

ES
The Rural Industries
of England.

OL
11

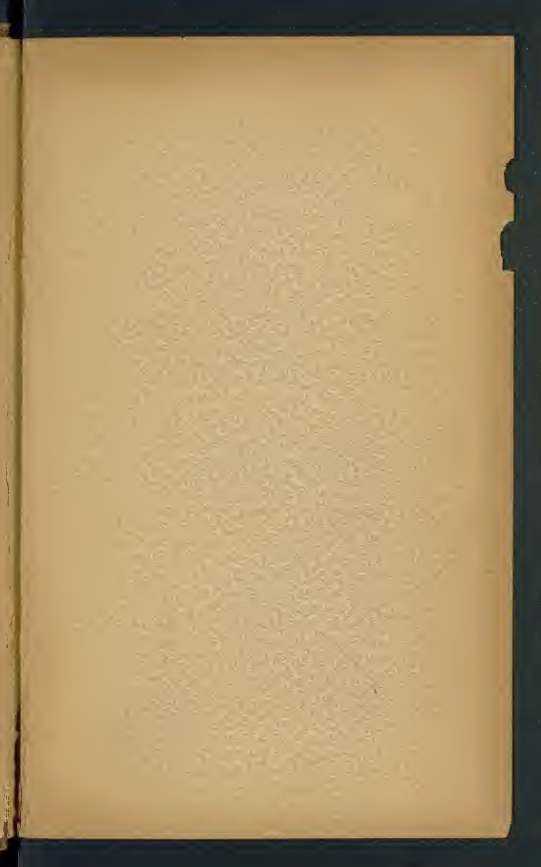
59-571049
HD 595-A2

P.A.L. 57104



PERKINS
AGRICULTURAL LIBRARY

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE
SOUTHAMPTON



36

7/20

THE RURAL INDUSTRIES OF ENGLAND.

WITH AN INTRODUCTION

BY

THE RIGHT HONOURABLE JESSE COLLINGS, M.P.

BY

J. L. GREEN,

Editor of THE RURAL WORLD,

Author of THE OLD YEOMEN OF ENGLAND, &c.

. Venerable art,
Torn from the poor ! yet will kind Heaven protect
Its own, —*Wordsworth.*

. ; no nice arts
Of needlework : *Ibid.*

LONDON :—
OLD BAILEY, E.C. :—E. MARLBOROUGH & Co.

All Rights Reserved.

CONTENTS.

CHAP.	PAGE
INTRODUCTION, BY THE RIGHT HON. JESSE COLLINGS, M.P.	3
AUTHOR'S PREFACE	9
I. HISTORICAL	11
II. AN ENQUIRY	56
III. CRAFT GUILDS, AND INDUSTRY	130
IV. A PLEA—PART I.	146
V. A PLEA—PART II.	153
VI. ABROAD	163
VII. SOME ARTS AND CRAFTS	169
VIII. RURAL INDUSTRIES AND THE LAND QUESTION .	181
IX. THE LAND AND TAXATION	191
X. CONCLUSION	197



INTRODUCTION.

The depopulation of our rural districts which, as each census shows, has been going on for many years past with increasing rapidity, is a grave, perhaps the gravest, incident in our national life. While commerce was increasing by "leaps and bounds" the evils of this migration were not seen. At the present time, however, when our trade and manufactures are stationary, if not in a declining state, there are ominous signs that the limit of the powers of absorption of labour by our towns and centres of industry has been reached, if not dangerously overstepped. Unless some remedy is found while there is yet time, for this state of things, it is certain that a social problem fraught with evil will be developed which will tax the powers of statesmanship and patriotism to solve. In our national life new forces have been brought to the front; education has been spread, with the consequent raising of the standard of life and its surroundings; popular power and popular demands have increased, and old ties are loosened. In short, the "old order" is so completely changed that it is no longer possible, or wise if it were possible, to regard society from the old point of view. Science, which has made such rapid strides in every other direction, is yet in its infancy as applied to social questions. Facts, however, are the basis of science, and one fact stands out clear in both modern and ancient history, namely, that the decay of the rural population is injurious, if not fatal, to the welfare of a country. Nations have become great, wealthy and luxurious by means of trade and commerce, but their stability, permanence and resisting power have ever been mainly dependent on a numerous and settled rural population. The decline of our village life is a question,

therefore, which should take a foremost place in the thoughts of all who have at heart the best interests of the country. Sympathy and active support should be given to every movement which tends in any degree towards a remedy.

A step in the right direction was taken by the passing of the Allotments Acts of 1887 and 1890. In numerous cases the possession of a piece of land as the result of these Acts was the turning point in deciding the labourer to remain in his village. The Small Holdings Act of 1892 contains still greater powers to effect the object in view, but, unfortunately, Landowners, County Councils, and others are not enough alive to its importance as to strain every nerve to put it into operation. In olden times the prices of certain articles of food were extremely low, yet the production of them gave means of livelihood to a multitude of cottagers and small holders who were fitted for the work, and whose disappearance is a source of weakness to the country.

William Cobbett, in 1821, quotes the market price for fowls at 2/- the couple, geese from 2/- to 3/- each, turkeys from 3/- to 3/6 each. Looking at present high prices, and to the enormous sums we pay annually to the foreigner for poultry, honey, fruit, vegetables, pigs, and many other smaller articles of food, there is no doubt that profitable work could be found for at least half-a-million families, as peasant cultivators, if only a real and serious effort were made to place them on the land.

It is here that the importance of the subject, "Rural Industries," treated in the following pages, comes in. In Continental countries, handicrafts of various kinds are carried on to an enormous extent by the rural population. The manufacture of watch materials, toys, leather work, wood carving, tools, steel toys, and various other things occupies men and their families, who are also engaged in the cultivation of the soil. The system of education is adapted

to this end. In many parts of Germany, school workshops are established, handicrafts taught, small museums formed, and every effort made to create and encourage home arts and industries in agricultural communities. An eminent French writer, writing on the subject of "The Working Classes of Europe," refers to the peasants of Switzerland as having almost invariably other industries to fall back on when not engaged on their land, and he gives this combination of agricultural with industrial labour as one of the secrets of the prosperity of the Swiss people.

The system of teaching adopted in elementary schools has much to answer for in the depopulation of our country sides. Children are crammed with a number of ill-learned subjects in order to produce the "results" necessary for the financial support of the schools. They acquire the idea of getting away to the towns to "better themselves" instead of having their tastes trended to those rural pursuits which could be made so attractive to the young. To alter this the elements of agriculture and horticulture should be a compulsory subject in our rural schools. By means of school gardens, children should be practically taught such things as bee-keeping, poultry-rearing, fruit, flower, and vegetable-growing, pruning, grafting, pig-keeping, action of birds and insects on crops, &c., &c. In this way the common schools would become the feeders, so to speak, of classes for later and more advanced industrial and art education.

It is satisfactory to find that County Councils are taking active steps to provide technical instruction in the rural districts. In many villages earnest efforts are being made by private persons to give industrial and art training to the cottagers. Kyrle Societies and other voluntary agencies are also successfully at work in the same direction. The account of the operations of the "Home Arts and Industries Association" is most interesting and hopeful, though it is to be regretted that those operations are restricted by lack of funds.

The account given of the successful revival of the arts of hand-spinning and weaving among the peasants of Westmoreland is also very interesting. The present writer, many years ago, was accustomed to the sight, then common in the Devonshire villages, of a room full of children learning the beautiful art of lace-making, beginning as very young children with the simple "sprig," and, by degrees, mastering the most elaborate and artistic patterns. This art has decayed almost to the point of extinction, but, thanks to the worthy efforts of ladies who have taken the matter in hand, it is being revived in many localities.

Mr. Green has a close acquaintance with country life and a deep interest in the subject on which he writes, and his treatment of the history and present condition of Rural Industries cannot fail to arrest the attention of those interested in village prosperity. There are many living in rural districts with leisure and means, and perhaps with no absorbing object in life, to whom this movement offers opportunities for work which would be blessed to themselves and be a blessing to those around them.

The money earnings resulting from the practice of these industries might be small, but they would be a useful addition to the ordinary wages of the labouring population. There is, however, a much higher point of view to be taken of the question than the mere commercial one. The life of the labouring classes in the country is too often dull, stagnant and even joyless. The constant round of wage-paid labour is unrelieved by the enjoyment and resources which an insight into art and science gives. Art need not be a perquisite of the rich, for the capacity for its enjoyment exists among the cottagers the same as among the dwellers in mansions. It needs only to be developed and trained. The beautiful work executed under the tuition of the Vicar of Compton Greenfield shows what children of ten years old are capable of doing. There is a joy "in creating" felt by the handicraftsman, which cannot be

shared by the factory operative working a machine. This training in home arts and industries would fill a great void in the life of the rural population. The faculty of observation would be developed, and learners would have their eyes opened to see a beauty and meaning in common things—the natural objects around them—which they pass by now as though blind. Such training would make the hours of leisure pleasant and precious, the mind well occupied, and life generally of a fuller and higher character.

JESSE COLLINGS.

EDGBASTON,
BIRMINGHAM.



AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

Some seven years ago the Author desired to know what industries, especially home industries, were in existence in the rural districts of England. He could find no work or works dealing with the subject; though he was aware that many of these industries had decayed—or ceased to exist—within the memory of people then living. To carry out his desire he made enquiries, during the following six years, of the rural clergy, provincial mayors, cottagers, farmers, landowners, &c., in numerous parts of every county. Many of these enquiries were made on visitation of the districts to which they refer, and a mass of historical information was the result. This information, much of which must necessarily be impossible of acquisition in a few years' time, is given in Chapter II. in as brief a form as possible.

An attempt has also been made to ascertain from the existing authorities (which, in some cases, it must be added, are extremely conflicting) what were the chief features of English rural social life and trade from the Roman Period until the point at which Chapter II. takes up the story. The result of this attempt is given in Chapter I.

In the course of his enquiries, however, the Author became more and more convinced of the desirability and possibility of revivifying English village life by taking back again to the villages many of those arts and crafts which have left them for the towns; of transferring to the country districts many manufactures which have sprung up and are carried on in populous

centres; and of reviving other arts, crafts, and manufactures which have, in many parts, entirely ceased to exist. The remaining Chapters follow, therefore, somewhat as a matter of course.

The Author has for many years had exceptional facilities for considering in its various phases what it is now the fashion to call the "village problem"; and greatly gratified will he be if what he has here and elsewhere said upon the subject should result in removing any of the manifold difficulties with which it is attended.

GRAVELLY HILL,
NEAR BIRMINGHAM.

THE RURAL INDUSTRIES OF ENGLAND.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORICAL.—ROMAN PERIOD.

So far back as the time when the Romans conquered Britain there appears to have been a primitive sort of export trade from that country, small though we must suppose it to have been; although we are told¹ that no less than 800 vessels, on one occasion, entered our ports for the purpose of being laden with corn for cities in Germany under the Roman dominion. The trade consisted mainly of such articles as lime, chalk, oysters, corn, cheese, pearls, tin, and lead. Our live stock, too, was then, as now, highly thought of, particularly our horses (which were small, hardy, and docile), oxen, and dogs. Eumenius gives a description of the productions and the commercial facilities of the country; and we are told also by another writer that Britain had no less than fifty-nine "cities" in the third century². The inhabitants of England at the time of the invasion by Cæsar must have possessed a certain skill in handicraft, for their war chariots were strongly built, well balanced, and carried armour. Reeds or osiers, also, were used for basket work. Stools were in use, if we may judge from the impressions on the earliest coins. Cups, urns, and the like articles were employed, and therefore the potter's art, rude

¹ Zosimus.

² Marcianus, *Heracleota*, II., c. 14.

though it may have been, must have been somewhat understood. A sort of checkered cloth, too, found its way to our country before and during Cæsar's time; and ornaments—chiefly of iron, granite, pebble, ivory—were worn by both the male and female portions of the population. Strabo says the Britons were unacquainted with the manufacture of cheese; though they undoubtedly subsisted upon the resources of agriculture. Those along the coast were producers and consumers of fruit, herbs, nuts, &c., whilst those more inland were principally shepherds and hunters, to whom tillage was practically unknown. Niphilius says that the islanders never tasted fish—which seems remarkable. The cherry and also the grape were in all probability introduced into Britain by the Romans, as well as a large number of the trees of our forests. The introduction of quick-set hedges and some of our herbs is also declared to be due to the Romans.¹ The Roman settlements were laid out in quite a model way; and roads were made, both as great channels of communication and for the purposes of tillage. The settlements, or estates, were divided by mounds, stones, or trees.² In this way the limits of estates were formed.

Speaking of the people inhabiting the island, Julius Cæsar says in his Commentaries: ³ "The population is considerable and the buildings numerous, closely resembling those of the Gauls. The quantity of cattle is great. For money the people use copper or rings of iron of a certain weight. Tin is produced in the midland districts, and iron near the sea coast, but the quantity of this is small. The copper which they use is imported. There is timber of every kind that is found in Gaul, excepting beech and fir. They reckon it unlawful to eat the hare, the hen, and the goose, but they breed these, however, for amusement. The country has a more temperate climate than Gaul, the cold being less intense. Of all the natives those who inhabit Cantium (Kent)—a district the whole of which is near

¹ Cooté's *Romans in Britain*. ² Cunningham's *English Industry and Commerce*.

³ It is as well to point out that although this description is, perhaps, fairly accurate, Cæsar himself probably penetrated into our island no further than some 80 miles.

the coast—are by far the most civilised, and do not differ greatly in their customs from the Gauls. The inland people for the most part do not sow corn, but subsist on milk and flesh, and have clothing of skins. All the Britons, however, stain¹ themselves with the juice of the woad plant, which makes them of a blue tinge and gives them a more formidable appearance in battle. They also wear their hair long and shave every part of the body except the head and upper lip." This information supplied by Cæsar was, a century or so later, in its main points confirmed by his successors.

As to the dwellings of the native people of this island at the time of Cæsar's invasion, those on the east coast were built of poles placed in the ground in a circular fashion at certain distances apart, the tops converging to a point in the centre. The spaces thus left were filled in with wattled work. There was no chimney or window to these rude habitations. The abodes of those living more in the interior were certainly not better; indeed they were little superior in most cases to holes in the earth, or in the sides of the rising hillocks. Cæsar himself tells us that the towns were but clusters of huts such as we have described, placed in the forests, and guarded by trees which had been felled for the purpose.

Whilst England, however, was brought under the yoke of the Romans; whilst her wattled huts and caves frequently gave place to artistically constructed towns of Roman design; whilst the country was partly opened up by means of roads, the result of Roman workmanship; and whilst—for the time, at any rate—our ancestors must have benefited by the higher civilisation with which they came into contact, yet the Roman "taste and instinct" for "arts and letters"² were practically unappreciated by them. This can cause but little surprise when we consider that the great bulk of our people were then little better than mere savages.

¹ Other ancient Roman writers assert that this was not a stain but a permanent tattoo.

² Macaulay.

ANGLO-SAXON PERIOD.

Up to the time of the conquest by the Normans it cannot be said that the people inhabiting our island formed a nation in the common acceptance of the term. During the period now under notice, however, the King came to be regarded as the head of the people. Next to the King came the eldermen, earls, or nobles. The nobles of inferior rank were termed Thanes, and, like those of the superior order, each held a certain quantity of land. Then came the Churls (or Ceorls) and Burghers. The Churls (also called villeins) were the husbandmen, and the Burghers the traders; but by far the largest part of the people were serfs or slaves. The Churls, though they were not the absolute property of their masters, were yet so strictly bound to the soil that they could not remove from the property on which they were born; and when this was sold they were transferred with it to the new purchaser like the cattle that grazed upon it.¹ The slaves, however, were not only bondmen of the soil, but of the proprietor also, and, as such, were bound to serve him at home or afield without wages, except the clothing and sustenance which he was pleased to give them. They were also willed away by their masters; though it was not unfrequent for them to be freed from slavery either by extra industry on their part or by the terms of the wills of the masters whom they had served. The slavery, whether of the serfs or villeins, does not appear to have been commonly, if at all, accompanied with the physical punishments and tortures with which it is customary to associate slaves of a later period in history.²

The dwellings of the people—in spite of turbulence and warfare arising both from invasion and from internecine strife—

¹ Palgrave's *English Commonwealth*.

² One writer remarks as follows:—"The Anglo-Saxon society, after it had assumed a settled and regularly organised form, may be divided into six classes, viz., (1) the King and his family, (2) the ethelsons, or noble born, who were men of the highest birth, (3) men high in office, or possessed of large property, (4) the free-men, (5) the freed men, (6) the serfs. (*History of the Anglo-Saxons*, by Turner). The best authorities give the "classes" in the form we have mentioned, viz., King, Eldermen, Thanes, Churls, Burghers, and Slaves.

showed some few signs of improvement. The houses, for the most part, however, were, early in the period, really nothing but huts of the rudest possible description; the windows, for instance, being simply holes made in the side of the walls, and the roofs being of mud and thatch untidily arranged. Strutt says that the Saxons usually built their huts or houses of "clay, kept together by wooden frames," and that "bricks were scarce and used as ornaments." William of Malmesbury bears testimony to the same effect. The houses of the nobles were much the same. It is, indeed, related of King Alfred that in order to prevent his candles, such as they were, from being blown out by the draughts entering through the walls, he placed them in lanterns. The furniture, however, of the better-to-do classes was often rich, even if the dwellings themselves were still inartistic and rude, for we read that in Alfred's time rich tapestry not only adorned the walls, but was sometimes used to adorn the chairs, benches, and stools, the woodwork itself being ornamented with carved likenesses of the heads and legs of animals. Bedsteads too, were not only in use by the nobles, but were frequently draped with a sort of curtain. The beds themselves consisted of sacks filled with any suitable materials, the pillows being of straw. Dugdale mentions that silver mirrors as accompaniments of the toilet² were used about this time. Hand bells for domestic use were also known.

In the seventh or eighth century we find that, although wood was still in use for the framework of most houses, it gave place in many parts to stone or masonry in buildings of a more pretentious character, and particularly in public edifices, such as cathedrals, &c. The art of making and, probably, painting glass was known. Wilfred, Bishop of York, is recorded to have used it in York Cathedral. The Venerable Bede, indeed, says that Benedict Biscop was responsible for the introduction of glass-workers to England about the year 674. As a matter of fact this Benedict Biscop appears to have built

² Dugdale's *Monasticon*.

a monastery at Wearmouth, his workers glazing the windows and making glass for lamps and other purposes. Moreover, these workers "gave instruction" in these manufactures to the English people.

Pork, poultry, fish, game, coarse cakes, and green pulse were the chief articles of food; whilst ale, cider, pigment, morat, and a compound of honey and water—which was made to ferment, and was called "mead"—were the chief beverages—especially ale. Such food and drink as beef, mutton, wheat bread, and wine were only placed upon the tables of the richer classes—amongst whom chains and bracelets were favourite ornaments of many of both sexes.

Agriculture was the chief employment of those of the male working-class population; but the means of supplying life with its necessaries were but imperfectly known and cultivated. For instance, in Sussex the poor, though starving for want of food, knew not how to catch fish, except eels, until Bishop Wilfred (in 678) instructed them in the use of nets. It is recorded of him that he took three hundred at a draught.

Cunningham regards each of the villages as an important "self-sufficing community, where all the necessaries of life were provided in due proportion without going beyond the limits of the village itself." "The food," he adds, "came from the fields and herds; the flocks supplied the necessary clothing; from the waste land the people got fuel (coal was yet unknown); the swine lived on the acorns and mast; and honey held the place of sugar as a luxury." Nevertheless a foreign trade from our shores was still being carried on by our people. We know that very many of our merchants (to give them that name) were not infrequent, but frequent, visitors for the purposes of trade, to Marseilles, Rouen, St. Denys, Iceland, and elsewhere.¹ The monks required many articles which they themselves certainly did not make, and which they could only acquire abroad. Such articles were their ornamental attire,

¹ Lappenberg.

vessels for religious use, books, &c. There were, also, for the purposes of inland trade, various land-marks (such as the boundaries between different farms, estates, or settlements) used as marketing localities. Persons resident in the villages certainly visited these places for trade purposes, for the question of barter and sale was becoming well understood before the close of the Anglo-Saxon Period. The boundary mound (previously referred to) was in point of fact the origin of the market cross—or the “vacant area” of the market-place, in which those who had goods for sale not unfrequently met.¹ The great bulk of the people, however, were (as already stated) agriculturists, and not traders in the sense that we nowadays understand the term; even in the places of a more populous character agriculture was the chief important industry and occupation of the people.

In view of the development in local, and especially municipal government, which has in later times been attained, it is extremely interesting to note that there was a sort of municipal corporation, or government, even in Anglo-Saxon times² The Anglo-Saxon terms *byrig*, *burg*, &c., like the German *burg* of to-day, formed or represented the generic term for any place which was simply fortified by walls or mounds. Whatever was the exact form of the Anglo-Saxon municipal organisation, it was not confined merely to the towns, but was part of a system extending more or less over the whole of England, of which, of course, the towns formed a part. The boroughs, or towns, had what was called a burgh-reve, or port-reve, who was an elected officer, performing much the same duties for his town as the elected shire-reve did for the shire or county. This official collected the revenue due to the King. The “sole legislative assembly, however, in the municipal town or borough was the *folk-mote*, or meeting of the whole community, called, in many places, the hundred, and, where held within doors, the hus-ting, or the

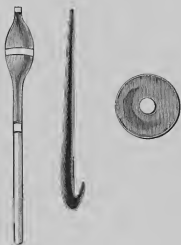
¹ Compare Sir John Lubbock's *Origin of Civilisation*, and Maine's *Village Community*.

² Bohn.

common hall." This assembly, which generally met weekly, seems to have possessed the power of levying local rates, making local regulations, called *burgh laws*, the administration of justice, the appointment of officers, &c. These boroughs, however, were really nothing but small villages during the greater part of the period under notice. By the middle of the eleventh century they seem "to have increased,"¹ though, even then, they were, as compared with an ordinary commercial borough of to-day, but very small places. The land around was mostly untilled, and there were large tracts of forests, woods, and thickets in all parts, in addition to heath, and vast tracts of fenland and moorland; so that it is evident the word "important" must be used with much reserve. Whilst, also, it is true that the commerce of the Metropolis was even then growing, and many farmers in the more distant parts were even then becoming active in the cultivation of the land, and in their efforts to clear it of its numerous woods, forests, thickets, &c., still, both agriculture and commerce were for the most part of small account. The trade, exclusive of agriculture, was now chiefly in skins and ropes and ship masts; and in the iron and steel imported into the country.² Pepper and spice came from the East; gloves and cloth came from Lombardy; wool from Liege; wine and vinegar from France. As necessary in the fitting of arms, smiths were tolerably expert, and held in considerable repute.

The female portion of the population were accomplished with the needle and the distaff. The linen and woollen cloth of which the long cloaks and close tunics of the better class were made, was chiefly the product of female labour, *i.e.*, of the wives of those who wore the articles. Embroidery work was also attended to; as an instance of which we may mention the celebrated tapestry worked by Matilda, the wife of William the Conqueror, and still shown at Bayeux. On this are depicted, in exquisite needlework,

scenes of the Norman Conquest. A contemporary writer¹ praises the skill of the Anglo-Saxon ladies in this delicate art; and the mantle of Witlaff, King of Mercia, proves that it had long



ANCIENT DISTAFF, &C.²

been known in England. The wives and daughters, from the highest to the lowest, were all more or less accomplished in spinning, weaving, or embroidery work. "The hall of the

¹ William of Poitiers.

² In the earliest method of spinning a staff (called a distaff), usually a cleft stick of about three feet long, was used, on which was wound a quantity of wool, cotton, or flax to be spun. The lower end of the distaff was held together between the left arm and the side, or else stuck in the belt. The thread, passing through and gauged by the fingers of the left hand, was then drawn out and twisted by those of the right, and wound on a suspended spindle made so as to be revolved like a top, this completing the twist. To give the spindle increased momentum it was often weighted with a whorl of stone or metal: and as the weight of the yarn on the spindle increased, this make-weight was removed. In the above illustration the distaff is on the left, the whorl on the right, and the spindle in the middle.

palace" we read, "as well as the kitchen of the grange, was animated with the boom of the spinning-wheel and the click of the loom"; and William of Malmesbury declares that "the four princesses, daughters of Edward the Elder, and sisters of Athelstane, were distinguished for their superior skill in spinning, weaving, and embroidery," and that "Queen Editha, the wife of Edward the Confessor, was a complete mistress of the needle, and embroidered with her own hands the rich state robes of her husband."

The priests were, after Augustine's time (as was also the case later on), much given to employing their hours in various arts and crafts. They were painters on glass, were workers in metal, &c., and were really the "learned" men of the day (so far as the term can be applied to a people the bulk of whom were thoroughly illiterate in almost every sense of the word). The Venerable Bede states that he himself found "constant pleasure in learning, in teaching, and in writing."¹ Another authority says, the monks taught the professions of painting, architecture, and sculpture as well as writing, and also the work of the goldsmith and the blacksmith. Practically all the learning and all the literature of the country were contained within their sacred abodes, and there almost only cultivated. It was, nevertheless—and it is but just to say so—to the monks our forefathers were now indebted, not only for whatever they knew of architecture and painting, but for many improvements in agriculture, road-making, building, smith's work, wood work, and other practical matters. The science of medicine was carefully studied by these religious men; for many centuries the physician was commonly a monk, and the monastery was not only the workhouse, but the hospital and dispensary of the district.

NORMAN PERIOD.

It is commonly assumed that the Normans, in the person of William the Conqueror, were the first to bring the feudal

¹ Quoted by Burke.

system to England. This is scarcely correct. It has been already stated that the villeins and serfs were attached to the lands of those of higher estate, that is to say, to their masters. These villeins and serfs could not quit the land, or easily free themselves from their masters to whom it belonged. It is quite clear, therefore, that this was one phase of the feudalistic idea; and when we talk of the Normans establishing the feudal system in England, it is only correct to say so if we mean thereby to imply that they introduced it in its perfection or entirety. It is also important to remember that this perfection of the system was not introduced by the mere arbitrary will of the Conqueror himself, but "gradually by the Norman nobles, and at first to such forfeited lands only as they received from the Crown."¹

The term *feudal* comes from *feod* or *feud*, a plot of land; and the central idea in the system as recognised by William was that all land was under military tenure. In other words, the feudal tenant did not pay all his rent in money, or goods, or both; but he was obliged to fight for his superior in war time, and for the cause which that superior espoused.

The King, during the Norman dynasty, was regarded as the chief owner of the land, dividing large areas amongst his feudal nobles. These in their turn divided portions among whom we may term the gentry (though they could hardly write, read, or spell a word); and these gentry also let out portions to their inferiors (at this time commonly called vassals). In each case the higher person looked to the one next below him for certain "rent," as above explained: and there we have the feudal idea in a nutshell. It is easy to conceive that such a system proved an enormous power in the land.

Again, in other countries an inferior owed fidelity to his lord against all foes, be they king or otherwise. It is, however, interesting to observe that by a usage which William the

¹ Blackstone.

Conqueror adopted, and which was peculiar to England, each sub-tenant, "in addition to his oath of fidelity to his lord, swore fidelity directly to the Crown; and loyalty to the King was thus established as the supreme and universal duty of all Englishmen."¹

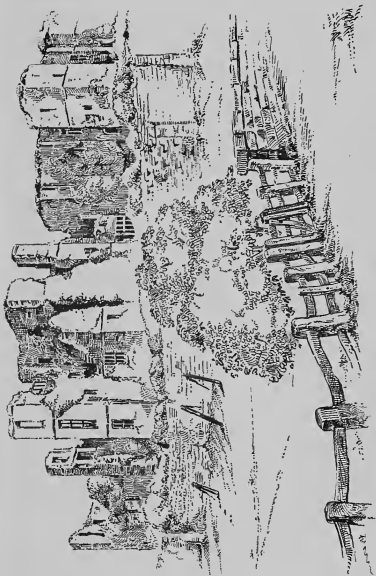
After the Norman Conquest, instead of the elected Saxon shire *reve*, and borough or port *reve*, there was placed over each shire a Norman viscount, and over each municipal town a bailiff, both apparently appointed by the King. We find, however, that the people of the boroughs took a dislike to a special *bailiff* appointed by the sovereign, and the King accordingly allowed them, through their own constituted officials, to collect and send him his kingly royalty or fee, which had been previously collected and sent by the bailiffs. Hence the frequent charters which we soon find issuing to one borough after another granting the town to the "burgesses," "citizens" or "the men,"² in fee farm, *i.e.*, in permanent possession, so long as they pay the Crown dues. The legal description of a burghess townsman, or free member of a community, was one "who had a settled dwelling in the town, who merchandised there, who was of the hans or guild, and who was in lot and scot with the townsmen."³ The title to the freedom of the borough was generally obtainable by birth, apprenticeship, marriage with the daughter or a widow of a freeman, or purchase.⁴ The freemen had, at first, certain rights as to exclusive trade. Later on, Edward III. authorised the residence of non-freemen in the staple towns, but at the same time he empowered the community of the borough to compel them to contribute to the public burdens; and under these regulations it apparently arises that the residence of non-freemen first becomes frequent.

The residences, chiefly castles, of the Norman nobles (or barons), were of great strength, a witness to this fact being the success with which the nobles frequently bade defiance to the Kings. Near to the castle would be the smaller and much ruder

1 J. R. Green.

2-3 Maddox, in his *Firma Burgi*."

4 Blackstone.



RUINS OF AN ANCIENT CASTLE.¹

¹ The Castle, of the ruins of which the above is a fair illustration, dates from the Norman Period. The illustration gives an indication of the Norman size of the structure upon one side of it only. In the Tudor Period the Castle underwent some material alterations in the style of its windows, &c.

dwellings of the dependents of those whom the barons employed. There would, for instance, be carpenters, leather-workers, butchers, smiths, tailors, bakers, &c. On the principle that union is strength, it is not difficult to understand that by being thus close to the castle the occupants of the several dwellings would form an element of safety to those within it. The castle of the feudal baron was, indeed, often the nucleus of a feudal town.

In the Norman Period we notice a distinct change in the customs and mode of living of the people. It was the Normans to whom we owe the general adoption in our diet of the principal flesh food now commonly consumed. Foreign wines, too, were much more largely drunk than formerly, although, so far as the lower classes were concerned, we are told that they had a preference for the beverage which still forms the working man's chief drink, viz., ale. Other kinds of drinks (besides those already mentioned), such as pigment, claret, and perry, were also common beverages of the people. Various kinds of bread were in use; wheat bread, however, being seldom used, and then only by the rich.

In the bedrooms of the richer classes bedsteads of wood were now more common than formerly: though they were coarsely made, and had equally coarse coverlets. As regards the great bulk of the people, the beds and bedding consisted of nothing but straw for lying upon, and such articles as sheepskins for coverings; in fact, in spite of all the splendour which the Norman nobles themselves introduced, the domestic comfort and happiness of the people were but little, if at all, superior to what their ancestors experienced in the Anglo-Saxon Period. Two meals a day were the rule now as against four in the previous Period.

As to dress, the better-to-do Norman would, to-day, seem somewhat of a dandy. He was closely shaven; his hair was long and curled; he wore a loose doublet which reached a long way down his legs; and was girt with a belt embroidered with

gold. On top of this was a gold-laced short cloak. The shoes had extraordinarily long toes, and were not infrequently turned or twisted in such a manner as to be fastened to the knees by chains, chiefly of silver or gold. A bonnet of velvet material, and hose of considerable length, attached to the doublet by numerous cords, completed the costume. The serfs, however, were "clothed in untanned hides, with sandals of boar's skin, and a leathern bandage rolled halfway up the leg, and frequently having round the neck a collar of brass bearing the master's name."¹ The peasantry in general (churls, villeins, serfs, or slaves) had little cause to thank the Norman Conquerors, for the bondage under which they had previously existed was either left undisturbed or altered for the worse.

Agriculture received the greatest attention of any industry throughout the period: though its progress was comparatively slow in consequence of the internal commotions and wars. One writer² declares truly that in most English towns of the greater part of the eleventh century, agriculture was a more conspicuous element than any other industry. The remark is equally true of most of the towns during the greater part of the next two to three hundred years. Numerous husbandmen from the fertile plains of Flanders and France settled in Britain during the Norman Period, and introduced their methods of cultivating the land, and of spinning and weaving. Architecture, too, was much improved. With the clergy sculpture and painting also further flourished; the illuminated missals and other books—chiefly the work of the monks—which have been preserved down to the present time, are even now greatly and deservedly admired. Bells, for public buildings and other public purposes, though not large, were common throughout Europe towards the tenth century. Foreign commerce increased very rapidly; and London, York, Bristol, Southampton, and other towns grew rich by their trade and shipping.

¹ Collier.

² Cunningham.

Though William the Conqueror found considerable wealth from the feudal dues exacted from his inferiors, yet he found much greater proportionate wealth from the settlement of Jewish traders who came to England with him on his leaving Normandy, and these, who were rich and encouraged trade, set up business under the direct protection of the King in separate parts of the principal towns. They had, however, "no right or citizenship in the land."¹ Many of the nobles who came with William also brought certain skilled tradesmen who resided near them; and whose existence is quite clear from the reference to them by Mr. J. R. Green in connection with the Abbey of Battle, where "Gilbert the *weaver*, Benet the *steward*, Hugh the *secretary*, Baldwin the *tailor*," were said to live and mix with the English tenantry. To this influx of the foreign element we owe much of the subsequent importance of our English towns. The growth of the towns, however, which sprang up around the residences of the nobles seems to have been, as might indeed be expected, slower than that of the towns of the royal domains. In spite of the little cause for thankfulness due from the peasantry in general towards William it is but just to state that one authority declares that "among other good things is not to be forgotten the good peace that he made in the land. It was such that a man might go over the kingdom unhurt with his bosom full of gold."² Again, another authority declares that he "ordered all ports and roads to be open to merchants, to whom no injury was to be done."³

PLANTAGENET PERIOD.

The rise of the craftsmen within the towns, and the power and privilege which they shared, took place during the reigns of the three Edwards (1274 to 1377).⁴ The ordinary borough is now rightly described as a number of inhabitants who, "either for trade or protection," reside in the same township or group of townships. There were usually certain duties or services

¹ J. R. Green.

² *Anglo Saxon Chronicle*, 1087.

³ William of Poitiers.

⁴ J. R. Green.

required from the inhabitants or tenants, though when these were performed they were, to all intents and purposes, free men. The possession of property constituted a freeman, and those who did not have lands "had no share" in the corporate life of the town.

The basis of society amongst the Germans, from whom our Anglo-Saxon ancestors sprang, was the family. Family settled side by side with family. The same took place in England; and, as already suggested, in course of time, for reasons of protection and trade, this system extended itself, in a voluntary way, to the whole of the settlers of the township or townships who possessed property, and who were, as we have said, freemen. At first the little associations thus formed were called "frith guilds." These "frith guilds," or, as they have been termed, "peace clubs," were known certainly as far back as the Anglo-Saxon Period; and there was a certain common responsibility amongst the members to assist and support one another, as well as a common responsibility to the State for the default of any member. These "frith guilds" in the earlier English small towns "were precisely similar to the frith guilds" which later on "formed the basis of social order" on a large scale throughout the country.¹ We gather that there was often more than one such guild in the village or the township; and where the towns increased in size the guilds in question seem sometimes to have joined and become one, and in course of time such a unity of guilds came to be called the "merchant guild."² Most, if not all, of those inhabiting the boroughs, at the commencement of the period now under notice, were still chiefly employed in or devoted to agricultural work. As the towns increased the distinction between the agricultural element and the trading became much marked, so that the cultivator largely withdrew to his fields, whilst the traders, still property owners, remained in the town.³ These, forming the "merchant guild," had sole control over

1, 2, and 3, J. R. Green.

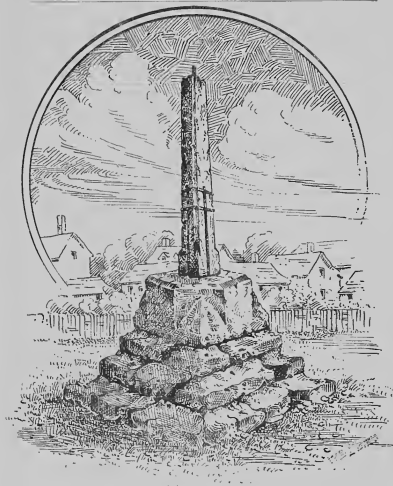
both the management of the trades as well as most of the management of municipal affairs. It has been asserted that the guild merchant was nothing but a private society of merchants, having nothing whatever to do with the administration of the town.¹ This is not correct. Some of them had a very great deal to do with the towns. Gross, for example² mentions that at Ipswich on receipt of a charter from King John the guild "clearly lifted itself above the plane of an ordinary private fraternity." Our own view is that probably both views possess a certain element of accuracy. We incline to the opinion that in some places they were intimately connected with the active life and government of the community, whilst in others they were not. Certain it is that the merchant guild fraternity had advantages and franchises which ordinary residents had not. The town inhabitants were now increased by the addition of labourers, or serfs, and other landless persons, and "in the larger places there arose in the thirteenth century, as a consequence of this increase in the numbers, an important and serious division in the ranks of the town inhabitants."³ The merchant guildsmen applied themselves to the greater operations of commerce—to trades which required capital; while the meaner employments of general traffic were abandoned to their poorer neighbours, who formed themselves "into craft, or trade, guilds, all the members of which had to undergo an apprenticeship of seven years to the trade of which their craft was the exponent."⁴ The craft guilds, by their rules and regulations, and in other ways, looked after the interests of their various trades, and of those of their craftsmen.

As might be supposed, there arose, in course of time, many difficulties between the trade, or craft, guilds and the merchant guilds, and especially over the charters which it was necessary for the former to possess before they could exert a legal control either over the artisans (all of whom had, on the granting of the charter, to belong to the guild of the trade) or over the trades

¹ Merewether and Stephens.

² *Guild Merchants*.

³⁻⁴ J. R. Green.



AN ANCIENT CROSS.¹

1 The above illustration is of a cross (or, as it should be more correctly termed, a column), built of stone, the shaft rising from three tiers of steps. The cross was probably erected as an indication of the fair and market held in the village (Meriden, Warwickshire), a charter for which was obtained by a certain John de Seagrave, who possessed a considerable amount of property in the village in the twelfth year of Edward II. The market and fair have been discontinued for many years. The column was originally erected in the large open square in front of Meriden Hall, but, about 150 years ago, the main road was diverted, and this land enclosed, and the column was then removed to its present position on the green at the top of the village. We regard it as one of those crosses which were more or less common from the Roman Period onwards, and which were used as meeting-places for traders or merchants who had goods for sale.

themselves. The weavers, who were the first trade guild to secure royal sanction, in the reign of Henry I., were still engaged in the contest for existence as late as the reign of John (1199-1216), when the citizens of London bought for a time the "suppression"¹ of their guild. From the eleventh century the spread of these societies went steadily on, and the control of trade appears to have passed from the merchant guild to the craft, or trade, guild. Charters had been granted to every trade (in London) by the time of Edward III.'s reign, their ordinances formally recognised and enrolled in the Mayor's Court, and distinctive liveries assumed, to which, we are told, they owed the name of "livery companies." Then it was that the wealthier citizens even, whose influence had been practically done away with, joined the trade guilds.

With regard to the trade of the Plantagenet Period, the sale of wool was the principal, and of such importance was it esteemed that Edward III. (1327-1377) did not think it beneath himself to act as trader, being nicknamed "the royal wool merchant" by his kingly opponent at Crecy. The art of making woollen cloth was brought to such perfection in England in the Plantagenet time that a Norman writer speaks of English weavers with admiration. The value of a sheep's fleece was well understood, and was commonly rated at two-fifths of the animal's whole price. The art of dyeing cloth was not unknown; on the contrary, it was common.² Our exports were chiefly cloth, wool, horses, leather, corn, lead, and tin; whilst our chief imports were wines, gold, precious stones, silk, tapestry, drugs, spices, furs and materials for dyeing; tar for our sheep breeders and graziers; and salt fish, especially herrings.³ These found their way to England chiefly through the eastern ports between London and Hull.

Gardening and agriculture were largely carried on by the monks. Becket and his clergy are said to have assisted their neighbours in reaping their corn and housing their hay. Every

1 J. R. Green.

2 Forsyth.

3 Hall's *History of Customs*.

castle and monastery had, in addition to a garden, an orchard and vineyard ; indeed, every house had its garden, every garden its flowers and its herbs. The coming, between 1221 and 1224, of the Franciscan and Dominican friars for the purpose of doing work of a missionary and religious character, especially in the towns, was much welcomed by the labourers and artisans. The Franciscan, we are told, made a hard fight against the taste for sumptuous buildings, and for greater personal comfort which characterised the time.¹

The payment in money of rent for land instead of chiefly in labour (which was once the rule) became quite common in Edward II.'s time (1307-1327), and almost the general practice a little later.²

The food both of the richer and poorer portions of the public was of a higher order during the Plantagenet than it was during the Norman Period.

Peace and commerce did much to induce luxury in dress, as many new varieties of articles seem to have been imported in great abundance. The fashionable men wore a coat of half blue, half white, with deep sleeves ; trousers reaching scarcely to the knee ; stockings of different colours, and shoes with toes so long that they were fastened with golden fastenings to the girdles much as in the Norman Period. Their beards were long and curled, their hair was tied in a tail behind, while a hood of silk, embroidered with strange figures of animals, and buttoned under the chin, enclosed the head.³ The most striking part of the fashionable ladies' get-up of this time was a towering head-dress, like a mitre, two feet high from the forehead—a real rainbow of gay ribbons. Their gowns were long ; their tunics of many colours. They wore a dagger or two in a golden belt, and rode to the tournament on steeds of fiery spirit.⁴ The husbandmen were clad in the brown smock-frock which even to-day⁵ may, in out-of-the-way places, be seen upon the backs of the rural labourers.

1 J. R. Green.

2 Thorold Rogers.

3-4 Collier.

5 J. R. Green.

The ordinary farm-house of the period consisted of a couple of bedrooms with a few seats, a set of fireirons, a brass pot, with a dish, and a cup of the same material. Earthen vessels were in use, and candle light became much more general. Thatch began to give way to tiles for the roofs of the larger houses, a remark applicable more especially, we have no doubt, to the houses in the more populous districts. One authority says that the beds, bedding, and curtains began to be much improved in this period. The cathedrals of Salisbury, and Winchester, and other admired ecclesiastical edifices, owe their existence to this period, which is regarded as having produced the fairest models of what is termed the Decorated or Middle-pointed style of Gothic architecture. The apartments, not only of the highest, but of many private persons of note were ornamented with historical pictures, which goes to show that painting had now attained (as, indeed, had sculpture) some considerable perfection. Coal was also in use for domestic purposes, though it was not general; and bellows, which had long previously been an imported article of furniture, were introduced for domestic use in the fourteenth century.

During the Plantagenet Period, regarded on the whole, the inhabitants—or those above the serfs—became much more refined as regards personal appearance and character, as well as comparatively more civilised in regard to their mode of living. General knowledge was becoming more diffused amongst the upper and middle classes, though with the poor it was still at a very low ebb. The system of feudalism, too, though at its highest point in this period, viz., in the reign of Richard I., may be regarded as having begun to decline from the time when the Commons held their first Parliament, viz., in 1265, in the reign of Henry III.

YORK AND LANCASTER PERIOD.

The great event which occurred during this period was the extinction of villenage.

The incessant wars of the period were hardly calculated to

assist—rather to retard—anything in the nature of social improvement; but there are, nevertheless, one or two things in addition to the extinction of villenage which deserve to be mentioned. Caxton, for instance, introduced to us the art of printing by issuing the work entitled “The Game and Playe of Chesse.” This was in 1474, although his press was set up at Westminster in 1473, and he had previously—in 1471—translated a French work (“The Recuyell of the Histories of Troye”) and printed it at Ghent.

Again, the castles of the Norman Period gave place to the large manor-houses which were now being built. These were of wood, and handsomely ornamented by carvings and paintings. They were heavily draped, in many cases, with tapestry, though in the matter of light and air they were extremely defective. In the old manor-house of to-day we still often see very small windows with equally small panes of glass; whilst in the ancient cities—Chester, for example—we still observe the unnecessarily narrow streets, the upper stories of whose houses seem as though they were meant to enable the occupants to reach to and to shake hands with one another.

To a great extent the articles required about the farm were, previous to the fifteenth century, made by the landowner or farmer requiring them. A change, however, seems then to have begun. The wheelwright, who supplied the cart complete, comes into notice. The artisan, too, begins to accumulate money and to work on his own account;¹ and even the labourers were never in a better financial position than in the century named and the beginning of that following it. Wages were high and food cheap. Those workers engaged in trade in the city were allowed a holiday afternoon on Saturday.²

In the time of Henry VI. (1422 to 1461) the boroughs, which had at this time, for the most part, property of their own, secured from the Crown charters of incorporation, which charters were intended to make it and the income from it more secure,

¹ Thorold Rogers.

² Ince.

and solely applicable to the boroughs. Thus "strangers" would obtain no benefits from this property. Again, whereas previously the burgesses belonging to the various guilds usually met in public meeting to discuss and manage the local affairs of the borough, it was now the "Common Council" which met for such a purpose, and this was "either self-elected or elected by the wealthier burgesses."¹ At the same time, estates were being divided in numerous parts throughout the land, and the number of freeholders as a consequence increased, which, of course, meant more trade and greater national stability—for we take it that, generally speaking, the greater the number of contented and prosperous cultivating freeholders, the better it is for the country as a whole.

THE TUDOR PERIOD.

During the Tudor Period the style of living, the dress, the manners, the trade, and the education of the people underwent a great change, or growth, for the better; though of the dwellings of the working classes, Erasmus, a professor in the University of Oxford in the time of Henry VIII, does not give a very pleasing description. He says the floors were "commonly of mud clay, strewed with rushes, under which lies an ancient collection of beer, grease, fragments of bones, spittal, and everything that is nasty."

At the beginning of the period—*i e.*, in the reign of Henry VII., farms appear to have been cheap and none too well cultivated, and the state of the peasantry one of "lazy contentment."² The ordinary farm-house was made of timber, the walls being of plaster and the roof of thatch; the beds were pallets of straw, covered with a coarse sheet, or, at the best, a flock mattress. The usual diet of the inmates of the house was salted meat, poultry and dairy produce, with the coarser grain (such as barley or rye) for bread, and also occasionally wheaten loaves or cakes. The frequent use of wheaten bread was a luxury only for the rich. The clothes of the inmates were the

¹ J. R. Green.

² Harrison.

produce of the farm ; and the wool and flax were prepared and spun for the weaver by the female part of the establishment. The women also superintended the corn for the mill, brewed and baked for the household consumption, took charge of the cows, swine and poultry, and performed the work of the garden ; while their husbands not only attended to their labours a-field, but made their own ox bows, yokes, plough gear, and other utensils of husbandry. In this way a rough but comfortable abundance was secured by the English yeomanry during the reign in question.¹ Latimer has also told us how by good industry and thrift, such farmers lived, and that they lived comfortably. This comfort, however, was soon to be altered, Latimer's father even being turned out of his holding in order to make room for a new tenant at four times the rent, but one who "could not do anything for the Prince, for himself, nor for his children, nor even give a cup of drink to the poor."²

The principal commercial towns in England during this period were London, Coventry, Norwich, Chester, Worcester, Exeter, York, Bristol, Southampton, Boston, Hull, and Newcastle-on-Tyne.

As to our commerce, wool in the time of Henry VIII. went up steadily in price. One result was that the smaller farm holdings now very generally became added to one another, and sheep-farming began, as a consequence, to be conducted in a very large way. The merchants had become wealthy, and, being desirous of land, and oftentimes unscrupulous withal, they bought out the smaller freeholders. These merchant cultivators were sarcastically designated "farming gentlemen and clerking knights," and he³ who called them this does not seem to have had any good opinion of them for the course they thus took. Another authority,⁴ writing in 1515, said that the small farmers were "got rid of either by fraud or force, or tired out with repeated wrongs into parting with their property." In this way, says another,⁵ it comes to pass that "these poor wretches—men

¹ Harrison.

²⁻³ Latimer

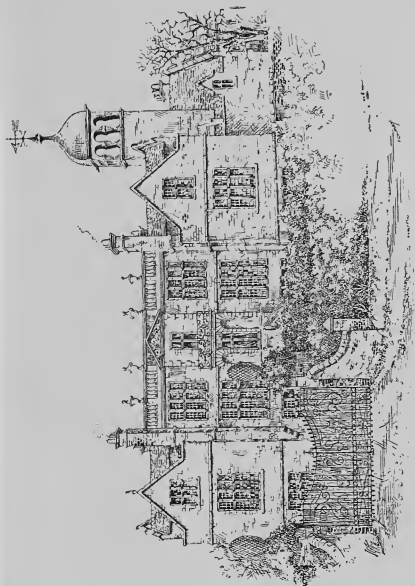
⁴ More.

⁵ Forsyth.

women, husbands, orphans, widows, parents with little children, households greater in number than in wealth (for arable farming requires many hands, whilst one shepherd and herdsman will suffice for a pasture farm)—all these emigrated from their native fields without knowing where to go." The result was more or less social disorder, and a shockingly inadequate remedy was provided by simply passing laws against "the further extension of sheep farms," though in fact this was absolutely of no use, for the adding of farm to farm went on just as much as before in Henry VIII.'s time. To give employment to those now unemployed More advocated the introduction of woollen manufactures; and his advocacy bore good fruit.

The growth of flax and hemp, and the invention of cotton thread now supplied the materials for stocking and weaving purposes, and the making of sail-cloth; whilst rugs, frieze, and baize began to be manufactured largely, and were much improved by the skill of the cloth dressers who fled from the persecutions of the Continent. The massacres in France during Elizabeth's reign, and the cruelties of Alva in the Netherlands, drove hundreds of the working people to settle in Britain. Those from France were skilled in silk weaving; those from Flanders were chiefly dyers and dressers of woollen cloth. A marked improvement in these branches of manufacture and trade is directly traceable, as we have intimated, to these events. An authority,¹ speaking upon this point, says:—"Nothing so much aided the progress of the manufactures in England as Elizabeth's just and prudent attention to the persecuted strangers, whom the bigotry of Spain expelled from their habitations. Some families had, in the days of Edward VI., quitted their homes and followed their teachers to the English coast; these had already erected their looms, when the accession of Mary obliged them to pursue liberty of religious worship to a colder climate. With Elizabeth more liberality of sentiment came forward, and some of the exiled strangers returned; but it was to the wheels and

¹ Forsyth.



A TUDOR HALL.

gibbets of the Duke D'Alva that England is most indebted. Scared by his inhumanity, the Flemish manufacturers fled thither in shoals, and were received, with humanity and hospitality. They repaid this politic kindness by peopling the decayed streets of Canterbury, Norwich, Sandwich, Colchester, Maidstone, Southampton, and many other towns with active and industrious weavers, dyers, cloth-dressers, linen-makers, silk-throwsters, etc. They taught the making of bags, sags, and other stuffs; and many of their posterity now enjoy large estates and respectable titles in counties which, with so much good sense, opened their arms to shield them from their pursuers."

We cannot do better, in order to give an idea of the character of our trade during Elizabeth's time, than to quote the following, from an account furnished by a then living witness to what was going on.¹ "To England," he says, "Antwerp sends jewels and precious stones, silver bullion, quicksilver, wrought silks, cloth of gold and silver, gold and silver thread, camblets, grograms, spices, drugs, sugar, cotton, cummin, galls, linens (fine and coarse), serges, demiostades, tapestry, madder, hops in great quantity, glass, salt fish, metallic and other merceries of all sorts to a great value, arms of all kinds, ammunition for war, and household furniture. From England Antwerp receives vast quantities of fine and coarse tapestries, fringes, and other things of that kind to a great value, the finest wool, excellent saffron in small quantities, a great quantity of lead and tin, sheep and rabbit skins without number, and various other sorts of fine peltry and leather, beer, cheese, and other sorts of provisions in great quantities, also Malmesey wines, which the English import from Candia."

In Elizabeth's time, too, we may notice that the houses of the farmers (yeomen), formerly built of wood, were now being superseded by houses of brick or stone, whilst the rooms were larger and better suited for indoor life. Furniture which had formerly been chiefly confined to the dwellings of the richer portion

¹ Guicciardini, nephew of the Historian.

of the landed public, now found its way into the abodes of the yeomen: wooden trenchers were converted into platters of pewter, and, in some cases, the pewter gave way to pieces of silver plate. Good feather beds took the place of straw mattresses, and a coal fire one of peat, heath, or thorns: while good windows and chimneys were not wanting. The occupants were still obliged to subsist upon salted meat during the winter and salted fish during the church holidays, even after the Reformation had been established; but, to these there could now be added, in greater plenty than before, the fresh produce of the pastures, the barn-yard, and the dairy:—

Beef, mutton, and pork shred pies of the best;

Pig, veal, goose and capon, and turkey well dress;

while the owner of this good cheer had often several years' rent laid up in store. The source of all this improvement was to be found in the superior cultivation and manuring of his farm. In this way better kinds of grain were not only produced in greater abundance, but new articles introduced into cultivation, the chief of which were clover and the hop, both brought to England from the Netherlands. The breeding of the ordinary live stock of the farm was also more skilfully attended to.

Although it was in the time of Henry VII., the first of the Tudor sovereigns, that the foundation of our navy was laid, yet it was not until the time of Elizabeth, the last of the Tudors, that both it and commerce generally received their strongest impulses. We had previously, and for long, exported wool, lead, and tin, but not until Elizabeth's time was it that "large vessels" were built especially for export purposes. In the reign of Elizabeth, English "Adventurers" are to be heard of in all parts of the then known world;¹ a fact, no doubt, due to the numerous outlets which now, for the first time, were open to the trading classes. Henceforth commerce was associated with geographical discovery.² The greater part of the internal traffic of the time—as well as indeed for centuries before—was carried on

¹⁻² Hall's *History of Customs*.

by means of fairs, or markets, held at various times and places during the year. This was true alike of the Metropolis and of the Provinces. At these fairs might be seen not only the traders who had goods for sale, but the "Lords, spiritual and temporal, Abbots, Priors, Knights, Squires, Gentlemen, and your Commons of every county."¹

Of the average annual Customs revenue from all sources accruing to the Crown, in the sixteenth century, about *two-thirds* at least were derived from cloths, chiefly from those exported. The manufacture of knives appears to have commenced in London, A.D. 1563, under the auspices of one Thomas Matthews, of Fleet Bridge. This, however, must have been rather a *revival* than a new manufacture, since, certainly as far back as Chaucer's time, and probably earlier, Sheffield was famous for its cutlery. The manufacture of needles was commenced in 1566. The pin became known in England towards the close of Henry the VIII.'s reign, when "it had afforded to the ladies a pleasant substitute for ribbons, loopholes, laces with points and tags, clasps, hooks and eyes, and skewers made of wood, brass, silver, and gold. This minute implement was thought sufficiently important to merit a Parliamentary regulation. Accordingly, by Statute 37 Henry VIII., cap. 13, all 'pinnes' were prohibited from being sold unless they were double-headed, and unless the heads were soldered fast to the shank of the 'pinne,' well smoothed, the shank well shaven, the point well and round filed and sharpened. This long process, which must have rendered the pin expensive, was dropped in about three years, and the pin became much like what it is now."²

Elizabeth issued a Commission to inquire into the condition of the Poor in order to arrive at some remedy for the prevailing discontent, generally due to the large farms, which, for many

¹ From an appeal, by the citizens of many places to the Lord Mayor and Aldermen of London, who, during the reign of Henry VII., had prohibited any of the citizens of London from going to the country markets or fairs with their goods for sale.

² Stow.

years, had been made at the sacrifice (as we have already stated) of the smaller holders. The remedy adopted was the establishment of a poor law, the forerunner in some respects of that which exists to-day. She also made an effort to turn the tide of pauperism and distress by creating small holdings and by providing that the labourers should have four acres of land adjoining each of their cottages. The large holders were said to have produced more because of the capital which the occupiers were able to place upon them, although the large-farm system, at the same time, had the effect of dispossessing many thousands of smaller but prosperous cultivators.

But the chief source of employment in the towns was now the commerce and manufactures, which increased at an extraordinary rate. Whilst the linen trade was not yet of very large dimensions, and the weaving of silk had but recently been introduced, the manufacture of woollens increased by leaps and bounds, so much so that Englishmen who had previously had the fleece woven and dyed abroad now ceased to do so. In fact, the various processes connected with cloth, such as spinning the yarn, dyeing, &c., went on amazingly fast. As an encouragement to our manufacturers, Elizabeth, in 1571, enacted that "English woollen caps were to be worn in preference to felt hats by every person above the age of seven, on pain of the forfeiture of a sum of 3s. 4d.—ladies, lords, gentlewomen, &c., excepted." This restriction, however, seems to have had very little effect.¹ One unfortunate statute was passed in Elizabeth's reign, providing that no person should, under a penalty of 40s. a month, use or occupy any art, mystery, or manual occupation without a previous seven years' apprenticeship; and the justices in quarter sessions were to decide the rate of wages both in husbandry and in other manual labour. It is urged by one learned authority² (with whom we cannot always agree) that the apprenticeship system, although observed till early in the nineteenth century, had a mischievous effect, and that it could

¹ Forsyth.

² Rogers.

hardly fail to—as it in fact did—act as a cause of pauperism amongst the manual workers; but another authority¹ gives what we consider a much better reason for the pauperism of Elizabeth's time (and after) when he says that “the confiscation [by Henry VIII.] of the country guild property . . . was one unquestionable cause of the growth of town pauperism.” The same writer goes on to add that the charities in a great measure of the London Livery Companies are a “survival of the system which was once in full working order in every market town.” It is alleged that there were 40,000 guilds existing in the provincial towns and rural districts of England up to about the period when the monasteries, &c., were dissolved, viz., in 1537. After Henry VIII. confiscated the guilds and their lands (sparing, however, the estates of the London guilds), the guilds were practically superseded by the burgesses, who added any remaining income of the guilds to the common purse of the freemen.

For a long time previous to the end of the Tudor Period, the authority of the Crown over our trading transactions and relations had been practically absolute; but it was not until Elizabeth's reign that patents of monopoly were granted in a thoroughly wholesale fashion. As a result, numerous articles of every-day necessity could only be bought at preposterously high rates from those to whom the monopolies for their manufacture or sale had been granted. Elizabeth, however, in 1601 was by her Parliament given to understand that this sort of thing could last no longer; and with a wisdom uncommon in most monarchs before her time she gave way, and “thanked the Commons in touching and dignified language for their tender care of the general weal, and so brought back to her the hearts and affections of the people, as well as left an example to succeeding monarchs of the way in which it behoves a ruler to deal with public movements which they have not the means of resisting.”²

Brilliant illuminations of the costumes of the Tudor Period

¹ Bishop of Chester.

² *History of England*, by Macaulay.

are to be found in the "Romance of the Rose," in the British Museum¹; the exquisite brilliancy and gem-like beauty of the colours and figures are quite extraordinary. To fully describe the progress of dress in England would require a volume. With Elizabeth ruffs of plaited linen round the neck and wrists were much worn; until the invention of starch they stood out supported by pieces of ivory. But about this period the art of starching was brought from Flanders, and in 1564 it is related that the wife of Guillim Boenen starched for the whole Court.

At the close of the Tudor dynasty the use of forks at meals appears for the first time introduced. The custom came from the Continent—apparently from Italy. Previously the people of all ranks used their fingers for the purposes to which we now apply a fork; though there was certainly a kind of fork as far back as the Anglo-Saxon times, which seems, however, not to have been generally used for the purpose of feeding, but rather for serving articles from the basin or dish.

THE STUART PERIOD.

During the Stuart Period Norwich (which in 1693 had nearly 30,000 in population) was the town of the most importance from a manufacturing point of view,² though London was the principal seaport, and, after it, Bristol. Most of our present large manufacturing centres were then but small and badly-built market towns. In Leeds (the principal seat of the woollen manufactures of Yorkshire) there were some 7,000 inhabitants; in Sheffield, 2,000; Birmingham (the manufacturers of which city now send their manifold productions all over the world) was, commercially speaking, but just becoming a noticeable town; and Liverpool could boast of not more than 200 seamen. In the reign of the second Charles no town out of London (not even Norwich) could boast of as many as 30,000 persons and only four had 10,000 apiece. Bristol, as we have said, was the chief seaport, after London. York was the capital of

¹ Harleian MSS.

² *History of Norfolk*, by Blomefield.

the North, and Exeter that of the West, with a population respectively of but 10,000. Worcester and Nottingham could boast of 8,000 inhabitants each; Gloucester, 5,000; Derby, 4,000; Shrewsbury, 7,000; and Sheffield, nearly 4,000; whilst, strange as it now may seem, Tunbridge Wells at this time was regarded as about the fourth or fifth in the number of its inhabitants. Of Manchester a well-known authority¹ says there was a population of 6,000 in 1670, all of whom lived "in a very primitive state"; and of Norwich he says, the city has "more tradesmen than gentlemen" Defoe speaks of the Stourbridge fair, held on a common near Cambridge, as "the greatest in England," and he adds, "the amount of goods disposed of here, and their multitudinous varieties are really enormous."

The manufacture of pottery and glass, though it had, to a certain extent, existed either previous to or from the time of the Romans, was really only in its infancy. In 1700 the annual value of wool was taken at two millions sterling, that of the woollen manufacture being eight millions. Wood was still the article used for consumption by manufacturers. Coal-mines were still only opened for the purpose of domestic supply. The quantity of tin raised in Cornwall at this time was some 1,600 tons per annum,² but, strangely, the production of copper seems to have been altogether neglected. A considerable quantity of our iron was imported from abroad, largely on account of the fact that coal was not yet used for smelting purposes.

There is good reason for believing that the population of England in the last decade of the seventeenth century was from 5 to 5½ millions,³ a calculation made on the basis of the number of houses then returned by the officers who made the collection of what was termed "hearth money." Other writers of the same period seem to have made calculations both considerably above and below these figures; but their estimates cannot be relied

¹ Defoe, *Tour through Great Britain*.

² *Carew's Survey*, by Lord De Dunstanville.

³ Gregory King; and also *Part II. of Dalrymple's Appendix to Book I.*

upon, as apparently, they took little or no trouble to ascertain the facts.

In 1685 the value of the produce of the soil far exceeded that of all the other productions of the nation. The arable land, however, was only about a half of the total area of the country¹—an estimate which seems to be pretty accurate on a comparison with the road books and maps of the time. According to Macaulay, wild animals were far more numerous than nowadays; and we have it on other authority that around Enfield, for instance—a district *now* fast becoming but a mere suburb of London—the wild deer roamed as free as in any district on the face of the earth.² One writer of authority declared that the counties of Bucks., Gloucester, Hereford, Norfolk and Suffolk, as well as the Isle of Wight, were most famous for their superior class of sheep.³ In Chester the famous Cheshire cheese was greatly appreciated. Dorset, a portion of Kent, and Lincolnshire were famous for their corn (the last-named also for flax, oats, and cattle). Staffordshire was famous for its juicy mutton; whilst Cornwall, Surrey, and some few other counties were equally noted for producing specialities of their own.

Chamberlaine, speaking of the value which should be attached to our cloth industry, declared that the State ought to extend the compulsory clothing in wool of the dead (which had been enacted by statute in the middle ages) to the living during the winter.⁴ The National Debt at this period was no doubt the cause for this suggested method for raising the public income. The new military system, which by this time had necessitated a standing army, and, of course, had been responsible for the large increase in the National Debt, much altered the old state of things in regard to the landlords; and we are disposed, therefore, to agree with Mr. Garnier, who says that the old

¹ King's *Natural and Political Conclusions*.

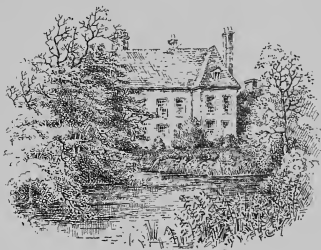
² Evelyn's *Diary*.

³ *New State of England*, by G.M., 1692.

⁴ *England's Wants, &c.*, by Dr. Chamberlaine, 1689.

notions connected with seignorial jurisdiction now became changed for proprietary benefits.¹

The houses in London during the period were built much on the same plan as those old ones still to be observed in Chester, with the upper storey, as already mentioned, projecting over the ground floor. Business men of London usually lived in the city, and not, as now, in the suburbs. The large open fireplace, so common in country houses of the



AN ANCIENT MANOR HOUSE (STUART PERIOD).

Stuart Period, was regarded as a comfort to the body besides cheery to the mind, and, unlike the continental stove, afforded ventilation, and therefore health.² The ordinary manor-house had but three separate apartments on the ground floor as a rule. The most used was the hall, which was both a dining-room and sitting-room, and may be observed to this day in many out-of-the-way country places. The other two rooms were a private

¹ *The Landed Interest.*

² *New State of England*, by G. M., 1691.

apartment and the kitchen. Upstairs were two or three bedrooms, at the most, on the first floor, with a possible room or two in the shape of attics on the second floor. The ordinary farm-house was of pretty much the same description, so far as comfort went; and we may take it for granted that the farmers of this time "lived only a degree less comfortably than their betters of the squire class.¹ The houses of both, except as to size—the farmers' being a little smaller—were very little different.

The country landowners, however, formed now an important class. Few estates exceeded £20,000 per annum in income. That of the Duke of Ormonde, for instance, brought in £22,000 a year,² whilst that of the Duke of Buckingham was £19,000 to £20,000.³ Nevertheless, the landowners usually lived in comfort, attended the many manly sports, and paid regular visits, on market days, to the nearest local market for the purchase or disposal of their farm commodities, and for the meeting of friends and neighbours. But as for the wives and daughters of such, their accomplishments appear to have been little above the cooking of a good dinner; the manufacture of such homely and wholesome drinks as pure beer and home made wine; and sewing and spinning. Most of the landowners in question resided, during the best part of every year, in the country, the same as their forbears; though there was very little indeed, at the end of the Stuart Period, of the magnificence and the grandeur which were common under the old feudal system. One writer, however, complained that "the married nobility ought to keep house in the country according to the good polity of their ancestors, and, by a judicious hospitality, win over the affection of the peasantry,"⁴ which, at any rate, would seem to show that there were some who felt the attractions of the towns quite as irresistible towards the latter part of the seventeenth century, as many now do towards the latter part of the nineteenth. By about the middle

¹ *The Landed Interest.*

² *Life of Ormonde*, by Carte.

³ *The Diary of Pepys.*

⁴ *England's Wants*, &c., by Dr. Chamberlaine, 168

of the eighteenth century, it seems fair to assume that such visits from home as the gentry did happen to pay were principally confined to the county towns, a view supported by a writer of the period named, who says that the "local gentry spent their season" in the county towns.¹

The yeomen farmers, or freeholders, were both numerous and influential. It is not too much to say that these men (whose income averaged £60 to £70 and £100 a year) were the real backbone of the nation. They were a class of men who seemed especially to delight in being let alone in the enjoyment of the fruits of their labour; and, accordingly, they were not naturally given to quarrels or turbulence. On the other hand, when times came in which they were called upon to take sides in the determination of great public issues, they proved a courageous and dauntless foe. This class of men is now practically extinct, but the Legislature, by (in particular) the Small Holdings Act of 1892, made an effort in the direction of its re-creation.

Commerce and manufactures made great strides by the end of the seventeenth century, though, according to one authority,² the English peasant's condition was not materially altered for the better over that of the previous century or more; but another authority declares that the agricultural labourer was not regarded as the worst off, even though his pay was but 4d. a day with food, or 8d. without it. If he received some 4s. a week, his wages were deemed fair and sufficient.³ A complaint was made in Parliament⁴ towards the end of the Stuart Period, that the wages of the *artisan*—1s. per day—were too high—so high, in fact, as to make it difficult for the English people to compete successfully with the Indian looms in the textile industry.

¹ Defoe, *Tour through Great Britain*.

² Thorold Rogers.

³ *Political Arithmetic*, by Sir William Petty.

⁴ By Mr. John Bassett, M.P. for Barnstaple.

Travelling, throughout the Stuart Period, was, as during the previous centuries, still difficult, the roads being anything but what we now know them to be. In bad weather there was generally a slight ridge in the centre between two channels of deep mud. Instead of sloping gradually, the roads went right up and down the hills. The stage wagon and pack-horse carried goods; the former taking passengers also. Rich men travelled in their own coaches, but they were obliged often to have as many as six horses to pull them through the mud. The post bags were carried on horseback at the rate of about five miles an hour, and in many country places letters were only delivered once a week. A "flying" coach leaving Oxford at six o'clock in the morning would reach London at seven o'clock the same night; and it took some six days in winter time to get from Chester, York, or Exeter to London. The excellent turnpike roads which we now know, did not exist, although the old Roman roads, where they existed, were, of course, much better than the great bulk of the highways then travelled over.

BRUNSWICK PERIOD.

The rapidity of our national progress and improvement was never so great as during the period now under notice. Well may elderly people of to-day reflect with amazement at the advance which has been achieved during their own lifetime.

Up to the time of George III.'s accession (1760), although we were, in a commercial sense, of more importance than any other country, our industrial life at home was still mainly agricultural.¹ The silk trade had established itself in the eastern county of Norfolk, in Yorkshire, and in the south-west of the kingdom; but the implements used in this and other trades, and the general conditions under which those trades were carried on did not yet permit of any large augmentation in a business sense. When, however, shortly after this period, factories began

¹ J. R. Green.

to be built, and water and steam to be employed (and, later on still, railways established) matters naturally altered. Up to George III.'s time cotton was spun by hand in the cottages, the women members of the family "sitting with their distaffs around the weaver's loom." The invention of the spinning-jenny by Hargreaves, of the spinning machine by Arkwright, and of the spinning mule by Crompton, were followed by what is called the "power loom," invented by Cartwright, all of which had a tremendous influence on the industrial districts of Lancashire, Yorkshire, and Leicestershire, &c., where cotton and cloth were dealt with.¹ The *hand-looms* in 1834 were, in Great Britain, about 200,000 in number. The power looms were about 65,000, each doing the work of three hand-looms.² The inventions and discoveries, therefore, of the reign of George III. tended very materially to enable the nation to bear up against the enormous expenses of our foreign wars and the extravagances of the Government. In spite of the fact that the National Debt went up so enormously, the wealth of the cotton and other mills went on at an equal, indeed, greater pace. Farm work, it is interesting to record, was a pursuit which George III. loved intensely: nothing, we are told, seemed to please him better than, as time allowed, to get away to the quietude of the farm. Silk-throwing machines were introduced by Lombe in the reign of George I. The first canal was constructed in 1758, in the reign of George II. Calico was first manufactured in England in 1776; and it is said that £5 9s. 8d. was given for such pieces as are now sold at 7s. or 8s. Gas was first used for illuminating purposes in 1792. Mr. Macadam, in 1820, introduced the use of broken stones for road-making (hence the term, "Macadamised" roads); and in 1822 the first iron steamboat was seen on the river Thames. In 1830 the first railway in England was opened, this being the line between Liverpool and Manchester. In our day railways have become spread about the country like a veritable net-work, though it is much to be deplored that

¹ J. R. Green.

² Sir R. Phillips, 1835.

the British agriculturist should be handicapped so much as he is by—we think we can fairly say—the still unnecessarily high tariffs, and the astonishing preferential rates given to the foreign producer by certain of the companies owning the railway lines.

Many large exhibitions of an international character have been held both in London and the provinces during the reign of Queen Victoria, and these—the first of which was that inaugurated by the late Prince Albert (the husband of the Queen), and Sir Robert Peel, and which for some five months was held in Hyde Park, in a specially built structure of iron and glass, extending over many acres—have done much to popularise our manufactures, and to increase the trade for them, both in our own country and in other parts of the world. The establishment of the penny post throughout the kingdom, and the consequent cheap rate at which letters, &c., can now be sent to almost all parts of the world; the invention of the telegraphic and telephonic systems; the great extension of the empire to India and elsewhere; and a host of other inventions and discoveries have formed distinguishing features of the reign of Victoria, and have tended enormously to increase the commercial importance of the various industrial centres of the kingdom. The population of England and Wales¹ during the past eight decades was as follows:—

1891	29,002,525
1881	25,974,439
1871	22,712,266
1861	20,066,224
1851	17,927,609
1841	15,914,148
1831	13,896,797
1821	12,000,236

The tendency now, as it has been for very many years, is for the towns to increase in population and for the purely agricultural villages and hamlets to decrease. It is admitted that this is a serious evil, as there are already more workers in

¹ Census Returns.

any ordinary-sized town than are necessary for the present trade thereof. Any enlargement of the number by the rural element, therefore, tends to bring down the none-too-high wages of the skilled and unskilled workers therein, besides distinctly lowering the general social condition of the working class population and increasing the ranks of the unemployed, the pauper, and the criminal classes.

Between 1720 and 1760 a great improvement took place in the agricultural industry, which was owing to the action of the great landowners in improving their estates. Increased attention was also paid to the rearing of stock.¹ Young, nevertheless, wrote: "The farming tribe is now made up of all ranks, from a duke to an apprentice." Owing, however, to the undoubtedly better cultivation of the eighteenth century, the land yielded in stock and corn double and treble what it did in the thirteenth century; whilst the fleece of the sheep was four times heavier than in the thirteenth century.² In 1846 the Act for the Repeal of the Corn Laws was passed. Most agriculturists of to-day date the beginning of the subsequent depression of their industry from the formal adoption of the free-trade principle of that Act. Bad seasons began in 1878—at a time, according to Rogers—when the farmer was less prepared to grapple with the difficulties which fell upon him than during any of the previous six centuries.

In 1768 the colliers were the best-paid workmen; they received at Newcastle 15s. a week, and at Wakefield 11s. a week. Iron and cutlery workers earned 10s. at Rotherham and 13s. 6d. at Sheffield. Those engaged in porcelain work were paid 8s. 11d. at Liverpool, 9s. 6d. at Burslem, and 9s. at Worcester. The wages for spinning and weaving averaged 8s. 7d. a week. The drugget weavers of Braintree received 9s. a week, and the wool combers 12s.; the carpet weavers at Wilton 10s. to 12s.; the woollen manufacturers at Henningham 7s.; combers from 12s. to 14s.; blanket weavers at Witney 10s. to 12s.; and steel

¹⁻² Thorold Rogers.

polishers at Woodstock 15s. to 42s. The say and calimanco weavers of Lavenham received the lowest wage amongst the textile fabric workers, their wage being 5s. 9d. The best paid were the wool combers, whose average weekly wage was 13s. The wages of the Gloucestershire and Wilts. agricultural labourers, viz., 5s. 2d., were the lowest; and those of the Middlesex labourers, viz., 11s. 4d., the highest. A large number of the latter class in various parts of the country migrated to the towns to follow a less healthy but better paid industry than farm labouring.

When Kalm, a very careful observer, made his tour through England¹ in the year 1748, he described the houses of the better-to-do residents as being "built of bricks, and roofed either with concave or flat tiles, torched with clay beneath to keep out the snow, and with chimneys built (as a protection against fire) with three outer walls on to the gable ends." He objected, however, to the open fireplaces (which, as we have before shown, the English country people had a liking for), as the rooms became too hot on one side, and too cold on the other. This open fireplace Kalm considered as being responsible "for the custom of toasting bread for breakfast during the colder months of our inclement climate." With regard to the cottagers' dwellings, he says that nearly every cottage was shrouded in a mass of ivy, honeysuckle, and syringa, whilst the gardens were gay with flowers and foliage, and fenced with hedges of trimmed yew. He adds that the houses of a village were generally built in a row—sometimes close together, sometimes farther apart. On one side were the common pastures; on the other, the ploughed fields, gardens, and enclosed meadows. At right angles to the principal street was "a back lane leading to the out land."

He has a good word or two to say for the English people. For instance, he highly praises the diligence of the country women—the farmers' wives—as indoors they were

¹ Kalm's *Visit to England*.

assiduous in scouring the floors and dishes; in cooking and dairying; in washing and starching the household linen; in darning socks and in sewing shirts. The introduction of machinery into manufactures, had tended, he said, to save the worker, or artisan, from all unnecessary weaving and spinning; "although, so far as the wives of the cottagers are concerned, they both then (1748) and for many years afterwards continued to avail themselves of their hand-looms and spinning-wheels."

As to food, the English of all classes seem to have been much more abstemious by the middle and end of the eighteenth century than in some previous ages. At the time of Kalm's visit supper was, apparently, not a general custom, but was regarded as "a habit indulged in by some Englishmen." The number of meals taken during the Stuart Period, viz., four, had been reduced to two—or, at the most, three—by the middle of the eighteenth century. Meat, however, was one of the articles of food to which the Englishman has never ceased—to a greater or less degree—to accustom himself, and at the time mentioned—as now—it was, we are told, a regular article in the daily diet of nearly the whole people.

Although cheaper production, by means of inventions in machinery, gave a strong impetus to the textile fabrics and industry, during the present century, the first twenty years thereof, however, were a hard time for the working classes. This is shown by the fact that in 1818, for example, a sum of eight millions sterling was distributed under the poor law, or nearly 14s. per head of the then population. The factory hand suffered more keenly than the labourer even, on account of the introduction of machinery. Whilst the hand-loom weaver was affected the most, the machine weaver does not seem to have at once benefited by the improved machinery. He was poorly paid, and great distress prevailed in the towns; indeed, the "populous places were in a sorrier plight than the country districts."¹ Nevertheless, between 1800 and 1815 our trade had so

¹ Thorold Rogers.

increased that our exports had nearly doubled. Commerce, capital, and the population generally also augmented at an amazing rate, a result which "told upon the land and forced agriculture into a feverish and unhealthy prosperity," wheat rising to famine prices, and the rent of the land rising *pro rata*. Agriculture, however, was, as already stated, enormously improved both by the introduction of new systems of cultivation, new inventions, and a large expenditure in improving the soil and the live stock upon it. The enclosure of commons and waste lands went on at a rapid rate, the peasantry being dispossessed or their rights bought from them on the plea that the land which they occupied or used could be put to better purpose for the country at large by "large farming"—a system of which the country has seen the injustice, if not the folly, so far as the social condition of the peasantry and of the rural labourers is concerned. The land and the farm stock were undoubtedly improved by these enclosures, but the social condition of the peasantry and labourers was seriously jeopardised. When they agreed to part with their rights of common—as they did in thousands of cases—they bartered away not only their own rights but the rights of those yet unborn: and where they did not actually barter them away the rights were more or less "legally" filched from them. But, as we have said, the State has recognised the injustice or the folly of this by the various Allotment and Small Holdings Acts it has passed in quite modern times.

CHAPTER II.

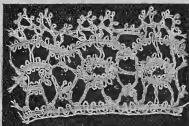
AN ENQUIRY.

In this chapter we propose to give the results of enquiries instituted with the view of ascertaining what rural industries existed and exist in England. A large proportion of these results have been obtained after personal enquiry in the localities mentioned. The remainder have been supplied by rural clergymen, by the mayors of provincial boroughs, and by numerous other persons—all, however, residing in the districts to which the information refers. The questions we asked of the rural clergy, provincial mayors, &c., were as follow:—(1) What rural home industries (if any) formerly existed in, or adjacent to, your locality? (2) What rural home industries (if any) now exist there? (3) What rural industries formerly existed there, conducted elsewhere than in the workers' homes? (4) What are the rural industries existing now, which are conducted elsewhere than in the workers' homes. (5) Any general observations.

We would add that in making the enquiries we selected a district in the north, in the south, in the east, in the west, and in the centre of each county. We also selected districts which lie between these various points. We considered that in this way, if our enquiries were honestly answered, a fairly accurate account as to the rural industries of the various counties might be obtained. In some cases we were unable to obtain any particulars worthy of publication: in others, the particulars relate more to large urban than to rural localities. On the whole, however, we obtained an enormous amount of information, which we condense to such limits as space will allow. We may also add that, as far as possible, we have purposely used in this chapter the exact expressions of—or phraseology employed by—our various informants.

BEDFORDSHIRE.—A great portion of the female population in the southern part of the county—Luton being regarded as the centre—is engaged in the sewing of straw hats and bonnets: many of the men in the surrounding villages migrate to the towns, and are employed in the finishing processes of these manufactures. Considerable numbers find employment in plaiting the straw; but, owing to our large imports of straw plait from China and Italy at very low prices, the straw-plaiting industry has diminished—the numbers, which were 30,000 twenty-five years ago, having dwindled down to 7,000 or 8,000. A little is done in the way of lace-making and brick-making; but the greater part of the population is engaged in the various forms of agriculture, the favourite and most profitable of these, so far as the labourer is concerned, being market gardening. The Duke of Bedford and Lord Cowper have largely provided the labourers with allotments, and it is to be regretted that more land is not generally thus set apart to occupy the time of the men when work in Luton is slack. The average wage of the agricultural labourer is from 11s. to 12s. a week. The straw-plait industry used to be carried on vigorously, and was a very lucrative business in the neighbourhood of Amptill, but it is now scarcely worth doing. It appears to be the only industry carried on in the labourers' cottages, with the exception of a very little beadwork. In the villages around Biddenham (those adjoining Northamptonshire) the shoe trade has become a considerable industry, and has absorbed very many who were formerly employed on the land. Pillow-lace making used to be quite an industry for the women in the north of the county; but this has very much declined in consequence of, as is alleged, the introduction of machinery. The chief employments of the labourers are farming and market-gardening. Straw-plaiting by hand is still pursued in the parish of Dunstable by the wives and daughters of the labourers; but from 1s. to 2s. a week is all that can be earned by the most expert in the work, whereas formerly as much as 10s. a week could be earned easily by a fairly good hand. Prior to the introduction of foreign plait

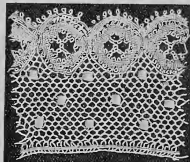
into the country, many of the men associated straw-plaiting with agricultural labour, following the former work in the evening when their field work was done. Both pillow-lace making by the women, and shoe-making and mat-making by the men, formerly provided a large amount of employment in the cottages about Harrold and the district to the north-west of the county. At the present time the home industries are a little lace-making by the cottage women and shoe-making by the men. Away from the homes leather-dressing is carried on extensively, as well as



BEDFORDSHIRE PILLOW LACE.

the ordinary agricultural work. A good deal of employment is given in the Woburn district in the preparation of fuller's earth—a soft, friable clay used in fulling cloth, &c. As to Biggleswade and district, straw-plaiting and bead-work were

formerly conducted in the cottagers' homes, but only a little of the latter employment now remains. A considerable amount of osier-peeling, onion-peeling, and basket-work is done away from the homes. Straw-plaiting and lace-making were at one time the chief home employments around Potton and adjoining villages. The



BEDFORDSHIRE PILLOW LACE.

prominent home industry to-day is that of threading beads for ladies' mantles, &c. The district is a market-gardening district, large quantities of vegetables being sent to London and other

industrial centres. There is an iron-foundry in the district, and a number of persons are also employed in the making of parchment, boots, shoes, and leggings. On the whole, Bedfordshire still is what it has been for ages, viz., one of the most prominent of our counties from an agricultural point of view.

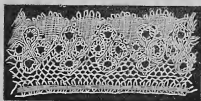
BERKSHIRE.—Very few rural industries are, apparently, to be found in this county. Near Thatcham there is a paper mill, and a chair-frame factory. About forty years ago velvets, ribbons, and men's clothing were manufactured in the neighbourhood of Newbury, but so far as we could learn no such factories exist now. Enquiring at Crowthorne, we were informed that there is no agricultural labouring class in the parish, and no habitation of much above thirty years old. Before Wellington College and Broadmoor Asylum were built the ground was entirely unsettled and untilled. For some time, many years ago, several bell-foundries existed at Blewbury and Cholsey. Once Berkshire had a name for its cloth, and even now teazels are found growing wild, which are supposed to have once been cultivated, and used in the preparation of the surface of the cloth. The labourers' wives and children did a fair amount of weaving, and in Rowe More's "Queries" there is mention of a sail-cloth being made by the weavers. It is rather uncommon now to meet with women who are either willing or physically competent to do field-work. Formerly at harvest time they earned considerable sums in reaping and tying the corn, in hoeing the turnips, and in making the hay. This practice has been largely discontinued of late years. Large numbers of women and children, however, are still usually very busy during the acorn harvest. At this work a woman often earns from 3s. 4d. to 5s. per day, and, with the assistance of two or three children, she will, it is said, earn a "nice sum" while the acorn season lasts. Another annual industry—but which is of brief duration—in some parts of Berkshire, is that of leaf-gathering. When the leaves are falling in the autumn numbers of women may be seen collecting them into bags, to be used

on the garden, and to provide bedding for pigs. Hurdle-making is an industry which is followed by a few. It is an interesting occupation, but destined, it seems, to disappear very shortly, for withies are imported at such a low price from other countries that it is found hardly to pay to grow the osier crop. In Reading there used to be a certain amount of spinning and weaving done by hand, but this died out many years ago. Generally speaking, the Berkshire rural working classes are fairly well off; too well off, it has been said, for, it is added, they neglect opportunities of earning money which would have been turned to good account by their forefathers. Iron-foundries remain at Wantage, Compton, Wallingford, Newbury, and Hungerford, and a clothing factory at Abingdon. Malting has declined very much; and, in consequence of the greater skill in making beer of modern years, quite half the malt-houses have been shut up. It is pleasing to learn that the iron-works referred to—mostly for agricultural implements—have not decayed, but that they are all increasing their business.

BUCKINGHAMSHIRE.—Enquiring at Buckingham, we were informed that lace-making is the only home industry carried on about that part of the county. It is not, however, nearly so flourishing as twenty to forty years ago. The rural industries at and around Amersham have declined in recent years. This is a well-known part of the county for chair-making, there being large quantities of beech trees; but the greatest difficulty has been experienced in selling the wood during the last year or two on account of the trade in chairs being bad. Formerly there was a lot of lace-making and straw-plaiting carried on in the locality; but now we are told that one never sees a lace pillow, and that straw-plaiting is quite given up. There is a fair quantity of what is called bead-work (*i.e.*, sewing black glass beads on to silk for ladies' dresses, &c.) done for the London market. Two industries are carried on in the homes of the labourers in the village of Aston Clinton and neighbourhood:—(1) Lace-making by one or two

women only, and that but occasionally. Thirty years ago many lace-makers lived in the district, but even at that date they were chiefly old people. The industry died out through competition of machine-made lace, which can be produced much more cheaply. This decay is very much to be regretted, as the lace produced lasts considerably longer than that which is made by machine power. (2) Straw-plaiting is still carried on by perhaps a hundred or more women, but only as providing some little addition to the household resources, and not as a means of sole livelihood. There are no plaiting schools (*i.e.*, cottages where children are taught plaiting) in existence, though some few children learn at odd times to plait. The decay of the industry commenced some twenty years ago in this locality, rapidly increasing in pace during the last ten years, and still more rapidly during the last five. Twenty yards of ordinary plait might have realised 1s or 1s. 6d. fifteen years ago; now it may reach 6d. (the price of the straw to be deducted from this, *i.e.*, 4d. a score). No plait is made up into goods here, but is all sold in Tring market to dealers who come from Dunstable, &c. Five or seven years ago some twenty people made a living by straw-drawing, and cutting the straw into lengths, and splitting and treating the straw with sulphur. A straw-dealer would go through the country along the gravels and heights south of Reading and the Thames. Straw grown in the clay was generally valueless (it was spotty), and occasionally a man would go some hundreds of miles before he found a suitable straw. He would then arrange with the farmer for the purchase and proper harvesting of the straw (the straw would be standing when bought), and then when harvested men were sent to cut it into bundles and bring it home. All this was not, of course, home labour, but it *fed* that; for the straw-cutters, when the straw came home, cut, split, and treated it, and then sold it to the plaiters in bundles. Three or four of such straw-cutters, each with several assistants (girls generally), did a good business five years ago. Now, perhaps, four carry it on "in a way"; but only one, we believe, has any

assistant or assistants. The cause of the decay is competition by Chinese and, perhaps, Japanese plait, and, to some extent, *the use of other materials* for bonnets, and the small size of straw bonnets when they *are* worn. Duck-breeding and the collecting of eggs for the London market give some little employment in the particular parish now under mention. There is also a small but very flourishing school of wood carving in Aston Clinton, due to Lady de Rothschild and Lady Battersea. About fifteen take lessons at this school, some of them of the rank of labourers (young). The district around Datchet has rapidly increased in population of late years, but it contains very few agricultural labourers. Wood-carving and art needlework have been introduced, taking root and promising good fruit. Art exhibitions have been held for four years, each better than the last; some of the girls' needlework was sent to the recent Chicago Exhibition as an example of what can be done in an English country parish. The hamlets of Northall and Edlesborough are wholly given to straw-plaiting, and the hamlet of Dagnall nearly so. Twenty years ago the straw-plait trade here was remunerative. Then it mattered little what the winter was like, inasmuch as the men, when not employed in agricultural labour, plaited at home with their wives and daughters; and the total of the week's earnings made a very respectable sum, and kept the whole family in comfort. Since that time, however, there has been a



BUCKINGHAMSHIRE PILLOW LACE.

rapid decadence in the trade, the plaiters being no longer able to compete with the importations of plait from China, Japan, Switzerland, Italy, and other countries. Women can

plait as well as ever they did, and as quickly; but the result now of working for ten and eleven hours a day, and after the necessary materials have been paid for, will not produce here—even for a

good plaiter—more than from four to five shillings a week. Quite recently an effort has been started by the County Council to try and improve the condition of the plaiter, by teaching new, elaborate, and fashionable patterns—an effort which it is hoped may result in bringing better prices. The effort has been warmly welcomed in the district. In 1893 an exhibition of Buckinghamshire lace was held at Hampden House, Great Missenden, the residence of the Earl and Countess of Buckinghamshire. There was a very interesting and rather large exhibition of old and new lace, the work of inhabitants of the county, and specimens were sent to the Chicago Exhibition before mentioned. Through the interest taken in the lace industry by a number of ladies—the industry was formerly largely pursued throughout the county—the art has been partly revived in several localities among the cottagers. At Princes Risborough a school for giving instruction in lace-making has lately been opened, and the results are so far encouraging. Some of the pieces of lace were despatched to the Chicago Exhibition, being copies of the lace made one hundred years ago. Needle-making was formerly quite a profitable industry to the working men at Long Crendon. It is now almost, if not entirely, extinct. Large numbers of ducks are bred in the county for the London market, and chiefly around Aylesbury and district.

CAMBRIDGESHIRE.—Enquiring at Bourn, we were informed that there is practically no industry carried on in the labourers' homes in the parish or adjoining districts. One woman at Bourn makes lace. In former years a number of women were similarly engaged. It is now many years since a flax factory was carried on near Wisbech, the undertaking being unprofitable. A jam factory was started here in 1892. The women and children are able to earn good wages in fruit-picking, potato-gathering, and otherwise on the land, at certain periods of the year; but there are really no home industries carried on. Almost the whole of the female population in Cottenham and district, who can be spared from their homes, are constantly employed during the

whole summer in the market gardens, which prevail extensively. In winter nearly all the women devote themselves to the swansdown industry. Regarding this we may give the following particulars:—One pound of swansdown is purchased for 3s, and calico on which to work it at 9d. a yard. From this outlay, when the down is finished, the workers get 7s. 6d, the waste being preserved and taken back, for which 2½d. an ounce is obtained. There seems to be no sign of decay in this industry; if anything, it has improved. No industries worth mentioning are carried on in the cottagers' homes in and around Ely. There seems to be no absolute poverty here, for, adding the harvest earnings, the labourers' wages average about 15s. a week; then there are many perquisites, the rents are low, and the allotment system has worked well. Altogether, it is considered that the labourer's condition here, with a nominal wage of 12s. weekly, is better than that of the labourer in other counties with 18s. or £1. The agricultural labouring class have no home industries in the parish of Willingham; but a few of the people have taken to bee-keeping apart from their daily occupations. At Gamlingay, some straw-plaiting and a little lace-making are carried on. These employments have considerably fallen off in the last twenty years—chiefly, it is alleged, through foreign competition. Messrs. Chivers and Son have transformed the villages of Histon and Trumpington. Mr. Chivers, sen.—who resides in a comfortable white brick residence on the village green—started a jam factory, and to it are brought all sorts of fruit from the whole district. The working men are prosperous and contented. Formerly there was a deal of poverty. Mr. Chivers commenced business, he said, with three acres of land; some friends helped him, in due course, to purchase 150 during the first ten years of his business. Now he has some 500. The business is now between twenty and twenty-five years old, and is not only a great success, but a source of healthy employment to large number of our rural people. The two villages last referred to are extending, and it is satisfactory to record that, at the time we write, the new cottages being built have no less

than three bedrooms apiece. The working men of Histon, in numerous cases, do not hesitate to pay 50s. to 60s. an acre for land; whilst a few miles off, in the adjoining county of Essex, land cannot even be let rent free in numerous parts. On the other side of the Colne Valley is a farm which, a few years since, could not be let or sold to anyone. Mr. Chivers, however, has now transformed it into a veritable Arcadia. As a county, Cambridgeshire is chiefly an agricultural one, and the straw-plaiting and lace-making industries which were formerly carried on in probably most of the parishes are practically things of the past.

CHESHIRE.—Silk-weaving by hand power formerly largely existed at Cheadle, Hulme, Woodford and districts near Macclesfield; and fustian-cutting at Lymm. In each place the industry has, as a home occupation, practically died out. A considerable amount of market-gardening is carried on in proximity to the large centres of population. Cheshire is an agricultural county, and is still as famous for its Cheshire cheese as it has been for ages. Dairy farming has greatly progressed in the county, and especially during the past ten to fifteen years. The farmers, however, state that their special commodity—cheese—is severely handicapped by the cheap cheese imported from America, and which is too frequently mixed with fat other than that which is obtainable from the milk of the cow.—Cheshire has long had a name for its mineral productions, the chief of which are salt and coal. It was about 1670, near Northwich, that salt was first discovered, when search was being made for *coal*; but it has since then been obtained in considerable quantities at Winnington, Witton, Marston, Nantwich, Middlewich, Winsford and many other places. The salt is of two kinds; one is white and transparent, the other a reddish brown. Coal is found more especially in the north or north-east of the county. Copper and lead, as well as freestone and limestone, are also found in the county. Chester, the county town, is a manufacturing place, and has been such for generations. It has a reputation for various manufactures, such as rope-making, tanning, chemical

works, soap works, &c. Until the close of the middle ages the port of Chester was of small importance so far as the passage for staple commodities was concerned.

CORNWALL.—There are no industries carried on in the homes of the inhabitants around Callington, Liskeard, and adjoining district. The same applies to Penzance and Bodmin. At Newlyn the lads have lately been learning to do embossed-metal work under the training of some of the Newlyn artists. The mining is now almost confined to the west of the county, and is not in such a flourishing condition as formerly. Mining has greatly decreased, also, in the eastern part of the county during the last ten to fifteen years, and so has the value of the land. The metalliferous mines of Cornwall have been worked certainly as far back as the Roman Period. Copper, tin, and lead are the county's chief minerals. Most of the copper and tin mines are south or south-west of the rivers Alan and Fowey, excepting a few near Callington. The chief mining district extends from, say, St. Agnes on the north, by Redruth, to Helston and Marazion. Lead mines are not very numerous. Gold and silver have been found, but much less is now done in the matter of their production than might be. Iron is also obtained. Bodmin was formerly the staple for tin.

CUMBERLAND.—Comparatively speaking, as far as West Cumberland is concerned, there are no agricultural labourers, as we know them in most parts of England. The farmers keep their workmen in the farmhouse. There are some "hinds," who manage a farm for the owner. The wives, in some parts, after house work, make rag-mats, and knit quilt counterpanes on frames. Poultry are also occasionally kept, but usually against the wishes of the farmers. Around Milton, near Carlisle, the rural population does not appear to have practised any special home industrial work. The allotment system has been in force there for some fifty years, and has fully occupied the leisure time both of the colliers and agricultural labourers. The principal industry, that of coal mining, which has been followed for the

last sixty years, has increased and waxed larger and more important. Such rural industries as those carried on in small mills of various kinds, have become, and are becoming, fewer and fewer, with the result that the population in most of the country parishes has become smaller. One cause of this is the swallowing up of small concerns by companies, and the abolition of the use of water power. No rural industries are carried on in the homes. About 1876 there were some hand-loom weavers in the parish of Caldewgate. They made a sort of gingham; but all of these have now died. Coal and iron mining are the chief industries around Frizington. The iron trade has greatly declined during the last twenty years or so. The Rev. H. D. Rawnsley, Crosthwaite, has some brass works. He started these with, we believe, only three or four men; but the works have now become very flourishing. The home industries carried on in the neighbourhood of Keswick are wood-carving, and brass and silver repoussé work, and hand-made linen. The rural industries formerly existing there, elsewhere than in the workers' homes, were woollen-weaving and pencil-making. Pencil-making survives, but is "on its last legs," owing, it is said, to the Government using foreign pencils. Hand-loom weaving was at one time an industry in and adjoining the parish of Wigton. Practically no home industries remain there now beyond the finishing of men's clothing for a manufacturer in Wigton, by a very few persons. Copper, lead, iron, limestone, plumbago, and coal are the chief minerals of the county of Cumberland. Silver has also been found. Coal is the chief mining industry. Silver and lead used to be obtained in fair quantities at Greenside and Eaglecrag, in Patterdale, whilst lead has been worked between Skiddaw and Saddleback, in Buttermere, Newlands, and Thornthwaite. Alston, Calderbeck, and Wythburn have been especially famous for their copper mines. Egremont is famous for its iron, whilst the quantity of iron-ore shipped from Ulverston and Barrow has long been considerable. Coal is obtainable at Whitehaven, Workington,

and Maryport, as well as in Tindale Fell and other parts in the east of the county. Plumbago, or black-lead, has chiefly been found at Borrowdale, near Keswick. Salt is also said to be plentiful in the county, and is of a beautiful pale-blue colour. The agriculture of the county is of a high order. The county is, on the whole, chiefly one of agriculture and mining rather than of manufactures.

DERBYSHIRE.—The occupation of the working men in the rural parts around Derby is confined to farm work, or work in the breweries at Burton-on-Trent. The labour in the Ripley part of the county is now almost entirely that of work in the iron-works, steel furnaces, or collieries. Two cotton mills employ about eighty to a hundred girls and women. In days gone by, each cottager had his own loom for stocking-making. This is hardly ever met with now, which is to be accounted for by the stocking factories now in existence in various parts. The development of coal-mines is alleged as another cause for the extinction of the cottage looms. The women, however, fetch bundles of undyed stockings from the factories for seaming, *i.e.*, sewing the stockings into shape. Dronfield is famous for its iron goods. At Heanor cotton goods, hosiery, and lace are made, and both here and at Swanwick a few of the cottagers preserve their old looms and weave stockings—"stockingers" they are called. Marble is found at Ashford and the vicinity. Hathersage was famous for its tools, pins, needles, and mill-stones. It was at Cromford that Sir Richard Arkwright built a spacious cotton-mill; near to which lead is also found. Derby itself is now chiefly famous for the considerable employment which is there given to the workmen of the Midland Railway Company, the company having large works there. As to the other employments of the town, the chief are silk and cotton manufacture, and the manufacture of porcelain and various ornamental goods. Silk, hosiery, and lace are made there, and have been for a very long period. It was in the eighteenth century that the art of spinning, or "throwing" silk was brought to Derby by a Mr. Crotchet. He

failed, but others followed and succeeded, and the industry has ever since been identified with the town. At Milford and district the home industries which formerly flourished were silk-weaving and elastic-bandage making. Elastic-bandage making and silk-weaving are still carried on, but the former is not so prosperous as in previous years, whilst the latter is fast dying out. Working stockings with coloured silk, locally known as "chevening" is also now a home employment. The industries existing now, which are conducted elsewhere than in the workers' homes, are cotton-spinning and weaving, cotton-bleaching and colouring, and milling. Frame-work knitting of every description in the workers' homes is fast being superseded by machine-work at the factories. Many men and lads work at collieries from five to eight miles distant from Milford. Derbyshire is noted for its very rich pastures. Derbyshire cheese—which is a round cheese of about two feet across and about four or five inches deep—has much improved of late years, owing to the general advance which has taken place in dairy-farming knowledge.

DEVONSHIRE. — Clovelly is a fishing village, though — as elsewhere — the trade is declining through lack of easy communication with the railway — the nearest station being eleven miles off. Farm labourers are in a great minority. A statement made to us is that the industries in the whole district are generally in a depressed condition. At Combe Martin it was stated that no rural industries were ever carried on either in that parish or in the neighbourhood. A limited number of the inhabitants of Calstock occupy themselves during the winter in making baskets for strawberries, which fruit is extensively grown there. Fifty years or so ago there was a cloth factory at Chudleigh, in connection with which some of the labourers' wives and children found occupation; but there never was, we were informed, home work of any sort constituting an industry. The mining industries in the district have entirely declined during the last twenty years, but there are clay works and potteries which have grown. There are also woollen

manufactories still continuing in a few places ; for example, the serge factories at Ashburton, North Tawton, &c. At Alphington, near Exeter, we were told that no rural industries were ever carried on thereabouts. For generations, however, the manufacture of carpets was carried on at the little town of Axminster by the late Mr. Whittey and his ancestors up to 1835. The old factory was wrecked by fire about 1825. A costly building was afterwards erected on the same site. But it is supposed that the late Mr. Whittey possessed a secret for the composition of particular dyes, and for the making of other ingredients used in the manufacture of the world-famed Axminster carpets. This secret, so those who intimately knew him declare, died with him. Be that as it may, for some reason or other, a company could not be formed to carry on the factory, and one of the most famous rural industries in England, or in any other country, has disappeared. A woollen factory once existed about a mile from Torrington, but this ceased to exist some fifty years ago. Gloving is carried on, at home, by many women in Torrington and district, but recently the business has declined to a serious extent owing to foreign competition, chiefly American and German. Within about the last two years a collar factory has been started in the district, which gives employment to several women. There is considerable trade depression in the town last-named owing to the agricultural depression, and to the decrease in the gloving industry. Plymouth—the second naval station in England—and Devonport—also an important naval town—were of considerably less importance at the beginning of the century ; but they have since shown a marvellous growth of trade. In Richard II.'s time Plymouth was one of the ports assigned for the passage of subjects beyond the realm. Exeter was formerly a staple port by the Statute 27 Edward III. Crediton was formerly one of the principal places in the county for its cloth manufacture, but there is comparatively little done in that way now in the district. The Honiton district has for ages been famous for its beautiful lace. It is not made so extensively as formerly, though efforts have

been made, with some success, to revive its manufacture in the county. Tin, copper, lead, manganese have been obtained about Tavistock, the lead, both there and elsewhere in the county, being frequently combined with silver. Copper and tin are now the chief mineral productions of the district. The potteries at Bovey Heath were supplied with coal, or lignite, from Bovey. The granite from Dartmoor is of a very durable character. Speaking generally of the county of Devon, there are many large villages and small towns where once a thriving manufactory of serge and woollen cloths was carried on, but which has now entirely, or almost entirely, disappeared; and many of those who were formerly engaged in these callings have joined the ranks of the labourers. The manufactures of Exeter are miscellaneous, and partake chiefly of those which one would expect to find at an agricultural centre. The county is also very famous for its agriculture. Of late years it has made especial progress in dairy farming, and "Devonshire" butter (both that made from clotted cream and that made from ordinary cream) is rapidly acquiring a name second to none produced in any other part of the kingdom. Devonshire cream and Devonshire junket are two common delicacies for which the county is specially famous, and which only seem to be relished best when partaken of there. Cider and perry are also largely made and consumed chiefly by the country people.

DORSET.—The only rural work carried on in the neighbourhood of Blandford, outside of agriculture, is that of glove-knitting and a small amount of kid-gloving, both of which are "done" in the adjacent villages, and formerly, thirty years since, in a much more extensive manner. In Blandford about seventy to one hundred years ago, there existed a considerable business in button-making and lace-making. The buttons—in the button-making occupation—were thread buttons worked by hand on to a ring of brass wire. Both the trades last mentioned are now non-existent in the locality. Away from home some employment was found, at the time of making our enquiries, in preparing

rabbit fur for felting. Consequent on the agricultural depression, Blandford, in common with other towns similarly situated, has suffered very much in local business, "which has decayed," we were told, "quite thirty per cent." "This remark" (says our informant) "is, moreover, of general application in the district, the interests of the agricultural industry, and those of the other industries of the place being inseparably connected. A decline in the former is signalled by depression in the other, by laws which are now pretty well understood." About Wimborne there are no rural industries, and we could not ascertain of any having an existence at a former time. The locality is purely agricultural. The population of Beaminster was formerly considerably over three thousand; at present it is under two thousand. Fifty years ago some weaving of broad-cloth and sail-cloth was "done" here, but both have been extinct probably since that time. Gloving—not kid gloves—became an occupation about twenty years ago, and a few people do a little at it now. Net braiding, which formerly provided work for a number of people, is only followed now by two or three. These occupations applicable to Beaminster were home occupations. At one time, however, there also existed one broad-cloth mill, about four sail-cloth and net braiding mills, and one small pottery. These do not exist now. There was a large flax trade (making of bed-tick, &c.), forty years ago in Gillingham, especially in the Bourton part of the parish (some four miles from Gillingham). This trade, however, gradually ceased all round, being retained at Bourton until eight or nine years since, when it altogether died out. Gloving is a trade which has been established at Gillingham some fifty years. This trade lessened and almost drifted away, until a few years ago when some new machinery was put up, and when, as a consequence, the trade revived. The trade has now the dimensions it had formerly, and is still on the increase, having been trebled within the last three years. There used to be several flax factories in the parish and adjacent thereto, but these have disappeared. There was formerly a considerable

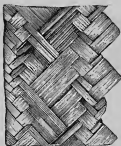
trade in silk-throwing, but not in silk-making. The silk throwing trade appears to be declining. In the parish of Mere there is a large factory, with offshoots in the neighbourhood for silk-throwing and silk-making. The establishment of the present owner of the mills was, it is said, formerly considered the second-best for throwing and making in the kingdom. The business is still thriving, and employs a large number of hands. Weaving used to be carried on in one cottage, but hand-weaving, it is said, paid so badly that the man was glad instead to become a labourer in a foundry. One basket-maker does his work at home. Twenty years ago there were two factories—flax-spinning, &c.—a foundry, a tannery, and a twine manufactory. Now there is one large foundry, and a very small twine establishment. There was also, and is, one large and one small brick-making works. There are not, and never appear to have been, any special home industries in the locality of Dorchester, where agriculture is the common calling. The principal industry, which formerly gave employment to the working people in and about the neighbourhood of Cerne Abbas, was gloving. Most of the women in the cottages were engaged in the work, which consisted in sewing the gloves already cut out for them in the factories at Yeovil. A woman could earn about 3s. 3d. per week in this way. But the trade has left the neighbourhood, and, where it is carried on, the sewing machine is used, which thus expedites the glover's work, and enables a woman to earn about 10s. per week. Straw-plaiting was also carried on to some extent, and this was much more remunerative than glove-sewing; but the trade appears to have been limited to a few experts. There is nothing of the kind now. Later back a small factory existed, the proprietors of which "put out" silk to the cottagers, who were called winders. It is quite fifty years since this trade was carried on. The population of the place has fallen from 1,300 to about 700. The different trades of malting, tanning, fellmongering, and a trade which employed men in dividing the skin of the sheep for use as parchment, have gradually disappeared. Purely rural

industries have vanished altogether from the villages in the neighbourhood, machinery being alleged as one of the causes which have brought about this result. Respectable servants are, we are told, in great request; and no cottage employment, it is said,



ENGLISH STRAW PLAIT.

would equal the wages which the young women obtain in service. Cerne Abbas, not long ago a busy little town, is now a woe-begone village. The main home industry in and around Bere Regis is gloving. The profits, however, are not what they used to be. The pay is usually partly in kind — garments, materials, &c. Though small, the profits derived from the industry are regarded as of great value to women who otherwise would



ENGLISH STRAW PLAIT.

be earning nothing. Formerly silk-winding was carried on in the cottagers' homes around Sherborne. It is now virtually extinct. The home industry of glove-sewing in connection with

the factories exists in the district, and there are also factories for glove-making, and for winding and weaving silk, the silk factory employing from 150 to 200 hands. Lyme was formerly a borough and port of some importance, particularly during the reigns of Edward III., Richard II., and Henry IV. Melcombe and Weymouth may nowadays be bracketed together as forming a favourite watering-place and a progressive borough; in old times Weymouth was but a haven in connection with the port of Melcombe. In the time of Edward I., and up to Henry VI.'s reign, Melcombe was a place of considerable importance from a commercial point of view, wool being the commodity mostly dealt in. In the latter reign Melcombe began to decay, and then Poole took its place as the chief Dorset port. The county of Dorset is famous now—as it long has been—for what goes by the name of "Dorset" butter, the principal characteristic of which is the large amount of salt, combined with the well "worked" butter. In London and elsewhere, however, it finds a severe competitor in the salted butter sent to England from abroad, and which is often sold as genuine "Dorset"—chiefly by the retail shop-keepers, who usually buy it at a lower rate than they can purchase the English article.

DURHAM.—The farms in Beamish parish are said to be very poor, only producing hay for the pit horses and milk for the villagers. The whole of the non-agricultural population is engaged, directly or indirectly, in coal-getting. This industry is enlarging, as shown by the population in the census of 1881, when it was 4,656; in 1891 it was 6,346; whereas now it must be between 7,000 and 8,000. For at least twenty-five years there has not been any industry carried on in the houses of the agricultural labourers around Teesdale, whatever there may have been prior to that time. The land being mainly pasture, the labourers are not numerous, but they are better paid than in the south of England. In the upper part of the dale lead-mining is carried on. The miner has also a small holding; at least in many cases this is the fact. The lead-mining industry seems to be going

"altogether to pieces." It cannot be said that there are any rural industries, properly so-called, in the neighbourhood of Bishop's Castle beyond the ordinary agricultural industry. Sunderland, South Shields the Hartlepoons, and Jarrow—all now important seaport towns—were, at the beginning of the century, of comparatively little importance from a trading point of view. Generally speaking, the main industries of the county are agriculture and coal-mining. In conjunction with the latter there are also carried on the manufacture of coke and, to a limited extent, chemicals. Neither of these industries is so flourishing as a few years ago. Lead-mining was formerly carried on in the western part of the county, but it has almost, if not entirely, disappeared.

ESSEX.—There was formerly in Old Brentford a considerable industry in basket-making, the osiers being grown along the river Thames. The osiers are still grown there; but the baskets are made elsewhere, very little in that way being now done around Brentford. The making of "punnets" still employs a great many of the cottagers in their homes; but, as the market gardens are gradually absorbed into building land, and covered with houses, the demand for these by the fruit-sellers steadily diminishes. Most of the punnets now made in Brentford are bought up by a dealer in Hammersmith. It is thought, however, that the opening of the new market at Kew Bridge will revive this healthy and cleanly industry. The Flemings introduced the bays and says trade into Colchester district. This was a species of woollen manufacture which was, in olden times, of enormous importance to Colchester; but, in spite of Royal attempts to bolster it up by the decree of "burial in woollen," it died out. Mr. Chas. E. Benham, of Colchester, bought a few inches of the fabric a short time ago for £5, which is the last relic he believes, and which is now in the Colchester Museum. In the villages around, and in Colchester itself, are numerous "bay" mills, now converted to other purposes. One at Dedham is a favourite picture with artists. Such minor industries as thatching have (says our informant) suffered from the nineteenth

century "germ" madness, which has bitten sanitary authorities so badly, and done away with many a comfortable and picturesque thatched cottage—a cottage which has been replaced by a "desirable brick and slated cottage property," as the auctioneers' catalogues say. At Castle Hedingham, some eighteen miles from Colchester, there was formerly "a hop industry," which has disappeared. In and about the neighbourhood of East Donyland the male population are largely engaged in brewing, fishing, yachting, and shipbuilding, and only a small number in agricultural labour. In the cottages of many of these various classes the wives and daughters are engaged in working for certain large clothing establishments, the number so employed increasing yearly. Within the last thirty or forty years baize and worsted were made in Dedham. The industry has, however, quite died out; but some of the poorer women make trousers, &c., for army contractors, &c., though we were informed that they get none too well paid. No rural industry is carried on in the workers' homes at Dagenham, nor within a radius of ten miles round. Market-gardening is largely the industry of the district. The women earn so much more in pea-picking, plant-dropping, weeding and other work connected with market-gardening than any indoor industry is, it is thought, very unlikely to get a footing unless it is very profitable. The rural home industries of Braintree and district years ago were straw-plaiting and silk-weaving. At the present time a little silk-weaving is done. The crape and silk tapestry trades, which at one time employed a considerable amount of labour, are both now in a very depressed state. At Coggeshall there used to be a good deal of employment in making silk and woollen goods. At Maldon fishing, wild-fowl shooting, and the loading and unloading of ships were, and are, the employments, though, as compared with former times, these occupations have greatly diminished, this part of Essex—as other parts have, too—having suffered from the agricultural depression. Thousands of acres are either wholly uncultivated, or only partially cultivated. Very few vessels now enter or leave

the port of Maldon, and wild fowl have become scarce. At Harwich and Romford there are no home industries. Stratford was formerly very famous for the manufacture of shoes, stays and small silken goods. Essex to-day is chiefly noted for the difficulty which owners of agricultural properties experience in letting them. In many cases these cannot be let even rent free. The result is that many thousands of acres of land are out of cultivation, to the great loss of the labourer, farmer, landowner, and the traders of the county. The county is naturally an agricultural one, and when we say "agricultural," we refer more especially to the crops produced rather than to the live-stock reared.

GLOUCESTERSHIRE.—There are scarcely any really agricultural workers in Amberley and its immediate district. The bulk of the people are mostly mill hands, engaged in cloth, pin, shoddy, stick, and umbrella works. The only home industry is the making up (*i.e.*, the stitching together of the various parts) of ready-made clothes. This is a comparatively new form of employment, in which the female portion of the population engage. In a few households skewer-making is also carried on. No special rural home industries survive in Lechlade and district. More than fifty years ago the cloth industry flourished in the district; but this—now carried on by steam or water power—has shrunk into the Stroud district, surviving, however, in the blanket factories at Witney (Oxfordshire), and the cloth factory at Chipping Norton. Lechlade was much more prosperous one hundred years ago than now. Avening is within walking distance of cloth mills in another parish in which a few of the Avening men, boys and girls are employed. Beyond agriculture, there is really no other old-established industry. Within the last thirty years, however, a new industry has sprung up, which is carried on by some of the women in their own cottages. This is the sewing together of men's clothes by means of sewing machines, the materials being supplied by certain wholesale tailors. Few of the Avening people now follow the cloth trade—*i.e.*, the manufacture of cloth, though formerly large numbers were so engaged.

There are a few houses in Almondsbury and district in which stays are made for a factory in Bristol, and there is, it is said, a prospect of yarn-spinning reviving. Weaving and spinning were, to some extent, carried on in the workers' homes at and around Northleach years ago, but there are practically no home industries now. Wool-stapling, from the Cotswold sheep, made Northleach a very prosperous place in the middle ages. This continued in various forms down to the introduction of machinery, &c., in the present century. The absence of a railway station is considered to have contributed to the decline of the industries in the district. Only two branches of industry exist now, and these are (1) farming, and (2) brewing (at one brewery). Wages are about 10s. a week for ordinary labourers, often (it is declared) with a poor cottage and certain privileges. The wages of carters range from 12s. to 14s. a week, with a cottage. The greater part of the population of Cinderford and the villages near work in either coal or iron-mines, and the few agricultural labourers there are find employment in the neighbourhood. No industries are carried on in the homes. In the south-west corner of the county are the Forest of Dean coal-fields, which give employment to a great number of men in that part of the county. Iron is said to have been found here in the Roman time; and in the time of Edward I. it was recorded that there were no less than seventy-two smelting furnaces in the Forest. Lead is found in the county. Besides the localities we have mentioned as formerly being specially noted for their cloth, we may mention Minchinhampton, Wotton-under-Edge, Cam, Painswick, Rodborough, Uley, and Stroud, the last being so noted still. At Bitton pin-making and herb-distilling were home industries. Boots, shoes, stays, and waistcoat-making are home industries now. Hat-making was formerly carried on in shops, but is now almost abandoned. Frampton, Winterbourne, Cotterell, and Westerleigh were once noted for the manufacture of hats and felt; and Tewkesbury was famous for its hosiery manufacture. Cheltenham is rather a "fashionable" than a manufacturing

district. Bristol is an extremely busy and business-like place, with numerous factories of various kinds. The city (in common with certain other towns) formerly reaped immense advantage from the prohibition placed on the importation of foreign cloth, and from that time (1337) up to early in the last century weaving was one of the principal industries of the place. At Bisley there is a certain amount of building trade, that of carpenters, plasterers, and plumbers. There are also a few tailors. A few years ago there was a large building yard, which employed a large number of hands; and forty or fifty years ago there was a large trade in stone tiles ("Stonesfield Slate"), of which there are considerable beds close at hand. But this has much diminished owing to the preference shown for the slate and artificial tiling. Formerly a large proportion of the inhabitants were hand-loom weavers, being chiefly employed by the clothiers of Chalford, and some of them going for work even as far as Cirencester, which is ten miles distant. The outlying parts of this large parish are chiefly manufacturing. Sixty or seventy years ago much coarse cloth was made here. Owing to a great strike which took place and other causes that trade passed to Yorkshire. The mills have either disappeared or been adapted to other uses—silk-throwing, shoddy, &c. The most considerable manufacture, however, is that of umbrella and walking-sticks, which employs a great number of operatives. The only home industry worth noting at King's Stanley is the making up of ready-made clothes for a large clothing firm at Stroud. This gives employment to a great number of married women and to girls. The place is a centre of cloth manufactures, and has been for generations. Before the introduction of the power loom, &c., all the cloth was made in the homes instead of in large factories. The cloth trade carried on in parishes near to Stroud has seriously decayed within the last thirty years. Numbers of large mills, each of which used to employ from one hundred to three hundred hands from rural villages, have long been closed; but within the same period other industries have sprung up in timber-sawing mills, walking-stick and umbrella

factories, &c., in which large numbers of villagers are employed. A century or so ago the staple trades of the county were in wool and cheese, but steam and other discoveries have changed all this. Bacon factories have sprung up in different localities, at many of which some six hundred pigs are killed and converted into bacon each week.

HAMPSHIRE.—The watch-spring or chain industry, long existent at Christchurch, has declined and almost ceased. It was, however, at best but a small affair. The Portal family for some two centuries have carried on a special branch of paper-making exclusively for the manufacture of Bank of England notes and paper, the work employing, under extreme supervision, a considerable number of workpeople. No other rural industries beyond agriculture are carried on in the neighbourhood. The great family of the Lansdownes (it is said) trace their greatness to a clothier named Petty, who carried on the business at Romsey. Silk-weaving flourished here down to 1800; and the ancestor of a prominent citizen of the place made a zealous effort to found the industry of silk-throwing some seventy-five years ago; but machinery, &c., in the "manufacturing districts" paralysed it. The New Forest (we are told) once had a joint industry of its own, viz., "deer-stealers and timber thieves"! but these professions have, with the distribution of the deer and the altered Forest Laws, died out, and the forest is occupied by many small holders and cottiers, who retain not a few of the characteristics of the ancient holders, and use in many cases just such a cart or "wain" as that in which Purkis, the charcoal-burner, carried the Red King's corpse. Southampton and Cowes have each considerable industries in connection with yacht and ship building; but the latter trade has been unfortunate at Southampton, where, however, are one or two good firms of old standing. The port of Southampton was the most important of any along the southern coast, and in Edward III's time the town was made a staple port in connection with Winchester. In Winchester there has been established, within

the past thirty years, a factory for sacking and other coarse goods of that kind; and here and there are rope walks, but this kind of industry has not advanced. The hop-growing business of the county has Alton for its centre, and employs many hands permanently, and, at the picking, vast numbers of migratory assistants. A curious result of the breaking up of a lot of common land at Sarisbury Green, in and around Botley, has been the creation of strawberry farms, and the consequent establishment of a great trade with London. This has created quite a local industry, viz., the manufacture of baskets, &c., for the transmission of the fruit grown. The village of Eastleigh, near Southampton, has sprung into a considerable town by the removal thither from London of the London and South-Western Railway Company's carriage works, which employ large numbers of skilled hands brought down from Vauxhall, London. There are no home industries carried on in Fareham parish except the ordinary occupations of laundry work and needlework, in which respect we cannot learn of any change within the last forty years. Some amount of glove-knitting is done near Ringwood, by the women making what is known as the "Ringwood gloves." Agricultural and other machinery and iron mills exist at Andover and Basingstoke, and also at Winchester. At the latter place, too, a firm of art furniture makers has established a factory employing some eighty people in the production of oak furniture—useful and decorative. Wood and forest work—such as the making of hurdles, brooms, &c., used to be carried on by the rural labourers in the forest districts of East and South-West Hants., and the wooded districts of the county. These occupations still remain. Watercress is also cultivated along the course of the chalk streams. We are informed by one old resident, that the county, in common with others, from the Plantagenet down through the Tudor, Stuart, and early Hanoverian times, had a great industry in the manufacture of cloth of various kinds, all its towns and most of its villages having their looms and weavers, fullers, &c. But the weaving died at the

commencement of the present century, under the superior power of machinery. Brewing is a considerable industry in every town, while public-houses are, even by brewers and innkeepers, admittedly too many to be advantageous to the whole of the license holders. In many parts there are brick and tile works, and, at Bournemouth and Waltham, extensive potteries—a reproduction of an industry said to have been flourishing in the New Forest in the time of the Romans. Cobbett tried to introduce into the county such home industries as straw plaiting and the like, but with small effect. Amongst the subjects now taught in elementary technical classes in the county some attention has been given to those which can be followed as home industries, *e.g.*, wood-carving and fruit-basket-making, as well as to the "smaller culture" (*i.e.*, on smaller farms than now exist) of fruit, vegetables, and poultry, and to butter and soft cheese-making. It may (said the resident in question) be safely asserted that, excluding the great dockyard and its workmen of various kinds, Hampshire has no other large industry than agriculture. The landowners and farmers are, in most cases, great sufferers from the late (and prevailing) depression—the labourers, however, being paid fairly good wages, which enable them to live, generally, in comparative comfort. Allotments are numerous in the county, and are annually increasing, especially in the south.

HEREFORDSHIRE.—Many years ago an attempt was made to furnish employment to the artisans and labourers in Fownhope and district, by establishing a silk mill; but it seems never really to have taken root, and soon came to an end. What was called "frocking"—the making of the old-fashioned "smock frocks," formerly so commonly worn by the rural labourer—was once carried on at Fownhope; but it is many years since the last aged follower of this avocation was buried. To-day there is no special wage-earning occupation carried on in the homes of the labouring population of the district. The occupation is chiefly agricultural, and the wives, whose families leave them any unoccupied time, find casual employment in charing, &c., and,

in the season, in bean-setting, apple-picking, and hop-picking. Somewhere about sixty years ago, glove-making was conducted at Leominster in the workers' homes, but there are practically no rural industries of any description now carried on either in or adjacent to the place. Glove making formerly existed both at Ledbury and the surrounding parts, being carried on chiefly in the workers' homes, and still being so conducted to some extent. Several tan yards exist in the neighbourhood, in addition to a soda water manufactory, and a cider manufactory. No rural home industries of any special character now exist, or ever seem to have existed in past times at Weobley, and the adjoining locality, which are purely agricultural. What trade exists is connected with agriculture, and is such as is conducted by blacksmiths, carpenters, shoemakers, bakers, wheelwrights, &c. No home industries are carried on by the labourers in the parish of Delwyn or neighbourhood. We are given to understand that nail-making was carried on to some extent at Ross many years ago. At Bromyard and Kington there were formerly some small manufactures of a miscellaneous character. Hats and gloves were made at various places in the county, but certainly not within recent years. Owing to the prevailing agricultural depression there has been, during the last few years, a continuous exodus of the young labourers from the county to the ironworks and manufactories of the towns.

HERTFORDSHIRE.—The home industry at Hitchin, and all around, is, and has been for generations, straw-plaiting. Comparatively very little straw-plaiting, however, is now done, as it is only profitable to a small proportion, who still follow it from long habit. The old plaiting schools have been almost entirely superseded. It is well here to state that there formerly existed such schools, in which straw-plaiting was carried on by the children. No home industry of any kind exists at or near Hertford. Much Hadham and district are purely agricultural, and no home industry is carried on, except such as needlework and the like, by the female members of the cottager's family. A

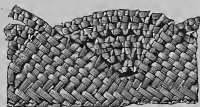


BEE-HIVE WORKS AND GROUNDS AT WELWYN (HERTFORDSHIRE).

large and famous industry is carried on at Welwyn, which is of considerable importance, as showing the desirability, on several grounds, of the extension of bee-keeping as an industry among the villages of the land. Forming an intimate acquaintance with bees as soon as he reached his teens, a Mr. Blow here turned his attention to the manufacture and improvement of the hives then in existence. He visited, in the pursuit of information, North Africa, Malta, Cyprus, Syria, Egypt, Canada, and the United States. In the course of about a year he erected his new works, in close contiguity to the Great Northern main line, along with a house for himself and cottages for his employés. Wood-working machines are continually running in the preparation of the hives, made of wood which has been stacked quite three years in the sheds before being used. Several metal-working machines have been designed by the ingenious owner. Though comparatively few of the old-time straw skeps are used nowadays, yet it is surprising to learn that Mr. Blow receives sufficient orders to keep a man constantly engaged in making them. Every description of bee-keeping appliance is turned out of this busy hive of industry in large quantities annually ; but we regret that space will not admit of a fuller account of so promising an undertaking. It can hardly be said that, at the present time, there is any home industry in the parish of St. Albans, a purely agricultural one, though at certain seasons the women find some work in the fields. Forty or fifty years back almost every cottage was a straw-plaiting home. Children were then taught plaiting when three or four years old, and in the parish school they plaited every afternoon. Prior to 1858 weaving straw into fancy patterns was a great industry here, a young woman being able to earn from 12s. to 18s. a week at it. All this is now "ancient history." Plait is made in the village of Frogmore, by a few old women, who continue the work, not for the profit it yields, but for the sake of keeping themselves busy. There are still the plait factories in the parish of St. Albans, where the plaited straw is sewn, and made into hats and bonnets ; but the plait is, we believe, mostly

of foreign manufacture. The manufacture of silk still goes on, but does not employ so many hands as it did twenty years ago. Other industries, however, have been set up in St. Albans. There is, for instance, a brush factory, a watch factory, and a shoe factory. Consequently the population of St. Albans has increased of late years, as every fresh industry, of course, brings in its hands. Hemel Hempstead was famous for its straw plait, but this has seriously declined here as elsewhere. Hertford was famous for its malting, and Rickmansworth for its paper and flour mills, and straw plait. Watford, once famous for its silk mills, and Ware, for its corn market, no longer hold the high character of forty or fifty years ago.

HUNTINGDONSHIRE.—Some sixteen or seventeen years ago there were to be seen in some of the cottages in Godmanchester and district a few lace pillows, the dying remnants of a far larger number that used to be used by the labouring population. Labour in the fields for the men, and laundry work at home for some of the women



CHINESE STRAW PLAIT.

are the only industries now pursued. We find that no domestic industry is carried on in the parish of Buckden,



CHINESE STRAW PLAIT.

about seven miles west of Godmanchester, or in any of the adjoining parishes. Pillow-lace making and straw-plaiting

are carried on in a very small way in the St. Neots district. Paper-making is carried on, but on a much smaller scale than in former years. Ramsey and district have no home industries, but previous to the draining of the Fens, there were industries peculiar to the locality, such as turf-cutting, reed-cutting for thatch, making horse collars from rushes, and the shoeing of fat cattle when they were leaving to walk along the high roads to the London market. These employments have disappeared, the main occupation of the men being connected with the root crops. The breeding of hackneys and shire horses is an important business with the farmers. The smallness of the price now paid for pillow-lace work has almost killed this particular industry, which was formerly conducted in the homes of the cottagers of Kimbolton and around. At one time there existed a tan-yard here, but this is "no more." Huntingdonshire, however, is almost entirely given up to agriculture. Its chief industries may be cited as those connected with agricultural engineering and agricultural implement manufacturing, market-gardening, fruit-growing, brewing, brick and drain-tile making, dairying, and the making of baskets from osiers grown in certain districts in a limited extent. During recent years market-gardening, fruit-growing, and the dairy trade have increased; but nearly all the village tradesmen—such as carpenters, smiths, tailors, shoemakers, &c.—have suffered from wholesale competition, especially the shoemakers. The only trade now carried on to any extent is the barge trade on the Ouse, an industry which formerly employed a great many men, which is now of more limited proportions, but which was (we were informed at the time of our enquiry) expected to revive. There are manure works and large steam flour mills at Offord and Huntingdon.

KENT.—Hop culture and fruit-growing are the chief industries in the country districts around Maidstone, as, in most other parts of this county. Hop cultivation has not been so remunerative of late years as for, say, ten years previously; fruit-growing has been largely developed around Maidstone, and the acreage

increased. In the borough of Maidstone there are several large paper mills, three large breweries, and several iron-foundries for agricultural work, as well as several builders. The Weald of Kent possesses nothing worthy of the name of indoor industries carried on by the labouring classes. In olden days, a great woollen industry existed in the Cranbrook district, and no doubt spinning and knitting were "in full swing." Hop-growing, fruiting, and wood-cutting now constitute the staple industry. Hop-picking, hop-tying, and fruiting, together with haymaking, take up a woman's time from May till October. The children are employed in the same way, to their educational loss. As so many hours are spent away from home, there is rarely any time to be filled up indoors. The wages of the labourers in this part are usually good, and work abundant—thanks, it is said, to the hop industry. There are also a good many well-to-do residents in this part of Kent, and they are able to offer regular employment. No home industries appear to be carried on in and around Erith, which is situate in the north-east corner of the county. A very small proportion of the population is engaged in agriculture; and that is chiefly market-gardening. No home industries are carried on at St. Mary Cray—a few miles below Erith, although a large number of the inhabitants are employed at certain paper mills. The rural occupation around Faversham is chiefly agricultural. Most of the farmers are growers of hops, which, on the whole, seem to give them the best return for their capital. Owing to the low price of corn, many farmers have of late years planted fruit trees, which have given rise to sundry jam factories. In the marshes between Faversham and the sea, a good many cattle are bred, and consequently root crops for their winter subsistence are alternately grown with corn, peas, and beans, &c. Close round the town a large brick industry has flourished during the last thirty years, which has had the effect of very largely increasing the population. A gun-cotton factory has been located in the marshes about two miles distant from the town, which employs a good many people. One industry has

certainly decayed, viz., the oyster fishery, which formerly did a great business, but is now almost extinct. The gunpowder factories, which are carried on, giving employment to a large number of hands, have, it is said, existed for over two hundred years. The manufactories in the neighbourhood of Dartford are paper mills, gunpowder works, a tannery, and chemical works. No other "rural" industries seem to have previously existed beyond fruit-picking, which is still carried on. At Rochester we were informed that there are no industries formerly existing which do not exist now. These are the ordinary ones, more or less connected with every such place, viz., dairying, dress-making, laundry work, gardening, and farming generally. The industries at Wye and locality are brick-making, pottery work, and the manufacture of whiting from the chalk of the Wye Downs. Chatham and Woolwich are, as they long have been, famous for their Government works and factories. Gravesend and Greenwich are noted chiefly for their steamboat traffic. Margate and Ramsgate have, particularly in quite recent years, acquired a fame as health resorts. At Tunbridge Wells, once one of the most populous places in the kingdom, much work in wood-turning was carried on. This seems to have declined. Milton and Whitstable have for generations been noted for their oyster fishings. Queensborough was once a staple port, but the staple was removed to Sandwich in the first year of Richard II.'s reign. Sandwich itself was appointed as a staple port in connection with Canterbury in the 27th year of Edward III's reign.

LANCASHIRE.—Preston, when Horrocks introduced the manufacture of cotton to the town, near the end of the eighteenth century, had 6,000 in population, whereas it had, in 1891, 107,573. Forty years ago the bulk of the people in the country parts around were hand-loom weavers of cotton goods. This industry is now almost, if not absolutely extinct. The last hand-loom in Brindle, a place five miles south of Preston, was broken up about two years since. Home industries have simply been driven out by the factory competition. The collieries have been

developed, many mills and works having been erected. It was remarked to us that it would be a great boon if, in bad weather and winter, the agriculturists had something to do in their homes of a remunerative character, as in days past. There are no agricultural labourers, in the ordinary sense of the term, in the Ulverston district; for those who work on the farms are mostly young unmarried men, and they live with the farmers. Hand-loom silk-weaving and hat-making were formerly carried on in the towns around Ormskirk. Silk-weaving, however, is almost extinct. About fifty hands are employed at a rope manufactory, where, of course, machinery is employed. A few rope walks (where rope is made by hand) exist. Forty years ago Barrow-in-Furness was a small fishing village without any other industry. It is now a manufacturing and shipping town. There are, therefore, no rural or home industries, the whole place being closely built over. In the neighbourhood are the usual agricultural industries, and no others. The great industry of Blackburn is cotton manufacture, which is entirely conducted in mills. This town had 5,000 in population, when, in the last half of the eighteenth century, Hargreaves invented the spinning jenny; it had, in 1891, a population of 120,064. At the commencement of the present century Liverpool had nearly 78,000 inhabitants, and was regarded then, as now, as a place of great shipping prosperity. The population in 1891 was 517,980, and there is a shipping trade of over 20,000 vessels. Manchester, the seat of the cotton industry, from its rise in this century, has increased from 106,000 in population, in 1811 to 505,368, in 1891, or, if we add the neighbouring borough of Salford, which has grown with the growth of the larger borough, the population now is 703,507. A ship canal was, in 1894, formally opened by the Queen, and though the public regard it as an unprofitable investment to the original shareholders, it is calculated to prove a great boon as time goes on to the prosperity of the whole district. Oldham, another of the "cotton" towns, had 12,000

inhabitants in 1801; it had in 1891, 131,463. Bolton also shows a great increase in population, dependent upon the cotton industry. It was at this place that Crompton, the inventor of the "mule" was born. Bury, in the early part of the present century, had a population of 2,000, whereas in 1891 it had 57,212. Bacup had 1,500 in population, whereas it had in 1891 no less than 23,498. A much similar state of things might be mentioned in connection with the growth of every Lancashire town, such as Accrington, Ashton-under-Lyne, Burnley, Rochdale, Wigan, Darwen, Heywood, all of which may now be regarded as towns of first-rate importance. Leigh was famous for its cambrics and fustians, in addition to its collieries and stone quarries; and Prescott for its manufacture of files and watches—the latter being an industry which during the past few years has, we are glad to learn, been revived and greatly extended. Over a thousand watches are now turned out weekly. Lancashire is the chief manufacturing county in England, and is a standing example of what a prudent and hard-working people, with reasonable trading facilities, may attain to. It has advantages which other counties lack—such as port accommodation, &c.—but its people are eminently a practical and forward people. Its agriculture is also of a high order, and a credit particularly to the working farmers.

LEICESTERSHIRE.—The rural industries in the district around Loughborough, apart from agricultural pursuits, are frame-work knitting, osier work, and the manufacture of lace. The industries in the small villages have decayed during the last twenty years, more particularly hand frame-work knitting. The agricultural labourers in (and in the villages around) Donisthorpe are seemingly a very happy and contented class of people. The wage approaches nearly £1 a week, which includes rent, milk, and eggs. Nearly all of them have nice gardens attached to their cottages, and also potato land somewhere on the farm. The home occupation of the women is the knitting of babies' shoes and socks, together with plain needlework. The former

of these occupations is badly paid—simply a few pence a dozen. The district is a colliery one, and the industries are considered to be on the decline. Desborough is a shoe-making and stay-making parish of small area; and hardly any agricultural labourers live in it. The few there are have no other industry. Anstey, about thirteen miles from Leicester, with a population of 1759 in 1891, is considered a very prosperous village. Formerly here wool-knitting was a general industry, but it has now entirely died out. Boot and shoe work and the Greswold knitting are in a flourishing condition. Five years ago the rector started a land society, which some four years afterwards had bought and paid for £1,600-worth of land. Stocking-making was formerly a home industry both at Market Bosworth and in the adjoining locality, but such work is not now done in the workers' homes. Hosiery work at one time formed a profitable home industry at Hinckley, and in the neighbourhood, hand frames being used; but most of this material is at present made in factories, some little of the seaming (*i.e.*, sewing up the back of stockings with thread) being taken home. Not later than five to ten years previously seaming was very common, women who could not go to the factories being busily at work in their own doorways; and children were frequently kept from school to assist. Men are employed in the stone (granite) quarries at Enderby, Stony Stanton, and Croft. At the last-named place a concrete slab is made, to be used instead of Yorkshire stone for paving. At and in the neighbourhood of Lutterworth, the home industries were, years ago, stocking-making by hand machines, and bead work for ladies' trimmings. There were also small stocking factories. The home industries at the present time are Greswold work, and corset-making. A small factory is run for hosiery manufacture, employing about thirty-five hands, and a shoe factory with about twenty hands. The people of Aylestone appear to be well employed. The place is close to Leicester (has been lately included in the borough): the villagers go into the town to work, and in some few cases hosiery work is taken

home from a factory in the town. Hand framework-knitting of hose and gloves was exclusively carried on in about one hundred Leicestershire villages until the development of steam-driven frames during the last twenty years. Now these industries are almost extinct. Wool-carding was an extensive trade previous to 1840; wicker-work at Castle Donington and other villages in the valley of the Soar; cap-making at Enderby; Stilton cheese being (as to-day) extensively made in the east and north-east, and a flat cheese in the north, north-west, west, and south-west of the county. Frame-work knitting by the Greswold machine—hand and steam-driven—is returning to the villages in many parts. Quarries for granite have also been opened at Mountsorrel, Sapcote, and Breedon, in addition to the places already mentioned. Ironstone is dug in the north-east. Boots and shoes are made in enormous quantities in the villages of Sileby, Wigston, and Earl Shilton. Chenille work is carried on at Long Clawson, Harby, and other villages on the Nottingham border. The establishment of small factories for the staple trade of hosiery and boot and shoe manufacture in the villages around Leicester is increasing.

LINCOLNSHIRE.—Nothing in the shape of a rural industry, beyond pea-picking or sorting, seems to have existed at Sleaford, but the work mentioned is still carried on. We should add that the preparation of seeds for agricultural purposes finds employment for a good number, as it has done for many years. No special industries are carried on in the homes of the labourers at Alford and district. The same may be said of Holbeach and neighbourhood. Though a great improvement has taken place during the last twenty years in the moral and industrial tone of Coningsby parish, yet there has been a serious decline in its prosperity, owing to agricultural depression. Land, which at the date named let at 30s. an acre, now commands little more than 10s. or 12s. Strictly speaking, Coningsby and neighbourhood form an agricultural district, consisting mainly of agricultural labourers and those who supply their wants. Grimsby possesses

a fishing and foreign wood trade. The flax industry of Crowle (near Doncaster) and neighbourhood has very much declined. Where one hundred acres used to be regularly utilised for the growth of this plant there are not five now. This is regarded as due to competition from the introduction of flax from abroad, the raw material being brought in at a much less price than it could be grown here. The labouring class have turned their attention to the cultivation of Small Holdings. The flax factory employs something under one hundred hands in the parish. There are two works for the making of artificial manure. As to the women, this district being a potato-growing one, they do not seem to be able to give much pecuniary help to their husbands or parents, except by turning over the potatoes constantly in the pits from October to April. We should mention that the highways are let every year for the grass there to be found. The labouring class who avail themselves of this boon are thus enabled to keep a cow and fat pigs. The industry about Fleet (near Holbeach) is purely agricultural in the strictest sense of the word, and no other occupation enters the home. Some thirty or forty years ago chicory was grown by one enterprising farmer, who built kilns, &c., for the purpose, but unfortunately the employment thus given exists no longer. There are several successful iron foundries in Lincoln. Though possessing a dock and a fish trade, a feather trade, and a tobacco factory in a small way, Boston is not regarded as "doing very well," as may be seen from the stationary number of its population. Boston was formerly a very important port, whence wool was exported to Flanders; wines were also largely imported here. Neither Horn-castle nor Louth is "doing well," though the latter place once had a carpet manufactory, now closed. Stamford and Grantham seem to stand on rather a different level, being largely supported by the gentry living in the neighbourhood. Spalding cannot be described as being in a prosperous condition, but it is a richer agricultural district than most of the other places just mentioned. The industries of Bourne are connected with

carpentering, painting, plumbing, smithing, the manufactures of aerated water, and the "general ordinary trades on a small scale." A good deal of pea-picking is done in the workers' homes in autumn and winter. Wool stapling and tanning are said to have been formerly carried on. Generally speaking, whatever slight attempts were made in the villages of the county in the way of industrial employments have been entirely extinguished by the prevailing agricultural depression.

MIDDLESEX.—The agricultural industry around West Drayton—itself a quiet country village—has greatly changed during the last twenty years. Formerly this was a great farming district, but its proximity to London has caused the land to be planted down with fruit trees—apples, cherries, gooseberries, currants, and raspberries chiefly. Where this has not taken place the land has been devoted to market-gardening instead of wheat-growing. This has not affected the labouring class of the district greatly, except in the way of opening up a greater variety of work and affording better wages. When the fruit industry commenced, about forty years ago, a number of Irish were brought over, who were employed—women particularly—in the fields. They constitute a colony still, and others have joined them from Ireland. Added to these, in the fruit-picking season women are generally brought up from Shropshire, returning at the end of the season. Some of the English women in the summer time also work in the fields, but not many, as they consider it beneath them—the work being too rough. They only take to it, as a rule, when circumstances at home compel them. The Irish women, on the contrary, follow it as their ordinary vocation. In addition to this, there is the brick-making industry of the neighbourhood, known generally by the name of the "Cowley" district, which obtained the name by reason of its beginning there, though it has long since spread around and left the place of its commencement. There are a few brick-workers in the parish—about twenty or thirty; but for the most part they live in Yiewsley, Starveall consisting of them almost exclusively. Unfortunately, this industry only provides

summer work for the majority. The brick-makers get good wages, for which they have to work hard, and they usually live freely when in work. Some go to the gas works in London for the winter months; others, the majority, live from hand to mouth during the winter time, and pay off their debts, if possible, when the summer work comes round. Yiewsley is intersected by canals, and in consequence of this, and of its proximity to the station, has several other industries, viz., chemical works, varnish works, cement works, a linseed oil cake manufactory, and lately an india-rubber manufactory has been established, taking the premises of some electrical works which failed a year or two ago. Forty years ago Yiewsley consisted of half-a-dozen cottages; now that portion of it around the station contains about one thousand people. The village is at a disadvantage in being a little distant from the station. West Drayton has a millboard manufactory, employing about a dozen men. No home industries existed, or now exist, at Harrow, beyond the industry of agriculture. Harrow Weald was formerly famous for its corn. The land is now nearly all used for grazing purposes; the proximity of the town to London makes the grass land valuable.

MONMOUTHSHIRE.—The only industry of Chepstow and district is agriculture. There are large farms and poor cottages, the occupants of which latter have not a bit of land, and it is said that this cannot be had "for love or money." There is great agricultural depression. The principal industry of Monmouthshire is connected with its mineral riches. Building stone is raised to some extent, and bricks and tiles are largely made. The mines of coal and iron stone are of immense magnitude, and are now being most successfully worked. Iron and steel manufactures are carried on, such as the manufacture of iron and steel rails; and there are railway plant and wagon works, and steam engine and boiler works.

NORFOLK.—Linen-weaving and cloth-making were formerly home industries in and around Diss, but both have seriously declined. Brush-making, the weaving of cocoa matting, and

stay-making are the chief industries carried on, in addition to the ordinary ones of shoe-making, tailoring, &c. Very likely wool-weaving was carried on in the cottages of Swaffham and villages near in years gone by, but no such work is to be met with nowadays. Probably, too, wool factories were worked at one time, for neighbouring villages were once largely populated, and in one of them the ruins of five mills are still to be seen. Butter used to be largely made in the district, and sent to London and Cambridge. The main employment now is allotment garden cultivation. We cannot trace the existence of home industries in Reepham in past years. Certainly none exist to-day. Lynn was an important port as far back as the thirteenth century, and it was one of those to which *custodes* were assigned. In the sixteenth century it was one of the most prosperous of British ports. Weaving was common in Hethersett parish and adjoining district thirty to forty years ago—that is, the weaving of materials for women's dresses by hand loom; but the industry was even then on the decline, and has been almost extinct for twenty years. Shoe-making, too, till a few years ago, was a constant occupation, work coming from Norwich firms; but the increased use of machinery in factories has almost put an end to the cottage employments. Many of the labourers now buy their shoes at "the shop," so that village shoe-makers now do little more than cobblers' work, and young men do not learn the trade as they did twenty years ago. There is still a strong feeling among the men against grass-mowing machines. It has, however, to be said that the introduction of machinery on the farms has brought into being the agricultural machine maker and mender, and gives employment to many workmen. Thus it is that many of the people are more artisans than labourers on the land. Market-gardening is not now the paying business it was, unless one has glass-houses; the early produce from elsewhere floods the Norwich market. We are not aware of any industries being carried on in the homes of the working men either in or around Eaton. The district around Banham is altogether an

agricultural one. There is no industry carried on in the homes of the agricultural labouring classes of Aylsham, and there never has been. Nothing that could be described as an industry is carried on in the cottages of Ditchingham and district, except that the wives of a few earn money by washing and needlework. In one or two cases men earn a few shillings by cutting walking-sticks, &c. No particular industry is carried on in the homes of the labourers around Dereham, nor have there been any within the last thirty or forty years. Feltham parish is purely one for market-gardening. No industry is carried on indoors, and the women are very generally employed in the gardens. We were told by several employers of labour that a man and his wife, with the assistance of one child over school age, earn from early spring to end of November, from £2 to £2 10s. a week; and if the man is employed not only as labourer, but is in charge of a vegetable or fruit-van to the London market, the joint wages exceed the above sums. Cromer has a fishing and seafaring population, and there are no rural industries. At Sidestrand is a dyeing establishment, which has been started during recent years, and has flourished. The occupier is a tenant of Mr. Samuel Hoare—one of the members of Parliament for Norwich. Several what appear to be promising industries have been started on the ruins of a "vegetarian" colony started about eight years ago at Methwold by those who dreamt that boundless wealth was to be got out of the cultivation of fruit and vegetables—by business people from the towns who had a fancy for rural life. All things were to work in accordance with the rules of arithmetic. Unhappily, they did not. But considering that many of the faddists had not the slightest idea how to till land and attend to the multifarious details of fruit and vegetable growing; that Methwold is not suitably situated as to railway; that the wives and children of the colonists did not "take" to the work and give a helping hand—it was but in the natural order of things that the movement should end in failure. The experience thus gained, however, may yield some good fruit;

a Village Industries Association has now been formed, a jam factory has been erected, and workshops are being put up. Besides which, osier-growing has been started with the object of establishing a basket-making industry; beet is prepared; bee-keeping has been taken up (the hives and appliances being also made); and a tailoring establishment has been started. There is a practical appearance about the place, and these industries have been taken up in a spirit that promises good results provided they are superintended with judgment by practical men. Mr. Goodrich is the heart and soul of the movement.—The chief industry of Norfolk is agriculture, which has been in a declining state for some years, and is now suffering from great depression. The unavoidable effect of machinery in diminishing opportunities for individuals to secure work may be traced in the abolition of wheat-setting by hand-dropping, except for quite small fields; whereas formerly this supplied work for a month to old men, youths, women, and children, though often they suffered from exposure. Hand-loom weaving has gradually become extinct in the villages and county towns. Wind-mills for grinding wheat are dying out, a mill blown down is never replaced, and those that remain are supplied with an auxiliary engine. Carpentry work, mouldings, &c., are now brought from the machine-yard in the town to the country builders, and so in winter carpenters now find very little employment in preparing doors and windows. Market-gardening is slightly on the increase in the county, but is not so profitable as formerly, because early fruits and vegetables are introduced from abroad, or by those who have a large extent of glass. The opinion is held that those working on the land or at a trade in the country districts would be more likely to remain if every villager had a quarter or half-acre allotment to cultivate.

NORTHAMPTONSHIRE. — Silk-weaving, stay-making, lace-making, and shoe-making afforded pecuniary profit as home industries to the people of Kettering and district "years ago," but the two former have ceased to exist. Lace-making was

formerly a remunerative employment at Towcester, but very little is now done in that way, although in the winter of 1893 the demand for pillow-lace somewhat improved, and the "middleman" was giving a halfpenny a yard more than before for what he purchased. Agriculture, however, is, and always has been, the chief industry upon which the local people have depended. Pig-keeping has its followers, and gardening, bee-keeping, and allotment culture are carried on. The villages adjoining Peterborough have no industries except the usual work connected with farm life. The home industries of the working people of Raunds were lace-making and boot-making; the latter only survives. The staple trade is boot-making. Northampton is, of course, a purely town parish. Lace-making used to be carried on there, but is now practically extinct. It has, however, been revived to a considerable extent in some of the country villages in the neighbourhood. Until 1893 the shoe trade there was very largely carried on at home by men and women. Now this has been materially stopped through the action of the trades union, and nearly all is done in factories. Shoe-making is the chief industry at Rushden. More than half the work is done in factories; probably all will soon be so done. A little lace-making is still done by the women in the homes of the agricultural labourers; but, owing to the great falling off in the demand for pillow-made lace, it is nothing to what it was twenty years ago. Since that time the agricultural labourer has been getting scarce, so that, at last, most of the men in the district are engaged in the boot trade. The people of Earl's Barton and round about, are now almost entirely occupied in shoe-making. The industries which used to be carried on there, were mat-making (rush-plaiting), for covering floors and for hassocks; pillow-lace making (in which boys, as well as women and girls, were employed), glove, and leather breeches making, and also parchment making. Of these only two or three men now do mat-making, and only a few old women make lace. The mat-makers used to take up field work sometimes in spring, summer and harvest time. An effort is being made to revive the

lace industry. The sole industries in the village of Finedon and those around are the manufacture of shoes (which are almost entirely made in workshops and factories); stone-digging in iron-stone quarries; and agricultural work. The shoe trade has much improved during the past ten years. The greater part of the industrial population of Daventry and neighbourhood is engaged in shoe-making. This being a grazing district, there are no great number of agricultural labourers, and they have no special home industries. Some few of the wives and children are engaged in shoe work, which is mainly confined to factories and workshops. Lace and baskets were at one time made in the villages adjoining Buckinghamshire and Oxfordshire. Lace making is still carried on in a small way.¹ As will be gathered from the foregoing particulars, the staple trade of the county is the manufacture of boots and shoes, which is carried on chiefly in factories and partly in small workshops attached to the cottages, or in the cottages themselves. Basket-making is hardly carried on as an industry. Lace-making has revived a little, and attempts in some parts are being made to improve the designs, &c. Except for high-class work, the lace-making industry is hadly paid, owing, it is declared, to machine competition.

NORTHUMBERLAND.—At the beginning of the present century, whilst Newcastle-on-Tyne was prosperous in a small way, the now famous Elswick shipbuilding and ordnance works and other manufactories, giving employment to thousands, were not thought of. The mineral productions of Northumberland are its chief source of wealth, comprising coal, iron, lead ore, &c. The collieries necessarily give employment to a great number of persons. In addition there are other occupations. For instance, the manufacture of pig-iron is carried on; and there are also coke works, iron-foundries, lead mills, lime-kilns, fire-brick and pottery works, brick fields, glass and chemical works. Of rural home industries, however, our enquiries have not discovered

¹ In the Parishes of Higham Ferrers and Chelveston, women, as formerly, make lace, and men, women, and children are engaged in the shoe trade. Some tanning is also done.

any, though doubtless home-spinning and weaving were carried on to a limited extent.

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE.—Very few agricultural labourers are to be found in Carlton and district, as nearly all the people work for the Nottingham lace and stocking trades, and brick-making. The main indoor industry in and all around Arnold is frame-work knitting, which has seriously declined as an out-door occupation. One used to hear "klikketty, klikketty, churrrr" (the noise of the machinery) from almost every other house. Now such a sound is rarely heard, the work having passed into factories. Four factories, large or small, now exist at Arnold. One man in a factory can look after two machines easily, and the machines do the work more quickly. A hundred pair of hose, therefore, require far less time to make them than they did on the old hand frames. There was a small lace factory at Arnold about thirty years ago, but it was insignificant from an industrial point of view. Basket-making has now quite left the parish of Cromwell. There were acres of rod beds along the Trent side, but these have nearly vanished. Till quite recently, every woman and child was employed for about a month in the spring at rod peeling. This work has all gone, though there may still be a little yard with three or four at work for a few days, but that is all. Basket-making, we believe, exists now in Sutton-on-Trent alone. Acres of green peas were once grown—the best sorts for Manchester, Sheffield, &c.,—around Cromwell. This culture has almost come to an end, foreign peas from warmer climates being first in the market. There are no factories, the little villages about (and all are small near Newark) being purely agricultural. The Rector is making a praiseworthy effort to start ironwork in the village, as there is a very ingenious blacksmith in the place who has done some very beautiful wrought ironwork, screen, altar rails, &c., for the church. About forty years ago some fifteen families were engaged at Farnsfield in besom-making, a work which is now only carried on by one man. Some seaming was done by the women about ten years ago, but it is

not now sent from the Nottingham factories. The main industries of the county are coal-mining and agriculture, with gypsum-mining and hosiery-work in very many of the villages.

OXFORDSHIRE.—Sibford Gower, seven or eight miles from Banbury, consists of two ancient townships—Sibford Gower and Sibford Ferris—having a total population of about 700, of which 100 more or less, and variable, are inmates of a Society of Friends Boarding School. With this exception, and the usual carpenters, masons, shoemakers, shop-keepers, &c., the population is entirely agricultural. No home industries, so called, are carried on; but there is a public-house at least several hundred years old having the sign of "The Bishop of Blaise," whom a modern sign-painter who has "learnt to spell," calls "Blaze." Bishop Blasius, who, in the third or fourth century A.D., was martyred with the metal combs of wool-combers, became the patron saint of the Craft. The presence of this ancient hostelry is some indication that the trade was formerly carried on in the village: some of the older inhabitants, indeed, remember the time when wool-combing was done in certain cottages built for the purpose. The trade has, however, quite died out. A few years ago one or two women did some shoe-binding and slipper-making for the Banbury shops, but do so no longer. At an adjoining village—Shutford—plush-weaving is carried on to some extent. With this slight exception, our correspondent says he is not aware that any so-called "home industries" are carried on anywhere in the villages within a radius of ten or twelve miles of Sibford. The population has practically remained nearly stationary for thirty or forty years. During the last eighteen years the Vicar has assisted from forty to fifty persons to emigrate to Canada, New Zealand, and Australia, because they wanted to "better themselves." These persons are all, we were told, "doing well." The village is looked upon as a prosperous one, and there is very rarely any man, boy, or girl out of work. It is interesting to note that several of the farmers in these parts have risen from the ranks of the agricultural labourer, and several, at

least, can lay their hands on £50 to £100 of their own. The men who occasionally get "a drop too much" could be counted on the fingers of one hand. Nearly one hundred of the labourers and small tradesmen have allotments of land from a quarter-acre to two acres, which cover altogether about sixty acres. Glove-making, cloth-making, and agriculture are carried on in and around Chipping Norton. Agriculture has much decayed during the last twenty years. No home industries now exist around Adderbury, near Banbury. There were weavers there about forty years ago, and in later years there have been half a dozen women who were lace-makers, of whom two or three survive; but they have quite abandoned their pillows, as they cannot compete with machine-manufactured lace. The farm lads take great interest in a local wood-carving class, some of them showing proficiency and skill. The only special home industry carried on in Souldern parish, is, we believe, the manufacture of pillow lace; but it has been largely discontinued within the remembrance of the older people, and it only holds its ground in two or three cottages. Banbury is a "rural town" of mercantile and manufacturing interest, and it is the market town for a very large area. It is said that about 300 carriers' carts enter it every market-day. It is famous for its "Banbury" cakes. They are, in fact, mentioned in Ben Jonson's "Bartholomew Fair," written about 1614. The town has also been noted for its plush during a period of 250 years. So far back as 1636 Sir W. Davenant referred to the Banbury weaver that hopes "to entice heaven, by singing, to make him lord of twenty looms." There is an old mill which belongs to a Mr. Cubitt, who still supplies many of the Continental Courts with plush. Originally the mill was the seat of the manufacture of the old stag plush used for the old beaver hats. The plushes and velvets are mostly made of mohair (goat's hair) face; they are of endless wear, and are chiefly used for furniture covering, curtains, livery breeches, gamekeepers' coats, waistcoats, and for farm labourers and bargemen. A considerable impetus has been

given to the trade during the last few years by the introduction of many new designs and colours, called "art colours." Girths, braces, belts, garters, dog collars, and many other similar articles are made about Banbury in great quantities. An excellent tweed factory, founded in 1872, exists, fitted with first-rate machinery, where the whole process of cloth from the raw material to the finished article is carried on. Coopering is also carried on by a Mr. Samuel Kilby. Started in 1871, then employing only four or five hands, Messrs. Stone's box factory has grown into an extensive business, now employing eighty hands. The classes of boxes manufactured are numerous in the extreme, including the "fancy stationery box, complete, ribbon and all." Cabinet-making has lately been introduced with success. All kinds of basket-work is made in the town. An excellent business of glove and hosiery manufacture was brought to the town in 1885 by a Mr. W. B. Newton. It may be stated here, as was remarked to us, that though goods manufactured from foreign wool are finer than those made from English wool, they do not wear nearly so long as those made from home-grown wool. The competition of machinery has almost annihilated the hand-made rope industry; still, there are rope works; and, quite close to the boundary of the borough—at Bodicote—is a farm for the culture of medical herbs. Other industries are:—The extensive manufacture of gates and hinges, milling, agricultural implement works, engineers and wheelwrights, pipe-making, the manufacture of red ware with red glaze, and halter-weaving. Speaking generally, the principal industry of the county is agriculture, the population being mainly engaged in and dependent on agriculture for their livelihood. About half of the cultivated land is laid down to permanent pasture. Dairying is carried on chiefly around Chipping Norton, Banbury, and Bicester; the districts around Oxford, Burford, Henley, Witney, and Watlington being mainly arable. Around Thame and Witney there is also a fair amount of pasture land. A great deal of butter is made in various districts, from which generally the railway is not easily accessible, and a considerable

amount of milk is despatched from many parts to the large towns. Comparatively little cheese is made. Very little fruit is cultivated in the county, but many of the cottagers keep poultry and bees. A few small holdings exist, and allotments are pretty general. Glove-making is carried on in many of the small towns and villages, the chief places being Chipping Norton (as already mentioned), Burford, Witney, Charlbury, and Woodstock. This industry provides home work for large numbers of women and girls who sew the gloves. At Whitchurch, Stokenchurch, and a few other places, some are engaged in the chair-making trade. Plush-weaving and silk manufacture are conducted at Shutford (already mentioned), Bloxham and Balscott, slop tailoring at Stadhampton, the manufacture of blankets at Witney, and the surrounding district; lace-making at Bloxham (three women employed), Grimsbury (one woman), Shutford (one woman), tanning at Charlbury and Woodstock, currying at Bicester, shoe-making in the bulk of the villages, rope-making at Bloxham and Williamscott, huckaback-weaving (linen) and damask-weaving at Williamscott, straw-hat and bonnet-making at Grimsbury, axle-making at Deddington, and formerly glove-making at Barford and adjoining villages, dyeing at Broughton, and paper-making at North Newington.

RUTLAND.—Two small boot and shoe factories at Oakham appear to be the only "rural" industries in this county. A gentleman living at a village near Stamford made the remark that, "for good or evil, the facilities of travel and carriage afforded by steam have effectually put a stop to village industries in this county; otherwise, there appears to be no reason why each community should not almost wholly provide for its wants." Rutland is an agricultural and grazing county. It was formerly very famous for its cereal crops—barley and wheat. Sheep have been an important item in the live stock bred by the agriculturists. Some of the richest ground in the country is in the Oakham district. Iron and lime-stone were formerly obtained in the county.

SHROPSHIRE.—In bygone years, in some parts a little weaving was done in some of the villages ; but we cannot trace during recent years any rural industry beyond ordinary agricultural processes (which in Salop embrace almost every form of farming known in Great Britain), and the usual industries dependent upon agriculture. Hand-loom work seems to have been far less common amongst the cottagers of this county than most other counties of England.

SOMERSETSHIRE.—Stocking-knitting was formerly carried on at Wells, but it has ceased to exist as an industry. Brush-making was also a home employment, but has been discontinued. There are manufactories connected with paper-making, wool-combing and spinning, glove-making, shoe-making, and rug and mat-making. Many of the people employed in the paper mills live in the adjacent villages. Glove-making is carried on at and in the neighbourhood of Glastonbury. Shoe-binding used to be carried on in and around Street, where now a good number of shoe *factory* workers live. Silk, satin, and velvet manufactories exist at Croscombe and Shepton Mallet. The first and great industry, besides the tillage of the soil, around East Coker, is the weaving of webbing. Twenty years ago, and for a hundred years or more before that, it was the weaving of sail-cloth—still named from this parish—although it is now made in and near Crewkeme. Before the introduction of steam, there were weaving sheds scattered over the whole parish, where two, three, or more weavers worked. There were single looms in cottages, and in many a dry ditch the women and children did “spooly” as it was called. This gave a great appearance of business to the district. Through competition, however—native and foreign—the weaving of webbing can now scarcely “stand on its feet.” The next industry in importance is twine-making, carried on by the same manufacturer as the webbing, and at the same place. This likewise is only maintained with considerable difficulty, and no wonder, when (so we were informed) the Belgian manufacturer can put his goods on the platform of the London stations

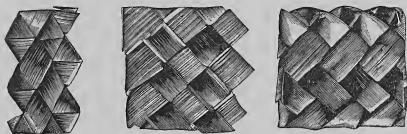
cheaper than can the Coker man, who is close to a main line, and distant from the Metropolis only 120 miles. A crying evil, injuring manufacturer and men, is the fact that many men and boys working in East Coker have to reside in West Coker, Hardington, Barwick, and Yeovil; and this, while the houses in East Coker are being pulled down by the half dozen. Within the last ten years the homes of the people here have been diminished by from thirty to forty. The population of the parish twenty years ago was over 1,200; now it is hardly more than 800. Women, but not many, take in "gloving" from the Yeovil manufacturers. The manufacturer furnishes them with a sewing machine, for which they have to pay by instalments. The price the poor women have to pay for these machines seems to be a great one. Some of the girls go out to Yeovil and work in the collar factories there. Laundry work, for the middle class of Yeovil, three miles distant, is considerable. There were always a few clock-makers in every district. On old eight-day clocks local names are still to be seen. At Castle Cary and district, spar-cutting has declined with the thatching. Gloving is carried on to a limited extent; but the main industries are hair-cloth weaving and string-making. The salmon and herring fishery were, it is said, carried on to a considerable extent at Porlock, Minehead, and Watchet; other fish also being found on the coast. Teazles were grown around Taunton (for the woollen trade of the county), and potatoes, fruit, flax, &c. Around the Exmoor district a peculiar breed of ponies has long been reared. A generation ago the principal manufactures, &c., of the county were those of woollen, worsted, and silk goods at Frome, Tiverton, and Wellington; of gloves at Yeovil, Martock, and Taunton; of lace at Chard; linen, shirts, and sail-cloth at Crewkerne; shirt collars at Ilminster, Taunton, and Shepton Mallet; of silk at Taunton and Shepton Mallet; brushes at Wells; bricks, drain pipes, and the celebrated bath bricks at Bridgwater; several mills on the Avon for preparing iron and copper, and others for spinning worsted, and the spinning

and weaving of cotton; bath stone from the neighbourhood of Coombe Downs; iron ore from the Brendon Hills; lead from near Wellington, and also from the Mendip Hills; slate from quarries at Wiveliscombe; coal and calamine stone from Churchill, Rowberrow, &c.

STAFFORDSHIRE.—The industries in and near Uttoxeter are of an agricultural character, and the manufacturers chiefly depend upon that industry. There are a cheddar cheese factory, an agricultural implement firm, &c. A great decrease has taken place in the rural population around the town, and the land is now almost entirely under grass. There do not appear to have been any home industries in or around Penkridge for the last fifty years. Cheadle cannot boast of any rural industry. The two common home industries at Darlaston and Wednesbury were filing gun locks, and nut and bolt-forging, both of which trades were conducted in small shops or rooms at the back of the people's houses. No special industries are carried on in the homes of the agricultural portion of the Cannock district, nor, so far as we can learn, have there been any practised by the people of the district in former years. The rural industries around Burton-on-Trent are entirely of an agricultural character: there are no non-existent industries which formerly were existent. Burton itself is, of course, a very large centre for the brewing trade. The only industry we know of in the homes of the workpeople of Colrup, near Stoke-on-Trent, is painting on pottery ware, after hours, as a private speculation, though there is very little of that now done. Around Stoke-on-Trent itself, agriculture is the chief industry, and, so far as wages are concerned, they have advanced from fifty to sixty per cent. during the last forty years, and provisions, clothing, &c., are greatly reduced in price. It is remembered that, fifty years ago, labourers on a farm—married men—lived in cottages rented by themselves, and received as wages 7s. per week. On the same farm to-day the men are paid from 14s. to 16s. per week. Forty years ago boots and shoes were largely made in the villages "all over the county," but now

this trade is almost confined to the factories in the towns. At Cheslyn Hay besoms, made from the heath on the Common, were made by almost every cottager: and nearly every such individual had a donkey which used weekly to carry the besoms on its back to the markets of Birmingham, Walsall, Wolverhampton, &c. Now there is no besom-making, and there is hardly a donkey in the place. The industry was flourishing and has decayed within living memory.

SUFFOLK.—In the villages of Glemsford, Melford, and Lavenham, horse-hair and cocoa-mat and matting-weaving are largely carried on, and we understand that the trade is "doing fairly well." Silk mills were formerly worked in Glemsford and Pebmarsh, but are now closed. Matting, and mat, silk, and velvet-weaving are the principal rural industries in and near Sudbury, but silk and velvet work have of late years seriously depreciated. Sudbury was some thirty years since a great centre for bunting manufacture. This trade is now practically extinct. The decayed industry most felt here and in other rural districts is straw plait making. The women could earn from 8s. to 10s. per week, and the husband—when not employed in the fields—and children, all worked at it. The trade seems to have died out.



JAPANESE STRAW PLAIT.

Eye and neighbourhood are purely agricultural. Farmers are in a most pitiful and depressed condition in consequence of the state of agriculture, their capital in many cases being almost gone.

The owners in a great portion of Suffolk receive little or no rent, the land not producing enough to pay tithe, and the local burdens of rates, &c. Many owners are, in consequence, too poor to find money to attempt to farm the land when it is given up by their tenants. There used to be here a very useful industry in the shape of a flax factory, which was a great boon and help to the working classes; but some years since it was given up, and it has fallen down, to the great loss of both farmers and labourers, as it employed one hundred hands or more. No other industry seems to have existed in the district within the last half-century. There are malting, brewing, brick-making, and such like trades in a moderate way of business. The district is a fine agricultural one, the land being highly productive. Farming is the chief industry around Bury St. Edmunds, though in the borough are two agricultural implement makers' works, one large brewery, and several maltings. Neither of the two last mentioned industries seems to have decayed; on the contrary, new maltings have been erected. Of course farming is in a bad condition, and as a consequence the landlords and shopkeepers are doing badly. We could not discover any industry which has died out of late years. Copdock and district, close to Ipswich, are devoted mainly to agriculture. Formerly women and children worked very much more on the land than they do now. Until machinery was used for its production, all the work on women's stays was, of course, done by hand, and many of the wives and daughters of the farm labourers were engaged in it. A woman could make 3s 6d. or 4s. a week in this way. Now all the work is done in Ipswich by machines, and those who work there live in the town. The only other industry of which we could learn was that of sack-making, and that has also "gone to the people of the town." The only work done at present in the district, in addition to pure agricultural work, is that of washing. Clothes are sent from London and other places, and women in many of the villages make excellent wages. The agricultural labourers are fairly well off. No home industries are carried on in Aldeburgh parish.

Some home occupation is found in Brandon by making gun flints, and flints for striking light, fur-cutting (*i.e.* the cutting out with a knife, of hair from the skins of rabbits and hares, leaving only the fur on the skin.) There are also the digging of flints and chalk from pits for the purpose; the dyeing of fur in factories; and saw mills in timber yards for making sleepers, fences, hurdles, and posts for gates and rails. Large quantities of gun-flints are still being exported from Brandon, mostly to Africa. Ipswich, formerly a staple port of some importance (permanent *custodes* were assigned to it as far back as Edward I.'s reign), possesses no rural industries beyond those of an agricultural and horticultural character, and the making of stays by machinery, such stays formerly being made by women in the surrounding villages. Malting and brewing have always been the prime industries of Stowmarket. It is claimed that beer taxes constantly repeated have depreciated the value of these industries, the tendency as a consequence being to deterioration in the article produced. The importation of foreign grain has resulted in land, originally tilled for malting and brewing, going out of cultivation, the consequence being the diversion of the wage fund abroad, and creation of poverty at home. At Walberswick and Blythburgh, many labourers earn money in the summer by letting rooms in their cottages to tourists, on whom their wives and children attend. The wives or daughters of some also make money by dressmaking. No signs of decay are at present apparent in these sources of income. Dunwich—which in Edward I.'s time had a port and was a royal borough of some commercial standing—is now a small village of no importance whatever.

SURREY.—The working-class population of Chobham and district can hardly be said to have any permanent rural industry. The farmers employ few hands, at wages which average 14s. or 15s. a week. Almost all the cottages have a garden plot attached to them. Carving in wood has been taken up by a large number of the young men, for whom there has been a class the last three

or four years. The women are much given to laundry work. The decay of industries in a district like this is less than elsewhere, as corn was never a staple crop here. Threshing-machines have naturally deprived a good many of flail work during the winter. It can just be remembered when two or three old women had their spinning wheels, and there was a tradition of a loom in the place. The labouring population have now greater comforts than in bygone years, larger wages, cheaper food, &c. Women are never seen now in the fields, except at hay-time, harvest, and hop-picking. At the same time it is a lamentable fact that the population has in ten years decreased by about ten per cent. in Chobham itself, though the excess of births over deaths is very large, and though several new houses have been built in the place. Godalming (where woollen goods and hosiery used to be made) is free from rural industries, and the adjoining district is devoted to agricultural purposes. There are builders, furniture makers, and the ordinary industries connected with a town population at Guildford, but there is nothing of a rural character about them. An account of one of the nefarious practices which, at the close of the fifteenth century, had completed the ruin of the English cloth trade on the continent for the greater part of one generation, is contained in a petition to Parliament towards the end of the reign of Richard II. This document, Hall says in his "History of the Customs," insisted that it was the every-day practice of certain makers to purchase unfulled cloths in the town of Guildford (which then enjoyed a high reputation for its woollen fabrics), and, after increasing their length by artificial means, to dress them and resell them as Guildford wares at a huge profit. Paper, snuff and sheet-iron used largely to be manufactured in mills on the Mole and on the Wandle. Calico bleaching and printing, once carried on upon the Wandle, has fallen off. Fuller's earth used very largely to be dug at Nutfield and Reigate, these, in years gone by, being the only places in England, except in Somerset, where this material was to be found in sufficient quantities for commercial use. The manufactures in

the metropolitan suburbs were and are extensive, various, and increasing.

SUSSEX.—The parish of Crawley Down and its neighbourhood are altogether agricultural. With the exception of wood-cutting during winter, and a little brick-making during summer, there is nothing going on but farm labourers' work. The iron smelting, once so general throughout Sussex, has long ceased, though ruined furnaces and empty mill ponds are present-day reminders of its former importance. Charcoal-burning goes on when the copses are periodically cut, but the men employed are seldom parishioners. At both Cuckfield and Funtington we were informed that there were no home industries. The only industries in the parish of Steyning (a flourishing agricultural district) are the works of a tanner, and woolstapler, employing some sixty to one hundred hands. Formerly the place was one of tallow chandlers almost entirely. No home or rural industries exist around Chichester, which was formerly a staple town and port, by the Statute of the Staple. Wood-carving classes, however, under the Technical Education Committee of the County Council are well attended. In Edward III.'s reign a subsidiary staple was created at Lewes for wools bound to Chichester, for convenience of transit. Shoreham was at one time the port of Chichester when the latter was a staple town. In the seventeenth century the chief industries of Chichester were needle-making, candle-making, malting, and tanning. Of these tanning alone is now carried on, and that largely.

WARWICKSHIRE.—At Brailés plush-weaving was formerly carried on in a small factory built for the purpose, but it "did not answer," and was closed some twenty or more years ago. Bishops Tachbrook is a purely agricultural parish, but it has gained a reputation for its gardens. The women afford great help, and carry the produce to Leamington in basket perambulators. There are also a good number of allotments; but no home industries, except in the case of one man who makes baskets at odd times. Fillongley never seems to have had any

special industry apart from farm work. Years back a large portion of the population of Nuneaton and surrounding villages earned a livelihood by ribbon-weaving, working at looms in their own cottages, and here and there to-day a loom may be found, but the workers earn but a sorry pittance. Away from "home" worsted-weaving, hat-making, and brush-making are carried on; at one time there were ribbon factories in the district. But the town of Nuneaton itself has greatly altered, and has, it is alleged, lately been recovering from the depression which was "consequent on the French Treaty," and the opening of the Suez Canal, both of which, it is said, tended to divert the silk trade from England. In Cromwell's time Birmingham could boast of some four thousand in population. By the year 1700 there was an increase to fifteen thousand, and to seventy thousand a century later. At the last census, in 1891, it was 478,113. In the last century the town was famous for its iron, steel, and brass work (a reputation it holds to this day); whilst both before and since it has been noted for the manufacture of innumerable articles of utility and adornment. The district has long been known as "the toy-shop of the world." For several years past the cycle and cycle fittings trade has sprung into notice, so much so that during 1893 it had a larger trade in this branch of manufacture than any other town in the kingdom. The other chief industries now are the manufacture of pens, pins, nails, screws, buttons, electro-plate, glass, engineering appliances, engines, and, most important of all, jewellery. No town in the kingdom has such a variety of manufactures, and perhaps it is safe to say that, on the whole, no town suffers less from the fluctuations and depressions of trade. Glove-making was formerly pursued at Stratford-on-Avon, but this seems to have been the only industry, other than agriculture, and it has now ceased to exist. At Coleshill there has been during the greater part of this century a famous turret-clock works, and probably no better articles of the kind were turned out anywhere than at this small place. In olden times, the now populous city of Birming-

ham was described as "Birmingham, near Coleshill." Needle-making has been one of the staple industries of Warwickshire for considerably more than a century. The industry is not confined, as has been commonly supposed, to Redditch, though Redditch is the capital of the area within which needle-making is now conducted. Studley, and other places near to Redditch, are more or less connected with the trade. Studley Mill in the olden days belonged to certain Friars, who used it for the grinding of corn, though at the present time it is occupied by a well-known trading firm, who have introduced probably more improvements into the manufacture of the needle than any other firm in existence. The needle, though so small an article, passes through between seventy and eighty processes before it is put upon the market; at any rate we were told so by a resident in the heart of the needle-making district. Alcester was once regarded as the principal place for needles, though they were undoubtedly manufactured in other parts of England—viz., at London, Long Crendon and district, and Chichester. The silk trade flourished in Coventry during the eighteenth century, and on into the nineteenth century, but now comparatively little in that industry is accomplished. The watch trade followed, and was largely carried on, proving of great assistance in maintaining the reputation of the place as a commercial centre. The watch trade, too, has greatly declined, the staple trade now being the manufacture of cycles. Plush-weaving was formerly a home industry both at Coventry and the adjacent villages, but is now quite extinct. Weaving as a home industry is to be found in villages around Coventry, but in a very small way. Coventry is a most striking example of a town adapting itself to new trades when those previously connected with it have declined. We fear, however, that, even as regards the cycle trade, it is destined in a few years to lose its present eminent position.

WESTMORELAND.—There are not now, nor, as far as we can learn, have there ever been, anything in the nature of rural industries, other than agriculture, in Shap and district,

although the cutting of Shap stone or marble gives a little employment. Hand-loom weaving, as a home industry, existed at Kendal and neighbouring villages; it has now ceased to exist, the weaving that is done being confined to factories. Boot and shoe-making, however, seems to have taken the place of hand-loom weaving, this being conducted as a home industry. Combs were also made on a fairly large scale at Kendal, where, it is said, the trade was established about the year 1700. Basket-making is often done in the homes of Windermere and surrounding places. It is locally called "swilling." The industries of the county, other than those conducted at home, are bobbing-turning, basket-making, charcoal-burning, boat-building (on Lake Windermere), carving, plastering, carpentering, and hand-loom spinning and weaving (revived at Langdale by Mr. Albert Fleming during the past decade). Except in the large villages and towns there is little but farmwork. No industry can be said to have been generally carried on in the homes of the labouring classes in the district of Appleby. In old times, we are told, the farm servants used to occupy their evenings in knitting their own stockings; but that custom, here as elsewhere, has died out. The sole industry of North Westmoreland may be said always to have been agriculture, with the exception of a little lead-mining not far from the town last mentioned. The latter once appears to have been flourishing, and then to have declined for many years, whilst recently an attempt has been made to revive it, but as yet it is hardly possible to say if this will be a success. Agriculture has certainly employed far fewer hands of late years than it did formerly in this district. This is due to the less breadth of land cultivated for corn, the pastoral character of the farms employing fewer hands, to the high rate of wages, and the general use of machinery in mowing and reaping the grass and hay. At the same time, though fewer are employed as agricultural labourers, it is remarkable that agricultural depression is comparatively little felt hereabouts, and the reason is stated to be because the

land is chiefly held in small grass farms, which the occupier can cultivate by his own labour and that of his family. There is, therefore, no labour bill to pay. Being very industrious and thrifty, these "small" men rear stock and sell dairy produce so as to make the land maintain them and pay a fair rent. The character of the soil and of the climate helps them, being peculiarly suited for this style of cultivation.

WILTSHIRE.—Button-making and glove-making were formerly carried on as home industries in Shaftesbury and adjacent parishes. The former has ceased to exist, and even as to glove-making there is but little now carried on both by hand and machinery. There were cloth mills once in Marlborough, and a bell-foundry of great fame existed for centuries at a village near Aldbourne, and also fustian factories. All have ceased to exist. The only industry of any importance is that carried on in a factory for the making of tarpaulins, waterproofs, &c. No home industries seem to exist in the district. The weaving of years ago as home employment exists no longer at Bradford-on-Avon and locality. It has been displaced by factories. A great deal of weaving was formerly done in the cottages in and around Westbury. At the present time considerable employment is provided at home by glove-making, and a very little at stocking-making and basket-making. The other remaining industries are weaving (factory work), agriculture, brick-making and pottery work, iron-stone mining, and smelting, &c. Formerly, tick, dowlas, and cheese-cloth weaving formed home work at Mere. The introduction of machinery diverted these home industries, none of which now exist. Away from home, the chief occupations were, formerly, flax-spinning and weaving, the making of rope and bed-sacking, edge-tools, and shoe thread. The present industry is the making of silk throwsters. The home industry of hand-loom weaving, which was carried on in the cottages in Trowbridge and the villages near, some years ago, has left the district. Bricks and drain-pipes are made, but a large number of village dwellers have flocked into the towns. We know of no rural industry having

been carried on in the houses of the agricultural class around Salisbury, except that of lace-making. This was carried on many years ago, in the parish of Downton, but very little lace is made there now. There is, however, at Downton, and has been for years, a wicker chair industry. The labourers in Colerne parish (population about 1,000) are all fairly prosperous, contented, and happy. The wages average 16s. 6d. per week; there are sixty free allotments of half-an-acre each, and this practically provides potatoes, &c., for the family during the year, with some to spare for the pig. Some of the labourers' cottages are very comfortably and neatly furnished. The Box stone quarries provide supplemental labour for many, at 3s. a day. The "squire" employs a considerable number of labourers. The farm holdings are all small, and the farmers all work themselves, and seem, without exception, to be doing well. Pigs pay well, and poor people reckon to make £2 off each pig they sell. It is pleasing to be able to add that there is an entire absence of absolute want. Melksham, a small town itself, has a large agricultural surrounding. There were formerly a good many squatters and small holders, and the cloth weaving and other industries of the town provided occupation for all surplus labour. Cloth-weaving by hand has now ceased, but factories for other purposes have been started. For upwards of a century, at Devizes, the manufacture of tobacco into snuff has been carried on. The water mills in the surrounding villages were utilised for this until steam eclipsed them. Sheep-bells were made at Cheverill for many years, and even exported to Australia, but none are made there now. Within living memory were ironworks, seven maltings, and a considerable cabinet and upholstery industry at Market Lavington. Nothing of the kind now exists. The county is chiefly devoted to agriculture and dairying. For centuries, however, weaving was carried on in nearly all the villages around Westbury, Warminster, Bradford, Melksham, Chippenham, and Devizes. This gave employment to many, not only in weaving, but in the carrying to and fro from the towns to the villages of wool and cloth; in setting up and

repairing looms ; and in many other ways. In some of the villages referred to cottages may still be seen with four and five-light windows, at which the looms were worked within the memory of present, living residents. After the introduction of steam into the town mills all this soon ceased. Before railways were introduced, from many *villages* travelled regularly to Bristol, and even to London, wagons, heavily laden with meat, pigs, and other heavy agricultural produce, besides which a considerable butchering business for *export* trade existed in several villages. Now a village butcher is rare. Most public-houses, and many private occupiers, brewed their own beer ; now but few do so, and the "publics" are nearly all *brewers'* houses, and sell their beer on commission. In most villages a thatcher used to carry on a trade. In many it is now hard to get one such individual. Hurdle-makers and coopers were generally to be found. Barbed wire, and galvanised utensils of all kinds have usurped their domain, and none remain. In most villages a maker of rush-light candles supplied the cottagers with the only means of lighting available. But in these enlightened days oil lamps are universal, paraffin being hawked from door to door in the smallest village. Besoms also are displaced by bass brooms from the market town. Another industry of the county—cider-making—is nearly extinct. In the coaching days the number of horses and men employed, the quantity of hay and straw consumed, and the harness-makers and coach-builders to whom occupation was given, must have been very great indeed, and villages and towns all had their share of the trade thus created. All communication by coach or posting between London and the West passed through Wiltshire—either through Salisbury and so on to Exeter, or through Marlborough and Devizes to Bath, Bristol, and Taunton. Nine villages out of ten are, it is stated, decreasing in population, in stamina, and in physique.

WORCESTERSHIRE.—Gloving and shirt-making were the industries carried on to a considerable extent in former times in the parish of Claines, near Worcester, in the homes of the

cottagers. The former is still carried on, but has much diminished during the last twenty years owing to more machinery being employed, and the work being done in factories. The latter varies from time to time, but it has diminished. The industries carried on for many years around Feckenham, now partly in factories and partly in the homes of the people, are glove-making and needle and fish-hook making. They have declined because of the competition in other places, and on account of, as is alleged, the inaccessible position of Feckenham, which is four miles from the nearest railway station. The farm-labouring industry has suffered from foreign competition in farm produce, and less corn growing. In a few cases fruit-growing has been very remunerative. The principal industry around Bewdley is that of wood-falling, which affords considerable employment to large numbers at various seasons of the year (especially when the woods are cleared), and bark-peeling. One of the principal industries is that of charcoal-burning, which has perhaps decayed somewhat, in consequence, it is believed, of charcoal having been superseded in the manufacture of iron. On the whole, the rural industries around Catshill have declined concurrently with the adaptation of machinery and steam power to the production out of the raw material of "almost all that mankind requires." Handloom weaving at one time reached far into the small homes of the country districts, but this has gone. Kidderminster, famous for its carpets, is entirely a manufacturing town. Other than agricultural labour, the only rural industry in Rous Lench and district used to be glove-stitching. Many a cottage, years ago, had its little toothed machine (called a "donkey" machine) at which the women worked away with incredible diligence. Gradually the gloveresses became fewer and fewer, and now but one works at it in Rous Lench. The work is now done by machinery at Worcester. Thatching is growing extinct. Few men, if any, thatch their cottages nowadays. A few glove-stitching machines may be found in the parish of Church Lench, but the industry is certainly moribund. No home industry seems to be practised in

the parish of Bengeworth, or the rural parishes in the neighbourhood, except that of gloving by the females. Market-gardening is carried on extensively in the neighbourhood of Evesham, Catshill, &c, and it certainly shows no signs of decay. The staple industry of Earl Shilton and neighbourhood was stocking-making until about twenty years ago, when it was supplanted by boot factories, at which good wages are earned, while the poor stockingers (frame-work knitters, as they call themselves) have nearly disappeared. The younger people, in many instances, took up some part of the boot-making process, and the few old hands who still worked at the frames could scarcely earn enough to keep themselves alive. Their work was very good, but a couple of stocking factories, which were set up in the village, turned out a cheaper class of stockings, and took away their trade. Before the boot factories were introduced the stockingers used to work in "shops," or rooms, containing several frames owned by one man, and used to earn fair wages. These shops have disappeared, and a few years ago, out of a population of 2,000, probably not more than a dozen frame-work knitters followed their old trade, as all the younger lads and men took to the boot-making where work was plentiful, and where mere boys were (and are) soon able to earn good wages. Nearly all in Pershore parish are engaged in the growth of fruit and vegetables, and earn fair wages. There was a button factory in Bromsgrove, and there is now; but the business does not spread. Linen was formerly made here pretty extensively, but the trade has entirely declined. In most of the villages near Bromsgrove there is an over-lapping of labour on the land, and in the domestic nail shop. Many of the farm labourers marry women who are nail-makers, and the home is supported out of the two industries. Nail-making has contracted considerably during the last twenty years, and a gradual change is creeping over the occupations of the people, accelerated within the last two or three years by the breaking-up of land into allotments. Nail-makers now fill up their spare time on allotments, and this tends to contentment and comfortable living, while some

who have been farm labourers have developed into market-gardeners, growing and marketing fruit and other land produce. Given a fair climate and a good soil, reasonably near a large town, this pays, and keeps the more thrifty in the country parishes. The shoemaker, formerly found in every village, is going out of existence. The wheelwright remains, but iron ploughs, harrows, and wheelbarrows are in common use, and his trade, therefore, is limited. Corn mills, worked by wind and water power, are seldom at work now, though they were very common years ago. Tailoring is almost unheard of now, even in remote districts. The salt works at Droitwich employ most of the available labour of the place. Brine baths have been established here, to which invalids resort (particularly those suffering from rheumatism and kindred ailments) for their curative effects. Redditch for generations has been the principal seat in Worcestershire for the manufacture of needles, a title which it still may justly claim. Stourbridge gives a great deal of employment to workers in glass, iron, and bricks. Dudley is one of the great iron manufacturing districts intimately connected with the iron trade of South Staffordshire. Thousands of makers of hand-made nails live here and in the surrounding villages. Their trade is but a tithe of what it was. Many have combined the cultivation of the land with the home manufacture of nails, but the bulk either have left or are leaving the home-made nail work to seek other employment in the large factories and workshops both of Dudley and the "iron" towns not far off.

YORKSHIRE.—Sheffield in 1811 had a population of 53,000. This had risen to 324,243 by 1891. For ages it has been famous for its cutlery, and, later, for its files, saws, &c., and still later for the manufacture of Bessemer steel and the manufacture of the heavier articles of iron and steel. The staple industry was formerly cutlery, but the steel trade has, for a good period now, lowered the ancient work of knife-making from top position, though Sheffield still has, probably, the monopoly of the cutlery business. Arrow heads were also formerly made at Sheffield.

Practically, cutlery is made at this moment in the same primitive way in Sheffield as in previous centuries. It is a fact that "it has been the law of the cutlery trade to give machinery, as a manufacturing agent, the cold shoulder." Any blade that is "worth anything" is forged upon the anvil, and developed to perfection by manual labour and judgment¹ Leeds and Huddersfield form the principal seats of the woollen trade. The manufacture of cloth was carried on at the former place in the time of the Plantagenets and Tudors, and has been until this day; but the trade began to show a rapid increase from about the middle of the eighteenth century. The population of Leeds in 1775 was 17,000; in 1800 it was 53,000; and at the last census, viz., 1891, it was 367,505. It is said that the clothing trade of Leeds does not now employ so large a proportion of the population as in former times, other industries—the iron and steel trades, locomotive making, machine construction, leather making, &c.—being of considerable importance and firmly rooted. Leeds formerly had an important connection with the flax trade, but this seems to have very materially declined, and to have gone chiefly to Ireland and Scotland. Huddersfield, in 1861, had a population of 34,000; in 1891 it had 95,420. The town is noted for its trouserings and worsted coatings, &c. Dewsbury and Batley, eight to nine miles from Leeds, are the chief centres of what is called the shoddy trade—shoddy being a species of cloth made from soft rags originally made of worsted. It was first manufactured there by Mr. Benjamin Law, of Batley. Batley had a population of 7,000 in 1841, and Dewsbury 8,000 in 1831. The figures in 1891 were 28,719 and 29,847 respectively. Mungo is a species of cloth made from woollen rags. This, too, is mostly made in Dewsbury and Batley. Bradford and district may now constitute the centres of the worsted industry, although this was formerly located at Norwich. Bradford had a population of 16,000 in 1810. This increased to 103,000 in 1851;

¹ Palmer, in the *English Illustrated Magazine*.

carried on to a small extent in the workers' homes at Northaller-ton, as in former years. The most important rural industries away from home are weaving and bleaching. Around St. Catherine's, Pontefract is a good corn-growing locality, especially south and east, which are more on the limestone formation. St. Catherine's neighbourhood also possesses some rich pasture land. General farming has certainly not been profitable for a long time. There are, however, few or no farms unoccupied; but rents have been generally reduced, and some corn land has been laid down to grass. Close to the town there is a rich deep soil, especially in the two valleys running eastward on the north and south of the town, on which the liquorice root is grown to the extent of about two hundred acres. This crop does not employ much labour, as the root remains in the ground about four years before it is taken up. Such land lets at a high rental. The local gardeners work in the malt kilns in winter. Darrington, two miles south of the last place, grows excellent potatoes. Peas and potatoes are also largely grown on the light soil near Hensall, about seven miles east, on the Goole line. Some of the warp land near the Aire and Calder is also extensively planted with potatoes. These industries are not considered to have decayed, but rather to have improved during the last twenty-five years. Since the year 1870 the parish of Featherstone, Pontefract (previous to that date agricultural) has changed to a mining population. Only a very small percentage indeed of the people are now engaged in agriculture, and they consist of small farmers (with, say, from 30 to 100 acres of land) who work on the land themselves and employ one or two youths, who live with the farmer. Consequently, the agricultural labourer has had to adapt himself to other kind of work, and has taken to mining, at which he can earn from 30s. to 60s. per week. The only home industry the men who live in the more countrified part of the parish have is the cultivation of about one rood apiece as garden ground. A few small farmers, who cultivate, say, twenty acres, work in the coal-mines and spend their spare time

on their land; they seem to do well, the land employment distinctly encouraging industrious and thrifty habits. The employments formerly carried on in many of the villages of the North Riding were principally hand-knitting and a little weaving. Both of these are now practically extinct, as in numerous other parts of the county. At Askrigg the district is chiefly a cattle-breeding and sheep-grazing one, comparatively few agricultural labourers being, therefore, employed. No industries of any kind are carried on in the labourers' homes thereabouts, but thirty or forty years ago the wives made a good deal by knitting coarse woollen stockings, vests, drawers and other articles chiefly for the use of sailors engaged in the Greenland fishery. Owing to the introduction of machinery this industry is now all but extinct. Besom-making was formerly carried on at Awkley, and stocking-weaving at and around Braithwell, but these occupations are almost, if not quite, extinct. The only industry at Clifton is that of milk-selling, which is flourishing owing to the proximity of York City. Around Aysgarth there is nothing but agriculture, there being few labourers, but several small farmers. In the immediate neighbourhood of Drax there have certainly been no industries carried on in the homes of the workers for the last forty years. As far back as twenty years ago the allotment system was "an old thing" around Buckthorpe, near York. In addition there is now a very large pasture field for the labourers' cows, a very moderate rate being charged the labourers for the use of the field for each season. The villagers are fairly contented, their wages being about 16s. a week and their cottages very low in rental; nearly all of the cottages, too, having large and very productive gardens attached to them, so that, in some cases, the fruit alone in a "decent" season more than pays the rent, sufficient remaining over for the cottagers' requirements. Generally, the East Riding district is agricultural, and has no other kind of rural industry.

CHAPTER III.

CRAFT GUILDS, AND INDUSTRY.

A work dealing with the rural industries of the nation could scarcely be considered complete without some special reference to those interesting institutions known as "guilds," which formed such a striking characteristic and valuable feature in the social and commercial history of our people.

During the middle ages there were some 40,000 guilds in provincial England. Very few indeed of these exist to-day. By the middle of the eighteenth century they were practically non-existent. A large number were suppressed at the time of the Reformation, on the plea that they were nunneries or monasteries, and with the suppression went, of course, the lands and property of the guilds, and their income; though it must be added that many survived the Reformation for a long period, only to die afterwards a sort of natural death. In Bristol, Coventry, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Norwich, and York there were over 150 guilds—corporations in every way resembling the London Livery Companies—and some of them—such as the Merchants' Company of York, the Merchant Adventurers' Company of Newcastle, the Merchant Adventurers' Company of Bristol, and the Guild of St. George, of Norwich—of great dignity and opulence. These provincial guilds have all disappeared, except the Merchant Adventurers' Company of Newcastle, the Merchant Adventurers' Company of Bristol (which has, to this day, a large amount of house property at Clifton), and a few insignificant companies containing only a few members.

There was formerly a guild of some sort in almost every hamlet, and several in every town. They much resembled certain old societies under the Romans, *i.e.*, "associations arising out of the 'urban' life of the period, the primary objects of which were common worship and

social intercourse; and the secondary objects, the protection of the trades against unjust taxes, and their internal regulation. They also served as burial clubs, defraying the expenses of burial and funeral sacrifices for deceased members, in some cases out of legacies left for the purpose." The best authorities¹ assert that the early English guilds, though, as a fact, much similar to the Roman associations referred to, were "original institutions," and not copies of those associations. After considerable research we are inclined to agree in this opinion. They seem to have been associations of neighbours or of members of the same trade which assembled for the purposes of common worship and feasting, and which served—to borrow the language of modern life—as benefit societies and burial clubs. They were also private tribunals for the settlement of disputes, and—the craft guilds—seminaries of technical education.

From the mention of sisters in connection with the guilds, it may be inferred that women were equally eligible with men for membership, and that they attended both the masses specially solemnised for the benefit of the associations, and also their banquets.

The number of members of the guilds varied indefinitely from a very few to 15,000. An oath of obedience to the ordinances was administered to each member as he or she joined. In some guilds each member on joining had to undertake to leave the guild a legacy on his or her decease. Many such legacies were left to the guilds, chiefly of lands, where the guilds had licenses in mortmain, as was commonly the case. Usually these legacies were coupled with a condition that an obit should be annually performed for the soul of the testator. The guilds themselves also invested their savings in lands. Many of them by these means became large holders of real property. The maintenance of the hall, the expense of the feasting, the payment of salaries, the relief of poor members, and of the widows

¹ For instance, Freeman; The Bishop of Chester; Hallam, etc.

and orphans of poor members, the finding of portions for poor maids, and the payments for funerals and obits, were the first purposes for which the common funds were applicable. The funds of the craft guilds were applicable secondarily to trade purposes, such as the binding of apprentices, loans to young men starting in business, the purchase of new receipts and inventions, and the prevention of adulteration. Both the social and craft guilds also relieved the poor, supplied the place of highway boards and bridge authorities, maintained churches, endowed schools, colleges, and hospitals, and exhibited pageants, partly out of legacies, and partly with the contributions of existing members. The rules of all the bodies were such as to inculcate respect for the law, commercial honesty, and a high standard of conduct, together with kindness and consideration for the brethren and sisters, and for the poor. They also breathed a spirit of very simple piety. The urban craft guilds were often, more or less, subject to the jurisdiction of the municipal authorities. Their regulations were liable to be declared void if inconsistent with the franchises and liberties of the towns, and the mayors and town councils frequently issued precepts to them with respect to the hours of labour, the methods of manufacture, the education of apprentices, and the mutual relations of the different trades.

The old guilds of England may be conveniently and accurately divided into craft guilds and social or religious guilds. But the guilds of the latter class—those which were not industrial corporations—by no means limited their purposes to mutual relief and protection. As already mentioned, they showed much public spirit, and undertook public burdens of every kind. Another community differing from these, but which also was of importance during the middle ages, was the "guild merchant." It existed in the towns, and was, as compared with the craft guilds, an aristocratic body. The better opinion seems to be that originally the "guild merchant" was an association of the owners of the land on which the town was built, and of owners of estates in the

neighbourhood. Many of these patrician families carried on business in the towns, and, for a considerable time, governed them, through the guilds merchant. Eventually, however, in every case the aristocratic municipality had to give way—though sometimes not till after a long and fierce struggle—to the general body of the citizens as represented by the more plebeian craft guilds. It is much to be regretted that these plebeian bodies should now have almost ceased to exist. They were of enormous use in several directions; and, with the growth of society and of our trade, there was no reason why they should not have adapted themselves, if allowed, to the altered conditions, and still continued to exert a beneficial influence, especially in the provincial districts of the kingdom.

We now propose to refer to the guilds of London. The guilds of Norman London were voluntary associations, precisely similar to the provincial guilds alluded to. London was during the middle ages, and later, a great manufacturing town, in or near which cloth-working, the smelting of iron, the making of armour and bows, the working of silk and leather, the manufacture of the precious metals, and other minor industries were practised with much success. It was also the chief port of Northern Europe, and the halls of the guilds were practically exchanges. The leading members seem to have given advice to the Privy Council as to the mercantile policy of the Crown. The heads of the craft guilds were the principal capitalists or dealers; those of the mercantile guilds, the principal merchants and shipowners.

By the commencement of the Tudor Period, the guilds seem to have become, to a great extent, an obsolete institution as regards trade superintendence. They continued, however, to receive charters at the beginning of every reign for a long time after this date. Similar bodies were founded in the provinces as late as the time of Charles II., and the term of apprenticeship sanctioned by the London and Provincial guilds,—viz., seven years—was adopted in an

Act of 1662, which was not repealed till 1814. For a long time, however, after the Restoration, the London guilds were an important element in the City. The wealthy bankers, merchants, and shipowners who traded in the City had houses there, and belonged to the Companies. The commencement of the present century is the approximate date of the cessation of the connection of the Companies in this respect with the City.

The income per annum of the various London Livery Companies now in existence may be reckoned at £750,000 to £1,000,000. It was estimated by a Government Commission so far back as 1879-80, that the income could not be less than the former figure, thus exceeding the income of the two Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and of the colleges therein at the time (1876) when those learned bodies formed the subject of enquiry by Government Commission. The former Commission added that "taking the real property owned by the Livery Companies at a number of years purchase, which, we are informed, cannot be excessive, and the income of their personal property as representing an ordinary percentage on the capital, we are of opinion that the capital value of the companies' property cannot be less than £15,000,000 sterling."

It will be interesting to see how this income is spent. Part of it is what is called corporate income, and may be disposed of in any way the Courts of the Livery Companies think proper; and part is trust income which the Courts are bound to utilise in the direction indicated by (a) the wills of the founders, (b) Acts of Parliament, (c) decrees of the Chancery Division of the High Court of Justice, and (d) certain schemes of the Charity Commissioners, &c.

The following table shows the names of the various London Livery Companies at the present time, together with the corporate income for 1879-80:—

Name of Company.		Income.	Corporate Income.	Trust Income.
		£	£	£
Apothecaries	...	3,898	3,398	500
Armourers	...	8,086	8,026	60

Name of Company.	Income.	Corporate Income.	Trust Income.
	£	£	£
Bakers ...	1,911	1,591	320
Barbers ...	1,720	1,120	600
Basket-makers ...	61	61	None
Blacksmiths ...	684	684	None
Bowyers ...	590	550	40
Broderers ...	No return	—	70?
Brewers ..	18,640	3,157	15,482
Butchers ...	2,021	1,389	632
Cloth-workers ...	50,458	40,458	10,000
Carpenters ...	11,318	10,378	940
Clock-makers ...	—	—	—
Coach-makers ..	1,179	1,179	None
Cooks ...	2,560	2,380	180
Coopers ...	7,120	2,420	4,700
Cordwainers ...	7,754	6,154	1,600
Curriers ...	1,295	1,245	50
Cutlers ...	5,387	5,337	50
Distillers ...	No return	—	—
Drapers ..	78,654	50,141	28 513
Dyers ...	7,000	6,000	1,000
Fan-makers ...	250	250	None
Farriers ...	240	240	None
Felt-makers ...	362	172	190
Fishmongers ...	50,713	46,913	3,800
Fletchers ..	150	150	None
Founders ...	1,943	1,853	90
Framework Knitters ...	310	180	130
Fruiterers ...	470	467	3
Girdlers ...	4,306	2,932	1,374
Glass Sellers ...	190	100	90
Glaziers ...	300	260	40
Glovers ..	150	150	None
Gold and Silver Wyre Drawers	65	62	3
Grocers ...	38,236	37,736	500
Goldsmiths ...	54,297	43,505	10,792
Gun-makers ...	2,565	2,565	None
Haberdashers ...	29,032	9,032	20,000
Horners ...	100	100	None
Innholders ...	1,547	1,327	220
Ironmongers ...	21,647	9,625	12,822
Joiners ...	1,312	1,312	None
Leather-sellers ...	18,728	16,395	2,333
Loriners ...	1,267	1,267	None
Masons ...	400	400	None
Mercers ...	82,758	47,341	35,417
Merchant Taylors ...	43,311	31,243	12,068

Name of Company.	Income.	Corporate Income.	Trust Income.
	£	£	£
Musicians ...	400	400	None
Needle-makers ...	250	250	None
Painters ...	3,100	800	2,300
Pattern-makers ...	300	286	14
Pewterers ...	3,850	3,610	240
Plasterers ...	900	867	33
Playing-card Makers ...	50	50	None
Plumbers ...	900	882	18
Poulterers ...	1,050	620	430
Saddlers ...	11,243	10,243	1,000
Salterns ...	21,040	18,892	2,148
Scriveners ...	856	846	10
Shipwrights ...	833	833	None
Skinners ...	28,927	18,977	9,950
Spectacle-makers ..	1,134	1,089	45
Stationers ...	4,746	3,170	1,576
Tallow Chandlers ...	No return	No return	220
Tin-plate Workers ...	No return	No return	37
Tylers and Bricklayers .	834	664	170
Turners ...	718	718	None
Upholders ...	353	333	20
Vintners ...	10,887	9,365	1,522
Wax Chandlers ...	1,005	1,375	230
Weavers ...	No return	—	360
Wheelwrights ...	319	319	None
Woolmen ...	300	300	None

Of the foregoing there are twelve Companies known as the "Great" Companies, whose order of civic precedence is as follows:—Mercers, Grocers, Drapers, Fishmongers, Goldsmiths, Skinners, Merchant Taylors, Haberdashers, Salters, Ironmongers, Vintners, Cloth-workers.

Taking, for argument's sake, the income of the various Companies at £750,000 (we do not believe that it can be less), a careful analysis places £200,000 per annum of this as *trust* income, and £550,000 as *corporate* income. The real property of the Companies is situated (1) within the Metropolitan area, (2) in certain English counties, and (3) in Ireland. The Companies' real property in the Metropolitan area consists (*a*) of the halls, and such of the almshouses, schools, and other institutions maintained by the Companies as are within the Metropolitan area; (*b*) of some thousands of houses

in the City of London proper, many of them in excellent situations, and let as warehouses, banks, counting-houses, sale-rooms, offices, and shops, and also of some wharves with warehouses attached to them, situated on the banks of the Thames—some on the City side, some on the Surrey side; (*c*) of house property outside the City of London proper, but within the Metropolitan area; viz., in Stratford, West Ham, Fulham, Hackney, Hammersmith, Lambeth, Islington, Notting Hill, Stoke Newington, Stepney, Walworth, Hoxton, Finsbury, St. Pancras, Southwark, and Whitechapel. The property of the Companies in the English counties consists of agricultural land, or of house property, or of rent-charges, in the following districts:—Bedfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Berkshire, Derbyshire, Durham, Essex, Gloucestershire, Herefordshire, Hertfordshire, Kent, Lancashire, Lincolnshire, Middlesex, Monmouth, Norfolk, Northumberland, Northamptonshire, Oxfordshire, Staffordshire, Shropshire, Surrey, Sussex, Wiltshire, Yorkshire. Two Companies possess estates in Wales, and one possesses certain lands in the Isle of Man. Many of the Companies also own a good deal of property in the county of Londonderry.

With regard to the trust income of £200,000, this arises "from about 1,100 benefactions, the earliest certainly not less ancient than the fourteenth century, and the latest under wills proved within the last few years." Of this money, the amount which was stated in 1884 to arise from "rent and charges" was £140,000, the remainder being from dividends. At present, of the £200,000, (1) a sum of about £75,000 is expended on the support of almshouses and the relief of poor members of the Companies; (2) about £75,000 on schools, apprenticing charities, and exhibitions at the Universities; and (3) about £50,000 on charitable objects of a general kind; the two chief charities of this third class being endowments for the relief of the indigent blind (the principal trusts for this purpose being administered by the Cloth Workers' Co.,) and a fund for the sustentation of

elementary schools connected with the Church of England (this trust being administered by the Ironmongers' Co.) Many of the Companies' charities are for the benefit of the inhabitants of provincial towns and villages; and it is believed that this is so as regards all the counties in which the Companies possess lands. This can be very readily understood when it is perceived that in early times persons from the provinces came to London to engage in business, and, when they had amassed fortunes, left legacies to their native places as well as to the Companies to which they belonged.

The trust money (£75,000) for the support of "almshouses and the relief of poor members" has for many years past been increased considerably by additions made to it from the "corporate" income of the Companies. The same remark applies to the trust money (£75,000) under the second head above referred to. With regard to the trust money under the third head (£50,000), the remainder of the money (about £36,000), after the £50,000 has been drawn upon for the purposes mentioned, is applicable (*a*) to the relief of the poor of the parishes in the City of London by doles of money, and food, and gifts of clothing; (*b*) to the relief, by the same means, of the poor of parishes in London outside the City, and of the poor of many urban and rural parishes throughout England; (*c*) to clerical objects connected with the Church of England, such as lectureships, of a general or special character at churches in the City of London, or in connection with certain of the charitable institutions maintained by the Company in the provinces; and (*d*) to annual subscriptions, to medical charities, particularly London hospitals.

With regard to the corporate income of £550,000, after sundry allowances or deductions are made in respect of the halls and other buildings used by the Companies, and in respect of other matters not necessary to specify, we still have a balance of £425,000 to be accounted for. As to this large amount, (*a*) a sum of about £175,000 is spent yearly on what is termed "maintenance," (*b*) about £100,000 on entertainments, and

(c) about £150,000 on benevolent objects.

Of the £175,000 it may be roughly estimated that a sum of £75,000 goes to the payment of rates, taxes, rebuilding, repairs, and improvements: £40,000 to the members of the governing bodies as "Court fees"; and £60,000 as salaries to officers and servants of the Companies. The Royal Commission thought that little or no complaint could be urged against this expenditure of £75,000 on "rates, taxes, rebuilding, repairs and improvements." As to the payments under the head of Court fees (£40,000), these payments are for attendance at the Courts or meetings of the governing bodies for the transaction of business. This business consists of admissions to the freedom, calls to the livery, elections to the Courts, appointment of officers and servants, management of the corporate and charitable estates, elections of alms-people and pensioners, superintendents of schools, invitations to entertainments, and the selection of public or benevolent objects to be supported out of the corporate income. The Courts of the chief Companies meet about once monthly, and of the minor Companies once quarterly. The fees paid range from £5 5s. od. to 10s. 6d. per attendance. It appears not uncommon for the members of the Courts to receive as much as £150 a year each. Some very probably receive as much as £300; whilst others do not receive more than £50. As to the payment under the head of "salaries to officers and servants" (£60,000), two staffs are supported. One of these is employed at the halls or clerks' offices of the Companies in London; and the other in Ireland in connection with the Ulster estates. A clerk and a beadle have been attached to each guild since a date prior to its corporation; whilst, for the management of the estates, and as they increased, extra employés in the shape of accountants, surveyors, assistant clerks, etc., have been necessitated. The clerks of most of the important Companies receive about £700 per annum; others receive £1,500 and £2,000. The salaries received by the clerks of the minor Companies are "small."

With reference to the £100,000 estimated to be spent on "entertainments," the entertainments are of two descriptions, viz., dinners, or banquets given to the liveries, and dinners or banquets which take place on the Court days of the Companies. There are annually two or three banquets to the liveries of the more opulent Companies, and one in the case of nearly all the others. To these livery banquets the newspapers of the day make it plain to us that various guests are usually invited, frequently a member of some branch of the Royal family, as well as some other distinguished British or foreign person or persons. As to the Court dinners, the numbers present are smaller than at the livery dinners; but the dinners are more frequent. Guests are here also frequently invited.

Some of the bequests to the Companies expressly mention that dinners or banquets should be given, but the bequests which do so are not numerous.

Of the £150,000 estimated to be the sum from corporate income spent on "benevolent objects," we learn that a sum of about £10,000 goes towards the relief of "poor members." A further sum of about £50,000 is expended: (1) on educational exhibitions, held at Oxford and Cambridge Universities, the University of London, King's College, Girton and Newnham Colleges, the London School Board, at the schools endowed by the Companies, and elsewhere; (2) on the schools of which the Companies are trustees; and (3) towards technical education (which has of late years been taken up by a few of the Companies). As to the third item (technical education) the Cloth Workers' Co. promoted the establishment of Yorkshire College, Leeds (where, amongst other things, instruction is given in the manufacture of woollen goods), as well as assisted in the same way at Bradford, Huddersfield, &c. The City and Guilds of London Institute, for the advancement of technical education, has for many years been a recipient of large sums from the Company. Much assistance has also been given in other directions in the cause of technical education. A sum of about £90,000 (the remainder

of the £150,000) is spent on "benevolent and public objects of a general character." These objects have included contributions (in Ireland) towards light railways, thus benefiting the tenants; and they include contributions towards secular and religious charities both in London and in those parts of the provinces of England where the Companies have estates; towards various hospitals and medical charities in London; and towards orphanages, refuges, and funds for the relief of distress—such as, for example, the poor boxes at the Metropolitan Courts of Justice, the special funds occasionally started by the Mayor at the Mansion House, etc.

We enquired of the various London Livery Companies if they could supply us with "any of their publications, or any written data, showing the growth of the industries identified with their guilds or societies, together with any *special* reference they might deem it desirable to make as to town and country growth;" and the following are the sort of replies received in almost every instance from the clerks:—

"I am sorry that I am unable to comply with your request. The Company has no power in the trade."

"I do not think any information I can give concerning either of the Companies of which I am clerk would be of any service to you in your enquiry."

"I regret to inform you that my Company does not possess any publication or written data bearing upon the enquiry you are making."

"I have to inform you that my Company have no publication showing the growth of the industries supposed to be identified with their guild."

"It is upwards of 200 years since my Company had any direct connection with the trade, and the Company issues no publication in connection with the trade. I am unable, therefore, to supply you with any data as to the growth of the trade."

"My Company have no publications or other information

bearing upon what I understand to be the subject of your enquiry."

And so on.

From what we have ascertained on the subject of the London Livery Companies, we think that most of the Companies might accomplish more than they do in promoting the interests either of their own trades, or of others. We admit to the full the advantages to be derived from those charitable and public objects to which much of the funds appears to be devoted; but even here we think it might be laid out to considerably greater advantage. Take an instance: We grant that scholarships (to which some of the Companies appear to attach great value) are advantageous. Nevertheless, we are by no means satisfied that they are the best form of tuition for those of the artisan class; in most cases it would be better to employ the money in a more practical way towards instructing the youths, who are to fill industrial avocations, in the actual manipulation of tools and in developing their taste for artistic workmanship. Of those who pass through the period of tuition provided by the terms of their scholarships, (*a*) a very few become eminent; (*b*) very many take second or third-rate positions in life as teachers either in England or abroad; (*c*) others drop back into the position of half-skilled mechanics. Without wishing to say one word against scholarships as such, we nevertheless believe that much of the money spent in this direction is unintentionally wasted, because the education does not partake more of the manual than the mental.

There are, however, other directions in which the Companies employ their funds, which, in our opinion, cannot well be defended. To take an instance, it cannot be to the credit of some seventy-four bodies of this character, whose liveries, in the total, consist of but some 7,000 to 8,000 persons (the number of liverymen to each Company ranges from about 12 to about 450), that they should annually spend so much money on "entertainments," in other words, dinners

and banquets, especially when we consider the few times these dinners or banquets are held during the course of the year. A good dinner is, no doubt, a thing to be enjoyed, and was conceivably a valuable feature in olden times in keeping together members of a craft which was intimately associated with the everyday life of the trade; but this latter feature is wanting in our time. The Livery Companies are not exactly private persons, the conduct of whose affairs belong exclusively to themselves, provided they keep within the limits of the law. The Companies would, no doubt, contend that so long as they apply their "trust" income to the uses of the trusts under which it arises, they ought to be allowed to do what they like with their "corporate" income. This, however, is a contention which we cannot admit; nor is it a contention which the public or the Legislature would, we think, admit; and it is certainly one which the Royal Commission already referred to did not admit. The State (said the Commission) has a right at any time to disestablish and disendow the Companies, provided the just claims of existing members to compensation be allowed, *i.e.*, those recipients of the Companies' bounty, of officers and the like. With those sentiments we agree. Since the movement on behalf of technical education began to attract considerable public attention, and culminated in Acts of Parliament being passed, and grants of public money being made to facilitate and extend the system of technical education, some of the Livery Companies have given much more attention to this evident branch of their work than was previously the case with them; but they have yet a great deal to learn and to do before the public can rest satisfied with their performances. In this connection there is a very important passage in the Royal Commission's Report which deserves to be remembered. A large proportion of the lands in the City of London held by the Companies *in their corporate right* was obtained under wills, constituting trusts, for the maintenance of "obits, chauntries, or for other superstitious uses." This land the Companies were allowed to purchase from the Crown, after its confiscation, at

the time of the dissolution of the monasteries. This was done by means of Crown grants made in the reigns of Edward VI. and James I. The terms of the grants have been held by the Court of Chancery to have vested in the Companies the same absolute property in the lands which the Act of the 1st Edward VI. vested in the Crown, and they have thus been, since the Reformation, in the eye of the law, the "corporate" property of the Companies, free from any *trust*. There seems to be no doubt, however, that the lands were only allowed to be brought back because the Companies represented to the Crown—as was no doubt the fact—that the rental was required for the support of their almshouses, schools, and exhibitions, many of which depended for their existence on these "superstitious benefactions." Now these Crown grants may be reasonably taken to have been made in the expectation that the income would continue to be in great part applied to charitable objects, such as, in particular, education and the relief of poverty. The amount of these repurchased lands is very large, though it cannot well be estimated with precision. A considerable amount of this fund is, no doubt, applied by the Companies voluntarily to charitable objects of the nature defined in their above-mentioned representation to the Crown; but the *whole* of it should be so applied, though it seems that it is not so applied at present.

No person can study impartially the past history and modern conditions of the Livery Companies of London without coming to the conclusion (1) that much of the money of which they are the recipients is expended in a manner far from being the best, and (2) that the present condition of things ought, on public grounds, to be altered. Some of the Companies have positively no connection with the trades which bear their names, and yet they are the recipients of enormous annual funds. Of such, for example, is the Ironmongers' Company. This Company has an income of considerably over £20,000 per annum, and yet the clerk informs us that for the last 200 years it has had no direct

connection with the trade. We suggest that this and the other Companies should, where practicable, utilise their funds more generally in teaching in a practical form those who are to be identified with the industrial life of the country. The chief fault which manufacturers have to find with so many employés is that, in spite of all the knowledge the workmen may possess, there is still a great difficulty in obtaining workers who are really *skilled*, and who are capable of thinking for themselves instead of being like so many machines. Their knowledge, in many cases, is far less perfect than that of their fathers and grandfathers. We have repeatedly had these views expressed to us. What is the remedy for such a state of things? It is to give our children a more perfect education in those subjects which are likely to be of use to them in after-life. And it is precisely here where the Livery Companies ought to be of enormously greater use than they are. The Companies might extend, with the greatest advantage, schools of handicraft, both in London and the provinces. If they do not care to start these extensively themselves, then they might, at the very least, devote a portion of their income to such associations as the Home Arts and Industries Association, the very mention of the names of whose officials is a guarantee that the money would be wisely and economically spent. In this way industries could, we believe, in time, not only be created and fostered in various villages and towns throughout the land, but actually established on a firm basis. We say this the more confidently from a knowledge of the fact that if private individuals can do it, wealthy guilds, who have so much money to spare, ought to be able to do it. In this way the Livery Companies, instead of forming, as they now do with too many persons, a reproach, would earn the grateful thanks of all those who, like ourselves, would be sorry to see them entirely disappear, or their incomes entirely disestablished and disendowed.

CHAPTER IV.

A PLEA—PART I.

Although the tendency of rural labour is to remove itself from the country to those districts where human beings congregate in considerable numbers, viz., the larger towns, yet in the early history of English society—and for centuries afterwards—this was not so, and the tendency certainly is not a healthy tendency. There was a time—before the introduction of machinery worked by steam power, and before the introduction of the railway system, &c.—when the manufactures of the nation were, to a great extent, carried on in the small towns and villages. The enquiries which we have instituted on this point, and which we have published, show that this was so : and, although we do not suggest that it is possible—or even desirable if it were possible—to remove to the country the whole of the industries now carried on in the larger towns, yet we do suggest that many of the present-day industrial occupations could just as well be carried on in the villages and small country towns as they now are in the larger centres of industrial activity. Many of the articles produced in such quantity in Continental villages might be made in our own land ; and they could, without a doubt, be made in what we may term the industrial village. As in former times, so now the worker on the land, together with his family, might, with distinct social and economic advantage, occupy much of their time in those arts and handicrafts so beneficial to the artisan-peasant abroad.

We do not believe, as some have asserted, that the town factory system has been the sole cause of the decay of our rural industrial employments. To it we would add a mistaken land system and faulty land laws, which, whilst they have resulted in farm being added to farm, have at the same time caused

to disappear the small cultivating owners and the peasantry, the latter of whom had common rights of inestimable value. This land system and these land laws have no doubt also been of great benefit. We have, for instance, the best farm live stock of any country in the world; we produce better crops; and we have, probably, better pastures than any other country, all of which results would have been for the most part unattainable under a system of very small proprietorships. At the same time, we consider it proved that for England as a whole the rage for large farms which overtook the country a century or more ago (as it did, too, in Henry VIII.'s time) has been a great mistake. If we wanted proof of this we have only to refer to the passing of the Small Holdings Act, 1892, a measure which has for its professed object the re-creation of a class of small cultivating owners by the aid chiefly of State funds.

We have been frequently met with the statement that it is quite impossible for those who might work in connection with village industries to compete successfully with those whose goods are made by machinery in the large towns. We shall show shown that this is incorrect. But in further answer to the objection, we would, in the first place, point out that many of the articles of common use (baskets, toys, &c.) are not made by machinery at all, but by hand labour; in the second place, that many articles could undoubtedly be made by machinery in village factories quite as easily and certainly more cheaply than in the towns; and, in the third place, that many workers would find it profitable to employ their spare time in making articles for which there is a *local* market. Where, however, the machinery of the large town *can* produce at a cheaper rate those articles which are worked up by hand labour in the village, it must not be forgotten that in many cases a hand-made article is more durable than the machine-made one, and that there are many persons who would buy the former in preference to the latter. But we assert that there is no insuperable obstacle to prevent the utilisation of machinery even

in villages. It has been proved that it is quite possible to employ machinery, driven by steam, gas, or hand power. The machinery might be *hired* out by the makers, in cases where it was not convenient to at once pay for it. What is to prevent a manufacturer from supplying on hire small motors for, say, six, eight, ten, or a dozen cottages in the same way that a well-known firm of sewing machine manufacturers nowadays supplies its sewing machines?

“If anyone (says Mr. W. H. Ablett) were to say, ‘I know of a plan by which the cottager could be put on a level with the owner of a factory and stand at no disadvantage with him, and yet pursue his work in his own home,’ he would be hailed as no mean benefactor. Yet, singular to say, such a plan does exist. I used to be a silk manufacturer at Coventry, and lost a large amount of capital at the time of the French Treaty, and some of my out-door weavers lived in rows of cottages that had a furnace-house at one end of the row, which supplied steam. A shafting ran through the whole row of houses in the top floors where the weaving shops were. A man had but to fasten a strap to his shafting, and immediately his loom or looms were set a-going at once by steam. These looms were large ones containing twelve, fourteen, sixteen, eighteen, or twenty shuttles. A weekly charge was made for the steam, added in the rent, and it was one man’s work to attend to the furnace and boiler, beginning the first thing in the morning, with intervals for meals, and shutting off steam at six o’clock. Here you have a method that places the weaver on the same level as the power-loom manufacturer. This was commonly done in 1860, and the same large looms were also worked in out-of-the-way places, without steam, on what is known as the *a-la-bar* system, a boy turning a wheel to supply the motive power.”

But it is neither our wish nor our province to argue in favour of removing all industries to the country. All we ask for is that such as can be conducted there should be. In this connection we may quote the valuable opinion of a

London manufacturer on the possibility, and comparative advantages, of carrying on manufacturing operations in large towns and country districts. He says: "Within the last ten years there has been a decided reaction from the previous tendency to concentrate all manufactures in the centres of trade. I consider the following among the prominent causes of this change: first, land for building cottages and for housing the artisans is far more readily obtainable in the country; secondly, the expenses in large towns have greatly increased, *e.g.*, I am now paying £400 per year for water in London by meter, while twenty years ago I had the same quantity for £25 by the year. Rates and taxes, and rents have also much increased; thirdly, owing to the impoverishment of the agricultural interest, local labour is relatively cheaper than it used to be, and can be more regularly depended upon. As regards my business generally, I have greatly increased of late the amount of labour I employ in the country for the foregoing reasons, although we are heavily weighted by cost of carriage to the amount of some £800 a year." This gentleman has one business in London and another in Surrey, and he finds that in spite of the extra cost he has to pay for the transit of his goods by rail, his balance-sheet at the end of the year shows a better result than if he had conducted the whole of his business operations in the Metropolis.

It is said that a large centre affords much greater facilities—with a consequent saving of expense—than a village or small town to the man who wishes to buy a particular article. The advantage, it is assumed, arises from the fact that the buyer who, say, goes to Manchester for textile goods, or (strangely! yet it is a fact) to London for jam, can call on several persons in the same line of business in a given time; whereas in the case of the village or small town, he might have to make a journey to several places in different parts of the country before he had ascertained for himself which was the best market for him to buy in. This objection is one which we believe to exist much more in theory than it would in actual practice.

Besides, it is patent to the most superficial observer that every year the means of locomotion are becoming much more advantageous and easy from a commercial point of view ; and we make no doubt that the objection would more and more lessen as village industries took root and grew.

We need, perhaps, hardly say that we do not wish to see the rural labourer devote his spare time to hand labour of a manufacturing character should there be machinery which can do the work as satisfactorily. We believe in the employment of machinery in the village to the fullest extent which may be necessary or possible for the production of the articles in hand. We would have the industrial village, therefore, furnished, as far as may be, with just the same machinery as is used in the large industrial centres. By all means use machinery if it will save human effort, but do not let it be supposed by anyone that because machinery is used it cannot be profitably used in the village. There are numerous crafts and arts which can alone be worked or performed by hand labour ; there are also numerous industries now conducted in the towns by the aid of machinery which might also be conducted in the villages and small market towns. The idea is, no doubt, novel to most English minds, thus to use machinery ; but then it is carried out in a practical form abroad, and it does seem a little ridiculous to say that what is done there cannot be done here, though that is what one must say if he is prepared to condemn the possibility of carrying out the idea of which we speak.

It would be an advantage to the community if all our industrial occupations (that is to say, those giving constant employment to the workers) were carried on in places, the whole of whose inhabitants were contiguous to the land. It certainly is a great *disadvantage* to us that so many of these occupations are carried on in the towns, *only a very small proportion* of whose inhabitants know really what country life is. Under such a régime as that which we are suggesting the agriculturist could not fail to have a much better time of it than

he has at present, and the industrial worker could hardly fail to reap the physical, social, and moral benefits which contact with country life is calculated to bestow. We are, of course, aware that there are those who assert that the strong young men who now go to the towns should emigrate, and that if they did so this would prove a very material factor in relieving the present congested state of the working-class population in many trades carried on in the industrial centres. The assertion is a rather extraordinary one. In the first place, it should be remembered that there is by no means an over-supply of skilled labour in all trades; and, in the second place, that it is precisely the "strong young men" whom we ought to retain in the kingdom, and to assist to profitable employment. Seldom is it that a manufacturer complains that there is a surplus of skilled labour; and the cry that we should send our strong young men abroad most certainly does not come, as a rule, from him. It is quite a common experience for one to hear manufacturers assert that they have the greatest difficulty to procure thoroughly skilled and reliable workmen. Such men are, to use a colloquial expression, "worth their weight in gold" to the manufacturer who employs them. It is much the same with the agricultural labourer. There is, in our opinion, room for at least a million more families on the land of England; and whilst this is so there must be room also for much skilled labour. The labourer who is careful, tidy, and a good all-round hand (which every labourer ought to be, but which every labourer is not) is an incalculable blessing to his master, and saves him in the course of a year pounds of expense. In a country which has not yet reached the limits of its powers of industrial production, a desire to emigrate its capable workers is not a healthy desire, and may be a very selfish one on the part of those who possess it. It is bad policy to seek to emigrate the skilled worker when he could be put to distinct advantage at home; and to send an unskilled

worker abroad is a policy which we never can contemplate with feelings of satisfaction, or even think to be just. The idea of those who propose emigration as a panacea for every ill, would, if carried into effect, reduce England to the position of a big gaol, hospital, and workhouse. All that is good and healthy and industrious would be sent away, and we should be left with the criminal, the unsound, and the pauper, these being the three classes which, we suppose, would always be rejected under any scheme of emigration that might be formulated. Let us rather give the idea of home colonisation a trial before we rush so hastily to the alleged remedy of emigration. By the fostering of rural industries, and by taking from the cities to the country towns and villages such industries and handicrafts as may be capable of the transference, the sum of poverty would be materially lessened, and a brighter future afforded to the willing worker than is now his lot. It seems to us that however much we may reform our poor laws, unless some step is at the same time taken which shall relieve the congestion of the city populations, diminish the high rents and bad house accommodation to which so many workers are subject, the matter had almost better be left alone, for it is simply staving off for a future time a reform which could be better accomplished now than then. To relieve this congestion, &c., Earl Compton, in 1888, strongly advocated before the House of Lords' Committee on Poor Law Reform, the desirability of industrial villages; and the author of "The Bitter Cry of Outcast London"¹ declared that it was his conviction that this "is one way out of the existing distress, and the *best way*."

¹ A little *brochure* issued a few years since by the Rev. A. Mearns. This *brochure* called attention to the poverty and wretchedness of the working classes in London, and aroused deep public interest.

CHAPTER V.

A PLEA—PART II.

At present, the large centres of industry form a constant attraction to very many of the rural labouring population. This is not a matter of which we need feel proud; indeed it should produce in us a feeling of quite an opposite character. To counteract it the countryman and his family should, as we have already suggested, be encouraged to devote themselves to some of the numerous home arts and rural industries which are but waiting for their attention. There are, of course, many trades which either cannot be carried on in the country parts, or which it is not desirable should be so carried on. Such are, for instance, ship-building, engine-building, &c. On the other hand, there are employments which could be brought to the country, but which are now almost entirely carried on in the large towns. In a thoroughly healthy society, the present state of things would be materially reversed. To some of these employments we shall refer later on.

We believe that with regard to very many of the articles now of common use and consumption, the small manufacturer in the country town producing a good and reliable article, would have very little to fear from the manufacturer in the large town; whilst it is pretty certain that the small man in the latter place is very severely handicapped, and frequently goes to the wall because of his considerable town expenses and his available profits not allowing him a sufficient chance in the competition. The small man should, therefore, be encouraged to take his trade a few miles out of the large centre of population. Mr. Marshall has well expressed our own ideas on this point where he says, amongst other things, that "There is no better use of public or private money than

in contracting with Railway Companies to increase the number of the working men's trains run by them, and in helping those of the working classes who are willing to leave the large towns to do so, and to take their industries with them." Where the small man in the town survives the enormous competition to which he is subject, it is often at the expense of much worry, health, and of the ordinary comforts and amenities of life. There is no reason why some of the very small brass-workers of Birmingham who, to our knowledge, make it a practice of going to London once, twice, or thrice a year for orders, should not establish themselves, not in a dingy workshop in which there is scarcely room to turn round, but in a more salubrious locality, a few miles off, in the country. Their work could be done just as well, quite as economically, they and their families would be better in health, and the new district would be enriched by their presence. The same remark applies to many other trades.

When we speak of *encouraging* the countryman to devote himself to some of the numerous home arts and industries we do not wish it to be thought that we forget the many educational agencies which are at work with that end in view. We do not forget that there are science and art institutes studded about the land; that there are technological guilds; university extension lectures; municipal schools of art; and other similar agencies. These, however, are principally town institutions, are chiefly of an educative character, and although the students (mostly young persons) who attend the classes receive great and most valuable instruction, their knowledge is seldom indeed taken into the country. The possessors of it ultimately locate themselves in their own or some distant town: or else they emigrate. We have known many of our very best young men go abroad after receiving their art or scientific education at a science institute or a technological guild.

Nor do we forget the work which is, to a large extent, being carried on by the County Councils. This work, like that just mentioned, is purely educational,

and the councils are prohibited from making it otherwise: they cannot, for instance, assist in creating any trade or industry except in so far as they may supply educational instruction to that end. Of that we do not complain, as it might otherwise lead to State control of industry, a disaster from which all thinking men may pray to be delivered. But up to the present the rural labouring population—so far as we have been able to gather information—form precisely that element in the educational work of the councils which is the least satisfactory. It is well-nigh impossible to secure a regular and satisfactory attendance of labourers or their children at the lectures and classes provided by the councils. And yet it is surely the labouring population which gives us all the gravest concern.

The Home Arts and Industries Association, to which we have previously alluded, is also largely educational; but it is very much more than this. The members of many of its classes—which are chiefly rural in character—actually make goods for sale, and other of its classes exist entirely upon orders received. This is a significant fact, and one full of hopefulness. Where classes of this sort are started there are hopes of a local industry forming itself, especially if fostered in every possible way, and the members of the classes encouraged to remain in their present localities instead of to go away to the towns. Of course, even where a local industry is not actually formed giving full and regular employment to the workers, the workers are benefited, for they secure knowledge which they can turn to much profitable account in their spare hours. Our enquiries go to show that the labourer need have little or no trouble to find a constant market for his wares, local talent generally being encouraged by the local people.

In this connection we may refer to what has been accomplished by a country rector and his wife,¹ who (as numerous others have done during the past few years) have

¹ The Rev. F. and Mrs. Brownson, of Compton Greenfield.

deeply interested themselves in the cause of rural employments. In as purely an agricultural centre as could be found, art industry has been planted with every prospect of continued usefulness. This has been solely due to the efforts of the rector and his wife. The rector comes from Westmoreland, and there had considerable experience of several branches of the art work flourishing in the Lake District for the last few years. He was vice-president of the Windermere industry, and it was but natural, finding room for such an effort, that, on taking up his pastoral work in his present district in the West of England, he should seek to make known its benefits amongst his new neighbours. Both the rector and his wife are singularly qualified by their skill in decorative work of various kinds. Brass and copper repoussé work, wood-carving, embossed leather, spinning, hand-loom weaving of silk and flax, Greek lace-making, and embroidery on hand-woven linen, and other kinds of artistic needlework are comprised in the programme of which, between them, they are expert exponents. A beginning was made by classes being started in a small iron room in the village. Metal work and wood-carving were taught at them by the rector, and spinning and spinning-needlework by his wife. Metal work has taken a leading place in the first of the two divisions, and by learning it the artificer is sooner able to place in the market an article which will meet with public approval and be saleable than a novice at wood-carving could do by his unaided exertions. The repoussé work takes many forms : trays, candlesticks, sconces, finger plates for doors, bellows, letter racks, brush backs, crumb trays and scoops, alms dishes and collecting basins for church use, are all eminently suitable for such treatment, and, with the rector as their guide, the pupils—mostly young men—of the village interested in the movement produced, in but a few months, work of a quality which would scarcely be believed possible. A natural query is, "How was the beginning made?" Each student needs a set of tools specially adapted for the art. These were bought by the rector

and supplied to the pupils, to be paid for out of their earnings at the new industry, which was not intended to supersede their ordinary vocation, but to be a pleasant and profitable addition to it. Each student has a square slab of elm, an inch and a half or two inches thick, on which the sheet of brass or copper is fixed by a few tinned tacks driven into the wood, so that the projecting heads just hold down the sheet. High-class workers use a slab specially made for the purpose, with a thick layer of hard but plastic pitch upon its top, and to this the metal adheres firmly, and the pitch gives readily to the raised parts of the design hammered out upon it. With the copper or brass sheet fixed to the block the artist is ready to begin operations. The design has to be sketched on or transferred to the right side of the metal, and in this the rector at first had a good deal of responsibility, although in the course of time pupils are expected to design for themselves. The design is traced round with the aid of a slender narrow chisel and a peculiar-shaped hammer, one side of the head being flat and the other drawn to a very blunt rounded point. Repeated taps are made on the chisel's butt end, whilst its edge is moved steadily round the design, and thus a clean cut line soon replaces the pencil mark. The incision does not go through the sheet but is visible on the back, and by turning the plate over there is sufficient guide to the worker, who proceeds to hammer on the back of the plate so as to raise portions of the design as seen from the front. The slender rounded part of the hammer head here comes into play, and the blows have to be very carefully given so as not to bulge the metal except where the subject requires. The groundwork of the design is dotted over by thousands of tiny punch marks, and the roughness thus given to the part of the plate throws into greater relief the raised and polished portions of the pictures. It is easy to imagine such a process may be applied to very simple and easy or to very intricate and difficult work, and here is one of the advantages of this kind of industry. Evidences of the success following the rector's instruction are not con-

fined to the creditable display of articles made by his class. At an Exhibition of Home Arts and Industries, some miles off, one of his pupils recently took a first prize, the winner being a young fellow to whom village life was given a new interest by something outside its ordinary associations. Boys of eight are numbered amongst the youngest of the learners, and a lad of ten was represented in the rector's collection by a cleverly made finger plate. The beautifully executed alms dish, used in the church, is an example of the rector's own skill, and against professional workers it secured a prize at a public competition. Little difficulty has been, so far, found in disposing of the brass and copper articles produced. Whatever profit the goods produce goes wholly to the village artificers, each of whom thus has a strong incentive to good work of a nature readily saleable. Leather embossed work is much more difficult, and much easier to spoil, but artistically the results are admirable when skillfully done. Examples of the talent, in this direction, of the rector and his wife show this. In spinning, embroidery, &c., the latter hopes, we understand, to find a profitable and pleasant home occupation for some of the girls and young women of the neighbourhood. She, like her husband, has made an encouraging start. Her own speciality is Greek lace, which Mr. Ruskin has, we believe, commended as "the most beautiful of all embroidery." Of this she has lovely examples, one of which took a silver medal at a public exhibition. It would be strange, but only natural, if history repeat itself and spinning wheels once more make their appearance in the country homes of England, but the rector's wife believes there is a valuable opening in this direction and has already put her theories in practice. She has a pretty wheel—a model of that which belonged to Mary Queen of Scots—for her own use, and several other machines have been lent to the villagers, and others are anxious to obtain them. The expense is the primary difficulty in this matter, and progress is, in consequence, slower than it would otherwise be. A loom has been erected in one of the rooms at the rectory, the

intention being to weave upon it the material required for embroidery and other artistic treatment.

The foregoing has had reference to mere home work. Other instances could be given of an analogous character.

We now give an instance of the revival, or establishment of a rural industry, on a larger scale. We refer to the village industry that is carried on at the almost unknown village of Sidestrand, on the coast of Norfolk. Sidestrand is in a quiet, sheltered little nook between Cromer and Mundesley—a veritable "Sleepy Hollow"—and contains some 200 inhabitants. It was here that Mr. Henden, the proprietor of St. Michael's Dye Works, set up his present establishment, having been in a similar kind of business previously, in Surrey—near Croydon. It was from no choice of surroundings that Mr. Henden established himself at Sidestrand; it was simply as the early home of his delicate wife that he chose that spot. Approaching the village over the hills, one catches sight of a low red-tiled building exhaling smoke and steam, and resounding with the clatter of machinery. Perhaps ninety-nine visitors out of a hundred would be wholly unfamiliar with the industry here pursued, which is that of supplying pigments for the colouring of india-rubber goods. Mr. Henden is a Surrey man, whose father was a colour maker in connection with silk handkerchiefs and table covers, which were then made by hand. Changes in fashions and methods of production in time ruined that industry, and then the son, who, in all that pertains to dyeing, is a thoroughly practical chemist, introduced various pigments to the rubber manufacturers. Everyone knows how rapidly the use of rubber has grown within recent years. The colouring material is not employed for merely ornamental purposes, as might be supposed; for, without a surface dressing of some description, the use of rubber, particularly for surgical purposes, would be quite impracticable. Mr. Henden does not himself apply the colouring; all that he does is to make the colouring matter—a work of quite sufficient

delicacy and complexity, as a glance round the workshops will show. There are butts and vats containing curious-looking compounds, which give off odours such as none but a man of chemical instincts could endure. The workmen, in their dress and persons are distinctly men of colour. Huge millstones are pounding the rough material. The man of unpractical mind would never conceive that such a labyrinth of mysterious processes was needed to make those barrels of dainty-hued powders which constitute the finished product. Red dyes are now his chief product. The antimony, which is received at the works in blue-black lumps, has first of all to be ground and got into solution. Then, according to the colour that is wanted, it is treated with acid, being precipitated by means of weak sulphuric acid. The factory represents a bonâ-fide village industry. It is a remarkable circumstance that absolutely no skilled labour is employed; the workmen all belong to the neighbourhood, and beyond the instructions they receive from their employer, who watches them ceaselessly, they have no notion whatever of their duties. Mr. Henden pays his men about 3s. a week more than is paid on the surrounding farms. Moreover, the work is continuous, being all under cover, and not liable to interference from stress of weather. Hence, a farm labourer may well deem it promotion to be taken on at St. Michael's Dye Works, and the employer can always command the pick of all the unskilled labour within reach. The business has undergone rapid development. Mr. Henden began with a 2½-horse-power vertical engine; at the time of our enquiry there was a 10-horse-power horizontal engine, and a couple of boilers fitted with automatic injectors. Already he has received a few tempting offers from speculators with an eye for a going concern. In relation to the question of village industries, there are many considerations connected with the Sidestrand Dye Works that apply with equal force to other businesses.

We need only cite one further instance as a part of our plea that village industries can be started and successfully

carried on. This is at Haverhill on the Essex and Suffolk border. The population of Haverhill in 1881 was 3,685, and in 1891, 4,587. Work is constant, and the people are contented and comfortable. Forty or fifty years since, the whole place was as quiet, dull, and unprogressive as any village in the land. There are now a satisfactory number of tradespeople established to supply the common and daily wants of all the local people, and public buildings have been erected to meet the secular and religious needs of the inhabitants. Philanthropy has not been the cause of this great transformation at Haverhill. It has been due to a Mr. Gurteen and his sons, who, for commercial purposes, started a local manufacturing concern which has given the people constant work to perform. The founders of the firm started by weaving drabbits, and established a prosperous business in that department of manufacture. Then they added the business of manufacturing clothiers, and afterwards started mat and matting making, and a department for the manufacture of horse-hair material. The whole concern is a large and thriving one, employing a large number of hands in the factory and in the neighbouring villages. Mr. W. Cuthbert Quilter, the Member of Parliament for the division in which Haverhill is situate, takes a great interest in all the industries in the division, both rural and mechanical, and he has shown himself a warm friend to both the silk and mat weavers of the district.

The three instances we have cited show, we think, (1) that we have in the rural parts those who—unsuspected it may be in a general way—are capable of a high degree of skill in manual labour; and (2) the probability that rural industries might be conducted with success by capitalists who would give their serious attention to the matter. We are well aware it is claimed on economic grounds that production on a large scale in towns means economy of skill, economy of machinery, and economy of material. In the same breath, however, it has to be admitted that the small employer

has advantages of his own. For instance, in the latter case the master's eye is everywhere ; there is no shirking by his foreman or workmen ; he saves much book-keeping and checking ; and, though he must always remain at a great disadvantage in the way of getting information in making experiments, yet in this matter the general course of progress is on his side, and there are *disadvantages* connected with the large manufacturers in the towns, which cannot be urged against the smaller workers in the country. To such an extent, for instance, has competition been brought that the retail trader, in numerous cases, is ceasing to exist, the large manufacturer doing business direct with the consumer, business hitherto carried on by the retail man.

But another great hope for the foundation of new rural industries, lies in encouraging the children of the labourers and the labourers themselves, in the way the Home Arts and Industries Association is doing, to devote their spare time to those arts and crafts which they can turn to some practical and profitable account. The best way to reap any such reward of their labour is for those in a village, or in a number of villages in a given district, to send their goods when ready to some person or association for disposal by sale. At first this person or association might be located in, say, the nearest county town, and the goods could be exhibited in the market place ; in a suitable shop ; or in any other way before a possible purchaser's notice. The suggestion, however, leads us to mention a most excellent society which has lately been started on very much similar lines since these remarks were written. We refer to the Rural Industries Society, whose headquarters are in London, and at which may be seen and purchased articles made in many a cottage home throughout the land.

CHAPTER VI.

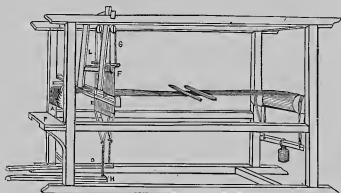
ABROAD.

Let us for a moment look at the following few facts collected with regard to the rural industries of the Continent—most of the details being the result of enquiries undertaken on the Continent on our behalf.

We find that in Switzerland watch-making is, with the exception of Geneva, mostly carried on as a domestic industry in the villages. In the Jura, especially in Lachaux-de-Fonds, parts of the watch are fabricated in nearly every house by some member or members of the family, which family, during the harvest time alone, is to its full number busy in the fields. Special private manufacturing establishments which exist in some of these villages, put the various portions of the watch together. When ready, the complete article is sent to the Directorate of the Observatory at Neuenberg (Neufchâtel) for examination, which lasts several months; and it is then returned. Silk-weaving in Zurich, Aargau, and other Swiss Cantons, is carried on by means of the expensive looms and material which are lent to the peasants by the manufacturers. The same is the case with machine-made embroidery in the Canton of St. Gall. Here, however, as in Appenzell, there flourishes the trade of hand-made embroidery. Straw, and horse-hair plaiting for hats is also much in vogue in Lucerne, Aargau, and other Cantons.

In France the chief point to be noted is that most of the toilet articles, such as hair brushes, tooth brushes and combs, are manufactured in the rural districts. With tooth brushes, France provides largely for the wants of the whole world. Muslin manufacture all around Taare is largely a rural industry, a great majority of the cottagers being expert in the work. In Normandy and the Nord cotton velvets and plain cottons are

woven to a great extent in the villages. The silk trade is still largely a domestic industry, as also are the cutlery, the netting, the jewellery, and the turnery trades. St. Etienne may well be called a working man's town. Fully three-fourths of its 133,000 inhabitants derive their support from the mine, the gun factory, the foundry, and the loom. Of this large body of wage-earners by far the most intelligent are the weavers, numbering about 30,000. Frugal, industrious, and law-abiding, they afford an interesting example to the student of the labour problem of the effect of "home work"



AN OLD ENGLISH HAND LOOM.¹

upon the relations of capital and labour. Of the 18,000 looms in St. Etienne, the greater number are owned by the individual weavers and worked by hand in their own homes. While it is apparent that the recent inventions for the transmission of power by electricity will shortly effect an alteration in the methods, it is

¹ The operations are as follows:—The workman, sitting upon the seat P, holds a stick in his right hand, and takes hold of one of the bars of the frame LL with his left; presses his foot on one of the treadles GH, which, by means of the levers EF, divides the warp; he then relieves the treadle he before kept down, and presses down the other. While he is doing this, he with his left hand draws the frame LL towards him, and then returns it. The use of this is to beat the last thread thrown by the shuttle close up to the one that was thrown before it, by the split reeds. As soon as he has brought the frame LL back to its original position, and again divided the warp by the treadle, he throws the shuttle again; when he has in this manner finished about twelve or fourteen inches of cloth, he winds it by turning the roller A with the stick, as before described. Some very expert weavers will throw the shuttle and perform the other operations at the rate of 120 times per minute.

not thought that it will change, to any great extent at least, the location of the work. Until very recently the ribbon-weaver, labouring in his own home, could see no room for improvement in the mechanical execution of his work. From time immemorial the long bar had been worked by hand. Brought up to it from childhood, and inheriting the prejudices of his class, it was difficult to convince this member of an ancient guild that any advantage could be gained by the substitution of any other power for that of his own sinewy arm. Of late, however, his eyes have been open to the wonders of that subtle agent which is so rapidly transforming the mechanical work of the world, and to-day it is not a rare occurrence to find a humble weaver who can talk to you of dynamos and motors with the intelligence of a practical electrician. Already over sixty looms are being worked by electricity, the force being furnished by the Edison Electric Company. This company has for several years supplied the light to a large number of shops, hotels, and saloons in the city; but more recently, with commendable enterprise, it has undertaken to furnish electric force to the *numerous looms* in the district. To this end it has established an elaborate electric plant on the River Loire, at the foot of a picturesque village, St. Victor-sur-Loire, situated about eight miles from St. Etienne. A waterfall of 900-horse power sets in motion three turbines, which transmit the electric force through four cables, seven millimetres in thickness, to its destination. As has been stated, over sixty looms are now in operation worked by electricity furnished by this company, and the director states that he anticipates a great increase. It is confidently expected that with the revival of trade every loom-owner will wish to take advantage of this mechanical force. The actual expense under this system is 350 francs per loom, including dynamo, pulleys, belts, etc., all of which become the property of the weaver. An additional ten francs per month is charged for each loom. If the loom remains idle for more than a fortnight in any one month, a proportionate deduction is made by the company. A weaver

who is the owner of two looms driven by electricity recently said that by this agency he could turn out twenty-five per cent. more work than formerly.

In Germany the manufacture of the Black Forest clocks, which are in every market in the world, is almost wholly carried on as a cottage industry in the villages. In the Thuringian Forest the ordinary playthings for children are made by the peasantry, especially in Sonnenberg. The "Noah's Ark," so favourite a plaything in England and the colonies, comes from Sonnenberg, and other places in Thuringia. Wood-carving is chiefly carried on in the Bavarian Alps, particularly in Ober-Ammergau. The small workshops of Germany are remarkable for their number; it has been calculated that over 90 per cent. of the industrial establishments give employment to less than five operatives, and in thousands upon thousands of cases in the Black Forest and other regions the small industrial manufactures and agriculture go hand in hand.

Nestled among the mountains of Upper Franconia, Bavaria, near the boundary line of Thuringia, is the small town of Lichtenfels. Very few of the travellers who, in journeying from Munich toward Leipsic, pass this apparently insignificant place of 3,000 inhabitants, are aware of the fact that here is located probably the largest basket-ware market on earth, sending its products to all known points of the civilised world. The United States alone, in spite of the dull state of trade, imported in 1893 from Lichtenfels and the neighbouring villages basket-ware to the amount of over £40,000. The exportation of this article to our own country was also enormous, and there is hardly a firm to be found handling this line of goods in the inland towns of the German Empire that does not order from Lichtenfels. The origin of the industry in Lichtenfels dates from the close of the last century, at which period a citizen (Krauss) of the place undertook the business of weaving baskets on a small scale, commensurate with the modest means at his disposal. The circumstance that induced him to begin the undertaking was the existence of a splendid growth

of willow trees in the neighbouring valley of the Main, thus furnishing him with the material for producing the article. At first, the industrious basket-weaver could find a sale for only the more primitive varieties of his merchandise, but the small farmers of the neighbourhood, who busied themselves with basket-weaving whenever the tillage of their land offered no further opportunity for labour, soon brought the art of producing baskets to such perfection that the before-mentioned founder of the new occupation ventured to send his wares to the larger fairs and markets of the country, and even to seek additional purchasers in foreign lands. In spite of the fact that equally good material for manufacturing baskets was to be found in France, the latter country continued to order the German article almost exclusively until the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian war in 1870. Even at the present day, Lichtenfels, Michelau, Hirschaid, and Burgkundstadt ship basket-ware to the French market. The gradually increasing demands upon the young industry necessitated the securing of foreign raw material. The finer varieties of willow reeds had to be imported from Hungary and France, and even from countries beyond the sea, straw for the finer woven articles being ordered from Spain and Italy, and the palm leaves used for ornamenting the better class of wares from the tropics. In this manner, the evolution of the so-called "house industry" in Lichtenfels proceeded, resulting in the employment to-day of about 16,000 men, women, and children, who produce every imaginable variety of articles from the simplest to the most elegant. The answer to the question, what the rapid development of this industry in the otherwise quiet portion of Bavaria and its successful maintenance against competitors is to be attributed to, consists in the following particulars:—The circumstance that those inhabitants of the region mentioned who engaged in the occupation of manufacturing baskets only did so in the intervals of rest from labour on their small farms, thus rendering the cost of production of the wares as an extra source

of income inconsiderable. These people were glad of the opportunity to earn a few shillings extra a week. Attention was directed to beautiful newspaper albums made of willow reeds and coloured straw, flower stands of most artistic designs, very handsome sewing baskets with celluloid ornamentation, etc. One is unable to decide what is most to be wondered at—the artistic ability, or the modest demands of these people. Factories, in the sense we commonly know them, are very few in number. The basket-ware manufacturer delivers the raw material to the people who are to manufacture therewith at their own home, *i.e.*, he weighs out for them the willow reeds, coloured straw, palm leaves, etc., and gives them the designs, according to which the various articles are to be made, and at a stated time, generally on Saturday or Monday, the workers (who, for the most part, live in neighbouring villages) bring the products of their industry and skill to the manufacturer.

In Italy the peasant women, of almost every district where mulberry trees can be grown, are fully occupied with spinning.

It is perhaps in Russia, of all continental countries, where village industries are most appreciated, and are of the most value, and it is highly interesting to note that they spring up and develop in those regions where factories are also extending themselves the most rapidly.

CHAPTER VII.

SOME ARTS AND CRAFTS.

Perhaps the revival of hand-work in the villages, which, we are glad to state, has begun to take place, owes much to the writings and labours of Mr. Ruskin, who has, since the movement was started a few years ago, taken a wonderful interest in it. The prime mover in reviving hand-loom weaving and spinning was Mr. Albert Fleming, who began these ancient arts in the beautiful valley of the Langdals. This little home can now claim to be the mother of many children, amongst which we may notice Keswick, Windermere, and Kirkby Lonsdale in Cumberland and Westmoreland, and Compton Greenfield in Gloucestershire. Spinning wheels are usually lent out to the village women, who are taught to spin. When they become proficient their thread is bought from them, many of them earning by this means, in their spare moments, five or six shillings per week. The spun thread is then handed on to the weaver, who has to wind and warp it, and then turn out the linen which our ancestors so much delighted in. When the linen is turned off the loom it goes through several simple processes prior to its being fit for the artistic needlework for which it is so often used. In its simple state, after being taken from the loom, it has a delicious dull, dark colour and stiffness which lends itself to large articles such as bed-spreads, portières, &c. ; but most people prefer it in its half-bleached state, which is got by judicious soaping and boiling. A further state is when it is bleached white. This must be done by the sun and moon combined with the action of the weather, without the aid of any chemicals, and in this way a lasting and most durable article is obtained, which may be used for even the

fine work about the altars in our parish churches.

The idea has been, in establishing these industries, (1) to carry to the villages that knowledge of art which is often gained in towns in the schools of art, etc.; and (2) to refund that



EMBROIDERY WORK.¹

old corporate (or guild) life which once existed in the villages—and, by consequence, to restore something of the prosperity which existed before the days of the prevailing agricultural depression. As these arts and industries will, at least, enable working men and their families in their spare moments to augment their weekly income, the labour of teaching is not lost.

We desire to refer to a few of these arts and crafts—examples of many more which might be taken to and formed into industries.

Of the art of embroidery much might be written. There is no doubt that the ancient Egyptians were the first to raise needlework to an art, and they raised it to such a pitch that some of their linen was called “woven hair.” It was both interwoven and profusely embroidered with gold, and was a favourite article for scarves, sails, handkerchiefs, etc. What strikes an Englishman in these days is, that although linen was used so

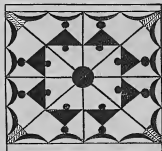
¹ The above is a table centre worked on hand-made linen, with an outer insertion of red silk Greek lace and an inner one of glove stitch, having a conventional design of dragons in the centre on a darned ground. Between the two insertions a motto appears in satin stitch: “It is the fair acceptance, sir, creates the entertainment perfect, not the cates.” This was worked at Compton Greenfield.

much by the ancient world—by Egyptians, Romans, and Greeks—it was comparatively unknown in England before the middle ages—linsey-wolsey being worn next the skin.

EMBROIDERY WORK.¹

Greek lace is a very ancient form of needlework. It is, for the most part, done in geometrical designs, and the principal lines are generally worked over threads of the material used as a foundation. Old scraps of lace are carefully copied (by those

learning to make the lace) as well as the more modern designs. Correspondence lessons can be given in the art, and, in fact, at Compton Greenfield they form a feature in the local work—a gold star having been won by a correspondence pupil of this industry at the Home Arts and Industries Exhibition in the Royal Albert Hall in 1894. A design is shown here, for the



GREEK LACE.

benefit of those not acquainted with this particular form of work.

¹ This is a table centre, on hand-made linen, in the old French style; the scroll work being done in gold thread fish scales, the flowers in shades of pink and mauve, the border being true-lovers' knots worked in gold at either end. The work was done by a member of the Compton Greenfield class, started by the Rev. F. Brownson and his wife.

BRASS TRAY ¹

¹ This is a large hammered brass tray, taken from a design of a Jeypore plate. The work was done on wood by a boy of ten, at Compton Greenfield. The design appears in high relief, the tray itself being beaten up and wired round the edge.

The art of brass repoussé, which has also been revived, may be even older than spinning and weaving, inasmuch as very early mention is made of it in the Bible—Tubal Cain being the father of all brass artificers. The art itself is, in many villages, only in its infancy; a very great future being expected for it. Even to attempt to copy some of the ancient work of the Italians and Spaniards will demand the highest skill of many of those who are engaged in this work. The simplest form, and that which is easily learnt, is, on a square block of elm or other hard wood, nail a piece of brass, twenty-four gauge, transfer the design to be worked by means of oiled carbonic paper, then by tapping a small tracer (a tool like a small, cold chisel) over the design, an outline mark will be obtained. The ground-work is then filled in with a matting-punch, and the work is completed. For this work two simple tools and a hammer are all that are required, and may be bought for the sum of 2s. 8d., or made by any skilled mechanic.

For repoussé work proper more tools are required. This art is usually practised on a specially-prepared cement block to be had from various tool-makers, or made by the amateur. An excellent recipe for the pitch which is used largely by silversmiths, is made from petroleum, beeswax, resin and lard. To begin work, melt the pitch by means of gas, a blow lamp, or heated appliance, and lay the brass upon the melted surface. When cold put the design upon the brass in the same way as before described, and begin the tracing. When the whole of the design has been outlined, remove the brass from the cement, and clean by melting what adheres to the surface by holding before a fire and then rub with paraffin. The brass must afterwards be turned face downwards, and then those parts of the design raised with special tools, which are wanted in high relief. For this work a sum of about 7s. 6d. for tools must be expended.

Embossed art leather work has advanced so rapidly within the last few years as to form one of the most interesting and useful of the arts, and it has this recommendation that it can be

carried on almost noiselessly in the home. It is admirably adapted for ladies and those who are not able to follow the harder and more noisy work. Both cow and calf-skin are usually employed. The design is simply transferred by pressing the leather, then cutting with a special knife made for the purpose, the groundwork is pressed back and punched, and the design raised and stuffed with a simple compound. This work lends itself specially to card cases, blotters, albums, etc.

Of wood-carving very little need be said; but, for the benefit of the novice, we may state that it is not an expensive



BRASS WORK.¹

employment. Only a few tools are wanted with which to begin—three or four, a mallet and a cramp. The mistake is in getting large sets of tools, as excellent work may be achieved by the beginner with only few tools. It is well in this work not to copy

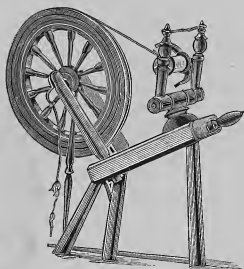
too slavishly the old style of carving so often met with in farmhouses and country homes—the effect often is good, but the drawing and design are bad. A simple ox-eyed daisy, a jonquil or other flower, make designs or suggest thoughts which are most valuable.

Bent ironwork owes its origin to the beautiful work in twisted iron exhibited a few years ago at the Italian Exhibition in London. It can never be compared to the Nuremberg or

¹ This illustration is of a pair of sconces, having a conventional design of a dragon appearing in high relief on a satiny ground, worked with ring tools. The candelabra are formed of bent brass, supporting a tray, into which the candle sockets are riveted. The work was done at Compton Greenfield.

Munich work, nor to the hammered iron which is now done in so many villages; but the effect may be wonderfully pretty if the design is well and carefully done. Strips of iron from one-eighth of an inch to a quarter of an inch wide are bought, and these are bent into all kinds of artistic shapes by means of long-nosed and short-nosed pliers. The work is attached to a frame which forms the foundation, and if it can be enlivened with a brass or copper flower the result may give a great deal of pleasure.

Of the Langdale spinning and hand-loom-weaving, Mr. Fleming has supplied us with the following interesting details:—“It is,” he says, “one of the curious anomalies of the present age that we spend half our lives in inventing labour-saving machines and the other half in trying to discover work for the unemployed. One of the results of this misplaced ingenuity is the depopulation of our villages, and the breaking-up of all the local industries. Of late years Mr. Ruskin’s fiery protests and Mr. Morris’ practical assertion of the superiority of hand-work over machine-made goods, have led to a kind of renaissance of the old handicrafts, and now in many villages strenuous efforts are being made to give back to the people what Wordsworth called ‘the venerable art torn from the poor.’ My own special experiment was to revive the extinct arts of hand-spinning and weaving. When I started my industry eleven years ago, there was not a single yard of hand-spun and woven linen produced in all England; though possibly a few survivals of these industries lingered on still in remote parts of Scotland and Ireland. My people in and about Langdale were eager enough to learn, but I speedily found I had to educate the general public as well as teach the peasant—practically to create a demand as well as a supply. Mr. Ruskin’s eager interest and personal sympathy were of incalculable advantage to my scheme, and his notices of us in *Fors* brought us very tangible help. In many magazine and newspaper articles I have told the story of our initial difficulties, how at last I found an old woman of eighty-four who had spun in her youth and could teach me,

AN OLD SPINNING-WHEEL.¹

¹ In the above illustration the distaff does not appear as an attachment to the spinning-wheel. Such an attachment became more and more common after the introduction of the spinning-wheel into Europe about the fifteenth century, though it is a debatable point with some, even to-day, whether it is not preferable to draw the thread from a bundle of flax placed on the lap instead of from that placed on the distaff attached to the spinning-wheel.

I in my turn teaching others ; how I unearthed an old loom in a cellar at Kendal ; how we routed up dilapidated spinning wheels, and at length, in the face of much derision and laughter, got the little industry on its feet. We now make about twelve different kinds of linen, varying from stout sheeting, 90 in. wide, to delicate fabrics copied from Egyptian linens three thousand years old, and from Italian linens of medieval times. The prices run from 3s. 6d. to 10s. 6d. the yard. We also produce a silk fabric of which the warp is flax and the weft silk. There are about thirty peasants in and about Langdale, some of whom earn 5s. to 6s. a week by spinning in the evening, and we employ fifty poor ladies in embroidering on the silk and linen."

Hand-knitting was common in this country certainly as far back as the fifteenth century, and probably much earlier. Lee, in the sixteenth century, brought out a hand machine, by which the work could be done much more expeditiously, and at the present time most of the work is done by machinery, which has been improved time after time since Lee's day, until the present period. Hand-knitted socks, however, and other articles are, in our experience, much to be preferred to the ordinary machine-made goods, and we see no reason why home-knitting should not be, at any rate, carried on to a greater extent than it is at present. The process of knitting may be described as a system of using the thread in such a way as to make a series of loops intersect one another. It is said that a hundred or more of these loops can be made in a minute by hand, whereas by the machinery of to-day some hundreds of thousands of loops can be made in the same space of time.

The making of pillow-lace has been carried on in Devon, Bucks., Beds., and some other parts of the country, by the wives of the cottagers and their daughters, for a period longer than can be ascertained. It is a process by which lace is made on a round cushion of about twelve inches to twenty-four inches in diameter. This cushion is called a pillow, hence the term "pillow" lace. On the pillow are a large number of pins, these being used

to form the pattern of the lace required to be made. The threads are twisted around the pins, and across one another in a dexterous manner. One end of each thread is fastened to the pillow, the other end being wound round the top of a bobbin. The invention of machinery driven by steam power has, of course, greatly interfered with lace-making as a handcraft, although we are glad to state that there are many instances of its revival, and that there is certainly room for the hand-made article.

It has been said that there is perhaps no manufacture more deserving of encouragement than that of straw-plaiting, inasmuch as it is a home industry, quite independent of machinery, and is at the same time a healthy employment. At any rate, it is safe to say that it is one which might be made to afford a larger income to a greater number of the agricultural labourers, their wives and families. Our enquiries show that a very large amount of the straw-plait now used is imported, whilst it is doubtful whether the public reap the advantage which the free import of the raw material should allow. Forty years ago there were some 10,000 scores of plait made in Herts., Beds., and Bucks., and taken every day to the markets. This number would give more or less employment to some 13,000 persons, a score of plait being twenty yards. The plait, after it is made, is, of course, converted into hats and bonnets ere it is placed before the public. Essex and Suffolk were other counties in which a deal of employment was afforded to the rural population in plaiting straw. Plaiting used to be taught in the schools as soon as the children were old enough to be able to receive instruction and to manipulate the straw. All this, however, has now died out, and it remains to be seen whether the efforts which, in some parts, are being put forth to revive an interest in straw-plaiting among the rural population will be productive of the success they deserve.

Basket-making might be very much more largely carried on than it is. In the manufacture of baskets, reeds, willows and grasses are used. It was formerly a profitable occupation in this country, but is now carried on to a much less extent than it might be.

Foreign baskets have the merit — if it is a merit — of being, in many cases, lighter and more ornamental-looking than the English; but, according to the testimony of salesmen whom we have seen, they do not last nearly so long. However, there is no reason why the English producers should not manufacture a lighter article if such is desired. English-made goods are, as a rule, somewhat dearer than those made abroad, and as the public, to a considerable extent, buy the cheaper article, even in spite of its inferiority, we may reasonably assert that the English maker ought to adapt himself to the production of an article which can compete, as to price, with the foreign production. Basket-making requires but few implements of manufacture, and it is an occupation easily learnt, and one capable of great extension.

In concluding this Chapter we would like to touch upon just a few employments carried on in our large towns which, in our opinion, could be carried on in the country equally as well; probably more economically; and certainly more advantageously to the workers themselves from a health point of view. The manufacture of stationery is almost entirely a town employment. Many of the branches of the work are performed by girls. For instance, the gumming of the envelopes in the East End of London is done by girls, who are able to gum from 16,000 to 18,000 a day. The envelopes are then placed on racks to dry, and in the case of overtime some 25,000 can be dealt with in a day, the payment being at the rate of one penny per thousand. Another girl does the sorting of the envelopes, and puts them into boxes, the payment being also a penny per thousand, from 16,000 to 24,000 being regarded as a day's work. The embroidering of ladies' dresses, sofa pillows, badges, straps, &c., secures to the female worker something like six shillings per week. Trimming is very largely carried on, and of course varies much according to the fashion of the day. For the making of something like thirty-six yards of braid-trimming, five shillings can be obtained. The payment is sometimes lower. Silk-tassel making,

muslin frilling, curtain, &c., cleaning, the manufacture of artificial flowers, feather work (which is greatly sub-divided), the manufacture of collars (also somewhat sub-divided), the manufacture of brushes, and the employments of brush-sorting, shirt-making, umbrella and parasol-manufacture, tailoring, boot-manufacture, the making of boxes and toys—are all capable of being conducted in the country towns or villages. Silk-weaving is still carried on in London; and silk-handkerchief-ironing is, in the East End of the Metropolis, an employment of itself, it being possible to iron twenty dozen a day. The manufacture of silk bibs secures to the worker something like ninepence per dozen.

In fact, the more one considers the enormous variety of town manufactures the more it strikes one as monstrous that they should be so largely carried on in such concentrated areas. Some of the articles we have mentioned are already being made in the provincial districts, as previous pages have shown. We argue that the system ought to be—and could be—greatly extended both on economic and on social grounds.

CHAPTER VIII.

RURAL INDUSTRIES AND THE LAND QUESTION.

When it was found—as it was found towards the end of the eighteenth and at the beginning of the nineteenth century—that the rural industries of the nation were being absorbed more and more into the town, and that the large-farm system was detrimental to the best interests of the rural, and indeed of the whole population, various attempts were made to remedy the matter by the granting of allotments, &c., and it will be interesting and instructive if we record these legislative achievements.

The General Enclosure Act of 1801 had the effect of largely destroying the interests of the labourers in the waste and common lands; and this was soon apparent. In 1819 we have an Act passed, known as Sturges Bourne's, by which churchwardens and overseers were enabled to take parish lands for the purpose of giving employment to the poor on their own account. In the year 1831 an Act was passed giving further power to these officials to use the common lands for the poor; as also an Act to enclose forest lands of the Crown with a similar object in view. In 1832 there was an enactment by which fuel allotments could or were to be used as gardens for the labourers. The next step to be noted is the Report of the Poor Law Commissioners, dated 1834, in which we find the allotment system advocated with emphasis.

In the following year Boards of Guardians were given the control of previous Acts. A Select Committee of the House of Commons was appointed in 1843 to enquire into the allotments question. On reference to the Report we find that in most, if not in all the counties more particularly devoted to agriculture, there was a certain number of allotments, but not in the

manufacturing localities. The Committee declared their opinion distinctly in favour of the allotment system, on the ground that the tenancy of land as garden allotments is "a powerful means of bettering the condition of those classes who depend for a livelihood upon their manual labour"; and that "the system of garden allotments has proved an unmixed good." One of the recommendations made by the Committee was that allotments should be provided for in future by every Enclosure Act.

In 1869 another Committee of the House of Commons was appointed. This time, enquiry was made into the working of the Enclosure Act of 1845. It was found that that Act was not so generally and usefully carried into effect as it might have been, and, therefore, in the Poor Allotments Management Act of 1873, and in the Commons Act of 1876, more stringent measures were adopted with the view of placing allotments from waste land, or under enclosures, more easily at the disposal of the labourers, and under suitable management. In 1878 an Act was passed providing that the labourers should have allotment land on the making of any "regulation" concerning a common, just as they were entitled to land in allotments on the "enclosure" of waste land.

In 1882 a further step was made in the direction of allotment legislation. This year the Allotments Extension Act was passed, the object of which is to enable the parishioners to have in allotments the charity lands of their parish or parishes, except where such lands, or the incomes therefrom, are used for (1) apprenticeship, (2) ecclesiastical, or (3) educational purposes. The Act is compulsory in its operation, and has been of great benefit, although trustees of charity lands are often, even now, ignorant of its provisions, and even when they know them, often try to evade them.

In 1885 a Committee of the House of Commons, appointed to enquire into the housing of the working classes, reported most emphatically in favour of providing additional facilities for procuring allotments for the rural labourers. Several

witnesses from agricultural localities gave testimony showing that the "cultivation of a plot of land attached to the dwelling was of the greatest advantage, from every point of view, to the labouring classes in the country."

The next Act was that passed in the year 1887, and is called the Allotments Act. It was the first Act which admitted the principle of the compulsory acquisition of land for allotment purposes (if we except the Act of 1882, which, as we have said, deals with charity lands). The administration of the Act was placed in the hands of the Sanitary Authority (now the District Council), which in boroughs was the Town Council, and in rural districts usually the Board of Guardians. Any six Parliamentary electors or resident ratepayers in a district can require the authority to inquire into the supply of labourers' allotments in their district or parish, and it then becomes obligatory on the local authority to cause an "enquiry" to be made. If the authority is satisfied that there is a demand for allotments, it is their duty to inquire and ascertain if suitable land can be obtained for the purpose by voluntary arrangement at a reasonable rent, and on reasonable conditions; and if they find it cannot be so obtained, then they are empowered to purchase or hire any suitable land which may be available either within or without their parish or district, and to let such land in allotments not exceeding one acre, to persons (men or women) belonging to the labouring population resident in the parish or district. If suitable land cannot be purchased or hired by voluntary arrangement in sufficient quantity, the local authority may petition the County Council, and the County Council, after due inquiry, may make a provisional order compelling owners to sell land for the purpose of allotments, under the provisions of the Land Clauses Acts, and the Local Government Board may introduce a Bill in Parliament to confirm the order.

It was found that in many districts the Sanitary Authorities, to whom was entrusted the duty of putting the provisions of the Act of 1887 into operation, sometimes neglected

or for insufficient reasons refused to do so. Accordingly, in 1890, another Allotments Act was passed, the chief object of which was to provide an appeal, by the applicants for allotments, to the County Council in cases where the Sanitary Authority (other than that of a borough), under the Act of 1887, failed to acquire land adequate and suitable in quality and position for the provision of a sufficient number of allotments for the applicants for the same.

The Allotments Acts of 1887 and 1890 were no doubt the chief means of the very large increase of allotments shown by a Government Return of 1890 to exist, as compared with a similar Return in 1886. This increase in England and Wales was 94,765. At the present moment such increase cannot, we verily believe, be far short of 150,000 to 200,000, and this we say from a large experience of the rural labouring population. It is an argument which shows the desire of the labouring classes for land for allotment purposes.

In February, 1892, the Government of the day announced in the Queen's Speech their intention of submitting for the consideration of Parliament "a measure for increasing the number of small holdings of land in agricultural districts in Great Britain." A Bill with this object in view was brought in by Mr. Henry Chaplin on the 22nd day of February, 1892. After much discussion it passed both Houses of Parliament, received the Royal Assent on the 27th day of June, 1892, and came into operation on the 1st day of October in that year.

The main provisions of this important Act are the following:—

1. —Any one or more County Electors may present a petition to the County Council of their own county, stating that there is a demand for Small Holdings in the county. This petition is then referred to the Committee of the Council, of which the local Councillor is a member, and if the Committee are satisfied that the petition is presented in good faith and on reasonable grounds, they must forthwith hold an enquiry. If the Council are then satisfied that the demand is genuine, it is their duty to acquire suitable land for

the purpose of providing Small Holdings for persons who desire them, and who will themselves cultivate them.

- 2.—Every person who purchases a Small Holding is required to pay down one-fifth of the purchase money, and the balance in half-yearly payments during a term of not more than 50 years. If the Council think fit, a portion not exceeding one-fourth of the purchase money may remain unpaid, and be secured by a perpetual rent-charge upon the Holding.
- 3.—In the case of persons who cannot pay down one-fifth of the purchase money, the County Council have power to let Small Holdings, either up to 15 acres each, or, if exceeding 15 acres, then up to £15 annual value.
- 4.—The Act also deals with present tenants of the Small Holding class, or those who already rent small farms. The County Council may advance four-fifths of the purchase money to such persons to enable them to purchase their present Holdings from their landlords.
- 5.—Every Small Holding must be cultivated by the owner or tenant.
- 6.—The Council are also empowered to let land to several persons on the co-operative principle.

The last-mentioned Act holds out the hope to the thrifty working man of becoming a cultivating owner. It is a measure which will only be slowly utilised, as there are but few labouring or other working men in a rural parish who can yet comply with the second provision above alluded to, inasmuch as they have not the means of paying down the fifth of the purchase-money. Moreover, it can hardly be expected that more than six to a dozen persons in any ordinary rural village will petition the council to put the Act into operation. Nor in many villages would it be desirable to exceed this number; for whilst we strongly believe in the small holdings system, we still quite as strongly believe in the necessity for having large farms, providing the occupants of them have sufficient capital to properly cultivate and manage them. To the large farmers and owners is it that we must chiefly look for the improvement of our farm live stock, as well as for improved methods of farming arising from experiments and the employment of the latest agricultural inventions. The Act in question, unlike the Allotment Acts, 1882, 1887, and 1890, does

not contain any compulsory provisions. It was deemed wiser in new legislation of the sort, where public money was to be loaned for such a social purpose, and where larger areas of land were to be dealt with than was contemplated in the Allotment Acts, to proceed with some considerable caution: though there can be no doubt that, should there be any serious and widespread indisposition on the part of owners of land to meet the wishes of those who might wish to utilise the Act, the compulsory principle will have to be embodied in a future enactment. This view of the matter was, indeed, urged in Parliament by those who have good ground for being regarded as spokesmen of the rural labourers.

The advantage of small holdings in suitable districts (holdings of, say, from fifteen to fifty acres—as contemplated in the Small Holdings Act) has been so generally admitted by competent authorities that we do not now feel called upon to argue the point. We would rather and very briefly address ourselves to the two chief difficulties which we have found to exist in the way of a much wider extension of the small holdings system.

In the first place, it has been stated that one of the greatest obstacles to the voluntary creation of small holdings by landlords, is the erection of suitable farm buildings for the holders. This is, we believe, quite true. Some time ago we were led to pay a visit to a landowner in the north of England on whose estate this obstacle has been practically overcome. This gentleman is known for the considerable interest he takes in the allotments question, exemplified as it has long been by his having placed at the disposal of the labourers surrounding his estate, some 100 to 200 acres of land in one-acre plots. Of the three experimental small holdings set apart by that gentleman, we need only refer in detail to the buildings on one, and that the first erected. The holding is some seventeen acres in extent, but it should be noted that the whole structure provided is suitable for at least twenty-five acres. The total cost of its

erection was only £35 14s. 2d., a sum lower by many pounds than is usually supposed. The materials used were as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
Timber, red deal (for sides and ends of building)	9	9	0
Roofing, corrugated, galvanised iron	10	11	10
Blacksmith's charge, making iron rods and bands for doors, &c.	3	13	6
Bricklayer (for foundation work)	2	9	10
Carpenter	3	10	0
Tar, 40 gallons	1	10	0
Fowlhouse	2	0	0
2,000 bricks	2	10	0
Total	£35	14	2-

When we asked if he found the buildings to answer his purpose, the small holder replied in a simple, unostentatious way, but without hesitation, "Yes, sir, very well; quite sufficient for all purposes." Upon measuring the structure we found that it was 38 feet by 30 feet in size, and that it contained an open stockyard; a barn or store-room (12 feet by 17 feet); a covered yard (17 feet by 18 feet); and a cow-house, a calf-house, and a piggery, all covered, and measuring 6 feet by 10 feet in each case. The whole of the roofing was of corrugated iron, and fixed in a slightly arched form. The small holder was formerly a labourer; he was of a saving disposition, and so became a sort of higgler and haulier in a small way. His next step was to take the holding referred to, which, with the aid of a sensible and hard-working wife, he is conducting with much success. He has no family; the holding is all arable; and we do not hesitate to say that, if such a specimen of a cultivating occupier, who has no special advantages as to markets, soil, or otherwise, could be largely increased in suitable districts, it would and must tend to the benefit of all classes of the community.

In the second place, the question of providing suitable cottage accommodation is also an obstacle. Where it is really necessary to erect houses or cottages for the small holders (it is

not always necessary) there can be no doubt that the obstacle is a very formidable one in these depressed times. We are of opinion that the State might well be asked to render assistance in this matter, whether to the owners of the land or to the small holders or both.

Many land owners have spent the greater portion of their income upon their land, spending large sums in farmhouses, buildings, and cottages. Since 1880 rents have gone down considerably, and on this account they have been compelled to reduce their expenditure more and more. It is difficult to see how it is possible for English landlords either to find money for making their cottage and other estate property up to the standard of excellence it should be, or to sell their properties to others who could afford to do it. Land is not now the marketable commodity it once was.

If the Irish system of monetary advances to the landlord, and especially to the quite small owner, were adopted in England, a landlord obtaining such an advance might, in return, well be called on to submit to certain restrictions, during the period of repayment, on the rents to be asked, especially for cottages, and he would, of course, have to maintain them in good order and allow them to be subject to inspection. At any rate it is at present very difficult indeed for landowners in a general way largely to extend the small holdings system unless they are assisted by the State in the provision of the necessary houses and farm buildings. The Government can borrow money at $2\frac{3}{4}$ per cent., and could lend it to the landowners at $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent., with a first charge on the holdings for, say, forty-nine years, in which time the capital and interest would be paid off. The security would be ample, and if 4 per cent. were charged the Treasury would make such a profit as would be a sufficient guarantee against any risk; whilst it is really only an extension of the principle of the Small Holdings Act on better terms for the tenant.

One other measure claims attention, and that is the Local Government Act of 1894. By this, the system under which the

working classes previously obtained allotments has been materially affected. The Parish and District Councils created under the Act have certain powers to which it is desirable to refer. Parish Councils may "represent" to the District Councils (hitherto the Sanitary Authorities) that there is a demand for allotments, *i.e.*, they may exercise the power already possessed by any six ratepayers under the Allotments Act, 1887. If the allotments cannot be obtained, then they may make a further representation to the County Council. The Council may make an Order that the land is to be taken compulsorily. If they refuse to do so a "representation" may be sent to the Local Government Board, and *that* Board may make the Order. If the Board make an Order overruling any decision of the County Council, it is to be laid before Parliament by the Board. A copy of any Order made either by a County Council or by the Local Government Board, has to be served on the parties interested, together with a statement that the Order will have the full force of an Act of Parliament unless within a given time a memorial by an interested party is presented to the Local Government Board praying that the Order *shall not* become law without further enquiry. Any Order made by a County Council is to be deposited with the Local Government Board, and, if no such memorial has been sent as above mentioned, the Board is to confirm it. If such a memorial *has* been sent, the Local Government Board is to hold a local enquiry into the circumstances, and is either to confirm, with or without amendment, or to disallow the Order. The Order of the Board is to be final, and have the full force of an Act of Parliament. A Parish Council cannot *purchase* land for allotment purposes. A Parish Council may, however, *hire* land for allotment purposes. If they cannot do it voluntarily, they may do it compulsorily after obtaining an Order from the Local Government Board to that effect. Such Order—"as respects confirmation and otherwise"—is to be subject to exactly the same provisions as if it were an Order made by the County Council to *purchase* land as above described.

Whatever the effect of the Local Government Act, 1894, may be in providing allotments, we trust it will be such as to benefit the men and to leave no trace of friction or ill-feeling between them and the landowners, for these are days when all should unite for the good of the country instead of standing at a distance, one from the other.

The power to *compulsorily hire* land for allotments is a further principle new to the legislation on this subject, and, by the Act, the District Councils, as already stated, take the place of the Sanitary Authorities, under the Acts of 1887 and 1890.

All these various legislative achievements, however, whilst they have undoubtedly added to the comfort and prosperity of the agricultural labourer, have had but little effect in inducing him to take to rural arts and crafts—arts and crafts which could be carried on either alone or in conjunction with the other and ordinary avocations of his life.

CHAPTER IX.

THE LAND AND TAXATION.

Taxation may be divided into two distinct classes, Imperial and Local. Imperial Taxation is again divided into two heads, Direct and Indirect. By Direct Taxation is meant that which is paid directly to the State—income tax, for example. By Indirect Taxation is meant that which is paid on articles on which there is a duty, as, for instance, tea. When a man drinks a cup of tea he pays a duty indirectly to the State, for there is a charge at the Custom House of, say, 4d. per lb. on the tea. A working man with a wife and two children will consume about half a pound of tea a week; thereby indirectly contributing twopence a week to the Imperial Fund. The principle of taxation should, of course, be to relieve the necessaries, and to tax the “luxuries” of life.

Now as to Local Taxation. As with Imperial Taxation, all benefit by Local Taxation; but, unlike Imperial Taxation, all do not *contribute*. For example, until recent years, the charges with regard to the roads, half the cost of the police, the Sanitary Authority, the poor and half-pauper Lunatic Asylums were paid for out of a rate levied on an assessment on land and houses. A man with £10,000 a year in the Funds, or in an investment not directly connected with land, would contribute nothing towards Local Taxation, though he would use the roads, and be protected by the police. Simultaneously with the passing of the Local Government Act, 1888, the area of taxation for local purposes was widened, and licenses which formerly were paid into the Imperial purse, are now handed over to the County Councils. In addition, a share of the Probate duty is given towards the reduction of Local Taxation, thereby making personal property contribute. Our

Local Taxation, however, still far too heavily bears upon the agricultural interest, and ought to be materially altered and lessened.

Land formerly had two values, a social and a commercial. The legislation of the last sixty years has almost destroyed the former, and perhaps adversely affected the latter. Before the passing of the Ballot Act, land was a stepping-stone to a rise in the social scale. A man holding estates in two or three counties, had a certain control over a restricted electorate, and was enabled to help to return one, two, or three members to the House of Commons. The cost might be excessive, but the result (a peerage) compensated him, if he was ambitious in this direction. The Ballot Act at once destroyed this prerogative in land—a result, however, which in these days can scarcely be regretted. A man can now only control his own vote, and a large estate does not necessarily imply great influence. Again; an estate was supposed to carry with it certain obligations. A county magistrate was also ex-officio a member of the Board of Guardians, and had control of the financial affairs of the county. This is now all changed. The Ground Game Act has also, in many instances, created a strained relationship between the landlord and his tenants. From a commercial point of view we must also admit that during the last forty years or more, free trade has affected the value of our corn, as we are now simply the receptacle of the surplus food of the world. Added to this, the increased cost of production has considerably reduced the margin between profit and loss. Further; the introduction of steam, the daily increasing rapidity of communication between our ports and the rest of the world, culminating in what might almost be called a bridge of boats with Europe and America, has enormously facilitated the imports of foreign food. It used to be imagined that freight would act as a deterrent to a large importation, and have the same effect as a duty. Such has not proved to be the case, and the rise and fall in freight does not materially affect the price of corn. Virgin soil and more favourable climates compensate the foreign producer for

any slight variation in the cost of transit. During a recent year, the prohibition of exports in corn from Russia caused a temporary rise, but this only existed for a short period, and the deficiency was soon supplied by other markets. The meat trade alone keeps at a more or less remunerative price. This is chiefly due to the great increase of trade in our commercial cities, and the high wages now earned by artisans—causing a greater consumption in the towns. This increase in trade is, also, largely due to our foreign policy, and it is therefore to the interest of the public to support whichever political party or Government directly benefits the great commercial interests—a benefit which must also indirectly and favourably affect agriculture.

The tendency of some, nowadays, however, is to add to the burdens of land by taxing it even more than it now is taxed. For instance, a representative in Parliament lately moved:—"That the proportion of taxation which falls upon land and its rentals is insufficient, and ought to be increased"; and he was supported by 70 to 80 other members. Now on whom would this increase of taxation fall? One respected statesman, of the same political hue as the representative in question, says:—"Be sure that the burden of taxation, however spread, and however disguised, at last comes heaviest on the shoulders of the industrial community." This is perfectly true; and, as applied to the rural population, it is safe to say that, were such a motion adopted as that referred to, *the agricultural labourer would most feel the burden.*

Land, with many, used to be a favourite investment for capital, not so much on account of the high interest realised, as on account of a general feeling of security. What is the case now? With the national funds at some $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. there are thousands of acres out of cultivation! This is, perhaps, partly the result of a feeling of insecurity, and where there is insecurity, capitalists will, of course, not invest their money. Does any man for a moment doubt that if land could return a certain $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., millions of money would at

once pour into the agricultural interest ; whereas, now, the very mention of land as an investment, to any large financier, causes a smile of derision.

We produce more corn per acre than any other country. We produce the finest cattle, sheep, and horses in the world. The foreigner and our colonists come to our markets for our rams and ewes, our bulls and heifers, our cart-horses and our thorough-bred stallions. In North and South America, in Australia and New Zealand, we find the English breeds predominate. At home, we find the farmers with better houses, and the labourers with better cottages. This is the result of an enormous amount of capital invested in agriculture, in draining, in building, and in the improvement of what we produce. On the other hand, by comparison with the labour market in our commercial centres, we find wages considerably lower. This is chiefly accounted for by the food which we produce being cheap. We are, we repeat, the receptacle of the surplus food of the world ; consequently, as long as the supply remains equal to the demand, so long will that cheapness continue. For years land was a popular investment for capital, whether by owner, occupier, or mortgagee. It is this last factor—the mortgagee—which is generally overlooked by those who are in favour of a drastic change in land tenure. The insurance companies have millions on mortgage. Everyone who insures his life or his property in any company whose capital is on mortgage on land, is just as much interested in land as is the landed proprietor ; any scheme which affects adversely the land, affects his policy in his insurance office. The Friendly Societies—Odd Fellows, Druids, Foresters, and numerous other benefit societies, of which this country is justly proud—have a very considerable amount of their savings invested by means of mortgages on land ; and any laws which shake the security in land, or which additionally tax land, must affect our national income, and that of the individual working man's savings. Charities, schools, hospitals, and the savings of many small tradesmen are equally affected. The State, therefore,

in guarding the just interests of owners of land, is also indirectly protecting all those other interests referred to if it opposes any scheme for putting unfair, or unequal taxes on the soil.

Whether the rates and taxes in question are paid by the landlord or tenant, they must, as we have mentioned, be felt by the labourer. If the landlord pays the taxes, then his income is reduced, and he will have less money to spend in buildings, draining, and improving his estate. Owing to the fall in rents which has now been going on for many years, landlords have had to reduce their establishments. Where there were six horses in a stable, now there is frequently only one, and where there were six men employed in the garden, that number is now also reduced.

If, however, this additional taxation is paid by the tenant farmer, he will reduce his labour bill, either by employing more machinery, or laying down his land to grass. This latter, indeed, is already going on to an alarming extent, and has been for several years.

There are those who say that the landlords ought to be "taxed *out*." Now this scheme would mean the absolute ruin, not merely of the larger owners of land, but of many thousands of working men, who, by their industry and thrift, have themselves become owners and occupiers of small quantities or patches of ground. Further, there are those who say that the "labourer should be paid first; then the tenant farmer; and that then, if there is anything over, the landlord should have it." Under a system of this kind what security would there be for any investment at all in land, or outlay of capital by the small or large landlord in improving his property? Would any banker or capitalist lend money on the agreement that if the borrower has a surplus he, the lender, is entitled to it; but that, if the borrower is unsuccessful, the lender is to go without his interest? It is almost incredible that such arguments can be addressed to reasonable mortals.

The fact is, the three interests of landlord, farmer, and

labourer are to a very large extent bound up together : what affects one affects the other, and it is impossible absolutely to separate them, though saying this does not prevent us also from asserting that the condition of the labourer is still, as it has been for generations, the most unsatisfactory of the lot, and that all that is reasonable should be done to improve it. To seriously increase the taxation on land, however, would strike a blow at all three of these classes, and such a blow as could not possibly, under existing conditions, be sustained by any one of them. It would, at the same time, enormously increase the admitted difficulties of reviving in, and returning to, the villages and small towns the numerous handicrafts and industries which have left them ; and on this ground alone we earnestly urge that the public should think twice before committing itself to a course which would be attended with disaster.

CHAPTER X.

CONCLUSION.

A review of what we have stated in previous pages, shows that a large number of employments or manufactures were and are being conducted in the rural and semi-rural districts of England. For convenience of reference we classify these employments or manufactures as follows :—

Arrow-making, agriculture, armoury work.

Bolt manufacture, besom, broom and brush-making, basket manufacture, button-making, braiding, blacksmithing, bacon factories, manufacture of bricks, brewing, boat and barge-making, bead-making, blanket-making, manufacture of braces, belts, boxes, bells, bows and bobbins, bark-peeling, and bone-crushing.

Chair-making, collars (for shirts), carpets, crape, carpentry work, clock-making, carving (wood), cider, chemical manufactures, corsets, currying, coopering, cutlery, coach - building, chandlers.

Dyeing.

Embroidery, engineering, embossing, engraving.

Fustian cutting, fuller's earth, frocking, flour mills, feathers, fruit (preserve) manufacture, flax manufacture, farriery, felt, fret-work.

Gun locks, glove manufacture, gunpowder, gun cotton, girths (for horses), glass.

Hurdles, hats, hosiery manufacture, herbs, halters, hooks (for fishing, &c.).

Iron and steel manufactures.

Jam.

Knitting.

Lace, leather-dressing and leather-work, locks.

Mining (coal, lead, silver, gold, &c.), masts (for ships), mineral water manufacture, mill-board manufacture, matting, mustard manufacture, metal repoussé work.

Nut manufacture, nails, needles.

Osier-peeling, onion-peeling, oyster-catching.

Plaiting, painting (on glass, &c.), paper-making, pottery, perry, parchment, pins.

Ribbons, rope, rush and rag-matting.

Shoe-making, straw-plaiting, silk weaving and winding, sewing clothes for London and other shops, skins, skewers, sticks (for umbrellas and walkingsticks), socks and stockings, steel and iron, satin, sacks, shirts, shoddy.

Timber mills, tapestry, tiles, tanning, turf-cutting, twine, turning (wood).

Velvet.

Wools, wool combing, weaving (silk, &c.), watch-making, wood-carving, whiting, wax chandlers.

Will any rational person say that the great bulk of these occupations or manufactures could not, with advantage to all concerned, be added to by the subtraction from the larger towns of the analogous (and other) work performed there? Of course, the chief thing is for somebody to make the start. We have shown that the rural districts and the rural people may be profitably utilised in that direction; it is hardly incumbent

upon us therefore now to add further to what we have already said on that subject. We hope and believe, however, that there are many high-minded men sufficiently philanthropic, sufficiently patriotic, and, at the same time, sufficiently business-like to test the social and economic value of increasing the number of our industrial villages. Many a business house could establish a manufacturing branch in the country; and, if there were the real wish to make it a success, it would *be* a success. That this is so we have proved.

But who benefits by such a proceeding? It certainly is not the "business house" alone.

Everybody interested benefits: the result is a distinct national gain; and the system merits a wide extension.

If private individuals can take such action as we have suggested, there is every reason why our wealthy trade guilds should do all they can in somewhat the same direction. We have suggested that they should apply their funds more largely to the manual teaching of the various arts and crafts, especially in the villages and small towns. *Can* it be done? We think so. In the foregoing pages we have referred to the excellent work being performed by the Home Arts and Industries Association, of which Earl Brownlow is president. Local classes are held by the Association in different parts of the country, for *practical* work in various arts and crafts. The guilds might put themselves into communication with the Association or with the party or parties in the several localities responsible for the classes. We think the former would be preferable. At any rate, we have the pleasure to give below a list of the places (excluding the Metropolis) where these *working classes* are being at present held. We publish the list more particularly because it shows that the majority of the classes are held in rural or semi-rural districts:—

Place.	Name of Party Responsible for the Class.	Class of Work Done.
Abbott's Kerswell ...	Mr. J. Phillips ...	Carpentry
Ambleside	Mr. Jackson Cookson ...	Wood Carving

Place.	Name of Party Responsible for the Class.	Class of Work Done.
Ascott (Beds.) ..	Mrs. Leopold de Rothschild	Wood Carving
Ascot (Berks.) ...	Miss R. Liddell ...	Wood Carving
Ashridge	Miss S. E. H. Noyes ...	Wood Carving, Spinning and Mat Making
Aston Clinton ...	Lady Battersea ...	Wood Carving
Barcombe	Hon. Mildred Dodson...	Wood Carving
Bedford	Miss A. Molony ...	Wood Carving
Bere Regis	Rev. W. Farrer ...	Wood Carving and Turning
Berkeley	Mr. B. H. Ransford ..	Wood Carving
Beverley	Mrs. A. Reckitt ...	Leather Work
Birtles	Mrs. F. Hibbert ...	Wood Carving
Bisham	Miss A. K. Powell ...	Wood Carving
Blickling	Mrs. Meyrick ...	Carving and "putting Work together"
Blindley Heath ...	Miss E. Deedes ...	Wood Carving
Bolton-on-Swale ...	Hon. Mrs. Carpenter ...	Carving, Inlay and Free-hand Drawing
Bournemouth ...	Miss Wingfield Digby ...	Repoussé Work
Bowdon	Mrs. H. Winstanley ...	Wood Carving
Bradford	Mr. Chas. Haigh ...	Cabinet Making, Wood Carving, Joinery, and Brass Finishing
Brant Broughton ...	Mr. F. Coldron ...	Bent-iron Work
Bolton	Mrs. Reynolds ...	Wood Carving
Brenchley	Miss Jessie Philpott ...	Wood Carving
Brinscombe	Mr. E. E. Evans ...	Wood Carving
Bromborough ...	Mrs. Thorburn ...	Wood Carving
Broughton	Rev. G. Johnston ...	Wood Carving
Buckland Abbey ...	Mrs. Phillips ...	Wood Carving, Drawing, Designing, and Joinery
Burwarton	Viscountess Boyne ..	Wood Carving
Bushey Heath ...	Mrs J. C. Murray ...	Wood Carving, and Drawing
Buxhall	Miss M. Hill ...	Wood Carving
Caerleon	Mrs. Roberts ...	Smocking, Baskets Embroidery, and Drawn Thread Work
Cambridge	Miss Pertz ...	Wood Carving and Car-pentering
Campsea Ash ..	Miss Lowther ...	Wood Carving
Carleton	Mrs McCombe ...	Wood Carving
Castletown	Miss Gell ...	Wood Carving, Relief and Chip Carving, and Drawing
Cheltenham	Miss Pidcock ...	Wood Carving, Bent-iron Work, and Chip Carving
Chesterfield	Mrs. D. H. Davies ...	Bent Iron
Chislehurst	Mr. E. S. Allen ...	Wood Carving
Cockfosters, New Barnet	The Misses Warren ...	Wood Carving
Colne Engaine ..	Miss Courtauld ...	Wood Carving

Place.	Name of Party Responsible for the Class.	Class of Work Done.
Cowbit	Miss U. K. Dove ...	Wood Carving
Cromford	Miss Prince ...	Wood Carving
Crowborough ..	Mr. W. S. Dier ...	Metal Repoussé Work
Datchet	The Misses Felix Palmer	Smocking and Embroidery, Greek Lace
Devonport	Miss M. Boger ...	Wood Carving
Ditton Priors ...	Viscountess Boyne ...	Wood Carving
Drayton	Miss A. E. Maude ...	Wrought Ironwork
East Malling ..	Mrs. Baillie ...	Chip Carving
Edgeworth	Miss A. E. F. Barlow...	Drawing and a little Basket Making
Ellesmere	Mrs. Jebb ..	Wood Carving and Leather Work
Epsom	Mrs. Braithwaite ...	Wood Carving, Relief, and Chip Carving
Evesham	Miss Davis ...	Swedish Carving, Relief Carving, and Fret Sawing
Exeter	Mr. Frederick Smith ...	Repoussé Brass and Copper Work
Failand	The Misses Fry ..	Leather Work, Baskets, and Drawing
Fenny Bentley ...	Rev. R. K. Bolton ...	Wood Carving
Fringford	Miss M. C. Coker ..	Wood Carving
Gainford by Darlington	Miss Atkinson ..	Wood Carving
Gainsborough ...	Alderman Jas. Marshall	Wood Carving and Sloyd
Gotherington and Bishop's Cleeve	Miss G. Osborne ...	Wood Carving
Grantham	Miss Bradshaw ...	Art Needlework, Carving in Wood, Fancy Basket Work, and Bent Iron Work
Greystoke	Lady M. Howard ...	Wood Carving
Guildford	Miss A. Moody ..	Wood Carving, &c.
Hainault	Mrs. F. Green ..	Carving, Leather Work, Bent Iron, and Mosaic
Hedgerley Park ..	The Misses Stevenson ...	Wood Carving
Hildenboro'	Miss K. Johnson ...	Wood Carving
Hillingdon	Rev. H. J. E. Burrell	Wood Carving
Hitcham	Miss M. March Phillips	Wood Carving
Hound House (Surrey)	Mrs H. Edlmann ..	Carving and Drawing
Iddesleigh	Miss M. M. Arnold ...	Chip, and Relief Carving
Kendal	Mr. A. W. Simpson ..	Wood Carving

Place.	Name of Party Responsible for the Class.	Class of Work Done.
Keswick	Mr. J. W. Oddie	Repoussé Work
Keswick	Mrs Rawnsley	Sheet Metal Work, Repoussé and Wood Carving, Hand Weav- ing, and Spinning of Flax
Kirkby Lonsdale ...	Mrs. Harris	Wood Carving, Chip Carving, Repoussé Metal Work, Em- bossed Leather Work, and Embroidery
Knotty Ash, Liver- pool	Miss Thompson	Leather Work and Carv- ing
Lamberhurst	Mr. E. W. Hussey	Wood Carving
Langdale	Miss M. A. Smith	Spinning, Weaving, Pillow Lace, and Embroidery
Ledbury	Miss Adeane	Wood Carving
Leeds	Mrs. McCombe	Wood Carving
Leigh... ..	Miss M. A. Heath	Wood Carving
Leighton Buzzard ...	Miss Bassett	Wood Carving, Chip Car- ving, Incised and Tinted Leatherwork
Leatherhead	Miss L. M. Dixon	Relief Carving & Swedish Carving
Lincoln	Rev. R. W. Goodall	Ribbon-ironwork, Wood Carving, and Carpentry
Little Shelford	Miss Eaden	Wood Carving, Bent Iron and Baskets
Longsight	Mr. John Cooper	Wood Carving
Lynchmere	Mrs. Parson	Carving, Mosaic Tiles, and Ironwork
Macclesfield	Mr. Harry Smith	Wood Carving and Car- pentry
Malvern	Dr. H. Salt	Wood Carving
Mayfield	Miss A. B. Irving	Wood Carving, Gilding, and Designing
Milford	Mrs. Marshall	Leather Embossing and Cut Leather Work
Mirfield	Rev. B. Wilson	Wood Carving and Car- pentry
Mortlake	Miss M. Beachcroft	Wood Carving
Newton	Mr. H. W. Hurrell	Metal Repoussé and Iron- work
North Weald	Miss M. Cockerill	Wood Carving, Chip Car- ving and Relief Carving
Nottingham	Miss H. Carey	Wood Carving, Brass- work, Carpentry, and Drawing
Ogbourne	Mrs. Gilmour	Wood Carving and Basket Work
Oxford	Miss E. Bright... ..	Wood Carving

Place.	Name of Party Responsible for the Class.	Class of Work Done.
Painswick	Miss A. Wemyss ...	Carving and Carpentering
Penshurst	Miss Escombe ...	Wood Carving
Poole	Lady Wimborne ...	Carving and Basket Work
Porlock Weir ...	Miss Annie Baker ...	Leather Embossing
Quedgeley	Miss C. Hayward ...	Chip Carving
Quy	Miss Francis	Basket Making
Ragley	Marchioness of Hertford	Wood Carving
Rogate	Miss K. M. Barrow ...	Wood Carving
Rogerthorpe	Miss D. Ramsden ...	Carving
Ruddington	Miss M. I. Sutton ...	Carving, Joinery, and Drawing
Rusthali	Miss Wilson ...	Wood Carving
Ruyton-of-the-Eleven-Towns	Miss Kenyon ...	Wood Carving
Sandbach	Mrs. Kennedy ...	Wood Carving
Sawrey	Miss C. Bridson ...	Wood Carving
Scalby	Mrs. Cooke ...	Wood Carving
Seal and Godden Green	Miss R. Devitt ...	Wood Carving
Southwold	Mr. A. Flower ...	Wood Carving
Stanstead	Hon. Mrs. W. F. Maitland ...	Relief Carving and Fretwork
Southampton ...	Miss A. Bullar ...	Carpentry, Wood Carving, Needlework, and Glove Knitting
Southampton ...	Hon. Mrs. E. Yorke ...	Wood Carving
Springfield	Miss M. S. Holgate ..	Chip Carving
Stevenstone	Lady G. Rolle ...	Wood Carving
Sutton, St. Barnabas	Miss E. S. Parkinson ...	Basketwork, Carpentry, Ironwork, Fretwork, Painting, Carving, and Needlework
Tangmere	Miss M. Glennie ...	Wood Carving
Tenbury	Mrs. Ross ...	Carving, Drawing, Carpentering, and Basket Making
Thorham	Mrs. A. Lyde ...	Toy Making and Art Ironwork
Thornton	Mrs. McCombe ...	Wood Carving
Torquay	Miss G. Fortescue ...	Repoussé Metal Work, Bent Ironwork, and Wood Carving
Ulleskelf	Mrs. McCombe ...	Wood Carving
Welshpool	Miss Corrie ...	Wood Carving
Wentworth	Mrs. Verini ...	Wood Carving
West Firle	Mrs. I. L. Scarlett ...	Wood Carving
Weston-rhyn ...	Mrs. Barnes ...	Wood Carving

Place.	Name of Party Responsible for the Class.	Class of Work Done.
Whitchurch	Mr. S. E. Smith	Wood Carving and Drawing
Whittington	Mrs. G. R. Dyott	Wood Carving, Bent Iron, and Fretwork
Wimhish	Rev. R. J. Walsh	Carpentry and Carving
Woodlands Lodge (Hants.)	Miss Alice Campbell	Deep Carving
Yattendon	Mrs. Waterhouse	Copper and Brass Repoussé and Wood Carving
Aske	Marchioness of Zetland	Carving
Axminster	Mrs. Newman	Leather
Barrington	Rev. J. W. E. Conybeare	Bent Iron
Bilston	Mr. G. H. Sankey	Carving, Brass, Bent Iron
Birkdale	Mr. Jno. Harrison	Carving
Burley-in-Wharfedale	Mr. T. Clark	Wood Carving
Chartham	Miss S. Randolph	Carving
Chester	Miss K. Douglas	Carving
Clapham	Mrs. J. A. Farrer	Bent Iron, Carving
Colton	Rev. F. Parker	Carving
Dover	Rev. E. Tritton	Carving
Eccles	Miss Clarkson	Carving
Hackness	Hon. Edith Johnstone	Carving
Hexham	Miss Blackett	Carpentry
Hixon	Rev. W. H. Briddon	Carving
Hurstpierpoint	Hon. Mrs. Campion	Carving
Ightham	Mrs. C. Fergusson	Carving
Ingatstone	Miss Malcolm	Brass Repoussé, Carving
Merton and Huish	Mr. A. Eames	Carving
Mossley Hill	Miss Harrison	Carving
Nantyderry	Miss C. M. Evans	Chip Carving
New Swindon	Hon. Mrs. M. Ponsonby	Carving
Quex Park	Mrs. Powell Cotton	Carving
Ravenglass	Earl of Erroll	Carving
Risby	Miss L. P. Holden	Brass Repoussé
Selworthy	Rev. F. Hancock	Carving
Shercote	Miss R. Bray	Leatherwork
Skelton in Cleveland	Mrs. Wharton	Carving
Southborough	Miss Bigsby	Carving & Brass Repoussé
Stoke Poges	Mr. J. G. Veitch	Carving
Stourpaine	Miss Watts	Carving, Drawing, Basket Making, Netting
Wellesbourne	Mrs. Lowe	Carving
Wingham	Miss Jenner	Carving
Witley	Mrs. Birket Foster	Carving
West Hartlepool	Miss A. M. Collet	Carving

In most of the places enumerated the class is held in the residence of the person named, or in a convenient outbuilding. Where this is not so, the class is usually held in the school-

room or village hall. Some of the classes exist entirely on orders received. What is to prevent the same being the case with every one of them? And is not such a movement which brings both art into the home and industries into the villages, one deserving of encouragement from every possible quarter?

THE END.

WILLIAM FORD,

Sporting Gun & Rifle Maker,

PRACTICAL GUN FITTER & BARREL BORER.

(Borer of Five Winning Guns in the London Gun Trials. 1875).
(Awarded Gold Medals and Gold Cross for Superiority in Boring Guns
and giving highest penetration on record in 1879.)

**Hammerless Patent Ejector Gun, Side Lock Hammerless
Patent Ejector Gun, Hammerless Breechloader with cross
bolt, Hammer Gun for Trap or Game Shooting.**

The prices of above Guns vary from **15 to 50** Guineas.

SPECIALITIES.

- Ford's "Eclipse" Double Gun. Weight from 4 lb. to 5 lb., as required. Adapted to Elderly Gentlemen and Ladies. From 10 to 45 Guineas.
- Ford's "Surprise" Hammerless Breechloader. A plain, sound gun, upon the best and strongest principle. From 12 to 25 Guineas.
- Ford's "Universal" Gun. Bar or Backwork Action. Plain, no engraving. Weight 6 lb. and upwards. A good, sound, strong, and useful gun for rough wear. From 5 Guineas upwards.
- Ford's Patent "Adjustable" Try Gun, for ascertaining and securing a perfect fit. The only firing Try Gun that will show the cast off at bump and cast on at toe, or *vice versa*, or straight at the bump, and cast off at toe, also showing any peculiarity in aiming, and the exact build of Gun required.
- Guns Tested, Converted, Re-bored, and fitted to any requirement, and upon the most improved principles.
- Barrels Shortened to any required length, and the shooting restored without injuring the gun.
- Difficulty or disappointment with Guns or Shooting effectually remedied, and entire satisfaction guaranteed.
- Private Shooting Grounds for testing, and for Practice and Instruction.

Rifles and Pistols of every description to order. Every variety of Gun-Cases, Imolements, Ammunition, &c Gun repairs skilfully executed. Estimates and quotations upon application.

ILLUSTRATED LIST FREE BY POST. TERMS: CASH WITH ORDER OR BANK REFERENCES.

ECLIPSE GUN WORKS, 15, ST. MARY'S ROW, BIRMINGHAM.

Telegraphic Address: "ECLIPSE, BIRMINGHAM."

Extract from the "Field," of February 24th, 1894.

THE FIT OF GUNS.

Sir,—Observing the correspondence on gun fitting in your columns, I send you my experience, which, I think, is in some respects different from any I have seen mentioned. Commencing shooting somewhat late in life, I found myself an utter failure, though giving it the most earnest attention. I got fitted at different times by two gunmakers of standing, each with try-guns of their own invention, and also spoiled some guns in trying to fit myself, but all to no purpose.

Noticing Mr. William Ford's (of Birmingham) name mentioned in your column, I wrote to him, fully describing my difficulties, and sending him full size and exact drawings of three of my guns, and explaining how each handled, and asking if there was any hope of me becoming an average shot. He replied, that he had no doubt whatever of making me a fair shot, and was so sure that he saw what was wrong, that if he failed he would have nothing for his trouble. I paid him two visits, getting one of my guns re-stocked. He discouraged my ordering a new one, stating that the altered gun was as good a gun as anyone need have, and that if I turned out, after some practice, a good shot, he would bring up the pattern to 200 any time that I wanted. Since then—two years ago—I have had no reason to complain of my shooting. The immediate result was most astonishing. I may say that I have never seen Mr. Ford but on these two occasions but deem it my duty to testify to his ability even after this lapse of time. R.F.C.

G. H. W. DAVIS & CO.,
 EDGBASTON WORKS,
 GOUGH ROAD, Birmingham.

Manufacturers of Cycle Lamps,
 Pedals Inflators, Whisties, &c.

Some of our

LEADING
LAMPS.

"Silvia,"
 10/6;

"Corinthian,"
 13/6;

"Firefly,"
 2/6;

"Searchlight"
 7/6; &c.

The EDGBASTON
 CYCLE LAMP and
 LUBRICATING
 OILS, in 6d. and
 1/- Tins.



Regd. No.
 235452.

THE MOST USEFUL ARTICLE FOR WINTER USE.

Copper Foot *Best Doctor and Preventive of Colds.*
 ————— and **Bed Warmer.**



If filled with boiling water and placed in the bed 2 hours before bed time, it will thoroughly warm it, and water remains hot for washing the next morning.

Price 4/- post free from the makers; larger size, 7/6; if in Tin, 1/3 each, but these do not remain hot so long as copper.

G. H. W. DAVIS & CO.,
 EDGBASTON WORKS,
 GOUGH ROAD, BIRMINGHAM.
 Manufacturers of Cycle Lamps & General Tin Plate Workers.



Davis & Wilson,

TWO AWARDS.

WHOLESALE AND EXPORT

37 & 38, SUN STREET WEST,

Whip and Walking Stick

MANUFACTURERS for all Countries.



and **Birmingham.**



MANUFACTURERS OF
REAL WHALEBONE ROSETTES.

*Sole Proprietors and Makers of the Celebrated
Registered Vulcan Steel-lined Whips.*

WHIPS.

WHIPS.

WHIPS.



TWO AWARDS.

EYRE AND SPOTTISWOODE,
Government and General Publishers,

ALSO AGENTS TO THE NEW ZEALAND GOVERNMENT.

Now Ready, Cloth, 5s. (Post free.)

THE FINANCE ACT, 1894.

SO FAR AS IT RELATES TO

THE ESTATE DUTY AND SUCCESSION DUTY,

WITH NOTES AND INTRODUCTION

By J. E. CRAWFORD MUNRO, Barrister-at-Law.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT ACT, 1894. (Parish and District Councils.)

Price 9s. ; by post, 11s. 6d. The Act has also been reprinted in small 8vo. Price 4d. ; by post, 5d. (very suitable for distribution).

THE JOURNAL OF THE BOARD OF AGRICULTURE. Price

6d. ; by post, 9d. Subscription for the year, 3s.

"The first number contains many articles which agriculturists will find to be of considerable importance, including a resumé of crop prospects abroad."—*Daily Telegraph*.

"It would be difficult to praise it too highly. Agriculturists will find the journal a storehouse of information."—*Black and White*.

MY GARDENER (Illustrated). By H. W. Ward, F.R.H.S., Head Gardener to the Right Hon. the Earl of Radnor, Longford Castle, Salisbury. Price, 2s. 6d. ; by post, 2s. 9d.

"The book is replete with valuable cultural notes indispensable to the millions who are now turning to gardening as a source of pleasure and profit."—*Gardener's Chronicle*.

POTATO CULTURE FOR THE MILLION. By H. W. Ward, F.R.H.S., Head Gardener to the Right Hon. the Earl of Radnor, Longford Castle. Price 3d. ; by post, 4d.

"We may safely say that the pamphlet will be found most useful to potato growers, whether in field or in garden."—*Farmers' Gazette*.

POTATO DISEASE. Report to the President of the Board of Agriculture on Recent Experiments in Checking Potato Disease in the United Kingdom and Abroad. Price 9d. ; by post, 11s. 6d. Further Reports, 5s. 6d. ; by post, 7s.

POTATO DISEASE. Report of Experiments conducted by the Irish Land Commission (Agricultural Department) during the seasons of 1892 and 1893. By post, 4s. 6d.

WILTS. COUNTY COUNCIL TECHNICAL EDUCATION COMMITTEE. Report on Experiments with Potatoes and Onions in Warminster and District, 1893. With Illustrations. Price, 1s. ; by post, 1s. 1s. 6d.

"Cannot fail to be of large and general utility."—*Notts. Guardian*.

"A most interesting report."—*Rural World*.

AGRICULTURAL HOLDINGS ACT, 1883. Price, 1s. 1d.

FERTILISERS AND FEEDING STUFFS ACT. By post, 1s. 6d.

ALLOTMENTS ACT, 1887, 2s. 6d. ; 1890, 1d.

BARBED WIRE ACT, 1893 By post, 1d.

SMALL HOLDINGS ACT, 1892, 2s. 6d. ; Rules under, 2s. 6d. ; Order as to Fees, 1s. 6d.

TITHE ACT, 1891, 2d. ; Rules, 3s. 6d.

FARMING AND LABOUR IN NEW ZEALAND. Compiled by W. B. Perceval, Agent-General for New Zealand. Price 6d. ; by post, 7s. 6d.

Lists on Application. Any Information Given.

LONDON: EAST HARDING STREET, E.C.



114



THE
RURAL
INDUSTRIES
OF
ENGLAND.

F. L. GREEN.

FD
595.112

Perkin
MARLBOROUGH
& Co.