley, George Henry Hugh Marquess of.
Cadogan, George Henry Earl. (<i>Lord Privy Seal.</i>)	Churchill, Francis George Lord.
Cairns, Arthur William Earl.	Churston, John Lord.
Caledon, James Earl of. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)	Clanbrassill, John Strange Lord. (<i>Earl of Roden.</i>)
Calthorpe, Frederick Henry William Lord.	Clancarty, Richard Somerset Viscount. (<i>Earl of Clancarty.</i>)

HOUSE OF LORDS.

NAME.	NAME.
Clanwilliam, Richard James Lord. (<i>Earl of Clanwilliam.</i>)	Dartrey, Richard Earl of.
Clarendon, Edward Hyde Earl of.	De Clifford, Edward Southwell Lord.
Clements, Robert Bermingham Lord. (<i>Earl of Leitrim.</i>)	De Freyne, Arthur Lord.
Clermont, Thomas Lord	De la Warr, Reginald Windsor Earl.
Cleveland, Harry George Duke of.	De L'Isle and Dudley, Philip Lord.
Clifford of Chudleigh, Lewis Henry Hugh Lord.	De Mauley, Charles Frederick Ashley Cooper Lord.
Clifton, John Stuart Lord. (<i>Earl of Darnley.</i>)	De Ros, Dudley Charles Lord.
Clinton, Charles Henry Rolle Lord.	De Saumarez, John St. Vincent Lord.
Clonbrock, Robert Lord. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)	De Tabley, George Lord.
Cloncurry, Valentine Frederick Lord.	De Vescei, John Robert William Lord. (<i>Viscount de Vescei.</i>)
Clonmell, John Henry Reginald Earl of. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)	Delamere, Hugh Lord.
Colchester, Reginald Charles Edwd. Lord.	Denbigh, Rudolph William Basil Earl of.
Coleridge, John Duke Lord.	Denman, Thomas Lord.
Colville of Culross, Charles John Lord.	Deramore, Thomas Lord.
Combermere, Wellington Henry Viscount.	Derby, Edward Henry Earl of.
Congleton, Henry William Lord.	Derwent, Harcourt Lord.
Connaught and Strathearn, His Royal Highness Arthur William Patrick Albert Duke of.	Devon, William Reginald Earl of.
Conyers, Sackville George Lord.	Devonshire, William Duke of.
Cottenham, Kenelm Charles Ewd. Earl of.	Digby, Edward St. Vincent Lord.
Cottesloe, Thomas Francis Lord.	Dinevor, Arthur de Cardonnel Lord.
Coventry, George William Earl of.	Doncaster, William Henry Walter Earl of. (<i>Duke of Buccleuch and Queensberry.</i>)
Cowley, William Henry Earl.	Doneraile, Hayes Viscount. (<i>Elected for Ireland</i>)
Cowper, Francis Thomas de Grey Earl.	Donington, Charles Frederick Lord.
Cranbrook, Gathorne Viscount. (<i>Lord President of the Council.</i>)	Dorchester, Dudley Wilmot Lord.
Craven, William George Robert Earl of.	Dormer, John Baptist Joseph Lord.
Crewe, Hungerford Lord.	Douglas, Charles Alexander Lord. (<i>Earl of Home.</i>)
Crofton, Edward Henry Churchill Lord. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)	Ducie, Henry John Earl of.
Cross, Richard Assheton Viscount.	Dudley, William Humble Earl of.
Cumberland and Teviotdale, His Royal Highness Ernest Augustus William Adolphus George Frederick Duke of.	Dufferin, Frederick Temple Earl of.
Dacre, Thomas Crosby William Lord.	Dundonald, Douglas Mackinnon Baillie Hamilton Earl of. (<i>Elected for Scotland.</i>)
Dartmouth, William Walter Earl of.	Dunmore, Charles Adolphus Lord. (<i>Earl of Dunmore.</i>)
	Dunning, John Lord. (<i>Lord Rollo.</i>)
	Dunsandle and Clanconal, Denis St. George Lord. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)
	Dunsany, Edward Lord. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)

HOUSE OF LORDS.

NAME.

Durham, John George Earl of.
 Durham, Joseph Barber Bishop of.

Ebury, Robert Lord.

Edinburgh, His Royal Highness Alfred Ernest Albert Duke of.

Effingham, Henry Earl of.

Egerton, Wilbraham Lord.

Eldon, John Earl of.

Elgin, Victor Alexander Lord. (*Earl of Elgin and Kincardine.*)

Ellenborough, Charles Edmund Lord.

Ellesmere, Francis Charles Granville Earl of.

Elphinstone, William Buller Fullerton Lord.

Emly, William Lord.

Erskine, William Macnaghten Lord.

Esher, William Baliol Lord.

Esex, Arthur Algernon Earl of.

Ettrick, Francis Lord. (*Lord Napier.*)

Eversley, Charles Viscount.

Exeter, William Alleyne Marquess of.

Exmouth, Edward Fleetwood John Viscount.

Falmouth, Evelyn Viscount.

Fermanagh, John Henry Lord. (*Earl Erne.*)

Ferrers, Sewallis Edward Earl.

Feversham, William Ernest Earl of.

Fife, Alexander William George Earl of.

Fingall, Arthur James Francis Lord. (*Earl of Fingall.*)

Fisherwick, Edward Lord. (*Marquess of Donegall.*)

Fitz Gerald, John David Lord. (*A Lord of Appeal in Ordinary.*)

Fitzhardinge, Francis Wm. Fitzhardinge Lord.

Fitzwilliam, Wm. Thomas Spencer Earl.

Foley, Henry Thomas Lord.

Forbes, Horace Courtenay Gammell Lord. (*Elected for Scotland.*)

NAME.

Forester, Orlando Watkin Weld Lord.

Fortescue, Hugh Earl.

Foxford, William Hale John Charles Lord. (*Earl of Limerick.*)

Gage, Henry Charles Lord. (*Viscount Gage.*)

Gainsborough, Charles William Francis Earl of.

Gardner, ——— Lord.

Gerard, Robert Tolver Lord.

Gifford, Edric Frederic Lord.

Gloucester and Bristol, Charles John Bishop of.

Gordon, John Campbell Viscount. (*Earl of Aberdeen.*)

Gormanston, Jenico William Joseph Lord. (*Viscount Gormanston.*)

Gough, George Stephens Viscount.

Grafton, Augustus Charles Lennox Duke of.

Graham, Douglas Beresford Malise Ronald Earl. (*Duke of Montrose.*)

Granard, George Arthur Hastings Lord. (*Earl of Granard.*)

Grantley, John Richard Brinsley Lord.

Granville, Granville George Earl.

Greville, Algernon William Fulke Lord.

Grey, Henry Earl.

Grinthorpe, Edmund Lord.

Grinstead, William Willoughby Lord. (*Earl of Enniskillen.*)

Guilford, Frederick George Earl of.

Gwydir, Peter Robert Lord.

Haddington, George Earl of. (*Elected for Scotland.*)

Haldon, Lawrence Hesketh Lord.

Halifax, Charles Lindley Viscount.

Halsbury, Hardinge Stanley Lord. (*Lord High Chancellor.*)

Hamilton of Dalzell, John Glencairn Carter Lord.

Hammond, Edmund Lord.

Hampden, Henry Bouverie Wm. Viscount.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

NAME.	NAME.
Hampton, John Slaney Lord.	Hutchinson, John Luke George Viscount. (<i>Earl of Donoughmore.</i>)
Hardinge, Charles Stewart Viscount.	Hylton, Hedworth Hylton Lord.
Hardwicke, Charles Philip Earl of.	Iddesleigh, Earl of.
Hare, William Lord. (<i>Earl of Listowel.</i>)	Ilchester, Henry Edward Earl of.
Harewood, Henry Thynne Earl of.	Inchiquin, Edward Donough Lord. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)
Harlech, William Richard Lord.	Innes, James Henry Robert Earl. (<i>Duke of Roxburghe.</i>)
Harrington, Charles Augustus Earl of.	Jersey, Victor Albert George Earl of.
Harris, George Robert Canning Lord.	Keane, John Manley Arbuthnot Lord.
Harrowby, Dudley Francis Stuart Earl of.	Kenlis, Thomas Lord. (<i>Marquess of Headfort.</i>)
Hartismere, John Major Lord. (<i>Lord Henniker.</i>)	Kenmare, Valentine Augustus Lord. (<i>Earl of Kenmare.</i>)
Hastings, George Manners Lord.	Kenry, Windham Thomas Lord. (<i>Earl of Dunraven and Mount-Earl.</i>)
Hatherton, Edward Richard Lord.	Kensington, William Lord.
Hawarden, Cornwallis Viscount. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)	Kenyon, Lloyd Lord.
Hawke, Martin Bladen Lord.	Ker, Schomberg Henry Lord. (<i>Marquess of Lothian.</i>)
Hay, George Lord. (<i>Earl of Kinnoul.</i>)	Kesteven, John Henry Lord.
Headley, Charles Mark Lord. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)	Kilmarnock, William Henry Lord. (<i>Earl of Erroll.</i>)
Hereford, Robert Viscount.	Kilmorey, Francis Charles Earl of. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)
Hereford. James Bishop of.	Kimberley, John Earl of.
Herries, Marmaduke Francis Lord.	Kinnaird, Arthur Fitz-Gerald Lord.
Herschell, Farrer Lord.	Kintore, Algernon Hawkins Thomond Lord. (<i>Earl of Kintore.</i>)
Hertford, Hugh de Grey Marquess of.	Knutsford, Henry Lord.
Heytesbury, William Henry Ashe Lord.	Lamington, Alexander Dundas Ross Lord.
Hill, Rowland Clegg Viscount.	Lanesborough, John Vansittart Danvers Earl of. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)
Hillingdon, Charles Henry Lord.	Langford, Hercules Ed. Lord. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)
Hillsborough, Arthur Wills J. Wellington Blundell Trumbell Earl of. (<i>Marquess of Downshire.</i>)	Lansdowne, H. Charles Keith Marquess of. Lathom, Edward Earl of. (<i>Lord Chamberlain of the Household.</i>)
Hindlip, Henry Lord.	Lawrence, John Hamilton Lord.
Hobhouse, Arthur Lord.	Leonfield, Henry Lord.
Hood, Francis Wheler Viscount.	
Hopetoun, John Adrian Louis Lord. (<i>Earl of Hopetoun.</i>)	
Hothfield, Henry James Lord.	
Houghton, Robert Offley Ashburton Lord.	
Howard of Glossop, Francis E. Lord.	
Howard de Walden, Frederick G. Lord.	
Howe, Richard William Penn Earl.	
Howth, William Ulick Tristram Lord. (<i>Earl of Howth.</i>)	
Huntingdon, Warner Francis John Plantagenet Earl of.	

HOUSE OF LORDS.

NAME.

Leeds, George Godolphin Duke of.
 Leicester, Thomas William Earl of.
 Leigh, William Henry Lord.
 Leinster, Charles Wm. Viscount. (*Duke of Leinster.*)
 Leven and Melville, Alexander Earl of. (*Elected for Scotland.*)
 Lichfield, Thomas George Earl of.
 Lichfield, William Dalrymple Bishop of.
 Lifford, James Viscount. (*Elected for Ireland.*)
 Lilford, Thomas Lyttleton Lord.
 Lindsay, John Trotter Earl of. (*Elected for Scotland.*)
 Lindsey, Montague Earl of.
 Lingen, Ralph Robert Wheeler Lord.
 Lismore, G. Ponsonby Lord. (*Viscount Lismore.*)
 Liverpool, John Charles Bishop of.
 Llandaff, Richard Bishop of.
 Loftus, John Henry Wellington Graham Lord. (*Marquess of Ely.*)
 Londesborough, William Henry Forester Lord.
 London, Frederick Bishop of.
 Lonsdale, Hugh Cecil Earl of.
 Lovat, Simon Lord.
 Lovelace, William Earl of.
 Lovell and Holland, Charles George Lord. (*Earl of Egmont.*)
 Lucan, George Charles Earl of. (*Elected for Ireland.*)
 Lurgan, William Lord.
 Lyttelton, Charles George Lord.
 Lytton, Edward Robert Lytton Earl of.
 Lyveden, Fitz Patrick Henry Lord.
 Macclesfield, Thomas Augustus Wolstenholme Earl of.
 Malmesbury, James Howard Earl of.
 Manchester, William Drogo Duke of.
 Manners, John Thomas Lord.
 Mansfield, William David Earl of.
 Manvers Sydney William Herbert Earl.

NAME.

Mar, John Francis Erskine Earl of. (*Elected for Scotland.*)
 Mar and Kellie, Walter Henry Earl of. (*Elected for Scotland.*)
 Marlborough, George Charles Duke of.
 Massy, John Thomas William Lord. (*Elected for Ireland.*)
 Meldrum, Charles Lord. (*Marquess of Huntly.*)
 Melville, Henry Viscount.
 Mendip, Henry George Lord. (*Viscount Clifden.*)
 Meredyth, James Herbert Gustavus Meredyth Lord. (*Lord Athlumney.*)
 Methuen, Frederick Henry Paul Lord.
 Middleton, Digby Wentworth Bayard Lord
 Milltown, Ed. Nugent Earl of. (*Elected for Ireland.*)
 Minster, Henry Francis Lord. (*Marquess Conyngham.*)
 Minto, William Hugh Earl of.
 Monck, Charles Stanley Lord. (*Viscount Monck.*)
 Moncreiff, James Lord.
 Monk Bretton, John George Lord.
 Monkswell, Robert Porrett Lord.
 Montagu of Beaulieu, Henry John Lord.
 Monteagle, George John Lord. (*Marquess of Sligo.*)
 Monteagle of Brandon, Thomas Spring Lord.
 Moore, Henry Francis Seymour Lord. (*Marquess of Drogheda.*)
 Morley, Albert Edmund Earl of.
 Morton, Sholto George Watson Earl of. (*Elected for Scotland.*)
 Mostyn, Llewelyn Nevill Vaughan Lord.
 Mount Edgecumbe, William Henry Earl of. (*Lord Steward of the Household.*)
 Mount-Temple, William Francis Lord.
 Mowbray, Alfred Joseph Lord.
 Munster, William George Earl of.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

NAME.	NAME.
Napier, Robert Cornelis Lord.	Peterborough, William Connor Bishop of.
Nelson, Horatio Earl.	Petre, William Joseph Lord.
Newcastle, Henry Pelham Archibald Douglas Duke of.	Plunket, William Conyngham Lord.
Newcastle, Ernest Roland Bishop of.	Poltimore, Augustus Frederick George Warwick Lord.
Norfolk, Henry Duke of. (<i>Earl Marshal of England.</i>)	Polwarth, Walter Hugh Lord. (<i>Elected for Scotland.</i>)
Normanby, George Augustus Constantine Marquess of.	Ponsonby, Frederick George Brabazon Lord. (<i>Earl of Bessborough.</i>)
North, William Henry John Lord.	Portarlington, Henry John Reuben Earl of. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)
Northampton, William Marquess of.	Portland, William John Arthur Charles James Duke of.
Northbourne, Walter Charles Lord.	Portman, Edward Berkeley Viscount.
Northbrook, Thomas George Earl of.	Portsmouth, Isaac Newton Earl of.
Northesk, George John Earl of. (<i>Elected for Scotland.</i>)	Poulett, William Henry Earl.
Northington, Anthony Henley Lord. (<i>Lord Henley.</i>)	Powerscourt, Mervyn Edward Viscount. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)
Northumberland, Algernon Geo. Duke of.	Powerscourt, Mervyn Edward Lord. (<i>In another place as Viscount Powerscourt.</i>)
Northwick, George Lord.	Powis, Edward James Earl of.
Norton, Charles Bowyer Lord.	
Norwich, John Thomas Bishop of.	
O'Hagan, Thomas Towneley Lord.	Radnor, Jacob Earl of.
O'Neill, Edward Lord.	Raglan, George Fitz-Roy Henry Lord.
Onslow, William Hillier Earl of.	Ramsay, John William Lord. (<i>Earl of Dalhousie.</i>)
Oranmore and Browne, Geoffrey Dominick Augustus Frederick Lord. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)	Ranfurly, Uchter John Mark Lord. (<i>Earl of Ranfurly.</i>)
Orford, Horatio Earl of.	Ravensworth, Henry George Earl of.
Oriel, Clotworthy J. Eyre Lord. (<i>Viscount Massereene.</i>)	Rayleigh, John William Lord.
Orkney, George William Hamilton Earl of. (<i>Elected for Scotland.</i>)	Reay, Donald James Lord.
Ormathwaite, Arthur Lord.	Revelstoke, Edward Charles Lord.
Ormonde, James Edward Wm. Theobald Lord. (<i>Marquess of Ormonde.</i>)	Ribblesdale, Thomas Lord.
Oxenbridge, William John Viscount.	Richmond, Charles Henry Duke of.
Oxenfoord, John Lord. (<i>Earl of Stair.</i>)	Ripon, George Frederick S. Marquess of.
Oxford, John Fielder Bishop of.	Robartes, Thomas Charles Lord.
	Rochester, Anthony Wilson Bishop of.
	Rodney, George Bridges Harley Dennett Lord.
Pembroke and Montgomery, G. Robert Charles Earl of.	Romilly, William Lord.
Pearhyn, George Sholto Gordon Lord.	Romney, Charles Earl of.
Penzance, James Plaisted Lord.	Rosebery, Archibald Philip Lord. (<i>Earl of Rosebery.</i>)

HOUSE OF LORDS.

NAME.	NAME.
Ross, George Frederick Lord. (<i>Earl of Glasgow.</i>)	Sidmouth, William Wells Viscount.
Rosse, Lawrence Earl of. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)	Silchester, William Lygon Lord. (<i>Earl of Longford.</i>)
Rosslyn, Francis Robert Earl of.	Sinclair, Charles Wm. Lord. (<i>Elected for Scotland.</i>)
Rossmore, Derrick Warner William Lord.	Somershill, Hnbert G. Lord. (<i>Marquess of Clanricarde.</i>)
Rothschild, Nathaniel Mayer Lord.	Somers, Philip Reginald Lord.
Rowton, Montagu William Lord.	Somerset, Archibald Henry Algernon Duke of.
Russell, John Francis Stanley Earl.	Somerton, James Charles Herbert Welbore Ellis Lord. (<i>Earl of Normanton.</i>)
Rutland, Charles Cecil John Duke of.	Sondes, George Watson Earl.
Sackville, Mortimer Lord.	Southampton, Charles Henry Lord.
Saint Albans, Wm. Amelius Aubrey de Vere Duke of.	Southwell, George Bishop of.
St. Albans, Thomas Legh Bishop of.	Spencer, John Poyntz Earl.
St. Asaph, Joshua Bishop of.	Stafford, Augustus Frederick Fitz-herbert Lord
St. David's, William Basil Bishop of.	Stalbridge, Richard de Aquila Lord
Saint Germans, Henry Cornwallis Earl of.	Stamford, Harry Earl of.
St. John of Bletso, St. Andrew Lord.	Stanhope, Arthur Philip Earl.
Saint Leonards, Edwd. Burtenshaw Lord.	Stanley of Alderley, Henry Edward John Lord.
Saint Oswald, Rowland Lord.	Stanley of Preston, Frederick Arthur Lord.
St. Vincent, Carnegie Parker Viscount.	Stewart of Garlies, Alan Plantagenet Lord. (<i>Earl of Galloway.</i>)
Salisbury, R. Arthur Talbot Marquess of. <i>Saltersford, James George Henry Lord. (Earl of Courtown.)</i>	Stradbroke, George Edward J. Mowbray Earl of.
Sandhurst, William Lord.	Strafford, George Stevens Earl of.
Sandwich, Edward George Henry Earl of.	Strafford, George Henry Charles Lord. (<i>Viscount Enfield.</i>)
Sandys, Augustus Frederick Arthur Lord.	Strange, John James Hugh Henry Earl. (<i>Duke of Athole.</i>)
Savile, John Lord.	Stratheden, William Frederick Lord.
Saye and Sele, Frederick Benjamin Lord. <i>Scarborough, Aldred Frederick George Beresford Earl of.</i>	Strathmore and Kinghorn, Claude Earl of. (<i>Elected for Scotland.</i>)
Scarsdale, Alfred Nathaniel Holden Lord.	Strathspey, Jas. Lord. (<i>Earl of Seafield.</i>)
Seaton, James Lord.	Stuart of Castle Stuart, George Lord. (<i>Earl of Moray.</i>)
Sefton, Wm. Philip Lord. (<i>Earl of Sefton.</i>)	Sudeley, Charles Douglas Richard Lord. <i>Sudley, Arthur Saunders William Charles Fox Lord. (Earl of Arran.)</i>
Selborne, Ronndell Earl of.	Suffield, Charles Lord.
Shaftesbury, Anthony Earl of.	
Sheffield, Henry North Lord. (<i>Earl of Sheffield.</i>)	
Sherborne, Edward Lennox Lord.	
Sherbrooke, Robert Viscount.	
Shrewsbury, Charles Henry John Earl of.	
Shute, George William Lord. (<i>Viscount Barrington.</i>)	

HOUSE OF LORDS.

NAME.	NAME.
Suffolk and Berkshire, Henry Charles Earl of.	Wantage, Robert James Lord.
Sundridge, George Douglas Lord. (<i>Duke of Argyll.</i>)	Watson, William Lord. (<i>A Lord of Appeal in Ordinary.</i>)
Sutherland, George Grauville William Duke of.	Wellington, Henry Duke of.
Sydney, John Robert Earl.	Wemyss, Francis Richard Lord. (<i>Earl of Wemyss.</i>)
Talbot de Malahide, Richard Wogan Lord.	Wenlock, Beilby Lord.
Tankerville, Charles Earl of.	Wentworth, Ralph Gordon Lord.
Templemore, Henry Spencer Lord.	Westbury, Richard Luttrell Pilkington Lord.
Templetown, George Frederick Viscount. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)	Westminster, Hugh Lupus Duke of.
Tennyson, Alfred Lord.	Westmorland, Francis William Henry Earl of.
Tenterden, Charles Stuart Henry Lord.	Wharnccliffe, Edward Montagu Stuart Granville Earl of.
Teynham, George Henry Lord.	Wigan, James Ludovic Lord. (<i>Earl of Crawford and Balcarres.</i>)
Thring, Henry Lord.	Willoughby de Broke, Henry Lord.
Thurlow, Thomas John Lord.	Wilton, Seymour John Grey Earl of.
Tollemache, John Lord.	Wimborne, Ivor Bertie Lord.
Torrington, George Stanley Viscount.	Winchester, John Marquess of.
Townshend, J. Villiers Stuart Marquess.	Winchester, Edward Harold Bishop of.
Tredegar, Godfrey Charles Lord.	Winchelsea and Nottingham, George James Earl of.
Trevor, Arthur Edwin Lord.	Windsor, Robert George Lord.
Truro, George Howard Bishop of.	Winmarleigh, John Lord.
Truro, Charles Robert Claude Lord.	Winton, Archibald William Earl of. (<i>Earl of Eglintoun.</i>)
Tweeddale, William Montagu Lord. (<i>Marquess of Tweeddale.</i>)	Wolseley, Garnet Joseph Viscount.
Tweedmouth, Dudley Coutts Lord.	Wolverton, Lord.
Tyrone, John Henry De La Poer Lord. (<i>Marquess of Waterford.</i>)	Worcester, Henry Bishop of.
Vane, Charles Stewart Earl. (<i>Marquess of Londonderry.</i>)	Worlingham, Archibald Brabazon Sparrow Lord. (<i>Earl of Gosford.</i>)
Vaux of Harrowden, Hubert George Charles Lord.	Wrottesley, Arthur Lord.
Ventry, Dayrolles Blakeney Lord. (<i>Elected for Ireland.</i>)	Wynford, William Draper Mortimer Lord.
Vernon, George William Henry Lord.	Yarborough, Charles Alfred Worsley Earl of.
Verulam, James Walter Earl of.	York, William Archbishop of.
Vivian, Hussey Crespigny Lord.	Zetland, Lawrence Earl of.
Wales, His Royal Highness the Prince of.	Zouche of Haryngworth, Robt. Nathaniel Cecil George Lord.
Waldegrave, William Frederick Earl.	
Walsingham, Thomas Lord.	

PEERS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

THE FOLLOWING LORDS ARE TWICE NAMED IN THE ROLL:—

- Lord Halsbury, as Lord High Chancellor, and as Lord Halsbury.
 Viscount Cranbrook, as Lord President, and as Viscount Cranbrook.
 Earl Cadogan, as Lord Privy Seal, and as Earl Cadogan.
 Earl of Mount Edgcumbe, as Lord Steward, and as Earl of Mount Edgcumbe.
 Earl of Lathom, as Lord Chamberlain, and as Earl of Lathom.
 Viscount Powerscourt, as Viscount Powerscourt, and as Lord Powerscourt.

PEERS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM

USUALLY ADDRESSED BY THEIR HIGHER TITLES AS PEERS OF SCOTLAND OR IRELAND.

<i>Scotch Peerage.</i>	<i>Eng. Peerage.</i>	<i>Irish Peerage.</i>	<i>Eng. Peerage.</i>
E. Aberdeen.....	V. Gordon	V. Clifden.....	B. Mendip
D. Argyll	B. Sundridge	M. Conyngham	B. Minster
E. Arran	B. Sudley	E. Cork and Orrery..	B. Boyle
D. Athole	E. Strange	E. Courtown	B. Saltersford
D. Buccleuch	E. Doncaster	E. Darnley	B. Clifton
E. Caithness	B. Barrogill	M. Donegall.....	B. Fisherwick
E. Crawford & Balcarres.	B. Wigan.	E. Donoughmore....	V. Hutchinson
E. Dalhousie	B. Ramsay	M. Downshire	E. Hillsborough
E. Eglintoun	E. Winton	M. Drogheda	B. Moore
E. Erroll	B. Kilmarnock	E. Dunraven	B. Kenry
E. Galloway	B. Stewart of Garlies	E. Egmont	B. Lovel & Holland
E. Glasgow	B. Ross	M. Ely	B. Loftus
D. Hamilton.....	D. Brandon	E. Enniskillen.....	B. Grinstead
E. Home	B. Douglas	E. Erne.....	B. Fermanagh
M. Huntly.....	B. Meldrum	E. Fife	B. Skene
E. Kinnoull	B. Hay	E. Gosford	B. Worlingham
M. Lothian	B. Kerr	M. Headfort.....	B. Kenlis
E. Loudoun	L. Hastings	B. Henniker.....	B. Hartismere
D. Montrose.....	E. Graham	E. Howth	B. Howth
E. Moray	B. Stuart	D. Leinster	V. Leinster
B. Napier	B. Ettrick	E. Leitrim	B. Clements
B. Rollo	B. Dunning	E. Limerick	B. Foxford
D. Roxburghe	E. Innes	E. Listowel	B. Hare
E. Seafield	B. Strathspey	M. Londonderry	E. Vane
E. Southesk	B. Balinhard	E. Longford.....	B. Silchester
E. Stair	B. Oxenfoord	V. Massereene.....	B. Oriel
M. Tweeddale	B. Tweeddale	E. Meath.....	B. Chaworth
<i>Irish Peerage.</i>		V. Middleton	B. Brodrick
D. Abercorn	M. Abercorn	E. Normanton	B. Somerton
B. Athlumney	B. Meredyth	E. Roden	B. Clanbrassill
V. Barrington	B. Shute	E. Shannon	B. Carleton
E. Bessborough	B. Ponsonby	M. Sligo	B. Montegale
V. Boyne	B. Brancepeth	M. Waterford	B. Tyrone
M. Clanricarde.....	B. Somerhill		

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS,
AS ELECTED JUNE-JULY, 1886,

With CORRECTIONS to November, 1888.

ABBREVIATIONS.

L.—Liberal.
C.—Conservative.

D.L.—Dissentient Liberal.
N.—Nationalist.

Member.	Constituency.
L Abraham, W.....	Glamorganshire, Rhondda.
N Abraham, W.....	Limerick County, West.
L Acland, A. H. Dyke	Yorkshire, W.R., S. Rotherham.
L Acland, C. T. Dyke.....	Cornwall, N.E.
C Addison, J. E. W.	Ashton-under-Lyne.
C Agg-Gardner, J. T.....	Cheltenham.
C Ainslie, W. G.	Lancashire, N.—N. Lonsdale.
C Aird, J.	Paddington, N.
C Akers-Douglas, A.	Kent, E.
L Allison, R. A.	Cumberland, North.
C Allsopp, Hon. G. H.	Worcester.
C Allsopp, Hon. Percy	Taunton.
C Ambrose, W.....	Middlesex, Harrow.
L Anderson, C. H.	Elgin and Nairn.
DL Anstruther, H. T.	St. Andrews Burghs.
C Anstruther, Col. R. H. L.	Suffolk, South-East.
L Asher, A.	Elgin District.
C Ashmead-Bartlett, E.	Sheffield, Eccleshall.
L Asquith, H. H.....	Fifeshire, East.
C Atkinson, H. J.....	Boston.
L Anstin, J.....	Yorkshire, W.R. (Osgoldcross).
C Baden-Powell, G.....	Liverpool, Kirkdale.
C Bailey, Sir J. R.	Hereford.
C Baird, J. G. A.....	Glasgow, Central.
C Balfour, Right Hon. A. J.	Manchester, East.
L Balfour, Sir George	Kincardineshire.
C Balfour, G. W.....	Leeds, Central.
L Balfour, Right Hon. J. B.....	Clackmannan.
L Ballantine, W. H. W.....	Coventry.
C Banes, Major G. E.....	West Ham, South.
L Barbour, W. B.....	Paisley.
DL Barclay, J. W.	Forfarshire.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.
C Baring, T. C.	London City.
DL Baring, Viscount	Bedfordshire, North.
DL Barnes, A.	Derbyshire, Chesterfield.
L Barran, J.	Yorkshire, W.R., E.—Otley.
N Barry, J.	Wexford, South.
C Bartley, G. C. T.	Islington, North.
C Barttelot, Sir W.	Sussex, N.W.
DL Bass, H. A.	Staffordshire, West.
C Bates, Sir E.	Plymouth.
C Baumann, A. A.	Camberwell, Peckham.
C Beach, W. W. B.	Hampshire, West.
C Beadel, W. J.	Essex, Mid.
DL Beaumont, H. F.	Yorkshire, W.R., Colne Valley.
L Beaumont, W. B.	Northumberland, Tyneside.
C Beckett, E. W.	Yorkshire, N.R., Whitby.
C Beckett-Denison, W.	Nottinghamshire, Bassetlaw.
C Bective, Earl of	Westmoreland, South.
C Bentinck, Lord Henry C.	Norfolk, N.W.
C Beresford, Lord C.	Marylebone, East.
C Bethell, Com. G. R.	Yorkshire, E.R., Holderness.
DL Bickford-Smith, W.	Cornwall, Truro.
DL Biddulph, M.	Herefordshire, South.
N Biggar, J. G.	Cavan, West.
C Bigwood, James	Middlesex, Brentford.
C Birkbeck, Sir E.	Norfolk, East.
N Blane, A.	Armagh, South.
C Blundell, Colonel, H. B. H.	Lancashire, S.W., Ince.
DL Bolitho, Thomas Bedford.	Cornwall, Mid.
L Bolton, J. C.	Stirlingshire.
L Bolton, T. D.	Derbyshire, N.E.
C Bond, G. H.	Dorsetshire, East.
C Bonsor, H. C. O.	Surrey, N.E.
C Boord, T. W.	Greenwich.
C Borthwick, Sir A.	Kensington, South.
L Bradlaugh, C.	Northampton.
C Bridgeman, Col. Hon. F. C.	Bolton.
L Bright, Jacob	Manchester, S.W.
DL Bright, Right Hon. John.	Birmingham, Central.
L Bright, W. Leatham	Stoke-upon-Trent.
C Bristowe, T. L.	Lambeth, Norwood.
L Broadhurst, H.	Nottingham, West.
C Brodrick, Hon. W. St. J. F.	Surrey, S.W.
C Bromley Davenport, W.	Cheshire, Macclesfield.
C Brookfield, A. M.	Sussex, East.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.
c Brooks, Sir W. C.....	Cheshire, Altrincham.
DL Brown, A. H.....	Shropshire, Mid.
L Brown, A. L.....	Hawick Group.
c Bruce, Lord Henry.....	Wiltshire, N.W.
L Bruce, Hon. R. P.....	Fifeshire, West.
c Bruce, Gainsford.....	Finsbury, Holborn.
L Brunner, J. T.....	Cheshire, Northwich.
L Bryce, J.....	Aberdeen, South.
DL Buchanan, T. R.....	Edinburgh, West.
c Burdett-Countts, W.....	Westminster.
c Burghley, Lord.....	Northamptonshire, North.
L Burt, T.....	Morpeth.
L Buxton, Sydney.....	Tower Hamlets, Poplar.
N Byrne, G. M.....	Wicklow, West.
DL Caine, W. S.....	Barrow.
DL Caldwell, J.....	Glasgow, St. Rollox.
L Cameron, Dr. C.....	Glasgow—College.
L Cameron, J. Mc.Donald.....	Wick District.
c Campbell, Colonel Sir A.....	Renfrewshire, West.
L Campbell, Sir G.....	Kirkcaldy Burghs.
N Campbell, H.....	Fermanagh, South.
c Campbell, J. A.....	Glasgow and Aberdeen Univer.
L Campbell-Bannerman, Right Hon. H.....	Stirling Group.
N Carew, J. L.....	Kildare, North.
c Carmarthen, Marquis of.....	Lambeth, Brixton.
L Causton, R. K.....	Southwark, West.
DL Cavendish, Lord E.....	Derbyshire, West.
c Cavendish-Bentinck, Rt. Hon. G.....	Whitehaven.
c Cavendish-Bentinck, W. G.....	Penrhyn and Falmouth.
DL Chamberlain, Right Hon. J.....	Birmingham, West.
DL Chamberlain, R.....	Islington, West.
N Chance, P. A.....	Kilkenny County, South.
L Channing, F. A.....	Northamptonshire, East.
c Chaplin, Right Hon. H.....	Lincolnshire, North Kesteven.
c Charrington, Spencer.....	Tower Hamlets, Mile-end.
L Childers, Right Hon. H. C. E.....	Edinburgh, South.
c Churchill, Rt. Hon. Ld. R. H. S.....	Paddington, South.
N Clancy, J. J.....	Dublin County, North.
L Clark, G. B.....	Caithness-shire.
c Clarke, Sir E.....	Plymouth.
L Cobb, H. P.....	Warwickshire, S.E.
c Cochrane-Baillie, Hon. C. W.....	St. Pancras, North.
c Coddington, W.....	Blackburn.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.
DL Coghill, D. H.....	Newcastle-under-Lyme.
L Coleridge, Hon. Bernard	Sheffield, Attercliffe.
DL Collings, Jesse	Birmingham, Bordesley.
L Colman, J. J.	Norwich.
C Colomb, Captain J. R. C.	Tower Hamlets, Bow.
N Commins, A.	Roscommon, South.
C Compton, F.....	Hampshire, New Forest.
N Condon, T. J.	Tipperary, East.
N Conway, M.	Leitrim County, North.
L Conybeare, C. A. V.	Cornwall, N.W.
C Cooke, C. W. R.	Newington, West.
N Corbet, W. J.	Wicklow, East.
DL Corbett, A. L. C.	Glasgow, Tradeston.
DL Corbett, J.	Worcestershire, Mid.
C Corry, Sir J. P.....	Armagh, Mid.
L Cosham, Handel	Bristol, East.
C Cotton, Captain E. T. D'A.	Cheshire, Wirral.
DL Courtney, L. H.....	Cornwall, S.E.
N Cox, J. R.....	Clare, East.
L Cozens-Hardy, H. H.	Norfolk, North.
L Craig, J.	Newcastle-on-Tyne.
DL Craig-Sellar, A.....	Lanarkshire, Partick.
C Cranborne, Viscount	Lancashire, N.E., Darwen.
L Craven, J.....	Yorkshire, W.R., Shipley.
L Crawford, D.....	Lanarkshire, N.E.
L Crawford, W.	Durham, Mid.
L Cremer, W. R.....	Shoreditch, Haggerston.
N Crilly, D.	Mayo, North.
C Cross, Hon. W. H.	Liverpool, West Derby.
L Crossley, E.	Yorkshire, W.R., N. Sowerby.
DL Crossley, Sir S. B.....	Suffolk, North.
DL Crossman, Colonel Sir W.	Portsmouth.
C Cubitt, Right Hon. G.	Surrey, Mid.
DL Currie, Sir D.....	Perthshire, West.
C Curzon, Viscount.....	Bucks, South.
C Curzon, Hon. G. N.....	Lancashire, S.W., Southport.
c Dalrymple, C.	Ipswich.
c Darling, C. J.	Deptford.
c Davenport, H. T.....	Staffordshire, Leek.
L Davies, W.	Pembrokeshire.
c Dawnay, Colonel Hon. L. P.....	Yorkshire, N.R., Thirsk.
N Deasy, J.	Mayo, West.
c De Cobain, E. S. W.	Belfast, East.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.
c De Lisle, E. J. M. P.	Leicestershire, Mid.
c Dickson, Major, A. G.	Dover.
N Dickson, T. A.	Dublin, St. Stephen's Green.
N Dillon, J.	Mayo, East.
L Dillwyn, L. L.	Swansea, Town.
c Dimsdale, Baron R.	Hertfordshire, Hitchin.
DL Dixon, G.	Birmingham, Edgbaston.
c Dixon-Hartland, F. D.	Middlesex, Uxbridge.
L Dodds, J.	Stockton-on-Tees.
c Donkin, R. S.	Tynemouth.
c Dorington, Sir J. E.	Gloucestershire, North.
L Duff, R. W.	Banffshire.
c Dugdale, J. S.	Warwickshire, N.E.
c Duncombe, A.	Yorkshire, E.R., Howdenshire.
DL Ebrington, Viscount.	Devonshire, W.
c Edwards-Heathcote, Colonel J.	Staffordshire, N.W.
c Edwardes-Moss, T. C.	Lancashire, S.W., Widnes.
c Egerton, Hon. A de T.	Cheshire, Knutsford.
c Egerton, Hon. A. J. F.	Lancashire, S.E., Eccles.
c Elcho, Lord	Ipswich.
DL Elliot, Hon. A. R. D.	Roxburghshire.
c Elliot, Sir G.	Monmouthshire District.
c Elliot, G. W.	Yorkshire, N.R., Richmond.
DL Elliot, Hon. H. F. H.	Ayrshire, North.
L Ellis, James.	Leicestershire, West.
L Ellis, J. E.	Nottinghamshire, Rushcliffe.
c Ellis, Sir J. W.	Surrey, Kingston.
L Ellis, T. E.	Merionethshire.
c Elton, C. I.	Somerset, West.
N Esmonde, Sir T. H. G.	Dublin County, South.
L Esslemont, P.	Aberdeenshire, East.
L Evans, F. H.	Southampton.
L Evershed, Sydney	Staffordshire, Burton.
c Ewart, W.	Belfast, North.
c Ewing, Sir A. Orr	Dumbartonshire.
c Eyre, Colonel H.	Lincolnshire, W. Lindsey.
c Farquharson, H. R.	Dorsetshire, W. (Bridport).
L Farquharson, Dr. R.	Aberdeenshire, West.
c Feilden, General R. J.	Lancashire, N. (Chorley).
c Fellowes, Ailwyn.	Huntingdonshire, North.
L Fenwick, C.	Northumberland, Wansbeck.
L Ferguson, Munro.	Leith Burghs.
c Fergusson, Right Hon. Sir J.	Manchester, N.E.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.
c Field, Admiral	Sussex, South.
c Fielden, T.	Lancashire, S.E. (Middleton).
c Finch, G. H.	Rutlandshire.
DL Finlay, R. B.	Inverness, Burghs.
N Finucane, J.	Limerick County, East.
L Firth, J. F. B.	Dundee.
c Fisher, W. H.	Fulham.
N Fitzgerald, J. G.	Longford, South.
c Fitzgerald, R. U. P.	Cambridge.
DL Fitzwilliam, Hon. W. H. W.	Yorkshire, Doncaster.
DL Fitzwilliam, Hon. W. J. W.	Peterborough.
c Fitzwygram, Sir F.	Hampshire, South.
c Fletcher, Sir H.	Sussex, Mid.
L Flower, Cyril	Bedfordshire, South (Luton).
N Flynn, J. C.	Cork County, North.
N Foley, P. J.	Galway, West.
L Foljambe, C. G. S.	Nottinghamshire, Mansfield.
c Folkestone, Lord	Middlesex, Enfield.
L Forster, Sir C.	Walsall.
c Forwood, A. B.	Lancashire, S.W., Ormskirk.
L Foster, Dr. W. B.	Derbyshire, Ilkeston.
L Fowler, Right Hon. H. H.	Wolverhampton, East.
c Fowler, Sir R.	City of London.
N Fox, Dr. J. F.	King's County, Tullamore.
c Fraser, General C. C.	Lambeth, North.
DL Fraser-Mackintosh, C.	Inverness-shire.
DL Fry, Lewis	Bristol, North.
L Fry, Theodore	Darlington.
L Fuller, G. P.	Wiltshire, West.
c Fulton, J. Forrest	West Ham, North.
L Gane, J. L.	Leeds, East.
L Gardner, H.	Essex, North.
c Gardner, R. R.	Windsor.
L Gaskell, C. G. Milnes-	Yorkshire, W.R., Morley.
c Gedge, S.	Stockport.
c Gent-Davis, R.	Lambeth, Kennington.
c Giles, A.	Southampton.
N Gill, T. P.	Louth, South.
N Gillhooly, J.	Cork County, West.
c Gilliat, J. S.	Clapham.
L Gladstone, H. J.	Leeds, West.
L Gladstone, Right Hon. W. E.	Midlothian.
c Godson, A. F.	Kidderminster.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.
DL Goldsmid, Sir Julian.....	St. Pancras, South.
C Goldsworthy, General W. T.....	Hammersmith.
C Gorst, Sir J. E.....	Chatham.
DL Goschen, G. J.	St. George's, Hanover Square.
L Gourley, E. T.....	Sunderland.
L Graham, R. C.....	Lanarkshire, North-West.
C Grandby, Marquis of	Leicestershire, Melton.
C Gray, C. W.	Essex, East (Maldon).
C Green, Sir E.	Wakefield.
C Greenall, Sir G.	Warrington.
C Greene, E.	Suffolk, N.W.
L Grey, Sir E.....	Northumberland, Berwick.
C Grimston, Viscount.....	Hertfordshire, Mid.
C Grotian, F. B.	Hull, East.
DL Grove, Sir T. F.....	Wiltshire, South.
L Gully, W. C.....	Carlisle.
C Gunter, Colonel R.	Yorkshire, W.R.,E., Barkston Ash.
DL Gurdon, R. T.....	Norfolk, Mid.
L Haldane, R. B.....	Haddingtonshire.
C Hall, A. W.	Oxford.
C Hall, Charles	Cambridgeshire, West.
C Halsey, T. F.	Hertfordshire, West.
C Hambro, Colonel C. J. T.	Dorsetshire, South.
C Hamilton, Colonel C. E.....	Southwark—Rotherithe.
C Hamilton, Lord E.	Tyrone, North.
C Hamilton, Rt. Hon. Lord G.	Middlesex, Ealing.
C Hamley, General Sir E.....	Birkenhead.
C Hanbury, R. W.	Preston.
L Hanbury-Tracy, Hon. F.	Montgomery District.
C Hankey, F. A.	Surrey, N.W.
L Harcourt, Right Hon. Sir W.	Derby.
C Hardcastle, E.....	Salford, North.
C Hardcastle, F.	Lanc., S.E., West Houghton.
C Hardy, Hon. A. Gathorne	Sussex, North.
C Hardy, Hon. J. S. Gathorne	Kent, Mid.
N Harrington, E.....	Kerry, West.
N Harrington, T.....	Dublin City, Harbour.
N Harris, M.....	Galway, East.
C Hart-Dyke, Right Hon. Sir W.....	Kent, N.W.
DL Hartington, Marquis of	Lancashire, N.E., Rossendale.
DL Hastings, G. W.....	Worcestershire, East.
DL Havelock-Allan, Sir H.....	Durham, S.E.
N Hayden, L. P.	Leitrim, South.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.
N Healy, M.	Cork, City.
N Healy, T. M.	Longford.
c Heath, A. R.	Lincolnshire, East, Lindsey.
c Heaton, J. Henniker	Canterbury.
DL Heneage, Right Hon. E.	Grimsby.
c Herbert, Hon. Sidney	Croydon.
c Hermon-Hodge, R. T.	Lancashire, N.E., Accrington.
c Hervey, Lord F.	Bury St. Edmunds.
c Hicks-Beach, Right Hon. Sir M.	Bristol, West.
c Hill, Lord Arthur W.	Down County, West.
c Hill, A. Staveley	Staffordshire, Kingswinford.
c Hill, Colonel E. S.	Bristol, South.
DL Hingley, B.	Worcestershire, North.
c Hoare, E. B.	Hampstead.
c Hoare, S.	Norwich.
DL Hobhouse, H.	Somerset, East.
L Holden, I.	Yorkshire, W.R., N. Keighley.
c Holloway, G.	Gloucestershire, Mid.
N Hooper, J.	Cork County, S.E.
c Hornby, W. H.	Blackburn.
c Houldsworth, Sir W. H.	Manchester, N.W.
c Howard, J.	Middlesex, Tottenham.
L Howell, G.	Bethnal Green, N.E.
c Howorth, H. H.	Salford, South.
L Hoyle, I.	Lancashire, S.E., Heywood.
c Hozier, J. H. C.	Lanarkshire, South.
c Hubbard, E.	Bucks, North.
c Hughes, E.	Woolwich.
c Hughes-Hallett, Colonel F. C.	Rochester.
c Hulse, E. H.	Salisbury.
c Hunt, F. Seager	Marylebone, West.
L Hunter, W. A.	Aberdeen, North.
c Hunter, Sir W. G.	Hackney, Central.
c Ibbetson, Rt. Hon. Sir H. J. S.	Essex, W. (Epping).
L Illingworth, A.	Bradford, West.
c Isaacs, L. H.	Newington, Walworth.
c Isaacson, F. W.	Tower Hamlets, Stepney.
c Jackson, W. L.	Leeds, North.
L Jacoby, J. A.	Derbyshire, Mid.
DL James, Right Hon. Sir H.	Bury.
L James, Hon. W. H.	Gateshead.
DL Jardine, Sir R.	Dumfriesshire.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.
c Jarvis, Weston.....	King's Lynn.
c Jeffreys, A. F.	Hampshire, North.
c Jennings, L. J.....	Stockport.
c Johnston, W.	Belfast, South.
L Joicey, J.	Durham, Chester-le-Street.
L Jones, Ll. A. Atherley	Durham, N.W.
N Jordan, J.....	Clare, West.
L Kay-Shuttleworth, Sir U. J.	Lancashire, N.E., Clitheroe.
c Kelly, J. R.	Camberwell, North.
c Kennaway, Sir J. H.	Devonshire, East.
L Kenny, C. S.....	Yorkshire, W.R., Barnsley.
N Kenny, J. E.....	Cork County, South.
N Kenny, M. J.....	Tyrone, Mid.
DL Kenrick, W.	Birmingham, North.
c Kenyon, Hon. G. T.....	Denbigh, Boroughs.
c Ker, Captain R. W. B.	Down, East.
c Kerans, F. H.	Lincoln.
N Kilbride, D.	Kerry, South.
L Kilcourse, Viscount.....	Somerset, South.
c Kimber, H.....	Wandsworth.
c King, H. S.	Hull, Central.
c Knatchbull-Hugessen, H.	Kent, N.E.
c Knightley, Sir R.....	Northamptonshire, S.
c Knowles, Lees	Salford, West.
c Kynoch, G.	Aston Manor.
L Labouchere, H.	Northampton.
c Lafone, A.....	Southwark, Bermondsey.
N Lalor, R.	Queen's County, Leix.
c Lambert, C.	Islington, East.
N Lane, W. J.	Cork County, East.
c Laurie, Colonel R. P.	Bath.
c Lawrance, J. C.	Lincolnshire, S., Kesteven.
c Lawrence, Sir T.	Surrey, S.E.
c Lawrence, W. F.....	Liverpool, Abercromby.
L Lawson, H. L. W.	St. Pancras, West.
L Lawson, Sir W.....	Cumberland, Cockermouth.
DL Lea, T.....	Londonderry, South.
N Leahy, J.	Kildare, South.
L Leake, R.	Lancashire, S.E., Radeliffe.
N Leamy, E.....	Cork County, N.E.
c Lechmere, Sir E. A. H.	Worcestershire, West.
c Lees, E.....	Oldham.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.
C Legh, T. W.....	Lancashire, S.W., Newton.
C Leighton, S.....	Shropshire, West.
C Lethbridge, Sir R.	Kensington, North.
C Lennox, Lord W. G.	Sussex, Chichester.
C Lewis, C. E.....	Antrim, North.
DL Lewis, G. Pitt	Devon, N.W.
L Lewis, T.	Anglesey.
C Lewisham, Rt. Hon. Viscount	Lewisham.
C Llewellyn, E. H.....	Somerset, North.
L Lockwood, F.	York.
C Long, W. H.....	Wiltshire, East.
C Low, M.....	Grantham.
C Lowther, J. W.....	Cumberland, Mid.
C Lowther, Hon. W.	Westmoreland, North.
C Lowther, Hon. J.....	Kent, Thanet.
DL Lubbock, Sir J.....	London University.
L Lyell, L.....	Orkney and Shetland.
DL Lymington, Viscount	Devonshire, North.
L Mc.Arthur, A.	Leicester.
L Mc.Arthur, W. A.	Cornwall, Mid.
C Macartney, W. G. E.....	Antrim, South.
C M'Calmont, Captain J. M.....	Antrim, East.
N Mc.Cartan, M.....	Down County, South.
N Mc.Carthy, Justin	Londonderry, City.
N Mc.Carthy, J. Huntly.....	Newry.
C Macdonald, Right Hon. J. H.	Edin. and St. And. University.
N Macdonald, P.	Sligo County, North.
L Macdonald, Dr. R.	Ross and Cromarty.
N Macdonald, W. A.	Queen's County, Ossory.
L Mc.Ewan, W.	Edinburgh, Central.
L Mc.Innes, M.	Northumberland, Hexham.
N Mc.Kenna, Sir J. N.	Monaghan, South.
L M'Lagan, P.....	Linlithgowshire.
DL Maclean, F. W.....	Oxfordshire, Mid.
C Maclean, J. M.....	Oldham.
L M'Laren, W. S. B.....	Cheshire, Crewe.
C Maclure, J. W.....	Lancashire, S.E., Stretford.
N MacNeil, J. G. Swift	Donegal, South.
C Madden, D. H.....	Dublin University.
N Mahoney, P.....	Meath, North.
L Maitland, W. F.	Brecknockshire.
C Makins, Colonel W. T.	Essex, S.W.
C Malcolm, J. W.....	Argyllshire.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.
c Mallock, R.	Devonshire, Torquay.
c Maple, Blundell	Camberwell, Dulwich.
L Mappin, F. T.	Yorks., W.R., S. Hallamshire.
L Marjoribanks, Right Hon. E.	Berwickshire.
c Marriott, Right Hon. W. T.	Brighton.
N Marum, E. P. M.	Kilkenny County, North.
c Matthews, Right Hon. Henry	Birmingham, East.
c Mattinson, M. W.	Liverpool, Walton.
c Maxwell, Sir H.	Wigtownshire.
c Mayne, Admiral R. C.	Pembroke, Boroughs.
N Mayne, T.	Tipperary, Mid.
L Menzies, R. S.	Perthshire, East.
DL Mildmay, F. B.	Devon, S. (Totnes).
c Mills, Hon. C. W.	Kent, West.
c Milvain, T.	Durham.
N Molloy, B. C.	King's County, Birr.
L Montagu, S.	Tower Hamlets, Whitechapel.
DL More, R. J.	Shropshire, South.
c Morgan, Colonel Hon. F. C.	Monmouthshire, South.
L Morgan, Right Hon. G. O.	Denbighshire, East.
L Morgan, O. V.	Battersea.
L Morgan, Pritchard	Merthyr Tydvil.
L Morley, Arnold	Nottingham, East.
L Morley, Right Hon. John	Newcastle-on-Tyne.
DL Morrison, W.	Yorkshire, W.R., N. Skipton.
c Moss, R.	Winchester.
c Mount, W. G.	Berks, South.
c Mowbray, Right Hon. Sir J. R.	Oxford University.
c Mowbray, R. G. C.	Lancashire, S.E.—Prestwich.
c Mulholland, H. L.	Londonderry, North.
c Muncaster, Lord	Cumberland, West.
L Mundella, Right Hon. A. J.	Sheffield, Brightside.
c Muntz, P. A.	Warwickshire, North.
c Murdock, C. T.	Reading.
N Murphy, W. M.	Dublin City, St. Patrick's.
L Neville, Ralph	Liverpool, Exchange.
c Newark, Viscount	Nottinghamshire, Newark.
L Newnes, G.	Cambridgeshire, East.
c Noble, Wilson	Hastings.
N Nolan, J.	Louth, North.
N Nolan, Colonel J. P.	Galway, North.
c Norris, E. S.	Tower Hamlets, Limehouse.
c Northcote, Hon. H. S.	Exeter.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.
c Norton, R.....	Kent, S.W.
n O'Brien, J. F. X.....	Mayo, South.
n O'Brien, P.	Monaghan, North.
n O'Brien, P. J.	Tipperary, North.
n O'Brien, William.....	Cork, N.E.
n O'Connor, Arthur	Donegal, East.
n O'Connor, John	Kerry, South.
n O'Connor, J.	Tipperary, South.
n O'Connor, T. P.	Liverpool, Scotland.
n O'Doherty, J. E.....	Donegal, North.
n O'Gorman Mahon, The	Carlow.
n O'Hanlon, T.	Cavan, East.
n O'Hea, P.....	Donegal, West.
n O'Keefe, F. A.....	Limerick.
n O'Kelly, J.	Roscommon, North.
c O'Neill, Hon. R. T.....	Antrim, Mid.
l Oldroyd, Mark.....	Dewsbury.
c Paget, Colonel Sir R. H.....	Somersetshire, Wells.
l Palmer, C. M.	Durham, Jarrow.
l Parker, C. S.	Perth.
c Parker, Hon. F.	Oxfordshire, South.
n Parnell, C. S.	Cork City.
l Paulton, J. M.....	Durham, Bishop Auckland.
l Peacock, R.	Lancashire, S.E., Gorton.
c Pearce, W.	Lanarkshire, Govan.
l Pease, A. E.....	York.
l Pease, H. F.....	Yorkshire, N.R., Cleveland.
l Pease, Sir J. W.	Durham, Barnard Castle.
l Peel, Right Hon. A. W.....	Warwick and Leamington.
c Pelly, Sir Lewis	Hackney, North.
c Penton, Captain F. T.....	Finsbury, Central.
l Philipps, J. W.....	Lanark, Mid.
l Pickard, B.	Yorks., N.R., S. Normanton.
l Pickersgill, E. H.	Bethnal Green, S.W.
l Picton, J. A.....	Leicester.
n Pinkerton, J.	Galway, City.
l Playfair, Right Hon. Sir L.	Leeds, South.
l Plowden, Sir W. C.	Wolverhampton, West.
c Plunket, Right Hon. D. R.....	Dublin University.
c Plunkett, Hon. J. W.	Gloucestershire, South.
c Pomfret, W. P.....	Kent, South.
l Portman, Hon. E. B.	Dorsetshire, North.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.
c Potter, T. B.....	Rochdale.
c Powell, F. S.....	Wigan.
L Powell, W. R. H.....	Carmarthenshire, West.
N Power, P. J.....	Waterford County, East.
N Power, R.	Waterford City.
c Price, Captain G. E.	Devonport.
L Price, Captain T. B.....	Monmouthshire, North.
L Priestley, B.....	Yorkshire, W.R., E. Pudsey.
L Provand, A. D.....	Glasgow, Blackfriars.
L Pugh, D.	Carmarthenshire, East.
c Puleston, J. H.....	Devonport.
N Pyne, J. D.	Waterford County, West.
DL Quilter, W. C.	Suffolk, South.
N Quinn, T.	Kilkenny City.
c Raikes, Right Hon. H. C.	Cambridge University.
L Randell, D.	Glamorgan, Gower.
c Rankin, J.....	Herefordshire, North.
c Rasch, Major F. C.....	Essex, S.E.
L Rathbone, W.	Carnarvonshire, North.
N Redmond, J. E.	Wexford, North.
N Redmond, W. H. K.	Fermanagh, North.
L Reed, Sir E. J.....	Cardiff.
c Reed, H. Byron	Bradford, East.
L Reid, R. T.	Dumfries Burghs.
L Rendel, S.....	Montgomeryshire.
N Reynolds, W. J.	Tyrone, East.
DL Richardson, T.	Hartlepool.
c Ridley, Sir M. W.	Lancashire, N.W., Blackpool.
c Ritchie, Right Hon. C. T.	Tower Hamlets, St. George's.
L Roberts, John	Carnarvonshire, South.
L Roberts, John	Flint Boroughs.
c Robertson, J. P. B.....	Buteshire.
c Robertson, Sir W. T.	Brighton.
c Robinson, Brooke.....	Dudley.
L Robinson, T.....	Gloucester.
L Roe, T.	Derby.
c Rollit, Sir A. K.	Islington, South.
L Roscoe, Sir H.....	Manchester, South.
c Ross, Major A. H.	Maidstone.
DL Rothschild, Baron F. D.	Buckinghamshire, Mid.
c Round, J.	Essex, N.E.
L Rowlands, Bowen	Cardiganshire.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.
L Rowlands, J.	Finsbury, East.
L Rowntree, J.	Scarborough.
C Royden, T. B.	Liverpool, W., Toxteth.
L Russell, Sir C.	Hackney, South.
C Russell, Sir George.....	Berks, E.—Wokingham.
DL Russell, T. W.	Tyrone, South.
C Salt, T.	Stafford.
L Samuelson, Sir B.	Oxfordshire, North.
L Samuelson, Godfrey B.	Gloucestershire, Forest of Dean.
C Sandys, Colonel T. M.	Lancashire, S.W.—Bootle.
C Saunderson, Colonel E. J.	Armagh, North.
L Schwann, C. E.	Manchester, North.
L Seale-Hayne, C. H.	Devon, Mid (Ashburton).
C Selwyn, Captain C. W.	Cambs., North (Wisbeach).
C Seton-Karr, H.	St. Helens.
N Sexton, T.	Belfast, West.
L Shaw-Lefevre, Right Hon. G. J.	Bradford, Central.
L Shaw, T.	Halifax.
C Shaw-Stewart, M. H.	Renfrewshire, East.
N Sheehan, J. D.	Kerry, East.
N Sheehy, D.	Galway, South.
N Sheil, E.	Meath, South.
C Shepherd-Cross, H.	Bolton.
C Sidebotham, J. W.	Cheshire, Hyde.
C Sidebottom, T. H.	Stalybridge.
C Sidebottom, Captain W.	Derbyshire, High Peak.
L Sinclair, J.	Ayr Burghs.
DL Sinclair, W. P.	Falkirk Burghs.
L Slagg, J.	Burnley.
C Slaney, Colonel Kenyon	Shropshire, North.
C Smith, Abel	Hertfordshire, East.
L Smith, Samuel.	Flintshire.
C Smith, Right Hon. W. H.	Strand.
C Smith-Barry, A. H.	Huntingdon, South.
L Spencer, Hon. C. R.	Northamptonshire, Mid.
C Spencer, J. E.	West Bromwich.
N Stack, J.	Kerry, North.
C Stanhope, Right Hon. E.	Lincolnshire, S., Lindsey.
L Stanhope, Hon. P.	Wednesbury.
C Stanley, E. J.	Somerset, Bridgwater.
L Stansfeld, Right Hon. J.	Halifax.
L Stepney, Sir A.	Carmarthen District.
C Stephens, H. C.	Middlesex, Hornsey.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.
L Stevenson, F. S.	Suffolk, N.E.
L Stevenson, J. C.	South Shields.
L Stewart, Halley	Lincolnshire, Spalding.
C Stewart, M. J.	Kirkcudbrightshire.
C Stokes, George Gabriel	Cambridge University.
L Storey, S.	Sunderland.
DL Story-Maskelyne, M. H. N.	Wiltshire, North.
L Stuart, J.	Shoreditch, Hoxton.
C Stuart-Wortley, C. B.	Sheffield, Hallam.
N Sullivan, D.	Westmeath, South.
N Sullivan, Right Hon. T. D.	Dublin, College Green.
L Summers, W.	Huddersfield.
L Sutherland, A.	Sutherlandshire.
DL Sutherland, T.	Greenock.
C Swetenham, E.	Carnarvon District.
L Swinburne, Sir J.	Stafford, Lichfield.
C Sykes, Christopher	Yorkshire, E.R., Buckrose.
DL Talbot, C. R. M.	Glamorganshire, Mid.
C Talbot, J. G.	Oxford University.
N Tanner, C. K.	Cork County, Mid.
C Tapling, T. K.	Leicestershire, South.
DL Taylor, F.	Norfolk, South.
C Temple, Sir R.	Worcestershire, South.
C Theobald, J.	Essex, S. (Romford).
L Thomas, A.	Glamorganshire, East.
L Thomas, D. A.	Merthyr Tydvil.
DL Thorburn, W.	Peebles and Selkirk.
C Tollemache, H. J.	Cheshire, Eddisbury.
C Tomlinson, W. E. M.	Preston.
C Townsend, F.	Warwickshire, S.W.
L Trevelyan, Right Hon. G. O.	Glasgow, Bridgeton.
C Trotter, H. J.	Colchester.
N Tuite, J.	Westmeath, North.
C Tyler, Sir H.	Great Yarmouth.
C Tyssen-Amherst, W. A.	Norfolk, S.W.
DL Vernon, Hon. G. R.	Ayrshire, South.
DL Villiers, Right Hon. C. P.	Wolverhampton, South.
C Vincent, C. E. Howard	Sheffield, Central.
DL Vivian, Sir Hussey	Swansea District.
L Waddy, S. D.	Lincolnshire, North, Brigg.
L Wallace, R.	Edinburgh, East.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.
c Walrond, Lieut.-Col. W. H.	Devonshire, N.W., Tiverton.
c Walsh, Hon. A. H. J.	Radnorshire.
L Wardle, H.	Derbyshire, South.
c Waring, Colonel T.	Down County, North.
L Warrington, C. M.	Monmouthshire, West.
DL Watkin, Sir E.	Hythe.
c Watson, J.	Shrewsbury.
L Watt, Hugh	Glasgow, Camlachie.
L Wayman, T.	Yorkshire, W.R., N., Elland.
c Webster, Sir R. E.	Isle of Wight.
c Webster, R. G.	St. Pancras, East.
DL West, W. Cornwallis	Denbighshire, W. (V. of Clwyd).
c Weymouth, Viscount	Somerset, Frome.
c Wharton, J. L.	Yorkshire, W.R., East Ripon.
L Whitbread, S.	Bedford.
c White, J. Bazley	Gravesend.
c Whiteley, E.	Liverpool, Everton.
c Whitmore, C. A.	Chelsea.
DL Wiggin, H.	Staffordshire, Handsworth.
L Will, J. Shiress	Montrose Burghs.
L Williams, A. J.	Glamorganshire, South.
DL Williams, J. Powell	Birmingham, South.
L Williamson, J.	Lancashire, N., Lancaster.
L Williamson, S.	Kilmarnock District.
L Wilson, C. S.	Hull, West.
L Wilson, H. J.	Yorkshire, W.R., S. Holmfirth.
L Wilson, I.	Middlesbrough.
c Wilson, Sir Samuel.	Portsmouth.
c Winn, Hon. Rowland	Pontefract.
DL Winterbotham, A. B.	Gloucester, East.
DL Wodehouse, E. R.	Bath.
DL Wolmer, Viscount	Hampshire, East.
c Wood, Colonel N.	Durham, Houghton-le-Spring.
L Woodall, W.	Hanley.
L Woodhead, J.	Yorkshire, W.R., E., Spen Valley.
c Worms, Baron H. De	Liverpool, East Toxteth.
L Wright, C.	Lancashire, S.W., Leigh.
c Wright, H. S.	Nottingham, South.
c Wroughton, P.	Berkshire, North.
c Yerburgh, R. A.	Chester.
c Young, C. E. Baring	Christchurch.

STAMPS, TAXES, EXCISE DUTIES, &c.

STAMP DUTIES, &c.

	£	s.	d.
AGREEMENT, or Memorandum of Agreement, under hand only, not otherwise charged	0	0	6
APPRAISEMENT, or VALUATION of any estate or effects where the amount of the appraisement shall not exceed £5.....	0	0	3
Not exceeding £10	0	0	6
" 20	0	1	0
" 30	0	1	6
" 40	0	2	0
Exceeding £500	1	0	0
APPRENTICESHIP INDENTURES—If no premium	0	2	6
For every £5, and fractional part	0	5	0
ARMORIAL BEARINGS	1	1	0
If used on any carriage	2	2	0
ARTICLES of clerkship to attorney or solicitor in England or Ireland	80	0	0
In Superior Courts, Scotland	60	0	0
BILLS of EXCHANGE AND PROMISSORY NOTES, of any kind whatsoever except bank notes—Not exceeding £5	0	0	1
Exceeding £5 and not exceeding £10.....	0	0	2
" 10 " 25.....	0	0	3
" 25 " 50.....	0	0	6
" 50 " 75.....	0	0	9
" 75 " 100.....	0	1	0
Every £100, and also for any fractional part of £100, of such amount..	0	1	0
By Stamp Act of 1850 (33 and 34 Vict., c. 97), the distinction between inland and foreign bills of exchange was abolished.			
BILL of LADING.....	0	0	6
CERTIFICATE—Of goods, &c., being duly entered inwards	0	4	0
Of birth, marriage, or death (certified copy of)	0	1	0
DRAFT, or Order, or Letter of Credit, for payment of any sum to bearer or order, on demand	0	0	1
CHARTER PARTY.....	0	0	6
LEGACY AND SUCCESSION DUTY above £20:—Lineal issue or lineal ancestor	£1. 10s.		per cent.
Brothers and sisters of the deceased, and their descendants	£4. 10s.		per cent.
Brothers and sisters of the father and mother of the deceased, and their descendants	£6. 10s.		per cent.
Brothers and sisters of a grandfather or grandmother of the deceased, and their descendants	£7. 10s.		per cent.

STAMPS, TAXES, EXCISE DUTIES, ETC.

Any other person	£11. 10s.	£	s.	d.	per cent.
Legacy to husband or wife					Exempt.

LIMITED LIABILITY COMPANIES.—A statement of the amount of nominal capital to be raised by shares of any company to be registered with limited liability shall be delivered to the Registrar of Joint Stock Companies in England, Scotland, or Ireland, and a statement of the amount of any increase of registered capital of any company now registered, or to be registered, with limited liability shall be delivered to the said Registrar, and every such statement shall be charged with an *ad valorem* stamp duty of 2s. for every £100, and any fraction of £100, over any multiple of £100 of the amount of such capital or increase of capital as the case may be.

MARRIAGE LICENSE, special, England and Ireland	5	0	0
" not special	0	10	0
PASSPORT	0	0	6

TRANSFERS.

Where the amount or value of the consideration for the sale does not exceed £5

	and does not	£	s.	d.	and does not				
Exceeds £5	exceed £10	0	1	0	Exceeds £125	exceed £150	0	15	0
" 10	" 15	0	1	6	" 150	" 175	0	17	6
" 15	" 20	0	2	0	" 175	" 200	1	0	0
" 20	" 25	0	2	6	" 200	" 225	1	2	6
" 25	" 50	0	5	0	" 225	" 250	1	5	0
" 50	" 75	0	7	6	" 250	" 275	1	7	6
" 75	" 100	0	10	0	" 275	" 300	1	10	0
" 100	" 125	0	12	6	" 300				

For every £50, and also for any fractional part of £50, of such amount or value

Conveyance or Transfer of any kind not described as above	0	5	0
	0	10	0

PATENT FOR INVENTIONS (LETTERS).

Up to Sealing :—

On application for provisional protection..	1	0	0
On filing complete specification	3	0	0
Or on filing complete specification with first application.....	4	0	0

Before the end of four years from date of Patent :—

On certificate of renewal	50	0	0
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STAMPS, TAXES, EXCISE DUTIES, ETC.

<i>Before the end of seven years :—</i>	£	s.	d.
On certificate of renewal	100	0	0
<i>In lieu of the fees of £50 and £100 the following annual fees :—</i>			
Before the expiration of the 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th years from the date of patent	10	0	0
8th and 9th ditto	15	0	0
10th, 11th, 12th, and 13th ditto	20	0	0
RECEIPT, £2 or upwards (penalty for giving receipt without stamp, £10)..	0	0	1

HOUSE DUTY.

On inhabited houses of the annual value of £20, occupied as a farmhouse, public-house, coffee-shop, shop, or warehouse, a duty of 6d. in the £ ; all others	0	0	9
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INCOME TAX.

Incomes of £150 per annum (Schedules A C D and E) and upwards are taxed at the rate of 6d. in the £. Farmers in England (Schedule B), 3d. in the £ ; in Scotland and Ireland, 2½d. in the £.

Exemption and Abatement.—Incomes less than £150 a year are exempt. On incomes amounting to £150 a year and less than £400 a year there is an abatement upon £120 of assessed income.

VARIOUS EXCISE LICENSES AND DUTIES.

On a license to be taken out by a brewer for sale	1	0	0
Occupiers of houses not exceeding £10 annual value	0	4	0
" " " " £8 " (exempt)			
Upon every 36 gals. of worts of a specific gravity of 1·057 deg., the duty of	0	6	3

BEER RETAILERS :—

Beer not drunk on the premises	1	5	0
Beer drunk on the premises	3	10	0
If the annual value of the publican's house in which the retailer shall reside or retail spirits is under £10, the duty is	4	10	0
If £10, and under £15	6	0	0
" 15, " 20	8	0	0
" 20, " 25	11	0	0
" 25, " 30	14	0	0
" 30, " 40	17	0	0
" 40, " 50	20	0	0
" 50, " 100	25	0	0

POSTAL REGULATIONS, SAVINGS BANKS, ETC.

	£	s.	d.
Dogs of any kind (penalty £5).....	0	7	6
Game licenses, if taken out after 31st July and before 1st November, to expire on 31st July following	3	0	0
After 31st July, expire 31st October	2	0	0
After 31st October, expire 31st July	2	0	0
Gamekeepers	2	0	0
,, Deputation of	0	10	0
Game Dealer's License	2	0	0
Gun (License to carry)	0	10	0
Hawkers and Pedlars, per year	2	0	0
House Agents, letting furnished houses above £25 a year	2	0	0
Medicine (Patent) Dealers, &c.—For each license	0	5	0
Passenger vessels, on board which liquors and tobacco are sold, yearly ..	5	0	0
Pawnbrokers	7	10	0
Retailers of sweets.....	1	5	0
Retailers of cider and perry	1	5	0
Retailers of wine, England and Ireland.....	2	10	0
,, (Grocers) Scotland	2	4	1
Tobacco and snuff, dealers in	0	5	3
Vinegar makers	5	5	0

POSTAL REGULATIONS, SAVINGS BANKS, &c.

RATES OF POSTAGE.

To and from all parts of the United Kingdom, for prepaid letters:—

Not exceeding 1 oz.	1d.	Exceeding 6 oz., not exceeding 8 oz.	3d.
Exceeding 1 oz., not exceeding 2 oz.	1½d.	" 8 " " 10 "	3½d.
" 2 " " 4 "	2d.	" 10 " " 12 "	4d.
" 4 " " 6 "	2½d.	" 12 " " 14 "	4½d.

and so on at the rate of ½d. for every additional 2 oz.

A letter posted unpaid is chargeable on delivery with double postage, and a letter posted insufficiently paid is chargeable with double the deficiency.

No letter is to exceed one foot six inches in length, nine inches in width, and six inches in depth, unless it be sent to or from a Government Office.

A penny stamp is now issued which can be used either as a postage or receipt stamp.

INLAND BOOK AND CIRCULAR POST.

The Book Post rate is one halfpenny for every 2 oz. or fraction of 2 oz. Every Book Packet must be posted either without a cover or in a cover entirely open at the ends. No Book Packet may exceed 5 lb. in weight, or one foot six inches in length, nine inches in width, and six inches in depth, unless it be sent to or from a Government Office.

POSTAL REGULATIONS, SAVINGS BANKS, ETC.

Any Book Packet which is found to contain a letter, or communication of the nature of a letter (not being a circular letter), or not wholly printed, or any enclosure sealed or in any way closed against inspection, or any other enclosure not allowed by the regulations of the Book Post, will be treated as a letter, and charged double the deficiency of the letter postage.

Circular Letters posted in covers entirely open at both ends, the whole or greater part of which are printed, engraved, or lithographed, and which, according to the internal evidence, are being sent to several persons in identical terms, may be sent at book rate.

POSTAGE ON INLAND REGISTERED NEWSPAPERS.

Prepaid Rate.—On each Registered Newspaper, whether posted singly or in a packet, the postage when prepaid is one halfpenny; but a packet containing two or more Registered Newspapers is not chargeable with a higher rate of postage than would be chargeable on a Book Packet of the same weight—viz., one halfpenny for every 2 oz. or fraction of 2 oz.

POST CARDS.

Post Cards, bearing a halfpenny impressed stamp, are available for transmission between places in the United Kingdom only. They are sold at 7d., or of finer quality at 8d., per doz. They can also be had in smaller numbers or singly. Reply Cards are now sold.

Foreign Postal Cards, 1d., 1½d., and 2d. each.

POST-OFFICE TELEGRAMS.

The charge for telegrams throughout the United Kingdom is 6d. for the first twelve words, which must include addresses of sender and receiver. It is not, however, necessary to telegraph sender's address; and by this omission, an average of seven words may be sent for 6d.

Free addresses are abolished; numbers in addresses are counted as one word. After the first twelve words the charge is one halfpenny a word.

For the rates charged for foreign telegrams, see the Post-office Guide, published quarterly.

MONEY ORDERS FOR THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Money Orders are granted in the United Kingdom at the following rates:—

For a sum not exceeding £1	2d.
For a sum exceeding £1 and not exceeding £2	3d.
" " £2 " " £4	4d.
" " £4 " " £7	5d.
" " £7 " " £10	6d.

POSTAL REGULATIONS, SAVINGS BANKS, ETC.

MONEY ORDERS PAYABLE ABROAD.

Money Orders, payable abroad, are issued in the United Kingdom at the following rates:—

If payable in France, Switzerland, Belgium, Norway, Denmark, Germany, Heligoland, Italy, the Netherlands, Malta, Gibraltar, Constantinople, Smyrna, &c., and most of our Possessions and Colonies—

On sums not exceeding £2 6d.	Above £5, and not exceeding £7	1s. 6d.	
Above £2, and not exceeding £5	1s. 0d.	Above £7, and not exceeding £10	2s. 0d.

POSTAL ORDERS.

Postal Orders are issued at the following rates: on those for 1/- and 1/6 the charge is ¼d.; for 2/-, 2/6, 3/-, 3/6, 4/-, 4/6, 5/-, 7/6, 10/-, 10/6, the charge is 1d.; for 15/- and 20/-, 1½d.

INLAND PARCEL POST.—POSTING OF PARCELS.

Parcels must be handed in at a Post-office Counter, and must not be dropped into a Letter Box. If a Parcel marked "Parcel Post" is not posted in accordance with this regulation it will be charged on delivery with a fine of 1d.

POSTAGE.

All Parcels must be prepaid by stamps affixed by the senders, and the rates of postage are as follows:—

	s.	d.
For a Parcel not exceeding 1 lb. in weight.....	0	3
For a Parcel exceeding 1 lb. in weight and not exceeding 2 lbs.	0	4½
" " 2 lbs. " " "	3 lbs.	0 6
" " 3 lbs. " " "	4 lbs.	0 7½
" " 4 lbs. " " "	5 lbs.	0 9
" " 5 lbs. " " "	6 lbs.	0 10½
" " 6 lbs. " " "	7 lbs.	1 0
" " 7 lbs. " " "	8 lbs.	1 1½
" " 8 lbs. " " "	9 lbs.	1 3
" " 9 lbs. " " "	10 lbs.	1 4½
" " 10 lbs. " " "	11 lbs.	1 6

LIMITATION OF WEIGHT.

No Parcel exceeding 11 lbs. in weight can be received for transmission.

POSTAL REGULATIONS, SAVINGS BANKS, ETC.

LIMITATION OF SIZE.

No Parcel may exceed 3 ft. 6 in. in length, or 6 ft. in length and girth combined. Thus, a Parcel 3 ft. 6 in. in length may not measure more than 2 ft. 6 in. in girth at its widest part; but a parcel of shorter length, say 3 ft., or 2 ft. 8 in., may measure respectively 3 ft. or 3 ft. 4 in. in its widest girth.

INSURANCE AND COMPENSATION.

The Postmaster-General will give Compensation for the Loss and Damage of Inland Parcels according to the following scale, viz. :—

1. Where no fee except Postage is paid the Postmaster-General will give Compensation to an amount not exceeding..... £1
2. Where in addition to the Postage an Insurance Fee of 1d. is paid, the Postmaster-General will give Compensation to an amount not exceeding £5
3. Where in addition to the Postage an Insurance Fee of 2d. is paid the Postmaster-General will give Compensation to an amount not exceeding £10

In no case will a larger amount of Compensation than £10 be paid. The Compensation given in case of damage will be in proportion to that which would have been given had the Parcel been lost.

No legal liability to give compensation in respect of any Parcel will attach to the Postmaster-General, either personally or in his official capacity, and whether or not an insurance fee has been paid. Accordingly the decision of the Postmaster-General as to all questions of Compensation will be final.

INLAND PATTERN AND SAMPLE POST.

Trade Patterns and Samples of Merchandise may be sent between places in the United Kingdom at the following rates of postage:—

For a Packet not exceeding 4 oz.....	1d.
" " more than 4 oz. but not exceeding 6 oz.	1½d.
" " " 6 oz. " " 8 oz.	2d.

No Packet to exceed 8 oz. in weight. Limits of dimension are—12 ft. by 8 ft. 4 in. If either of these conditions be infringed the Packet will not be forwarded, but returned to the sender; similar conditions as to insufficiently paid postage obtain in connection with the above.

REGISTRATION.

By the prepayment of a fee of twopence, any letter, newspaper, or book packet may be registered to any place in the United Kingdom or the British Colonies. Registered letter envelopes, bearing a twopenny stamp embossed on the flap for the payment of the registration fee, are to be purchased of different sizes.

REGISTERS OF BIRTHS, MARRIAGES, AND DEATHS. BANK HOLIDAYS. LAW SITTINGS.

Registered Letters are now insured against loss or damage, according to the following scale:—

An amount not exceeding £2, on payment of registration fee only.

„ „ £10, „ a fee of 2d. in addition to registration fee.

POST-OFFICE SAVINGS BANKS.

No deposit of less than a shilling is received, nor any pence, and not more than £30 in one year. No further deposit is allowed when the amount standing in depositor's name exceeds £150, exclusive of interest. Interest is allowed at the rate of 2½ per cent (or sixpence in the pound) per annum—that is at the rate of one halfpenny per pound per month. When the principal and interest reach to £200, no further interest is paid until the sum at the depositor's credit is reduced below that amount.

At every Post-office in the United Kingdom forms for making small deposits are now issued gratuitously. Each form has twelve divisions, in each of which a penny postage stamp can be placed; when the twelve are filled in it is received at any Post-office Savings Bank as a shilling.

Any person can now invest, at any Post-office Savings Bank, small sums in Government Stock. Not less than £10, and not more than £100, in any one year. The amount held by any one investor must not exceed £300.

REGISTERS OF BIRTHS, MARRIAGES, AND DEATHS.

These are now kept at Somerset House, and may be searched on payment of the fee of one shilling. If a certified copy of any entry be required, the charge for that, in addition to the shilling for the search, is two shillings and sevenpence, which includes a penny for stamp duty. The registers contain an entry of births, deaths, and marriages since 1st July, 1837.

BANK HOLIDAYS.

England and Ireland.—Easter Monday, the Monday in Whitsun week, first Monday in August, the twenty-sixth day of December (or the twenty-seventh should the twenty-sixth be a Sunday).

Scotland.—New Year's Day, Christmas Day (if either of the above days falls on a Sunday, the following Monday shall be a Bank Holiday); Good Friday, first Monday in May, first Monday in August.

LAW SITTINGS, 1889.

	Begin.	End.
Hilary Sittings.....	January 11	April 17.
Easter „	April 30	June 7.
Trinity „	June 18	Aug. 12.
Michael. „	October 24	Dec. 21.

ECLIPSES.

In the year 1889 there will be three eclipses of the sun and two of the moon:—

- 1.—A total eclipse of the sun, January 1st, invisible at Greenwich; begins on the earth at 7-3 a.m.; middle of the eclipse, 9-16 a.m.; ends on the earth, 11-30 a.m.
- 2.—A partial eclipse of the moon, January 16th, partly visible at Greenwich; first contact, 2-40 p.m.; middle of the eclipse, 5-29 p.m.; last contact, 8-20 p.m.
- 3.—An annular eclipse of the sun, June 27th, invisible at Greenwich; begins on the earth at 6-6 p.m.; middle of the eclipse, 8-56 p.m.; ends on the earth, 11-54 p.m.
- 4.—A partial eclipse of the moon, July 12th, partly visible at Greenwich; first contact, 6-35 a.m.; middle of the eclipse, 8-54 a.m.; last contact, 11-12 a.m.
- 5.—A total eclipse of the sun, December 21st and 22nd, invisible at Greenwich; begins on the earth at 10-16 p.m.; middle of the eclipse, 0-52 a.m.; ends on the earth, 3-31 a.m.

BANK OF ENGLAND, FOUNDED 1694.

TRANSFER DAYS.

The transfer days are every weekday excepting Saturday. Instructions for transfer are received between 9-30 a.m. and 1 p.m., and between 1 and 3 p.m. on payment of a fee of 2s. 6d. Transfers must be executed between 11 a.m. and 3 p.m. Transfers of Bank Stock are charged 9s. for sums of £25 and under, and 12s. over £25.

All transfers must be made in the bank books by the stock holder or by his duly-authorized attorney.

DIVIDENDS.

Dividends are payable between 9 a.m. and 4 p.m. (9 a.m. and 3 p.m. on Saturdays), with the exception of those on Indian Promissory (Rupee) Notes and Registered (Rupee) Stock, which are payable between 9-30 a.m. and 4 p.m. (9-30 a.m. and 3 p.m. on Saturdays).

NATIONAL DEBT CONVERSION OF STOCK.

The three classes of Three per Cents affected by the alterations of the Chancellor of the Exchequer's Budget, are Consols, Reduced Threes, and New Threes, the dividends on which are paid half-yearly—those on Consols on January 5th and July 5th, those on Reduced Threes and New Threes on April 5th and October 5th.

Consols and Reduced Threes cannot be redeemed without a year's notice.

Conversion of New Threes took effect on April 5th, 1888, and the Dividends on the New Stock were made payable quarterly at the rate of 3 per cent per annum for the first year, ending April 5th, 1889, then at the rate of 2½ per cent per annum for fourteen years, ending April 5th, 1903, and afterwards at the rate of 2¼ per cent per annum.

The New Stock is guaranteed against redemption for a period of thirty-five years, that is to say, until April 5th, 1923.

REMARKS ON THE WEATHER.

OCTOBER, 1887.—The month was colder than any October back to 1817, when it was the same temperature ; the fall of rain was less than the average.

NOVEMBER.—The month was dry and cold ; wind chiefly from the N.E. ; dense fogs on the 20th and 21st.

DECEMBER.—Fine, but rather cold ; rain generally less than the average. It was a fine winter month.

JANUARY, 1888.—The weather in January was dry and generally fine ; fog was very prevalent at many places from the 9th to the 14th ; the fall of rain was small ; snow fell generally towards the end of the month ; streams and springs were very low.

FEBRUARY was dry, cold, and cheerless ; rainfall was small ; all brooks and streams were low ; snow fell generally throughout the month, with rough wind causing great drifts.

MARCH.—This month was cold, wintry, and ungenial ; snow fell frequently throughout the month.

APRIL.—For the most part the weather was fine and cold ; the first 12 days were very cold, those from the 3rd to 10th, more than 10 degrees below the average ; fall of rain below its average ; vegetation backward.

MAY.—The weather on the whole was fine, with very cold nights at beginning of the month ; the fall of rain was small.

JUNE.—The weather in June, after the first few days, was generally cold and cheerless ; the rainfall was above the average at some places, and less in others ; in the north the water supply was deficient,—in some places in Lancashire this was severely felt.

JULY.—The weather in July was very cold and wet ; it was an ungenial month throughout, with very little sunshine ; the temperature was below its average on almost every day ; the month was colder than any July since 1860. The fall of rain at Greenwich was 6·75 inches, and only once has this been exceeded since 1815, viz., in 1828, when it was 7·00.

AUGUST.—This month was wet, cold, gloomy, and cloudy ; the want of sunshine prevented fruits from ripening, and was very unfavourable for harvest operations.

SEPTEMBER.—The month was dry ; the first 10 days moderately warm, but generally cold afterwards ; the fall of rain was below the average.

MONTHLY METEOROLOGICAL TABLE FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1888.

(From Official Sources.)

ROYAL OBSERVATORY, GREENWICH.—HEIGHT OF STATION ABOVE SEA LEVEL 159 FEET.

YEAR 1887-8.	PRESSURE OF ATMOSPHERE IN MONTH.		TEMPERATURE OF AIR IN MONTH.				MEAN TEMPERATURE.		MEAN READING OF THERMOMETER.		RAIN			
	Mean.	Range.	Highest.	Lowest.	Range.	of all Highest.	of all Lowest.	Daily Range.	Air.	Dew Point.	Maximum in Rays of Sun.	Minimum on Grass.	Number of days it fell.	Amount Collected.
1887	In.	In.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	In.	In.
October	29.916	1.208	64.1	25.3	38.8	52.6	38.3	14.3	45.0	39.7	81.4	31.9	11	1.03
November	29.530	1.568	55.4	21.7	33.7	45.4	36.0	9.4	40.8	37.8	62.9	30.8	20	3.78
December	29.677	2.187	51.1	24.0	30.1	42.1	33.4	8.7	38.1	33.9	50.6	27.7	16	1.47
1888														
January	30.053	1.459	51.0	22.1	28.9	41.6	33.6	8.0	37.8	34.4	54.0	28.6	11	0.89
February	29.777	0.970	50.8	18.4	32.4	39.3	30.8	8.5	35.0	29.3	58.4	26.9	15	0.89
March	29.432	1.582	56.5	25.4	31.1	44.4	33.0	11.4	38.0	32.7	76.4	29.9	21	2.78
April	29.707	0.673	67.7	26.3	41.4	52.6	36.3	16.3	43.4	37.5	98.0	31.8	14	1.51
May	29.879	0.937	76.8	33.8	43.0	67.9	45.8	22.1	53.0	43.0	123.1	35.5	5	0.64
June	29.752	0.678	87.6	45.5	42.1	69.2	49.9	19.3	58.3	50.9	122.8	45.1	17	3.35
July	29.600	0.690	74.0	42.8	31.2	67.2	51.5	15.7	57.9	52.8	118.6	46.9	26	6.75
August	29.832	0.816	87.7	45.2	42.5	69.4	50.9	18.5	59.1	52.7	118.9	46.0	12	8.73
September	29.968	0.930	74.0	38.5	35.5	65.3	48.3	17.0	55.7	50.7	106.8	42.3	12	0.73

MONTHLY METEOROLOGICAL TABLE FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1888.

(From Official Sources.)

THE OBSERVATORY, LIVERPOOL.—HEIGHT OF STATION ABOVE SEA LEVEL 197 FEET.

YEAR 1887-8.	PRESSURE OF ATMOSPHERE IN MONTH.			TEMPERATURE OF AIR IN MONTH.					MEAN TEMPERATURE.		MEAN READING OF THERMOMETER.		RAIN.	
	Month.	Mean.	Range.	Highest.	Lowest.	Range.	MEAN of all.		Alr.	Dew Point.	Maximum in Rays of Sun.	Minimum on Grass.	Number of days it fell.	Amount Collected.
							of all Highest.	of all Lowest.						
1887	In.	In.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	* Deg.	* Deg.	In.	In.	
October.....	29.874	1.322	58.7	31.9	26.8	51.3	42.7	8.6	39.8	96.9	33.6	16	2.20	
November....	29.458	1.687	53.1	29.2	23.9	45.1	37.3	7.8	40.7	70.6	30.1	17	1.28	
December....	29.575	1.263	53.5	27.3	26.2	43.6	34.7	8.9	39.0	65.1	26.0	20	1.88	
1888														
January.....	29.958	1.552	53.3	28.4	24.9	43.2	35.3	7.9	39.0	55.4	31.1	18	1.08	
February....	29.819	1.045	46.7	25.5	21.2	39.4	33.0	6.4	35.6	83.4	27.0	16	1.25	
March.....	29.384	1.779	55.2	28.3	26.9	42.4	33.8	8.6	37.2	86.1	27.4	19	2.07	
April.....	29.670	0.839	60.4	31.4	29.0	48.8	38.8	10.0	42.5	100.6	32.2	16	1.07	
May.....	29.780	1.405	79.0	39.5	39.5	59.3	45.2	14.1	50.8	112.5	37.0	8	0.58	
June.....	29.711	0.777	82.3	44.1	38.2	63.6	49.5	14.1	51.6	113.8	43.1	20	2.03	
July.....	29.517	0.745	68.6	45.4	23.2	61.9	52.0	9.9	55.3	111.8	45.1	22	4.99	
August.....	29.740	0.789	74.9	45.7	29.2	63.9	51.9	12.0	56.3	111.3	47.4	20	2.81	
September....	29.910	0.826	67.0	41.7	25.3	60.7	49.4	11.3	53.8	105.1	42.7	11	0.65	

* The Mean temperature inserted in these two columns is taken from the Returns of Stonyhurst College, Lancashire, as they were not supplied by Liverpool. The height of station above sea level is 363 feet.

MONTHLY METEOROLOGICAL TABLE FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1888.

(From Official Sources.)

THE OBSERVATORY, CARLISLE (SPITAL).—HEIGHT OF STATION ABOVE SEA LEVEL 114 FEET.

YEAR 1887-8.	PRESSURE OF ATMOSPHERE IN MONTH.		TEMPERATURE OF AIR IN MONTH.				MEAN TEMPERATURE.		MEAN READING OF THERMOMETER.		RAIN.			
	Month.	Mean.	Range.	Highest.	Lowest.	Range.	MEAN		Air.	Dew Point.	Maximum in Rays of Sun.	Minimum on Grass.	Number of days it fell.	Amount Collected.
							of all Highest.	of all Lowest.						
1887	In.	In.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	In.	In.	
October	29.921	1.402	62.5	41.0	21.5	52.7	36.8	15.9	41.2	40.9	80.7	30.2	13	2.36
November	29.539	1.676	55.8	34.3	21.5	46.1	34.1	12.0	39.9	33.0	59.9	27.2	15	2.94
December	29.601	1.274	59.8	43.4	16.4	41.8	29.9	11.9	36.8	34.3	49.7	23.2	15	2.66
1888														
January	29.997	1.598	54.5	34.7	19.8	44.5	33.1	11.4	39.3	37.2	54.0	26.5	14	1.38
February	29.902	1.152	51.8	39.3	12.5	41.4	30.3	11.1	36.8	33.3	62.0	23.8	5	0.81
March	29.490	1.646	55.2	33.5	21.7	43.7	30.5	13.2	37.3	34.7	76.9	22.7	10	2.22
April	29.734	0.862	61.8	39.0	22.8	52.7	35.4	17.3	43.6	39.0	92.2	27.9	11	0.98
May	29.816	1.450	83.5	54.2	29.3	62.2	40.2	22.0	50.6	45.7	100.2	33.2	15	1.20
June	29.808	0.808	83.8	51.2	32.6	68.5	45.0	21.5	51.6	51.1	98.2	40.1	11	1.82
July	29.728	0.794	77.5	43.3	34.2	65.6	48.4	17.4	55.5	52.9	86.1	42.8	19	5.66
August	29.779	0.758	72.8	34.8	38.0	66.3	48.6	17.7	57.1	53.1	95.2	41.3	20	3.57
September	30.035	0.790	76.3	42.7	33.6	62.9	43.0	19.9	53.4	48.6	92.9	39.1	12	1.26

DAILY TIDE TABLES AT LIVERPOOL FOR THE YEAR 1889.

JANUARY.			FEBRUARY.			MARCH.			APRIL.			MAY.			JUNE.			
Date.	Day.	LIVERPOOL High Water.	Date.	Day.	LIVERPOOL High Water.	Date.	Day.	LIVERPOOL High Water.	Date.	Day.	LIVERPOOL High Water.	Date.	Day.	LIVERPOOL High Water.	Date.	Day.	LIVERPOOL High Water.	
		Morn.			Aftern.			Morn.			Aftern.			Morn.			Aftern.	Morn.
1	Th	10 84	1	F	11 32	1	M	11 32	1	M	1	W	1	W	1	S	1	S
2	Fr	11 55	2	F	11 33	2	Th	11 33	2	Th	2	Th	2	W	2	Th	2	Th
3	Sa	11 28	3	M	11 34	3	F	11 34	3	F	3	Fr	3	W	3	Fr	3	Fr
4	Su	0 44	4	Th	11 35	4	M	11 35	4	M	4	Sa	4	Th	4	Sa	4	Sa
5	Mo	1 31	5	Fr	11 36	5	Th	11 36	5	Th	5	Su	5	Fr	5	Su	5	Su
6	Tu	2 16	6	Sa	11 37	6	Fr	11 37	6	Fr	6	Mo	6	Sa	6	Mo	6	Mo
7	We	2 59	7	Su	11 38	7	Sa	11 38	7	Sa	7	Tu	7	Su	7	Tu	7	Tu
8	Th	3 43	8	Mo	11 39	8	Mo	11 39	8	Mo	8	We	8	Mo	8	We	8	We
9	Fr	4 31	9	Tu	11 40	9	Tu	11 40	9	Tu	9	Th	9	Tu	9	Th	9	Th
10	Sa	5 30	10	We	11 41	10	We	11 41	10	We	10	Fr	10	We	10	Fr	10	Fr
11	Su	6 42	11	Th	11 42	11	Th	11 42	11	Th	11	Sa	11	Th	11	Sa	11	Sa
12	Mo	7 52	12	Fr	11 43	12	Fr	11 43	12	Fr	12	Su	12	Fr	12	Su	12	Su
13	Tu	8 50	13	Sa	11 44	13	Sa	11 44	13	Sa	13	Mo	13	Sa	13	Mo	13	Mo
14	We	9 41	14	Su	11 45	14	Su	11 45	14	Su	14	Tu	14	Su	14	Tu	14	Tu
15	Th	10 24	15	Mo	11 46	15	Mo	11 46	15	Mo	15	We	15	Mo	15	We	15	We
16	Fr	11 1	16	Tu	11 47	16	Tu	11 47	16	Tu	16	Th	16	Tu	16	Th	16	Th
17	Sa	11 37	17	We	11 48	17	We	11 48	17	We	17	Fr	17	We	17	Fr	17	Fr
18	Su	0 32	18	Th	11 49	18	Th	11 49	18	Th	18	Sa	18	Th	18	Sa	18	Sa
19	Mo	1 10	19	Fr	11 50	19	Fr	11 50	19	Fr	19	Su	19	Fr	19	Su	19	Su
20	Tu	1 46	20	Sa	11 51	20	Sa	11 51	20	Sa	20	Mo	20	Sa	20	Mo	20	Mo
21	We	2 23	21	Su	11 52	21	Su	11 52	21	Su	21	Tu	21	Su	21	Tu	21	Tu
22	Th	3 5	22	Mo	11 53	22	Mo	11 53	22	Mo	22	We	22	Mo	22	We	22	We
23	Fr	3 50	23	Tu	11 54	23	Tu	11 54	23	Tu	23	Th	23	Tu	23	Th	23	Th
24	Sa	4 41	24	We	11 55	24	We	11 55	24	We	24	Fr	24	We	24	Fr	24	Fr
25	Su	5 53	25	Th	11 56	25	Th	11 56	25	Th	25	Sa	25	Th	25	Sa	25	Sa
26	Mo	7 16	26	Fr	11 57	26	Fr	11 57	26	Fr	26	Su	26	Fr	26	Su	26	Su
27	Tu	8 31	27	Sa	11 58	27	Sa	11 58	27	Sa	27	Mo	27	Sa	27	Mo	27	Mo
28	We	9 37	28	Su	11 59	28	Su	11 59	28	Su	28	Tu	28	Su	28	Tu	28	Tu
29	Th	10 30	29	Mo	12 0	29	Mo	12 0	29	Mo	29	We	29	Mo	29	We	29	We
30	Fr	11 22	30	Tu	12 1	30	Tu	12 1	30	Tu	30	Th	30	Tu	30	Th	30	Th
31	Sa	11 46	31	We	12 2	31	We	12 2	31	We	31	Fr	31	We	31	Fr	31	Fr

Garston tides 7 minutes later than Liverpool each day.

DAILY TIDE TABLES AT LIVERPOOL FOR THE YEAR 1889—Continued.

JULY.			AUGUST.			SEPTEMBER.			OCTOBER.			NOVEMBER.			DECEMBER.		
Date.	LIVERPOOL High Water.		Date.	LIVERPOOL High Water.		Date.	LIVERPOOL High Water.		Date.	LIVERPOOL High Water.		Date.	LIVERPOOL High Water.		Date.	LIVERPOOL High Water.	
	Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.
1	0 55	1 13	1	1 40	2 6	1	3 0	3 25	1	3 0	3 25	1	5 12	6 1	1	6 16	6 54
2	1 32	1 50	2	2 25	3 45	2	3 24	3 46	2	3 55	4 33	2	5 12	6 1	2	7 28	8 0
3	2 9	2 28	3	3 5	3 27	3	4 15	4 47	3	5 17	6 8	3	6 48	7 28	3	8 28	8 53
4	2 48	3 10	4	3 49	4 14	4	5 27	6 14	4	6 57	7 42	4	8 4	9 24	4	9 16	9 38
5	3 32	3 55	5	4 43	5 16	5	7 1	7 44	5	8 23	8 55	5	9 45	10 4	5	10 58	10 17
6	4 22	4 51	6	5 52	6 34	6	8 23	9 22	6	9 22	9 45	6	10 23	10 43	6	10 36	10 55
7	5 22	5 55	7	7 12	7 50	7	9 30	9 56	7	10 47	10 27	7	11 18	11 38	7	11 13	11 31
8	6 31	7 8	8	8 23	9 4	8	10 20	10 45	8	10 47	10 27	8	11 35	11 53	8	11 50	12 7
9	7 39	8 11	9	9 33	10 0	9	11 7	11 29	9	11 25	11 41	9	0 27	0 44	9	0 8	0 25
10	8 42	9 12	10	10 27	10 55	10	11 50	11 50	10	0 3	0 3	10	0 27	0 44	10	0 42	1 0
11	9 39	10 6	11	11 21	11 45	11	0 11	0 30	11	0 20	0 37	11	1 0	1 17	11	1 17	1 34
12	10 33	11 1	12	12 13	12 37	12	0 49	0 54	12	0 54	1 10	12	1 33	1 51	12	1 52	2 10
13	11 28	11 56	13	1 16	1 36	13	1 25	1 42	13	1 26	1 41	13	2 9	2 27	13	2 29	2 48
14	0 48	0 22	14	0 32	0 54	14	1 58	2 15	14	1 58	2 16	14	2 48	3 9	14	3 11	3 34
15	1 36	1 12	15	1 56	2 15	15	2 32	2 49	15	2 33	2 52	15	3 35	4 7	15	4 0	4 31
16	2 29	2 46	16	2 31	2 53	16	3 8	3 28	16	3 13	3 38	16	4 43	5 23	16	5 4	5 38
17	3 29	3 29	17	3 12	3 31	17	3 51	4 20	17	4 9	4 46	17	5 5	6 46	17	6 16	6 51
18	4 14	4 14	18	3 52	4 15	18	4 31	5 31	18	5 31	6 20	18	6 5	7 54	18	7 22	7 53
19	5 8	5 8	19	4 41	5 12	19	5 19	6 21	19	6 19	7 8	19	7 23	8 45	19	8 21	8 47
20	6 11	6 11	20	5 49	6 29	20	6 21	7 8	20	7 5	7 44	20	8 21	9 45	20	9 12	9 37
21	6 50	7 25	21	7 11	7 50	21	7 19	8 25	21	8 17	8 44	21	9 7	10 6	21	10 0	10 24
22	7 28	8 28	22	8 25	8 56	22	8 54	9 30	22	9 7	9 28	22	10 27	10 49	22	10 45	11 14
23	7 57	8 28	23	9 25	9 48	23	9 43	10 2	23	10 5	10 40	23	11 10	11 32	23	11 40	11 14
24	8 50	9 23	24	10 9	10 28	24	10 19	10 37	24	10 22	10 40	24	11 56	12 19	24	12 19	0 33
25	9 47	10 9	25	10 46	11 4	25	11 30	11 13	25	11 16	11 16	25	0 15	0 15	25	0 59	1 24
26	10 29	10 47	26	11 22	11 40	26	11 59	11 47	26	11 36	11 56	26	1 16	1 16	26	1 48	2 14
27	11 6	11 25	27	11 57	11 40	27	0 5	0 5	27	0 5	0 5	27	2 20	2 20	27	2 40	3 5
28	11 43	11 43	28	0 23	0 42	28	0 23	0 42	28	0 35	0 56	28	3 43	3 43	28	3 80	4 56
29	0 20	0 20	29	1 0	1 18	29	1 0	1 18	29	1 1	1 38	29	4 48	4 48	29	4 25	5 4
30	0 38	0 38	30	1 25	1 55	30	1 35	1 55	30	1 2	2 25	30	5 43	5 43	30	5 25	6 8
31	1 14	1 32	31	2 0	2 19	31	2 16	2 37	31	3 48	4 23	31	6 48	6 48	31	6 28	7 12

Garston tides 7 minutes later than Liverpool each day.

DAILY TIDE TABLES AT GOOLE FOR THE YEAR 1889.

JANUARY.			FEBRUARY.			MARCH.			APRIL.			MAY.			JUNE.		
Date.	GOOLE High Water.		Date.	GOOLE High Water.		Date.	GOOLE High Water.		Date.	GOOLE High Water.		Date.	GOOLE High Water.		Date.	GOOLE High Water.	
	Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.
1	6 22	8 27	1	7 4	9 27	1	M	8 4	10 21	1	W	8 10	10 27	1	S	8 54	11 10
2	7 18	9 11	2	7 49	8 10	2	Th	8 39	9 56	2	Th	8 43	9 0	2	S	9 27	10 42
3	7 47	9 51	3	8 31	8 50	3	W	9 12	9 27	3	F	9 16	9 32	3	S	10 3	11 18
4	8 12	10 29	4	9 8	9 24	4	Th	9 43	9 59	4	Th	9 47	10 4	4	Th	10 41	11 1
5	9 1	10 29	5	9 41	9 58	5	F	10 15	10 31	5	S	10 22	10 41	5	W	11 25	11 52
6	9 37	10 11	6	10 14	10 31	6	S	10 47	11 5	6	W	11 1	11 23	6	Th	11 25	0 23
7	10 31	10 57	7	10 45	11 4	7	W	11 26	11 52	7	Th	11 49	..	7	Th
8	11 18	11 41	8	11 30	11 40	8	M	..	0 21	8	W	0 30	0 56	8	S	0 58	1 32
9	9	9	Th	0 53	1 29	9	Th	1 33	2 9	9	S	2 5	2 37
10	0 35	1 3	10	0 32	1 4	10	W	0 58	2 2	10	F	2 47	3 21	10	M	3 6	3 31
11	1 33	2 3	11	1 35	2 12	11	Th	1 39	2 49	11	Th	3 53	4 23	11	Th	4 3	4 32
12	2 33	3 3	12	2 51	3 32	12	F	4 39	4 5	12	S	4 50	5 15	12	W	4 59	5 24
13	3 34	4 4	13	4 11	4 48	13	M	5 35	5 56	13	M	5 37	5 59	13	Th	5 48	6 12
14	4 36	5 4	14	5 20	5 49	14	S	6 16	6 35	14	Th	6 19	6 41	14	F	6 37	7 3
15	5 31	6 39	15	6 12	6 31	15	W	6 54	7 11	15	W	7 3	7 25	15	S	7 29	7 56
16	6 19	6 39	16	6 50	7 9	16	Th	7 31	7 53	16	Th	7 38	8 11	16	S	8 22	8 49
17	6 57	7 16	17	7 28	7 46	17	W	8 15	8 37	17	F	8 34	8 59	17	Th	9 14	9 38
18	7 35	7 54	18	8 49	9 25	18	Th	8 15	8 37	18	Th	9 31	9 48	18	W	10 5	10 32
19	8 12	8 30	19	9 43	10 3	19	F	8 58	9 18	19	S	9 23	9 48	19	Th	10 59	11 24
20	8 49	9 44	20	10 42	10 39	20	S	10 25	10 49	20	M	10 14	10 40	20	W	11 52	..
21	9 25	10 22	21	11 23	11 23	21	Th	11 14	11 14	21	Th	11 6	11 35	21	Th
22	10 3	11 23	22	22	F	11 3	11 3	22	F	22	F	1 31	2 2
23	11 47	11 46	23	0 43	0 43	23	S	10 41	10 41	23	S	0 47	1 26	23	S	2 33	3 1
24	0 14	0 14	24	1 12	1 12	24	W	11 25	11 25	24	W	0 47	1 26	24	S	2 33	3 1
25	0 43	1 16	25	1 43	2 19	25	Th	..	0 49	25	Th	0 47	1 26	25	Th	3 29	3 57
26	1 50	2 23	26	2 26	2 7	26	F	1 43	2 19	26	F	2 19	2 59	26	F	4 25	4 53
27	2 57	3 33	27	3 49	4 30	27	W	2 46	3 15	27	W	4 46	5 15	27	W	5 19	5 42
28	4 4	5 48	28	4 30	5 48	28	Th	5 40	6 2	28	Th	5 40	6 12	28	Th	6 43	7 2
29	5 21	6 16	29	5 7	5 37	29	F	6 23	6 41	29	F	6 30	6 49	29	F	7 22	7 41
30	6 19	6 45	30	6 48	6 28	30	W	7 0	7 18	30	W	7 46	7 27	30	W	8 0	8 18
31	7 11	7 38	31	7 28	7 47	31	Th	7 37	7 54	31	Th	8 19	8 3	31	Th	8 36	8 54

Inll tides 59 minutes earlier than Goole each day.

DAILY TIDE TABLES AT GOOLE FOR THE YEAR 1889—Continued.

JULY.			AUGUST.			SEPTEMBER.			OCTOBER.			NOVEMBER.			DECEMBER.		
Date.	GOOLE High Water.		Date.	GOOLE High Water.		Date.	GOOLE High Water.		Date.	GOOLE High Water.		Date.	GOOLE High Water.		Date.	GOOLE High Water.	
	Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.
1	9 11	9 29	1	10 56	11 17	1	11 20	11 50	1	11 50	12 20	1	1 46	2 39	1	2 5	3 39
2	9 48	10 6	2	11 42	11 3	2	1 7	0 25	2	1 49	0 25	2	2 25	3 3	2	5	3 11
3	10 27	10 47	3	12 1	0 45	3	1 32	1 19	3	1 32	0 45	3	3 46	4 17	3	13	4 42
4	11 29	11 29	4	1 21	1 59	4	3 25	4 36	4	3 25	4 36	4	4 49	5 16	4	21	5 8
5	11 54	0 52	5	2 40	3 19	5	5 10	5 37	5	5 10	5 37	5	5 39	6 0	5	29	5 33
6	1 23	1 56	6	3 58	4 38	6	6 0	6 21	6	6 0	6 21	6	6 57	7 16	6	37	6 51
7	1 56	2 28	7	4 43	5 14	7	7 23	7 3	7	7 23	7 3	7	7 35	7 52	7	45	7 27
8	2 28	3 55	8	5 18	5 47	8	8 1	8 11	8	8 1	8 11	8	8 35	8 52	8	53	8 27
9	3 26	4 57	9	6 15	6 44	9	9 7	9 17	9	9 7	9 17	9	9 35	9 52	9	61	9 35
10	4 23	5 54	10	7 0	7 23	10	10 16	10 26	10	10 16	10 26	10	10 37	10 54	10	69	10 29
11	5 27	6 49	11	8 28	8 47	11	11 8	11 18	11	11 8	11 18	11	11 11	11 28	11	77	11 7
12	6 21	7 45	12	9 5	9 23	12	12 16	12 26	12	12 16	12 26	12	12 11	12 28	12	85	10 47
13	7 17	8 39	13	10 16	10 34	13	1 13	1 23	13	1 13	1 23	13	1 11	1 28	13	93	10 47
14	8 13	9 4	14	10 51	11 8	14	2 10	2 20	14	2 10	2 20	14	2 9	2 24	14	101	11 7
15	9 4	9 28	15	11 29	11 51	15	3 7	3 17	15	3 7	3 17	15	3 7	3 22	15	109	11 7
16	9 52	10 17	16	12 12	12 12	16	4 4	4 14	16	4 4	4 14	16	4 6	4 11	16	117	11 7
17	10 41	11 4	17	1 1	0 21	17	5 11	5 21	17	5 11	5 21	17	5 8	5 13	17	125	11 7
18	11 26	11 49	18	2 4	2 43	18	6 18	6 28	18	6 18	6 28	18	6 5	6 10	18	133	11 7
19	0 16	0 16	19	3 24	3 34	19	7 25	7 35	19	7 25	7 35	19	7 22	7 27	19	141	11 7
20	0 41	1 14	20	4 38	4 48	20	8 32	8 42	20	8 32	8 42	20	8 19	8 24	20	149	11 7
21	1 42	3 11	21	5 57	6 07	21	9 39	9 49	21	9 39	9 49	21	9 6	9 11	21	157	11 7
22	2 40	4 11	22	7 16	7 26	22	10 46	10 56	22	10 46	10 56	22	9 23	9 28	22	165	11 7
23	3 40	5 10	23	8 35	8 45	23	11 53	12 03	23	11 53	12 03	23	10 30	10 35	23	173	11 7
24	4 41	6 10	24	9 54	10 04	24	1 0	1 10	24	1 0	1 10	24	11 37	11 42	24	181	11 7
25	5 38	6 3	25	11 13	11 23	25	2 7	2 17	25	2 7	2 17	25	12 44	12 49	25	189	11 7
26	6 24	6 43	26	12 32	12 42	26	3 14	3 24	26	3 14	3 24	26	1 51	1 56	26	197	11 7
27	7 2	7 22	27	1 31	1 41	27	4 21	4 31	27	4 21	4 31	27	3 58	4 03	27	205	11 7
28	7 41	8 0	28	2 50	3 0	28	5 28	5 38	28	5 28	5 38	28	5 5	5 10	28	213	11 7
29	8 19	8 37	29	4 9	4 19	29	6 35	6 45	29	6 35	6 45	29	6 12	6 17	29	221	11 7
30	8 55	9 12	30	5 28	5 38	30	7 42	7 52	30	7 42	7 52	30	7 19	7 24	30	229	11 7
31	9 30	9 45	31	10 34	10 52	31	8 49	8 59	31	8 49	8 59	31	8 26	8 31	31	237	11 7

Hull tides 59 minutes earlier than Goole each day

A Calendar

FOR ASCERTAINING ANY DAY OF THE WEEK FOR ANY GIVEN TIME WITHIN
THE PRESENT CENTURY.

YEARS 1801 TO 1900.										31 Jan.	28 Feb.	31 Mar.	30 April	31 May.	30 June	31 July.	31 Aug.	30 Sept.	31 Oct.	30 Nov.	31 Dec.	
1801	1807	1818	1829	1835	1846	1857	1863	1874	1885	1891	4	7	7	3	5	1	3	6	2	4	7	2
1802	1813	1819	1830	1841	1847	1858	1869	1875	1886	1897	5	1	1	4	6	2	4	7	3	5	1	3
1803	1814	1825	1831	1842	1853	1859	1870	1881	1887	1898	6	2	2	5	7	3	5	1	4	6	2	4
1805	1811	1822	1833	1839	1850	1861	1867	1878	1889	1895	2	5	5	1	3	6	1	4	7	2	5	7
1806	1817	1823	1834	1845	1851	1862	1873	1879	1890	..	3	6	6	2	4	7	2	5	1	3	6	1
1809	1815	1826	1837	1843	1854	1865	1871	1882	1893	1899	7	3	3	6	1	4	6	2	5	7	3	5
1810	1821	1827	1838	1849	1855	1866	1877	1883	1894	1900	1	4	4	7	2	5	7	3	6	1	4	6

NOTE.—To ascertain any day of the week in any year of the present century, first look in the table of years for the year required, and under the month is a figure which refer to the corresponding figures at the head of the columns of days below. For example: To know what day of the week May 4 was on in the year 1876, in the table of years look for 1876, and in a parallel line, under May, is figure 1, which directs to column 1, in which it will be seen that May 4 fell on Thursday.

LEAP YEARS.																					
1804	1832	1860	1888	..	29	7	3	4	7	2	5	7	3	6	1	4	6
1808	1836	1864	1892	5	1	2	5	7	3	5	1	4	6	2	4
1812	1840	1868	1896	3	6	7	3	5	1	3	6	2	4	7	2
1816	1844	1872	1	4	5	1	3	6	1	4	7	2	5	7
1820	1848	1876	6	2	3	6	1	4	6	2	5	7	3	5
1824	1852	1880	4	7	1	4	6	2	4	7	3	5	1	3
1828	1856	1884	2	5	6	2	4	7	2	5	1	3	6	1

1		2		3		4		5		6		7	
Monday	1	Tuesday	1	Wednesday	1	Thursday	1	Friday	1	Saturday	1	SUNDAY	1
Tuesday	2	Wednesday	2	Thursday	2	Friday	2	Saturday	2	SUNDAY	2	Monday	2
Wednesday	3	Thursday	3	Friday	3	Saturday	3	SUNDAY	3	Monday	3	Tuesday	3
Thursday	4	Friday	4	Saturday	4	SUNDAY	4	Monday	4	Tuesday	4	Wednesday	4
Friday	5	Saturday	5	SUNDAY	5	Monday	5	Tuesday	5	Wednesday	5	Thursday	5
Saturday	6	SUNDAY	6	Monday	6	Tuesday	6	Wednesday	6	Thursday	6	Friday	6
SUNDAY	7	Monday	7	Tuesday	7	Wednesday	7	Thursday	7	Friday	7	Saturday	7
Monday	8	Tuesday	8	Wednesday	8	Thursday	8	Friday	8	Saturday	8	SUNDAY	8
Tuesday	9	Wednesday	9	Thursday	9	Friday	9	Saturday	9	SUNDAY	9	Monday	9
Wednesday	10	Thursday	10	Friday	10	Saturday	10	SUNDAY	10	Monday	10	Tuesday	10
Thursday	11	Friday	11	Saturday	11	SUNDAY	11	Monday	11	Tuesday	11	Wednesday	11
Friday	12	Saturday	12	SUNDAY	12	Monday	12	Tuesday	12	Wednesday	12	Thursday	12
Saturday	13	SUNDAY	13	Monday	13	Tuesday	13	Wednesday	13	Thursday	13	Friday	13
SUNDAY	14	Monday	14	Tuesday	14	Wednesday	14	Thursday	14	Friday	14	Saturday	14
Monday	15	Tuesday	15	Wednesday	15	Thursday	15	Friday	15	Saturday	15	SUNDAY	15
Tuesday	16	Wednesday	16	Thursday	16	Friday	16	Saturday	16	SUNDAY	16	Monday	16
Wednesday	17	Thursday	17	Friday	17	Saturday	17	SUNDAY	17	Monday	17	Tuesday	17
Thursday	18	Friday	18	Saturday	18	SUNDAY	18	Monday	18	Tuesday	18	Wednesday	18
Friday	19	Saturday	19	SUNDAY	19	Monday	19	Tuesday	19	Wednesday	19	Thursday	19
Saturday	20	SUNDAY	20	Monday	20	Tuesday	20	Wednesday	20	Thursday	20	Friday	20
SUNDAY	21	Monday	21	Tuesday	21	Wednesday	21	Thursday	21	Friday	21	Saturday	21
Monday	22	Tuesday	22	Wednesday	22	Thursday	22	Friday	22	Saturday	22	SUNDAY	22
Tuesday	23	Wednesday	23	Thursday	23	Friday	23	Saturday	23	SUNDAY	23	Monday	23
Wednesday	24	Thursday	24	Friday	24	Saturday	24	SUNDAY	24	Monday	24	Tuesday	24
Thursday	25	Friday	25	Saturday	25	SUNDAY	25	Monday	25	Tuesday	25	Wednesday	25
Friday	26	Saturday	26	SUNDAY	26	Monday	26	Tuesday	26	Wednesday	26	Thursday	26
Saturday	27	SUNDAY	27	Monday	27	Tuesday	27	Wednesday	27	Thursday	27	Friday	27
SUNDAY	28	Monday	28	Tuesday	28	Wednesday	28	Thursday	28	Friday	28	Saturday	28
Monday	29	Tuesday	29	Wednesday	29	Thursday	29	Friday	29	Saturday	29	SUNDAY	29
Tuesday	30	Wednesday	30	Thursday	30	Friday	30	Saturday	30	SUNDAY	30	Monday	30
Wednesday	31	Thursday	31	Friday	31	Saturday	31	SUNDAY	31	Monday	31	Tuesday	31

A Ready Reckoner.

No.	¼d.	½d.	¾d.	1d.	2d.	3d.	4d.	5d.	6d.	7d.	8d.	9d.	10d.	11d.	No.
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7
8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8
9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9
10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
11	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11
12	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	12
13	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	13
14	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	14
15	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15
16	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	16
17	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	17
18	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18
19	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	19
20	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20
21	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	21
22	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	22
23	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	23
24	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	24
25	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25
26	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	26
27	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	27
28	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	28
29	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	29
30	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	30
33	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	33
36	0	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	36
40	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	40
42	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	42
45	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	45
48	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	48
50	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	50
51	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	51
52	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	52
53	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	53
54	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	54
56	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	56
60	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	60

Wages Table.

Per Year.	Per Month.	Per Week.	Per Day.	Per Year.	Per Month.	Per Week.	Per Day.	Per Year.	Per Month.	Per Week.	Per Day.
£ s.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	£ s.	£ s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	£ s.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
0 10	0 10	0 2	0 0	8 0	0 13 4	3 1	0 5	18 0	1 10 0	0 5 11	0 0 11
1 0	1 8	0 4	0 0	8 8	0 14 0	3 2	0 5	18 18	1 11 6	0 7 8	0 1 0
1 10	2 6	0 7	0 1	8 10	0 14 2	3 3	0 5	19 0	1 11 8	0 7 8	0 1 0
2 0	3 4	0 9	0 1	9 0	0 15 0	3 5	0 6	20 0	1 13 4	0 7 8	0 1 1
2 2	3 6	0 9	0 1	9 9	0 15 9	3 7	0 6	30 0	2 10 0	0 11 6	0 1 7
2 10	4 2	0 11	0 1	10 0	0 16 8	3 10	0 6	40 0	3 6 8	0 15 4	0 2 2
3 0	5 0	0 12	0 2	10 10	0 17 6	4 0	0 7	50 0	4 3 4	0 19 2	0 2 9
3 3	5 3	1 2	0 2	11 0	0 18 4	4 3	0 7	60 0	5 0 0	1 8 1	0 3 8
3 10	5 10	1 4	0 2	11 11	0 19 3	4 5	0 7	70 0	5 16 8	1 6 11	0 3 10
4 0	6 8	1 6	0 2	12 0	0 19 0	4 7	0 8	80 0	6 13 4	1 10 9	0 4 4
4 4	7 0	1 7	0 2	12 12	1 1 0	4 10	0 8	90 0	7 10 0	1 14 7	0 4 11
4 10	7 6	1 8	0 3	13 0	1 1 8	5 0	0 8	100 0	8 6 8	1 18 5	0 5 5
5 0	8 4	1 11	0 3	13 13	1 2 9	5 3	0 9	200 0	16 13 4	3 16 11	0 10 11
5 5	8 9	2 0	0 3	14 0	1 3 4	5 4	0 9	300 0	25 0 0	5 15 4	0 16 5
5 10	9 2	2 1	0 3	14 14	1 4 6	5 7	0 9	400 0	33 6 8	7 13 10	1 1 11
6 0	10 0	2 3	0 4	15 0	1 5 0	5 9	0 9	500 0	41 13 4	9 12 3	1 7 4
6 6	10 6	2 5	0 4	15 15	1 6 3	6 0	0 10	600 0	50 0 0	11 10 9	1 12 10
6 10	10 10	2 6	0 4	16 0	1 6 8	6 1	0 10	700 0	58 6 8	13 9 2	1 18 4
7 0	11 8	2 8	0 4	16 16	1 8 0	6 5	0 11	800 0	66 13 4	15 7 2	2 3 10
7 7	12 3	2 10	0 4	17 0	1 8 4	6 6	0 11	900 0	75 0 0	17 6 1	2 9 3
7 10	12 6	2 10	0 5	17 17	1 9 9	6 10	0 11	1000 0	83 6 8	19 4 7	2 14 9

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

TROY WEIGHT.

	Pennywts.	Grains.	gr.
Ounces.	1 = 24		dr.
1	= 20	= 480	oz.
1	= 12 = 240	= 5760	lb.
A carat = 4 grains.	100 Troy ounces = 190½		Ounces Avoirdupois.

AVOIRDUPOIS WEIGHT.

		oz.	dr.	Ty.	gr.
		1 = 16	1 = 27½		
	lb.	1 = 16 = 437½			
	st.	1 = 16 = 256 = 7000			
	qr.	1 = 14 = 224 = 3584			
	cwt.	1 = 2 = 28 = 448 = 7168			
Ton.	1 = 4 = 8 = 112 = 1792 = 28672				
1	= 20 = 80 = 160 = 2240 = 35840 = 573440				
Ton.	cwt.	qr.	st.	lb.	oz.
					dr.
					gr.

A Cental = 100 pounds. 100 Ounces Avoirdupois = 91 $\frac{7}{8}$ Ounces Troy.

The Apothecaries' Weight is now the same as the Avoirdupois.

LINEAL MEASURE, OR MEASURE OF LENGTH.

			ft.	in.
			1 = 12	
		pl.	1 = 3 = 36	
	ch.	1 = 5¼ = 16½ = 198		
	fur.	1 = 4 = 22 = 66 = 792		
Mile.	1 = 10 = 40 = 220 = 660 = 7920			
1	= 8 = 80 = 320 = 1760 = 5280 = 63360			

A league = 3 miles. A hand = 4 inches. A fathom = 6 feet.

Geographical degree = 60 geographical or nautical miles = 69·121 imper. miles.

Geographical mile = 1·150 imperial miles. A military pace = 2½ feet.

SOLID OR CUBIC MEASURE.

	Cubic feet.	Cubic inches.
Cubic yard.	1 = 1728	
1	= 27 = 46656	
1 Ton of Shipping	= 40 cubic feet.	
1 Barrel Bulk	= 5 cubic feet.	

LIQUID MEASURE OF CAPACITY.

	Quarts.	Pints.	Gills.
Gallon.	1 = 2 = 8		
1	= 4 = 8 = 32		

A hogshead (hhd.) contains 63 gallons. A pipe is 2 hogsheads, and 2 pipes form a tun. All liquids are measured by this table.

GRAIN MEASURE, &C., OR DRY MEASURE OF CAPACITY.

	Bushels.	Pecks.	Gallons.
Quarter.	1 = 4 = 8		
1	= 8 = 32 = 64		
1 Boll of Wheat	= 4 bushels nearly.		
1 Boll of Barley	= 6 " "		
5 Bushels	are a sack.		
5 Quarters	make a load.		

SQUARE OR LAND MEASURE.

	Sq. feet.	Sq. in.
	1 = 144	
	Sq. poles. 1 = 9 = 1296	
	Sq. rods. 1 = 90¼ = 272¼ = 89204	
Sq. acre. 1 = 40 = 1210 = 10890 = 1568160		
1 = 4 = 160 = 4840 = 43560 = 6272640		

1 square mile = 640 acres: 36 square yards = 1 rood of building: 100 sq. feet = 1 square of flooring: 272¼ sq. feet = 1 rood of bricklayer's work. The chain with which land is measured is 22 yards long, and 1 sq. chain = 10,000 sq. links, contains 22 × 22 = 484 sq. yards: 10 sq. chains = 1 acre.

TABLE OF TIME.

	Minutes.	Seconds.
	1 = 60	
	Hours. 1 = 60 = 3600	
Week.	Days. 1 = 24 = 1440 = 86400	
1	= 7 = 168 = 10080 = 604800	

1 Common Year = 365 days, or 52 weeks 1 day.
1 Leap Year = 366 days, or 52 weeks 2 days.
1 Solar Year = 365 days 5 hours 48 minutes 49 seconds.

GEOGRAPHICAL OR NAUTICAL MEASURE.

1 Geographical mile	= { 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ imperial mile of 6,076 feet.
3 " miles ..	= 1 league.
60 " miles ..	= { 1 degree, marked deg. or [°].
360 " degs. or about 24,855½ imp. miles	= { Circumference of the earth.

BREAD WEIGHT.

A Peck Loaf weighs	17 6½
A Half Peck Loaf	8 11
A Quarter Loaf	4 5
A Peck or Stone of Flour	14 0
A Bushel of Flour	56 6
A Sack of Flour, or 5 Bushels	280 0

USEFUL WEIGHTS.

The following Table will be found useful when it is desired to ascertain the weight of a letter or other article, and suitable weights are not at hand. The weight given is that of coins fairly worn; allowance must be made if those used be new or very old.

½ oz.	Halfpenny and threepenny piece.
⅓ "	One penny piece.
⅔ "	Florin and sixpence.
1 "	Three pennies.
2 "	4 half-crowns and one shilling.
4 "	4 florins, 4 half-crowns, 2½ pennies.

BOOKS.

	Pages.	Leaves.	Sheets.
Folio Books	4 or 2	make	1
Quarto, or 4to	8 " 4 " "		1
Octavo, 8vo.	16 " 8 " "		1
Duodecimo, or 12mo ..	24 " 12 " "		1
Octodecimo, or 18mo ..	36 " 18 " "		1
24mo, 32mo, 48mo, 72mo, &c., &c.			

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF THE CALENDAR,

FOR THE YEAR 1889.

Golden Number..... ix	Dominical Letter F
Epact 28	Roman Indiction 2
Solar Cycle 22	Julian Period 6602

FIXED AND MOVABLE FESTIVALS, ANNIVERSARIES, &c.

Epiphany.....Jan. 6	Rogation SundayMay 26
Septuagesima SundayFeb. 17	Ascension Day—Holy Thursday. ,, 30
St. DavidMar. 1	Pentecost—Whit SundayJune 9
Quinquagesima—Shrove Sunday. ,, 3	Trinity Sunday ,, 16
Ash Wednesday ,, 6	Corpus Christi..... ,, 20
Quadragesima—1st Sun. in Lent. ,, 10	Accession of Queen Victoria (1837) ,, 20
St. Patrick ,, 17	Proclamation..... ,, 21
Lady Day..... ,, 25	St. John Baptist—Midsum. Day. ,, 24
Palm SundayApril 14	St. Michael—Michaelmas Day..Sept. 29
Good Friday ,, 19	Birth of Prince of Wales (1841)..Nov. 9
Easter Sunday ,, 21	St. Andrew ,, 30
St. George ,, 23	First Sunday in AdventDec. 1
Low Sunday ,, 28	St. Thomas..... ,, 21
Birth of Queen Victoria (1819)..May 24	Christmas Day (Wednesday) .. ,, 25

The Year 5650 of the Jewish Era commences on September 26th, 1889.

Ramadân (Month of Abstinence observed by the Turks) commences on
May 1st, 1889.

The Year 1307 of the Mohammedan Era commences on August 28th, 1889.

CALENDAR FOR 1889.

January.					February.					March.								
S	6	13	20	27	S	3	10	17	24	S	3	10	17	24	31			
M	7	14	21	28	M	4	11	18	25	M	4	11	18	25	..			
Tu	1	8	15	22	29	Tu	5	12	19	26	Tu	5	12	19	26	..		
W	2	9	16	23	30	W	6	13	20	27	W	6	13	20	27	..		
Th	3	10	17	24	31	Th	7	14	21	28	Th	7	14	21	28	..		
F	4	11	18	25	..	F	1	8	15	22	..	F	1	8	15	22	29	..
S	5	12	19	26	..	S	2	9	16	23	..	S	2	9	16	23	30	..
April.					May.					June.								
S	7	14	21	28	S	5	12	19	26	S	2	9	16	23	30			
M	1	8	15	22	29	M	6	13	20	27	M	3	10	17	24	..		
Tu	2	9	16	23	30	Tu	7	14	21	28	Tu	4	11	18	25	..		
W	3	10	17	24	..	W	1	8	15	22	29	W	5	12	19	26	..	
Th	4	11	18	25	..	Th	2	9	16	23	30	Th	6	13	20	27	..	
F	5	12	19	26	..	F	3	10	17	24	31	F	7	14	21	28	..	
S	6	13	20	27	..	S	4	11	18	25	..	S	1	8	15	22	29	..
July.					August.					September.								
S	7	14	21	28	S	4	11	18	25	S	1	8	15	22	29			
M	1	8	15	22	29	M	5	12	19	26	M	2	9	16	23	30		
Tu	2	9	16	23	30	Tu	6	13	20	27	Tu	3	10	17	24	..		
W	3	10	17	24	31	W	7	14	21	28	W	4	11	18	25	..		
Th	4	11	18	25	..	Th	1	8	15	22	29	Th	5	12	19	26	..	
F	5	12	19	26	..	F	2	9	16	23	30	F	6	13	20	27	..	
S	6	13	20	27	..	S	3	10	17	24	31	S	7	14	21	28	..	
October.					November.					December.								
S	6	13	20	27	S	3	10	17	24	S	1	8	15	22	29			
M	7	14	21	28	M	4	11	18	25	M	2	9	16	23	30			
Tu	1	8	15	22	29	Tu	5	12	19	26	Tu	3	10	17	24	31		
W	2	9	16	23	30	W	6	13	20	27	W	4	11	18	25	..		
Th	3	10	17	24	31	Th	7	14	21	28	Th	5	12	19	26	..		
F	4	11	18	25	..	F	1	8	15	22	29	F	6	13	20	27	..	
S	5	12	19	26	..	S	2	9	16	23	30	S	7	14	21	28	..	

April.

SUNRISE AND SUNSET.

1st Rises at5 38 Sets at6 31 | 15th Rises at....5 6 Sets at....6 55
 8th " 5 22 " 6 43 | 22nd " 4 52 " 7 6
 29th Rises at 4 38. Sets at 7 18.

RISING, SETTING, AND CHANGES OF THE MOON.

1st Rises at 6 31 a.m. Sets at 7 38 a.m. | 15th Rises at 6 23 p.m. Sets at 5 22 a.m.
 8th " 10 4 a.m. " 1 54 a.m. | 22nd " 1 55 a.m. " 10 9 a.m.
 29th Rises at 4 54 a.m. Sets at 6 35 p.m.

First Quarter, 8th 1 47 p.m. | Last Quarter, 22nd..... 1 56 p.m.
 Full Moon, 15th10 19 a.m. | New Moon, 30th..... 2 5 a.m.

Day of Month.	Day of Week.	Year.	REMARKABLE DAYS, FESTIVALS, ANNIVERSARIES, &C.
1	M	1872	4TH CONGRESS, BOLTON. T. HUGHES, M.P., President
2	Tu	1877	9TH CONGRESS, LEICESTER. HON. A. HERBERT, Pres.
3	W	1875	<i>Liverpool Depot Commenced</i>
4	Th	1774	Oliver Goldsmith died
5	F	1497	Canada discovered
6	S	1874	6TH CONGRESS, HALIFAX. T. BRASSEY, M.P., President
7	S		<i>Hamburg Branch Commenced, 1884</i>
8	M	1778	Lord Chatham died [Insurance expires
9	Tu	1877	LEITH BRANCH SCOTTISH WHOLESALE OPENED.—Fire
10	W	1871	3RD CONGRESS, BIRMINGHAM. A. HERBERT, M.P., Pres.
11	Th	1810	Sir H. Rawlinson born
12	F	1873	5TH CONGRESS, NEWCASTLE. J. COWEN, jun., President
13	S		<i>Nomination Lists: Last day for receiving</i>
14	S	1873	<i>Armagh Branch Opened.</i> —11th CONGRESS, GLOUCESTER.
15	M	1863	Moquin Tandon died [Prof. J. STUART, Pres., 1879
16	Tu	1563	Shakspeare born
17	W	1876	8TH CONGRESS, GLASGOW. PROFESSOR HODGSON, Pres.
18	Th	1873	Justus Liebig, chemist, died
19	F		<i>Good Friday.</i> —Lord Beaconsfield died, 1881
20	S	1868	SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY ENROLLED
21	S		Easter Sunday.
22	M	1878	(10TH CONGRESS, MANCHESTER. Marquis of RIPON, Presi- dent.— <i>Nottingham Sale Room Opened, 1886</i>
23	Tu	1883	Red Cross Society instituted
24	W	1866	<i>Tipperary Branch Opened.</i> —Daniel Defoe died, 1731
25	Th	1844	ROCHDALE PIONEERS' SOCIETY COMMENCED
26	F	1711	David Hume, historian, born
27	S	1822	General Grant born
28	S		Low Sunday
29	M	1856	Russian War ended
30	Tu	1884	Sir M. Costa, composer, died

October.

SUNRISE AND SUNSET.

1st Rises at6 2 Sets at.... 5 36 | 15th Rises at ..6 26 Sets at.... 5 9
 8th ,,6 14 ,, 5 20 | 22nd ,, ..6 38 ,, 4 51
 29th Rises at 6 50. Sets at 4 37.

RISING, SETTING, AND CHANGES OF THE MOON.

1st Rises at 1 39 p.m. Sets at 9 33 p.m. | 15th Rises at 8 56 p.m. Sets at 0 59 a.m.
 8th ,, 5 43 p.m. ,, 5 0 a.m. | 22nd ,, 3 29 a.m. ,, 4 32 p.m.
 29th Rises at 0 37 p.m. Sets at 8 25 p.m.

First Quarter, 2nd 1 33 a.m. | Last Quarter, 17th..... 0 38 a.m.
 Full Moon, 9th 1 26 a.m. | New Moon, 24th 2 26 p.m.

Day of Month	Day of Week.	Year.	REMARKABLE DAYS, FESTIVALS, ANNIVERSARIES, &C.
1	Tu	1873	Sir Edwin Landseer died
2	W	1786	Admiral Keppel died
3	Th	1883	Burnham Beeches made public
4	F	1787	Guizot born
5	S	1874	<i>Durham Soap Works Commenced</i>
6	S	1884	<i>S.S. "Progress" Launched</i>
7	M	1870	Battle before Metz
8	Tu	1871	Chicago burnt
9	W	1759	Eddystone Lighthouse finished
10	Th	1885	"Hell Gate" dynamited
11	F	1492	America discovered by Columbus [day for receiving
12	S	1886	<i>S.S. "Federation" Launched.—Nomination Lists: Last</i>
13	S		Seventeenth Sunday after Trinity
14	M	1872	<i>C. W. S. Bank Department Commenced</i>
15	Tu	1815	Murat shot
16	W	1834	Houses of Parliament burnt
17	Th	1874	First Hospital Saturday
18	F	1826	Last English lottery
19	S	1745	Dean Swift died
20	S	1823	Thomas Hughes born
21	M	1805	Battle of Trafalgar
22	Tu	1707	First British Parliament opened
23	W	1821	Wallsend Colliery Explosion
24	Th	1852	D. Webster died
25	F	1415	Battle of Agincourt
26	S	1859	"Royal Charter" lost
27	S		Pineteenth Sunday after Trinity
28	M	1844	Royal Exchange opened
29	Tu	1831	Bristol riots
30	W	1751	Sheridan born
31	Th	1882	<i>Leeds Saleroom Opened</i>



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