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Martin Ecclestone
Nigel Goose
Terry Gwynne
Andrew Hinde
Roger Schofield
Kevin Schürer
Geoffrey Stevenson
Matthew Woollard

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Articles, notes or letters, which normally should not exceed 5,000 words in length, should be addressed to Dr K. Schürer at the LPS General Office. It is important that material submitted should comply with LPS house style and a leaflet explaining LPS conventions can be obtained from the General Office.

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The LPSS Secretary is Sir David Cooke, Bt, 78 Harlow Terrace, Harrogate, North Yorkshire, HG2 0PN.

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EDITORIAL

More honours!

Two issues ago we were pleased to announce that one of the co-founders of the Cambridge Group, Tony Wrigley, had been awarded a knighthood. This issue carries the news (see p. 7) that Peter Laslett, the other co-founder of the Group was awarded a CBE in the last Honours List. Our congratulations are extended to Peter, who has remained a loyal supporter of the journal and regular contributor since its foundation.

The New Year Honours List also awarded an OBE to Christopher Charlton for 'services to the conservation of the built environment'. This relates to, amongst other activities, his dedicated work on the restoration of Arkwright's mill at Cromford, Derbyshire. As many readers will be aware, Christopher has been a member of the LPS editorial board since the release of the very first issue in 1968. Indeed, he was very instrumental in establishing the journal (or LPS magazine and newsletter as it was originally called!) and providing institutional support for its production and publication via the Department of Adult Education of Nottingham University at Tawney House, Matlock. Although we celebrate in the well-deserved acknowledgement of Christopher's work, we are equally sad to announce that he has chosen this occasion to retire from the LPS editorial board. Christopher has been a tremendous asset to the journal for thirty years and his input will be greatly missed. We wish him all the very best in his future projects.

The editorial board: comings and goings

In addition to the departure of Christopher Charlton the last few months have since a number of other changes to the composition of the editorial board. Also retiring is May Pickles, who has served on the board since 1978, acting as Treasurer for much of that time. As an active and keen supporter of local history and historical demography, acting as tutor for many adult education classes and local groups in her native Yorkshire, May has proved particularly important in representing the 'grass roots' of the LPS readership. In order not to depart too much from tradition the board will continue to meet once a year in Ilkley, a meeting which May has hosted for many years. Hopefully we will be able to look forward to our annual Yorkshire pilgrimage for many years to come!

Joining the board are four new members. Nigel Goose and Andrew Hinde have both been contributors to the journal in the past. Nigel's research interests are wide-ranging and include early modern urban history and historical demography, as well as work on nineteenth-century English economy and society. He has lectured in history at the universities of Sheffield, Exeter and most recently, Hertfordshire, where he is currently Head of Humanities and Director of the Hertfordshire Historical Resources Project. Andrew has
developed research interests in nineteenth-century patterns of fertility, nuptiality and household structure, and has published extensively in these areas. In part, these interests result from the examination of the census enumerators' books which he undertook in relation to the work for his PhD thesis at the University of Sheffield. Andrew currently teaches historical demography in the Department of Social Statistics at the University of Southampton.

Another new member to the editorial board is Martin Ecclestone. Now retired from the Electricity Generating Board where he developed computing systems, Martin has a long held interest in various aspects of archaeology and local history. This interest has recently manifested itself in the form of a part-time MA in Local History undertaken at Bristol University. As part of this degree course, a dissertation was written on the diary production of Glastonbury Abbey during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries.

The fourth new member of the editorial team is Matthew Woollard, who is currently employed as a Research Officer to the Leverhulme-funded nineteenth-century censuses collection project in the Department of History, University of Essex. A key component of his work on this project is to classify and code all of the occupational titles given in the 1881 census database, some three million unique occupation descriptions in all – no small task! Matthew is also undertaking research on poverty in Bristol in the interwar period and currently serves as Secretary to the UK branch of the Association for History and Computing.

Census volume now out

In the last editorial of LPS we announced that a new supplement entitled *Local communities in the Victorian census enumerators' books*, edited by D. Mills and K. Schürer, was to be published shortly. Unfortunately, this took rather longer to emerge from the printers than we had originally hoped. However, we are pleased to inform readers that the volume is now available. With 32 chapters, divided into six thematic parts, it is expected that the book will appeal to a wide audience. Its readership will encompass those studying the CEBs in universities, colleges and schools, as well as family and local historians engaged in the investigation of particular communities. The summary contents of the new supplement is as follows (for full details see LPS 57):

Introduction
Part I The enumeration process
Part II – Population and demography
Part III – Employment and occupations
Part IV – Migration and population turnover
Part V – Family and household structure
Part VI – Residential patterns
Accumulative Bibliography
Supplementary Bibliography
Index
Published with support from the Marc Fitch Fund, the volume is available from the LPS General Office, Department of History, University of Essex, Colchester, CO4 3SQ, for £12.50, plus £2.50 p&p (cheques should be made payable to Local Population Studies). Members of LPSS can purchase the volume at a discounted price via the Local Population History Book Club (see p.9). Alternatively, the new volume can be ordered from good book shops. The full bibliographic reference for the volume is: D. R. Mills and K. Schürer, eds Local communities in the Victorian census enumerators' books, (Leopard’s Head Press, Oxford, 1996). ISBN 0 904920 33 X. Price £12.50.

We apologise to all those who placed orders for the volume in advance of publication and were kept waiting longer than we had anticipated.

April, 1997

Tom Arkell
Martin Ecclestone
Nigel Goose
Terry Gwynne
Andrew Hinde
Roger Schofield
Kevin Schürer
Geoffrey Stevenson
Matthew Woollard
NEWS FROM THE CAMBRIDGE GROUP FOR THE HISTORY OF POPULATION AND SOCIAL STRUCTURE

Honours

In the Spring issue in 1996 we carried the news that Tony Wrigley, one of the two founders of the Cambridge Group had been awarded a knighthood for his services to historical demography. Now we can state that the New Year Honour’s List for 1997 revealed that Peter Laslett, the second founder of the Group, was to be offered the CBE (a Commander of the Most Excellent Order of the British Empire, in the Civil Division) for his ‘services to the Cambridge Group’. We take especial pride in this citation; just think of how many organisations he has been connected with and which could have been cited in this connection! We look forward to his continued, and fertile, collaboration with the Group.

Cambridge Group publications

The Group’s long-awaited new book, *English population history from family reconstitution 1580-1837*, went to Cambridge University Press at the beginning of 1996, but it has taken rather longer to make its way through to publication than had originally been hoped. However, it is now finally to appear in June of this year. In view of its size, at over 650 pages only slightly shorter than *The population history of England*, it is something of a relief that its price, at £50, though scarcely a ‘snip’, is a less formidable barrier to the prospective purchaser than might have been feared, especially in view of the fact that the price of its predecessor, which was published as long ago as 1981, was set at £45!

A brief résumé of the contents of the new volume was given in the News from the Cambridge Group in the LPS of Autumn 1995, and so need not be repeated. It may be of interest to mention, however, that two closely related articles article should appear in the course of the next year or so. The first, to be published in the *Historical Journal*, will survey the question of the reliability of the findings contained in the book. This issue is dealt with quite extensively in the book itself, but the description of the testing of various aspects of the question are scattered throughout the volume. The article attempts to confront the general problems systematically, and discusses the several reasons which have been advanced for time to time, both to be sceptical of the reliability of the empirical material drawn from the parish registers, which underlies everything else, and to query the reliance which can be placed on the techniques of data processing and analysis, which are then applied to the raw data.
The second, more recently completed and not as yet submitted for publication, article offers an explanation for a phenomenon described in the book, but for which at the time the authors could provide no satisfactory explanation. This concerns the steady and substantial rise in marital fertility which occurred in the 'long' eighteenth century form c.1680 to c.1810. This rise has certain significant, but initially puzzling, features. For example, it was more pronounced among older women than amongst those in their twenties, and it was most marked among those who were long married. While conclusive direct evidence does not exist to settle the matter, it now appears overwhelmingly probable that the change was not due to any change in the rate at which children were conceived, but to a very marked reduction in the loss of life during the third trimester of pregnancy. Stillbirths were a common feature of life in the past and any marked reduction in their incidence must, by definition, imply a matching increase in the number of births. The detailed arguments which justify this explanation are too complex to summarise briefly, but it is to be hoped that the publication of this article will encourage any local historian who is aware of information bearing directly, or indirectly, on the prevalence of stillbirth in the past to devote attention to the question.
NEWS FROM THE LOCAL POPULATION STUDIES SOCIETY

Forthcoming conferences and day schools

Saturday June 21, 1997 LONDON day school, at the Institute of Historical Research, University of London, aimed especially at the Open University’s students on the course Studying family and community history: nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Everyone is welcome, of course! Under the title of Portraying the community we shall be looking at four different approaches to portraying our past (nominal record linkage, oral history, film and computer aided enquiry). There will be a rare opportunity to see a film on Famine in Russia, 1921, which was made at the time. These day schools have proved very popular in the past: people have actually been turned away! The price is £15 or £20 if buffet lunch is included. So book early. Further details are available now (STAMPED-ADDRESSED ENVELOPE PLEASE) from Christine Jones, 54 Hardinge Road, Kensal Rise, London, NW10 3PJ.

September 19–21, 1997 residential weekend conference at Madingley Hall, Madingley, Cambridge, CB3 8AQ. The conference is a joint venture with the University of Cambridge Board of Continuing Education. Its title is From spinners to drapers – a study of textile workers and their communities. The conference features talks, demonstrations and film. For details and applications form please write to the Cambridge Board of Continuing Education at their Madingley address given above. The price is £117.

Saturday 15 November, 1997. Another joint venture, this time with the Yorkshire Archaeological Society. The title for the day is Yorkshire people on the move. David Hey will speak on ‘Distinctive Yorkshire surnames: Tykes and who stayed put’; Christine Hallas on ‘Where from and whither? Northern Dales’ people on the move’. There will also be shorter presentations of projects completed by students of the Open University courses Studying family and community history: nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The venue is the Yorkshire Archaeological Society’s eighteenth-century premises at Claremont, 23 Clarendon Road, Leeds. The price is £12 plus £7 for a buffet lunch. There is nowhere near Claremont where packed lunches can be brought so if you don’t want the buffet lunch, don’t forget to bring your own! For details and application form please write (STAMPED-ADDRESS ENVELOPE PLEASE) to May Pickles, 2 Manor Rise, Ben Rhydding, Ilkley, LS29 8QQ.

Local Population History Book Club

In addition to running bookstalls at nearly all LPSS conferences, and at occasional local history fairs, the LPH Book Club runs a full postal service, supplying copies of about 90 titles on demographic, social and economic history.
Why buy from us rather than from a book shop?

1. We can offer all the advantages of a specialised bookseller - indeed, we are the only specialised bookseller operating in this field. Some of our titles are the products of small, specialist publishers and can be obtained from conventional book shops only with delay and inconvenience, if at all. By purchasing from such suppliers, it sometimes happens that we hold the last new stocks of a publication which are commercially available anywhere.

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Price List – this list accurate as of 16 April 1997

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The following list updates that printed in LPSS Newsletter 20. Recent additions to the Club’s list include Edward Higgs’ A clearer sense of the census. The Victorian censuses and historical research at £9.55 (published price £11.95); Michael Williams’ Researching local history: the human journey at £11.99 (published price £14.99) and David Gatley’s Hanley in 1851 revisited: a survey based on the census returns at £4.80 (published price £6.00). The latest additions to the list are D. R. Mills and K. Schürer, Local communities in the Victorian census enumerators’ books, (Leopard’s Head Press, Oxford, 1996) and A. Lawes, Chancery Lane 1377-1977, “The Strong Box of the Empire”, (PRO Publications, Kew, 1996). We will sell copies of Mills and Schürer at £10.00, and copies of Lawes at £6.00, both plus postage.

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E.A. Wrigley  Continuity, Chance and Change  £7.15

And on microfiche:-
Society of Genealogists  Essex Hearth Tax 1662  £6.55
Society of Genealogists  Hales Court Rolls 1270–1307  £8.00

Local Population Studies Society Publications

Getting into community history (now in its second printing) with essays by Michael Drake, Mary Hodges, Dennis Mills and Diana Rau provides a down-to-earth, no nonsense approach to the practicalities, the problems and the promise of community history, £2.50 (including postage and packing).

The Bonfire societies of Lewes, 1800–1913: a study in nominal record linkage by Jim Etherington shows one way of going about nominal record linkage (a technique few know much about and fewer still have attempted) and in doing so casts new light on elements of conflict and cohesion in a local community. £2.95 (including postage and packing).
Both publications are available from Dr D. A. Gatley, 114 Thorton Road, Shelton, Stoke-on-Trent, Staffordshire, ST4 2BD. Please send a cheque or postal order (it is not possible to deal with invoices). For special deals on multiple copies please write to Dr Gatley at the above address.

Local Population Studies Society Newsletter 20

This bumper issue (the Society, incidentally, publishes two newsletters each year) contains a fascinating piece by Peter Franklin Peasant prosperity before the plague and notes by Dennis Mills (The 1831 census) and David Gatley (An electronic microfilm reader – he wants someone to develop one!), together with reviews of the books by Williams and Higgs mentioned in the Book Club News above and one of Maxine Berg’s A women in history: Eileen Power, 1889–1940. The usual conference reports, letters to the editor, forthcoming meetings and a questionnaire complete this fascinating issue.

Membership and subscriptions

Members of LPSS receive the LPS journal and the Newsletters, as well as membership of the Book Club and advance details of forthcoming conferences. The annual subscription of £10.00 for students, £12.00 for ordinary members and £15.00 for members living outside the European Union. Our membership secretary is Sir David Cooke, Bt, 78 Harlow Terrace, Harrogate, HG2 8AW. If you are already a member and pay by Banker’s Order, please check that you are paying the correct current subscription.
THE MORTALITY CRISIS OF 1623 IN NORTH-WEST ENGLAND

S. Scott and C. J. Duncan

Susan Scott obtained her Ph.D. from Liverpool University and her thesis was concerned with the demographic history of the parish of Penrith, Cumbria, 1557–1812. C. J. Duncan holds the Chair of Zoology at Liverpool University and their joint interests include population modelling, mortality crises in North West England and the historical epidemiology of infectious diseases.

The mortality crisis of 1623 was mainly confined to the north and north-west of England with only a few scattered outbreaks elsewhere in the country. Rogers’ analysis of over 80 parishes in Lancashire showed that burials in 1623 were more than twice the average of the decade and Millward’s study of Stockport, a large Cheshire parish of 14 townships, also revealed a substantial increase. The crisis was widespread in Cumberland and Westmorland and was particularly severe in Scotland, where losses were estimated to be in excess of 10 per cent of the total population for Dumfries and over 20 per cent for Dunfermline, which is considerably more than the 5 per cent calculated for Lancashire. Only average, or slightly above average, burials, however, were found for some West Yorkshire and Mid-Wharfedale areas.

Plague was not mentioned in the parish records or in State Papers (as occurred during the outbreak of the disease in 1598–1599) to account for the marked rise in burials, and there is little evidence to suggest the presence of other highly infectious diseases; for instance, smallpox or scarlet fever would have caused a large proportion of child deaths, and epidemics of typhoid, typhus or consumption would take a heavier toll of adults. In addition, the concomitant fall in the number of baptisms and the increase in economically marginal deaths, i.e. deaths of vagrants, paupers, widows, the elderly and children, led Appleby to suggest that a failure of subsistence was the most likely cause of the crisis. To support this conclusion, there were various reports at this time of the great distress following the recent crop failure. Although the harvest of 1622 was not especially deficient, the Mayor of York described the scarcity of corn as being ‘greater than ever known in the memory of man’ and in Scotland, there were reports that many had ‘died in the streets and on highway sydes, for verie want of food, famished’ and ‘there was a great death of persons of all rankes, but speciallye of the poor, which dyed through famine in the fields and the hie wayes’. The burial records of Greystoke in Cumberland also provide evidence of famine conditions with the following descriptions: ‘A poor hunger starved beggar child’ and ‘a poor man destitute of means to live’ and a ‘child died for wont of food’.
One of the problems for an historical study of the effects of famine conditions on population dynamics is the dearth of appropriate and accurate data. However, a family reconstitution study has been carried out for the parish of Penrith (1557–1812) which is situated in the Eden Valley, Cumberland, 10 miles from the parish of Greystoke. This powerful technique has considerably expanded the scope of historical demography and yields detailed and important data on, for instance, age at marriage, fertility measures, expectation of life at birth, and infant and child mortality rates. The first part of this paper uses the demographic data assembled from the reconstitution of the community at Penrith to assess the scale of mortality, the age and sex composition of deaths and the fertility responses during the crisis period and makes comparisons with available information for modern-day famines.

Various factors have been suggested to explain why some areas were more vulnerable to a subsistence crisis in the north-west of England; for instance, not only was the harvest deficient in 1622 but falling wool prices brought about a collapse of earning power in the clothing industries. Appleby emphasized the power of the former for the rise in the number of burials in Cumberland and Westmorland whilst, in Lancashire, it was either the effects of the latter or, where some parishes did not suffer from high mortality, it was because sources of income other than from agriculture may have helped to mitigate the ill effects of both factors. However, an effective assessment of regions and parishes affected during the crisis is difficult because of the different methods of aggregation used in previous studies; for example, Rogers used the old style of dating whereas Appleby used the new calendar year. The second part of this paper, therefore, begins with an analysis of the crisis for other parishes in Cumberland, Westmorland, Lancashire and West Yorkshire using the same criteria of assessment and then suggests the dominant factors that may have been responsible for the variation in severity of mortality experienced by different regions.

The demographic impact of famine at Penrith

Baptisms and Marriages

At Penrith, the crisis affected baptisms for two years only; the mean numbers of annual baptisms were 36 in 1623 and 41 in 1624 (the usual average was 57), but there was a return to the pre-crisis level by 1625. The greatest fall in baptisms occurred in the last three months of 1623 when the number of burials were beginning to decline and this suggests that conceptions may have been inhibited during a period of chronic food shortage. Declines in fertility have been observed when grain prices were high and food in short supply as when cities were blockaded during World War I and II and during the Bangladesh famines. The most likely reason was severe food deprivation on reproductive fertility and the result of decreased coital frequency. It must be noted, however, that falls in fertility can also occur during periods of epidemic disease in years of average, or below average, grain prices.
The average birth intervals for all children before and after the crisis were almost identical i.e. 29 months for 1613-1620 and 29.3 months for 1624-1633. The average intervals from marriage to the birth of the first child for pre- and post-crisis were 14 months and 16 months respectively but these differences were not statistically significant.

The average number of marriages per year for 1611 to 1621 was 18; this fell to 11 in 1622 but recovered to 16 in 1623 and rose to 27 in 1624. Since the mean annual number of marriages remained the same over three years, it is not surprising that a return to the pre-crisis birth rate emerged so quickly.

**Mortality**

A total of 241 burials were recorded in Penrith of which 64 were men, 85 women and 92 children, and it is estimated that approximately 20 per cent of the population may have died at this time. There is no comparable evidence in the burial records as seen at Greystoke to suggest death because of starvation, but there was a rise in the number of economically marginal deaths; burials of paupers in the preceding decade averaged 4 per cent whereas they numbered 16 per cent in 1622 and 17 per cent in 1623. The number of deaths of strangers also rose in 1623, but there was no increase in the proportion of widows dying although there was a small rise in the number of spinsters.

There is little sign of several members of one family dying within a short span. An investigation of the plague outbreak in 1597-1598 at Penrith has shown that of the 242 families affected, 43 per cent of families suffered one death, 32 per cent two deaths, and 14 per cent three deaths. Furthermore, when a second death occurred in the same family it was often on the same day or a day or two following. In contrast, of the 131 families of Penrith that suffered a death in 1623, 79 per cent had only one fatality, and only 19 per cent had two deaths. When two deaths occurred in one family, it was often the death of a mother followed quickly by the death of a young child; for instance, Susan Hall and two days later her daughter of 11 days; Marian Jamieson and her youngest child (aged 1) 18 days later; Janet Sympson with the death of her youngest son (aged 2) after 10 days; and Agnes Stewardson who died on 11 September immediately followed by the death of her unbaptised infant. In fact, 27 per cent of families lost only their youngest child which would suggest that young children were particularly vulnerable. The average interval between deaths in the same family was 46 days which, again, suggests that the cause of the mortality was not an infectious disease.

**Age- and Sex-Specific Mortality at Penrith**

In order to identify and assess changes in mortality at Penrith during the crisis of 1623, it is necessary to state what is meant by ‘normal’ mortality. This is taken to be the average number of deaths for all years between 1600 and 1649, excluding 1623. During this cohort, mortality for infants and young children was high and, in most years, deaths of children aged less than five years accounted for nearly 40 per cent of all deaths. Infant mortality at this time was 250 per 1000 live births.
Table 1  Number of deaths by sex and age group at Penrith in 1623 and during normal years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age groups</th>
<th>1600–49 (1)</th>
<th>Male 1623 (2)</th>
<th>Ratio (2)/(1)</th>
<th>1600–49 (1)</th>
<th>Female 1623 (2)</th>
<th>Ratio (2)/(1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1–4</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5–9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10–19</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20–49</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50+</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The age at death was established for 134 of those who died in 1623, i.e. 57 per cent of all burials. It is possible that a number of those who were buried were non-residents being vagrants and beggars.

Table 1 shows the number of deaths by sex and age group at Penrith in normal years (column 1) and in 1623 (column 2). It is apparent that, although each age group was affected, the percentage increase was not uniform. What distinguished the mortality pattern in 1623 was the great increase in deaths of children in the 5–9 age group, with burials increased by seven-fold for boys and five-fold for girls. In normal years, mortality in this group was relatively low. Female teenagers also experienced a greater rise in mortality than males of a comparable age but, in all other age groups, the differences between the sexes were not important.

**Infant Mortality during 1623**

It is fundamental to geographical studies that infant deaths are indicators of any adverse circumstances and thus deserve closer attention during this crisis period. From the analysis above, it would appear that infant mortality increased much less than mortality in other age groups but, when the period 1615–1628 at Penrith is examined in more detail, following the fate of the children born in each year, it is apparent that infants did not, as first appeared, escape lightly.

In Table 2, the age-specific mortality of infants and children have been classified by the year of birth so that it is possible to trace the fates of children born in each year by following along the respective lines. For example, of the children born in 1615–1617 21 per cent died as infants, 5.5 per cent died as 1–year olds in 1616–1618, and 6.1 per cent died as 2 to 5 year olds between 1617 and 1622. There were 48 births in 1622 (close to the mean annual value of 51 derived from family reconstitution studies for this period) and, although wheat prices rose sharply in that year and remained high for 1623, infant mortality remained low (18.8 per cent). However, infant mortality in the following year rose dramatically and 50 per cent of those born died in the first year of life, but none of those who survived the first year of life died in the parish up to age 15 years. The results for
Table 2  Age-specific mortality for births at Penrith

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Average wheat per quarter price (shillings)</th>
<th>Total n. of Baptisms</th>
<th>Age-specific childhood mortality (% of births)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Infant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1615–17</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1622</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1623</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1624–28</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1623, therefore, suggest the possible deleterious effects of high wheat prices during pregnancy in 1622 which may subsequently have caused severe infant mortality. Table 2 shows that high wheat prices also had a direct effect on the mortality of very young children: 16.7 per cent of the children born in 1622 died in their second year of life, i.e. during the famine of 1623. Conversely, 1624–28 was a period of lower wheat prices, and there was a rise in the mean annual number of births and marriages. There was a concomitant decline in infant mortality and a return to the same pattern of mortality for the other age groups.

In conclusion, deaths during the crisis at Penrith did not rise equally at all ages and the greatest rise occurred for infants and for children aged 5–9 years (see Table 1). Again, this pattern is similar to the events found in the 1974–1975 Bangladesh famine when mortality risks were greater for infants aged 1–11 months, for children aged 5–9 and adults over 45 years, and was also observed during the Indian famine at Mysore in 1876–1878.

At Penrith, high wheat prices during pregnancy may have caused subsequent severe infant mortality. However, children of the famine who survived infancy did not appear to be at special risk (see Table 2) and this observation is in accord with a previously published study on the effect of famine conditions which found that these children had a better survival during the first two decades of life. It must be remembered though that these results do not differentiate between social classes and it is possible that the majority of births at this time were to those who were less affected by the famine. Many of the foetuses of the poorer classes may have aborted pre-term because of poor nutrition and stress during pregnancy.

However, although the community characteristics of mortality at Penrith in 1623 are similar to those that have been observed in famines throughout the world, the estimated loss in population (20 per cent) was far less. For instance, in Bangladesh there was an estimated increase of 39 per cent over normal mortality for the famine in 1971–1972 and 58 per cent for the famine of 1974–1975. It is also less than the 52 per cent rise in burials estimated to have occurred in England in 1597, another year of widespread scarcity.
A comparison of crisis mortalities in the north-west of England

The foregoing has described the harsh conditions that prevailed at Penrith during the crisis but how far does this parish reflect the conditions experienced by other parishes? An aggregative analysis has been undertaken of 25 parishes from the north-west of England between 1613 and 1624; they were chosen because they represent a reasonable cross section: Penrith, Cartmel, Lancaster, Poulton-le-Fylde, Whalley, Brough and Kendal were all market towns, Newbiggin and Cliburn were small parishes and Greystoke represents a large, scattered community. North Meols is situated on the coast, and Ingleton and Thornton-in-Lonsdale are on the upland side of the Pennines. The parish registers for these parishes have been published and the records appeared complete and to contain sufficient information to enable an elementary assessment of infant mortality which, as shown above, is a particularly useful and sensitive indicator of hardship. In the absence of the more reliable family reconstitution data, however, the infant mortality rate has had to be calculated from the aggregative analysis data as the number of deaths occurring within a year of baptism as a percentage of live births. This will underestimate the true rate as it does not take into account the deaths of infants who migrated from the parish during the first year of life or those who died before christening. Annual baptisms, marriages and burials were counted for 1 January to 31 December for each year and the crisis mortality ratios (CMR) were calculated as the number of burials in 1623 as a ratio of the mean for the preceding decade.¹⁹ The statistical techniques of simple and multiple regression analysis were computed using MINITAB, a statistical package, and run on an IBM personal computer. Table 3 shows the results of this analysis and it can be seen that the parishes of Cumberland and Westmorland suffered more severely: Bridekirk and Crosthwaite experienced a rise in mortality that was 6–7 times greater than that for the previous decade, whereas five parishes (the upland settlements of Thornton-on-Lonsdale and Ingleton and three south Lancashire communities) appeared to have escaped relatively unscathed (Table 3).

The adult to child burial ratio showed that adult burials usually exceeded child burials in the decade preceding the crisis period. But, in 1623, there was a change to this pattern and, particularly for the northern parishes in the study, the proportion of children dying increased markedly. Two determining factors that have been suggested in the occurrence of crisis mortality were, firstly, the density of settlement, with market towns and the adjacent parishes experiencing higher than average incidence and, secondly, altitude with lower crisis rates being found for parishes more than 300 ft above sea level.²⁰ However, regression analysis shows that there was no statistical significance between the CMR for the parishes in the present study that encompassed market towns nor was there any correlation with altitude, a finding that supports the work of Long and Pickles who found that parishes of high altitude in Yorkshire at this time did not suffer particularly high mortality.²¹

As the two northern-most counties displayed particularly high mortality, the CMR for total burials was also analyzed with latitude and, although there was a positive, significant association between all parishes and the degree of latitude (p = 0.041), it was evident that there was a dividing line, located approximately
### Table 3  Comparison of events in 1623 with events in the preceding decade in 25 parishes in north-west England

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parish</th>
<th>Average n. of events p.a. for decade preceding 1623</th>
<th>Events in 1623</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) (10)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bridekirk, C.</td>
<td>31 13 3.5 6.2 5.9 6.8 45 300 1.7 0.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greystoke, C.</td>
<td>44 21 1.6 3.9 5.1 2.6 54 120 2.6 1.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penrith, C.</td>
<td>57 20 3.6 5.1 5.4 4.6 33 230 2.2 0.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crosthwaite, C.</td>
<td>92 10 5.2 6.9 6.2 8.8 44 320 1.8 0.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newbiggin, W.</td>
<td>5 9 2.3 3.4 3.0 4.2 60 730* 1.4 0.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cliburn, W.</td>
<td>4 7 5.4 4.1 3.9 4.7 25 0 3.2 0.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morland, W.</td>
<td>32 9 4.3 4.4 4.4 4.4 41 67 2.7 0.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowther, W.</td>
<td>14 5 7.6 3.8 3.8 4.0 43 120 4.6 0.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warcop, W.</td>
<td>21 10 2.0 4.1 5.9 1.7 53 170 9.0 4.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brough, W.</td>
<td>39 13 3.3 4.2 5.1 2.9 44 100 2.7 0.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crosby Ravensworth, W.</td>
<td>32 10 2.5 4.1 4.2 4.8 35 100 1.5 0.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kendal, W.</td>
<td>257 21 2.4 3.1 3.7 2.5 40 52 2.2 0.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingleton, WY</td>
<td>29 17 2.4 1.8 1.7 2.1 28 29 1.4 0.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cartmel, L.</td>
<td>75 19 2.5 2.8 3.8 1.5 50 32 3.9 1.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usworth, L.</td>
<td>17 18 4.9 4.3 3.8 3.3 0 0 3.1 0.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thornton in Lonsdale, L.</td>
<td>13 15 1.9 1.1 1.5 0.6 27 39 3.9 1.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caton, L.</td>
<td>19 16 4.4 3.0 3.5 2.1 37 56 2.8 0.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lancaster, L.</td>
<td>101 10 2.6 3.1 3.2 3.2 26 40 2.0 0.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cockerton, L.</td>
<td>52 10 2.3 4.5 4.7 4.2 52 168 1.9 0.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poulton-le-Flyde, L.</td>
<td>77 18 1.4 3.4 4.3 2.8 53 89 1.4 0.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whalley, L.</td>
<td>52 21 3.4 2.3 2.7 1.7 17 80 3.5 1.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Meols, L.</td>
<td>21 8 3.1 1.9 2.3 1.1 47 125 6.3 2.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prestwich, L.</td>
<td>48 15 2.8 3.1 3.5 2.5 25 62 2.9 1.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sefton, L.</td>
<td>53 21 2.3 1.5 1.4 1.5 58 114 1.6 0.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walton-on-the-Hill, L.</td>
<td>42 14 3.4 1.3 1.6 1.6 40 122 5.9 1.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>14.0 3.2 3.5 3.8 3.2 39.2 130.6 3.0 1.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>5.0 1.4 1.4 1.4 1.9 14.1 149.3 1.8 0.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:**

1. (1) = Baptisms  
2. (2) = % Infant mortality, expressed as percentage of live births in that year  
3. (3) = Adult/child ratio  
4. (4) = CMR total  
5. (5) = CMR adult  
6. (6) = CMR child  
7. (7) = % fall in baptisms  
8. (8) = % rise in infant mortality  
9. (9) = Adult/child ratio  
10. (10) = Increased adult/child ratio  

C = Cumbeland  
L = Lancashire  
W = Westmorland  
WY = West Yorkshire  

between southern Westmorland and northern Lancashire, north of which the relationship with latitude was particularly significant (total burials CMR p = 0.002; adult CMR p = 0.004; child CMR p = 0.006). In addition, the percentage fall in baptisms during the crisis experienced by these northern parishes also showed the same positive response (p = 0.035). Conversely, there was no significant correlation between the mortality ratios and baptisms and latitude for the parishes of Lancashire, nor was there any relationship between latitude and the change in adult to child ratio.
Of most interest, perhaps, is the infant mortality rate which showed that, for the decade preceding the crisis year, Lancashire parishes experienced higher rates than the communities in Cumberland and Westmorland, i.e. 15.4 per cent and 12.3 per cent respectively. This is supported by regression analysis: infant mortality was negatively associated with latitude (p = 0.017) but, again, this relationship was most noticeable for the communities of Cumberland and Westmorland i.e. the survival rate for infants in normal years improved significantly from south Westmorland to northern Cumberland (p = 0.003). In 1623, however, a reversal of this trend is apparent and the risks to infants living in the same region now increased from south to north (p = 0.04).

Wheat or wool prices? – the dominant effects on mortality

What factors may have been responsible for this apparent change in fortune for infant mortality during 1623 and could they explain the variations in the level of mortality between the northern and southern parishes of this study? This was not the first time that mortality in the north-west of England had been associated with high grain prices. The counties of Cumberland and Westmorland, in particular, suffered serious shortages of grain with concomitant rises in mortality in 1586–1587 and 1596–1597. Although bigg (a poor variety of barley) and oats were the principal crops grown in the northern province, being more suited to the inclement climate and poor soils, deficient harvests and the resulting rise in wheat prices caused considerable hardship, since the price of all grains moved in synchrony and the poor, in particular, were unable to find an affordable substitute to wheat amongst the cheaper grains.

The price of grains, however, was not the only factor that could affect the economy. Although the northern farmers grew what grains they could, their livelihood, of necessity, depended more on the breeding of cattle for sale to southern counties, and on the rearing of sheep mainly for wool, although the fleeces were regarded as coarse and of poor quality. Unfortunately, the period of high grain prices in 1622 also coincided with a period of economic depression for the clothing industry; high food prices led to a reduction in purchasing power for other goods, particularly clothing, and the demand for raw wool collapsed. Wool prices fell to the lowest level for many years, thus exacerbating the hardship already caused by higher food prices, particularly for areas whose economy depended on wool. This negative relationship between the state of the grain harvest and movements in wool prices had occurred previously. Figure 1 shows wheat and wool prices for the period 1557 to 1643 and highlights the rising trend in both commodities and, in particular, the coincidence between the peaks in wheat price and the corresponding troughs for wool prices in 1622–1623 and for the other major mortality crises of 1586–1587 and 1596–1597 (arrows).

However, in 1630, when the prices of corn again rose to an excessive price and there was an extraordinary dearth in England, the price of wool dipped only slightly (see Figure 1); there was no accompanying rise in mortality.

Could the synergistic interaction between high wheat prices and low wool prices account for the varying severity of the crisis, with the change in the pattern of
infant mortality depending on the basic economy of the community? An aggregative analysis was made for six parishes (including Penrith, described above) whose records are extant for the period 1587–1643 so encompassing the three major mortality crises. Table 4 shows the parishes listed in order of latitude and, consequently, in order of severity of crisis in 1623. The first two columns show the regression results of adult and child mortality versus wheat and wool index numbers by simple regression analysis. The third column shows the results of multiple regression of mortality when both factors (wheat and wool) are combined.

At Penrith, mortality was particularly sensitive to high wheat prices but adults were also adversely influenced by low wool prices. When high wheat and low wool prices synchronized, however, there was a highly significant association with raised mortality for children (particularly infants) and adults.

For the upland parishes of Crosthwaite and Crosby Ravensworth (Table 4), low wool prices had the most important influence but, like Penrith, the combined effect with high wheat prices is very marked. However, adult mortality showed a significant response at Cartmel and Thornton-in-Lonsdale; the former to both wheat and wool prices, the latter only to wheat prices, whereas children at Walton-on-the-Hill were adversely affected by the price movements of both
Table 4 Regression analysis of wheat and wool index numbers with mortality in north-west England

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parish</th>
<th>Simple Regression</th>
<th>Multiple Regression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High wheat index nos</td>
<td>Low wool index nos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penrith, 1587–1643</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult mortality</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Child mortality</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infant mortality</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crosthwaite, 1587–1643</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult mortality</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Child mortality</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crosby Ravensworth, 1587–1643</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult mortality</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Child mortality</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cartmel, 1592–1643</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult mortality</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Child mortality</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thornton-in-Lonsdale, 1587–1643</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Child mortality</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walton-on-the-Hill, 1587–1641</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: NS = not significant

Commodities. Further regression analysis has shown that adult burials at Thornton-in-Lonsdale were also significantly associated with variations in cattle prices (p = 0.013) and all mortalities at Walton-on-the-Hill were linked to the prices of hides (adults p = 0.006; children p < 0.001; data not shown). These factors were not significantly associated with mortality at Penrith, Cartmel, Crosthwaite or Crosby Ravensworth.

It is difficult to explain the differential response of adult and child mortality to wheat and wool prices. Penrith is the only parish for which data is available for infant mortality during this period and this data has been included in Table 4 to illustrate that it was this component of total child mortality where the more significant effects were experienced. Without data on infant mortality for the other parishes, it can only be suggested, tentatively, that child (perhaps more especially infant) mortality in the north-west was particularly sensitive to variations in the price of the agricultural commodities that were most important to the parish economy – grains, wool or cattle products.
The severe mortality experienced by the northern parishes in the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries was, therefore, linked to their relative dependence on wool production. Small farmers and husbandmen were numerous amongst the wool growers and they often existed at the margin of subsistence, requiring an adequate price for their wool to purchase grain on the market, to pay rents and to meet normal everyday expenses. For such regions specialising predominantly in wool production, periods of high wool and low wheat prices, as during the decade, 1613–1622 (see Figure 1), were times of relative plenty, and infant mortality for Cumberland and Westmorland was at a lower level than for the communities in Lancashire (see above). In 1623, however, the double impact of high grain and low wool prices proved disastrous, resulting in chronic food shortages and famine, and the inevitable rise in mortality for all, but especially for infants. In Lancashire, the principal occupation was cattle rearing and fattening, and fewer farmers kept flocks of sheep. Consequently, the farmers there may not have experienced the comparative halcyon periods when wheat prices were low and wool prices high, but neither did they suffer so grievously when the reverse scenario occurred.

After this period of severe depression for the wool industry, some farmers reduced the size of their flocks or ceased their involvement altogether. By the end of the seventeenth century, the Cumberland and Westmorland farmer had moved towards more cattle and less sheep, and Marshall, in his analysis of inventories, found that, between 1667–1750, cattle were the largest single item of possession and of more value than were the sheep. This is supported by an analysis of mortality at Penrith during later periods, 1650–1750; although high wheat prices still exerted a depressing effect on mortality, wool prices were no longer implicated, instead, high beef prices were now significantly associated with burials of infants (p = 0.029) and adults (p = 0.037). Therefore, the synergistic interaction of low wool and high wheat prices could no longer affect mortality so dramatically and famine crises, such as occurred in 1623, were never again experienced in the north-west of England.

NOTES

19. It is difficult to define what classifies as a mortality 'crisis'. One simple method often used is that the number of burials recorded exceeds the usual average during a defined period by a doubling and this procedure has been adopted here. For discussion of the problems of defining a mortality crisis see H. Charbonneau and A. Larose, The Great Mortalities, (Liege, 1979).
22. Appleby, 'Disease or famine', 414.
THE USE OF PUBLISHED POPULATION CENSUS BURGH WARD DATA FOR LOCAL POPULATION STUDIES: DUNDEE, 1901–1971

DAVID GRAHAM

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Introduction

A useful source for local population studies in Scotland is the ward data in the Census of Population. Between 1901 and 1971 the published reports of the Registrar General for Scotland included data for the burgh/city wards. After the 1971 census, the administrative and electoral geography of the country changed. The old burgh/city wards ceased to exist and were replaced by new regional electoral divisions and the district wards contained therein. In 1981 and 1991 postcode sectors replaced wards as the main reporting unit. This paper, therefore, looks only at the information provided in the main published reports between 1901 and 1971. The analysis concentrates on those demographic and social variables which are, as near as is possible, comparable throughout the series and which can form the basis of local population studies. Unfortunately similar information is not available in the published reports for England and Wales.

The reports

Prior to 1951 only very basic information was provided for wards in the published reports. The 1901 tabulation provided figures for separate families, inhabited and uninhabited buildings, total population disaggregated by sex, persons speaking Gaelic only, persons speaking Gaelic and English and rooms with one or more windows. These were given for the nine wards and the city aggregate. No descriptive commentary was provided.

By 1911 the census format had changed, with separate reports for the four cities of Aberdeen, Dundee, Edinburgh and Glasgow and the 32 counties. These reports included data on parish wards and burgh wards. The information was the same as in 1901 without the language data. However, there was a descriptive section on population movement within the city of Dundee by parish ward supported by a table comparing the ward populations between 1901 and 1911. The number of wards remained at nine but there had been boundary changes in all wards and expansion northwards and eastwards.
By 1921 the city had expanded again, eastwards in 1913 and northwards in 1914, and included 11 wards.\textsuperscript{4} Population change at ward level was again shown — this time by burgh ward. Similar information was provided as in 1911, although persons per 100 windowed rooms was already calculated for the user.

The 1931 report again gave data for 11 wards. These had not changed geographically apart from the transfer of land from ward three to ward seven as a result of the Dundee Corporation Confirmation Act, 1927.\textsuperscript{5} Again, a table provided intercensal population change in the burgh wards. Information similar to that given in the 1921 report was provided but extra tabulations on housing were provided and extra commentary on these was included.

The first census after the hiatus in the series caused by the Second World War provided much more detailed information than had hitherto been available at ward level. There had been considerable expansion of Dundee during the two decades and a twelfth ward had been carved out in the centre of the city by 1951. A map of the wards was provided for the first time. This was presented in the form of a shaded map of population increase and decrease. Intercensal comparison could also be readily gauged by means of a table. The information which had been available since 1911 was still presented but additional information included ward population by age, sex and conjugal condition, various tables of household data and information on household amenities. There was extended commentary on the internal social and demographic geography of the city.

The 1961 report also included a base map of the 12 city wards but no variable was shown on this. Intercensal population change at ward level was tabulated. The basic information as outlined in earlier reports was again available from a number of tables. There was more detailed information on housing and households than that provided in 1951, and there was added information on housing tenure. The 1961 report contained considerably less commentary than the 1951 report, and by 1961 the wards had acquired names as well as numbers.

The 1971 report contained the most detailed ward data of any report. A ward base map was provided with only the names and numbers of the wards. Some of these names had changed since 1961. Intercensal population change by ward was not tabulated for the user, but could be calculated from the third table of the report in which the other data, discussed in more detail in this paper, were included. Of the 30 tables in the report, for which data were relevant to Dundee, 18 contained data at city ward level on a wide range of social and demographic topics. There was, however, nothing by way of commentary on the tabulations in the report. This is a pity since, as Hakim has noted, census commentaries can provide valuable additional information in historical research.\textsuperscript{6}

Population distribution and density

One of the most fundamental items of interest in local population studies is population density. Table 1 shows the total population and the population increased at every year to 1961 and thereafter declined. This decline has continued to the present.\textsuperscript{7} Figure 1 shows the city wards for each year under
Figure 1  Dundee wards, 1901–1971

Boundaries
- - - Ward
- - - City

0 1 mile
Figure 1  cont.
study and how the city boundaries expanded mostly northwards and eastwards. Expansion southwards was limited by the Firth of Tay. However, extensive land reclamation during the period can be seen along the shore line to the southwest of the city in ward two.

Ward base maps were only provided in the reports for 1951, 1961 and 1971. Prior to 1951 the base maps had to be constructed from plans supplied by the City of Dundee District Council Library for the years 1900, 1911, 1920 and 1931. It was possible from these to calculate the acreage of the wards and thereby the population density. Ward density data are unavailable before 1951. In 1951 persons per hundred acres were given for each ward. In 1961 data for persons per acre were tabulated and in 1971 for persons per hectare.

The average number of persons per acre in each ward is shown in Table 2. By comparing this with Figure 1 it is clear that overall density in the city declined over time due to significant land acquisition. However, there were marked disparities in the relative densities in each ward. The most densely populated
ward in 1901 was the sixth, in the centre of the city, at 127.9 persons per acre and the highest in 1971 was, again a central ward, the twelfth, with a much reduced density of 41.1 persons per acre. Since the total population of the city was 161,173 in 1901 and 182,204 in 1971, the continued expansion of the city into generally rural areas meant that there was an ever increasing amount of land per person. This, coupled with urban renewal and demolition of slum tenements, meant that average densities decreased in most wards over the decades.

In some wards densities fluctuated. This was the result of boundary changes, as more densely populated areas were incorporated, or of an increase in population numbers due to housing development. The construction of high-rise public housing in the 1950s and 1960s caused an increase in population density in ward three. Considerable expansion of public and private housing during the same period caused densities to increase in ward ten. Between 1951 and 1961 the population of this ward increased by 300 per cent.9

The movement of the populace out of the central wards to the expanding suburbs was noted in most reports. In the 1911 report, in a section called ‘movement of the population within Dundee’, mention is made of the fact that, like Edinburgh and Glasgow, the population of Dundee ‘was tending to leave the older and more central portions, and to move into the more outlying parts’. One notable exception was the third or Lochee ward ‘which though outlying, contains much old building’.9 This was a former textile village of largely Irish immigrants which was incorporated into the urban fabric of the city in the latter half of the nineteenth century.10 Lochee was formally incorporated into the city in 1859.11

The 1931 report noted that the ‘increase in the population has accrued for the most part in the north and northwest portions of the City’.12 This was due to the development of new housing in these areas, particularly in the Mains/Linlathen area (ward five) and Downfield (ward seven).

This decline of population in the inner city wards, and increase in the outlying wards, was again noted in the 1951 report. The Registrar General summarized the process thus: ‘As has been observed in other cities, Dundee seems to have lost population in the older part, lying along riverside and in the heart of the city, and gained population in the areas of new development, which mainly lie outwards from the middle of the city to its northern and western boundaries’.13

Nothing was said about the internal population geography of the city in the 1971 report, since no commentary was provided. However, by 1971 the total population of the city was in decline and the social folly of the outward expansion of public housing was being questioned in Dundee and other cities, and inner city rehabilitation and conservation were increasingly seen as viable alternatives to demolition and outer city expansion.14 Nevertheless, some wards continued to lose population while others gained. Lochee (ward three), Camperdown (ward eight), Douglas (ward ten) and Broughty Ferry (ward eleven) experienced significant increases, while Caird (ward five) showed a very slight increase.15 Hilltown remained the most densely populated ward mainly because of the construction of a number of large multi-storey blocks in a relatively small area and the renovation of many traditional, high-density tenement dwellings.
Table 3  Average number of persons per household, average number of persons per room and average number of rooms per house, city of Dundee, 1901–1971

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Persons per household</th>
<th>Persons per room</th>
<th>Rooms per house</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>2.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>2.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>3.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>3.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: see note 1

Nevertheless, the development of the city during the inter-war and post-war period saw an ‘increasing emphasis on lower-density housing, underlined by the policy of re-housing in peripheral housing schemes people moved from obsolescent areas during the process of urban renewal’ 16. This had the effect of reducing the land to people ratio and was a common feature of urban Scotland at the time, particularly in Glasgow.17

Housing and households

From the reports it is possible to derive the average number of rooms per house, the average number of persons per room and the average number of persons per household. These factors are closely inter-related. Household size tends to be linked with house size. Overcrowding is related to both house size and household size. Table 3 shows how the average household size and average number of persons per room decreased at each census. The increase in the average number of rooms per house can also be seen.

The geography of these phenomena is also mirrored in the overall population distribution and in the nature of housing provision. Until 1951, the largest households tended to be in the more densely populated, industrial wards. These were areas of working class housing where families were larger, due to higher fertility, and where the houses were generally smaller and less expensive. Here, overcrowding was a major problem in the small one- and two-roomed tenement apartments. This general congestion ‘was making central Dundee a dangerous place in which to live’.18 Smaller households were found in the ‘west end’ (wards nine and two) and ward four where larger more expensive housing was more common and where the smaller families of the middle classes predominated.

From 1951, the larger households were to be found in the northern wards due to the development of new, larger, family housing. The central parts of the city were given over to smaller houses designed for smaller households, such as students, the elderly and single persons.
Table 4  Houses of various sizes, city of Dundee, 1911–1971

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>One room</th>
<th>Two rooms</th>
<th>Three rooms</th>
<th>Four rooms</th>
<th>Five rooms</th>
<th>Six rooms</th>
<th>Total in one-six roomed houses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>53.1</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>96.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>51.7</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>95.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>96.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>40.1</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>97.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>97.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>96.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: see note 1.

Prior to World War I, over 60 per cent of Dundee’s housing consisted of only one or two rooms (Table 4). After that war the need to build new housing was paramount, and in 1917 the Corporation planned to meet the shortfall of 6,000 houses by means of public housing. The Logie scheme, started in 1919, was the first of many such inter-war council housing estates. Between 1919 and 1939, a total of 7,014 houses was built in the city. This averaged 351 per annum but was only slightly ahead of the annual loss of 241 through demolition. Thus, although the quality of housing stock was improving, the quantity was not. A further problem was that most of the new housing was too expensive for the average textile worker or labourer. Of the 1,560 applications for council housing in 1926 only 191 came from textile workers and 160 from labourers.  

After World War II the public housing programme was greatly expanded to such an extent that by 1970, 55.6 per cent of housing was public compared with just 25.1 in 1945. Indeed, Dundee had the highest proportion of public housing of the four cities. In 1970 Dundee had 204 houses in the public sector per 1,000 population, compared with 170 in Glasgow, 149 in Aberdeen and 102 in Edinburgh.  

There has been some change in the definition of the terms used to describe households. In 1901 lodgers were counted as separate householders and in 1911 they were included as members of households. This practice continued until 1951 when lodgers were again enumerated separately. The definition of a house remained much the same during the period. Any dwelling with a distinct outside entrance from the street, road, lane, etc. or with a door opening directly into it from a common stair or passage was to be considered a house regardless of the number of households therein. In enumerating rooms in a house, kitchens were counted as rooms, but not kitchenettes, sculleries, recesses, lobbies, bathrooms or landings. Separate tabulations on households sharing dwellings were provided in the reports from 1921 to 1971.
Sex ratios

It is also possible to calculate sex ratios from the published reports. Imbalance of the sexes is largely the result of sex-selective migration and, to a lesser extent, differential mortality. Today, cities in developed countries all favour females. This has not always been the case, however. During much of the nineteenth and early part of the twentieth century, Dundee consistently had an imbalance in favour of females. This was largely a function of its industrial base which was underpinned by textiles — both jute and linen. This fact did not go unrecorded by the Registrar General. The sex imbalance was particularly high when age and conjugal condition were considered. 'Among the unmarried (including widowed and divorced persons) aged 16 years and upwards there are 23,052 males and 39,496 females, giving 171.3 females to every 100 males — a proportion obviously related to the largely female character of the occupations grouped under the textile industry. In 1921 the corresponding ratio was 179.1'. 25 In some west coast towns, where male-dominated heavy industry prevailed, the sex imbalance clearly favoured males. In 1901, in Clydebank and Coatbridge, for example, females accounted for only 46.0 and 45.5 per cent of the population respectively, and in none of the four wards in Clydebank, or the five in Coatbridge, did this reach 50 per cent. 26

Such imbalance of the sexes had far reaching effects on the demographic, social and economic conditions of local areas. Women were often the main or sole earners in Dundee households. The marriage market favoured females and this allowed unmarried women greater scope in choosing a partner. This generated a strong feeling of independence among working women in the city. However, as the textile industry declined so did the ratio of females to males (Table 5). The inter-war economic slump dealt a particularly severe blow to the jute industry which was under increasing pressure from competition from what is now Bangladesh. The number of individual jute manufacturing firms in the city fell from 50 in the early 1920s to 32 in 1939. 27

In 1901 and 1911 the wards in the 'west end' of the city (wards nine and two) had a high female to male ratio because of the presence of textile mills in the area and the presence of considerable numbers of female domestic servants domiciled in the mansions and large houses, belonging to the professional and business classes, which overlooked the Firth of Tay. Lochee also had an excess of females above the city average because of the textile industry there, which included the largest jute mill in the world — that of the Cox family. 28 In the inter-war decades the eastern wards had a significant excess of females. This is because Broughty Ferry was also an area where female, indoor domestic servants lived in large numbers. This was the area where the jute-barons had built their homes but where little of that fibre was processed.

In the post-war decades the pre-war patterns have largely remained the same. This distinct geography of sex differentials was noted in the 1951 report, which stated that the 'proportion of females in the population varied a good deal from ward to ward'. 29 The excess of females in Broughty Ferry was mentioned particularly, but no explanation was offered to account for this. These eastern
Table 5  Female population and employment in textiles, city of Dundee, 1901–1971

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Employment in textiles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>41.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>54.2</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>52.7</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Employment in textiles as a percentage of total employment i.e. males and females.

wards (eleven and ten) continued to have above average levels of excess females, less as the result of domestic servants and more the result of an older age structure in these areas which tends, because of differential mortality, to be female dominated. Ward four, by 1971, was also an area with a high proportion of women again because of an older age structure. This ward was dominated by the Craigie estate which was built in the 1920s, and in which young families were housed. The bulk of the population, in this ward, had therefore aged by this time, and this is reflected in the sex imbalance. The higher than average excess in the western wards can also be explained in terms of an ageing of the population. But this was also the bed-sit area of the city which tended to be dominated by young single females (much as young single females dominated the domestic service industry in the pre-war decades) who moved into the city to work.

Conclusion

This paper has shown that it is possible to trace some major elements of the social and demographic patterns of the Scottish city at a spatial level which allows general comparisons to be made over time. Clearly a more detailed picture can be constructed from a finer resolution, such as the nineteenth century enumerators returns. The ever increasing amount of small area census data available since 1961 also allows for detailed local population studies. Limited though the published ward data are, particularly prior to 1951, they offer a useful insight into the changing social and demographic geography of the Scottish cities, which this example of Dundee demonstrates. What is clear is that socio-demographic factors were inextricably linked with economic and political processes through changes in employment structure and housing policy. The patterns which emerge show how population responded to these shifts which contributed to the patterns of continuity as well as change in the internal geography of the city throughout much of the twentieth century.
NOTES


4. Registrar General (Scotland), Census of Scotland, 1921, 87.

5. Registrar General (Scotland), Census of Scotland, 1931, 88.


9. Registrar General (Scotland), Census of Scotland, 1911, 84.


12. Registrar General (Scotland), Census of Scotland, 1931, 88.

13. Registrar General (Scotland), Census of Scotland, 1951, 5.


15. Registrar General (Scotland), Census 1971, Scotland, Table 3.


21. Registrar General (Scotland), Census of Scotland, 1911, 90.

22. Registrar General (Scotland), Census of Scotland, 1951, 13.


25. Registrar General (Scotland), Census of Scotland, 1931, 89.

26. Registrar General (Scotland), Census of Scotland, 1901, 217.

27. Whatley, Swinfen and Smith, The Life and times, 160.


29. Registrar General (Scotland), Census of Scotland, 1951, 9.

30. See, for example, S. J. Jones, The 1841 census of Dundee, University of Dundee Department of Geography Occasional Paper 3, (Dundee, 1975).

COMPUTERISING THE 1861 CENSUS ABSTRACTS AND VITAL REGISTRATION STATISTICS

David Alan Gatley

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The Victorian Census Abstracts, that is, the printed census volumes, the *Annual Reports of the Registrar General* and the returns of the Poor Law Commissioners are neglected sources in the study of nineteenth-century society. Yet these sources provide the researcher with a wealth of information on matters as diverse as population change, occupational structure, migration, literacy, causes of death and much more for each one of the more than 600 Poor Law Unions or Registration Districts into which England and Wales were divided in the mid-nineteenth century. Limited subsets of these data sources have been made machine-readable by other workers in this field, but until the work described in this paper, no systematic attempt had been made to create a database for most of the available sources for a single year. This has now been completed for the 1861 census.

This paper will examine the value of the database to both researchers and local historians. But, first it will briefly consider the nature of the sources, their accuracy and how they were made machine-readable.

**Structure of the returns**

Details of how the nineteenth-century censuses were structured can be found in a variety of sources. It is sufficient to note that the responsibility for undertaking the 1861 census lay with the General Register Office (GRO) in London. Information in the census abstracts was presented at a number of different levels:

a) England and Wales as a whole;
b) divisions or regions;
c) registration counties;
d) large towns and cities;
e) registration districts;
f) sub-registration districts;
g) places (parishes, townships, chapelries, etc.).

The degree of information published varied at each level, being most detailed at national level and least detailed at the level of the individual place. Our interest,
however, lies in the registration districts, because it was at this level that information for this project was extracted from the census volumes. The registration districts were based upon the Poor Law Unions that had been created in the 1830s. Many of the Poor Law Unions were, in turn, based upon market towns, and included the surrounding parishes which were serviced by their weekly market and other facilities. As the Poor Law Commissioners themselves put it:

The limits of unions which we have found most convenient are those of a circle, taking a market town as a centre, and comprehending those surrounding parishes whose inhabitants are accustomed to resort to the same market. This arrangement was found highly convenient for the weekly attendances of the parish officers, and some portion of the guardians. Some auxiliaries to good management were derived from the town itself.

The number of registration districts, however, grew during the nineteenth century by a process of sub-division and the re-drawing of boundaries. Whilst in 1851 there were 624 of them, by 1861 there were 635.

The tabular results from the 1861 census were published in two key volumes. Volume One contained details of the areas, populations and numbers of houses and buildings in each place (that is, in each parish, township, chapelry, etc.), and a summary table gave the same information for each registration district. Volume Two included the following tables for each registration district: the ages of males and females in five-year age groups; the numbers of boys and girls aged under five; the marital condition of males and females broken down by age group; the occupations of males and females aged 20 and over; the birthplaces of males and females aged under 20, and aged 20 and over; the numbers of blind, deaf and dumb people; and the inmates of workhouses, prisons, lunatic asylums and hospitals.

The Registrar General was also responsible for compiling national statistics of the numbers of births, marriages and deaths that had occurred in each Registration District. These statistics were compiled from the copies of birth, marriage and death certificates sent to the GRO every three months by superintendent registrars. These statistics were published in a series of abstract tables in the Registrar General’s Annual Report. The abstract tables of births, marriages and deaths showed the numbers of legitimate births, illegitimate births, marriages and deaths occurring in each registration district in the preceding twelve months. The abstract marriage table included details of the religious denominations of marriages, the numbers of marriages occurring in each quarter, the marital status of brides and bridegrooms (that is, whether they were single, widowed or divorced), the numbers of brides and bridegrooms who were aged under 21 and the numbers ‘signing’ the marriage register with a mark. The latter can be used as a crude measure of literacy.
To coincide with the 1861 census, the Registrar General published a *Decennial Supplement* which included a series of tables showing the numbers and causes of deaths occurring in each registration district in the previous ten years.

The *Returns of the Poor Law Commissioners* were compiled once every six months from statistics sent to the Central Poor Law Commission by the Boards of Guardians of each Poor Law Union. These figures show the numbers of people in receipt of both indoor and outdoor relief and the numbers of lunatics in each Poor Law Union.⁷

**The accuracy of the printed census abstracts**

At this stage the accuracy of the printed census abstracts will be examined. Inaccuracies in both the ages and birthplaces of individuals in the census enumerators’ books (CEBs) have been reported by, amongst others, Anderson and Perkyns who have traced individuals between censuses.⁸ The fact that the errors occur for the census records of individuals is well known, however, with regard to this work, the fact that the 1861 census reports aggregated the ages of individuals into five-year age bands and reported the *counties of birth* of individuals rather than their specific birthplaces, the published tables are likely to be more accurate than one might suppose given the discrepancies that have been found in the CEBs. First, discrepancies in the ages or the birthplaces of individuals in the CEBs tend to be small. The ages of individuals rarely differ by more than one or two years from those expected, and where differences have been found in their birthplaces they more often than not report places within the same *county*. Second, errors will possibly cancel one another out to some extent. In 1851, the census authorities were reasonably confident about the accuracy of their tables relating to the ages of the population, although some concern was expressed regarding the accuracy of the ages of women in their early twenties.⁹

A more serious limitation of the birthplace data in the printed census volumes relates to the different ways in which the counties were defined in the nineteenth-century censuses. Generally, two different types of county were distinguished: *ancient counties* and *registration counties*. Ancient counties were simply the *civic* or *historic* counties into which England and Wales had for long been divided. In contrast, *registration counties* were defined by simply amalgamating together those registration districts that fell entirely or *mainly* within an *ancient county*. This difference is important because registration districts sometimes crossed county boundaries and were thus located partly within two or more *ancient counties*. Unfortunately the birthplace tables in the 1861 census abstracts record the *ancient counties* of birth of individuals living in each registration district.¹⁰ In consequence, in those instances in which a registration district crossed a county boundary the birthplace tables cannot be used to calculate the proportion of the population who had been born outside the county.

The accuracy of the occupational tables given in the 1861 census abstracts should also be considered. In this census occupations were classified using an extended schema based upon that devised for use in the 1851 census,¹¹ and in total some
425 occupational categories were distinguished on the basis of the materials used by those employed in each category. Higgs has argued that this reflected both the concerns of the Registrar General regarding the health of the population and a belief, at this time, that many illnesses resulted from chemicals contained within the products and other materials with which people worked.12

Several problems faced the Census Office in compiling the occupational tables presented in the published reports, mainly stemming from the inexact nature of the information given in the CEBs. These problems can be summarised under three main heads.13 First, job titles were sometimes only stated vaguely, with little or no information being given on either the industry of employment or the actual job undertaken. Second, it was often difficult to distinguish between dealers and makers. Third, although people were asked to say how many people – if any – they employed they did not always do so. However, neither this nor the previous concern would effect the actual numbers given in the occupational tables. More fundamentally, Higgs has questioned the completeness of the occupational tables relating to women, arguing that the occupations of many married women were not recorded in the census.14 Recently, however, Anderson has argued that the occupations of married women were nowhere near as likely to have been under-enumerated as Higgs has claimed. Using a 2 per cent sample of households for Lancashire drawn from the 1851 CEBs to examine the occupations of women disaggregated by age, marital and parental status and the occupations of husbands, Anderson has concluded that – although some under-enumeration of part-time occupations may have occurred – the occupations of the vast majority of women in full-time employment were almost certainly recorded.15 Moreover, it should also be added that the census authorities implicitly assumed that women married to farmers, innkeepers and husbands engaged in several other trades were assisting their husbands and classified them as such.

The least accurate data collected in the census was the information sought on disabilities (that is, the numbers of people who were blind and deaf and dumb). This question was poorly worded and the replies given have been little used. Higgs cites a study in Wales in which replies included 'unhealthy from birth', 'helpless' and 'not well'.16 Despite these limitations, it is likely that the tables presented in the census volumes provide a reasonably accurate picture of the distribution of the blind and deaf and dumb in the country as a whole, if not their absolute numbers.

Let us now consider the accuracy of the vital registration statistics. It is difficult to know how complete the registration of births was, especially in the decades immediately following the introduction of vital registration. Widespread illiteracy meant that many people were probably unaware of the registration process, and it was only in 1875 that the responsibility for registering births was transferred from registrars to parents. Teitelbaum has calculated that registration was 94 per cent complete in the period 1841–50.17 After this decade registration improved, and was almost complete by the 1880s. Teitelbaum did, however, find pronounced regional variations in his figures, the under-registration of births being most acute in Surrey, Sussex, Middlesex, Shropshire and North Wales. It
also seems probable that some illegitimate births would have gone unregistered.\textsuperscript{18}

The process by which marriage took place, involving either a religious or civil ceremony in front of a minister or registrar and witnesses, makes it highly unlikely that many would have gone unregistered. Some of the information given on marriage certificates is, however, known to be subject to error. Occasionally minors falsified their ages when they were marrying without the consent of their parents. It should also be noted that the signatures on marriage certificates can only be regarded as, at best, a crude measure of literacy.

Because a death certificate was required for the disposal of a corpse, the registration of deaths was far more complete than that of births. In the first decades of registration more than 98 per cent of deaths appear to have been registered, most of the rest being those of young infants.\textsuperscript{19} Problems occur over the accuracy of the information relating to the causes of death. It was only in 1875 that doctors were required to issue certificates detailing causes of deaths, and before this date it is probable that some were incorrectly recorded.\textsuperscript{20}

\textbf{Transcription and database creation}

In undertaking this project, information relating to each of the 635 registration districts in England and Wales was keyed into a computer. The following information was included from the census abstracts:

a) the area of each district, numbers of inhabited and uninhabited dwellings, population totals and numbers of males and females;
b) the ages and marital status of the population;
c) population totals;
d) occupations of males and females aged 20 and over;
e) birthplaces of males and females;
f) disabilities and the institutionalised population.

The information included from the \textit{Registrar General's Annual Report} for 1861, related to:

a) the numbers of births, marriages and deaths in each district;
b) marriage statistics (religion, marital status at time of marriage, literacy, etc.).

In addition, details of the numbers of deaths, causes of deaths and ages at death (both male and female) were extracted from the \textit{Registrar General's Decennial Supplement} for 1861. Finally, the Poor Law statistics which have been entered into the databases are those for July 1861 which were submitted to Parliament approximately three months after that year's census. These show:

a) the numbers in receipt of both indoor and outdoor relief;
b) the numbers of lunatics, in each Poor Law Union.
Accuracy of the database

Throughout the exercise, extreme care was taken to ensure accurate transcription of the data. This was done by summing the totals for each table both vertically – to ensure that the total in each column was equal to the sum at the head or foot – and horizontally – to ensure that the row totals summed up to the total figures for each county. Such a checking procedure was adopted to overcome the problem of compensating errors which cancel one another out.

Accuracy of the compiled sources

An examination of the accuracy of the data contained in the various sources used for this study leads to the overall conclusion that the compilers of the census abstracts achieved a remarkably high degree of accuracy. Very few errors were found in the column totals, and those which were found could usually be traced to printing errors in which the relevant cells in the table were left blank. These were easy to spot and have been corrected. A similar level of accuracy was also found in the Registrar General's Annual Report for 1861. Unfortunately, however, the Registrar General's Decennial Supplement containing details of the ages at and causes of death was found to be somewhat less accurate.

Value of the database to local historians

First, the database brings together material for 1861 which is difficult and time-consuming to obtain because paper copies of the records are not held in all libraries. Moreover, the data have been arranged in an electronic retrieval system in such a way as to make it relatively simple to both read with most database packages, such as Microsoft Works and Access, DBase and Paradox, and to manipulate and generate statistics (e.g. to calculate percentages, proportions, death rates, birth rates, etc.) using a spreadsheet package such as Excel and other statistical packages such as SECOS and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

Second, the database is a useful descriptive tool which allows the researcher to place his or her area of interest into its regional or national context, so making it possible to say to what extent area X might differ from area Y or be atypical of either the region or the country as a whole according to any number of factors, including inward migration, occupational structure, illegitimacy rate, etc. Again, this might take a simple form in which areas are compared on the basis of just one or two factors, or more complex statistical tests might be undertaken based upon factor analysis. For example, Stephens, in his study of literacy of the mid-nineteenth century, used the marriage tables in the Registrar General's Annual Report to look at how the level of literacy varied between registration districts in this period. 21

Another example of how a particular study area might be placed in its national context is given in Figure 1, which shows the numbers of females to every 1,000 males aged 15–29 years in Shrewsbury and the surrounding registration districts.
From this we see that, whilst in Shrewsbury there was a surplus of young women, in Atcham and the surrounding districts there was a shortage of them.

These differences might be explained by the migration of young women from the surrounding countryside into Shrewsbury – which was a market town with a relatively large middle class – to work as domestic servants. A similar situation has been found in a number of other market towns in this period and, indeed, was noted by Ravenstein who studied the processes of migration in the late nineteenth century.22

Third, it is hoped that the database will encourage the standardisation of coding schemes and practices amongst those using the CEBs. Although a considerable amount of worthwhile and important work is being undertaken on the CEBs, researchers tend to work in isolation from one another and often develop coding schemes for occupations and birthplaces which, although, no doubt, excellent for their own purposes, are not readily comparable with those used by other researchers working elsewhere in Britain.23 Much useful work has been done on life and conditions in the nineteenth century in spite of this problem. But it has meant that much recoding and re-ordering of census data has been necessary for comparisons to be drawn between studies undertaken in different parts of the country. One of the advantages of the 1861 database is that the occupational categories have been classified using a modified version of the Booth-Armstrong categories. This schema was originally devised by Booth in the 1880s and it is widely used by other researchers following the work of Armstrong, who advocated its use in an article published in 1972.24 The main advantages in using this schema relate to the facts that: it is widely used by other researchers; a
coding book exists which greatly simplifies its use, and both Booth and Armstrong have published tables which allow researchers to view their findings in a national framework. One limitation of this schema is that farmers' wives, innkeepers' wives, and other wives assumed to be assisting their husbands are re-classified as non-productive workers. This has been reversed in this project.

More importantly, however, birthplaces can be coded according to registration district. To facilitate this, a small file has been created for use as a linked or relational database. This file contains details of a grid reference for a single point within each registration district, together with details of the proportions of men and women employed in a number of key industries. The advantage of using such a linked database to code birthplaces lies in the ability which it gives to append details of his or her birthplace to each individual's census entry in the CEBs. This has two principal applications:

a) To calculate the distances travelled by migrants into a particular area. Since the linked database contains details both of the registration county and the grid references, it is very simple to calculate how far incomers into a study area have moved.

b) An examination of the main socio-economic characteristics of the birthplaces of migrants. The database could be used, for example, to study the extent to which migrants to a large 'iron and steel' town came from other iron or steel towns, or the extent to which 'long-distance' migrants tended to originate from towns and cities, or domestic servants from country districts.

Unfortunately, the linked database cannot be used to study migration within a single registration district. This is important because each registration district contained on average approximately 28 parishes, and it seems likely that a considerable amount of migration in the mid-Victorian period have taken place within registration districts. Nevertheless, the database can be used to study migration between registration districts, as has demonstrated in a recent paper on the study of migration into Hanley in 1851.

A note of caution is necessary here, as the information on birthplaces contained within CEBs does not usually give information on the Registration District of birth — the researcher will have to allocate appropriate codes to individuals' birthplaces for themselves.

Fourth, the 1861 database is of use in aiding the processes of sampling when undertaking large-scale studies based on the CEBs. Studies based on random or systematic samples of CEBs are always subject to a degree of error, and the database is of value insofar as it provides the researcher with a means of calculating the degree to which the sample is representative of the population as a whole. For example, were a registration district to have a population of 20,000 of whom 1,000 were aged under five years and 2,300 were employed as coal miners, a representative sample of one-in-ten people or households should contain approximately 100 children under five and 230 coal miners.
Fifth, the database might be used to seek explanations for phenomena at the macro level of analysis. This refers to looking at a variation in a factor or phenomenon (such as the rate of illegitimacy or the numbers dying from infectious diseases) and trying to explain it in terms of other factors which vary between registration districts. This was the approach taken by Woods and Woodward who looked at life expectancy and infant mortality for the early 1860s, using a subset of information taken from the census and the Registrar General’s Annual Reports. They found that deaths from infectious diseases and infant mortality tended to be higher in the more urban and densely-populated districts of London, Liverpool, Birmingham and the other large cities than they were in the countryside. Reference was made earlier to work by Stephens, who studied literacy in the mid-nineteenth century by using the numbers in the Registrar General’s Annual Reports who ‘signed’ the marriage register with an ‘X’. The census database allows us to expand upon his approach by looking at those factors in each registration district which might be related to the level of literacy. One such factor, shown in Figure 2, is the number of children per teacher in each registration district. From this Figure we see that there is a marked and highly significant relationship between the two factors, such that where there were
relatively few children per teacher literacy amongst brides was high and where there were many children per teacher literacy amongst brides was low.

Finally, and directly related to the previous point, a limitation of much work done on the CEBs concerns the factors that lead people to study particular places. This is important, because all too often researchers will work on a particular area either because it happens to be the place in which they were born or in which they live, without any clear idea as to the potential value of the data and without the intent of testing a particular theory or hypothesis. One of the major advantages of the 1861 database is that not only can it be used to generate hypotheses, but it also directs researchers to particular areas of the country where those hypotheses might be profitably tested at the more local level by using a variety of sources. For example, the database might be used to identify areas of high and low literacy with a view to undertaking detailed local studies of precisely what factors (the numbers of schools, religion, child employment, etc.) might account for the observed differences.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this paper has looked at the creation of a machine-readable version of the 1861 census abstracts, vital registration statistics and the returns of the Poor Law Commissioners. It has been argued that the database has many potential uses for both the academic researcher and the local historian. In particular, researchers might find it to be a useful tool in the testing of hypotheses and in the directing of research to particular localities. It also contains a great deal of information which will be of use to local historians, and it is hoped that it will help encourage the standardisation of coding practices. A small linked database has also been created which provided grid reference coding and other summary information for registration districts.

In order to enable other researchers to make use of the 1861 census database, a subset of 114 variables has been made available through the Local Population History Book Club. The variables include details of the population, age structure, occupations, birthplaces and causes of death of both males and females in each of the 635 registration districts into which England and Wales were divided in 1861. Also included with the database is a User Guide to the 1861 Census Data Base in booklet form and a copy of the linked database.

An enlarged version of the database, including information from the 1831, 1851 and 1871 censuses and Pigot’s County Atlas, together with a mapping facility, will hopefully be available on CD ROM sometime in 1997 or 1998. Readers might, however, like to purchase a pilot computer program including variables and a map (see Figure 1) for the counties of Lancashire, Cheshire, Staffordshire and Shropshire, entitled SECOS–3: An Integrated Approach to the Study of British Nineteenth-Century History, price £6.00. Cheques for this second publication should be made payable to Staffordshire University and sent to the author, c/o The School of Social Sciences, Staffordshire University, College Road, Stoke-on-Trent, ST4 2DE.
NOTES


3. Divisions were roughly analogous to the standard regions of the late-twentieth century. Each consisted of a number of counties, but London and Yorkshire constituted divisions themselves.

4. However, detailed statistics of ages, populations, etc., were given for a select number of large towns and cities.

5. First Annual Report of the Poor Law Commissioners, BPP 1835 XXXV, 9.

6. Population tables. Vol. I. Numbers and distribution of the People, with index to Names of Places, BPP 1862 L, 911–. Population tables. Vol. II. Ages, civil condition, occupations and birthplaces; and inmates of workhouses etc. (in two parts), BPP 1863 LIII, pt I, 265–, pt II, 1–. Other reports relating to the 1861 census of England and Wales include; Tables of population and houses enumerated in England and Wales and in islands in British seas on 8 April, 1861, BPP 1861 L, 855–. General Report; with appendix of tables, BPP 1863 LIII, 1–.

7. The term 'lunatic' was that used by the Poor Law Commissioners.


10. Tables showing the counties of birth of individuals living in each ancient county are, however, included in the census abstracts.


18. Teitelbaum, British fertility decline, 143.


23. See Mills and Schürer, 'Employment and occupations'.


25. Armstrong, 'The use of information about occupations'.


27. For example, farmers' wives have been classified as agricultural workers.


30. This refers to the total number of children aged under fifteen years in the area to every teacher, rather than to the number of pupils or scholars at school per teacher.

31. Details of the Local Population History Book Club are given in the News from the Local Population Studies Society of this issue of the journal.

32. Thanks are due to Leonie Simpson who helped create the database, and Peter Franklin who kindly read through various drafts of this paper and whose comments helped to improve it.
MISCELLANY

"THE WHOLE DUTY OF MAN" – A SEVENTEENTH-CENTURY CONDUCT BOOK

Contributed by K. Schürer

The publication of conduct or advise books was quite common practice in the sixteenth and especially seventeenth century. These were texts written, usually with a strong religious or moral stance, providing guidance on how individuals and more especially families should conduct aspects of their private and public lives. Although such books have not been referenced to any great extent within the pages of LPS, they have been used quite widely by historians of the family in order to shed light on internal family relationships and the perceived or prescribed rôle which family members where expected to fulfil. The great majority of these texts were, unsurprisingly, written by men, usually educated via the universities of Oxford or Cambridge, and largely written for men, normally the stereotypical head of a patriarchal household. This is not to say that the advice offered by the books did not concern women, indeed this was often quite the contrary, with topics such as childrearing, education and housewifery frequency being addressed. Rather, the information contained in such volumes was usually presented in such a way that it was chiefly addressed to the head of the household in order that it could be disseminated by him to the rest of his household. The households in question were those of the educated middling sort – the ‘ideal’ bourgeois family – and as such included guidance on the treatment of servants and apprentices (the ‘extended’ household) as well as more immediate family members.

As a source, conduct books have to be used with caution. In part this is because, as indicated above, they were written for and read by a literate, middle-class minority. It is doubtful if many such books found their way into the homes of the bulk of the labouring poor. However, as the work of Margaret Spufford has indicated, we should not underestimate the extent to which reading reached in the case of the lower layers of society. Perhaps more important, it is critical to realise that conduct books do not describe how families actually behaved, but rather present guidance on how families, according to the views of the author, should behave. There is nothing to say that the advice offered was accepted or implemented. The books offered theory on the idea or concept of family life, however, the practise might have been rather different. Commenting on the use of conduct books in relation to the history of childhood, Pollock issues the harsh warning that ‘there is little, if any, connection between attitudes and behaviour’. However, the fact that some conduct books sold in relatively large numbers and
were re-printed in several editions indicates that even if the advice was not heeded, the book-buying public had quite a thirst for such information.

One of the most popular of the mid-seventeenth-century conduct books was *The whole duty of Man. Necessary for all families, with private devotions for several occasions*, commonly attributed to Richard Allestree DD, and originally published in London, 1658. Allestree was born in Uppington, Shropshire in 1619 and educated at Christ Church, Oxford. He followed the royalist cause through the civil war and during the Commonwealth period carried messages to and from the exiled king in France under the guidance of Sir Anthony Cope of Hanwell, near Banbury. Indeed, on returning from such a mission a year before the restoration Allestree was arrested at Dover and following an examination by a committee of the Council of Safety was imprisoned at Lambeth Palace. After the restoration he was made canon of Christ Church in 1663 and was appointed as one of the chaplains in ordinary to the king. In December of that year he was also appointed regius professor of divinity at Oxford. Whilst retaining his chair, two years later he was made provost of Eton College.

Covering both temporal and spiritual doctrines, the *Whole duty of Man* might be viewed as a treatise on Godly life, rather than as a conduct book *per se*. In addition to his ‘academic’ texts, Allestree produced several works on a similar theme to the *Whole duty*, including *The causes of the decay of Christian piety; The Gentleman’s calling; The Lady’s calling, in two parts* and *Art of contentment*. All of these works were published anonymously, and it is widely believed that they were largely based on unpublished lecture notes revised by his friend from undergraduate days (and later biographer) Bishop Fell of Oxford. The major work, *The whole duty of man*, was also printed in Latin for use in schools. The originally of many of the ‘godly’ conduct books, however, needs to be questioned as it was not unknown to ‘re-cycle’ material from previously published texts. *The whole duty of man*, for example, has a large number of parallels with an earlier work by William Gouge, *Of Domesticall Duties* (London, 1622).

In terms of structure it was written as a supplement to religious worship with seventeen central chapters which were intended to be read every Sunday, thus ‘the whole may be read over thrice a Year’. The text includes frequent quotations from the Bible, as justification for the maxims and guidance provided. The following extracts, concerned mainly with familial relationships and obligations, have been transcribed verbatim, although some passages have been omitted. LPS readers might be particularly interested in the advice offered on parental consent for marriage, breast-feeding, baptism and the punishment of children.


1. The first of those nearer sorts of relations is that of a Parent. And here it will be necessary to consider the several sorts of Parents, according to which the Duty of them is to be measured: Those are these three; the civil, the spiritual, the natural.
2. The civil Parent is he, whom God hath established the supreme Magistrate, who, by a just right, possess the throne in a nation. This is the common father of all those that are under his authority. The Duty we owe to this Parent is, first, Honour and Reverence, looking on him, as upon one on whom God hath stamped much of his own power and authority, and therefore paying him all Honour and Esteem, never daring, upon any pretence whatsoever, to Speak evil of the ruler of our people, Acts xxiii. 5.

6. The second sort of Parents are the spiritual; that is, the Ministers of the Word, whether such as be Governors in the Church, or others under them, who are to perform the same offices to our souls, that our natural Parents do to our bodies. Thus St Paul tells the Corinthians, That in Christ Jesus he had begotten them through the Gospel, I Cor. iv. 15.

11. The third sort of Parent is the natural, the Father of our flesh, as the Apostle calls them, Heb. xii. 9. And to these we owe several duties; as first, we owe them Reverence and respect: We must behave ourselves towards them with all humility and observance; and must not, upon any pretence of infirmity in them, despise or contemn them, either in outward behaviour, or so much as inwardly in our hearts. If indeed they have infirmities, it must be our business to cover and conceal them... This is very contrary to the practice of too many children, who do not only publish and deride the infirmities of their Parents, but pretend they have those infirmities they have not...

12. A second duty we owe to them is Love: We are to bear them a real kindness, such as may make us heartily desirous of all manner of good to them, and abhor to do any thing that may grieve and disquiet them. This will appear but common gratitude, when 'tis remembered what our Parents have done for us, how they were not only the instruments of first bringing us into the world, but also of sustaining and supporting us after... This Love is to be expressed several ways; first, in all kindness of behaviour, carrying our selves not only with an awe and respect, but with kindness and affection; and therefore most gladly and readily doing those things which may bring joy and comfort to them, and carefully avoiding whatever may grieve and afflict them. Secondly, this love is to be expressed in praying for them. The debt a child owes to a Parent is so great, that he can never hope himself to discharge it: He is therefore to call in God's aid, to beg of him that he will reward all the good his Parents have done for him, by multiplying his blessings upon them.

13. The third duty we owe to them is Obedience: This is not only contained in the fifth commandment, but expressly enjoined in other places of Scripture, Ephes. vi. 1. Children, obey your Parents in the Lord; for this is right: And again, Col. iii. 20. Children obey your Parents in all things, for this is well-pleasing unto the Lord. We owe them an obedience in all things, unless where their commands are contrary to the commands of God; for in that case our duty to God must be preferred. And therefore if any Parent shall be so wicked, as to require his child to steal, to lye, or to do any unlawful thing, the child then offends not against his duty, though he disobey, or else he offends against a higher duty, even that he owes to God his heavenly Father: Yet when it is thus
necessary to refuse obedience, he should take care to do it in such a modest and respectful manner, that it may appear it is conscience only, and not stubbornness, moves him to it...

14. But of all the acts of disobedience, that of Marrying against the consent of the Parent is one of the highest. Children are so much the goods, the possessions of their Parents, that they cannot, without a kind of theft, give away themselves, without the allowance of those that have the right in them: And therefore we see under the law, the maid that had made any vow, was not suffered to perform it, without the consent of the parent, Numb. xxx. 5...

15. A fourth duty to the Parent is to assist and minister to them in all their Wants, of what kind soever, whether weakness and sickness of body, decayedness of understanding, or poverty and lowness in estate: In all these the child is bound, according to his ability, to relieve and assist them. For the two former, weakness of body, and infirmity of mind, none can doubt of the duty, when they remember how every child did in his infancy receive the very same benefit from the Parents; the child had then no strength to support, no understanding to guide itself; the care of the Parents was fain to supply both these to it: And therefore in common gratitude, whenever either of these becomes the Parents case, as sometimes by great age, or some accident, both do, the child is to perform the same offices back again to them. As for that of relieving their poverty, there is the very same obligation to that with the former; it being but just to sustain thy Parent, who has formerly sustained thee...

16. To this that hath been said of the Duty of Children to their Parents, I shall add only this, That no unkindness, no fault of the Parent can acquit the child of this Duty: But as St. Peter tells servants, 1 Pet. ii. 18. that they must be subject, not only to the good and gentle masters, but also to the froward; so certainly it belongs to children to perform Duty, not only to the kind and virtuous, but even to the harshest and wickedest Parent...

    But as this is due from the Child to the Parent; so on the other side, there are other things also due from the Parents to the Child, and that throughout the several states and ages of it.

17. First, There is the care of nourishing and sustaining it; which begins from the very birth, and continues a Duty from the Parent, till the Child be able to perform it to himself: This is a Duty which nature teaches; even the savage beasts have a great care and tenderness in nourishing their young, and therefore may serve to reproach and condemn all Parents, who shall be so unnatural as to question, Whether the mother be obliged to give the child its first nourishment, by giving it suck herself, because 'twill not be possible to affirm universally in the case; there being many circumstances which may alter it, and make it not only lawful, but best not to do it. All I shall say is, That where no impediment of sickness, weakness, or the like, does happen, 'tis surely best for the mother herself to perform this office; there being many advantages to the child by it, which a good mother ought so far to consider, as not to sell them to her own sloth, or niceness, or any such unworthy motive; for where such only are the grounds of
forbearing it, they will never be able to justify the omission, they being themselves unjustifiable.

But besides this first care, which belongs to the body of the child, there is another, which should begin near as early, which belongs to their souls; and that is, the bringing them to the Sacrament of Baptism, thereby to procure them an early right to all those previous advantages, which that Sacrament conveys to them. This is a Duty the Parents ought not to delay; it being most reasonable, that they, who have been instruments to convey the stain and pollution of sin to the poor infant, should be very earnest and industrious to have it washed off as soon as may be: Besides, the life of so tender a creature is but a blast, and many times gone in a moment: And though we are not to despair of God's mercy to those poor children who die without Baptism, yet surely those Parents commit a great fault, by whose neglect it is that they want it.

18. Secondly, The Parents must provide for the Education of the child; they must, as Solomon speaks, Prov. xxi. 6. Train up a child in the way he should go. As soon, therefore, as children come to the use of reason, they are to be instructed; and that, first, in those things which concern their eternal well-being; they are by little and little to be taught all those things which God hath commanded them as their duty to perform; as also what glorious rewards he hath provided for them, if they do it; and what grievous and eternal punishment, if they do it not. These things ought, as early as is possible, to be instilled into the minds of children, which (like new vessels) do usually keep the favour of that which is first put into them... This surely is, above all things, the Duty of Parents to look after, and the neglect of it is a horrible cruelty. We justly look upon those Parents as most unnatural wretches, that take away the life of their child; but alas! that is mercy and tenderness, compared to this of neglecting his Education; for by that he ruins his soul, makes him miserable eternally; and, God knows, multitudes of such cruel Parents there are in the world, that thus give up their children to be possessed by the Devil, for want of an early acquainting them with the ways of God... A second part of Education is the bringing them up to some employment, busying them in some honest exercise, whereby they may avoid that great snare of the Devil, idleness; and also be taught some useful art or trade, whereby, when they come to age, they may become profitable to the commonwealth, and able to get an honest living to themselves.

19. To this great Duty of Educating of Children there is required, as Means, first encouragement; secondly, correction. Encouragement is first to be tried; we should endeavour to make Children in love with Duty, by offering them rewards and invitations; and whenever they do well, take notice of it, and encourage them to go on. It is an ill course some Parents hold, who think they must never appear to their children but with a face of sowness and austerity. This seems to be that which St. Paul forewarns Parents of, when he bids fathers not to provoke their children to wrath, Col. iii. 21. To be as harsh and unkind to them, when they do well, as if they do ill, is the way to provoke them: And then the Apostle tells us in the same verse, what will be the issue of it; they will be discouraged, they will have no heart to go on in any good course, when the Parent affords them no countenance. The second Means is correction; and this becomes seasonable when the former will do no good. When all fair Means,
Persuasions, and Encouragements prevail not, then there is a necessity of using sharper; and let that be first tried in words, I mean, not by railing and foul language, but in sober, yet sharp reproof: But if that fail too, then proceed to blows. And in this case, as Solomon saith, He that spareth his rod, hateth his son, Prov. xiii.24. 'Tis a cruel fondness, that to spare a few stripes at present, will adventure him to those sad mischiefs, which commonly befall the child that is left to himself. But then this correction must be given in such as manner, as may be likely to do good: To which purpose, it must first be given timely; the child must not be suffered to run on in any ill, till it hath got a habit, and a stubbornness too. This is a great error in many Parents; they will let their children alone for divers years, to do what they list, permit them to lye, to steal, without ever so much as rebuking them; nay, perhaps, please themselves to see the witty shifts of the child, and think it matters not what they do while they are little. But alas! all that while the vice gets root, and that many times so deep an one, that all they can do afterwards, whether by words or blows, can never pluck it up. Secondly, Correction must be moderate, not exceeding the quality of the fault, nor the tenderness of the child. Thirdly, It must not be given in rage; if it be, it will not only be in danger of being immoderate, but it will lose its effects upon the child, who will think he is corrected, not because he has done a fault, but because his Parent is angry; and so will rather blame the Parent than himself: Whereas, on the contrary, care should be taken to make the child as sensible of the fault, as of the smart, without which he will never be thoroughly amended.

20. Thirdly, After children are grown up, and are past the age of education, there are yet other offices for the Parent to perform to them; the Parent is still to watch over them, in respect of their Souls, to observe how they practise those precepts which are given them in their education, and accordingly to exhort, encourage, or reprove, as they find occasion.

21. So also for their outward estate, they are to put them into some course of living in the world. If God have blessed the Parent with wealth, according to what he hath, he must distribute to his children; remembering, that since he was the instrument of bringing them into the world, he is, according to his ability, to provide for their comfortable living in it: They are therefore to be looked on as very unnatural Parents, who, so they may have enough to spend in their own riots and excess, care not what becomes of their children, never think of providing for them. Another fault is usual among Parents in this business; they defer all the provisions for them, till themselves be dead; heap up, perhaps, great matters for them against that time, but in the mean time, afford them not such a competency, as may enable them to live in the world. There are several mischiefs come from this: First, It lessens the child's affection to his Parent; nay, sometimes it proceeds so far, as to make him wish his death; which, tho' it be such a fault, as no temptation can excuse in a child, yet 'tis also a great fault in a Parent to give that temptation. Secondly, It puts the child upon shifts and tricks, many times dishonest ones, to supply his necessities: This is, I doubt not, a common effect of it. The hardness of Parents has often put men upon very unlawful courses, which, when they are once acquainted with, perhaps they never leave, though the first occasion cease: And therefore Parents ought to beware how they run them upon those hazards...
22. A fourth thing the Parent owes to the child is good example. He is not only to set him rules of virtue and godliness, but he must himself give him a pattern in his own practice. We see the force of Example is infinitely beyond that of Precept, especially where the person is one to whom we bear a reverence, or with whom we have a continual conversation; both which usually meet in a Parent. It is therefore a most necessary care in all Parents to behave themselves so before their children, that their Example may be a means of winning them to virtue. But, alas! this age affords little of this care; nay, so far 'tis from it, that there are none more frequently the instruments of corrupting children, than their own Parents. And indeed, how can it be otherwise? While men give themselves liberty to all wickedness, 'tis not to be hoped, but that the children, which observe it, will imitate it; the child that seeth his father drunk, will surely think he may be so too, as well as his father. So he that hears him swear, will do the like; and so for all other vices: And if any Parent, that is thus wicked himself, should happen to have so much more care of his child's soul than his own, as to forbid him the things which himself practises, or correct him for the doing them; 'tis certain the child will account this a great injustice in his father, to punish him for that which himself freely does; and so he is never likely to be wrought upon by it...

23. A fifth Duty of Parents is blessing their children; the way of doing that is double, first, by their prayer; they are by daily and earnest prayers to commend them to God's protection and blessing, both for their spiritual and temporal estate: And secondly, by their piety; they are to be such persons themselves, as that a blessing may descend from them upon their posterity. This is often promised in Scripture to godly men, that their seed shall be blessed: Thus in the second Commandment God promises to shew mercy to the thousandth generation of them that love him, and keep his Commandments... If therefore Parents have any bowels, any kindness towards their children, any real desire of their prosperity, let them take care, by their own godly life, to entail a blessing upon them.

24. Sixthly, Parents must take heed that they use their power over their children with equity and moderation, not to oppress them with unreasonable Commands, only to exercise their own authority; but in all things of weight to consider the real good of their children, and to press them to nothing which may not consist with that. This is a rule whereof Parents may often have use, but in none greater than in the business of marrying their children, wherein many that otherwise are good Parents, have been to blame; when out of an eagerness of bestowing them wealthily, they force them to marry utterly against their own inclinations, which is a great tyranny, and that which frequently betrays them to a multitude of Mischiefs, such as all the wealth in the world cannot repair. There are two things which Parents ought especially to consider in the matching their children; the first, how they may live Christianly; and to that purpose, to choose a virtuous and pious person to link them with. The second is, how they may live cheerfully and comfortably in this world; and to that end, though a competency of estate may be necessary to be regarded, yet surely abundance is no way requisite, and therefore that should not be too vehemently sought after. That which much more tends to the happiness of that state, is the mutual kindness
and liking of the parties; without which Marriage is, of all other, the most uncomfortable condition: and therefore no Parent ought to thrust a child into it...

Sunday XV. Of Duty to our Brethren and Relations, Husband, Wife, Friends, Masters, Servants.

8. The third relation is that between Husband and Wife... Several duties there are owing from one of these persons to the other. And first, for the Wife, she owes Obedience. This is commanded by the Apostle, Col. iii. 18. Wives, submit your selves unto your own Husbands, as it is fit in the Lord. They are to render obedience to their Husbands in the Lord; that is, in all lawful commands: For otherwise 'tis here, as in the case of all other superiors, God must be obeyed rather than man; and the Wife must not, upon her Husband’s command, do any thing which is forbidden by God. But in all things, which do not cross some command of God’s, this precept is of force, and will serve to condemn the peevish stubbornness of many Wives, who resist the lawful commands of their Husbands, only because they are impatient of his duty of subjection, which God himself requires of them. But it may here be asked, What if the husband command something, which tho' it be not unlawful, is yet very inconvenient and imprudent, must the wife submit to such a command? To this I answer, that it will be no disobedience in her, but duty, calmly and mildly to shew him the Inconveniences thereof, and to persuade him to retract that command: But in case she cannot win him to it by fair intreaties, she must neither try sharp language, nor yet finally refuse to obey; nothing but the unlawfulness of the command being sufficient warrant for that.

9. Secondly, The wife owes Fidelity to the husband, and that of two sorts; first that of the bed. She must keep her self pure and chaste from all strange imbraces; and therefore must not so much as give an ear to any that would allure her, but with the greatest abhorrence reject all motions of that sort, and never give any man, that has once made such a motion to her, the least opportunity to make a second. Secondly, she owes him likewise Fidelity in the managing of those worldly affairs he commits to her; she must order them so, as may be most to her husband’s advantage, and not by deceiving and cozening of him, imploy his good to such uses, as he allows not of.

10. Thirdly, She owes him Love, and together with that all friendliness and kindness of conversation: She is to endeavour to bring him as much assistance and comfort of life, as is possible, that so she may answer that special end of the woman’s creation, the being a help to her Husband, Gen. ii. 13. And this in all conditions, whether health or sickness, wealth or poverty, whatsoever estate God by his providence shall cast him into, she must be as much of comfort and support to him, as she can. To this all sullenness and harshness, all brawling and unquietness, is directly contrary; for that makes the wife the burden and plague of the man, instead of a help and comfort: And sure, if it be a fault to behave one’s self so to any person, as hath already been shewed, how great must it be to do so to him, to whom the greatest kindness and affection is owing?
11. Nor let such Wives think that any faults or provocations of the Husband can justify their frowardness; for they will not, either in respect of religion or discretion. Not in religion; for where God has absolutely commanded a duty to be paid, 'tis not any unworthiness of the person can excuse from it; nor in discretion, for the worse a Husband is, the more need there is for the Wife to carry her self with that gentleness and sweetness, that may be most likely to win him. This is the Advice St. Peter gave the Wives of his time, 1 Pet. iii. 1. Likewise, ye Wives, be in subjection to your own Husbands; that if any obey not the word, they also may without the word be won by the conversation of the wives. It seems, the good behaviour of the wives was thought a powerful means to win men from Heathenism to Christianity; and sure it might now a days have some good effects, if women would have but the patience to try it; at the least 'twould have this, that it would keep some tolerable quiet in families: Whereas, on the other side, the ill fruits of the wives unquietness are so notorious, that there are few neighbourhoods but can give some instance of it. How many men are there, that, to avoid the noise of a froward wife, have fallen to company-keeping, and by that to drunkenness, poverty, and a multitude of mischiefs? Let all wives therefore beware of administering that temptation: But whenever there happens any thing, which in kindness to her Husband she is to admonish him of, let it be with that softness and mildness that it may appear, 'tis love, and not anger, that makes her speak.

12. There are also, on the Husband's part several duties. There is, first, Love; which St Paul requires to be very tender and compassionate towards the Wife, as appears by the similitudes he useth in that matter... This utterly forbids all harshness and roughness to them: Men are to use them as parts of themselves, to love them as their own bodies, and therefore to do nothing that may be hurtful and grievous to them, no more than they would cut and gash their own flesh. Let those Husbands, that tyrannize over their wives, that scarce use them like human creatures, consider whether that be to love them as their own bodies.

13. A second Duty of the Husband is Faithfulness to the bed. This is by God as well required of the husband, as the wife. And tho' the world do seem to look on the breach of this Duty with less abhorrence in the Husband; yet sure, before that just Judge, the offence will appear no less on the man's side, than the woman's. This is certain, 'tis in both a breach of the vow made to each other at their marriage; and so, besides the uncleanness, a downright perjury: And those differences in the case, which seem to cast the scale, are rather in respect of civil and worldly consideration, than merely of the sin.

14. A third part of the Husband is to maintain and provide for the wife. He is to let her partake with him in those outward good things wherewith God hath blessed him, and neither by niggardliness debar her of what is fit for her, nor yet by unthriftiness so waste his goods, that he shall become unable to support her. This is certainly the duty of the Husband, who being, as hath been said, to account his Wife as a part of his own body, must have the very same care to sustain her, that he hath for himself. Yet this is not so to be understood, as to excuse the Wife from her part of labour and industry, when that is requisite: it being unreasonable the Husband should toil to maintain the Wife in idleness.
15. Fourthly, The Husband is to instruct the Wife in the things which concern her eternal welfare, if she be ignorant of them. Thus St. Paul bids the Wives learn of their Husbands at home, Cor. xiv. 35. which supposes, that the Husband is to teach her. Indeed it belongs to every master of a family to endeavour, that all under his charge be taught all necessary things of this kind; and then sure more especially his Wife, who is so much nearer to him than all the rest. This should make men careful to get knowledge themselves, that so they may be able to perform this duty they owe to others.

16. Lastly, Husbands and Wives are mutually to pray for each other, to beg all blessings from God, both spiritual and temporal, and to endeavour all they can to do all good to one another, especially all good to each other’s souls, by stirring up to the performance of duty, and dissuading and drawing back from all sin, and by being, like true yoke-fellows, helpful and assistant to each other in the doing of all sorts of good, both to their own family, and all others within their reach. This is, of all other, the truest and most valuable love...

17. It should therefore be the care of every one, that means to enter upon that state, to consider advisedly before-hand, and to choose such a Person, with whom they may have this spiritual friendship, that is, such a one as truly fears God. There are many false ends of Marriage looked upon in the world; some marry for wealth, others for beauty, and generally they are only worldly respects that are at all considered; But certainly, he that would marry as he ought, should contrive to make his Marriage useful to those better ends of serving God, and saving his own Soul; at least he must be sure it be no hindrance to them, and to that purpose the virtue of the person chosen is more conducing, than all the wealth in the world; though I deny not, but that a competency of that may likewise be considered.

18. But above all things, let all take heed, that they make not such Marriages, as may not only be ill in their effects, but are actual sins at the time; such are the Marriages of those that were formerly promised to some other: In which case, 'tis sure, they rightly belong to those to whom they passed the first promise; and then for any other to marry them, during the life of that person, is to take the Husband or Wife of that other; which is direct adultery, as St. Paul tells us, Rom. vii. 3. The like Unlawfulness there is also in the Marriage of those, who are within those degrees of kindred forbidden by God; the particulars whereof are set down in the 18th and 20 of Levit. And whoever marries any that is within any of those degrees of nearness, either to himself, or to his deceased Wife, which is as bad, commits that great sin of incest; and, so long as he continues to live with such his unlawful Wife, remains in that fearful guilt. This wariness in the choice of the person to be married, would prevent many fad effects, which we daily see follow such rash or unlawful matches.

NOTES

SOME RECENT PUBLICATIONS

Notes on articles compiled by Terry Gwynne

For the second in our series of statements of aims, ethos and interests by journals which appear frequently in this section we turn to *Rural History*.

*Rural History: Economy, Society, Culture* was established in 1989 to provide a general forum for interdisciplinary exchange which emphasises 'the variety, interconnectedness and reciprocal influences of the many elements which are integral to rural life'. (Review in the THES) Its overall framework for rural history ignores traditional subject boundaries, and aims to foster broader and cross-fertilised approaches which are essential for an understanding of rural societies. Subjects covered include folklore, economic history, agricultural history, popular culture, rural literature, landscape history, archeology and material culture, demographic studies, family history and gender studies, vernacular architecture, ethnography, religion, anthropology and rural sociology. The editors are Liz Bellamy, K. D. M. Snell and Tom Williamson, who are backed by a prominent, wide-ranging and erudite editorial board whose own interests reflect those of the journal.

In recent years the journal has promoted considerable debate and research on issues connected with historical ecology and so-called 'green history'. In addition, it has had special issues dedicated to rural popular culture (April, 1993), and to women's history and work in rural areas (October 1994). Contributions are welcome on any subject encompassed within its wide definition of rural history, and this open-door policy has enabled the journal to reflect the current vitality of rural studies and to encourage original approaches.

Among many recent articles which may be of particular interest to readers of LPS are: J. A. Johnston, 'Kin and community in eight Lincolnshire parishes, 1567–1800', (October, 1995); C. A. Crompton, 'Changes in rural service occupations during the nineteenth century: an evaluation of two sources for Hertfordshire' (October, 1995); Sylvia Seeliger, 'Hampshire women as landholders: common law mediated by manorial custom' (April, 1996) Steve Hindle, 'Exclusion crises: poverty, migration and parochial responsibility in English rural communities, c. 1560–1660' (October, 1996); Maggie Morgan, 'Jam making, Cuthbert rabbit and cakes : redefining domestic labour in the Women's Institute, 1915–60' (October, 1996); Alasdair Crockett and K. D. M. Snell, 'From the 1676 Compton Census to the 1851 Census of religious worship: religious continuity or discontinuity?' (April, 1997).

*Rural history* is published twice a year (April and October), by Cambridge University Press. The subscriptions price for two issues is £47 for institutions, and £27 for individuals. Single parts are available at £24 each, but back issues
may be available at reduced rates. Subscription inquiries should be made to the publishers: The Journals Department, Cambridge University Press, The Edinburgh Building, Shaftesbury Road, Cambridge, CB2 2RU. Notes for contributors wishing to submit manuscripts for publication may be found on the inside back cover of the journal.

Articles

Maxine Berg

In what is essentially a study of the role and significance of new commodities in eighteenth-century Birmingham and Sheffield the interest for LPS readers is the quantitative indicators drawn from wills and probate inventories. There helpful discussion on the use of wills and inventories as historical documents, page 41 ff.

Christopher Dyer
‘How urban was medieval England’, *History Today, 47* 1 (January 1997), 37–43.

This is a timely and accessible article by Professor Dyer which offers the kind of synthesizing and updating which is so helpful to anyone coming relatively fresh to a topic. Beginning with the view that medieval England was overwhelmingly rural he subjects this view to examination from a variety of perspectives, including the definition of a town in the middle ages and its physical appearance. Constitutional approaches to borough status are set within a context of the size of medieval towns (e.g. medieval Birmingham was once said to have been no more than a village because it had not been granted the status of a borough by charter; this despite its estimated population of 1000 in c.1300 who manufactured cloth, iron, kept inns, tanned leather, traded in a variety of products). The contribution of archaeology is noted and phases of urbanization established. The existence of an urban hierarchy with London at the top, a second tier of provincial capitals, followed by a third level of larger towns, and then hundreds of market towns. The role of towns in medieval economy and society is discussed and a warning given not to equate towns with capitalism. Towns did not expand as feudalism declined. Attention is paid to the outlook of the urban elite. Some time is devoted to townswomen. Overall the effect of this examination is to challenge the ‘gloomy and patronising view of the middle ages’ which prevails. Medieval England’s network of towns was not so different from other parts of northern Europe; and reflected a growth in trade and manufacture which made for a much smoother transition to the modern world than has often been imagined. The article is very attractively illustrated.

Cormac Ó Gráda

Professor Ó Gráda assesses some recent findings on the Irish Potato Famine, and includes a historiography of the Famine. Note is taken of how gaps in the
knowledge of famine demography can be filled by the study of parish registers, burial records and hospital and workhouse lists, and of the need for more comparative studies.

Melvyn Jones

This is a 1994 case study on the establishment and development of a Welsh community reprinted from B. Elliot (ed.), *Aspects of Barnsley 2: Discovering Local History* (Wharncliffe Publishing Ltd). The focus is long-distance migration within the British Isles involving a substantial number of people sharing a common origin and a common destination. The author’s conclusion is that such communities as described here were not unique. A set of questions yet to be fully answered is presented, e.g. the extent of recruitment by an employer seeking special skills; the importance of chain migration.

Gunnar Karlsson

Professor Karlsson offers the view that Icelandic experience demonstrates that an epidemic like the Black Death was not dependent on rats for its dissemination; and that the Icelandic experience could have happened elsewhere.

Zvi Razi

Criticism of low-quality manorial court rolls as a source for rural population studies by Poos and Smith who found many smallholders and landless labourers noted in a 1327 rental and the 1381 poll tax returns of Great Waltham and High Easter in Essex never appeared in the court rolls of these manors leads Zvi Razi to examine high-quality court rolls of the Norfolk manor of Gressenhall. He finds that males, tenants and non-tenants alike, to be highly represented in these court rolls: 78% of smallholders did appear in the court rolls at least one in three years. His conclusion is that periodic counts of males in high-quality court records can provide crude but nonetheless reliable data for estimating population; and that village communities in areas of multiple lordship can be observed in their entirety through the court rolls of a single lordship provided it was the largest and most active in the area. This appears in the Notes and Comments section of the journal and it is unlikely that the debate will end here.

Margaret Spufford and Motoyasu Takahashi

Much of this article is devoted to an investigation of kin linkage and witnessing
by members of different economic strata in village society which demonstrates that social and family relationships often transcended economic divisions. Nonetheless, the article ends with a plea to redress the balance in favour of the economic base of rural society rather than social dominance per se; and in so doing finds the family reconstitution forms used by the Cambridge Group for the History of Population and Social Structure unsuitable for recording lateral relationships.

Jon Stobart

For LPS readers the chief interest will be the use of what in the authors terms are described as a variety of non-demographic sources (Hearth tax, local censuses, episcopal visitations) to produce a series of urban demographic ‘snapshots’ of pre-census urban population: what the author terms ‘demographic photography’. Although carried out in the north-west of England, it allows detailed investigation of the dynamics of the entire urban system, and its relationship to industrialization.

Michael Winstanley

In an article which seeks to rectify the neglect of small, predominantly pastoral, family farms Michael Winstanley discusses holdings, markets and social structure. It is the third section (pp. 181–92) which is likely to be most of interest to LPS readers: consideration is given to family labour, women’s work and lifecycle changes. He argues for a re-assessment of the role of the family and the significance of gender relations in English farming.
LOCAL HISTORY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ESSEX

Established in 1980, the Local History Centre was launched to act as a focal point for those interested in the history of Essex and Suffolk. Initially its activities were centred upon day-schools and lectures covering a diverse range of topics in local history. Amongst these, the annual Dudley White Memorial Lecture has become a forum for eminent scholars including Christopher Hill, Rodney Hilton, Keith Wrightson and Geoffrey Martin, now Research Professor within the Centre. In co-operation with the WEA, it has held three series of public lectures at Colchester and three at Chelmsford on Essex History, as well as fourteen successful Summer Schools for Local Historians held within the University.

From 1993 the Centre also began to offer taught courses. There are currently three courses on offer:-

Introduction to Local History
The course consists of twenty 2 hour sessions at the University, held on Wednesday afternoons. It is run in conjunction with the Essex WEA and provided by Continuing Education and seeks to offer a grounding in a variety of themes related to the history of Essex and Suffolk. In the past the course has included the study of parish churches, vernacular architecture, researching the poor, and other aspects of village and urban history. The course is designed to enable students with no previous experience of local history to participate.

Certificate in Local History
Run as a two year part-time course, the Certificate is offered at the University and at the Essex Record Office in Chelmsford. It is provided by Continuing Education. Teaching takes the form of twenty 2 hour weekly evening sessions a year, a week-long summer school and two Saturday one-day schools. No formal qualifications are required. The Certificate is intended for those interested in, or already working on, local history who want a structured training in researching and writing. The Certificate is also designed to provide a thorough knowledge of major developments in the history of Essex and Suffolk from 1500 up to the twentieth century. It will consider themes, concepts and approaches current in local history together with historical sources and their interpretation. The Certificate will be assessed on the basis of course work and a dissertation. Individual guidance will be given. Students who are successful in gaining the Certificate may claim 80 points at Level 1 on the National Credit Accumulation and Transfer (CATS) Scheme.
MA in Local and Regional History
This is a two year part-time course in which some of the recent exciting work on local history will be examined. The course comprises four modules, two of which take the student on a chronological exploration of the history of Essex and Suffolk between 1500 and the twentieth century. The remaining modules tackle themes, techniques and sources for the study of local history. Assessment will be by essay work and a 20,000 word dissertation based upon original research. While the M.A. will give students a thorough training in local and regional historical research, its content will reflect the strong emphasis placed on social history by both the Centre and the Department of History. Applicants for the M.A. should normally possess a first degree (although not necessarily in history) but other appropriate qualifications will be considered.

In addition to its taught courses the Local History Centre is able to offer supervision for postgraduate students interested in the study of Essex and Suffolk history at MPhil and PhD level.

Research Resources
Students enrolled on the Local History Centre's courses are permitted access to the University's library with its important collection of local history books and other material. Students are also encouraged to make full use of the Centre's close relationship with the Essex Record Office which has branches in Colchester, Southend and Saffron Walden as well as its main centre in Chelmsford. In addition the Suffolk Record Office has branches in Ipswich and Bury St. Edmunds. The University of Essex offers students a comprehensive range of computing and word processing facilities. The Department of History provides a vibrant research atmosphere for its students incorporating a varied and regular series of seminars.

For further information on the Local History Centre and its courses please write to:-

Dr. Philip Hills
Local History Centre
University of Essex
Wivenhoe Park
Colchester
Essex CO4 3SQ
CORRESPONDENCE

Letters intended for publication in LPS should be sent to Kevin Schürer, LPS, Department of History, University of Essex, Colchester, CO4 3SQ.

Editors’ note

LPS readers are reminded that the editorial board is always prepared to offer advice on subjects within the scope of LPS. Sometimes queries which have been raised are discussed in print in this section of the journal but there are many others which are not published, so if you think we can help do not hesitate to contact us.

Birthplaces in the 1881 Census

I write to you on behalf of the Nineteenth-Century Censuses Collection Project at the University of Essex to ask for your help on a matter which may interest LPS readers. The project is funded with a grant from the Leverhulme Trust to work on the machine-readable 1881 British census created by the Genealogical Society of Utah with the assistance of the Federation of Family History Societies and many others.

This database was created by transcribing the census enumerators’ books verbatim onto computer, complete with all the variations of form and spelling that were contained within the original. In order to make these data more useable we are classifying two of the most used and variable items in the CEBs – places of birth and occupations. We estimate that there are about 1.5 million unique birthplace descriptions in the census and around 3 million unique occupational descriptions which require classification..

Birthplaces in the census are of vital importance and great interest to the historical community and it is our intention to classify every birthplace given in the 1881 census to one of the 16,198 civil parishes into which Britain was at that time divided (or, if foreign, a country of birth). The majority of birthplaces within each county can be classified in a straightforward manner. Variants of parish names, such as Ambleston in Pembrokeshire, are coded quickly (see the accompanying illustration), and these make up the majority of the place-names mentioned in the census. However, the census also contains a large number of places which are not so straightforward – an example is “Colney Park Farm” in Hertfordshire. It is these places which are particularly problematic, for in the case of those place-names as the sub-parish level it is hard to determine their location without quite detailed local knowledge.
Since our time is limited – two years for the completion of all the occupation and birthplace classification – it would be too time-consuming for us to search all of the necessary local sources such as maps, directories and local histories for these more obscure place-names. We would therefore like to enlist any assistance that local historians and other interested individuals are prepared to give us. We would like, therefore, to send any interested readers, a copy of a) the standard list of civil parishes for a given county, and b) a complete list of all place-names given in the CEBs for that county. Some of these will already have been classified to parish level, but the remainder require identification. To give some idea of the type of work involved an example of the types of entry to be dealt with is appended to this letter.

Once the project has been completed, in return for the assistance sought we will provide those contributing with a copy of the finished birthplace dictionary for the county concerned. This will give every unique birthplace as recorded in the census, as well as its associated civil parish, Ordnance Survey grid-reference, Registration District and Sub-District identifiers. This will provide an invaluable tool in aiding local history research.

Lastly, I should like to point out that the computerised census data we are using for this project are held by the History Data Service (HDS) at the University of Essex, and an uncoded version will be made available shortly for research and teaching purposes. Researchers will be able to obtain data for individual counties in column separated format but should be aware that the data for many counties are very large and pose significant data management and analysis problems. Potential users of the data are asked to write to the HDS, University of Essex, Colchester, CO4 3SQ or email sheila@essex.ac.uk. The HDS regrets that is unable to provide a service for genealogical research at the present time.

If any societies, groups or individuals are interested in participating in this project they should write to Mark Allen at the University of Essex, who will provide further details. Alternatively, those interested can gain further information by e-mailing mark@essex.ac.uk or phoning 01206 - 873026 (direct line).

Yours faithfully

M. Allen
Department of History, University of Essex
Colchester, CO4 3SQ
Extracts from the Pembrokeshire data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CEB Place-names</th>
<th>Standard Parish</th>
<th>CEB Place-names</th>
<th>Standard Parish</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ambleiton</td>
<td>Ambleston</td>
<td>Amoth</td>
<td>Amroth</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ambleton</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ambelston</td>
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<td>Amblestone</td>
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<td>Amblestone Parish</td>
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<td>Amlleston</td>
<td>Ambleston</td>
<td>Amroath</td>
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<td>Ambr</td>
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<td>Ambaston</td>
<td>Ambleston</td>
<td>Cellan</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Kilgerran</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Angle Parish</td>
<td>Angle</td>
<td>Cold Blow</td>
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<tr>
<td>Angle Hill</td>
<td></td>
<td>Coldblow</td>
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<td>Angle Pembroke</td>
<td>Angle</td>
<td>Cleadall</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amhoath</td>
<td>Amroth</td>
<td></td>
<td>Coldlyn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Should you decide to help us you will receive a list on a computer disk (or if you prefer on paper) like this for your county. The column to the left contains the place-names exactly as given in the census enumerators' books. The column on the right gives the parish that we have assigned to each place-name. You will also receive a standard list of parishes.

We would ask you to perform the following:

Firstly, check the list of standard names (not shown here) and keep a note of any spelling errors on this list, although we would not require you to change any of the standard names or add any names. Some parishes may appear to be missing from the list as we are deliberately using a list of 1881 parishes.

Moving onto the list of names to be coded, (in the left column) you will note that most of the names already have a parish allotted to them by us (in the right column). We would ask you to check that we have not, in error, mistakenly inserted the incorrect parish name by each place. This can occur when two places in the county have similar names.

There are gaps in our list where a parish name is prefixed or suffixed to another
word. In the example given there is a parish named ‘Angle’. There is also a place named ‘Angle Hill’. This place may be in the parish of Angle, but this is not necessarily the case. We would like you to attempt to fill these in, if possible with the correct parish name. An OS grid reference could also be given.

Sometimes places from other counties are incorrectly assigned to ‘your’ county. In the example opposite ‘Cellan’ is actually in Cardiganshire. Should you come across such a place-name and you know which county it should be in then you would be asked to note the correct county name or to state positively that it is not in your county.

Some places remain blank for other reasons. They may be names of hamlets, farms or unknown places where we do not know the correct parish to assign them to. We would ask you to fill in the correct place-name and parish name (if known) using your local knowledge to fill the gap!

Patterns of consumption

Dear Sir,

I am currently undertaking a project aimed at reconstructing the consumption patterns, with a particular focus on furniture, of middling and elite groups in north Lancashire and south Westmorland during the period 1650–1750. I am going to consider a number of different sources, but one of the key elements will be collections of probate inventories. Since many people have in the past transcribed inventories for various reasons, I would very much like to hear from anyone who might have inventory or other material on consumption which they would be willing for me to look at or who might know of collections of transcribed inventories for these areas.

Yours faithfully

Linda McGhie
Department of Historical and Critical Studies
University of Central Lancashire
Preston, PR1 2HE

Babbage to Tennyson

Dear Sir,

In reading through F. Spufford and J. Uglow’s Cultural Babbage: technology and the history of culture (London, 1996) I discovered the following letter from Charles Babbage – inventor of the difference engine, an early fore-runner to the modern day computer – to Alfred Tennyson, written in 1851. It may interest LPS readers. Was he right, I wonder?
Sir: In your otherwise beautiful poem, 'The Vision of Sin' there is a verse which reads – 'Every moment dies a man, Every moment one is born.' It must be manifest that if this were true, the population of the world would be at a standstill... I would suggest that in the next edition of your poem you have it read – 'Every moment a man dies. Every moment 1\(\frac{1}{16}\) is born.'... The actual figure is so long I cannot get it onto a line, but I believe the figure 1\(\frac{1}{16}\) will be sufficiently accurate for poetry.

I am, Sir, your, &c., Charles Babbage

Your faithfully

C. R. Murex
Knowles Cottage, Belchamp St Paul
near Clare, Suffolk

Hertfordshire in 1851 reviewed

Dear Sir,

I would like to thank you for printing a review of my *Population, economy and family structure in Hertfordshire in 1851. Volume I. The Berkhamsted region* (Hatfield, 1996) in the last issue of LPS. I thought, however, I had better point out that there appears to be an important discrepancy between what I wrote about marriage patterns and what was reported in the review of the book. The data clearly show that where (or because) the sex ratio was skewed women tended to marry *later*, and more remained unmarried: they did not marry *earlier* as stated in the review.

The review also refers to '285 pages of indigestible printout'. The reason the book was published in this format was to give something back to the army of volunteer genealogists and family historians who collected all the data in the first place. This is the format the majority of them wanted. I am, however, considering producing a CD ROM for each region in turn, probably in Excel for ease of convertibility, as suggested in the review.

Yours faithfully

Nigel Goose
University of Hertfordshire,
Wall Hall, Aldenham, Watford, Herts.