

REVIEW OF RECENT PERIODICAL LITERATURE

Nigel Goose and Andrew Hinde

All articles reviewed were published in 2004 unless otherwise stated.

P. Anderton, 'Milking the sources: Cheshire dairy farming and the field notebooks of the 1910 "Domesday" survey', *Local Historian*, **34**, 1–16.

Anderton draws attention to the value of the field notebooks, held in the National Archives at Kew (class IR58), that were written to facilitate the land tax valuation exercise that started in 1910, which are more informative than the related valuation books that can be found in county record offices. His study covers six neighbouring townships in the Holmes Chapel district of Cheshire where dairy farming predominated. A range of information is presented on farm sizes, land ownership, rents per acre, the floor plans of farms and the various specialised spaces and outbuildings they incorporated. Although the notebooks were not intended as a judgement upon farming methods and do not contain information on size of herds, variety of crops or profit margins, both the structural information they contain and the personal judgements sometimes offered give at least impressionistic evidence of the range and quality of farming practice.

P. Austin, 'The Hertfordshire Lay Subsidy of 1307: topography, soils and taxable wealth', *Herts Past & Present*, 3rd series, **2** (2003), 3–11.

Austin utilises the published returns from the 1307 subsidy for Hertfordshire (J. Brooker and S. Flood, eds, *Hertfordshire Lay Subsidy Rolls 1307 and 1334*, Hertfordshire Record Publications, **14** (1998), with an introduction by Mark Bailey), converts tax paid to taxable wealth and proceeds to map these results onto the soil and topography of the county. As the greatest part of the tax burden fell upon those with lower taxable wealth, the data primarily reflects the number of taxpayers, and to a lesser degree the wealth of individuals. He finds that all but one of the top ten townships were located on the main high-ways that followed the major river valleys through the centre and eastern edge of the county, which offered the best agricultural opportunities due to the rich alluvial soils found there. Smaller townships were situated on well drained boulder clays, but those who lived on the north-western uplands and southern London clays did not generate sufficient wealth to reach the tax threshold. As in adjoining Bedfordshire, therefore, settlement patterns and wealth were strongly related to soil types, and to access to major roads and waterways.

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E. Baigent, 'Fact or fiction? Town maps as aids and snares to the historian', *Archives*, **29**, 110, 24–37.

By a detailed consideration of a series of examples, Baigent shows in this paper the circumstances in which contemporary town maps can be a useful aid to tracing the history of urban development. She emphasises that, as with any other historical sources, it is important to 'consider the purpose for which the map was drawn, the context in which it was published and often republished, and the personality of the cartographer' (p. 37). The examples she considers include maps of Bristol, Bath and Gloucester.

Bailey, K.A., 'Who was who and who became whom: Buckinghamshire land-owners 1066 and 1086', *Records of Buckinghamshire*, **44**, 51–66.

Bailey examines the evidence contained in the Domesday Book on the changing nature of land ownership in Buckinghamshire in the 20 years after the Norman conquest. In 1066 land ownership was highly fragmented, reflecting centuries of partible inheritance as well as the ebb and flow between Anglo-Saxon and Dane: neither the crown nor the church was a major landowner. The defeat of Harold II at Hastings led to a massive change in landownership, scarcely one acre in 100 remaining in English hands. Of 393 Buckinghamshire estates listed in 1086, only 25 were held by the same person or institution as in 1066, while all the remaining English owners were 'small fry'. A second group of Anglo-Saxons managed to survive as tenants to Norman overlords while, much more rarely, some new English owners emerged as a result of accommodation reached with the new regime.

M. Barke, 'An 1811 census manuscript from North Shields', *Local Historian*, **34**, 28–36.

This paper attempts to establish the provenance of an undated manuscript population count of part of the urban area of North Shields which, from internal evidence, was probably drawn up in connexion with the 1811 census. The document is analysed to provide information on population size and growth in Tynemouth since 1800, the relationship between families, tenements and houses, local topography, and sex ratios. Sex ratios were heavily skewed towards women, and in the absence of significant opportunities in the area for female employment, it seems likely that this was a product of the temporary absence of men from this maritime centre due to the exigencies of war, which must cast doubt upon the representativeness of some of the statistics offered here

L.M. Beier, 'Expertise and control: childbearing in three twentieth century working class Lancashire communities', *Bulletin of the History of Medicine*, **78**, 379–409.

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who were born between the 1870s and the 1950s. The argument advanced is that the medical profession gradually wrested control of childbearing from working class women partly because the falling birth rate meant that giving birth became a rarer event in the lives of most women, and partly because the profession was able to claim credit for the reduction of infant mortality and was thus able to argue authoritatively that medicalised childbirth was likely to lead to still lower infant death rates. The consequence was that traditional working class practices surrounding childbirth disappeared. The paper also contains insights into fertility and birth control. Beier's respondents suggest that until World War I there was a certain fatalism about family size, but that afterwards the idea of planning a family was more overt. Abstinence and withdrawal were cited as widely used methods of contraception, with many women resorting to illegal abortions.

R. Bellingham, 'Dade parish registers', *Local Population Studies*, **73**, 51–60.

Dade parish registers survive in considerable—if as yet not fully known—numbers for the dioceses of York and Chester between 1777 and 1812. These registers include far more information than do standard parish registers and, although exact details vary, can give information on occupations, parentage, birth order, date of birth and baptism, age and cause of death and migration. Bellingham shows that they are by no means obscure, which makes it all the more surprising that they have not been more fully exploited for demographic purposes. It is hoped that this article will encourage historians to use them in the future.

E.C. Benson and C. Doxey, 'The ecclesiastical census of 1851 and the Church of Jesus Christ of the Latter-day Saints', *Local Historian*, **34**, 66–79.

The excellent records of the Church of Jesus Christ of the Latter-day Saints provide a record of 359 extant branches in the year 1851, which compares with just 188 recorded in the religious census of that year, just 52 per cent of the total; further comparison by locality gave only 133 matches, just 37 per cent of the total. Such a high omission rate is not surprising, however, given the fact that the church was new in Great Britain and rarely had its own chapels by this date, the majority of branches meeting in homes or rented rooms, or places that served other purposes during the week. Furthermore, the census records identified 55 locations for which no membership records exist, demonstrating the value of using difference sources in tandem. The study includes a detailed examination of branches of the church in Norfolk.

K. Branigan, 'With the crofters to Canada', *History Today*, **54**, 2, 41–7.

M. Garrett, 'Some Northumbrian emigrants to Australia and Canada: Part 1: Australia', *Tyne and Tweed*, **58**, 40–52.

M. Harper, 'Enticing the emigrant: Canadian agents in Ireland and Scotland, c. 1870–c. 1920', *Scottish Historical Review*, **83**, 41–58.

A. McCarthy, 'Personal accounts of leaving Scotland', *Scottish Historical Review*, 83, 196–215.

R.A. Perkins, 'Emigrants from Torquay to Quebec, 1849–1854', *Devon and Cornwall Notes and Queries*, 39, 152–6.

These five papers all deal with aspects of emigration, the three by Branigan, Harper and McCarthy specifically with emigration from Scotland. In the first of these three, Branigan charts the patterns of emigration from the Isle of Barra to Canada during the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. Until the mid-nineteenth century emigration was fuelled fairly continuously by the harsh conditions in the Hebrides, and the vastly greater opportunities for economic advancement in Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island and Cape Breton Island (the main destinations of the emigrants). Even the introduction of local industrial employment in the form of kelp processing could not stem the tide. Later, in 1850 and 1851, clearances forced another swathe of crofters to depart for Canada. According to Branigan, between 1770 and 1840 more than 2,000 people left (p. 47). In a population of about 2,000, this amounts to an emigration rate of at least 14 per thousand per year, which must have come close to cancelling out the natural increase.

The study of the activities of emigration agents is proving a fruitful approach to the history of emigration in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (for an earlier study of this type, see the paper by Hudson reviewed in *Local Population Studies*, 69(2002)). In the third paper, Harper looks at Canadian agents in Scotland and Ireland. Some of the agents in Scotland were very diligent, and in general they were more successful than their counterparts in Ireland. Agents in Ireland had to contend with the reluctance of the Catholic population to leave, long-standing links with the United States which made it more attractive than Canada as a potential destination, and the active discouragement of emigration during the civil war of 1916–23. Protestants in Northern Ireland were worried that selective emigration could lead to a shifting of the demographic balance in the six counties in favour of Catholics. In both Scotland and Ireland, Canadian agents had competition from agents from New Zealand and Queensland (Australia), who were not slow to stress that the Antipodean climate was better than that in Canada.

In the fourth paper, McCarthy uses oral history evidence to shed light on emigration from Scotland during the inter-war period. The main conclusion of her analysis is that emigration during these years was heavily influenced by 'personal networks' which 'disseminated ... information about potential destinations ...[and] supplied intending migrants with funding for their passage and assistance upon arrival' (pp. 212–3). By the 1920s and 1930s these personal networks were extensive, and are given great prominence in the oral history testimony. McCarthy tentatively suggests that they might have been more important than economic circumstances in persuading would-be migrants to leave, and might help explain the apparent paradox that many people still left Scotland during the nineteenth century when the Scottish economy was very healthy.

The articles by Garrett and Perkins offer information rather than analysis. Garrett has extracted the names of 23 successful men of Northumbrian origin from the *Dictionary of Australian Biography*, and provides a brief précis of their careers. Perkins provides a transcript for 1849–1854 of the pocket book of John Crossman, a timber merchant of Torquay who took passengers to Quebec on his timber ships. The book usually, but not invariably, gives name, occupation or family relationship, age, the amount paid and date of payment, plus occasional marginal notes. Those listed were of humble origin, no doubt aspiring to the success achieved by their Northumbrian counterparts highlighted by Garrett.

E. Brown, 'Gender, occupation, illiteracy and the urban economic environment: Leicester, 1760–1890', *Urban History*, 31, 191–209.

This complex paper attempts to examine a network of relationships between illiteracy and occupation in industrialising Leicester. Using a well-known measure of illiteracy (the percentage of brides and grooms who could sign their own name in the marriage register), Brown shows that female literacy (at 40–50 per cent in the eighteenth century) was lower than that of males (60–70 per cent during the eighteenth century) throughout the period from 1760 to 1890, though it had almost caught up by the end of the period. Certain occupations (notably framework knitting) were characterised by low literacy, though the evidence supporting this conclusion relates largely to males.

S. Brush, 'When were babies baptised? Some Welsh evidence', *Local Population Studies*, 72, 83–7.

This short note provides information on birth-baptism intervals in Cerrigydudion and the surrounding area between 1662 and 1812. The evidence clearly indicates the variability of local practice, as well as confirming the existence of differences by social class.

J. Burnette, 'The wages and employment of female day-labourers in English agriculture, 1740–1850', *Economic History Review*, 57, 664–90.

Information on the employment and remuneration of women workers in agriculture is acknowledged to be scarce and difficult to use. Most conventional sources (such as census returns and the various surveys conducted during the Victorian period) are hard to interpret because women's work tended to be highly seasonal and to vary markedly even over short distances with the type of agriculture being practised. In this paper, Burnette turns to a potentially more reliable source: farm accounts. These have the advantage in that they record the number of women employed on a continuous basis, together with the amounts that women were paid. They are by no means perfect, but Burnette is surely right when she says that they are superior to other possible sources. Using a sample of farm accounts drawn from across England, she shows that female wages varied over time between the mid-eighteenth and mid-nineteenth centuries in a way similar to male wages. They also varied regionally, being higher in areas where other sectors of the

economy competed for female labour (such as the north-west of England). During the first half of the nineteenth century the male-female wage gap increased (except in the north-west), but females continued to be employed as outdoor labourers to an extent roughly double that reported in the 1851 census.

A. Burns, K. Fincham and S. Taylor, 'Reconstructing clerical careers: the experience of the Clergy of the Church of England Database', *Journal of Ecclesiastical History*, **55**, 726–37.

This paper describes the construction of a database containing biographical details of all clergy of the Church of England between 1540 and 1835. The authors stress the variety of sources which were used to try to capture information about as many clergy as possible, and the difficulties of multi-source record linkage that they encountered. Eventually, it is hoped to make the database available on-line to academics and family historians.

J.C. Caldwell, 'Social upheaval and fertility decline', *Journal of Family History*, **29**, 382–406.

Classical demographic transition theory holds that the decline in fertility takes place some time after the decline in mortality because institutional supports to high fertility (which were essential in order to maintain population numbers when mortality was high) are slow to adapt to a lower mortality regime. One corollary of this is that great social upheaval might accelerate the removal of these supports. In this paper, Caldwell examines this hypothesis by looking at 13 examples of massive social dislocation, including one from England: the Civil War and Commonwealth period of the seventeenth century. He concludes that there is considerable evidence that such periods are associated with rapid fertility decline, and that there is only rarely a 'catching up' once the period of upheaval has come to an end. It is unlikely, however, that social 'crises' of this kind can, alone, cause a fertility transition, but they might accelerate one which is already happening; and they might also bring forward a fertility transition which was about to happen for more conventional reasons.

D. Cant and C. Lloyd, 'A springtime saunter: continuity and change in the Pennines', *Transactions of the Halifax Antiquarian Society*, **12**, 122–48.

In 1913, two amateur historians from Halifax, Whiteley Turner and W.E. Denison, together with a local artist, Arthur Comfort, published *A springtime saunter*, being a record of a walk they took over the moors to the north and west of Halifax and through the Brontë country of Haworth and Oxenhope. The book included a wealth of social commentary, including some analysis of population changes in the area. In this paper, Cant and Lloyd write about the authors of *A springtime saunter*, and bring the social and economic history of the area up to date, by describing changes in the twentieth century. The article includes some extracts from censuses, together with oral history evidence gathered from local inhabitants.

P. Carter, 'Southwell Poor Law Union, Nottinghamshire, 1834–1871', *Nottinghamshire Historian*, 72, 6–8.

This is a brief progress report on a project to list and make available on-line the correspondence between the board of guardians of Southwell Poor Law Union and the central Poor Law Commission and Board in London, held in class M12 in the National Archives in Kew. Although these volumes are listed in the Archives' electronic catalogue, there is no indication there of their content, and the Southwell Workhouse Research Group intends to make that content available through the construction of both an electronic catalogue and scanned images, working in harness with the National Trust and the National Archives itself. The Archives have provided microfilms of 11 volumes of correspondence, the National Trust have provided office space on the site of the restored Southwell workhouse, and the Research Group are doing the work—providing an exemplar of team work in local historical research. To date that work is already beginning to reveal the intimate nature of the local and regional information that class M12 records contain.

A. Clark, 'Compliance with infant smallpox vaccination legislation in nineteenth-century rural England: Hollingbourne, 1876–88', *Social History of Medicine*, 17, 175–98.

In this paper, Clark examines the administration of smallpox vaccination in one small area of rural Kent, focusing on the tensions between the local authorities and the central Local Government Board, which are revealed in a voluminous correspondence. The Hollingbourne area had a better record of compliance with the vaccination legislation than either Kent as a whole, or the national average. Allowing for infant vaccinations which took place at ages older than the maximum permitted by law, it seems that more than 90 per cent of eligible infants were vaccinated. Previous articles on vaccination legislation include those by Baxby (reviewed in *Local Population Studies (LPS)* 65 (2000)); Durbach (reviewed in *LPS* 67 (2001)); and Brown and Brown, and Durbach (reviewed in *LPS* 71 (2003)).

B.E. Crawford and S. Taylor, 'The southern frontier of Norse settlement in north Scotland place-names and history', *Northern Scotland*, 23 (2003), 1–76.

This article describes the results of an Arts and Humanities Research Board funded project to conduct an in-depth study of the place names of the Strathglass and Beasley and Glass river systems, where the most southern, certain, example of a Norse name was known to survive. Immense linguistics problems were encountered, and as surviving Norse place names are so few there are no clear pointers to the nature of the frontier or type of settlement. It appears, however, that a process of restriction of names to a particular part of an area took place rather than a clear replacement, while the complex overlaying and interacting strata of names from different languages indicate a complex ethnic and political chronology. The authors tentatively hypothesise the existence of a frontier society in which incoming Norse settlers mingled with the established population, but while there is enough toponymic evidence to be certain of their

presence, it is impossible to say anything about the nature of their relationship with the indigenous population.

R.G.M. Crockett, A.C. Crockett and S.J. Turner, ' "Base number correlation": a new technique for investigating digit preference and data heaping', *History and Computing*, 13 (2001), 161–79.

Users of historical censuses will be well aware of the phenomenon of 'age heaping', whereby reported ages are concentrated on numbers ending in the digit 0 (and to a lesser extent 5). The same phenomenon of digit preference occurs in a wide range of historical documents, and the heaping is not always on multiples of five and ten. The authors of this paper present a simple but general method of assessing the magnitude and statistical significance of the data heaping which can be applied in most contexts. The method is explained in detail and compared with existing approaches. Its advantages over previous methods are principally that it is amenable to statistical testing and that it is not restricted to heaping on any particular multiples. It can be applied equally to age heaping in census data, to data on durations in days (which tend to heap on multiples of seven), or to data giving numbers of people attending religious services (which tend to heap on multiples of 50).

M. Davies and J. Kissock, 'The feet of fines, the land market and the English agricultural crisis of 1315 to 1322', *Journal of Historical Geography*, 30, 215–30.

Feet of fines are copies of legal agreements reached following disputes over landownership. Long dismissed as a piece of legal fiction, Davies and Kissock complete their restoration to respectability as a valuable source for the exploration of medieval agrarian history at the local and regional level. Here they are used to throw light on the land market in various English counties—principally Shropshire, Herefordshire and Gloucestershire—during the period of agricultural crisis of the early fourteenth century, so convincingly described by Ian Kershaw over 30 years ago ('The great famine and agrarian crisis in England 1315–1322', *Past and Present*, 59 (1973), 3–50). From an analysis of nearly 4,000 documents, they find an increased level of activity in the freehold land market during these years, paralleling previous studies of the customary land market, particularly in areas where other documentary sources—such as the *Nonarum Inquisitiones*—also indicate difficulty, while the 1327 lay subsidy further suggests that it was the poorer sections of society who were selling their land. For all of those forced to sell, there were others ready to take advantage of the opportunity to acquire both animals and land.

S. Dimmock, 'Haverfordwest: an exemplar for the study of southern Welsh towns in the later Middle Ages', *Welsh History Review*, 22, 1–28.

Dimmock discusses the population, regional significance, government, economy and social structure of Haverfordwest from the late thirteenth to the early sixteenth century. Recent estimates have revised the proportional demographic weight of Welsh towns in this period to *circa* 20 per cent of the total population, and for 1377 Haverfordwest is estimated at 2,635 souls, though not without a

little creative accounting. Decay set in at some point in the fifteenth century, but probably not until the 1450s, its long term decline producing a population of approximately 1,500 by 1563 according to the Bishops' Census of that year, although no allowance is made for the probable undercount that this census can produce. Nevertheless, in the later Middle Ages Haverfordwest played a significant regional role, received an important crown charter in 1479, was involved in the wine trade and may also have participated in the expanding cloth export trade. Over 40 occupations have been found recorded in deeds alone before 1549, all of this reflecting the role that it played as a major 'small town' in the later Middle Ages, only to decline and revert to the production of raw materials—along with many other Welsh towns—in the later sixteenth century.

R.A. Dodgshon, 'Coping with risk: subsistence crises in the Scottish Highlands and Islands, 1600–1800', *Rural History*, 15, 1–25.

Growing any kind of crop in Scotland's Highlands and Islands was ever a risky enterprise, and it is likely that low-level, minor subsistence 'crises' were a regular occurrence. In this paper, Dodgshon argues that local communities in this region had developed sophisticated strategies to cope with risk, with the result that for a major subsistence crisis to occur, not only did climatic conditions have to be extreme, but also they had to be extreme enough to overcome the risk-minimising strategies which the population had adopted. The paper presents a wide-ranging discussion of the nature of the Highland agrarian economy, and how the inhabitants coped with scarcity.

N. Evans, 'The Hearth Tax returns as a source for population size and the incidence of poverty in Suffolk during the reign of Charles II', *Proceedings of the Suffolk Institute of Archaeology and History*, 40, 455–9.

In this short paper Evans argues that the Hearth Taxes are not generally a reliable guide to either population size or levels of poverty. A brief administrative background is provided, emphasising inconsistency, confusion and the possibilities for evasion: it is suggested that one instruction required that all paupers should be listed, but this instruction does not appear to have been followed. Hearth Tax returns from 1674 (usually one of the more reliable and complete returns) for Framlingham and Stowmarket are compared with contemporary lists of poor-rate payers on the one hand and recipients of relief on the other, and it is discovered that the match is far from perfect for rate payers, and very poor for recipients or 'collectioners'. Indeed, only 14 of 117 collectioners identified in the Framlingham poor rate list of 1674 were found among the exempt in the Hearth Tax return of that year. Evans reports, however, that exemption certificates have not been consulted, as they remain unsorted and have not been microfilmed for Suffolk, while the fact that many paupers did not head households might well explain their absence from a tax that was only paid by household heads. While it is true that lists of those exempt from the Hearth Tax do not equate to the poor, much previous research testifies to the value of the returns if due allowance is made for the variable quality of recording between both place and time. *Local Population Studies*

readers might usefully consult T. Arkell, 'The incidence of poverty in England in the later seventeenth century', *Social History*, 12 (1987), and will no doubt already own a copy of K. Schürer and T. Arkell, eds, *Surveying the people: the interpretation and use of document sources for the study of population in the later seventeenth century* (Local Population Studies, 1992).

C.M. Fraser, 'The masters and mariners of Newcastle-upon-Tyne in the late seventeenth century', *Archaeologia Aeliana*, 5th series, 33, 161–73.

This paper uses a variety of archival sources, including probate records, Hearth Tax records, other tax returns and the records of Newcastle Trinity House, to study aspects of the lives of the men apprenticed to Trinity House between around 1650 and 1700. It sheds light on the families from which these men were drawn (not all with a seafaring tradition) and the geographical areas from which they came.

C. French, 'Infant mortality in Asylum Road, Kingston upon Thames, 1872–1911: an exercise in microhistory', *Family and Community History*, 7, 141–55.

In an article published in 2002, Peter Tilley described the Kingston Local History Project, which is using nominative record linkage to create life histories of the residents of that town during the late-nineteenth century (see P. Tilley, 'Creating life histories and family trees from nineteenth century census records, parish registers and other sources', *Local Population Studies (LPS)*, 68, 63–81). This paper describes one of the outputs of that exercise, a micro-study of infant mortality in one street of Kingston between 1872 and 1911. French shows that during this period there were 154 deaths of residents of Asylum Road, of which 64 were to infants aged under one year. Using census data, he demonstrates that Asylum Road was subject to intense overcrowding, being populated substantially by Italian immigrants engaged in casual work, more than one family of whom often shared one small house. The situation did not escape the attention of the Medical Officer of Health and the Coroner, but as many of the properties in Asylum Road were owned by a member of the Corporation and the Board of Guardians no action was taken. Readers interested in the Kingston Local History Project might like to consult the articles by French reviewed in *LPS* 73 (2004), and French and Warren reviewed below.

C. Galley, 'Social intervention and the decline of infant mortality: Birmingham and Sheffield, c.1870–1910', *Local Population Studies*, 73, 29–50.

C. French and J. Warren, 'Medical Officers of Health and infant mortality: the case of Kingston-upon-Thames in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries', *Local Population Studies*, 73, 61–72.

The first of these papers uses the annual reports of the Medical Officers of Health—an important but neglected source for the study of population at the local level—in a comparative analysis of infant mortality in Birmingham and Sheffield. The evidence that these reports contain needs to be treated with caution, since they were compiled by people who were convinced that sanitary reform was the key to improving health. For Birmingham, Galley concludes

that it is difficult, if not impossible, to assess how the various social measures introduced affected its infant mortality rate (IMR), but that it seems that social interventions can provide, at best, only a partial explanation of the declines in the IMR. The reports for Sheffield are poorer in quality, but show, as in Birmingham, that efforts to reduce infant deaths centred around preventing epidemic diarrhoea, that blame for infant deaths was frequently directed towards mothers, and that after 1900 efforts were made to improve maternal education. Though Sheffield was less interventionist than Birmingham, the overall pattern of decline in the IMRs in the two cities was virtually identical and hence it seems that social intervention by itself was not responsible for the turning point in the national infant mortality series.

The second paper is a case study of Kingston-upon-Thames in which French and Warren describe their database of the entries in the municipal cemetery burial registers at Bonner Hill between 1855 and 1911 (for more details, see the paper by French reviewed in *Local Population Studies*, 73 (2004)). These burial details have been linked to the Kingston census returns for 1861, 1871, 1881 and 1891. The burial database and the linked data are now being used to analyse the changing profile of mortality in general and infant mortality in particular. The value of combining the demographic data with the reports of the local Medical Officers of Health is emphasised. Work undertaken so far suggests that, at the individual level, those infants who died from summer diarrhoea had parents in low status occupations, lived in a predominantly working class streets and endured indifferent sanitary conditions.

N. Goose, 'Evaluating the 1881 census transcription: a pilot survey of Hertfordshire', *History and Computing*, 13 (2001, published 2004), 181–98.

This paper evaluates the accuracy of the transcription of the 1881 census enumerators' books (CEBs) under the auspices of the Genealogical Society of Utah which led to the creation of the machine-readable data files now available from AHDS History at the UK Data Archive. By comparing the AHDS files with photocopies and microfilms of the CEBs for a sample of Hertfordshire enumeration districts, Goose shows that serious errors of transcription (which involve the historian using the data files getting misleading or incorrect information) are, on average, very rare. Most serious errors relate to the information about age and occupation. However, although overall the transcription is of high quality, a few enumeration districts have much higher error rates than the average, and there is no easy way of telling which these are from the machine-readable files alone. Finally, the CEB column relating to disability only contains positive information for a small minority of the population, but the errors in transcription are in this case so frequent as to render the data almost useless.

N. Goose, 'Farm service in southern England in the mid-nineteenth century', *Local Population Studies*, 72, 77–82.

It is widely believed that 'living-in' farm service had largely withered as an institution in southern and eastern England by the mid-nineteenth century

(see, for example, A. Kussmaul, *Servants in Husbandry in Early Modern England* (Cambridge, 1981)). This short note is a report of an analysis of the incidence of farm service in the St Albans region carried out by the Centre for Regional and Local History at the University of Hertfordshire. It turns out that the incidence of farm service was considerably higher in this district than might have been expected, and at least double the county level shown in the published census reports. Work is continuing to extend the analysis to the whole county, and only then will the reliability or otherwise of the published census reports become clear.

N. Goose, 'Local Population Studies: history, demography and locality', *Local Historian*, **34**, 37–44.

This is the first of a series of articles commissioned by Alan Crosby, editor of *The Local Historian*, intended to bring to wider notice the activities of organisations dedicated to cognate areas of historical activity. A brief description is provided of the evolution of, and influences upon, historical demography since the 1950s, which underpinned the formation of the Cambridge Group for the History of Population and Social Structure and in consequence the journal *Local Population Studies* in 1968, designed as 'a forum for all who practice the art'. The evolution of the journal and its activities is outlined, as is its philosophy in promoting collaboration and mutuality between the professional and the 'amateur' branches of the historical community. The importance of locality, part of the sea-change that affected at least part of the historical profession in the 1960s, is emphasised, as is the centrality of population history to local history long before 'community history' ever raised its head. Its importance is perhaps greater than ever, for the key publications to arise from the work of the Cambridge Group have primarily focused upon the national picture, using local material instrumentally to this end, leaving much work to be done on locality and region. As this work proceeds, the limitations of national averages and the variety of experiences that constituted what have hitherto been described as national trends are repeatedly exposed, re-emphasising the need to take account not only of the specificities of time, but also of place, occupation and class.

R.A. Griffiths, 'Travelling between England and Wales: the itinerary of Sir Edward Don in 1524', *Carmarthenshire Antiquary*, **40**, 5–12.

Although travel between England and Wales was common by the early sixteenth century, few comments upon or descriptions of the process survive—hence the value of the account of Sir Edward Don, who travelled from his home in Buckinghamshire to mid-and south-Wales in 1524 on family business. Over a period of two months he kept a daily record of his costs and purchases along the way, an extended report upon which is provided here. Unfortunately, Don made few observations upon either Wales or the Welsh, but the diary serves to indicate just how such journeys could take place, and the ease and safety with which they could be conducted, in stark contrast to the dangers inherent in travel to Wales 100 years previously. He reported no signs of

hostility or distrust, and managed to cover 25–30 miles a day, very much like a trip to Wales today.

The nature and process of travel in early modern England is rarely discussed in standard histories of the period, despite the amount of movement that took place both within the British Isles and across the North Sea, and most accounts reside in the rarely read pages of the rather obscure publication series and journals. Any publication which helps to incorporate travel literature into the mainstream is to be welcomed.

S. Guest, 'Cure, superstition, infection and reaction: tuberculosis in Ireland, 1932–1957', *Oral History*, **32**, 63–72.

In *Local Population Studies* **73**, 86–7, we reviewed a paper by Anne Hardy about perceptions of tuberculosis in England and Wales between 1938 and 1970. This paper uses oral history evidence to describe attitudes to the same disease in Ireland during a similar period of the mid twentieth century. Guest shows that tuberculosis patients were frequently ostracised by Irish society, especially outside Dublin. Sanatoria were places to be feared and avoided. Patients who were discharged from sanatoria would often be isolated by their neighbours (and even sometimes by their own families). Death rates from tuberculosis were high, largely because a lack of X-ray equipment and ignorance or complacency on the part of doctors meant that the disease was not diagnosed at an early stage.

J.A. Hargreaves, ' "Suffer the children": Methodist attitudes to education and youth, 1800–2000', *Transactions of the Halifax Antiquarian Society*, **12**, 48–67.

This paper examines the development of Methodism in Halifax over two centuries, with special reference to attitudes towards children's education. Halifax was a prominent Methodist centre at an early date, with a circuit membership of 1,350 by 1800. Growth continued and new circuits emerged through to the mid-nineteenth century, after which decline set in, and the number of circuits contracted once again. Nevertheless, as late as 1972 there were 1,983 members of the Halifax circuit, falling to 1,088 by 2000. Despite a degree of wavering and uncertainty, Hargreaves detects a growing Methodist preoccupation with education and youth, which developed both in periods of expansion and decline. In periods of expansion it represented a concern to maintain control over Methodist youth, while when the movement felt under threat it represented an attempt to ensure the continuity of its mission. Its primary mechanism was the Sunday School movement, supplemented in the twentieth century by various uniformed and less formal youth organisations, but it struggled to maintain its hold from the 1930s onwards.

B. Harris, 'Public health, nutrition and the decline of mortality: the McKeown thesis revisited', *Social History of Medicine*, **17**, 379–407.

Despite Robert Woods's suggestion that it may be time 'to draw a line under the McKeown interpretation' of the modern rise of population and, especially, the

reasons for the decline in mortality after 1750, the McKeown thesis will not go away (see Woods, *The demography of Victorian England and Wales* (Cambridge, 2000), 359). Drawing on some recent advances in our understanding of the relationship between nutrition and infection; and on some new empirical evidence about real wage trends between 1750 and 1850, Harris challenges those who have dismissed McKeown's view that improved nutrition and a rising standard of living had an important part to play. He stresses that he is not trying to resurrect the McKeown thesis in its entirety, but wants to offer a 'qualified defence' which also 'acknowledges some ... weaknesses' (p. 405). This reviewer (AH) considers that the paper succeeds in raising the possibility that nutritional improvements might have indirectly contributed more to the decline in mortality than recent literature has allowed. It also highlights some of the gaps in our knowledge of the causes of mortality, notably the lack of any convincing explanation about why mortality from tuberculosis fell so sharply after the mid nineteenth century, and the quantitative impact on mortality trends of immunisation against smallpox and the draining of marshlands before 1850. This is an important paper, which will be essential reading for anyone interested in the history of mortality decline in England during the past 300 years.

J.F. Harrison, 'The typhoid epidemic at Wakefield Prison, 1874–75: a little local incident?' *Northern History*, 41, 357–76.

This paper describes the epidemic of typhoid which struck Wakefield Prison between December 1874 and April 1875. Harrison describes the complex and inadequate sanitation system in the prison, and charts the lack of a systematic and effective response to the initial outbreak of the disease. He also shows that the outbreak did have long-term effects on the administration of medical care in the prison, as it led indirectly to the appointment of a full-time surgeon. For readers interested in such matters, there are also detailed descriptions of the workings of various types of late nineteenth century earth and water closets.

T.J. Hatton, 'Emigration from the UK, 1870–1913 and 1950–1998', *European Review of Economic History*, 8, 149–69.

This paper analyses the determinants of emigration in the great emigration boom period of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries and compares them with the factors which have affected migration since 1950. Hatton estimates a regression model of emigration to the United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand between 1870 and 1913, and finds that this Victorian and Edwardian emigration was driven largely by economic factors, along with a 'friends and relatives' effect and some effect from the prevalence of assisted passages – especially to Australia between 1910 and 1913. He then tries to apply the results of this model to 'predict' emigration since 1950 and finds that his predictions are quite successful until the mid-1970s, but thereafter emigration was substantially lower than predicted. He attributes the gap to the increasing restrictions placed by the destination countries on migrants from the United Kingdom.

A. Hill, 'Serving the invisible researcher: meeting the needs of online users', *Journal of the Society of Archivists*, **25**, 139–48.

During the past few years, this review of the periodical literature has kept abreast of a recent debate among archivists about the tension between the needs of academic researchers and 'leisure historians' (see the papers by Mortimer and Gee reviewed in *Local Population Studies (LPS)* **71** (2003) and Moran and Taylor reviewed in *LPS* **73** (2004)). This debate focussed on researchers who actually visit record offices. However, an increasing number of users of archives these days travel no further than their home computer terminal, and this paper looks at the needs of this constituency. It is quite technical in places, but gives an insight into the ways that the archivist profession is thinking about providing and enhancing services for online users.

J. Hill, 'The Dorking emigration scheme of 1832', *Family and Community History*, **7**, 115–28.

The topic of the assisted emigration of paupers during the 1830s has been discussed in several recent articles recently (see the papers by Howells reviewed in *Local Population Studies (LPS)*, **63** (1999); *LPS* **67** (2001), and *LPS* **73** (2004)). In this paper, Hill discusses a scheme organised by the poor law authorities in the Surrey town of Dorking which assisted 77 people to emigrate to Canada in 1832, and another party of similar size in 1833. Like Howells, Hill believes that the select vestry acted out of 'a genuine desire to improve the lives of the poor' (p. 127). There seems little doubt, though, from the figures she quotes, that one effect of the emigration was to reduce the amount of money paid out in poor relief in Dorking. Therefore altruism and self-interest seem to have made a happy partnership for the ratepayers of Dorking in this case! The Dorking emigration was organised under the auspices of the Petworth Emigration Committee, the workings of which are described in a paper by Thomas reviewed in *LPS* **71** (2003).

A. Hinde, 'The use of nineteenth-century census data to investigate local migration', *Local Population Studies*, **73**, 8–28.

This paper presents an analysis of migration between 1851 and 1861 in four small areas of rural England which were characterised by different social and economic conditions. The analysis makes use of data from the census enumerators' books but is aggregative in form, avoiding the extremely time-consuming use of record linkage of individual-level data. Estimates are obtained of age-specific net migration among those native and non-native to each study area, separately for males and females. The level of detail thus revealed allows migration patterns to be discussed in the light of the key economic characteristics of each area. Female migration by age in the mid-nineteenth century was fairly similar across rural England except in those areas where there were substantial female employment opportunities. Patterns of migration among men varied more noticeably, and responded not only to the existence of occupational sectors other than agriculture, but also to the structure of the agrarian labour force, and to the local availability of employment over time.

J. Hurl-Eamon, 'Policing male heterosexuality: the reformation of manners societies' campaign against the brothels in Westminster, 1690–1720', *Journal of Social History*, 37, 1017–35.

Societies for the reformation of manners flourished in English cities from the 1690s to the 1730s. London recognizances reveal that hundreds of middling and elite men were arrested for consorting with prostitutes, and such men were targeted by these societies, contradicting the current orthodoxy that they only concerned themselves with policing the poor. This article further suggests that the arrests of these men reflects a fundamental transition in the history of sexuality, from seeing prostitutes as predators to perceiving them as victims, and a growing expectation of chastity among men as well as women.

N.P.A.S. Johnson, 'Scottish 'flu – the Scottish experience of "Spanish flu" ', *Scottish Historical Review*, 83, 216–26.

This short note about the history of the influenza epidemic in Scotland between the spring of 1918 and the summer of 1919 shows that the Scottish experience was similar to that of England and Wales, in that the epidemic was distinguished by three successive peaks of mortality and by the fact that young adults were particularly badly affected. Urban areas also suffered more intensely than rural areas, although some level of excess mortality occurred everywhere.

M. Jolles, 'The presence of Jews in Northamptonshire', *Northamptonshire Past and Present*, 57, 54–68.

This study uses a range of documentary sources to examine the development of the Jewish population of Northamptonshire since the middle of the nineteenth century. Although there had been Jews in the county as early as the twelfth century, they were expelled in 1290 and did not return in significant numbers until after 1850. A regular congregation was in existence from the 1880s, rather later than in neighbouring counties, and Jewish in-migrants became prominent in a number of trades in Northampton, including the leather and shoemaking industries, tailoring and arms manufacture. The population received a further boost before and during World War II when refugees from continental Europe and (much more numerous) evacuees from London arrived in the county. Several in the 1930s operated as market traders, but there were also businessmen, shopkeepers and the famous furniture company 'Rest Assured', while their contribution to philanthropy and the arts is celebrated too. By 1960 there were over 300 Jews in the town of Northampton, 200 in 1980, and although their numbers have since declined—partly due to out-marriage and conversion to Christianity—the local community 'still flourishes' (p. 58), while the Northamptonshire Jewry of the past has left a 'diverse legacy'.

A. Kaloczi, 'The St Albans founding hospital babies, 1756–1760', *Herts Past and Present*, 3rd series, 4, 3–7.

By detailed cross referencing between the burial records of St Peter's church, St

Albans, and the records of Thomas Coram's London Foundling Hospital for Abandoned and Deserted Children, Kaloczi traces the deaths of 58 babies sent from the hospital to wet nurses in St Albans. Procedures for admittance of babies to the hospital are described, as are (briefly) the process of inspection of wet nurses and the status of the women who took charge of the infants, who were often 'desperately poor' (p. 5). Many babies died, including baby no. 3058, but the proportion that did so is unknown. Baby no. 4634 survived and was subsequently sent, along with other survivors, to the Foundling Orphanage in Shrewsbury.

S. King, 'The great British pension', *History Today*, 12(10), 28–30.

Not before time, the present government seems to be trying to tackle the impending pensions 'crisis' caused by the retirement of the baby-boom generation of the 1950s and 1960s. Steven King discusses trends in current pensions policy, and argues that there are clear signs of a reversion to the welfare policy characteristic of the Old Poor Law (before 1834). The 'four essential characteristics' of that policy were a 'distinction ... between the deserving and the undeserving poor', local determination of entitlement and local financing, the discouragement of 'welfare scroungers', and the magistracy acting as a court of appeal (p. 29). King argues that all of these elements may re-emerge in the twenty-first century as pensions policy is reformed in the face of increased demand from the growing number of elderly persons.

S. King, ' "We might be trusted": female poor law guardians and the development of the New Poor Law: the case of Bolton, England, 1880–1906', *International Review of Social History*, 49, 27–46.

In this paper, King's thesis is that the period between 1880 and 1906 was not, as has sometimes been asserted, one in which the New Poor Law atrophied. In contrast, many new developments and initiatives were put forward at the local level. In the case of Bolton, and probably elsewhere, the impetus driving forward change came from newly elected women guardians. King uses the working diary of one such guardian to describe how the women in the Bolton union managed to work the complex committee and sub-committee system to achieve significant improvements to the lot of the town's poor without antagonising their male colleagues on the Board of Guardians.

J. Klein, ' "Moving on". Men and the changing character of interwar working-class neighbourhoods: from the files of the Manchester and Liverpool city police force', *Journal of Social History*, 38, 407–21.

Complaints made to the police in these two cities provide unusual insights into working class neighbourhoods, and indicate a growing diversity and loss of cohesion. As neighbourhoods became less stable, tensions could more easily arise, and issues of respectability and status became more prominent. Men, now spending more time with their families, were increasingly drawn in, adding frictions over masculinity and territoriality. All of this was aggravated by children and gossip. In extreme circumstances the result was campaigns of

harassment and complaint, and ultimately families out of harmony with the rest of a street were forced to move. Conflict was not, however, the norm, and working-class neighbours managed generally to coexist quite happily, even in the unsettled conditions of interwar Manchester and Liverpool.

S. Maenpaa, 'Women below deck: gender and employment on British passenger liners, 1860–1938', *Journal of Transport History*, 25, 57–74.

Before the second World War, only about one per cent of those employed in British passenger liners were women. In her study of this small group, Maenpaa shows that these women executed a very restricted range of tasks, these mainly being an extension of the domestic duties they were expected to perform at home. She also reveals the high level of concern that the employers had about the possibility that male and female employees might mix while at sea, and the steps they took to avoid this happening, which went as far as requiring that female employees take their meals in their own cabins, rather than in the communal dining room. She also shows that promotion prospects for women were almost non-existent, with the most that could be attained being a role supervising other women which had no formal place in the career structure of seafaring labour.

M.K. McIntosh, 'Poverty, charity and coercion in Elizabethan England', *Journal of Interdisciplinary History*, 35, 457–79.

This article provides a general discussion of the vexed issue of who qualified for relief, of the shifting boundaries between inclusion and exclusion, that parish officers had to grapple with as a publicly supported system of poor relief developed in the second half of the sixteenth century. Using the unusually full weekly accounts of the Collectors of the Poor from 1579 to 1596, McIntosh focuses upon the small town of Hadleigh in Suffolk to demonstrate some of the experiments that were adopted to help the 'deserving' or impotent poor. Apart from regular outdoor cash payments, Hadleigh owned and operated almshouses where 32 people lived rent free and received a weekly allowance. Payments were also made to ten people who boarded the poor in their own homes, while the town also experimented with a 'task' or workhouse, which quickly evolved into a house of correction. Despite such concerted activity, only about 5 per cent of the town's population received help each year, probably representing 10 per cent if their dependents are included. The principal inhabitants who paid the rates, it is argued, viewed tax-based relief as a supplement to the many forms of voluntary charity, and were never prepared to offer support to the able-bodied unemployed. And, as in many communities studied to date, discrimination grew as the end of the sixteenth century approached, when increased efforts were made to exclude from relief both outsiders and the lewd and idle.

D. Mills, 'Defining community: a critical review of "community" in *Family and Community History*', *Family and Community History*, 7, 5–12.

B. Deacon and M. Donald, 'In search of community history', *Family and Community History*, 7, 13–18.

It was once famously reported that a survey of the academic literature had produced 99 different meanings of the word 'community'. While Dennis Mills cannot match that in this paper, he does show that the articles published in the first five volumes of *Family and Community History* have used the word in a variety of different ways. He goes on to discuss the difference between community history and local history, asking whether it is 'worth going back to the simple ... possibility that typical local historians tend to start with "place" whilst community historians focus on "people"?' (p. 10).

In their response to Mills's paper, the editors of *Family and Community History* 'argue for a methodologically distinct community history, combining a micro-historical approach with a sensitivity to the discursive construction of the term "community"' (p. 13). What they mean by this is that community historians should strive to break free from definitions of community which are too narrow, for example the traditional focus on the village as a 'community'. Indeed, trying to draw boundaries around a 'community' and thereby including or excluding certain people may be unhelpful. What unites community historians is not the study of a particular phenomenon, but a method which tries 'to understand how general processes work out and are transformed in actual places'.

E.A. Nicolini, 'Mortality, interest rates, investment, and agricultural production in 18th century England', *Explorations in Economic History*, 41, 130–55.

Conventional demographic transition theory asserts that mortality decline is a consequence of increasing agricultural productivity which makes available a greater quantity and variety of food. In this paper, however, Nicolini turns this causal relationship on its head by suggesting that declining mortality and its attendant increased expectation of life may have made English farmers of the late seventeenth and eighteenth centuries more willing to make long-term investments in the land, and thereby raise yields.

P. Nightingale, 'The lay subsidies and the distribution of wealth in medieval England, 1275–1334', *Economic History Review*, 57, 1–31.

This article is an important reappraisal of the lay subsidies of the late twelfth and early thirteenth centuries as a reflection of the distribution of wealth across time and space. After describing the historiographical debate over the value of these returns, Nightingale highlights the categories of wealth that were progressively exempt, examines the consistency of valuations, their relationship to established economic developments and the degree to which they correspond to credit valuations provided by Statute Merchant certificates, to provide a very clear conclusion: from 1294 the valuations start to become unrealistic, and in particular they fail accurately to reflect the performance of the non-agrarian economy. The urban rankings for wealth that they reveal are also suspect, because they favour ports where imports and ships were effectively taxed, and undervalue inland towns where both wool and cash escaped valuation. This does not mean, however, that they fail to provide a valuable topographical

guide to the towns and villages of medieval England, even if the level of wealth that they indicate must be treated with caution

G. Ortolano, 'Human science or a human face? Social history and the "two cultures" controversy', *Journal of British Studies*, **43**, 482–505.

The overall theme of this paper is the debate during the 1960s between C.P. Snow, who advocated a 'scientific history' and F.R. Leavis, who advanced an alternative vision of social history which used as its sources 'not parish registers but great writers' (p. 500). Ortolano's treatment of this debate may be of particular interest to readers of *Local Population Studies*, for he places right at the centre of his story Snow's collaboration with Peter Laslett, and in particular his reading before publication of several chapters of Laslett's *The world we have lost* (London, 1965) and his support for Laslett in the latter's quest for money to set up the Cambridge Group for the History of Population and Social Structure.

G.T. Rimmington, 'Treatment of the sick poor in Leicester: North Evington Poor Law Infirmary 1905–1930', *Midland History*, **29**, 92–106.

This paper traces the history of North Evington Poor Law Infirmary from its construction in 1905 to its final transformation into a general hospital in 1930. Rimmington describes the gradual improvement in the administration of the Infirmary from its early years, when it was run by an absentee chief medical officer who was constantly at odds with staff working in the building itself, through its development of a training programme for nurses which gained a national reputation until it eventually became fully absorbed into the national system of health care. In passing, he touches on aspects of local population history, such as the opposition to smallpox vaccination in the late nineteenth century.

K. Schürer, 'Surnames and the search for regions', *Local Population Studies*, **72**, 50–76.

This paper uses the machine-readable data from the 1881 census enumerators' books to analyse the 41,203 surnames with a frequency of 25 or more in the search for 'cultural territories' or 'cultural regions' (see C. Phythian-Adams, 'Local history and societal history', *Local Population Studies*, **51** (1993), 30–45). Regional patterns are immediately evident in the distribution of surnames, but when mapped at the parish level they do not correspond either to physical geography or the geography of administrative counties. The exceptional pull of London is reflected in the fact that there was not a single surname ranked in the top 10,000 in any parish in England and Wales that was not found in the capital city. Cluster analysis of the top 1,000 surnames reveals a diagonal divide running from the mouth of the Mersey to the Thames estuary, roughly demarcating the southern limit of the Danelaw in the ninth century, with East Anglia standing out as a distinct cluster.

J. Sheppard, 'The provenance of Brighton's railway workers, 1841–61', *Local Population Studies*, **72**, 16–33.

The London to Brighton railway opened in 1841, and by 1861 the London,

Brighton and South Coast Railway Company employed over 1,000 men in Brighton at the passenger and goods stations, on the trains and in the workshops. Sheppard's analysis of the birthplace data from the 1861 census enumerators' books shows that local men predominated in the less skilled occupations and distant migrants in the skilled workshop jobs, a discovery that reinforces the findings of much previous research into social class differentials in migration distances. Nominal linkage to the 1851 census returns was carried out for men living in Sussex in 1851 and reveals earlier occupations and, in some cases, the occupations of fathers. It turns out that skilled workshop men and semi-skilled machinists tended to follow their fathers into railway employment. Those who were not the sons of railwaymen came principally from a small trade and craft background, or from established and settled labouring families.

P. Slack, 'Measuring the national wealth in seventeenth-century England', *Economic History Review*, 57, 607–35.

This paper discusses William Petty's estimate, made in 1665, of the wealth of England and Wales and compares it with the better-known estimate made by Gregory in 1696. Slack concludes that King's estimate was heavily influenced by that of Petty, and that—while their efforts epitomised new perceptions and, within limits of tolerance, the realities of what could be measured and compared in the later seventeenth century—both underestimated per capita and aggregate national incomes, although by how much remains unclear. Of particular value to the population historian is the publication of a tabulated appendix, 'A table containing the whole number of acres, houses, chimnies and people in England and Wales, and in each county thereof'. The provenance of this document is unknown, though it was clearly called upon by Petty, and has great, hitherto untapped, potential for modern demographic and social analysis.

J. Stewart and S. King, 'Death in Llantrisant: Henry Williams and the New Poor Law in Wales', *Rural History*, 15, 69–87.

There is a dearth of historical writing on the poor law in Wales, which this article seeks to begin to address. It uses an incident which occurred in the rural community of Llantrisant in the early 1840s to bring out those aspects of both medical services and the New Poor Law that were quintessentially Welsh, and goes on to argue that further study of the welfare regime in nineteenth century Wales is important both for Welsh history and for a broader historical understanding of the New Poor Law in rural settings.

J. Stobart, 'The economic and social worlds of rural craftsmen-retailers in eighteenth-century Cheshire', *Agricultural History Review*, 52, 141–60.

J. Stobart, 'Personal and commercial networks in an English port: Chester in the early eighteenth century', *Journal of Historical Geography*, 30, 277–93.

The first of these two articles on Cheshire looks at the activities of rural tailors and shoemakers between 1700 and 1760 as revealed by probate inventories and wills. Stobart argues that most rural tailors and shoemakers operated on a

small scale, manufacturing largely to order, and rarely holding large stocks of finished goods. Many combined their craft with running a small agricultural holding. Their economic and social ties were very much with the local rural population, and not with those engaged in similar occupations in urban areas: they were 'firmly locked into rural life and society... . Rather than harbingers of modernity, bring urban values into the countryside, they are better seen as bastions of the rural community' (p. 160).

By contrast, the second article describes the social worlds of men of commerce and merchants in early eighteenth century Chester, describing not only inter-familial links within the city, but also links with the 'local, civic and wider merchant community' which were 'essential to successful long-distance trade' (p. 277). These men situated themselves within a much wider urban-based social and economic network.

Tankard, D., 'Protestantism, the Johnson family and the 1551 Sweat in London', *London Journal*, 29(2), 1–16.

The letter and account books of John Johnson, merchant of the staple and draper of London, provide a unique insight into the progress and repercussions of the sweating sickness that visited London for the fourth time in 1551. Danae Tankard is concerned with the manner in which the outbreak was experienced and understood, rather than with its pathology or aetiology, although such topics are not entirely ignored. It occurred at a pivotal moment in the Reformation, when there was a delicate balance between conciliatory and radical Protestantism. The Johnson papers amply reflect the Protestant providential worldview of the event as a sign of God's displeasure, but both sides of the religious divide could use providential arguments to support their own ends, evangelicals adopting it as a judgement upon the failure of people to fully abandon their idolatrous ways, conservatives as a judgement upon the excesses of the Reformation. Occurring when it did, the sweat provided the first real test of the new Protestant nation.

Taylor, D., 'Conquering the British Ballarat: the policing of Victorian Middlesbrough', *Journal of Social History*, 37, 75–71.

During Victoria's reign Middlesbrough was transformed from an unruly town with high levels of crime and little policing to a far more stable and policed community with far lower levels of both petty and serious crime. This transition took place slightly later than similar developments in the Black Country, the 1870s and 1880s forming the critical decades in the creation of an effective police force. Unlike some recent studies, that have argued that the reduction of crime in the later nineteenth century was largely due to economic diversification and rising living standards and aspirations, Taylor argues that in Middlesbrough the police played a major role in the reduction of levels of criminality.

N. Thomas, 'Exploring the boundaries of biography: the family and friendship networks of Lady Curzon, Vicereine of India 1898–1905', *Journal of Historical Geography*, 30, 496–519.

Thomas demonstrates how Lady Curzon elicited mutual reassurance and advice from her family and friendship circle, sharing with them her reproductive and 'bodily ills', and through them tried to shape public representations of her health, and also to manipulate newspaper representation of Indian political affairs. More widely, however, she argues, and demonstrates, that the potential of the biographical approach can be considerably extended by placing the biographical subject within their friendship and family networks, allowing greater engagement with the wider social, cultural, economic and political contexts within which their subjects lived.

S. Todd, 'Young women, work and family in inter-war rural England,' *Agricultural History Review*, 52, 83–98.

For young women in rural England in the 1920s and early 1930s, Todd argues, opportunities for employment were few. Despite this, the depressed state of agriculture, and consequent low wages, meant that their families required them to contribute to the household economy. In consequence, young women were usually sent out to work as domestic servants in their early or mid-teens, often at very low wages, leading to a rise in total domestic service employment. As the 1930s progressed, however, other employment opportunities in the retail and clerical sectors emerged, especially in urban areas, and rural girls were attracted to these by the higher pay and the greater freedom they offered to have a social life. The result was out-migration from depressed country districts, which ultimately led to a shortage of domestic servants in the south and east of England.

G. Ullathorne, 'Migration from Derbyshire to Hallamshire: the evidence of the Cutler's Company records, 1624 to 1814', *Northern History*, 41, 81–109.

In this paper, Ullathorne uses apprenticeship registers relating to more than 1,000 boys who moved from the High Peak Hundred of northern Derbyshire to work as apprentices in Sheffield between 1624 and 1814. He shows that the chance of a High Peak boy being apprenticed varied with economic conditions in the High Peak area, and especially the fortunes of the lead mining industry. Once a boy had become an apprentice, however, the likelihood was that he would remain in Sheffield, and not return to Derbyshire, even if economic conditions in the High Peak subsequently improved. Ullathorne carries out some extensive surname analysis which reveals a high level of social interaction across the Derbyshire-Yorkshire border.

R. Wall, 'English population statistics before 1800', *History of the Family*, 9, 81–95.

This paper reviews the availability of data on the English population before the taking of the first census in 1801. Although it mentions sources such as the Hearth Tax returns and poor law records, the bulk of the paper describes the Church of England parish registers. Wall describes the reasons why registers of baptisms, marriages and burials were first introduced, and attempts to summarise what is known about variations in the quality of the registers over time.