All articles reviewed were published in 1998 unless otherwise specified.


These two papers deal with national-level trends, and are packed with an enormous, at times bewildering, amount of numerical data from the 1911 census. They are, however, both important contributions to the recent debate over the course of the fertility decline in Britain. In the first paper, Anderson argues, first, that the decline in fertility was characterized by strong period rather than cohort effects; and, second, that a hitherto little-remarked feature of the decline is that during the late-nineteenth century a substantial proportion of married couples stopped childbearing after bearing only one or two children (or, in some cases, none at all). This second theme is taken up in his second paper, in which he argues, convincingly, that the methods of analysis designed to uncover birth spacing from the 1911 census data will overestimate the extent of spacing in the presence of highly restricted fertility (for example a substantial proportion of couples intending to have fewer than two children). It follows that the extent of birth spacing has been over-estimated in previous work. Anderson suggests that the prevailing patterns are better explained by a rise in the idea of having very small families, and a separation of the ideas of marriage and childbearing. Finally, he maintains that one of the shortcomings of previous work on the fertility decline is its tendency to look at ‘average’ fertility rather than at the distribution of experience around the average.


Arkell and Whiteman wrestle with the problem of estimating mean household size through a detailed analysis of the corn certificate of 1557 for Clackclose hundred in Norfolk. Household size varied widely between parishes, from a low of 4.3 to a high of 6.7, whilst comparison with late seventeenth century listings suggests a degree of under-recording of small and female headed households to indicate a mean of 4.8–4.85, rather than the 5.1 that unadjusted calculation gives. The difficulties of interpretation are reinforced by a reworking of the data for Poole in 1574, to suggest a mean household size of 4.9
rather than the figure of 5.3 calculated by Laslett. Very sensibly, it is suggested that a range of means should be applied when attempting to calculate population size from household listings, and for the mid-sixteenth century the preferred range is 4.5–5.1.

Blaikie, A., ‘Scottish illegitimacy: social adjustment or moral economy?’ *Journal of Interdisciplinary History*, 29, 221–41.

Blaikie’s work on illegitimacy in Scotland will already be well known to LPS readers through his paper in *LPS* 60. In this paper he notes that the regional pattern of illegitimacy in the country persisted to a remarkable degree throughout the nineteenth century and into the twentieth century, with high illegitimacy in the north-east and parts of the south-west, and low illegitimacy in the western Highlands. The high rates of illegitimacy in these areas defy a simple or a monocausal explanation. It seems that a culture which did not regard illegitimacy as a social misdemeanour allowed the bearing of children outside marriage to be instrumental in the local society’s adjustment to changing social and economic circumstances. Blaikie’s work is thus in the recently rejuvenated idiographic tradition of population history, in that it looks for explanations which are specific to local circumstances, rather than trying to develop general theories of social and demographic change.


Brumhead provides an analysis of the social structure of ten hamlets in north-west Derbyshire 1650–1775 using hearth taxes and probate documents. He finds a clear-cut distinction between yeomen and husbandmen, not based upon wealth but according to whether land was owned or rented. Where industrial activity was their prime concern, individuals identified themselves by their trade, even when they also had substantial farming interests. The ‘dark peak’ areas were dominated by large independent farmers and husbandmen, and hence there was greater gradation within the social hierarchy here, whilst in the ‘white peak’ to the south-east smaller, poorer husbandmen were more numerous. Probate evidence confirms the well attested involvement of women in rural credit networks.


For those who can read French, these two papers provide critical summaries of the recent literature on British agrarian history, with quite a few references to the role of demographic factors. They are particularly valuable for their extensive bibliographies (which will also be useful to those with little or no French!).

This is a rare example of record linkage between nineteenth-century trade directories and the census enumerators’ books, using two rural parishes in Hertfordshire (St Paul’s Walden and Much Hadham). Crompton shows that the average size of rural trade and craft enterprises fell between 1851 and 1891. Only about half the offspring of tradesmen and craftsmen followed their fathers into the same trade; the rest either took up other trades or moved down the social scale to become labourers. Finally, there seems to have been increasing specialization within the trades and crafts sector after 1870. There are some useful methodological comments, and a short discussion of the advantages and limitations of the data sources.


Medical matters and the importance of patronage are highlighted in Dawbarn’s appraisal of the membership of the College of Physicians in Jacobean England, with particular reference to the careers of Leonard Poe and Francis Anthony. Patronage was crucial to the fortunes of both, although the patron-client relationship was less one-sided than was usual as here the patron, as provider and patient, was, inevitably, in a far more vulnerable position than was the case with other forms of patronage.


This article approaches social relations in early nineteenth century Kent from a perspective which may be unfamiliar to *LPS* readers. Fairman conducts a linguistic analysis of statements made by persons from different classes. He notes how both sentence structure and the way in which words convey and conceal meaning reveals much about the world views of the different social groups. Most of the evidence comes from landholders and those with official parish positions. Their statements show them as active and effective persons, performing vital functions. Labourers and those applying for poor relief, by contrast, are portrayed as passive (having things done to them). ‘Labour’ is used in an impersonal way and portrayed as non-functional and ineffective. Of course, the few statements of labourers which are analyzed suggest a rather different picture!


Fildes argues that the role of infant feeding practices in the decline of infant mortality after 1900 has not been sufficiently recognized. She analyses Medical Officer of Health reports for the Great Towns (1911 census definition) and London. Factors which seem to have been important in the decline of infant mortality include an improvement in the nutritional status of mothers, which
rendered them better able to breast-feed; the phasing out of the long tube bottle (which was an excellent breeding-ground for bacteria); and the introduction of dried milk. Generally, babies who were exclusively bottle-fed during the first weeks of life had infant mortality rates between two and eight times those of exclusively breast-fed babies. Breast-feeding was rather more prevalent in the north of England than in the south, and it was lowest of all in the Potteries.

Fisher, K., ‘“Clearing up misconceptions”: the campaign to set up birth control clinics in south Wales between the wars’, *Welsh History Review*, 19, 103–29.

This article studies the provision of birth control clinics in Glamorgan and Monmouthshire following the law of 1930 allowing local authorities to give birth control advice. Fisher notes how the attitude of individual Medical Officers of Health was crucial. Where they were opposed to the setting up of publicly-funded clinics (as, for example, in Monmouthshire), none were created. Although public opinion in south Wales was broadly in favour of clinics, individuals or small groups who held positions of power, for example a group of Roman Catholics on Cardiff City Council, were able to retard their introduction.


T.H.C. Stevenson, the government statistician who analyzed the responses to the fertility questions in the 1911 census, was quite convinced that women’s work was bad for babies. He drew up tables showing that infant mortality rates for working mothers were higher than those for non-working mothers. Garrett shows that Stevenson’s interpretation is flawed, because the women’s employment status was measured in 1911, whereas the data on infant and child mortality refer to an earlier period (often 10–15 years earlier). She argues that it is at least equally (and probably more) plausible to conclude that women whose children had died had fewer survivors to care for and were thus in a better position to take up paid work outside the home. Thus, the arrow of causality should be reversed: infant mortality is ‘good’ for women’s work outside the home. The paper contains some data on the occupational distribution of women in Lancashire, taken from the 1921 census, which interested readers might like to compare with those in J. McKay’s recent paper in *LPS* 61.


This fascinating paper studies people who left Britain and Ireland for Australia in the nineteenth century. It uses three case studies, perhaps the most interesting of which for *LPS* readers will be that which looks at the experiences of the farm labourers from Wiltshire who took advantage of the assisted emigration schemes advertised in mid-century. The punch line of the paper is that, contrary to a widely-held belief, the emigrants were not drawn from the poorest and least able members of society.

This paper deals with many of the same themes as the paper by Brumhead reviewed above, comprising a study of landownership patterns in Wensleydale and Swaledale during the nineteenth century. Hallas maintains that this area does not fit the standard ‘three estates’ model of the rural social structure. Small ‘yeomen’ owning 10-100 acres were common in this area, and during the nineteenth century they were increasing their share of the total land occupied by squeezing out even smaller owners. Many of the latter had combined agriculture with lead mining, and when lead mining declined in the late nineteenth century they could not make a living off their tiny holdings of land. These ‘yeomen’ lived locally, but often let their holdings, sometimes to many different tenants. This facilitated a close relationship between landlord and tenant, with regular contacts. It also rendered the pattern of land ownership and occupation flexible and adaptable in the face of agricultural depression.


In a contribution to a symposium held to discuss Marjorie McIntosh’s Controlling misbehaviour in England, 1370–1600 (Cambridge, 1998), Hanawalt emphasizes the influence of demographic crisis upon social regulation. The Black Death of 1348–9 exerted a long term impact, breaking down community solidarity and enhancing physical mobility, but even short term fluctuations in ‘misbehaviour’ (or, more accurately, its prosecution) can quite generally be related to periodic demographic crises consequent upon plague or famine.


In these two articles, Hindle studies local politics and power relations as revealed by the operation of the Old Poor Law in Frampton, Lincolnshire, and neighbouring parishes. In the first he uses a wealth of detail drawn from surviving vestry minutes to show that power structures were complex, the vestry acting as a political, governmental and ideological agency, although a basic asymmetry of power lay at the heart of institutional poor relief throughout the period. Notable features of the operation of the Old Poor Law included the distinction between the treatment of ‘insiders’ (those regarded as belonging to the parish) and ‘outsiders’, the latter being dealt with much less sympathetically than the former, partly for paternalistic and partly for financial reasons.

The second paper concentrates on one feature of the local politics of these fenland parishes during the seventeenth century which will be of particular interest to LPS readers. Attempts were made by the ‘great and the good’ to discourage and even to forbid the marriages of paupers (or of those who were considered to be likely to burden the poor rates) by the simple expedient of
objecting when the banns were read. This practice was especially common if ‘outsiders’ were involved, and one motivation for it might have been the desire to prevent in-migration. Moreover, the extent to which pauper marriage was restricted was related to the prevailing degree of population pressure on resources: in times of ‘high pressure’ the incentive to restrict marriage in this way was greater. On the peg of pauper marriage, Hindle then hangs a critique of the individualistic rational-choice models favoured by historical demographers (and especially the Cambridge Group) in recent decades. These models, he asserts, inadequately contextualize historical actors’ decisions. For example, the view that population growth rates were largely determined by nuptiality changes ignores the institutional and individual context within which decisions about marriage were made. It is suggested that prohibition of pauper marriages may have contributed to the high celibacy rate that checked population growth in the seventeenth century. The problem with this argument is that studies of pauper populations to date do not suggest that they were either numerous enough, or generally of an appropriate age, to significantly affect national demographic trends in this way.

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This paper tells the story of the work done by Dr Arlidge in the field of occupational medicine in the late nineteenth century Staffordshire Potteries. After his appointment as a physician at the North Staffordshire Infirmary in 1862 he drew attention to the ill effects which dust in the workplace had on potters’ health, especially their chests. Later, in 1892, he published an important work called The hygiene, diseases and mortality of occupations. Holdsworth’s article will be of interest to any LPS readers who are working either on the Potteries, or on aspects of occupational health in late-nineteenth century England.


Howells argues that pauper emigrants in the mid nineteenth century were not ‘shovelled out’, but left by a process of negotiation with local authorities, occasionally laced with the threat that unless their emigration was subsidized, they would continue to burden the ratepayers of their native parishes for years to come. This paper reflects the current interest in the poor as active participants in the welfare process, rather than as passive recipients of doles.


This article analyzes illiteracy in Melton Mowbray, Hinckley and Coalville using the criterion (conventional but often criticized) of whether or not a person could sign his or her name in the marriage register. Illiteracy was highest in Hinckley and lowest in Melton Mowbray, and Hoyler argues that this reflects the towns’ relative economic situations, Hinckley being dominated by the declining framework-knitting industry and Melton Mowbray
being a prosperous market town. Illiteracy varied with occupation and with marriage distances (in long-distance marriages, both partners tended to be literate), but there was no clear association between age at marriage and literacy. This paper should be of particular interest to LPS readers because of the way it highlights the importance of variation in local contexts.


An unusual perspective upon family history is provided by Hughes, who examines the treatment meted out to Thomas Browne (1605–82), later Sir Thomas Browne, by his mother and step-father during his minority. His patrimony was poorly administered until his paternal uncle took charge of his affairs, the Court of Orphans authorizing a payment of £1,500 to his parents to secure complete withdrawal of their involvement.


This paper is the latest to result from Jane Humphries and Sara Horrell’s important study of a sample of household budgets from the years 1787–1865 (see the paper by Horrell and Humphries reviewed in LPS 61). Using the minority of household budgets which came from households headed by females, Humphries argues that the standard of living of female-headed households did not improve during this period (though she has very little data for the years after 1840). Like the handloom weavers and southern agricultural labourers, female-headed households had a negative experience during the industrial revolution. However, the strategies they adopted to make ends meet, such as providing lodgings, were important for the early industrial economy, for example in facilitating migration.


In an interesting article with demographic implications, Jones and Zell examine changing concern over female social behaviour in the small borough of Fordwich in Kent from court records. They find a distinct heightening of concern during the reign of Henry VII, and a dramatic decline of cases 1531–70. Such concern cannot, therefore, simply be equated with growing population pressure, but (as Hanawalt argues in the article reviewed above) it was possibly associated with outbreaks of disease, which were so often viewed as a punishment for sin. It must be recognized, however, that the sample of court cases available for examination was small, amounting to just 361 across this 120 year period.


Steven King has recently joined the LPS editorial board. This paper is the latest to result from his research into proto-industrial Calverley in the West Riding of Yorkshire. In Calverley, the age at marriage in the long eighteenth century
was low, and did not fall over time (as it did in England as a whole, according to the results of the Cambridge Group). It also varied by occupation and according to whether marriage was associated with upward or downward social mobility, or with ‘staying put’ in the social scale. It is clear also that many Calverley brides and grooms at this time could not have been economically independent at marriage. King concludes first, that the Wrigley and Schofield model did not apply everywhere in England, and, second, that the motivations of those marrying were complex and can only be uncovered by detailed local studies.


This paper is another econometric analysis of the data provided in Wrigley and Schofield’s *The Population History of England*. The results of the analysis are generally supportive of the conceptual structure which Wrigley and Schofield use to describe the inter-relationships between vital rates and real wages in early modern England.


This is an article-length review of the Cambridge Group’s recent book *English Population History from Family Reconstitution 1580–1837*, also reviewed in *LPS 60*. Levine is critical of the book for several reasons. First, the results cannot be considered representative of England as a whole. The Cambridge Group’s sample of parishes varies over time, and for the period after 1789 only includes eight parishes, none of which is north of the Trent. Second the results do not fundamentally change our knowledge of English historical demography, merely adding detail to a story, the broad outlines of which have been known for 20 years. Third, the analysis of fertility is relentlessly aggregative, obscuring much possible variation in fertility behaviour. Fourth, the Cambridge Group have privileged statistical accuracy over the possibility of conducting analyses which are innovative in a social and economic sense. Finally, the demography of early modern England is studied without much reference to the broader historical context (the paper by Hindle reviewed above makes a similar point).

Lewis, J., ‘“Tis a misfortune to be a great ladie”: maternal mortality in the British aristocracy, 1558–1959’, *Journal of British Studies, 37*, 26–53.

In a fascinating examination of maternal mortality amongst the aristocracy across four centuries, Lewis finds that under 5 per cent of her sample of 1,251 women died in childbirth, a figure far lower than received wisdom or contemporary comment appear to indicate, although comparison with the population at large is unfortunately impossible. Early modern rates were significantly lower than those that prevailed in the later eighteenth century, and fell to below 4 per cent in the late seventeenth century. The nineteenth century witnessed a considerable decline. The key variable appears to be the degree of emphasis upon maximization of fertility to ensure male succession, reinforced
by non-interventionist medicine and a potentially hazardous dietary fashion in the later eighteenth century. Hence ‘For most women...it was the long years of very short birth intervals that killed’.


These two papers report the findings of a project which investigates mortality in late nineteenth century England and Wales using data from 36 towns. In the first paper, the towns are classified into types according to their main economic activity (for example textile towns, agricultural market centres, ports, seaside towns, etc.) and factors related to age-specific mortality decline identified using statistical analysis. It turns out that population size, housing, wages and food prices are all associated. The authors interpret these results as supporting both the McKeown thesis and environmental accounts of mortality decline. An economic model is also estimated, but is rather less convincing although still useful. Household wealth and income appear to be related to mortality, as are prices (though the most significant price variable was the price of tea, which is hard to interpret!). A key observation of the paper is that rising living standards facilitate expenditure by local authorities on sanitation and other environmental improvements. The second paper looks at the effect of this expenditure on mortality in more detail. Prior to 1880, the main objective of investment was the water supply. However, improving the water supply may not have had much of an impact on mortality because drainage and sewerage were still inadequate. Although a major increase in expenditure after 1895 might be linked to the decline of infant mortality after 1900, the authors are generally rather sceptical about there being too close a relationship between the amount of money invested in public works and mortality during the late nineteenth century.


In the field of migration, Monson’s piece on noblewomen of the Huguenot refuge provides some relief from the usual emphasis upon the middling and lower orders by examining the experience of the widow, daughter and granddaughter of Barthélemy Herwarth, who sought refuge in England as persecution increased following the revocation of the Edict of Nantes in 1685.


This paper is another contribution to the recent flow of literature on changes in landholding patterns between the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries (see, for example, the paper by Hallas reviewed above). Moore-Colyer argues, largely on the basis of evidence from the parish of Weldon near Corby, that enclosure did not extinguish the small occupier. What emerged after enclosure
was a complex occupational pattern in which many owners and tenants of smallholdings let (or sublet) them to others, and took other holdings on as tenants. He also stresses the role of dual occupations, which allowed many occupiers of small pieces of land to earn a decent living. There are similarities between the way small occupiers in east Northamptonshire managed to adapt to changing circumstances, and the strategies used by the peasantry of the Yorkshire Pennines which Hallas describes in the article reviewed above.


Irish immigrants to London in the mid-seventeenth century, Noonan finds, were increasingly harshly treated, at least in those parishes that possessed a stable leadership, enabling the translation of ideology into policy. This is explained in terms of the impact of the Irish rebellion of 1641, and particularly of John Temple’s treatise on the same, which emphasized both religious and ethnic differences, and exerted great influence at both local and national levels. This treatise, it is suggested, managed ‘to sear the English mind with an image of the Irish that would last for centuries’, a ringing phrase indeed, but perhaps one that gives too much credit to the importance of an individual book which, despite ten editions 1646–1812, can hardly be held so wholly responsible for anti-Irish sentiment.


Using evidence from Puddletown, Dorset, and Terling, Essex, this paper argues that although the Old Poor Law contained a clause seemingly requiring families to support their indigent elderly relations, this clause was hardly ever enforced by local poor law authorities. Family support was frequently given, but, contrary to what the Old Poor Law advocated, it was often in kind rather than cash. By contrast, cash payments by the parish were vital in supporting many elderly persons, and these cash ‘pensions’, when combined with some additional family support in kind, would often be enough to enable the elderly to achieve a standard of living similar to that they attained when in work. It is also suggested that many old people supported themselves either wholly or in part, a feature of community life which historians have neglected.


Much research in local population history uses nominative record linkage. The Cambridge Group’s family reconstitutions based on parish are the most famous example, but historians have, during the last 20 or 30 years, also linked a variety of additional sources which give nominative information. In this informative paper, the linkage of various types of poor law records (most notably overseers’ account books, but also vestry minutes, bastardy records and apprenticeship documents) to parish registers for the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries is described. The paper is very clearly written with the prac-
tising local historian in mind. Rules are listed which may be used to determine when ‘definite’ and ‘probable’ links exist. Some results from the authors’ own projects are also described, indicating that life-cycle poverty persisted in rural England throughout the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries.


Parkinson compares the Compton census returns of 1676 for that part of Llandaff diocese which lay in Glamorgan with the Hearth Tax data for 1666 and 1670. Analyzing the 32 parishes for which the evidence is comparable, she concludes that as many as 26 of the 32 Compton returns appear to omit poorer cottagers, and in nine cases possibly other households as well, rendering them of little value as a source for estimating total population. This methodology might well be applied elsewhere in England and Wales to test the reliability of the Compton returns, for it seems clear that they varied widely in quality.


These papers are based on a study of Oxfordshire. In the first, Song argues that landlords exercised and retained control over labour mobility throughout the period 1750 to 1850. Their ability to use the poor law to influence local labour markets in their favour survived the 1834 Poor Law Amendment Act and the reorganization of petty sessional boundaries in the 1820s and 1830s. The landlords’ principal aim was to control the circulation of the more productive workers within groups of parishes. The article includes some analysis of ‘open’ and ‘close’ parishes, emphasizing that there were many degrees of ‘openness’. Finally, despite the parochial basis of the poor law, the autonomy of individual parishes to act was circumscribed by the supervision of various regional ‘authorities’.

In the second paper, Song develops some ideas about the relationship between the poor law and migration. He reiterates the conclusion of the previous paper that parishes had less autonomy than is commonly supposed. The other main points to emerge in this paper are first, that the role of settlement in labour migration was marked; second, that policies on pauper settlement and migration were selective so that the local economy was the greatest beneficiary of the settlement framework; and, third, that conventional approaches to understanding migration (for example those couched in terms of ‘push’ and ‘pull’ factors) are unsatisfactory because they fail to take into account the contingent nature of people’s decisions about whether or not to migrate.


This short note starts out as if to challenge Alan Dyer’s interpretation of the
‘sweat’ as a disease spread by an environmental vector (or ‘zoonosis’) as well as by human contact (see the review of Dyer’s article in LPS 61), but ends by supporting his interpretation. Contemporary descriptions show similarities with a modern pulmonary disease with a rodent vector (HPS), but very recent evidence has revealed that HPS too can be spread by human contact. This gives further plausibility to the argument that the ‘sweat’ was indeed a virus with a marked pulmonary component and few cutaneous signs, and hence modern epidemiological evidence appears to support the conclusions Dyer reached from historical demographic data.


The first of these papers reports a study based on data on the heights of working class boys recruited into the Marine Society 1770–1873. Voth and Leunig conclude that boys who suffered from (and survived) smallpox in childhood were, on average, about one inch shorter by their teenage years than boys who had not had smallpox. The remaining three papers are contributions to a debate arising out of the first. Razzell argues that the Marine Society records suffer from a number of deficiencies which make them unreliable for this purpose. Heintel and Baten, by contrast, take issue with Voth and Leunig’s analysis for various technical reasons. In their reply, Leunig and Voth defend both the quality of the Marine Society data and the analysis in their original article. The debate as a whole is of interest in that it encapsulates the question of the validity of conclusions reached on the basis of the complex statistical analyses of the ‘new’ economic history.


Wall compares family and household systems in Corfe Castle in 1790 (which will be well known to LPS readers familiar with Osamu Saito’s paper in LPS 22) with those in Corsica and Hungary. He argues that the presence of relatives in the households of Corfe Castle arose because they were either providing or receiving services (in other words, services were being transferred within the extended family for reasons of welfare). In Corsica and Hungary, by contrast, relatives were present because of the way in which household headship was transferred down the generations (for example through the stem family system).

In the early decades of the twentieth century, George Newman was Medical Officer of Health for the borough of Finsbury in London. In 1919 he became Chief Medical Officer to the new Ministry of Health. While in Finsbury, Newman published a book entitled Infant mortality: a social problem. This paper discusses the contribution of this book to the understanding of high rates of infant mortality from diarrhoea in urban areas at the turn of the twentieth century. Stress is laid on Newman’s concern to promote maternal health education in general, and breast-feeding in particular.


This is a case study of the parish registers of Holy Trinity, Whitehaven. Between 1750 and 1780 the incumbent, Thomas Sewel, kept records of causes of death, based on consultation with local doctors, which are analyzed. Perhaps the most interesting result is that smallpox accounted for 597 of the 3,138 deaths for which causes are given, a figure even greater than the one in six which is sometimes quoted for urban areas in the eighteenth century. Typhus was also important, and there were a substantial number of accidental deaths in the town’s docks and mines. It was believed by contemporaries that maritime traffic played a part in introducing epidemics of feverish illness to the town.


In another contribution to the history of migration, Whelan turns our attention to Huguenot refugees in Ireland, finding that their narratives all reveal a tapestry of their origin, struggle for survival and flight into exile, with a view to the preservation of this heritage for their descendants. It is suggested, however, that we must move beyond this view of these refugees as victims turned heroes, and remember too that they were colonizers of Ireland, and shared the same priorities as other colonial presences: power, possession, security and subjugation. She finds clear signs of a wrestling with the problem of religious imperialism in the early eighteenth century.


This article reports a study of a sample of ‘idiot’ children admitted to the National Asylum for Idiots on Earlswood Common near Redhill, Surrey, 1851–1886. The asylum admitted fee-paying people besides those whose costs were paid in full or in part by the charity which founded the asylum. Paupers, however, were excluded. For readers of LPS, Wright’s most interesting finding may be that poorer children sent to the asylum came from families who were deprived of extensive kin networks (often because of migration), and they also
tended not to have older siblings available to care for them. There is also evidence to suggest that sending an ‘idiot’ child to the asylum was a tactic used by parents to help them overcome the life-cycle budgetary crisis arising when they had many young, dependent children to support.


Wrigley argues that the rise in marital fertility between the end of the seventeenth century and the first decades of the nineteenth century can be explained by a decline in the number of stillbirths (which increased the number of live births). Trends in the stillbirth rate are estimated using trends in endogenous and neonatal mortality. Wrigley maintains that this trend alone can account for about 25 per cent of the rise in population growth rates, and when combined with changing nuptiality patterns can potentially account for the whole of the rise in population. He admits that his argument is somewhat speculative, and there are problems of timing yet to be resolved. Nevertheless, it suggests one way in which economic change and mortality might be linked.