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The front cover illustration is of Robert McAlpine & Sons' mass concrete viaduct at Glenfinnan, under construction in 1898. The viaduct was the largest and most spectacular built by McAlpine on the West Highland Railway's extension line from Banavie to Mallaig, The Engineer Vol LXXXVI, 16 Sep 1898.

The back cover illustration is an alchemists' laboratory, from H Waibits Peterk's Trostapiegel from R J Forbes Short History of the Art of Distillation.
# SCOTTISH INDUSTRIAL HISTORY

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SOME NOTES ON 'CONCRETE BOB' McALPINE

by

Iain Russell, University of Glasgow
and
George Dixon, Central Regional Archives

In a recent article in The Scots Magazine on mass concrete buildings in Scotland, Lawrie Orr refers to 'Concrete Bob' McAlpine and his most famous work in Scotland, the construction of the Glenfinnan Viaduct.¹ In fact Sir Robert, who became one of Britain's leading contractors and was created a baronet in 1918, was a pioneer in the field of concrete construction. Many other monuments to his success have survived.

Robert McAlpine was born in Newarthill in Lanarkshire in 1847. He worked in local coal mines before becoming a bricklayer's apprentice, and in 1868 he set himself up in business in Motherwell as a jobbing brickbuilder.² Robert moved to Hamilton in 1873, and learned of ways of erecting concrete houses either from local builders or from the pages of building trade journals. He was soon at work erecting his own tenements in Hamilton, Burnbank, Stonefield and Motherwell, and he experimented by making concrete doorsteps, and lintels for the brick buildings.³

Robert's concrete was composed of three parts crushed sandstone to one part Portland cement, mixed together and 'slackened' in water. The concrete was poured into wooden boxes, along with broken stones as 'packing', to be moulded to the required shape.⁴ He sometimes mixed granite with the aggregate, and discovered that 'granolithic' was an excellent hard-wearing concrete which was especially suitable for doorsteps.⁵ Bricks and stone, as well as the services of bricklayers and masons, were expensive to obtain during the economic boom of the early- and mid-1870s.⁶ As Robert discovered that he could make and build up
concrete for about one half the cost of carrying out the work in stone, and that it was cheaper to build in concrete than brick, he began to build tenement walls of concrete blocks.7

John Tainsh, who had been building in Hamilton for thirty years, began to erect houses in 1876 using a method of concrete construction patented by J C Sellars of Birkenhead.8 The walls of the houses were built up of concrete shell blocks, and the hollow core of each wall was then filled with a mixture of rubble and concrete made from Arden lime and gravel.9 Tainsh was one of Hamilton's best-known and most colourful entrepreneurs, and his adoption of the Sellars's method of building was reported in detail by the local newspapers. Robert must also have known that the erection of house walls by pouring concrete into temporary formwork was relatively common in England and finding favour with some Scottish builders.10 Nevertheless, he experimented with neither of those methods of building in concrete and continued to make blocks. He must have felt justified in not adopting Sellars's technique, when one of Tainsh's concrete houses collapsed shortly before completion and a workman was killed. After the accident Tainsh was taken into custody on a charge of culpable homicide, but the case against him was dropped before it came to trial.11

Robert's houses in Lanarkshire have been demolished, and no nineteenth century accounts of the appearances of the buildings or the standards of comfort they offered to tenants have come to light. However, the stone tenements which Robert built for the Callander & Oban Railway Co in 1881, with their concrete doorsteps, quoins and lintels, still stand in what is now Alma Crescent in Oban.

In 1884 Robert won the first of four contracts to build the Lanarkshire
and Ayrshire Railway. It took six years to complete the line from Barrmill to Ardrossan and the branches from Giffen to Kilbirnie and Kilwinning to Irvine. The railway company's consulting engineer was John Strain of the Glasgow firm Strain and Robertson.

Strain's talents were recognised during his lifetime, but his contribution to the development of British civil engineering has been overlooked since his death in 1931. The engineer also played a part in establishing for Robert a reputation as a builder in concrete.

Concrete was accepted as a suitable material for foundations, dock walls, industrial buildings such as warehouses and cheap houses during the 1880s, but Jack Simmons found that, in general, British railway engineers were slow to adopt concrete. Simmons could find only a few examples of concrete works, on a minor scale, in English railway construction during the nineteenth century, and he did not believe that it was used on a large scale in building British railways until the turn of the century. He overlooked the activities of John Strain.

Strain supervised the construction of the Dalmally-Oban Section of the Callander & Oban Railway between 1878 and 1880. He encouraged the contractors to build bridge abutments, retaining walls, culverts and engine sheds of concrete, and 12,000 cubic yards of the material were used in the construction of the line. He supervised the construction of Britain's first concrete railway viaduct, built on rubble masonry piers to carry the Killin branch of the Callander & Oban Railway over the River Dochart in 1885. Strain encouraged contractors to use concrete extensively on other railway sites, and Robert carried out many of the works on the Kilwinning-Ardrossan line and the Irvine and Kilbirnie branches using the material.
The concrete which Robert used on the Lanarkshire & Ayrshire Railway was mixed in the proportion five parts of crushed stone and sand to one part Portland cement. Some works on the Irvine branch were executed in concrete blocks, but most of the concrete used on the other lines was poured in situ. To build a bridge abutment, for example, the navvies deposited a 6 inch layer of concrete within timber frames (shutters). Large stones, some of them weighing up to 2 tons, were placed on this bed at least 3 inches apart and 3 inches from the shutterboards. The spaces between the boulders were filled with concrete, and once it had set another 6 inch layer was poured on top and the process was repeated until the abutment was built up to the required height. Robert purchased at least two concrete mixers, a Jamieson and a McKinnel model, to speed up the work on the sites. With the aid of one of these machines and a crane, a squad of navvies could lay 20 to 25 cubic yards of concrete at an abutment each day. Robert calculated that he employed only half as many men on concreting as he would have required to maintain this rate of progress building in masonry.

The Irvine branch was closed in 1939, and virtually no trace of it remains. The rest of the line now lies derelict, except for a short section serving a military establishment near Barrmill and another transformed into a public walkway in Saltcoats, but most of McAlpine's concrete bridge abutments survive, many with their steel superstructures intact.

Robert built the Singer Manufacturing Co's factory at Kilbowie, of brick, between 1882 and 1885. In 1891 he returned to the district to build fourteen semi-detached cottages of concrete. He was well aware of a popular antipathy to cold grey concrete buildings, and he mixed iron oxide
with the aggregate to give the walls of the houses the hue of red sandstone. The results can still be seen as eight of the cottages survived the Clydebank Blitz and still stand at the western end of Montrose Street.

In 1892 Robert was awarded the contract to build the Buchanan Street - George's Cross section of the Glasgow District Subway. Rather than line the tunnel with brick or masonry, Robert asked if he could use concrete for the job. Robert Simpson, one of the consulting engineers for the subway, wrote later that:

"Only at a few points was the rock hard enough to stand being shorn, and the shale or "blaes", of which a large amount was met with, is friable and does not weather well. On this account almost all the rock tunnels have been lined, and this has been done with concrete - a method initiated by Mr Robert McAlpine and which, when well done, makes an admirable lining."²⁰

Robert's eldest sons, Robert Jnr and William, became partners in their father's firm in 1893. One of Robert McAlpine & Son's first contracts was for the Bowling-Dumbarton section of the Lanarkshire & Dumbartonshire Railway, and they were later awarded the contract to build the line from Old Kilpatrick to Bowling.²¹ McAlpine were the only contractors of the Lanarkshire & Dumbartonshire Railway to build in concrete, and they used iron oxide as aggregate for the first time on one of their railway contracts. The most prominent features built in red concrete are the now-derelict stations at Bowling and Old Kilpatrick, the canal basin and the viaduct and swing bridge which cross it at Bowling Harbour and Dumbarton East and Dumbarton Central Stations. The face of the concrete was often
scored with horizontal groves, to add to the impression that sandstone blocks had been used in construction.

Red concrete piers were built by McAlpine in 1895 to support the superstructure of a bridge which carried the Glasgow Central Railway's branch line across the River Kelvin from Dawsholm Station to Temple Gasworks. The bridge deck has been removed but the piers still stand a short distance downstream from the famous Forth and Clyde Canal aqueduct. McAlpine did not always mix iron oxide with their aggregate, and presumably left the decision on what colour the concrete should be to the consulting engineer and the client. There is no doubt that red concrete was not universally popular. It was used to build bridge abutments and three viaducts (one faced with brick) on the Lanarkshire & Ayrshire Railway's extension line from Giffen to Cathcart in Glasgow, 1898 to 1903. HA York, the Board of Trade's Railway Inspector, commented that:

'... I see no objection to the use of concrete in this matter, provided that the materials of which it is composed are of the best quality and that it is mixed and used in a careful manner. For some reason the concrete on this line has been coloured pink, which in my opinion is a mistake. There is no advantage in trying to disguise the fact that concrete has been employed, nor is the present attempt successful or satisfactory to the eye'.

McAlpine may have felt a little aggrieved at this criticism of their efforts to make concrete more pleasing to the eye. In any case, they seldom coloured their concrete red (or pink!) in later years.

The Glenfinnan Viaduct, on the West Highland's Mallaig Line, is McAlpine's most famous work in concrete. The viaduct is indeed spectacular, but so
too are others at Loch Morar, Loch Nan Uamh, Arleniskill and the Arnabol and Borrodale Burns. Even before the Mallaig Railway opened in May 1901 it was the Borrodale Viaduct which attracted admiring comment from British and foreign observer.24 When he was told that the railway was to cross the burn on a concrete viaduct, the landowner insisted that the parapets and piers be faced in granite in order that the beauty of the glen should not be disfigured.25 The railway company's directors were alarmed at the prospect of having to pay an enormous sum for granite to clad piers up to 80 feet in height, but McAlpine came to their rescue. They offered to build the viaduct with a central span 127 feet 6 inches in length, thereby avoiding having to build piers on the floor of the glen. It was said to be the longest unreinforced concrete bridge span in the world at that time, and was built for a mere £2107.26

In 1904 McAlpine returned to Clydebank to begin a series of extensions to the Singer factory. They built the floors of the new cabinet works of feralithic concrete, consisting of slag from Siemens-Martin steel furnaces, some ground to 1.5 inch aggregate and some to powder, which was mixed with Portland cement.27 The firm patented their method of building feralithic floors, but rarely built in mass concrete thereafter. Although the construction of the monolith quay wall at Yorkhill in Glasgow and the huge Methil No 3 Dock's sea wall were two of several contracts on which they used mass concrete before the First World War, McAlpine began to take out licenses to build in reinforced concrete according to methods patented by Francois Hennebique and others. They also patented some of their own methods, developed by the partners and their engineers.28 The firm's head office moved to London in 1916 and most of the monuments to McAlpine's expertise in reinforced concrete construction lie south of the border. Nevertheless, the firm's successes in completing Wembley Stadium,
the Dorchester Hotel in Park Lane and other reinforced concrete buildings were due in large measure to the expertise gained by 'McAlpine's Fusiliers' while building in mass concrete in Scotland.

**FOOTNOTES**

1. Lawrie Orr, 'Concrete Can Be Couthie', *The Scots Magazine*, (Dec 1985) p 249
2. Robert's examination as a bankrupt, 12 Jul 1880, in the sederunt book of Robert McAlpine, Scottish Record Office (hereinafter cited as SRO) CS/318/35/200
3. *Hamilton Advertiser*, 13 May and 3 Jun 1876, p 2
4. *Ibid*
6. *Hamilton Advertiser*, 13 May and 3 Jun 1876, p 2
7. *Ibid*, 24 Jun, 9 Sept and 7 Oct, 1876, p 2
8. *The Architect*, 3 Mar 1877. Tainsh was the first builder to use Sellers' method of concrete construction for housebuilding, according to this advertisement.
9. *Hamilton Advertiser*, 3 Jun 1876, p 2
11. *Hamilton Advertiser*, 7 Dec 1878, 22 Mar, 26 Apr and 10 May 1879, p 2
12. SRO, Lanarkshire & Ayrshire Railway & Co: Minute Books, BR/LAR/1/1, 29 Feb and 3 Mar 1884
13. See *The Bailie*, 13 Sept 1899, p 1 and his obituary in the *Glasgow Herald*, 31 Mar 1931, p 11
15. The Scotsman, 1 Mar 1880, p 6


17. J W Stevens, 'The Introduction of Rubble Blocks Into Concrete Structures' Minutes of the Proceedings of the Institute of Civil Engineers (hereinafter cited as Proceedings) CXIII, 1892-93, Part 3, p 229


19. Dumbarton Herald, 26 Aug 1891. The newspaper mistakenly refers to ten cottages, while the valuation rolls make it clear that there were fourteen.

20. Robert Simpson, 'On Tunnelling in Soft Materials', Transactions of the Institute of Engineers and Shipbuilders in Scotland, XXXIX, p 153. We are grateful to Nicholas J Morgan for drawing our attention to this article.

21. SRO, Lanarkshire and Dumbartonshire [sic] Railway Co: Minute Books, BR/LAD/1/1, 13 Jan 1893, 17 Jan 1894

22. SRO, Caledonian Railway Co: Board and Committee Minutes, BR/CAL/1/38, 9 Apr 1895

23. Public Record Office, Board of Trade Railway Inspectors' Report, MT 29/65

24. See, for example, Engineering News, XLI, 1899, No 6, p 84 and The Railway Herald, 23 Jun 1900

25. Hardie, op cit, p 38

27. *Some Notes About Contracts Carried Out By Robert McAlpine & Sons* (c.1913), pp 34-9

28. For details of Malcolm McAlpine's patent for reinforced concrete caissons, see *ibid.*, p 53. Patented methods of tunnelling in reinforced concrete are described in the same publication, pp 46-50, and in *McAlpine Contracts* (c.1920) p 137.

29. Descriptions of the work involved in completing nearly all the contracts undertaken by McAlpine 1884 to 1920, including many on which the firm built in mass concrete, are included in *McAlpine Contracts*. 
THE KOSMOID ENIGMA

by

David I Harvie
Dumbarton

On 4 January 1906, the Daily Express in London published an article in its business pages which publicly alleged for the first time that a scandal was brewing involved the cream of the Scottish business establishment.

'COPPER MARKET ATTACKED
MYSTERIOUS DOCUMENT EXPOSED

A new metal called Cuferal, a mixture of copper and iron, is being manufactured by Kosmoid Ltd. An ingenious attempt has been made by some unknown persons to make this manufacture the means of a raid on copper shares, with the object of driving them down in price. The process, which is a secret one, was invented by Dr Alexander Shiels of Glasgow and London, and it is carried out by Kosmoid Ltd, whose headquarters are at Glasgow.

Not, you might think, a particularly unusual example of 'business creativity' but worse was to come.

'A mysterious-looking document, apparently of American origin, reached the Express office for publication yesterday. It stated that the secret of the Philosopher's Stone and the transmutation of metals had been discovered by a young Glasgow doctor, and that certain buildings on the bank of the Clyde near Dumbarton will soon see the transmutation of the baser into the more valuable metals.

It is suggested that the real secret of Kosmoid was not the method of making Cuferal, but the transmutation of metals,
and declared that such eminent men as Lords Kelvin, Overtoun and Inverclyde, having had ocular demonstration of the manufacture of gold, silver and copper from lead and iron, had become shareholders.

"The initials of the names of the largest shareholders," said the document, "form the word KOSMOCID. They are Lord Kelvin, Lord Overtoun, Dr Shiels, G G Millar, Lady Overtoun, Lord Inverclyde and Denny Brothers, of Dumbarton."

The story went on to assert vaguely that the Government had been advised of the discovery, and were preparing to take the matter in hand as regards the manufacture of gold and silver. It stated further that it was rumoured in Glasgow that 'a large German firm has bought the rights of the making several metals, notably copper, for a sum of many millions sterling.'

The article in the Express went on to consider the possible effects on the market of such a situation and concluded with a guarded denial by Alexander Shiels, who attributed the story to 'a concoction of misstatements founded on one or two facts' by those who had reasons of their own to manipulate the markets.

The newspaper story was to be, however, the beginning of a scandal which embarrassed some of the wealthiest families in Scottish engineering, shipbuilding and commercial circles; hopes and ambitions in the West of Scotland were raised and dashed on a grand scale; a Parliamentary Commission into dramatic proposals by Dumbarton Burgh Council collapsed amid angry recrimination; their story was described by a bitter director in a novel which had a strange publishing history, and the whole episode
has percolated through the years as a half-baked, half-understood, half-legend.

This article attempts to sketch the main outlines of a peculiar aberration of commercial history at the turn of the century; the story is convoluted and colourful, and researching it has had the added difficulty of a number of red herrings, some due to the passage of time and others due to attempts to cover the traces of what was then - and is still perceived by some as - an embarrassing episode best forgotten.

The most intriguing factor undoubtedly lies in the character of Alexander Shiels. He was born in 1865 at Earlston in Berwickshire, the son of a tenant farmer, and spent his youth living with his mother Elizabeth - from photographs, a powerful-looking woman in the image of the Hollywood 'matriarch' - in John Street in Glasgow, from where he attended Glasgow University, graduating MB,CM in 1890, BSc in 1891. His mother was related by marriage to William Elliot of Lanark, who was to make a fortune in livestock-dealing and to found the auctioneering firm of Lawrie and Symington of Lanark. (William Elliot's son, Walter, became Secretary of State for Scotland 1936-38, and Minister of Health 1938-40). While still at university, Shiels worked occasionally in a chemist's shop in the city and - more significantly - began to collaborate with his uncle, William Elliot, on the invention of milking machinery. This early partnership in mechanical engineering was to have a profound influence on Alexander Shiels and his future activities.

By 1895 Shiels and Elliot were partners in the Thistle Mechanical Milking Machine Syndicate and formed, with others, a company of £50,000 share capital to develop patents and inventions owned by Shiels and Elliot; a small factory was built behind a tenement block in Gateside Street, off
Duke Street in Glasgow's East End. Their main product, the Thistle Mechanical Milking Machine - one can be seen at the Agricultural Museum at Ingliston, near Edinburgh - is regarded as having been of considerable significance. Between 1891 and 1902 Shiels registered nearly two dozen patents in Britain relating to milking machinery, and the Thistle Company registered patents, licences and trademarks in a dozen countries.3

By 1901, Shiels was living, still with his mother, in a pleasant, leased building at 190 Bath Street in the expanding, wealthy West End of Glasgow. Once established there, Shiels began to use two different letterheads, one describing himself as 'Physician' and the other as 'Consulting Engineer'. 1901 was a busy year for Shiels. He also leased premises at Endsleigh Gardens, off Euston Road in London, and also nearby in Gordon Square, both areas which at that time were popular with a variety of medical men.

He was not content to adopt the role of an ordinary general practitioner; his preference for wealthy patients was not perhaps unusual, and he was moving quickly up the ladder of prosperity, both as physician and as engineer. In quick succession he opened two nursing homes - one in the superb Nash-designed Park Crescent, near Regent's Park in London (where his next-door neighbour was Lord Lister), and the other at Claremont Terrace in Glasgow's West End where, oddly enough, Lord Inverclyde was a neighbour. He successfully appears to have cultivated his relationships with the wives of the wealthy patients who consulted him - to the extent that he earned a considerable degree of dislike and distrust among his professional colleagues, many of whom - both at the time and in later letters about him - regarded him as something of a devious charlatan. Indeed, these jaundiced opinions have been responsible for a number of tales about him which have suggested - incorrectly - that he practised
medicine without having the appropriate qualifications, 'the most polished
humbug and trickster ever met or heard of - his capacity for fraud almost
unlimited.'

Letters written home by an American niece, Adelia, reflect a quite lavish
life-style at Bath Street, describing the fine furniture, the employment
by Shiels of a number of servants, carriages and even a private railway
coach, which he used on his frequent visits to London. It was naturally
assumed by his mother and others in Glasgow that Alexander Shiels was, on
those trips away, attending to his nursing home in London. In secret,
however, on 18 December 1902, he married Georgina Clark at St Pancras
Registry Office. It is certain that Shiels continued to keep the
marriage secret and there is no record of his wife ever having visited
Scotland.

Despite his obvious success in the medical world, Shiels was not ignoring
his alter ego. From his addresses in London, and using the service of
professional patent agents, he was registering a large number of patents
and licences over a very wide field of subjects - milking machinery;
refrigeration plant; railway signalling and communications equipment;
water, gas and oil pumps and valves; air conditioning plant;
thermostats; generators; furnaces; gas lighting; locks; clocks; car
wheels and gearing; engines; carburetters; brakes; radiators; and
many more. Most of these patents were in his own name, but occasionally
he collaborated with others, both in the UK and in America. In this
country alone he registered well over a hundred patents, and he registered
additionally in America, Canada, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, France, Germany,
Switzerland, Belgium, Holland, Australia and New Zealand. His secret
personal life was compounded in October 1903 by the birth of a daughter,
Alexandrina, at Endsleigh Gardens; the birth certificate gives the
father's occupation and address as 'Medical Practitioner, 14 Endseleigh Gardens, St Pancras'.

Six weeks later, on 10 December 1903, Kosmoid Limited was incorporated as a £20,000 company (this capital was later substantially increased) 'to operate patents and licences'. Shiels immediately began to enter into a series of agreements with the company relating to his patent registration, and the company recorded Alexander Shiels', 'special facility to introduce patents'. The directors of the company were James Denny (the Dumbarton shipbuilder and engineer); Alexander Shiels; Charles W Fulton, of the prosperous Paisley textile firm; George Grandison Millar, a wealthy art publisher; and, at various times, a number of influential ironmasters, engineers and merchants. A month later, in January 1904, Kosmoid Locks Limited was registered, as a result of an agreement between Alexander Shiels and John Smalley Campbell, a physician and dentist of Chancery Lane, London. Principal shareholders were Campbell, J S L Alexander of Philadelphia (a patent collaborator of Shiels), and Kosmoid Limited.

At the end of the same year, December 1904, a third company was established, in many ways the most interesting of the three – Kosmoid Tubes Limited; initial share capital was £150,000 and, like the other two companies, its registered office was at 26 Renfield Street, Glasgow, the office of Carrick, Kellock and Barclay, stockbrokers. The first directors were Andrew Dunlop, merchant, London; Graham F Ross, iron merchant, Glasgow; James Denny, engineer, Dumbarton; William Neill Black, merchant, Liss, Hampshire; Charles W Fulton, dyer and finisher, Paisley; Robert James Black, merchant, London; George Grandison Millar, art publisher, Glasgow; and John Carrick, stockbroker, Glasgow. The list of those who were to become, in the next four years, directors or
principal shareholders reads like the West of Scotland’s industrial roll of honour: Leslie, James, Peter, Archibald and John Denny - all of the great Dumbarton shipbuilding family; William Donaldson, ironmaster and chairman of J & G Thomson; Archibald Coats, of the Paisley threadmaking family; Arthur Daulby Wedgwood, forgemaster of Dumbarton and soon to be managing director of Cammel Laird’s Cyclops, Grimesthorpe and Penistone Works, Sheffield; Alex Walker, Kilmarnock distiller; Walter Brock and Daniel Jackson, both important figures in marine engineering; and a number of other significant individuals in West of Scotland business.11

Also set up in December 1904 was the organisation which effectively controlled the operations of the three Kosmoid Companies - The Metallurgical Syndicate, sometimes known as The M S Syndicate. This was a private association of eighteen individuals, with an initial capital of £30,000, and the principal members were: Alexander Shiels; G G Millar; Charles W Fulton; Archibald Coats; William Donaldson; Archibald Denny; James Denny; Walter Brock; Peter Coats; and William Coats. Amongst the stated objects of this very private, yet apparently powerful group, was 'the commercial development of the products of certain secret processes of manufacture known to Alexander Shiels, known respectively as the Quicksilver Process and the Copper Process, by which quicksilver could be produced from lead and copper from iron.' Having thus far given their cash and backing to such a secretive but soon to be grandiose scheme, they now effectively gave up real control. £12,500 of the capital was to be paid over to Alexander Shiels, and on payment of the first instalment Shiels deposited a sealed packet, by arrangement, in the Syndicate’s bank; this packet contained 'full information and instructions regarding the secret processes'.
It was agreed that Shiels was to have complete control of any manufactures, of any buildings which might be erected, and of any persons employed in the venture; the members of the Syndicate agreed that they would 'have no right of interference with or enquiry into the said process' and that they could not visit any of the premises to be built. In addition, Shiels was to be paid £500 for 'superintendence'; a royalty of 20 per cent on the net invoiced prices of the manufactured articles as sold was to be paid to Shiels; a proportion of the profits remaining (to be decided by the parties) was to be set aside as a reserve, and one-third of the then balance was to be additionally paid to Shiels - the two-thirds to be paid to three trustees of the Syndicate for distribution as decided by them. Within three months, Alexander Shiels had improved his deal; his royalty was increased to 30 per cent; of the remainder, 10 per cent to be set aside, three-fifths of the balance to be paid to Shiels and the remaining two-fifths to be distributed among the members of the Syndicate - of whom Shiels was of course one.

During the late summer and autumn of 1904, surveyors were seen on the Dumbuck Estate, beside the River Clyde just outside Dumbarton. The heir to the estate, the Marchese Chigi, was seen in the town, and speculation began in the press:

The townspeople are pleasantly anticipating the erection of a proposed new work at Dumbuck, but up till now, all that has definitely transpired is that a large field of 15 or 16 acres of ground has been taken off...I hear it stated that the new works will be put down on the American principle; that its equipment of machinery will be as near perfection as it is possible to make it; in fact that the new concern will be quite novel and wonderful for these parts.
The Burgh Council of Dumbarton took an intense interest in these developments. The Provost, Robert McFarlan, was an experienced and flamboyant character - a senior town lawyer and councillor of long standing, he was intent on extending and improving the image of the town. He had been a promoter of a scheme to build a railway tunnel under the Clyde from Langbank to Milton, and was active in trying to improve the town's water, gas and electricity supplies. A new tramway system and improved railway services were being encouraged by the Provost and the Council as a means of making the town more attractive to industrial opportunities. The Kosmoid operation could not have come at a better time, and McFarlan became the main promoter of the hoped-for developments although, as the Lennox Herald pointed out on several occasions, 'so far, there has not been a single authoritative statement of the object, nor any word as to who is at the back of the concern.'

Those unknowns at the back of the concern responded to the local climate; plans were announced for the construction of a huge garden city on the slopes of Dumbuck Hill - 6,000 cottages, housing up to 30,000 thousand of the Kosmoid workers and their families; the garden city was to have its own school, library, shops, church, etc.

'... their capital seems to be unlimited, and nothing but the very finest material and workmanship pleases those in charge. Besides the immensity of the erections, features of the work are the electric power station, and the erection of a huge Mond gas producer...'. The operations of the Directors outside the works proper are also creating a great deal of interest... what may emerge out of this it is too soon to say, but it is a fact that the Company has largely extended its holding of ground and presumptive rights since they purchased their original site.'15
One of the 'operations of the Directors outside the works' was to inform the Council, through Provost McFarlan, that the huge factory would require up to three million gallons of water PER DAY, and persuade the Council to arrange this. The Council responded with some excitement to this kind of problem. The question of improvements to the water supply was already being examined, and before long, the Council decided to promote a Parliamentary Order which would, firstly, improve the Burgh boundaries to include the Kosmoid factory site, and, secondly, impound the waters of Loch Sloy, above Loch Lomond, and pipe the huge supply thereby obtained to Dumbarton - largely for the use of Kosmoid.

"The area of the present [water] scheme was 633 acres, while Loch Sloy had the enormous acreage of 4,000. Of course the loch itself was not able to contain all the water falling there, so the proposal was to build a 40ft embankment. The present scheme would provide for a normally increasing population, but then they had this wonderful works of Messrs Kosmoid (applause). Extensive provision must be made for it, though it was right to point out that any burden so imposed would fall on hundreds of taxpayers to whom the coming of the new works would mean nothing. While the cost of the new scheme was put at £150,000 he would not be astonished did it cost £200,000. At any rate, assuming the first figure, the estimate was that it would give them five million gallons of water per day."

Many members of the Burgh Council were undoubtedly excited by the prospect which they felt they could see, but others were more cautious, and speculation continued:
'... some aver that the principal part of the work will be the manufacturing of projectiles; others that a new motive power will be conserved that will revolutionise every existing energy, and will be bottled up in such a manner as will assure its transfer to any distance, and so make it available for the promotion of industry in every land.'17

In the autumn of 1904, Alexander Shiels' mother wrote to Alexander's half-brother, Thomas, who had a prosperous business in Commerce, Texas:

'My Dear Tom, I can scarcely understand all that is taking place - surely it is the work of the Lord. It is settled that you are to get the appointment; there is to be a meeting of the Directors on Tuesday first. Alex thinks you will be wanted at the works sometime in March, if so, you could come in February and have time to look about you before going into harness. I think I told you of the new works that were being started at Dumbarton. They are "Secret" patents and Alex being the only one in full possession of the Secrets must have a Nominee so he thought you were the right man to get the preference and no doubt The Lord in his great mercy and kindness has planned it for you. You will have no work, only to see orders carried out. The Company is composed of very wealthy Gentlemen such as the Dennys. A nice house and garden will be got for you at Dumbarton which as you know is only a few minutes from Glasgow. It seems all too great to grasp.'18

Thomas sold his business in Commerce and left his family in America, while he came to Scotland to take up the opportunity of being Alexander's representative, at a salary of £1,000, his family expecting to join him
later. However, Thomas must have had second thoughts; before long he had turned down the offer and decided to return to America. It is not known what brought about that decision, but Mrs Shiel's later described Thomas as being 'too soft' and said that 'my heart bleeds for him'. Despite them all, however, Thomas was the one who did well; he rejoined his family in Texas and built up a new business in Dallas.

Alexander was undeterred by this, rather personal, vote of no confidence. Considerable progress was made towards 'opening for business'. The Glasgow architects firm of Dykes and Robertson were busy planning and erecting a number of large buildings on the Dumbuck site. The first building was a two-storey general engineering shop measuring 250 feet x 60 feet, followed by the tube mill, 250 feet x 150 feet; the electric power station, 300 feet x 45 feet and most impressive of all, the fireproof stores, four-storey, 210 feet x 45 feet; in addition, there was the gas plant, 150 feet x 120 feet and a small boiler house, 70 feet x 50 feet containing 4 boilers (28 more were ordered from Babcock & Wilcox Ltd). The various buildings on the site were linked together by about 8,000 feet of railway tracks, which also provided connection with the adjacent lines of the Caledonian and North British Railways.

The fireproof stores building was constructed to specifications which suggest that it was designed to be much more than simply either stores or fireproof; the walls were of 2 feet thick concrete, clad in places with armoured steel plate; the floors were of concrete, supported by curved steel plate, further supported by re-inforced steel beams of 18 inches x 7 inches section and 75 lbs/ft and in rows down the building every 10 feet there were cast-iron columns of 11 inches diameter and 2 inches thick iron. The fireproof stores, unlike the other buildings on the site, was
Owned by the Metallurgical Syndicate; this was the building which was later known—according to legend—as the Transmutation Building.19

Although there was a great deal of construction taking place during late 1904 and into 1905, there was still little evidence of what was to be produced or indeed of the large numbers of workers who were to be employed; some members of the Burgh Council began to adopt a cynical approach to Kosmoid.

'... then there was Kosmoid, this El Dorado which was going to make Dumbarton "boom". Dr Shiel had confided in Mr Brown that Kosmoid was going to require some 6,000 cottages. (laughter) He was sure they would all be delighted to see Kosmoid, and he hoped they were going to employ thousands of workmen, but they had just got to take Kosmoid as they found them, and judging by the show they were making at present, it would be a long time before they employed anybody. (laughter) It was through Kosmoid they had been compelled to go forward with the Loch Sloy water scheme. If he were in the Council, he would be very much inclined to have some guarantee from Kosmoid that they were going to take so much water...Kosmoid was a commercial concern and they would look after their own interests. They were not to be made a success at the expense of those who had already made Dumbarton what it was. (applause)20

Despite all the controversy and the anxiety about what was planned for the factory, goods were indeed being produced. During the spring of 1904 Alexander Shiels had made agreements to acquire a licence to produce a series of Time Recorders—workmen's time clocks—according to a specific patent. Several hundred of these machines were made, the Dumbarton Burgh
Police Authority being one of the earliest purchasers, but the parties to the agreement fell out over the payment of royalties and Shiel's was taken to the High Court of Justice in London. In fact he won his case, being able to show that the Patent was invalid and that therefore his obligation to pay royalties was negated. Another agreement made by Shiel's in the spring of 1904 was with the Dennystown Forge Company of Dumbarton and its controlling partners, Walter Brook, Arthur Doulby Wedgwood, James Denny, Peter Denny, and Arthur Wedgwood. Under this agreement, certain equipment was to be installed within the Forge and operated experimentally, producing, according to 'the Shiel's-Davis group of Patents', 'cylinders, shell cases and the like, for which Letters Patent have been procured.' It was arranged and agreed that, if the experiment was successful, a new company would be formed which would buy out the Dennystown Forge.

In January 1905 Alexander Shiel's became a father again; this time the child - a son, Alexander - was born at the London nursing home at Park Crescent, and that address was also given as the domestic residence. About the same time, the Kosmoid Companies moved their registered address to one of Glasgow's most prestigious office buildings - 'The Hatrack', a superb Art Nouveau design by James Salmon at 142 St Vincent Street. The building was owned by the Royal Bank of Scotland and suites were leased by accountants and shipping owners; the Kosmoid companies leased more office space in the building than any other company.

Despite the efforts of Alexander Shiel's to give a 'gloss' to developments, speculation and controversy still prevailed, particularly in relation to the proposals for Loch Sloy.
'Substantial progress continues to be made with the laying down of the big works at the east end of the burgh. Much of this progress is not obvious to the eye, thousands of pounds being sunk in the foundations alone, but there is ample demonstration of the fact that Kosmoid is a big thing.'

However, there were those who doubted the sense of it all:

'But a rosy rumour reached us that Dumbarton was in luck. That a host of pretty cottages would nestle round Dunbuck; And a mammoth undertaking to which Denny's was a toy, Was to gobble up the gallons of a damned Loch Sloy.

But men in cots and tenements, with ample water up to date, Will get no better service and will pay a sweating rate; Will it profit them to witness Kosmoid floating like a buoy; On the water they have purchased from a damned Loch Sloy.'

All sorts of people with axes to grind and cases to promote began to make their voices heard in Dumbarton, and talks and lectures were to be heard on a variety of subjects, from the management of public utilities to the sponsorship and maintenance of the fledgling garden city movement.

1906 was the year in which everything began to fall apart. The year started with the letter in the Daily Express, which Alexander Shiels was able partially to repudiate by denying the involvement of Kelvin, Overtoun and Inverclyde, although the false allegation that they were party to the affairs of the Kosmoid companies has survived in legend. During the first few months of the year, the directors became more and more nervous in the face of public speculation and demands by Shiels for increased bank loans and overdrafts. The companies moved registered office yet again,
this time close to the factory site, to Dumbuck House, Dumbarton (now extended as The Dumbuck Hotel).

In May, the Burgh Council’s Bill went before a Parliamentary Commission. Chaos broke out when the matter of the water scheme, having been designed to benefit Kosmold, was discussed; the works manager, Andrew Prentice (who had been Shiels’ collaborator on patent applications some years earlier) denied that Kosmold required any water from the Council, saying that they were drilling for water at the factory and expected to find all their own needs. Lord Overtoun - the supposed secret backer - spoke out against the proposals and made clear that, as a principal landowner, he would not assist in negotiating land acquisitions for the garden city. Its case in disarray, the Council withdrew from the hearing and the proposed Bill was thrown out, with great acrimony and fury surrounding those who had been sponsors.

‘Provost McFarlan has been examined many times in the House of Commons on private bills, but this last must have been his most unfortunate experience; as I indicate, an experience which is pretty extensive, I take it myself, as having been present for some time at the inquiry, that this burdensome result to the Burgh of Dumbarton was mainly the work of Lord Overtoun; also to the composition of the Committee, one of whom seemed to me to be asleep for the greater part of the proceedings.’

In June, Arthur Daulby Wedgwood wrote from the Dennystown Forge to James Denny complaining about the manner in which the agreed experiments were being carried out - his own staff and workmen were being 'poached' and no payments were being made for disruption to his own business; in addition, 'I say without fear of contradiction that our Friends are romancing.'
Denny replied agreeing that matters had not been carried out properly and
regretting that there was little chance of any payments being made, 'but
should the Company ultimately realise their original expectations and be a
great financial success, your claim for rent will be considered.'

Alexander Shiels tried desperately to consolidate his situation and to
persuade his fellow directors to continue to support him. There is one
slim piece of evidence which may link Shiels and Lord Kelvin; in the
summer of 1906 there is an entry in a letterbook kept by Kelvin's
secretary:

'Lord Kelvin has received Mr. Shiels' letter of June 25. He
thinks you should not go on with your project as no result
could come from it.'

There is no certain evidence that the 'Mr Shiels' of the letter is
Alexander Shiels, but the timing of the letter and the spelling of
'Shiels' make the assumption reasonable. The fact the 'Mr 'rather than
'Dr' is used would conform to Shiels' habit of using the title which
suited the occasion.

By September 1906, Shiels had had enough and simply disappeared, leaving
the directors in embarrassed confusion. Despite their considerable
efforts to find him and plead for his return, they failed. Unknown to
them, Shiels had fled to England, where he set up a new home - this time
with his wife and children - in a new house in the Northamptonshire
village of Earl's Barton. During the next few months he again adopted
the role of consulting engineer and collaborated with two engineers,
Frederic Russell and Alfred Jung, who owned a company in Willesden, north
London, where they specialised in developing patents for motor car
engines, phonographs and medical equipment. Meanwhile, in Glasgow and
Dumbarton, confusion, anger and allegations were the order of the day; the family of Andrew Prentice even claimed that Shiels had tried to murder him by poisoning. By the summer of 1907, Kosmoid Ltd and Kosmoid Locks Ltd, had been wound up; the Metallurgical Syndicate was wound up in early 1908 and a sequestration order started against it. Kosmoid Tubes Ltd - which possessed considerable buildings and plant - was reorganised, with James Denny and Arthur Wedgwood (who had earlier left the board) returning to attempt a rescue.

Only a year after he disappeared, Alexander Shiels was dead. In the autumn of 1907, he collapsed on the platform of Willesden Station; he was taken home, having suffered a severe stroke, and died at Earl's Barton a few days later. The legend has had Shiels fleeing all over the world, pursued by his business enemies; existing in poverty selling patent medicines and, after death, being exhumed and secretly reburied. The truth is rather more ordinary, and even the suggestions of huge fraud are groundless. He certainly did not 'run off with the money' - he died intestate, and the value of his estate was only £5,500. Certainly a great deal of money was lost by investors. The popular version of this affair often suggests that the whole thing was a great fraud perpetuated by Shiels and supported by his backers. This is certainly not the case, although it has to be wondered what persuaded such eminent figures to invest in what so quickly was seen as a foolish venture.

The attempt to revive Kosmoid Tubes failed and the company was wound up in 1910 and assets transferred to the new Dumbarton Weldless Tube Company Ltd, under the control of James Denny and Daniel Jackson; the major shareholders were the Denny family, Archibald Coats, Frederic Russell and Alfred Jung, and the trustees of the late Walter Brock. Representatives from Babcock & Wilcox Ltd were consulted and joined the
board of the new company. In January 1912, the *Glasgow Herald* reported:

'\[\text{The Dumbarton tube mills have never had an opportunity of demonstrating the possibilities of their patent manufacture. The machinery installed is of a novel pattern. It is said to be the patent of an American, and draws the tubes from a solid ingot. In the new start which is about to be made, a controlling interest has been secured by Messrs Babcock & Wilcox, who own extensive boiler-works at Renfrew, and this firm will really direct operations. Their patent boiler is on the water-tube principle, and in its making in the course of a year they consume a vast quantity of tubes. If the Renfrew demand alone is to be met from the Dumbarton works, the new industry in that town will make a promising start.}\]

The start was promising and the new company was a success, to the extent that, by 1915, the influence of Babcock & Wilcox was complete and the Weldless Tube Co was taken over completely; the Dumbarton factory has been operated and expanded by Babcock & Wilcox and their subsidiaries since then.

It is difficult to conceive of those who backed Alexander Shiels unwittingly becoming involved in a fanciful project which resulted in allegations of alchemy; on the other hand, they seemed perfectly willing to allow their interests to be under the control of Shiels alone, and to give him unusually wide and rather secretive powers. Whether known to them or not, Shiels had associated himself with attempts to indulge in unconventional chemistry. Between 1903 and 1906 he had signed agreements and a deed of partnership with John Joseph Melville, a self-confessed alchemist who had a life-long career of controversial and scandalous
business dealings. Shiels employed Melville and installed him in the Dumbarton factory, with complete freedom to operate according to their own agreements relating to 'the secret quicksilver process' and without interference from any of the Kosmoid directors.31

Melville had first been involved in a scandal in Tottenham, north London in the early 1900s when, in premises supplied for him, he had tried to make tin and gold from lead. There was a further scandal in 1923 in Battersea, south London, where again in a specially equipped laboratory he was attempting to produce 'quicksilver' and gold; yet again, in Southendon-sea, Essex, in 1928, the same thing happened. In 1924, Melville was publicly reported as saying, 'Gold can be made in large quantities, not only from mercury but also from antimony, lead, copper and silver, and I do not hesitate to positively affirm that with relatively simple plant, our debt to America can be wiped out in twelve months.'32 Just before his death in 1928, he admitted that he had been trying to make gold in Dumbarton; there was a spectacular confirmation of his activities by Charles W Fulton (the wealthy Paisley dyer who had been a Kosmoid director and member of the Metallurgical Syndicate) who stated:

'A special concrete building of four floors was erected for Mr Melville's processes, the exact nature of which was kept secret. We in touch with him knew that he claimed to be able to produce copper from iron and quicksilver from lead, so say nothing of gold and silver.'33

This extraordinary account of what had been going on, by one of the principal backers, did not come for many years after the events. However, there had been an equally odd attempt to expose that same tale as early as 1910. In that year, a novel was published in London entitled, The Gold Makers by Nathaniel P McCoy. This rather bad novel tells the
story of an eccentric doctor, who is also an engineer, who persuades a number of influential businessmen to establish 'The US Multi-Patents Company'; this company builds a large factory, which becomes the scene of secret efforts to manufacture quicksilver and gold from base metals. The whole affair, as told in the novel, appears to mirror the scandal as perceived to surround the Kosmoid Company; only the names are changed, and the setting is Boston, USA. The poignant connection is that 'Nathaniel P McCoy' was apparently none other than George Grandison Millar, another Kosmoid director and Metallurgical Syndicate member. It was certainly the case that Millar had resigned his Kosmoid directorship and had succeeded in regaining some of his money, but it seems that a desire to expose the whole business had to be satisfied. It had further been claimed - and is yet to be disproved - that when his fellow directors learned of the publication of the novel, they bought up as many copies as possible and had them destroyed; certainly copies of the novel are rare.

Various accounts of these events have been offered by journalists and others over the years, but it is unfortunately the case that they have relied too heavily on transpositions from the novel into fact - sometimes to the extent of offering dialogue; likewise, the supposed involvement of Lord Kelvin, for example, has been described as both significant and detailed, yet no shred of evidence whatsoever has been produced. A more accurate account of The Kosmoid Enigma is long overdue; the affair is colourful and unusual enough without the invention of spurious and misleading fiction.

FOOTNOTES

1. W Innes Addison, A Roll of the Graduates of the University of Glasgow, 1727-1897 (James Maclehose & Sons 1898)
2. Shiels Family private letters
3. Scottish Record Office (hereinafter cited as SRO), BT2/2879
4. Glasgow University Archives, letter
5. Shiels Family private letters
7. Patents applications - Illustrated Official Journal and Index
9. SRO, BT2/5495
10. SRO, BT2/5522
11. SRO, BT2/5748
12. SRO, CS 248/3289
13. 'Petitions under Joint Stock Companies Acts: Vol CLXXI'
14. Lennox Herald, Oct 1904
15. Ibid, Oct 1905
17. Evening Citizen Glasgow, Feb 1906
18. Shiels Family private letters
19. Dumbarton Library, Dumbarton Dean of Guild Court records
20. Lennox Herald, Report of local election meeting, Nov 1905
21. 'Reports of Patents, Design & Trade Mark Cases', Henderson v Shiels, Dec 1906
22. Dumbarton Library, Dennystoun Forge papers
24. Glasgow Valuation Rolls
25. Lennox Herald, Oct 1905
26. Ibid, Apr 1906
27. The Weekly Mail, May 1906
28. Dumbarton Library, Dennystoun Forge papers
29. Cambridge University Library, Kelvin letterbooks
30. SRO, BT2/7500
31. SRO, Shiels Inventory
32. Daily Courier, Liverpool, Jul 1924
Alexander Shiels entered the University of Glasgow as a medical student in the autumn of 1883. In his first year he attended only Professor John "Soda" Ferguson's chemistry lectures, where he was awarded a 2nd class certificate of merit. Shiels did not matriculate in session 1884-5, although his attendance during the summer of 1884 gained him another 2nd class certificate, this time in Ferguson's practical chemistry class. He returned in October 1885 to study chemistry (yet again) and zoology. He was already, it seems, contemplating a career outwith the narrow confines of medicine, registering as a student in the faculties of both medicine and science. Shiels' persistence in this instance was rewarded with a 1st class certificate in chemistry. This concentration of effort is significant in view of his later connection with John Joseph Melville, a self-confessed alchemist, for Professor Ferguson was an authority in this field and part of his superb collection of alchemical literature is now housed in the Glasgow University Library.

Alexander continued his medical education along fairly orthodox lines between October 1886 and his graduation as MB CM on 31 July 1890. In view of the later allegations that he was not properly qualified it is important to stress this point; although Shiels was not an outstanding student he was more than competent and, unlike many of his contemporaries, never suffered the indignity of resiting any professional examination.

Contemporaneously with his medical studies, Shiels acquired sufficient examination passes to qualify him for graduation with a BSc in biological sciences on 24 April 1891. His curriculum in this enterprise comprised
chemistry, anatomy, physiology, zoology, botany and natural philosophy (taught by William Thomson, later Lord Kelvin). This CV, very similar to that required for medical students in their early years of study, would seem to have offered little in the way of training for a man who was later to describe himself as a 'Consulting Engineer'. It would be interesting to learn if Shiels ever attended formal classes in an engineering faculty or technical college.
The centuries old rivalry between Anstruther Easter and Kilrenny and Cellardyke harbours effectively ended in the early 1880s with the completion of Anstruther Union Harbour, which henceforth served as the dominant landing point for the north east Fife fishing fleets. In one important respect, however, the relationship between the burghs remained unaltered. As in earlier times the great majority of the fisher community continued to live in Cellardyke, a phenomenon commented upon in 1895, when it was noted that:

"... it is mainly by the efforts of the Cellardyke fishermen that the town of Anstruther Easter is maintained, the inhabitants thereof being merchants, fishcurers, fishsalesmen, and others, who dispose of the catch made by the fishermen, none of whom reside in Anstruther Easter." 1

One consequence of this, particularly relevant to this article, was that a steady rise in the local population, beginning in the mid nineteenth century and stemming from the revival, after a period of prolonged depression, of the Fife fishing industry, 2 was unevenly distributed. In 1851 there was already an appreciable discrepancy in the size of the neighbouring populations, with 2,194 inhabitants recorded in the burgh of Kilrenny and Cellardyke and 1,146 in Anstruther Easter. Thirty years later their populations had increased to 3,198 and 1,248 respectively, a rise of 46 per cent as opposed to only 8 per cent. 3 The resultant
overcrowding of the Cellardyke housing stock was a source of repeated contemporary comment, an 1861 account describing how:

'There is scarcely requisite house accommodation for two thirds of the population, and the consequence is that many families are so huddled together that one room serves for the sleeping room of an entire family. One gentleman informs us that he this week visited a small room in which were four beds, each containing at least one occupant.'

In the same year it was observed that in some houses 'there are to be found no less than eight individuals all living and sleeping in one apartment and these individuals composed of both sexes'. As these accounts suggest, population densities appear to have peaked in the 1860s when it was estimated that 'three fourths of the families of the fishermen are each compelled to live in a single room'. From the late 1860's onwards, however, the pressures brought to bear by a rising population were alleviated by a succession of house building programmes, the largest of which were sited on the previously unexploited farmlands extending northwards from Cellardyke's traditional landward boundaries. Proposals to develop this area had in fact been circulated as early as the late 1850s only to be thwarted by the 'flat refusal' of the relevant land superiors to release feus for building purposes. The formation of a local co-operative venture, the Cellardyke Building Company, was followed by a significantly different outcome, the object of which was described in an East of Fife Record report of May 1862:

'The great necessity for additional house accommodation in Cellardyke is now about to be met ... in that a joint-stock company has been started to accomplish this desirable object. The company was formed in the course of the last week or two, and is composed principally of public spirited
gentlemen both in Cellardyke and Anstruther. Their object is the humane desire to afford house-room to the very crowded and over-grown population of Cellardyke... They propose to build a block of houses which will accommodate sixteen families... There cannot be a doubt but that the company will get them at once off their hands; for we learn that it is a fact that in Cellardyke there is not the requisite room for much more than half of the existing population.8

Land was successfully negotiated several weeks later, and the ambitious nature of the undertaking confirmed by the identity of the 'competent party' commissioned to draw up plans; the St Andrews architect George Rae (1811-1869), whose proposals involved the creation of an entirely new thoroughfare, Ellice Street, running parallel to Toll Road and at right angles to the service road that would eventually constitute West Forth Street. The company's original intention was to 'dispose of the sites by sale to parties who (might) wish to buy them and erect the dwellings according to the plan laid down', with the qualification that 'in the event of no immediate sale the company will at once begin to build the houses and afterwards either let or sell them'.9 No acceptable offers to purchase the plots seem to have been made for in December 1862 the company sought estimates for the building of numbers 5 and 7 (Plate 1), which were to constitute the only dwellings erected as part of the original Ellice Street development.10

The failure to either sell the sites as building plots or to erect more than two of the projected sixteen houses on its own initiative, at a time when the demand for accommodation was considerable, suggests that the scheme, ironically, aimed to provide a standard of housing that the
fishermen of Cellardyke could not afford. Significantly the two houses, when completed in March 1863, were described as being 'of a much better class for fishermen than have hitherto been in existence'\textsuperscript{11} drawing praise as having been 'planned by a skilled architect' who had 'carefully studied the convenience and comforts of the future occupants'.\textsuperscript{12} 'Comfort' was catered for by the provision of five apartments, in addition to a large garret and cellaring space. The arrangement was greeted enthusiastically:

'Instead of a family, male and female, all crowding in one apartment, these houses are so designed as to supply several apartments to the same family, and may thus be the means of promoting better habits of decency and order than, we are sorry to learn have hitherto been in practice...'.\textsuperscript{13}

While their spaciousness undoubtedly placed the houses beyond the means of the great majority of the fisher community, it was this very quality, coupled with an intelligent, and alternative, solution to the traditional problem of net and tackle storage, that established Rae's design as a model that was to determine the form of terraced fishermen's houses and tenements erected in Cellardyke throughout the ensuing quarter century.

Until the 1860s the great majority of fishermen's houses in Cellardyke had conformed to a low, barely two-storeyed arrangement dismissed by Gourlay (1879) as amounting to 'little more than a smoke begrimed cot'\textsuperscript{14} that Whittingdon (1967) has suggested was a local modification of a 'basic single-storeyed, two roomed, two windowed' dwelling type, the Scottish 'but and ben'.\textsuperscript{15} In such dwellings it was customary for the living space to be situated on the upper floor and reached by an external forestair, while the all important fishing gear was stored below in a basement cellar, a room half sunk below street level. The external and internal arrangement of the Ellice Street houses departed from this format in a
Plate 1. Numbers 5 and 7 (now 3 and 4) Ellice Street, Cellardyke
Plate 2. Fisher tenements, East Forth Street, Cellardyke, 1908 (Scottish Fisheries Museum)
number of important respects. Firstly, Rae's design exploited a higher quality of construction, with street elevations of squared as opposed to random rubble sandstone. It was also significantly taller, rising through two full storeys surmounted by a spacious attic, or more correctly, garret area. Each house was served by an internal stairway, thereby conforming to the policies of the Kilrenny and Cellardyke Police Commissioners, who had campaigned relentlessly against the provision of outside stairs.16

By far the most significant feature of Rae's design was, nevertheless, the prominent role, visual as well as utilitarian, assigned to the garret, which was now adapted for the repair and storage of fishing gear. Towards this end a gabled dormer was provided for each house, flush with the street elevation and serviced by a hoist.17 The effect was to turn what had formerly comprised an irregularly occurring feature of north east Fife fishing dwellings into a standard element of design. With only a small number of exceptions, Cellardyke tenement arrangements of the post 1862 period made use of the idea which, when it re-emerged in the later 1860s and 1870s was in the hands, not of an architect, but members of the local building community.

Following the failure of the Ellice Street speculation, building activity focused instead on the neighbouring thoroughfares of East Forth Street (c1867-9)18 and West Forth Street (1872-3).19 Both developments adhered to Rae's two storey arrangement with garret, simplified dormer and sliding hoist, adding a small paved and walled area, sited at the front, for the temporary depositing of nets.20 (Plate 2) In contrast to the Ellice Street houses these slightly later arrangements were designed to accommodate two families and therefore constituted tenements proper,21 hence the introduction of a doored close, a traditional tenement feature, that had not figured in Rae's designs. Running through the entire depth
of the building this gave access to ground and, via a rear stairway, to first floor two roomed flats as well as permitting unobstructed access to the back courtyard area, where additional storage accommodation was provided.

Aimed at a broader sector of the Cellardyke population than their Ellice predecessors, the Forth Street tenements still constituted a distinctly superior level of working class accommodation, and were described as such in the local press.22 The conventions of profit sharing adhered to by the north Fife herring boats are worth referring to at this point, notably the distinction drawn between full crew members contributing both labour and fishing gear and who received two shares in the catch profits, and those who contributed their labour only, and were thus restricted to a single share as 'half deals men'.23 It was clearly the former group that the East and West Forth Street dwellings, with their generous provision of gear storage space, sought to attract. This contrasted with a smaller, if sizeable sequence, of three storey tenements erected a quarter of a mile to the east, along Dove Street (numbers 4-14, 1862-69) which, arranged on a one and two apartment basis, but lacking additional working areas, can be seen to have constituted the only serious nineteenth century attempt to meet the housing requirements of the least prosperous sector of the Cellardyke fishing community.24

Variations in dormer heights and window mouldings suggest that responsibility for the Forth Street tenements was shared between at least three builders. Only one of these can be identified with certainty, the monumental sculptor turned builder Alexander Wallace, who was active in both developments, subsequently repeating the formula in a number of gap site speculations, notably numbers 30-32 James Street (1885).25 Wallace's
possibly vital contribution to the evolution of Cellardyke tenement design is suggested by his involvement in the much larger and more systematic exercise in the formula that followed before the end of the 1870s, eventually forming the Rodger Street/Fowler Street inter-connection, sited immediately to the north of the Ellice Street houses and developed piecemeal over a nine year period. Despite the time scale involved, these tenements constituted an exceptionally unified and coherent development, with each building conforming to the requirements of a common feuing plan drawn up by the Kirkcaldy civil engineer John Sang.26 The plan itself, to which the public were given access in mid-December 1876, was augmented by a letter of January 1877 in which the land superior, Admiral Charles Henry Bethune, laid down the conditions that prospective vassals and housebuilders were bound to follow:

'...the houses to be built with mutual gables and division walls, and placed 10' back from the line of the street and footpaths of channel and curb, and the roadway to be made by the feuars; the houses not to exceed two storeys in height, and to be built of stones with slates; and not to be used for any purpose other than dwelling houses and sale shops, the carrying on of any obnoxious trade being prohibited; drains to be submitted to Admiral Bethune, so as to ensure the erection of a good class of house'.27

The basic arrangement eventually adopted standardised the design type already introduced in the East and West Forth Street developments. When, in December 1876, it was first announced that Bethune was to feu land at the rate of £20 per acre, specific reference was made to just such a model: 'a feu for a fisherman's house such as those at present erected in East Forth Street, will only be about 30s a year'.28
The sites eventually taken up formed only a proportion of those originally envisaged by Sang's plan, which made provision for seventy-four building plots, forty-four of which were subsequently developed. Construction began in March 1877 when the Cellardyke builder, Thomas Brown, commenced work on three plots, thus initiating the development of the west side of Rodger Street. The first of these was assigned to a self-contained corner house, but the remainder were devoted to two family tenements, with two rooms to each family unit, a layout described by Gourlay (1879) who explained how:

"Each house is divided into two distinct properties, consisting of a ground floor and upper storey, with a lofty attic, specially designed for the repair and storage of sea gear. The section being 26' within the walls, is further divided into an inner and outer room for the accommodation of the family, who have the further convenience of a front area, 10' wide, fenced by a low wall, or parapet, with cellars in the rear, and a garden filling up the feu, which, in this way, is 20' in width by 150' in length. Here, then, on the once silent field a cheerful and busy street is seen to have a place, with groups of happy children dancing all day long in the sweetness and music of the sunbeam."

Garret dormers were inserted to front and rear. Although a small number of fixed external rear hoists were secured, the most favoured expedient was again found in sliding dormer beams, at least one of which survives (Plate 3). Water was secured via courtyard pumps, representing an advance on generally prevailing conditions in Cellardyke and the Anstruthers, where privately owned wells continued to meet the needs of the majority of the population until the early years of the new century. As in East and West Forth Streets a ground floor hallway led from front to
Plate 3. Sliding garret hoist, Number 4 Rodger Street, Cellardyke
Plate 4. Plan, Number 4 Rodger Street, Cellardyke
rear, providing access to a courtyard and sheds. The latter, leading in turn to a shared garden area, was arranged on a two storey basis with the upper level assigned to gear storage, the lower to sinks, coal cellarage and back boiler (Plate 4). Contrasting with their Forth Street predecessors, and reflecting the local prosperity of the 1870s and early 1880s, the majority of the Rodger Street tenements operated as partial, as opposed to full, letting investments. In these circumstances the tenement owner invariably occupied the upper flat, which must have been quieter, possessed additional accommodation in the form of a front room closet, and frequently enjoyed the advantage of a bedroom extension into the garret area, to which the term 'attic' was exclusively reserved.31

On April 5, 1878 the Pittenweem plasterer, Robert Williamson, secured a feu for a 'double house' on the east side of Rodger Street.32 The buildings subsequently erected on this side of the development (Plate 5) differed from Brown’s tenements only in detail, with more elaborate window and door margins and gutters supported by ornate cast iron brackets. Their uniformity suggests that all were the work of one building firm, and it seems likely that Williamson was the responsible party.33 Work on the remaining west side tenements developed at approximately the same time, involving Wallace, Williamson and probably Brown.34 Slight variations in tenement heights, masonry bondings and internal arrangements confirm their uneven progression, never extending to more than four tenements at a time. The majority were completed by 1883 when a carved datestone was placed in the gable of the east side's northernmost building, a corner shop.35

Eleven tenements were erected in adjoining Fowler Street, completed in a relatively short period (1885-6) and shared between the Anstruther builder James Henderson and Robert Williamson, with the latter working in cooperation with his brother-in-law, the Pittenweem master joiner, William
Plate 5. Rodger Street, Cellardyke, viewed from the south, c1900
(Scottish Fisheries Museum)
Lumsden. §6 Prices secured ranged from £340 to £360, and all were sold to fishermen. The still ragged gable to number 2 Fowler Street confirms that a northern extension to Rodger Street was still projected in the mid 1880s. Although this part of Sang’s plan was never in fact realised, a still impressive total of forty-two tenements were erected between 1877 and 1886, constituting by far the largest nineteenth century housing development in the north east Fife coastal burghs. Well before the latter date the now thoroughly standardised formula had found wider application, at first in St Honans (numbers 23-33 Forth Street, 1881), slightly later in Pittenweem (numbers 55-65 Abbey Walk, 1884), the latter a speculation by James Henderson, whose contribution to the Cellardyke Fowler Street programme has already been noted.

The years 1885 to 1894 constituted a period of virtually unrelieved depression for the north east Fife fishing fleets, the consequences of which were particularly acute in Cellardyke where a wholesale laying off of crews in the winter of 1885 was followed by the institution of soup kitchens, listed as serving five ‘hungry and destitute’ families in the winter of 1886-7. A decline in population, from 3,198 in 1881 to 1,998 in 1891, was accompanied by a rise in the number of unoccupied dwellings, from 21 to 82. By 1885 property prices had collapsed and domestic building starts had all but been brought to a halt. Presumably in response to this situation Alexander Wallace, previously one of the burgh’s most active building contractors, left Cellardyke in 1886, setting up in business in Kirkcaldy, where the building market remained buoyant. Recovery, gradual at first, was more or less complete by 1899 when catches and prices rivalled the peak years of the late 1870s and early 1880s. Although comparatively short-lived, ending with a catastrophic collapse in fish landings between 1908 and 1912, the boom was sufficiently deep-rooted
to sustain a further phase of tenement building which now focused on George Terrace, St Monans, where twenty-nine tenements based on a simplified version of the Cellardyke format were erected from 1900 onwards, promoted by a small group of local land holders working in association with the Lumsden/Williamson partnership and, introducing variations in the position of the great gable dormers, yet another Cellardyke builder, John Clark.45

More were undoubtedly planned. The vigorous promotion of a cottage terrace speculation on an adjoining site may, however, have constituted a significant inhibiting factor, particularly as the cottages sold well, representing a 'new departure' from what could now be described in unmistakably derogatory terms, as 'the stereotyped style of tenement fishermen's houses'.46 Whatever the reason no attempt was made to perpetuate the formula, which ended in 1905 with the completion of the last of the George Terrace tenements and the decision, three years later, to assign the speculation's remaining plots to cottage units.47

FOOTNOTES

1. East of Fife Record, 22 Feb 1895, p 2
2. The consequences of which are described by Gourlay, 'in living memory only two fishermen dwelt in [James] Street to the westward of the Burgh Cross...or in a section of the town where more than one hundred sea faring families are accommodated today', G Gourlay, Fisher Life; or the Memorials of Cellardyke and the Fife Coast, (Cupar 1879) p 150
4. East of Fife Record, 5 Oct 1861, p 2
5. Ibid, 16 Nov 1861, p 2

6. Ibid, 8 Feb 1862, p 2. The same source continues, 'we are told sometimes that the state of morality is low in Cellardyke. However true this may be...we would ask how it can be otherwise, when families of seven and eight individuals, some of them grown up sons and daughters, are compelled to eat, live, and sleep in the same apartment'.

7. Ibid, 16 Nov 1861, p 2. For the advertisements of the Experience Investment Society of Edinburgh ('Let a new town engirdle the present old town...east, west and north, feus without limit can be obtained'). See Ibid, 4 May 1857, p 2 and 3 Nov 1860, p 1

8. Ibid, 3 May 1862, p 2

9. Ibid, 3 May 1862, p 2 and 21 Mar 1863, p 2

10. Ibid, 20 Dec 1862, p 1

11. Ibid, 21 Mar 1863, p 2

12. Ibid, p 1

13. Ibid, p 2

14. Gourlay, op. cit, p 150


16. As many as fifty of which were removed as part of a process of civic improvement in the period leading up to 1879, (Gourlay, op. cit, p 150). The Kilrenny and Cellardyke Police Commissioners Minutes for 1 Jun 1863 record the lengthy negotiations surrounding the removal of one such 'projection', dismantled at a cost of £25 compensation to the proprietor, a Mr Pringle.

17. Which survived in number 7 (now number 3) Ellice Street until 1985 when the interiors of the dwelling were stripped of their original furnishings.
18. The, 'great increase of carting traffic...brought along Forth Street' is noted in Kilrenny and Cellardyke Burgh Council Minutes, Vol 5, pp 22-30 (17 Feb 1868). See also the Kilrenny and Cellardyke Police Commissioners Minutes (10 Feb 1868). The buildings 'in course of erection' along East Forth Street are described in some detail in the East of Fife Record, 20 Mar 1868, p 2. Some at least of a sequence of front page advertisements in the same journal seeking tenders for unspecific areas of house building in Cellardyke, presumably relate to this programme. Seven appeared between 1867 and 1869, placed by James Morris (19 Apr 1867; 11 Oct 1867; 26 Feb 1869), Hugh Birrel & Son (5 Jun 1868; 29 Jan and 14 May 1869) and John Montadore (10 May 1867).

19. Numbers 34/36 and 28/30 West Forth Street being the dates 1872 and 1873 respectively. The progress of work is described in the East of Fife Record, 24 May 1872, p 2.

20. M Murray, In My Ain Words: An East Neuk Vocabulary (Dundee 1982), p 7

21. Eight, 'new houses...at present finishing' in West Forth Street were thus described as providing, 'additional accommodation...for 16 families', East of Fife Record, 24 May 1872, p 2. Their East Forth Street predecessors were similarly described as 'flatted', ibid, 20 Mar 1868, p 2.

22. As 'excellent and commodious houses', ibid, 4 Jun 1869, p 2, 'handsome building...constructed in the most approved style' possessing 'every household accommodation', ibid, 20 Mar 1868, p 2. Population densities nevertheless remained relatively high, with sixty-two occupants and twelve families recorded as inhabiting the six East Forth Street tenements in 1871, Census of Scotland 1871: Kilrenny Burgh, pp 44-7).
23. Described in P Anson, *Fishing Boats and Fisher Folk in East Coast Scotland* (London 1930) p 98. For the Scottish 'share' system in general, see P Thompson (with T Wailey and T Lummis), *Living the Fishing* (London 1983), pp 58, 61-2, 157, 231, 244-6

24. *East of Fife Records*, 21 Sep 1861, p 1; 7 May 1879, p 2; 4 Jun 1869, p 2

25. Wallace is described as 'at present finishing 4 new houses [in] West Forth Street' in the *East of Fife Record*, 24 May 1872, p 2. His contribution to both 'Forth Streets' is cited in his obituary, *ibid*, 1 Apr 1898, p 4. For his building contracting work in James Street, see *ibid*, 25 Sep 1885, p 2; 9 Oct 1885, p 1; 17 Sep 1886, p 2. See above footnote 18 for the possible identity of other builders involved.

26. *East of Fife Record*, 1 Sep 1876, p 2. Gourlay, *op cit*, p 151 refers incorrectly to him as 'Mr Saig'.

27. *East of Fife Record*, 15 Dec 1876, p 2; 12 Jan 1877, p 2

28. *Ibid*, 29 Dec 1876, p 2. One product of standardisation was the emergence of a descriptive vocabulary, restricted to the Forth/Rodger/Fowler Street tenements. Murray, *op cit*, p 7, lists two such terms: 'brick' (the walled and paved area to the front of the tenements) and 'through-gan' (passageway beneath the rear storage loft, leading from courtyard to garden). The word 'transe', denoting the ground floor hallway running from front to rear, was apparently employed by the inhabitants of Rodger Street alone.

29. *East of Fife Record*, 30 Mar 1877, p 2. The *Kilrenny and Cellardyke Police Commissioners Minutes*, 17 Apr 1877 record the decision 'to name the New Street...north of Ellice Street, now in progress of being built, Rodger Street'.

30. Gourlay, *op cit*, p 152
31. Murray, op. cit., p 10; Record of the Register of Scotland (Sasines), Fife, Vol 22, p 12377. Ownership of the tenement number 22 East Forth Street (1869) was thus shared between John Martin, merchant, Robert Watson, grocer and Robert Brown, Fisherman (all of Cellardyke), none of whom is listed as an occupant in the 1871 census. Reaffirming the trend encapsulated by the Rodger Street properties, this tenement was purchased for his own occupancy by a fisherman, William Watson, in 1877, subsequently operating as a family house, with his son, James Watson (also a fisherman) residing in the lower flat, Register of Sasines, Fife, Vol 3, pp 2136-7.

Self contained flats were sometimes purchased independently, as in the case of number 31 Rodger Street (1885) which was shared between James Dick, fisherman and Janet Boyter, spinster, necessitating a strict demarcation of the courtyard and cellarage areas (Register of Sasines, Fife, Vol 9, p 5729). Although the majority of Rodger Street properties now operate as one family units a sizeable minority continue to be divided along traditional lines, with the lower flat assigned to rented accommodation.

32. Title deeds in the possession of the present proprietor, number 10 Rodger Street, Cellardyke (Mr O Smith). Williamson's early negotiations with Bethune are described in the East of Fife Record, 8 Feb 1878, p 2.

33. He advertised a 'new house' in Rodger Street in, Ibid, 2 May 1884, p 1.

34. Wallace is described as one of the Rodger Street builders in Ibid, 1 Apr 1898, p 4. Records of the Registers of Scotland (Sasines), Fife, Vol 9, p 5729

35. The Minutes of Kilrenny and Cellardyke Police Commissioners (Vol 6) provide an approximate guide to the progress of work, recording decisions relative to the provision of pavements (29 Apr 1878), main
drain and cess pools (1 Jun 1881) and final road surface (7 Feb 1884).

36. *East of Fife Record*, 11 Sept 1885, p 2; 2 Oct 1885, p 3; 30 Oct 1885, p 3; 13 Nov 1885, p 3

37. Title deeds in the possession of the present proprietor, number 25 Forth Street (Mrs B Neale). The speculation was George Sommers 'carter', and the purchaser William Gowans, 'fisherman'. The ground to the north, south and west of the new building 'was described as' still belonging to Sommers. The property on the site to the east (number 27 Forth Street) had already been sold, to a John Leslie.


39. *East of Fife Record*, 1 Jan 1886, p 2; 22 Jul 1887, p 3; 30 Dec 1887, p 2

40. Ibid, 6 May, 1887, p 2

41. Ninth and tenth Decennial Census of the Population of Scotland, Vol 1 (Edinburgh 1882), p 211 and Vol 1 (1892), p 47

42. The *East of Fife Record* observing that it was 'impossible to sell houses at a reasonable rate...several properties are said to have changed hands at a discount of 50 per cent and more on the price not so long ago', 4 Oct 1889, p 2.

43. Ibid, 1 Apr 1893, p 4
44. The recovery of catches is described in *ibid.*, 14 Feb 1902, p 4; 2 Jan 1903, p 2; 25 Dec 1903, p 2. The annual landings totals for Anstruther District between 1855 and 1904 are listed in *ibid.*, 24 Feb 1905, p 5.

45. The relevant speculations are identified as Robert Marr, Andrew Scott, David Smith, Robert Tenat and 'Miss Sommers', presumably a relation of George Sommers, former proprietor of the neighbouring Forth Street site (see above footnote 37), *Minute Book of St. Andrews District Committee of County Council*, Vol 111, pp 42, 68, 75, 214. The progress of work is recorded in the *East of Fife Record*, 22 Jun 1900, p 4; 27 Dec 1901, p 5; 5 Sep 1902, p 4; 18 Sep 1903, p 4. Extra information supplied by Mr George Cathcart, Cellardyke.

46. The cottages (twelve in all) comprise Miller Terrace. *East of Fife Record*, 21 Feb 1902, p 4; 26 Sep 1902, p 4; 4 Oct 1907, p 4

47. *Ibid.*, 31 Dec 1908, p 1
A PROFILE OF THE SCOTTISH IRON FOUNDRY INDUSTRY 1969–1984

by

Frank Martin
Bristol Polytechnic

This article seeks to profile the position of the Scottish Iron Foundry Industry during the period 1969 to 1984. This will be achieved by splitting the time period outlined into two. The first period will cover 1969-1977, whilst the second covers 1978 to 1984. For period one, a full analysis of the performance of the industry will be provided in order that a model can be set up and certain predictions made. These predictions can then be tested against the actual outcome seven years on by directly comparing the industry's profile at the last year of the two time periods i.e. 1977 and 1984.

The model postulated the criteria necessary for success in the business of producing ferrous castings and in particular iron castings. By so doing it identified both the most successful Scottish iron foundries and those most at risk during the present long running recession. It is clear from the research carried out for an earlier study,¹ and for this article, that while the industry is still contracting, it has within it a large number of efficient companies capable of supplying a wide range of ferrous castings and in particular iron and iron alloy castings. The continuance of this productive capability is of major importance to the engineering industry in Scotland.

The Scottish iron foundry industry is one which has not been well documented, at least in modern times, despite its strategic importance as a supplier of essential components to the Scottish engineering industry. The only regular publication on the industry which is specific to Scotland
is the *Foundry and Forge Directory*, published since 1975 by the Scottish Development Agency (SDA). This directory has the aim of helping to secure work for the companies listed. The only other consistent source of information is the papers published by the National Economic Development Office (NEDO) under the auspices of the Foundries Economic Development Committee (EDC). These papers are normally only available to the members of the EDC. From time to time, however, specific reports are given a general circulation; for example, the report on small craft foundries published in 1979. However, given the relative size of the Scottish industry (in 1977, only 8 per cent of total UK iron foundries by number), information directly relating to the Scottish position is very seldom, if at all, highlighted.

A great deal of the information for the 1978 study on the industry in Scotland, therefore, had to be gathered as the result of primary research and in particular a detailed examination of the accounts of foundries lodged at Companies House in Edinburgh. The total number of ferrous foundries in Scotland in 1978 was seventy-three. A ferrous foundry is one which produces castings from iron or steel and their derivatives. Of the seventy-three, a total of sixty were deemed to be iron foundries. Of these thirty-seven produced only iron or iron alloy castings, with twenty-three of the sixty also producing steel castings and/or non-ferrous castings such as aluminium, zinc or bronze. However, the sixty were classed as iron foundries because their main business was primarily that of producing iron castings. The first objective of this paper must be, therefore, to present a profile of the iron foundry industry for the first of the two time periods, namely 1973 to 1977, in terms of the numbers of foundries, people employed and the value of production, before turning to consider its position within the UK iron foundry industry as a whole and
the economic factors at work which have so devastated the industry both in Scotland and nationally.

There are two distinct types of foundry operation. Firstly, there are the foundry companies who are in business only to produce castings. In this case, all the products of the foundry, ie the castings, are sold to other companies. The second type of business is a foundry which is owned by another company, usually an engineering company. The foundry may be physically located inside or outside of the engineering company's premises. It may produce castings solely for the needs of the parent company and is therefore termed a captive foundry. Alternatively, some of the production may be sold on a commercial basis and the foundry is termed, in this case, a tied foundry.

Of the sixty iron foundries listed as operating commercially in 1977, forty-two were iron foundry only companies, whilst eighteen were either tied or captive. It was not possible to delineate further the latter two categories. In terms of the geographical spread the foundries were located in seven Scottish regions. Table 1 provides a regional analysis by total and by numbers employed. The majority of Scottish iron foundries were, and still are, in private hands. This is primarily due to the degree of control still exercised by family groups, or by a few individuals who continue to own the majority of shares. In 1977, the ownership pattern saw thirty-eight in private hands, thirteen owned by parent companies registered in England, three in the US and six in Scotland.


### TABLE 1

**IRON FOUNDRIES and EMPLOYMENT PATTERNS by REGION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REGION</th>
<th>Iron Foundries</th>
<th>Numbers Employed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strathclyde</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2,350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2,250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lothian</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fife</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grampian</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tayside</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Border</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>5,330</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Derived from SDA, *Foundry Capacity in Scotland, 1978*

In 1976 an internal British Ironfounders Association report put the numbers involved in 'foundry processes' within Scotland at 5,500 for the iron foundry sector. By foundry processes the paper was referring to direct foundry employment. By comparison, the Department of Employment (DoE) *Gazette* for August 1976, listed employment in iron at 65,160. Employment numbers are difficult to determine accurately for two main reasons. Firstly, the problem of whether or not only foundry workers come within the iron and steel definition used by the DoE i.e., people working in iron or steel. Secondly, the figures do not indicate whether they include in-house foundries in the total. By using the 1976 Minimum List Heading data produced by the DoE and the report on foundry capacity in Scotland, which gives employment range and direct contact with a large number of iron foundries, the level of employment in Scotland at August 1978 was, for iron foundries, approximately 5,330.

As outlined in Table 1, in 1978 Strathclyde and Central accounted for 85 per cent of the total number of people employed in the industry. By far
the largest grouping was of the companies employing between ten and fifty people in foundry work; there were in fact thirty-three iron foundries in this size range. At the other end of the scale those iron foundries employing more than 100 people numbered fifteen; of these only three had a workforce of more than 300 people.

To establish the turnover of the iron foundry industry in Scotland the annual returns of companies were analysed for the period 1973 to 1977. Because of the operational split outlined previously a problem arises with respect to turnover statistics. The engineering companies do not produce returns showing the turnover of their foundry operation; merely one for the company as a whole. It was therefore necessary to eliminate those engineering companies and concentrate on the forty-two 'foundry only' companies. The resulting information is given in Table 2. Returns were in fact available for forty-one out of the forty-two companies. The figures therefore provide a good indication of the turnover of this segment (ie foundry only companies), during the period in question. It should be noted that throughout the period covered in Table 2, the composition of both the top eight and the top three iron foundry companies remained unchanged.
TABLE 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Turnover</th>
<th>Turnover of Top 8 Cos</th>
<th>Turnover of Top 3 Cos</th>
<th>Turnover % Top 8</th>
<th>Turnover % Top 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>13,226</td>
<td>12,070</td>
<td>6,230</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>21,810</td>
<td>15,870</td>
<td>8,750</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>25,310</td>
<td>19,650</td>
<td>10,350</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>30,520</td>
<td>18,940</td>
<td>11,250</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>28,170</td>
<td>19,550</td>
<td>12,100</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Derived from company records lodged at Companies House in Edinburgh (not price deflated).

From Table 2 the following points emerge. The top three companies increased their turnover ahead of the other companies who comprised the top eight. However, the percentage of the total turnover enjoyed by the top eight declined markedly reflecting the problems a number of iron foundries were encountering in the period 1973 to 1977 as the result of a steep decline in orders received.

Any study of the UK iron foundry industry is by definition a study of an industry in decline. Table 3 presents a vivid picture of this decline. At the national level figures are available for output but the same cannot be said either for the total numbers of iron foundry establishments or for the people employed in them. This stems from the difficulties indicated earlier in this paper of defining what is an iron foundry company and to the numbers of people employed in iron foundry processes. The figures for these latter two categories are therefore estimated for the time period in question. Although at the time of writing an accurate picture of the numbers of iron foundries in the UK was not available, it is the
opinion of the Foundries EDC that the number of establishments has not declined as rapidly as production and employment.

**TABLE 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Iron Foundries in Total (3)</th>
<th>Output of Castings '000 Tonnes (1)</th>
<th>Numbers Employed '000s (2) (3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1969</td>
<td>920 (95)</td>
<td>3,816 (274)</td>
<td>16.2 (8.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>768 (75)</td>
<td>3,445 (226)</td>
<td>34.7 (6.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>715 (60)</td>
<td>2,689 (175)</td>
<td>79 (5.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>n/a (49)*</td>
<td>1,435 n/a</td>
<td>45 (3.2)*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Derived from (1) Business Statistics Office (BSO) Business Monitor PQ321 and PQ3112; (2) Department of Employment; and (3) Council of Iron Founders Association estimates.

*SDA, Foundry and Forge Directory, 1984*

The fall in tonnage produced during the period 1969 to 1983 represents a reduction of almost 63 per cent whilst the drop in employment nationally is almost 50 per cent. The comparable Scottish iron foundry figures are a drop of almost 50 per cent in foundry establishments and a drop of 60 per cent in number employed. This latter calculation can only be an estimate but contact with observers of the Scottish iron foundry industry does indicate that a severe shake out in employment has taken place well ahead, in percentage terms, of reductions in the numbers of iron foundries.

With the industry, both nationally and locally, in such a poor position, the causes need to be identified. There are in fact two main reasons for this position:

1. The continuing depressed state of manufacturing industry in the UK.
2. Technical development inside and outside of the foundry industry have meant that the same job can now be done by fewer and lighter castings and by other materials. For example, by December 1976, approximately 500,000 tonnes of plastic were being used per annum in the engineering industry.7

When iron casting tonnage figures are produced they are broken down into end user categories and industrial sectors. This breakdown gives a good representation of the fall in demand per sector and is shown in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Automobile</th>
<th>Ingot Moulds</th>
<th>Pressure Pipers</th>
<th>Building and Domestic</th>
<th>Engineering</th>
<th>Miscellaneous</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1110</td>
<td>906</td>
<td>522</td>
<td>377</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(27)</td>
<td>(32)</td>
<td>(34)</td>
<td>(32)</td>
<td>(27)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>603</td>
<td>528</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>159</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(16)</td>
<td>(15)</td>
<td>(11)</td>
<td>(12)</td>
<td>(11)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>460</td>
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<td>278</td>
<td>230</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(12)</td>
<td>(10)</td>
<td>(10)</td>
<td>(14)</td>
<td>(16)</td>
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<td>458</td>
<td>407</td>
<td>297</td>
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<tr>
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<td>(12)</td>
<td>(12)</td>
<td>(11)</td>
<td>(13)</td>
<td>(13)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>759</td>
<td>592</td>
<td>499</td>
<td>218</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(20)</td>
<td>(17)</td>
<td>(19)</td>
<td>(13)</td>
<td>(21)</td>
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<td>494</td>
<td>459</td>
<td>411</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>104</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(13)</td>
<td>(13)</td>
<td>(15)</td>
<td>(15)</td>
<td>(7.5)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3832</td>
<td>3445</td>
<td>2689</td>
<td>1630</td>
<td>1376</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source, BSO, Business Monitor PQ 321 and PQ 3112

In the period 1970-1978 the two sectors which showed the greatest decline were ingot moulds, and building and domestic. Since 1978 the most striking trend has been the collapse in demand for automobile castings,
down by almost 60 per cent. Fortunately the upturn in orders for some of the main sectors of the engineering industry has resulted in an improved set of figures for that sector in 1984. The situation in the main customer sectors is shown below.

**TABLE 5**

**MAIN CUSTOMER SECTORS FOR IRON CASTINGS 1979–1983**

(Index of output 1980 = 100)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Machine Tools</th>
<th>Instru-Engn.</th>
<th>Agricult-Machinery</th>
<th>Comp's Fluid Power</th>
<th>Cars</th>
<th>Com'l Vehicles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>104.4</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>134.8</td>
<td>108.2</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>67.3</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>86.4</td>
<td>81.6</td>
<td>103.3</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>59.9</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>87.8</td>
<td>79.8</td>
<td>96.1</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>53.5</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>74.6</td>
<td>113.1</td>
<td>62.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: BSO Business Monitor PQ 3221, PM 1000, PQ3211, PQ 3283, PM 3510

It is again clear from the statistics that the output from many of the main customer sectors has either been in sharp decline or has at best remained static. A recent study of the comparative performance of UK iron and steel foundries with their European counterparts, gives very little grounds for optimism concerning the industry's long term future. The study examined twelve European countries including the UK and compared labour productivity, product development, marketing, foundry throughput, industry concentration and investment. For most of these measures of productive efficiency and commercial and technical success, the UK was near the bottom of the league. In none of them was the UK amongst the leaders. For example, in iron foundries, UK labour productivity has been almost two-thirds of that achieved by France and Germany. The average French and German iron foundry produces over 7,000 tonnes per annum.
compared to 3,000 tonnes in the UK. Indeed, over the years 1979 to 1982 UK output per foundry has declined more rapidly than in most other European countries, with the UK now ranked only eighth out of twelve in output per foundry.

The problem facing the industry now and in 1978 is not just one of reducing capacity to equal demand; it is also the related problem of improving the industry's performance with investment and new techniques leading to increases in productivity and product profile.

The other major problem for foundries is the business efficiency of the industry. In the earlier research on which this paper is based the total value of iron castings production was compared to the rise in price of essential raw materials. From figures prepared by the Department of Industry in 1978 for the Council of Iron Foundry Associations (CFA), the following picture emerges. The price per tonne of iron castings rose from £105 in 1968 to £123 per tonne in 1977 (these figures were based on 1970 prices with the inflationary element taken out to give a direct comparison with 1970). However, iron founders' costs rose more steeply than the price of their products. Taking 1968 as 100, the index of wholesale castings prices for 1977 stood at 355. Comparable indices for the cost of essential raw materials were 472 for pig iron, 335 for scrap, and 533 for coke. The position with respect to the value of foundry production has not improved since 1977. Using the statistics from the Business Monitors PQ321 and PQ3112, iron foundry production value at constant 1975 prices has fallen from £698 million in 1978 to £364 million in 1983. A survey by NEDO in 1983, which is subject to restricted access, looked at items such as capacity utilisation and break-even point. It reinforces this picture of poor business efficiency nationally. Even amongst those foundries with high capacity utilisation this has not been
translated into a high ratio to break-even indicating that foundries continue to have profit problems deriving from price rather than volume. If iron castings are too cheap then low or non-existent profit margins mean that foundries cannot afford to invest adequately in new equipment.

It is at this stage that we can now look in detail, for the first time at the Scottish iron foundry industry and its financial and operational profile. Although the first time period seeks to cover the years 1969 to 1977, the principal focus of the analysis to come is on the years 1973 to 1977.

In order to be able to charge adequate prices for its products a foundry needs to produce its castings efficiently and to be able to manufacture not only grey iron castings but also spherodial graphite iron (SG) ni-resist and ni-hard alloy iron castings. Spherodial graphite castings are essentially lighter and more flexible than grey iron. They have a longer life and, in the case of ni-resist have anti-corrosive properties. These castings can command greater prices and thereby offer better profit margins to the producer, but they require investment in expensive electric furnaces. In 1978 such a furnace would have cost anything between £40,000 and £100,000, depending on the capacity required, whilst for operational needs, they are often installed in pairs. They also use chemically bonded sands. These sands often cost double the price per tonne of normal sand, and the installation (depending on the volume of chemical sand used) of expensive reclaimation plants costing £20,000 and upwards, to reprocess the sand.

In 1977 the product profile of Scottish iron foundries was therefore an important aspect in assessing the industry's future prospects. This
survey was carried out using principally two published sources of information. Firstly the details of capacity outlined in the 1978 SDA report,\textsuperscript{12} and secondly, the NEDO report,\textsuperscript{13} which looked at small craft castings foundries on a UK wide basis.

The information contained in the first study revealed that one in three of Scottish iron foundries could produce SG iron with 50 per cent of iron foundries either listing SG iron, or a high quality iron alloy, in their details of capacity.\textsuperscript{14} As indicated, to produce the new range of iron alloys, either new technology in the form of electric furnaces, or better quality control for existing cupolas is required. One indication of the pace of change is to measure the level of investment in an industry. A lengthy questionnaire sent out by NEDO to all foundries employing less than 100 people threw up useful statistics, not only on investment, but also on markets served and customer profiles. This information, covering the period 1972 to 1977, was not broken down by geographical region. However, because of this research the author was fortunate to have access to the data to extract the Scottish respondents for comparison with the national picture.

The total number of questionnaires sent out was 540 and 356 usable replies were received. Of these, 238 qualified as a craft foundry.\textsuperscript{15} Although the NEDO working party provisionally defined small foundries as those employing less than 100 people, thirty-one foundries who completed the questionnaire employed more than this number. These responses were retained because the foundries made a substantial contribution to the supply of craft castings.\textsuperscript{16} As outlined earlier in this paper forty-five of the sixty iron foundries in Scotland employ 100 or fewer people. The number of Scottish respondents to the survey was thirty-four. They represent some 75 per cent of the total of Scottish foundries with 100 or
fewer employees. The NEDO survey is therefore an excellent vehicle from which to present a picture of Scottish iron foundries.

Summarising the results for Scottish foundries suggests that investment spending in Scotland may have been actively ahead of the rest of the UK. The figures for investment spending at the top end of the scale (£120,000 and upwards) indicated a higher percentage of Scottish foundries in this group than the UK as a whole, ie 44 per cent of the Scottish sample as opposed to 23 per cent of the national sample. In 1977 to 1978, Scottish iron foundries produced approximately 6.5 per cent of all iron castings output. Yet from the NEDO returns it is obvious that they enjoyed a higher percentage share of the UK market, some 13 per cent to 15 per cent, for SG iron and for high quality iron alloy castings. This market share was and still is an important plus for Scotland. While the total tonnage produced is shrinking owing to falling demand, a part of this is due to the substitution of heavy grey iron castings for the iron castings indicated above. By retaining or enlarging on this market share Scottish iron foundries have a valuable cushion on which to remain both competitive and innovative.

The questionnaire responses on the markets served indicated that Scotland, with a few notable exceptions, mirrored the UK in the proportion of foundry work going to particular sectors in both engineering and non-engineering. In the engineering sector, the basic differences between the UK and Scottish foundry answers on markets served were in machine tools - 67 per cent of the UK replies as opposed to 53 per cent of the Scottish. In the areas of ships engines and electrical engineering however Scotland is more involved - 44 per cent Scottish respondents in
In the non-engineering sector the principal difference in output were in the sectors of pressure pipes, and building and domestic, with Scottish foundries supplying a higher percentage of their output to these two sectors. One possible reason for this difference is the greater use of SG iron and iron alloy castings in the pressure pipe and building sectors. From the same NEDO questionnaire returns comparisons were extracted on customers served, importance of customers, and distance to customers. The figures show that Scottish foundries, in one year, supply on average 110 customers as opposed to the national figure of seventy-nine. Scottish foundries were less reliant on their top six customers for business and delivered less of their production within a 50 mile radius. However, the spread of the customer base was proving a mixed blessing for Scottish foundries in that from their returns the major problem facing the foundries was identified as customers ceasing to trade.

Given the greater level of investment, the wider spread of its customer base, and the greater proportional output of higher quality iron castings, the prospects for the Scottish iron foundry industry in 1978 were on the whole fairly optimistic. It is an important sector - iron foundries, and in particular, small craft iron foundries, provide a product on which the whole of the engineering industry depends; for example, one-off or short production run castings vital for prototype development, for original equipment manufacture, for special purpose custom built machinery, or for replacement parts where speed of response can be vital. Such a sector is one in which planned investment should take place. One particular scheme was introduced under Section 8 of the 1972 Industry Act. The closing date for applications was 31 December 1976 and expenditure on approved
projects had to be completed by 31 August 1980. In Scotland, thirty-four projects involving twenty-eight companies were approved and the total investment between government and the industry was put at £37 million. The figures for the UK were 400 projects, involving over 300 plus companies, with total spending put at £355 million. The aid scheme however ran into difficulties. The continuance of the recession beyond 1977 meant that companies were unable to take-up their allocation due to their inability to fund their own element of the total investment and by August 1978 only £14 million of the government total of £78 million had been paid out. However, for Scottish iron foundries one other source of investment exists - that provided by the Scottish Development Agency. Before the Agency, or any other investor, can provide investment funding, an appraisal of the business is a necessary first step in the process.

As outlined, the premise of the research carried out in 1978, 19 was to form a model, or hypothetical profile, of what a modern and successful foundry should look like. The model could then be used as a yardstick against which any individual foundry could be judged thereby assisting investment decisions. The hypothesis was as follows:–

(i) that a successful foundry will have amongst its product range not only grey iron but also iron alloys;

(ii) that the foundry will have at some point in the last few years, and certainly in the 1970s, undergone a programme of investment in the necessary plant and techniques needed to improve the range and quality of its castings;

(iii) that this investment programme was on-going and aimed at upgrading the foundry.
The hypothesis can be presented in another way. The research discovered a number of variables which could be classed either as independent or dependent variables. To be successful in the long term a foundry has to be modern. Usually a foundry becomes modern as the result of a long period in which profits have been re-invested back into the business.

The two variables here are:
(i) a modern foundry;
(ii) profits for re-investment.

Essentially you cannot develop a modern foundry without capital investment. However, a conscious decision may have been taken not to re-invest the profits or alternatively profits can still be extracted from a foundry which has not been modernised. These two variables could therefore be classed as independent although without profits to re-invest a modernised foundry may not be possible.

Secondly, within a foundry there are other variables which can be identified. These are essentially based around: management, product range, technology and customer sector performance. These variables can be classed as dependent variables in that they have direct links with each other. For example, if a customer sector is experiencing a recession, good management would react to this by looking for alternative sources of business. However, without modern technology in the foundry to produce a wide range of high quality castings it would be an extremely difficult to change the customer base and thereby the range of castings produced.

It is recognised that such a classification, into independent and depending variables, is a somewhat arbitrary exercise. However, it may help to further explain the basis of the model and can also be represented in diagramatic form.
To test the hypothesis as outlined, all the available accounts of iron foundries operating in Scotland were analysed for the period 1973 to 1977. The period selected was one which clearly represented a reasonable span of time within which to make a judgement, despite the recession, of a company's performance. Of the sixty iron foundries, a total of forty-nine company accounts were available, a percentage figure of 82 per cent. The information gathered was very detailed, involving the use of seventeen measures or ratios.20 For the purpose of summarising the results it was possible to select three measures which represented an effective guide to the operating efficiency of the companies under review.

The measures are:

(i) Profitability: profit before tax plus payments to directors expressed as a percentage of total assets. As many of the foundries are relatively small, payments to directors are frequently large relative to profits, and it is therefore appropriate to group them with profits;

(ii) Profit Margin: profit before tax plus payments to directors expressed as a percentage of turnover;
(iii) Capital Usage: turnover expressed as a ratio of total assets.

The Business Statistics Office at Newport, Gwent prepared, in 1978, operating ratios by Minimum List Heading (MLH 313 for iron castings) and these were published in Trade and Industry on a yearly basis and thereby offered a good comparison on a broad national basis. Such an analysis, relating to output and salaries per head, threw up a consistent pattern of results. Taking 1970 = 100, all the ratios relating to output and salary had reached, by 1977, almost identical indices.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ratio</th>
<th>Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gross Output</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Output</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross Value Added</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wages per Operative</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Whereas net capital expenditure = 213 in 1977.

It would appear that productivity in the UK iron foundry industry had not improved ahead of wages despite increasing investment in new plant. The record of the industry with respect to profit margins, was highlighted in a report prepared for the National Enterprise Board. The majority of foundries averaged less than 10 per cent, with only one-fifth of companies with a profit margin approaching 20 per cent. The obvious result was the high closure rate of foundries throughout the 1970s.

The performance of the Scottish iron foundry industry should, therefore, be studied in the light of these national figures for productivity and profitability. The criterion by which a Scottish iron foundry was judged to be successful was if the company consistently achieved profitability and profit margins of 10 per cent or over. In 1978 inflation was running at between 8 per cent and 9 per cent, with the cost of borrowing at around 15 per cent. A situation not dissimilar to that of 1985. By applying the hypothesis as outlined and the criterion stated, sixteen Scottish iron foundries qualified for the classification of being successful. These
companies were from the total of forty-nine iron foundry companies for whom accounts were available. Of the eleven companies for which no accounts were available only one (A Taylor Ltd of Dunfermline) could, with any certainty, claim to be successful. This company is connected by family ties to three other foundries who are all successful. Excluding this company meant that a total of 16 or 26 per cent of iron foundries in Scotland could claim to be successful. By applying the same operational judgements, nine iron foundries could be classed as unsuccessful. In this case the reverse applies, in that the nine companies returned profit margins consistently well below 10 per cent. Tables 6 and 7 list both sets of foundries.
TABLE 6

Successful Scottish Iron Foundries 1973-1977

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Iron Foundry</th>
<th>Location Town</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Employment Range</th>
<th>Specialism Castings (for)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Henry Balfour</td>
<td>Leven</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>16-50</td>
<td>Food Tanks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bo'ness Iron*</td>
<td>Bo'ness</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>75-100</td>
<td>Manhole covers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alex Couper*</td>
<td>Denny</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>Alloy Irons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James Dickie</td>
<td>Ayr</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>101-200</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferromac*</td>
<td>Glasgow</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>Marine Castings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forth Alloys</td>
<td>Cumbernauld</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>100-140</td>
<td>Complex Alloys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giddings &amp; Lewis Fraser</td>
<td>Arbraoth</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>50-100</td>
<td>Machine Tools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geo Henderson*</td>
<td>Kelso</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>15-20</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wm Hunter*</td>
<td>Wishaw</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>16-50</td>
<td>Alloy Irons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lion Foundry*</td>
<td>Kirkintilloch</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>250-300</td>
<td>Duct Covers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John McFarlane*</td>
<td>Glasgow</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>15-20</td>
<td>Textile Machines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wm McKinnon*</td>
<td>Aberdeen</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>10-15</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miller &amp; Co*</td>
<td>Edinburgh</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>170-180</td>
<td>Iron Rolls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G Taylor Co*</td>
<td>Hamilton</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>25-50</td>
<td>Crane Sheaves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Taylor &amp; Co*</td>
<td>Lambert</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>180-200</td>
<td>MOD Alloys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilson Pipe Ftgs*</td>
<td>Irvine</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>200-250</td>
<td>SG Pipe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Derived from company records lodged in Companies House in Edinburgh

* iron foundry only companies
@ private limited company registered in Scotland
+ MOD (Ministry of Defence)
x outline of region key: Strathclyde (S), Central (C), Fife (F), Grampian (G), Tayside (T), Borders (B), Lothian (L)

All of the companies listed above do have limited company status.
TABLE 7
UNSUCCESSFUL SCOTTISH IRON FOUNDRIES 1972-1977

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Iron Foundry</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Employment Range</th>
<th>Specialism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A Barclay</td>
<td>Kilmarnock</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>Colliery Gears</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bertrans</td>
<td>Edinburgh</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>40-75</td>
<td>Paper Machines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cruikshanks*</td>
<td>Denny</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>280-320</td>
<td>Agricultural Machines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barry Henry &amp; Cook</td>
<td>Aberdeen</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>25-30</td>
<td>Offshore Oil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dawson &amp; Downie*</td>
<td>Clydebank</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>Pumps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J Fyfe, Donald*</td>
<td>Johnstone</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>16-30</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maitlands*</td>
<td>Airdrie</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>30-50</td>
<td>Machine Tool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merchison*</td>
<td>Falkirk</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>75-80</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith &amp; Welstood*</td>
<td>Bonnybridge</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>50-100</td>
<td>Gas &amp; Electric Appliances</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Derived from company records lodged in Companies House in Edinburgh

* iron foundry only companies

The successful companies over the period 1973 to 1977 were in many cases extremely profitable. Table 8 presents a snapshot of just four of these companies measured against the three ratios highlighted.
TABLE 8
SUCCESSFUL COMPANIES: SUMMARY OF FINANCIAL RATIOS 1973-1977
(five year averages)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Profitability %</th>
<th>Profit Margin %</th>
<th>Capital Usage Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ferronac</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>32.5 (1975)*</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John McFarlane</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>10 (1973)*</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wm McKinnon</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G Taylor</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Derived from company records lodged in Companies House in Edinburgh
* profit margin figure only available for the year indicated.

Any selection process will tend towards making somewhat arbitrary decisions; however the companies listed do allow the hypothesis to be tested.

Two methods of comparison were selected. Firstly, a financial similarities chart was compiled detailing growth in fixed assets, current assets, turnover, and ordinary shareholders funds, experienced by both sets of companies. The second strand of the analysis was the construction of a capacity profile for both groups. This profile was established with the aim of trying to list the operational characteristics of the companies in terms of - the size of operation, method of production, whether jobbing or repetition, the range of material from which castings were produced, and the facilities on offer. The comparisons were conducted to establish whether or not the two sets of companies differed not only in their financial characteristics but also in their operational characteristics and finally whether or not the two were directly connected. This cross analysis was the key to the whole
exercise in that if the comparisons yielded a close correlation it would then be possible to construct an 'ideal' foundry profile.

The financial picture for the successful foundries revealed the following characteristics for the period 1973-1977.

1. **Fixed Asset Growth.** Ten out of the sixteen companies experienced increases of over 50 per cent.

2. **Current Asset Growth.** Fourteen out of the sixteen companies experienced increases of over 50 per cent, with seven companies doubling their asset base.

3. **Turnover Growth.** Thirteen out of the sixteen companies experienced increases of over 50 per cent, with nine companies doubling their turnover.

4. **Ordinary Shareholders Funds.** Twelve out of the sixteen companies experienced increases of over 50 per cent.

This analysis indicated that the top sixteen companies had been investing consistently throughout the period and had built up their level of activity in terms of debtors and work-in-progress.

Carrying out the same analysis for the nine unsuccessful companies revealed the following:

1. **Fixed Asset Growth.** Five out of the nine experienced increases of over 50 per cent. Three of the nine had negative growth.

2. **Current Asset Growth.** Four out of the nine had growth rates under 20 per cent. In the first group seven out of sixteen had growth rates over 100 per cent.

3. **Turnover Growth.** Only one out of the nine had doubled its turnover as against nine out of sixteen in the first group.
4. **Ordinary Shareholders Funds.** Only one out of the nine experienced a growth rate over 50 per cent, while four of the nine experienced negative growth.

In both 3 and 4 above, the unsuccessful company which had doubled its turnover and increased its ordinary shareholders funds by 50 per cent, was in fact, the same company.

The unsuccessful companies had therefore slower fixed asset growth rates and demonstrably inferior growth rates in current assets, turnover, and ordinary shareholders funds. In experiencing lower rates of turnover growth the companies were unable to build up reserves with which to finance investment and modernisation. The cycle then becomes self-reinforcing. The comparative employee ratios reinforce the extent of the problems facing the unsuccessful companies. For turnover per employee the range was from £2,500 to £12,000 with a median of £4,700 (the successful median was £8,500). On assets per employee the range was from £1,500 to £10,000 with a median of £3,900 (the successful median was £6,300).

In terms of the capacity similarities, the following picture emerged. Amongst the companies identified as unsuccessful, only two out of the nine offered castings in SG iron as against eight out of the sixteen in the other group. Only one (Cruikshanks) out of the nine offered both SG iron and iron alloy castings, as against five out of sixteen in the other grouping. This lack of new technology is reinforced by the under provision of heat treatment facilities amongst the nine. Only two of them, Cruikshanks and Bertrams, listed this facility, the latter as the result of a recent investment.
As indicated in Table 6 a total of eleven out of the sixteen successful companies came within the strict definition of a foundry only company, in that a majority of the employees were directly employed in foundry processes. Whereas in the other group, only four out of the nine are foundry only companies. Many of the unsuccessful companies are engineering companies which have a foundry on their premises.

In trying to develop a profile into which a foundry should fall, if it is to be successful, two unavoidable additional factors enter into the causal process. These are - the ownership structure of the company and the managerial skills within the business. An analysis of the ownership structure of the companies under review pointed up the following factors as being important in determining success.

Nine out of the sixteen successful foundries were controlled by family groups. Their success may rest on the long term ability of a few individuals to maintain the progress of the business. Many of these individuals are directly related to one another. Looking back through the company records new blood was often a rare event brought about by death, or retirement amongst the directors. The second type of ownership structure is the foundry company which is part of a larger engineering group. The success of the foundry operation is in many cases directly related to, firstly, the managerial skills at the disposal of the parent company, and secondly, if the parent company is experiencing trading difficulties, then the foundry is likely to suffer as a direct consequence of lost orders and low liquidity within the overall business.

It is now possible to develop a success profile chart. This can be seen as Table 9.
## Table 9

**Ironfoundry Companies Success Profile Chart**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company Size by Numbers</th>
<th>Type of Foundry</th>
<th>Products</th>
<th>Technology</th>
<th>Specialism</th>
<th>Management Structure</th>
<th>Financial Performance (1)</th>
<th>Yearly Average %</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10-50</td>
<td>51-100</td>
<td>101-300</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Key to Table:**
- * Indicates a characteristic which is present in every case
- x do. do. most cases
- = do. do. a minority of cases

**Notes:**
1. Financial performance figures are targets, based on 1973 to 1977 Annual Average figures for that group.
2. Capital usage figure is a ratio.
3. Of the sixteen successful companies, there are eight in the 10-15 range, two in the 51-100 range, six in the 101-300 range and none in the 301 range.

**Source:** Derived from SDA, Foundry Capacity in Scotland, 1978, and from company accounts.
There are essentially two different types of foundry operation in Scotland. Firstly the foundry company employing between ten and fifty people and usually family owned. The second, a much larger operation, either family owned or part of a larger company owned in turn by an engineering group. There are certain operational characteristics common to each type. The size grouping of up to fifty employees can be taken as an example. The foundry will be a jobbing foundry, ie producing a wide range of castings for a large number of customers. It is also likely to have the ability to manufacture large numbers of a particular casting using automated processes. Within the foundry facilities such as a pattern making shop, shot blasting, machine shop and heat treatment are all likely to be available. In addition the company will specialise in a particular type of casting.

The application of the model was considered to have two functions. Firstly, to predict likely winners and losers, and secondly, as a test of investment potential. If a foundry approached a funding body such as the Scottish Development Agency, the model could be used in the following way. If, for example, the company employed forty people and produced grey iron castings, had no heat treatment or machine shop facilities, it is more than likely that the company had either not invested correctly in the past or had failed to find new markets. This company would require a great deal of re-structuring which may not, given the present situation, be an appropriate use of investment funds.

Turning now to winners and losers. Since the earlier study was completed, a time period of almost seven years has elapsed. Of the nine iron foundry companies listed in Table 7 a total of eight have ceased to trade. Only Smith & Wellstood Ltd are continuing to operate as iron founders as of October 1985. Of the sixteen successful companies only
two have closed — Henry Balfour & Co Ltd and Lion Foundry Co Ltd. Since 1978 a total of twenty-three iron foundries have closed. This represents 38 per cent of the foundries listed in 1978. The general reasons for failure are:

(i) narrow customer base;
(ii) poor equipment;
(iii) poor marketing;
(iv) local and regional engineering base shrinking;
(v) captive or tied foundries unable to find work outwith the parent company.

To be successful, a foundry needs to:

(i) specialise in high grade castings;
(ii) be heavily automated;
(iii) be able to effectively market its products.

As a predicator the model has been effective. The fact that only two of the sixteen successful foundries have closed in the intervening period, is important. The statistics given in Table 1 indicate the scale of the tonnage reduction within the UK iron foundry industry as a whole (down by 51 per cent in the period 1978 to 1984). In the same period one in three Scottish iron foundries closed. However, what has not happened is the closure of foundries who are needed to maintain a strategic resource. They have not closed as a result of inefficient foundries under-cutting them through having lower overheads to cover. It may indeed be that they do not actively compete with each other in that the unsuccessful firms do not have the product range of their successful counterparts.

As indicated in Table 3 there were forty-nine iron foundries operating in Scotland in 1983/4, employing, in direct foundry processes, approximately
3,200 people. This number does not readily equate to the earlier figures of sixty foundries in 1977 to 1978 and the extent of the closures, a total of seventeen in all. In the 1984 Foundry and Forge Directory a number of new foundries are listed, these foundries being new only to the directory. They were previously inside engineering establishments and were not actively looking for business outwith their own establishment and, therefore, did not seek a listing. It is a sign of the extent of the recession that this is happening. The figures given in Table 3 are themselves no longer accurate with the closure in October 1985 of Merchiston Foundry Ltd, and Cruikshanks & Co Ltd, two of the foundries listed as unsuccessful in Table 7. The position now is that there are forty-seven iron foundries operating in Scotland, employing approximately 3,000 people.

It is very clear that foundry closures will continue and that during the next five years the number of iron foundries operating in Scotland could be down to around thirty. However, such a shake-out is by no means a disaster and that 'leaner and fitter' will actually be an appropriate description for the Scottish iron foundry industry in the late 1980s.

**FOOTNOTES**


3. Martin, op cit

5. Ibid, 8-27

6. Ibid, 8-27


9. Martin, op cit, pp 19-20


13. NEDO, op cit, pp 1-3


15. Ibid, pp 1-2

16. Ibid, pp 39

17. Martin, op cit, Appendix, pp 54-57 presents full details

18. Ibid, pp 49-53

19. Ibid, pp 54-71

20. Ibid, Appendix, pp 14-15

21. Intex Executives (UK) Ltd, op cit

22. Martin, op cit, pp 59-71 and Appendix, pp 58-57


24. Martin, op cit

The Allan Ramsay Library at Leadhills, Lanarkshire, or sometimes the Allan Ramsay Institute, is the oldest subscription library in Britain. It was founded in 1741 by a Reading Society whose original members, except for the minister and the schoolmaster, were all miners. From the first the Society was run by the men themselves, but it seems probable that the founding impetus came from James Stirling, manager for the Scots Mines Company, and the Society was part of a movement of social reform supported by the landowner, The Earl of Hopetoun.

The Library has long been associated with the name of the poet Allan Ramsay, who was born in Leadhills and who himself founded a circulating library in Edinburgh. The choice of title honours Ramsay's pioneering spirit, although there is nothing to connect him with the Reading Society. However, it may be noted that he saw his ill-fated theatre also in terms of social reform. As he put it - 'to mend our manners and reform the age'.

The library ceased to function as such in 1965, but is still open to visitors during summer weekends and by arrangement with the secretary. It is managed by a local committee who meet the Library's running costs by donations and fund raising.

The Library contains much of the original bookstock, and is also a depository for a collection of MSS etc. Among over one hundred listed items is much material relating to the Library and dating from 1821; also, the Curling Club journal (1784 - 1864/1929); The Leadhills Friendly Society accounts (1908 - 15); and the Water Committee (1944 - 1961).
The major business archives are the journals and bargain books of the Scots Mines Company in forty-six volumes from 1739 to 1854. The archive is not complete but it is one of the largest collections of such records extant in the UK. The journals are the day books of the mine overseers, and the bargain books record the bargains, or contracts, made with the men. Although not exclusive to mining, bargain working was a form of subcontracting practised in all lead mining areas. In its simplest form, a group of men, referred to as a partnership, would negotiate a rate for a piece of work and would be paid a lump sum when this was completed to the overseer's satisfaction.

The books not only provide a wealth of detail on the history of the Company, but also of mining techniques and the miners' earnings and conditions of working. There is reference to the arrangement of engines and pumps, to smelting, and to the provision of timber and peat. There is also comment on such matters as dry summers and severe winters, the few holidays the times afforded, and on the visitors to the mines.

Such records, particularly when they encompass a century of activity, provide a great potential for research. However, virtually no record remains of the business of the other companies at Leadhills, so the weight of record of the Scots Mines Company tends to give a distorted picture of the history of mining operations around the village.

There is a hand list (currently being updated) in the Library of the various MSS, and a copy is available in the Scottish Record Office, ref NRA(S) 2052. The Scots Mines Company records are also on microfilm in the SRO; the bargain books under the reference 53/1 to 53/4, and the journals 53/5 to 53/8 inclusive.
Among recent acquisitions is the Gibson MSS, a collection of letters dated 1834 to 1845. Most are from one of the mine smelters, William Gibson, to his son Robert, who at first was a student at the University of Glasgow and was later ordained. The letters are currently being examined by the National Register of Archives.

W S Harvey
Archivist
Allan Ramsay Library
Main Street
Leadhills
Biggar ML12 6XP
SUMMARY LISTS OF ARCHIVE SURVEYS AND DEPOSITS

1 National Register of Archives (Scotland)

Full details of the surveys are available from the National Register of Archives (Scotland). All enquiries and requests for access should be addressed to the Secretary, The National Register of Archives (Scotland), Scottish Record Office, HM General Register House, Edinburgh, EH1 3YY.

Agriculture, Estates, Forestry and Fishing

208 Earl of Wemyss Estate plans and architectural drawings, 18-20 cent, including estates, farms and lands in Perthshire, 1803-73, including Easter and Wester Rhynd, 1839-72, commonty of Grange 1788, confluence of the Earn and the Tay, 1803; estates and farms in Peeblesshire, 18-19 cent, including Henderland estate, 1791, surveys of farms by William Blackadder, 1821; estates and farms in East Lothian, including barony of Longniddry, 1778, Stonyhill colliery, 1829, Monktonhall, 1850-1930, Amisfield Park, gardens and farm, 18-19 cent; plan of estates in the Merse by G Grey, 1758; architectural plans and drawings relating to Gosford House by the Adam office, including plans, elevations and details of house, offices, lodge and gateways, 1790-2 and nd, approach to the house, 1853.

Mr C G Spence, Biel

Biel estate plans and architectural drawings, 18-20 cent, including: plans and elevation of Biel House, conservatory, chapel, offices, stables, lodges and curling house by William Atkinson, Wardrop and Anderson, R Lorimer and Duncan & Harkness, 1804-1953 and nd; plans of farms and buildings of Biel estate, including Biel Mill, 1807-50, Beesknoewe farm and cottages, 1824-1971 and nd; Stenton estate buildings including cottages, village hall and manse, and Stenton House, 19-20 cent.

Earl of Rosebery, Dalmeny House

Estate plans and architectural drawings, 17-20 cent, including: plans and elevations of Craighall House and Mount Leney temple by Sir William Bruce, Thomas Brown, William Burn, David Bryce and others, late 17-20 cent; Craighall estate plans, including farm offices, 18-19 cent; Barnbougle, Dalmeny, Newhall and Carrington estate plans, 1806-60; Norfolk estate plans, including plans of cottages at Postwick, 1860-1; plans of Blackwood House, Lesmahagow, 19 cent, miscellaneous architectural plans, including houses, 17-18 cent, Moffat tolbooth, 1695.

Mr and Mrs J Trotter, Inverness-shire

Trotter of Bush papers, 17-20 cent. Titles and inventories of titles of lands in Midlothian, East Lothian and Berwickshire, 17-18 cent. Miscellaneous legal and financial papers, 1728-1890. Midlothian estate papers, including: rentals, accounts, valuations and measurements relating to estates of Bush, Easter Bush, Bilston, Dryden and Glencorse, 1703-1892; correspondence, 1752-1876, including purchase and sale of Glencorse estate, 1798-1807; accounts and output book of Greenlaw colliery, 1844-7; accounts of Greenlaw Mains farm, 1846-50; accounts for mason work.
at the Bush 1791-9; household accounts, and inventories, 1805-93, including decoration of the Bush, 1852. Heritors' papers relating to Glencorse parish, 1754-1867, including: subscribers to and recipients of poor relief, 1800; militia papers, 1803; accounts and other papers relating to repairs to church, manse and school, 1794-1811, and to stipend, teinds, schoolmasters and statute work on the roads, 1750-1867; dismissal of schoolmaster, 1858-65.

Miscellaneous papers of Moubrays of Castlelaw, 1712-64, including accounts of outlays by Robert Moubray, H M Carpenter, at Holyroodhouse, Edinburgh Castle and Duart Castle, 1745-8.

Miscellaneous genealogies of Trotters and related families, 18-20 cent.

Miscellaneous printed items, including regulations of Bengal Civil Service Annuity Fund and related disputes, 1825-43. Photographs of family, and of Dryden House and Bush House, 19 cent. Drawings and plans, c1791-1949, including: sketches of family and servants at the Bush, 19 cent; designs for the Bush by Robert Adam, 1791, and for Castlelaw by James Elliot, nd; plans for alterations and additions at the Bush, 19 cent; estate plans, 1773-1842; plans of St Peter's College, Kilmahew, 1949.

Lindsay, Duncan and Black, WS, Edinburgh Papers relating to trust of John Chesser, architect, 19-20 cent, including: copy feu contracts relating to lands at Kirkbraehead and Coates, Edinburgh, 1807-76; papers relating to trust property in Edinburgh, 20 cent, plans relating to feuding of Morrison's lands at Whitehouse Toll, and at Maitland Street by Heriot's Hospital, 1790-9; architectural plans of Rutland Hotel, Edinburgh, 1875-95.
Papers relating to Taylers of Rothiemay, Banffshire, 1803-96, including: inventory of Rothiemay House and Castle Lodge, Aberdeen, 1854; Rothiemay estate papers, including household and estate accounts, 19 cent, roup rolls of furniture of house and home farm, 1887; miscellaneous trust papers, 1845-20 cent; plan of Bilbohall estate, Elgin, 1859.

Papers relating to J Balfour Paul, advocate, 19-20 cent, including: miscellaneous legal papers relating to Paul family and Edinburgh property, 1806-1920; correspondence relating to building of byres at Blackhall, Edinburgh, 1886-7; papers relating to lease of Tullibole Castle, 1885-1900.

Papers relating to Parkconon estate, Arbroath, 19-20 cent, including notes, valuations, inventory, leases and grieve's reports on farm, 1866-1902; accounts, specifications and related plans for farmhouse, 1902-12; letters relating to sanitation of cottages, 1911; legal and estate correspondence, 1866-1929.

Papers of Sir William Forrest, Comiston, including: legal and estate papers, 1672-20 cent; inventories of titles of lands of Comiston, Edinburgh, 1885-1931; papers relating to lands of Oxgangs, Edinburgh, 1804-1924; accounts and papers relating to Comiston sand-pit, 1839-1915.

Papers relating to estates of Craigdarroch, Dumfriesshire and Orroland, Kirkcudbright, including: legal papers and accounts, 18-20 cent, including bond for upkeep of school in Glencairn parish, 1765; titles and papers relating to lands of Neiss, Dumfriesshire, and Glenshalloch, Borness and Newlands, Kirkcudbright, 19 cent; factor's accounts, 1865-1915.
Lothian, 16-19 cent, including Templelands of Torphichen, 16 cent, lands around South Queensferry, 17-18 cent; titles of lands in Lanarkshire, including Glendorch, 18-19 cent. Legal papers, including some relating to Livingstones of Bedlornie, 17-18 cent. Estate papers relating to Union Canal, 1815-67, Peaston Farm, East Lothian, 1852-3, clayworkings at Winchburgh, 1889-1905. Mining papers, 17-20 cent: mines at Waterhead alias Glengonnar, 17-19 cent; Leadhills Silver and Lead Mining Co Ltd, 1870-1959; Petroleum (Production) Bill, 1918-19; miscellaneous papers relating to Leadhills, 1695-1921. Church papers, 17-20 cent, including: presentations to parish of Wamphray, 17-19 cent; erection of Leadhills as quoad sacra parish, 1738, 1863-7; patronage of Dalmeny 1837-53; plans of churches by Spiers & Co, Glasgow, 1899, 1901. Miscellaneous papers, including: valuation and sale catalogue of contents of Niddry Lodge, Kensington, 1854-5; papers relating to West Lothian freeholders, 1789-1877; photographs of house and gardens at Muirhouse by A A Inglis, nd.

Mrs P Robertson, Gullane Accounts relating to Mill of Whitchills, Sorbie, 1727-81.

Society of Advocates in Aberdeen Writs of lands in Sherifffdoms of Aberdeen, Banff, Elgin and Forres, Fife, 1345-1789; copy charter of 1060 by Malcolm III to Ronald, earl of Caithness, for services against Macbeth, c1840.

Lady Leith-Buchanan, Gartocharn Writs and legal papers concerning lands of Drymen and Gartocharn, 1657-1846; papers concerning Drymen and Dumbarton Road Trust, 1830-48; valuation of
Sherrifdom of Stirling, 1696; court book of regality of Lennox, 1678-81; note concerning arsenic poisoning, 1756; accounts relating to Drumakild estate, 1689-1793; photographs of life in the Yukon, 1906.

Flett & Sutherland, fish salesmen, Findochty Accounting records, 1902-20; correspondence files, 1910-21. (Deposited in Aberdeen University Library)

Dudingston of Sandford. Miscellaneous estate and related papers, 1539-1927, including: rentals, 1776-7; account of tubs and other goods supplied by cooper, 1771-7; muster roll of persons in east district of Fife Volunteers, 1799; indenture between Colin Reid, surgeon, apothecary in Elie, and John Dudingston, 1756; writs of lands of Luthrie, 16-18 cent.

Finance

The Royal Bank of Scotland plc Accounting records and acts, orders, and resolutions relating to the Company of Scotland trading to Africa and the Indies, 1696-1707. Accounting records and papers concerning the Equivalent Company, 1706-98, including: list of Jacobite rebels, c1715; account of sums due to attainted persons, c1716; abstract of money melted down and received at mint in Edinburgh, 1707-78; inventory of furniture in the Equivalent Office, 1719. Index of governors, deputy governors and directors of the Royal Bank of Scotland, 1727-1922. Correspondence concerning the Commercial Bank of Scotland, 1858-1885, including: applications for post as architect to the bank, 1882. (Replaces Survey No 0266)

Health


Society for the Relief of Destitute Sick, Edinburgh  Inventories of property belonging to Society, 1861-1944; accounting records, 1874-1962. (Formerly deposited in SRO GD1/781)

Dundee City District Archive and Record Centre  Dundee Children's Free Breakfast Mission: minutes, 1889-1902; accounting records, 1876-1914; monthly reports, 1904-35; annual reports, 1903-40;
roll books, 1882-1907; presidents' notebooks, 1882-1941; register of workers, 1952-77; lantern slides of holiday camps, c1930.

Miscellaneous


Mr and Mrs J Trotter, Inverness-shire. Miscellaneous correspondence and papers of Trotters of Bush, Castlelaw and Dreghorn, 1723-1916. Legal, business and personal papers of Archibald Trotter, merchant in Edinburgh and Glasgow, and his family, 1741-91, including: letters from his sons concerning life in the West Indies and America, 1770-3. Papers of Robert Trotter, deputy postmaster in Edinburgh, 1763-1807, including: accounts, 1774-1807; personal and official correspondence relating to the Post Office, 1763-1806, including letters of Sir Coutts Trotter, Earl and Countess of Minto concerning their son's disputed freehold vote, 1805-6, and correspondence with Sir Archibald Denham, 1768-95, concerning public and private business, including the collapse of the Ayr bank, 1772. Papers of Archibald Trotter, opium agent and superintendent of Salt Chokies at Behar, 1805-51, including: correspondence with the Board of Customs Salt and Opium, the Governor-General and others, concerning opium production and protection of the crop, the Post Office and trade, 1814-41; miscellaneous papers, including printed items and accounts, relating to opium and saltpetre trade, 1814-44; personal correspondence, 1807-51, including letters relating to life in India and the Bush estate, correspondence and accounts relating to executry of Earl of Minto, 1813-6; private journals of tour to Highlands, 1804, and voyages to and from India, 1807, 1818-9. Correspondence and papers relating to John Trotter, resident and opium agent in Benares, 1776-1852,

Mr John G Gray, Edinburgh  Miscellaneous papers relating to the history of the south side of Edinburgh, 1769-1959, including: prescription by Professor James Y Simpson, 1855; minutes of Hope Park and Buccleuch Congregational Church women's guild, 1930-58; letter from private secretary to Lloyd George regarding Young Scots Society, nd.

Mr H L R MacNeal of Lossit  Legal papers concerning Campbeltown Coal Works, 1770-1853; correspondence relating to Captain Archibald McNeill and campaigns in India, 1774-1815; agreement between Captain John Bligh, RN, and French commanders concerning terms of surrender in Haiti, 1803; letter relating to colonisation of Carolina, 1739. Miscellaneous legal and genealogical papers concerning the MacNeal and Loring families, c1754-1840. (Replaces Survey No 52 and 2628)

National Register of Archives (Scotland): Register of Oral History Tapes

This Register provides a central body of information on taped material, based on data supplied by the custodians of the tapes and in most cases it also covers such matters as the quality of the recordings, the type of equipment used and particulars of any published work based on the tapes
concerned. The collections are listed under the name of their present custodians to whom requests for access should be directed. The presence of recordings on this Register must not be taken to imply any right of public access to them. Dates given in the entries refer to the date of recording or to the date to which the recordings relate.

1. School of Scottish Studies, University of Edinburgh, 27 George Square, Edinburgh  Ring-net fishing. Interviews concerning fishing methods and lives of the fishermen.

3. Motherwell District Libraries, 33 Hamilton Road, Motherwell, Lanarkshire  Social history of Motherwell. Interviews with retired steel worker, miner, servant, farmer, dentist and MP, c1920–c1939.

7. Archivist, Scottish Film Council, 74 Victoria Crescent Road, Glasgow  History of the cinema industry. Interviews with cinema owners, managers and employees, 1900–current.

8. Buteshire Natural History Society, Stuart Street, Rothesay, Isle of Bute  Social history of Bute. Interviews with a fisherman, c1880, and a mole catcher, c1920.


work in Glasgow, including circus and cinema work, and the suffragette cause, 1908-75.


15. **Scottish Record Office, HM General Register House, Edinburgh** Recordings of meetings of shop stewards and workers of Upper Clyde Shipbuilders during the 'work-in', 1971-2. (SRO reference: RH22/1)

16. **Dundee Museum and Art Gallery, Albert Square, Dundee** Social history of Dundee. Interviews concerning life and work, 1905-70, including jute and flax industry and its trade union organization, c1930-current; grocery and licensed trades, 1905-70; life during the Depression, c1930.

17. **Department of Libraries, Moray District Council, 21 Tycock, Elgin** Interviews concerning life in agriculture and fishing, nd.

19. **National Library of Scotland, George IV Bridge, Edinburgh** Recordings of BBC Radio Scotland series 'Almost Forgotten', 1974-6. Scotland's Record series: The office of Secretary of State for Scotland (Lord Campbell of Croy); the Ministry of Information in
Scotland, 1939-46 (John Dundas, MVO); Alexander Lindsay's rutter of the Scottish seas (George Fortune); the Scottish Board for Industry (Walter Dickson Scott); the Royal Observatory, Edinburgh, and fifty years of astronomy (Professor H A Bruck); General Assembly of the Church of Scotland, 1977-80; crofting and fishing life in the Isle of Lewis, 1899-1951; Scottish industrial publicity, 1960-74; growth of the Scottish electronics industry, 1940s-70s; recollections of crofting (James Shaw Grant); High Constables of Edinburgh; City of Edinburgh publicity and public relations, 1960-76; Newspeak, talking newspaper for the blind, 16-17 Jan 1979; nursing in Glasgow and East Lothian, 1922-6; air raids on Scotland, 1939-45; the Toothill Report on the Scottish economy, 1959-61 (Sir John Toothill and others); the Scottish Home Department, 1939-57; Scottish administration, 1935-72; Lewis shielings in 19 and 20 cents; Radio Clyde programme 'Towards 2000', 27 October 1977 (HRH The Duke of Edinburgh); oatmeal milling in north-east Scotland, 1917-70; poetical works of Helen Burness Cruickshank, 1967-79; the Scottish Land Court (Lord Birsay); the office of Secretary of Commissions for Scotland, 1972-8 (Sir Ronald Johnson); Scottish industrial policy in the 1930s; State management of the liquor trade in Scotland, 1916-71; Glasgow memories, 1900-14; Edinburgh's 266th Lord Provost, 1977-80 (Kenneth Borthwick); Scottish evacuation film scheme, 1939; a young lady of the 1890s; Scots grannies in the 1920s; 650th anniversary of Edinburgh's King Robert the Bruce charter of 1329; evacuation of Isle of Soay, June 1953; the Scottish press, 1930-80; eleven historical vignettes (Dr J B Barclay); the making of Strathclyde University, 1959-80; surgery in Edinburgh, 1937-77; a herrin' lassie of 1913; work of a head postmaster in Scotland, 1930-76; the National Fire Service in Scotland, 1941-5; recording of article 'Scottish Delight for the
Overseas Visitor', 1956; Aberdeen typhoid outbreak, 1964; introduction of postbuses in Scotland, 1968-72; Saturday morning cinema performances for schoolchildren in Edinburgh, c1930 (Dr J B Barclay); work of the Edinburgh Gaelic Schools Society, 19 cent; last months on St Kilda, 1930; applying the Distribution of Industries Act in Scotland, 1945-52; interviews with east coast fishermen and a fisherwoman, c1900-c39.


21. Mr Jurek Alexander Putter, Grafik Orzel Design Studio, 141 South Street, St Andrews  Interviews with inhabitants of St Andrews and east Fife, 1883-1950.

22. University Television Service, School of Physical Sciences, University of St Andrews  Video recordings made in conjunction with tapes in No 21.

24. British Steel Corporation, Scottish Regional Records Centre, 1300 Tollcross Road, Glasgow  Glengarnock conservation project - oral history.  Interview with workers at Glengarnock Steel Works and their wives on all aspects of the work place, home and community at large, c1900-79.

26. Mr Robert Little, Rayleigh 20, University of Essex, Colchester
Scottish migration to Corby, 1933-60. Interview with Scottish
steelworkers and their families in Corby, Northamptonshire,
regarding housing, leisure and work patterns in Scotland and in
Corby, and the process of migration, 1933-60.

27. Mr Donald Mackechnie, Bridge of Douglas, Inveraray
Description by unnamed retired nurse of her childhood at Kenmore, Loch Fyne, and
education at one-teacher school at Bridge of Douglas, 1922-30.

28. School of Scottish Studies, University of Edinburgh, 27 George
Square, Edinburgh
Scottish place-name survey. Interview
regarding use of place-names from oral tradition, mostly concerning
Orkney, Shetland and the Gaelic-speaking areas of Scotland; Gaelic,
with some English.

29. Mr L C Crawford, Cumnock and Doon Valley District Library, Bank
Glen, Cumnock, Ayrshire
History of mining in Doon Valley.
Interview with unnamed retired miners regarding local mining, trade
union and general history (including 1926 General Strike), technical
mining methods, recreation, housing, childhood games etc, 1920-78.

30. Clydebank District Libraries, Central Library, Dumbarton Road,
Clydebank
Interviews with retired shipyard workers at John
Brown's, Clydebank, on all aspects of social history of Clydebank,
including working conditions, trade unions, politics, the Blitz,
building of the Queens, formation of Upper Clyde, 1925-70.

31. Dundee Museum and Art Gallery, Albert Square, Dundee
Interview
with Miss Margaret Fenwick, retired secretary of Jute and Flax
Workers Union (now amalgamated with Dyers' and Bleachers' Union) regarding work in Dundee factories and history of union, c1930-current.

32. Professor Nancy C Dorian, Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania 19010, USA  Interviews with descendants of fisherfolk from Brora, Golspie and Embo, Sutherland, on all aspects of fishing life, including much material on language use, c1900-40, with hearsay evidence on earlier periods; English and Gaelic.

33. Keeper of Maritime History, Aberdeen Art Gallery, School Hill, Aberdeen  Interviews with retired great line fishing skippers concerning their trade, and life and work in coastal fishing villages, 1920-60.
Reviews

A large number of Reviews will appear in the next issue
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Vanessa Habib  'An Eighteenth Century Cotton Manufactory in Scotland: Elizabeth Scott in Musselburgh' (8.1 1985)

Brenda M White  'The Ayrshire Boot and Shoe Industry 1839-1939' (7.2 1984)

Ronald C Michie  'Investment and Railways in Nineteenth Century Scotland' (5.1 1982)

Brian D Osborne  'Dumbarton Shipbuilders and Workers Housing 1850-1900' (3.1 1980)

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The front cover illustration is of coalminers in the High Street, Prestonpans, East Lothian, September 1912.

(Jackson Collection, Glasgow University Archives, DC111/11/1176).

The back cover illustration is from the Coal Tragedy Diary and Colliery Managers' Guide, 1929, p.161.
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WILLIAM SYMINGTON'S ATMOSPHERIC ENGINES AND THEIR CONSTRUCTION

by

J. S. Harvey

1987 marked the bicentenary of William Symington's first patent: his 'Atmospheric Steam Engine or Principal's entirely New'. He is usually remembered as an unsuccessful pioneer of steam navigation, associated with the Wilmington and Charlotte Dundas steamboats. It has been forgotten, however, that for much of his life he was a successful builder of engines. It is certain that twenty-nine engines were built to the 1787 patent and it is likely that there were several more. They were made in Scotland and they helped the Carron Company of Falkirk to compete against the monopoly sought by Boulton & Watt for their Soho engine manufactory.

The 1787 patent was of an atmospheric steam engine and, as such, it was something of an anachronism which in scientific terms cannot be compared with Watt's design. However, it was superior to the old Newcomen engine, and cheaper and easier to maintain than Watt's. It may have used more coal but that was of little account to those colliery owners who were Symington's main customers.

Watt's patent may have been a scientific milestone, but many engineers of the late eighteenth century found the design too complicated and, in his treatise on the steam engine, John Fary echoed other engineers when he wrote 'the novelty of ... construction and supposed difficulty of keeping such new work in order was strongly objected to'. Symington began his career assisting his brother George in building a Watt engine, supplied from Boulton & Watt's Soho Works, Birmingham, on the Margaret mine at
Wanlockhead, so he was very aware of such problems. The mine was put to work in 1779, but before long there were complaints about it, and Gilbert Keason, manager of the mining company, refused to meet the stipulated royalty of £247 per annum, a huge sum in those days.

Symington was therefore able to take advantage of a situation that encouraged inventive opportunity, and he set out to design an engine that would retain the Newcomen style open cylinder and would be simply constructed, cheap, and easy to operate. The engine is well described in a contemporary account:

"Mr Symington's Improved Steam Engine works by the pressure of the atmosphere having an open cylinder. The principal improvement is in the condensation of the steam by a new and simple method. This is affected by introducing a second piston which moves betwixt the steam passage and the bottom and below which the steam is condensed. The motions of this piston are produced without the least degree detracting from the power of the engine, and experience hath shown it to be the most complete method of producing a vacuum yet adopted."

Wanlockhead not only provided Symington with practical engine-building experience, but the situation there offered a particular advantage to the inventor in that there was an engine on which he could prove his ideas. The 1779 engine had been replaced by a larger one in 1786, but the old engine was still in situ and Gilbert Keason was agreeable to using it for experiment. With parts supplied by Carron Company, and paid for by Keason, Symington rebuilt the old engine to his patent, and carried out a "Comparative Trial". It was claimed as a great success and the previous account again provides the details:
The result of this comparison is arguable, but the trial did demonstrate to potential customers that there was an alternative engine to that supplied from Somo, and to Carron that there was an engineer they might profitably support.

Excluding the two built for Patrick Miller's boats, Symington's first commercial engine was built in 1789 to pump the Bay Mine at Hanlockhead. Other orders quickly followed and by 1793 he was building rotative engines as well, using cranks and crossheads instead of the ratchets and chains that drove Miller's paddleboats. Most of the engines were for Scottish interests but Table 1 shows the market was not a parochial one, for engines went south to London and Yorkshire. In 1800 a shipment of parts was sent to Jamaica, probably the first Scottish steam engine sent out to the sugar plantations there.5

Details of the parts that Carron Company supplied for all these engines are recorded in the extant invoice books,6 but only five drawings of the stationary engines are known to exist; so there is little record of their construction and none as to the appearance of those supplied to individual sites.7 The Carron records provide the only hard contemporary information about Symington's engines. The invoice books not only list the various parts, but also the weight of each. All these details offer basic information which the writer has used in the present study to
examine the construction of the engines, and to show how they were used.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITE</th>
<th>DATE</th>
<th>PROPRIETOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dalswinton Steamboat</td>
<td>1788</td>
<td>Patrick Miller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canal Steamboat</td>
<td>1789</td>
<td>Patrick Miller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warlockhead</td>
<td>1789</td>
<td>Gilbert Leason</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>London</td>
<td>1791</td>
<td>Charles Walker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>London</td>
<td>1791</td>
<td>Richard Hanse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sarnabar</td>
<td>1791</td>
<td>Robert Barker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadhills</td>
<td>1792</td>
<td>Archibald Stirling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinneaird 1</td>
<td>1792</td>
<td>James Bruce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leeds</td>
<td>1793</td>
<td>Coupland &amp; Wilkinson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>London</td>
<td>1793</td>
<td>Hector Campbell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinneaird 2</td>
<td>1793</td>
<td>James Bruce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Torryburn</td>
<td>1793</td>
<td>Alexander Dickie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St Clements Wells</td>
<td>1794</td>
<td>George Kilns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Redding Rig 1</td>
<td>1794</td>
<td>Alexander McVey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leeds</td>
<td>1796</td>
<td>Barrow Copley</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinneaird 3</td>
<td>1796</td>
<td>James Bruce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craigend</td>
<td>1796</td>
<td>James Miller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fullarton</td>
<td>1796</td>
<td>Colonel Fullarton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alloa</td>
<td>1797</td>
<td>Robert Bald</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Couston 1</td>
<td>1799</td>
<td>Matthew Sandilands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Couston 2</td>
<td>1800</td>
<td>Matthew Sandilands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>1800</td>
<td>James Mitchell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Redding Rig 2</td>
<td>1801</td>
<td>Alexander McVey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charlotte Dundas 1*</td>
<td>1801</td>
<td>Forth &amp; Clyde Nav Co</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drongan</td>
<td>1803</td>
<td>Hugh Smith</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carronhall</td>
<td>1804</td>
<td>Carronhall Colliery Co</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Redding Rig 3</td>
<td>1805</td>
<td>Alexander McVey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dysart</td>
<td>1808</td>
<td>Dysart New Coal Co</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were probably four more engines - one in Birmingham and three in Scotland, and there may have been others for which no record remains.

* The CHARLOTTE DUNDAS 2 had an engine built to Symington's 1802 Patent.
to have developed the design in keeping with operational experience, for nothing remains of any notes he might have kept himself.

The basic concepts of the 1787 patent can be seen in Figure 1, one of the drawings that accompanied the specification, and they were described as follows:

1. Separating the steam and water, though in the same cylinder, but not cooling it in the place where the powers of the steam are to be used, by the use of a medium piston fitted in the cylinder through which the steam will pass to expose it to water jetting in, but so tight as to prevent leakage.

2. Combining the steam and atmospheric pressures so that the power of the steam coming in is equal to two pounds for every square inch, and acts upon the top of the medium to depress it and expel the water and the air through valves.

3. Having the cylinder heated externally by a flue from the boiler in a spiral direction around it.

The whole concept was an elegant one. The steam passage through the medium piston meant any ingress of air at the pipe joints, one of the problems which bedevilled the early Watt engines, was avoided. Forcing out the condensate by the steam pressure on the medium piston, instead of using a pump driven from the beam, offered an improvement in mechanical efficiency. Using the flue gases to heat the working cylinder promised greater thermal efficiency and a reduced fuel consumption.

In practice, ingenuity led to complications and simplicity was the aim, so the valve in the piston was the first to go. It was tried in an experimental engine Syrington built, as such a valve is shown in the rough
The concept was an imaginative one, but to have successfully applied such a valve to a large engine was probably beyond the engineering abilities of the day.

The heating case around the cylinder was also sound in concept and Watt used a steam jacket in his engines. Symington's arrangement offered higher temperatures, but proved difficult to manufacture. Table 2 suggests that part of the case for the Bay engine was cast integral with the cylinder and had 'case plates' fastened to it. This was probably the least satisfactory arrangement, and by the time Symington designed a big pumping engine for James Bruce's colliery at Kinnaird in 1792, the invoice shows he modified the case so as to have it in two halves. However, the arrangement clearly proved unsatisfactory and there is no record of it being tried again.

Table 2

Comparison of the weights of the upper cylinders and heating cases for the Bay, Leadhills, and Kinnaird 1 engines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ENGINE</th>
<th>WEIGHT UPPER CYLINDER KG</th>
<th>TOTAL WEIGHT OF HEATING CASE KG</th>
<th>HC/TC</th>
<th>TC + HC KG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bay Mine</td>
<td>10120</td>
<td>6775</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>16875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(7800)</td>
<td>(9075)</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>16875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadhills</td>
<td>7604</td>
<td>7877</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>15481</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinnaird 1</td>
<td>7756</td>
<td>9180</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>16936</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The figures in brackets for the Bay mine engine represent the adjusted weights assuming that part of the heating case had been cast integral with the cylinder. An equivalent weight has then been subtracted to give a weight comparable with the other two engines.
The patent drawing shows the condenser in the form of a ring around the bottom cylinder. It seems likely that this reflects the method of the experimental engine as the drawings made of the little Blaenavon engine also show the dish arrangement. However, a sketch John Herdle made of the Bay Mine engine shows the condensing chamber projecting to one side. This construction is confirmed by John Farey's reference to the condenser being arranged the way 'the foot part of a boot projects from the leg part'. This extension was covered by a plate, described in the invoices as an 'apron', which contained a number of 'snifting' or non-return valves through which the condensate was expelled.

Air could neither be condensed nor easily expelled, and the leakage of air must have posed such problems that one wonders how Newcomen ever got his first engine going. Watt got round the problem of piston leakage because his cylinder was enclosed with a cover and there was steam above the piston. Leakage of steam past the piston could be tolerated, but 'applying a close cover [to the cylinder and piston rod] ... required ... accuracy of execution ... extremely difficult of attainment'. Although it was not part of the patent, Symington used a steam seal in the main piston so that, as he put it, 'leakage draws steam and not air'. He seems to have accomplished this by having some sort of telescopic pipe attached to the piston for this can be deduced from Table 3. The arrangement required careful workmanship and Carron may not always have made the pipes for the parts cannot be identified on every invoice.

Although demanding careful construction the telescopic pipes were probably more easily aligned than the cylinder covers and stuffing boxes Watt regarded as an essential feature of his first engines.
Table 3
Details of the pipework for the steam seal of the piston

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BUILD</th>
<th>REFERENCE</th>
<th>WEIGHT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Royal Line</td>
<td>'Boree Pipe'</td>
<td>273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leachills</td>
<td>'Steam Pipe for the Piston'</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'Cover for do'</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinnaird I</td>
<td>'Pipe and Stuffing Box'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'Nozzle for do'</td>
<td>(total)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leeds</td>
<td>'Steam Pipe for the Piston'</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dockhead</td>
<td>'Steam Pipe for the Piston'</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'Cover for do'</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'Gland for do'</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinnaird II</td>
<td>'Steam Pipe for the Piston'</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croakie Point</td>
<td>'Steam Pipe for the Piston'</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedding, Kirk</td>
<td>'Steam Pipe for the Piston'</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hunslet</td>
<td>'Steam Pipe for the Piston'</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fullarton</td>
<td>'Steam Pipe for the Piston'</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>'Steam Pipe for the Tube'</td>
<td>238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'Tube Pipe'</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The patent envisaged rotative motion by using chains and ratchets, an idea also used by other eighteenth century inventors. Chains and ratchets promised a uniform and fast motion from the irregular movement of the single acting atmospheric engines, and were perhaps particularly suited to driving the paddlewheels of Patrick Miller's steamboats. It seems probable that an arrangement of wheels and ratchets was also tried on the two engines Symington built in London in 1791. However the manufacture and lubrication of such parts must have posed insurmountable problems at that time. An alternative method of powering machinery was to use the ubiquitous waterwheel with a pumping engine to return the water that had flowed over it. This was much favoured where a low speed but a high torque was required, and two of Symington's engines were used in this way.

The engines built to the 1787 patent, and recorded in the extant Carron records, are listed in Table 1. Other contemporary accounts make it likely that there were several more, some possibly supplied by other
Table 4

Sorted List of Engine Parts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adjusting Pins</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusting Screws</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apron</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Block Straps</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blocks</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolsters</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolster for the Medium</td>
<td>(R) 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bonnets</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bonnet for Cyl. Bottom</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bonnets for Nozzles</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bored Pipe</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bottom Cylinder</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brass Brasses</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brass Valves</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brass Valve Seats</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brass for the Medium</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cap for Piston Rod</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cast Iron Brasses</td>
<td>(R) 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catch Pin</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre Piece</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre Gudgeon</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chains</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clove Bolts</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cover for Cross Pipe</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crane Wheel</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crane Handle</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crank Arm</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crank Rod</td>
<td>(R) 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crooked Pipe</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross Pipe</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curved Pipe</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cutter Bolts</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cylinder Bonnet</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cylinder</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eye Bolts</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flange for Wheel</td>
<td>(R) 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flask Bushes</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gland for Piston St. Pipe</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guards</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gudgeon Handles</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handles</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hoops</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hoops for the Straps</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Injection Pipe</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint for the Apron</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kempstone Gudgeons</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large Sheaves</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martingales</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nave</td>
<td>(R) 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nozzle Pipe</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piston Rod Joint</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piston Rods</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piston Weights</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pistons</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presses for Stuffing Boxes</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racks</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rings for the Flange</td>
<td>(R) 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rods with Joints</td>
<td>(R) 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Round Plates</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saddle Centre</td>
<td>(R) 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screwed Bolts</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screwed Clove Bolts</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screwed Eye Bolts</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screwed Straps</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screwed Staples</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
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<td>Segments</td>
<td>(R) 8</td>
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<td>Shears</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sheaves</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slips (Ground)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Snecks</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>Spanners for the Weigh Shaft</td>
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<td>Wrought Iron Valves</td>
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(R) Parts peculiar to the rotative engines
In many instances Carron only made the engine castings and those other parts requiring special care in their manufacture. In any event many of the invoices were incomplete. Timber and wrought iron work could often be made in the workshops, or by local 'wrights'. However, there seem to have been instances where the contracts Symington procured required that Carron provided everything needed, even to firebricks for the boiler and oil for the engine. Such contracts would have provided Carron with the greatest profit and been the most welcome.

The invoices chronicle all the parts Carron supplied, so those which clearly applied to the engines, and not to boilers or mine pumps, have been collated and sorted into the list shown in Table 4. This can be regarded as a record of most of the metal-work required to build a beam engine to the 1787 patent. Apart from their unusual bottom cylinders, Symington's beam engines followed the basic arrangement first used by the builders of the Newcomen type engines and later developed by Watt.

It will be apparent that the weights listed in the invoices relate to the mass of the parts, and therefore their size. Size relates to shape and since Symington's atmospheric engines followed the basic patented design, it seemed to the writer that much might be learnt from an examination of the relationship of the weights of those parts that came together. Comparing the weights of parts from different engines, especially their ratios, could point to differences in the proportions of the engines, and this could suggest how the design might have been further developed through time. Such a technique does not seem to have been tried before, so the present work is of an experimental nature. It demands some
Fig. 1.

Ratio:

Rotative Engines.

Te/Be

10  20  30  40  50  60

Weight of fuel
tedious arithmetic but this is easily managed with a computer and suitable programs. The weights of the major parts of the invoiced engines are listed in Table 5 and for convenience are expressed in pounds. The engine built for the Dalswinton paddleboat is not included. It was not supplied by Carron Company and there is no record of weights.

In order to provide a model for the technique, a comparison was made of the ratios of the weights of the upper and lower parts of the cylinders of some contemporary Newcomen type engines also supplied by Carron. Details of such engines are well recorded and, like the Symington engines, the cylinder bottoms of the Newcomen type were also large and complex castings. The relationship is shown in Figure 2. Research in the Carron books for details of the Symington engines suggests Carron may well have provided parts for almost a hundred others, so the list is only a superficial one. Nevertheless it will be seen that the figures fall along two fairly well defined bands - which also suggests that Carron were supplying Newcomen engines to two designs at that time. The graph confirms that a correlation can be expected, and it follows that points falling significantly outside the pattern could indeed point to differences in the proportions of different engines. Table 6 shows the comparative figures for Symington's pumping and rotative engines. In general those for the former fall into a band as with the Newcomen engines, Figure 3, but there seems no obvious pattern for the rotative engines, Figure 4.
Table 6
Ratios of Cylinder and Piston Weights

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<tr>
<th>ENGINE</th>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>PT/P</th>
<th>TC/EC</th>
<th>TC/TP</th>
<th>SC/BP</th>
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PR: Returning Engines i.e. pumping engines employed to pump water over a water wheel.

With regard to the pumping engines, the ratio of the top and bottom cylinders of the Dockhead engine shows the greatest disparity. The engine seems to have been similar in size to that supplied to Barrow Copley for his mill at Hunslet. It will be seen from Table 5 that although the weight of the upper cylinders compare (3010/3010), the bottom cylinders of the two engines differ by almost a quarter (1211/895). This suggests Symington tried out some different design of the bottom cylinder.
for the Dockhead engine but it proved less than satisfactory and was not continued.

The lack of any obvious pattern in the figures for the rotative engines indicates their design was more fluid. Records show that most beam pumping engines had a stroke of about eight feet, but the stroke of a rotative engine was chosen to give optimum results for particular speeds.

Not all the invoices give the individual weights of both pistons but there is enough data to provide the comparisons illustrated in Figures 5 and 6. These are arranged in a chronological order, and it is seen that there is a measure of consistency with regard to the bottom cylinders and the medium piston over the period, but a considerable variation in terms of the working cylinders and pistons particularly in the case of the rotative engines. This could suggest that Symington was using power cylinders of similar diameter but different stroke to meet particular requirements, but it is probable that he was also experimenting with the overall arrangement of his rotative engines.

The medium pistons were heavier, so presumably deeper, than the main pistons, as can be seen from Table 5, and the invoices show they were usually fitted with two rings. These were not piston-rings in the modern sense, but rings which held hempen or other packing in place. The use of two such seals points to the necessity of avoiding any leakage between the working cylinder and the lower part where the steam was condensed.

Symington's rotative engine was developed in 1791 with financial support from James Bruce of Kinnaird, and its construction may be deduced from the final columns of Table 5. These list the cranks, the heavy crank rods,
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<th>BOTH P.</th>
<th>APPOX</th>
<th>INT. CASE</th>
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| NSMCOMPS TYPE   |       |            |         |         |        |        |         |       |          |           |           |       |     |         |      |
| ECCHUHALL       | 1800  | R/N        | 1386    | 602     | 264    | -      | -       | -     | 256       | 1492     | -         | 1610  | -   | -       |      |
| SEABURG         | 1802  | R/N        | 1386    | 320     | 164    | -      | -       | -     | 287       | 620      | -         | 2576  | -   | -       |      |

P Pumping Engine
R Rotation Engine
and other rotating parts. The cap and tails rode the crosshead, and the slips, which were ground, must have been the crosshead guides. The flywheels were built from segments fastened to a nave or to flanges.

The Kinnaird engine may in fact have been the first rotative engine Carron supplied, but the crosshead arrangement seems to have been Symington's own for there is no record of Carron using it for other engines. Details of two such Newcomen type rotative engines have been added to Table 5 for comparison. It is interesting to note the way the cranks and flywheels seem to have been standardised for most were of similar weight, and therefore to similar patterns, as can be seen in Figure 7. The Hunslet engine was much larger than the rest. It drove a woollen mill and the total mass of the rotating parts was more than four tons.

The writer believes his comparative explorations confirm the ongoing nature of the design of the engines Symington built to the 1787 patent. They were not built to a 'one off' concept but seem to have been developed through time with the aim of improving the engine's performance. That Carron Company were part of, and benefited from the demands made by Symington's engineering seems very probable. On their own assertion they were not prepared to design engines but would 'execute machinery when furnished with drawings'. This must have demanded a developing production organisation, and it seems equally probable that the totality of their engine manufacture contributed to the way engineering itself developed in Scotland at the turn of the eighteenth century.

Symington's engines continued to be built into the nineteenth century, after he had patented his double acting engine and the expiry of Watt's patents had opened the market to other builders. The situation is paralleled by the way the building of the traditional Newcomen type also
continues to the right, and shows how the low cost and simplicity of the machine made it attractive to users in spite of its high consumption of coal.

Records indicate that most of Symington's engines worked for many years, and the way in which three engines were supplied to the colliery at Heddon, Ray is of particular interest. It was leased by Carron in 1793 and was therefore under their control. They then had the option of supplying any type of engine they chose, and so their decision to continue with Symington's points to its satisfactory operation.

The Carron records make few references to any complaints and, although Symington had a streak of perversity in his nature, his relationship with the foundry remained firm over the years. It is likely his influence on the company was considerable for there are many references in their letters to the need to work to 'the Symington's satisfaction'. His more sophisticated double-acting steam engine was patented in 1802. A number were built, including the engine of the second Charlotte Dundas steamboat and another pumping engine in Scotland. They can be seen as the logical development of Symington's ideas and Carron's capabilities. However, it has only been Symington's steamboats that have excited much public interest. This has meant that William Symington is remembered for his heroic feats, not for his real successes and his contribution to Scottish industrial history.
FOOTNOTES


5. For details of the engines, see William Symington.


7. There are the three that Symington made for his patent, one drawn by his son and reproduced in the Mechanic's Magazine in 1833, and rough contemporary sketches of the experimental engine and of that built on the Bay Mine. All can be found in William Symington.


10. There are passing references to two more Scottish engines and one at Birmingham. The two which may have been modified were at Dunmore and Lochrin. Again, details may be found in William Symington.


12. Patent 2544, 3rd April 1802. Steam Engines, Propulsion of Vessels, etc.
The technical expansion of Glasgow mining in the eighteenth century was attributable to capital investment in techniques and technology in response. This article identifies some of the technical developments taken to improve local mining efficiency.

The heavily faulted geological nature of the Glasgow coalfield dictated seam access and exploitation. Workings ranged in depth from a few feet to over 200 feet even by the mid-eighteenth century,¹ the access to such workings being by one or more shafts, set in clusters or at opposing sides of the mine. Barrachnie had two shafts down to the main coal seam in the eighteenth century, with a third being placed in the early years of the nineteenth century in response to demand.² Collieries working a number of seams employed numerous shafts spread across the mining property, plan dimensions varying according to their purpose, the largest being used for mineral haulage.

Shafts were generally lined due to local geological conditions. Strata dictated the form this lining took, which was of two forms, the first was open lining, consisting of horizontal timbers braced by vertical members a few feet apart; the second form of lining, which was common to the area on account of poor material stability, was closed lining, where closely boarded timbers or masonry work was employed.

The masonry lined circular shafts which were introduced to the Glasgow area by the late eighteenth century, proved more successful than square
Generalised diameter ranges of mine shafts in the Glasgow area.

Generalised depth ranges of mine shafts in the Glasgow area.
Shaft construction was the work of experts and was no doubt very expensive. A shaft sunk on the Milnfauld Farm lands of Campsie, in July 1812, cost £52 10s for its 105 feet. The sinking of other pits in the locality cost £62 10s. These were so-called 'pick and hammer' shafts which were probably tedious in construction.4

Where local topography suited, the coal seams were wrought by levels driven in on the crop. The thin coals of the Dawsholm area were wrought in this manner from the banks of the River Kelvin.5 It was a method of working shared in the hill country to the north around Campsie and Kilpatrick. In Campsie it was traditional, with lengthy day level systems developed to work both coal and limestones. Levels were driven to the limits of natural ventilation and an air shaft was then sunk, normally at the end of the mine. The miners then took the workings across to the rise, opening up room and stoop systems along the seam. Late eighteenth century rooms averaged 8 feet by 14 feet and the stoops 8
Section in Campole Main (Hurlet) Coal and Limestone.

21 ft 6 ins Limestone.

21 ft 6 ins Shale.

31 ft 6 ins Coal.

FIG. 3. BALGLASS COAL and LIMESTONE MINE—DETAIL.

The main road from the fire mouth at the east end of the quarry runs into the hill for about 80 yards and is nearly level. It has crossed a hitch of about 4 feet up to the north which causes some irregularity in the dip but the limestone is expected to flatten again. There are five working rooms or faces running parallel to this main road, viz two below or to the dip of it, and three on the rise or east side.7

The coal which lay below the limestone had been worked from the seventeenth century, and chance findings of coal in clearing out old pits during nineteenth century limestone mining, led to the re-working of the area for coal. A profusion of shallow pits were opened up and show clearly that every opportunity was taken to work out profitable seams.8 Figure 3 illustrates typical Campsie mining practice.

The areas to the south of the River Clyde and into Renfrewshire, shared this pattern of exploitation, with tiny workings opened up on thin coals cropping close to river banks. The fine arched day level of the Toad's Hole in the Preachin' Brae, Cambuslang, suggests some finesse when seams proved profitable. But the mouldering burrows of the Capelrig Burn, near Deaconsbank, or along the River Levern, near Barrhead,9 were the more common. Support was left to nature, and the 'Creepy Heughes' of Kilbarchan on the Foul Coal of Quarrelton were aptly named.

Though averages can be formed there was really little conformity in patterns of support, this, of course, was dictated by the geological
conditions encountered. Scullion and others, as a case in point, for the workings were irregular and the roof was jointed to the rise. The poor quality roof meant that only small workings proved possible and the rooms to the rise were about 6 feet wide and unprofitable. To make the most of the mine the rooms to the dip were made considerably larger and opened out to 16 feet wide. The development of room and stoop workings in relation to cleats and conditions in the ground strata show clearly that technology developed to match geology.

Basic ignorance of underground technology on the part of management often took collieries beyond the safety threshold. The Green Coal Company's colliery collapsed simply because the management had decided that the support pillars could be cut down from five yards to a yard square. No matter how much their miners complained, they were told to cut out the pillars. Increasingly alarmed by the cracking and creaking around them, they removed the pit horses and machinery from the mine on their own initiative on 7 March 1797. The next day the mine fell in and the seam was lost, due to the fact that the mine owners, a group of merchant adventurers, had not the slightest idea of what they were doing. Lessees of varied competence left many mines at risk of structural failure and that greater problems were not experienced was solely on account of the quality sandstone measures, which commonly formed the roof of mine workings.

The problems of underground technology were overcome in a piecemeal way, barely within the safety threshold. A clumsy dangerous form of longwall working was forced on William Dixon I in working two seams in ground of low stability. Inter-lying strata between the seams was too weak to maintain support and the coal could only be worked by going after the
butter, first and then allowing the strata to fall down and consolidate the open space of the lower seam. The men then went in on top of the fallen doors and pulled down the next seam. The mine was worked for the immediate and no attempt was made to maintain anything other than the basic airways to the faces. The caustic commentary of contemporary reports as to how the mine was falling down around the heels of the miners, points to the narrow margins of safety.\textsuperscript{12}

Structural problems were almost constantly exacerbated by water percolating along strata interfaces. Drainage was imperative for mining to succeed. Adit drainage proved successful only in hilly country and with comparatively shallow workings. In the Campsie district, pits to the north of the Glazert Water were 60 to 90 feet in depth and, as workings radiated out, adits were driven from the nearest low ground to drain the mines. These were often driven in from the nearest stream beds and the fact that shafts were often sunk near declivities with stream beds suggests that some thought was given to the possibilities of adit drainage when sinking.\textsuperscript{13} Adit systems were common too in the Kilpatrick area, west of Campsie, and in Renfrewshire, where extensive adit drainage existed around Kainhill and Locher.\textsuperscript{14} These three areas of similar topography, all seem to have exploited natural drainage successfully, even resorting to wooden runnels laid along the floor of the mines, following the angle of the seam and back out the entrance of the day level.

Less successful were the early adit drainage schemes of the eastern districts. The drainage systems of Queenslie seldom coped and if there was a flood, as at Lightburn in December 1760, then it took days for the mine to dry out.\textsuperscript{15} Human and animal labour supplemented natural drainage, but animal fodder, necessary for the relays of horses used to
work bucket and chain gins, was too expensive and other means to drain mines were soon sought. In his quest for a cheaper system John Gray of Shettleston tried a windmill, which pumped Westmuir successfully for three years from 1737 to 1740 when it was blown to pieces.16 A similar windmill pump was used in a quarry near Hurlet, simply because the lessees could not afford to bring coal over the hill from the Hurlet Colliery to fuel a proposed steam pumping engine.17

Economic considerations encouraged innovation and even a few water powered mines operated in the region, though they were not so common as in some other Scottish mining areas, notably Fife. The successful water powered mines were found mainly in Renfrewshire where topography and land rights suited. Local landowners often worked their own minerals and this favoured water power, for had they been leased then agreement would have been necessary with the landowners to obtain a water supply, an expensive process apart from any legal obligation. Where landowners, such as William Cunningham of Craigends, chose to use their own supply as a power source, water powered mines became economic. Cunningham's Craighead Colliery was worked by water power,18 as was the Crossford lime works of McDowell & Houston.19 A tiny water powered mine at Crofthead, near Neilston, situated close to the Arthurlie Burn was also successful.20

Water power was investigated for use at the Kermuirhill Colliery, east of Glasgow.21 A launder was placed in 1826, cut through the rocks from the River Clyde, but what use it was put to is uncertain and the expense of cutting the launder cannot have made it economic. Water powered mines were a passing phase, for as one observer commented: 'there is not that convenience of water everywhere'.22 A more positive approach was necessary and this was recognised as early as 1750 when the Trades House of Glasgow tried to drum up support to buy a steam pumping engine.23
Newcomen's first steam pumping engine appeared in the Shettleston area in about 1764. This was followed by engines in Carnntyre and, to the west of the town, in Cleishburn in about 1759. It performed a necessary job in the area, combating the continual problem of water seeping along the interfaces of seams outcropping close to water level on the River Kelvin.24 Pumping engine deployment was a direct response to local problems and larger and more powerful machines soon began to appear. In large 24 inch diameter cylinder steam engine was in operation by 1774, working 6 inch diameter pumps.25 Cambrae soon had a 42 inch type, working a double lift of pumps that totalled 300 feet of foot wide pumps.26 These powerful engines were probably the Newcomen type for only they had this capacity. At twelve strokes per minute, the Newcomen could have raised ten gallons of water per minute against a head of 155 feet through a number of pump units placed one above the other.

Newcomen engines saw widespread use and were often combined winding and pumping engines, one being established at Govan in 1810. This particular engine had a 42 inch diameter cylinder with a stroke of 5 feet 8 inches. One drawing rope went down to 180 feet and the other 264 feet. It pumped water from 13b feet with 6 inch bucket pumps. It drew 150 to 200 tons of coal per day and pumped four to five hours in any twenty-four hours at a consumption of 34 hundredweights of dross over that time.27 Apart from combined engines, there were at least fifty pumping engines in use locally around Glasgow, such as at Skaterig where the engine pumped 297 feet of 12 inch bucket pumps in three relays.28 The Skaterig engine pit was the main drain for other local colliery workings, part of Jordanhill being drained by:

'ta syphon pipe laid along the coal pavement and down No 2 pit towards the splint coal, where the water is discharged and
passes off to the Skaterigg engine pit, where it is lifted to the surface."\textsuperscript{29}

The use of steam pumping engines spread across the region, and small engines were used in the Campsie and Kilpatrick districts, and in Renfrewshire as, for example, at Lochlibo and Uplawmoor. It was only the use of powerful engines to pump water percolating into workings that allowed the successful nineteenth century exploitation of this area.\textsuperscript{30}

Though contemporary records show that the pumping engines could easily be overwhelmed and that sheer quantity of water could not be handled by them. Certainly, if a mine engine could no longer cope, it was replaced by a more powerful machine. This, however, could bring trouble. If an engine was used to pump out a flooded mine it could bring about a roof fall across the whole of the working. This was especially the case in broken strata, a common problem of many mine workings in and around the area. It was a recognised problem and was one reason why flooded mines were seldom re-opened successfully. Steam power was the only effective way of dealing with any quantity of water.

The nature of mining operations dictated the best form of drainage and in some cases neither adit nor mechanical drainage was appropriate. The Balglass mine in Campsie was much troubled by water in the vicinity of a dyke and a report of the workings in 1849 shows how this problem was overcome in an extensive day level working:

"the water was entirely confined to several rooms along side of a dyke and far from the railway...when it was in great quantity it had to be regularly waggoned out every night."\textsuperscript{31}

Presumably the water was collected in buckets and carried or run to the
The Renfrewshire limestone industry suffered the same problem of material movement. It was overcame at first using hand barrows which were ferred by two men, but two men on such a simple task was not economic. It was only in about 1770 with the introduction of wheel barrows that any labour saving was made in mine and quarry transportation. Wheel barrows were introduced to the Renfrewshire mineral industry following their successful deployment in William McDowall's drainage scheme at Lochwinnoch. McDowall's connections with the mineral industry optimised the transfer of this new found technology. 

As shallow seams and outcrops were worked out, mining ventured deeper and the problems of winding became pressing. Handline and windlasses were the first form of winding, and the windlasses were a regular feature of colliery sales, as for example the three windlasses employed at the Milto mine, near Provanmill, in late 1771.
Technical improvements came only with the introduction of horse gins. They made a significant impact on mining and Robert Broom was praised for having civilised Campsie mining around about 1750 with the introduction of horse gins to the region. In an effort to encourage the exploitation of their lands, some estate owners were prepared to finance the building of winding gins, such as Sir John Maxwell of Pollock, who financed the gins placed for his Arden Coal & Lime Works, near Eastwood, in 1792. The gins wound on a 42 feet deep shaft, working a coal seam 4 feet thick which was used locally for limestone calcination. Readily available cheap local coal would have reduced the cost of lime working, bringing a reduction in selling price which in turn encouraged sales.

Output levels and shaft depths almost certainly dictated the use of horse gins. Depths varied from a few feet to the 42 feet cited above and at Neilston and to very deep workings below 200 feet by the mid eighteenth century. Large collieries generally made use of them, examples being found at Eastmuir, Govan, Hamiltonhill, Hutchison, Rutherglen and Westmuir. The gin at Westmuir was 21 feet in diameter and is recorded in use in 1791, at a time when women coal bearers were still regularly employed at that colliery and the combination of manual and mechanical removal was commonplace.

No example of wind power has been found as employed in winding, whilst steam winders evolved only towards the end of the eighteenth century. Steam winders were employed at Barrachnie by 1799 and at Renfrew in about 1805 and thereafter they saw widespread use, being commonly referred to as gills where they were winding engines only. A Boulton & Watt 6 hp steam gig was in use at Quarrelton in the 1820s. Skaterig had three gills by this time, one with a 4 feet stroke working the 222 feet...
Large purpose engines were also common, the 9 hp
at the Wellington being geared additionally for winding.45 Larger engines were employed in the eastern collieries, for example, a 33.75 inch diameter cylinder atmospheric winding and pumping engine at Selvidge.46 They housed the most frightening of cages, such as the one at
Knightwood, described thus by Thomas Tancred:

"The one I went down in was formed at the bottom of a frame
of wood, through the side bars of which were inserted, in
the middle of their length, two iron pins, with eyes to hook
on to the chain, which is double at the end, and secured in
the wood by pins. The four sides were wattled hazel; I
should consider them hardly safe, but they are the most
common; some have only a single hook and eye".47

The faith of the miners who consented to travel in these cages was tested
still further by the ropes from which they were suspended. Flat ropes
which were common until replaced by the woven wire type in the nineteenth
century, often gave way. One reason for this was the miners' method of
carrying sharp edged tools over their shoulders as they were descending;
these frayed or cut the ropes. Ropes were sometimes found partly cut
through, sometimes just as the miners were about to descend, as at
Rutherglen, one November Friday, in 1792.48 But even when half cut
through or snapped, the ropes would be spliced and joined with a flat
metal clasp. This in turn would fray the rope, due to the constant
movement over the head gearing, and it would suddenly give way, bringing
death to those in the shaft. With a good rope there could still be
problems, as two miners found out one Saturday in May 1787, they stepped
into the bucket to go down the shaft and went down it at speed, as someone
had not attached the horse to the winding gin.49
The mines of the Glasgow area were generally dangerous and there are many instances of suffocation and explosion from an early period, as, for example, the two explosions at James McKair’s Lighthorn Colliery in 1787, one of which wrecked the gin at the pit head on 29 June 1787.50 However, suffocating gases were generally the more common. The four main forms of ventilation were: day levels with periodically placed air shafts; forced air feed; upcast and downcast ventilation; and operating the air. Ventilation was seldom done according to the text book and the Glasgow mines show such variety on these themes that only a few examples will be cited.

The principal form of ventilation was air fed in from day levels or pit heads and drawn around the works by fire-lamps in regularly placed air shafts. Air shafts provided additional ventilation even without fire-lamps and, as they were often sunk immediate to new working faces, they also gave access and egress, thus providing more efficient mineral raising, if not ventilation. The costs of ventilation were probably considerable and can be identified in the Campsie context, citing the Newlands Colliery in the 1850s:

- 5 waggons of coal at 4/2d per waggan £1 10s
- Physical carting to the air pit 17s 6d
- Man attending the fire-lamp for 60 days at 2/- per day £6
- 75 days for surveyors inspecting air provision in Newlands Colliery at 3/- per day £2 5s
- total £10 12s 6d

Ventilation for a small colliery like Newlands must have been a constant financial burden.51 Therefore, other methods were sought and one of the first recorded mine ventilation fans was installed at one of Houston's
Johnstone installation. This circular fan, with vanes working horizontally inside a casing, was in air tight connection with the mouth of the pit. It was large enough and so powerful that its effects could be felt to three quarters of a mile. Spontaneous combustion had ignited part of the pit which meant that a section of the mine could not be reached. The fan was so strong that it pulled the flame and gases of combustion in one direction towards it. This allowed the miners to make their way round the fire, seal it off, and open the fire threatened seams once more to exploitation. Technical achievement helped make the mine economic once more. Glasgow's mines, from the early nineteenth century, tended to use some sort of forced ventilation. Obviously there were exceptions and natural ventilation was still relied on in some small workings early this century. But the maintenance of a successful below ground working environment was one of the most important technical achievements in mining.

How good was Glasgow's mining expertise? Diagnosis is difficult with clinical listings and so other evidence must be sought; this becomes available in early accident statistics. The chief causes of accidents are identified in Table 1. In percentage terms it is clear that shaft related accidents were the single most common cause of disaster between 1740 and 1830. The rise identified in the late eighteenth century reflects how mining was crossing the primitive technical thresholds of earlier times as it ventured ever deeper. It seems likely that technical resources were stretched to the limit in deep workings and cost cutting by re-using old ropes and simple carelessness must also have been causes of disaster.

Falls of strata, which reflect the problems of support, show a decline over the period. This probably reflects a better knowledge of seam
technology, for example, in cutting out rooms and stope in relation to the natural cleating. It also reflects deeper workings around rocksess where good roofs might be achieved. Flooding accidents also show a marked decline, suggesting that mechanical pumping was effective. Though the new technology itself caused many accidents,

Table 1
Causes of accidents, 1740-1830

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NATURE OF ACCIDENT</th>
<th>1740-1769</th>
<th>1770-1799</th>
<th>1800-1829</th>
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<tr>
<td>Shaft accidents</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>625</td>
<td>525</td>
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<tr>
<td>Falls of strata</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>475</td>
<td>375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flooding accidents</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New technology</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methane</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ventilation failure</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>35</td>
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</table>

Notes: The term new technology refers to the use of machinery principally steam engines, which are identified as having caused accidents.

The term ventilation failure refers mainly to suffocating accidents.

Source: Glasgow Courant; Glasgow Courier; Glasgow Chronicle; Glasgow Journal; Glasgow Mercury; and Herald & Advertiser.

The problems of ventilation were never truly overcome until the general introduction of forced ventilating techniques. Ordinary ventilation failure becomes identifiable from about 1770 onwards, suggesting that mining had then gone beyond the range of natural ventilation. This is
also shown in the rise of methane gas explosions which reflect, not only, the greatest increases in methane inflow were getting very much deeper, but also the fiery nature of the gases that were brought extensively in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. These were principally the productive, yet very explosive, burlet seams which were accountable for several serious disasters. The problems of suffocating and explosive gases were overcome in a piecemeal way by stimulating air flow. This enabled mines to enjoy a longer life and thus produce more coal.

The theme running right through the growth of technology was the urge to improve production. Glasgow’s mining was very successful in this. Its heyday was the eighteenth century when it was financed by merchants who formed partnerships with experienced coal masters and formalised mining into one of Glasgow’s most important period industries. Its legacy was a maze of coal wastes, even in the eighteenth century when they often remained accessible and were put to other uses. In March 1787, the officers and men of the 63rd Regiment descended on the mining community of Carntyne. They went down one of the shafts and found three stills in the old workings. 150 gallons of poteen were seized and carried off to Glasgow, and like much of Glasgow’s mining, its fate remains a matter for conjecture.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I acknowledge D P H Lennox of Ludlow, Shropshire, for his kind permission to use the Lennox Estate paper and Andrew Jackson and the staff of Strathclyde Regional Archives for access to the deposited estate papers, plans and mining documents.
FOOTNOTES

1. Glasgow Courant, 14-21 Sep 1747.

2. Glasgow Courier, 5 Dec 1801.

3. Ibid, 6 Aug 1601.


12. SRA DTC 6/414/6, Gorbals Muir.


18. Ibid, p 133.


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<th>No.</th>
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<td>21.</td>
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<td>22.</td>
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<td>Feb 1772</td>
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<td>29.</td>
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<td>1737</td>
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<td>C.S.A.</td>
<td>1765</td>
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<td>33.</td>
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<td>10 Apr 1792</td>
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<td>34.</td>
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<td>37.</td>
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<td>40.</td>
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<td>18 Jan 1826</td>
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<td>41.</td>
<td>Glasgow Artes</td>
<td>Aug 1826</td>
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<td>42.</td>
<td>Glasgow Chronicle</td>
<td>8 Aug 1827</td>
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<td>43.</td>
<td>Ibid</td>
<td>4 Aug 1830</td>
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<td>44.</td>
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<td>45.</td>
<td>Glasgow Courier</td>
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<td>46.</td>
<td>Glasgow Mercury</td>
<td>May 1787</td>
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<td>47.</td>
<td>Ibid</td>
<td>Jul 1787</td>
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 Mining communities have always constituted a notoriously volatile sector of the Scottish housing stock, the success or failure of individual pit workings providing an explanation for frequently radical fluctuations in the size, structure and distribution of local populations. Two maps of Denbeath in Fife record precisely such a transformation. The first (Plate 1) dates from a survey of 1893 and is of a partially industrialised setting, also encompassing more than thirty acres of farmland, overlooking the Firth of Forth and bordered to the north by the Den burn and to the east by Old Denbeath village, soon to be engulfed by the workings of Wellesley colliery. By 1913 (Plate 2) the greater proportion of this landward area had been turned over to housing, with single rows of cottages to the north and south and, in the centre, a grid-like pattern of terraces, gardens and allotments. The valuation rolls for 1905-6 confirm that by this date 216 houses were already occupied, every one of which was owned by the Wemyss Coal Company.

A listing of the occupations of their respective heads of household reveals that 204 were tenanted by miners, six by locomotive drivers or enginemen, three by labourers, two by surfacemen and one by a blacksmith, all at an identical annual value, £10.8.0d. Notwithstanding their proximity to the company's coastal pits the new houses accommodated the workforce recruited in conjunction with the expansion of the four miles distant Earlieat colliery, Thornton, to which direct access was provided via the Wemyss colliery private railway, the northernmost section of which
is just visible in the 1911 map, running along the course of the (by now culverted) Den burn.  

The 1890s and early 1900s had witnessed a remarkable upturn in the fortunes of the Wemyss Coal Company, widely attributed to the policies introduced under the energetic directorship of Harrietson Ayer.  

Annual production figures reveal that the output of coal, which had stagnated in the 1880s, increased to 140,065 tons in 1894, rose further to 571,305 tons in 1902 and (following the commencement of operations at the Earlseat pits) reached 1,377,212 tons in 1906 and 1,469,987 tons in 1909.  

Contemporary workforce figures mirror the above statistics and are, in turn, reflected in the expansion of the population of Wemyss parish, from 7,307 in 1881 to 10,543 in 1891, 15,031 in 1901 and (again confirming the massive impact of the Earlseat workings) an estimated 22,000 in 1909.  

As these last statistics suggest, house building played a critically important role in the company's expansion, the provision of houses serving as an inducement to potential workforce recruits.  

The company's building activities focused on West Wemyss (42 houses erected, 1890-1903), East Wemyss (210 houses, 1896-1907), Coaltown of Wemyss (105 houses, 1902-07) and, last of all, Denbeath itself, where work began as early as 1901, but which was largely completed in two phases, between 1904 and 1905 (220 houses) and 1907 and 1908 (46 houses).  

In all these cases, details of house design and estate lay-out appear to have been arrived at by a process of consultation, involving the paternalistic Wemyss and his 'estate architect', Alexander Tod, a collaboration that extended to a wide range of projects, including schools, churches, masonic halls, public houses and two cottage hospitals.
Plate 3.
Randolph Street, East Largs. Two apartment terraced cottages, c. 1900.
Plate 4. Don Street, Denbeath. Viewed from the north west.
those later including the Wemyss (later Randolph Wemyss Memorial) hospital, designed for which were drawn up in 1907–8. Throughout the 1890s the company's housing developments had exploited a single storey cottage terrace formula, to all intents and purposes abandoned at Denbeath where the central terraces were all of two stories and flatted (Plates 3 and 4). Breaking with prevalent conventions, each dwelling was entered separately, necessitating the introduction of external stairs providing direct access to the upper floor flats.

All of the flats adhered to an identical arrangement of lobby, living room, two bedrooms, scullery and wc, this representing an enormous advance on generally prevailing standards of colliery housing in Fife where one and two roomed dwellings (without bathing facilities and internal wc) continued as the norm throughout the World War I period. The additional accommodation was assimilated within a sequence of 'T' shaped interlocking plans, alternately facing east and west with overlaps of bedroom and bedroom, and bathroom and scullery (Plate 5). All the houses were constructed of locally manufactured brick, disguised by a rendered finish. Combined with the terraces' high pitched pan-tiled roofs, eye-lid dormers, crow-stepped gables and external stairs, this provided a convincing evocation of the Fife vernacular tradition, in which architect and patron could claim a pioneering revivalist interest (Plate 6).

Tod's essay 'Cheap Houses and How to Build Them', published in two instalments in the 1910 edition of the Wemyss Magazine, can be referred to usefully at this point. The title was a topical one, taking inspiration from the Letchworth Garden City 'cheap cottage' exhibition of 1905, one condition of which had been that house prices should not exceed £150, satisfied by Tod's two apartment cottage estimate of £140. Tod's remarks reveal him, indeed, as an immensely pragmatic designer,
Plate 5. First floor flat plans. Nos. 202 Dee Street (facing north west) and 192 Dee Street (facing south east) Denbeath.
Plate 6. Wellesley Road, with Denbeath Village to the left. Photographed in c.1920.
fully conscious of his responsibilities to the mine, for example, by the importance he placed on the provision of washing facilities, both at the pit-head ('I believe the Germans, or this as in many other of their industrial arrangements, are all the behind of us') and, when funds permitted, within the home itself.

Despite these strictures fitted baths were not provided in the Lenbeath houses, which thus conformed to the highest level of what he described as the 'minimum' or 'smallest' class of housing, aimed at families supported by only one wage earner. In what his audience would presumably have interpreted as an admission of the deficiencies of his own earlier experiments, Tod nevertheless now adopted a critical attitude towards the simple cottage terrace as a solution to 'minimum house' requirements, providing an alternative solution - introduced at Lenbeath, where it provides a major variation on the flatted terrace there - in the shape of semi-detached units, one room and two rooms deep, 'which economises the ground and ensures thorough ventilation' and, when correctly aligned, 'commands a proportionable share of the daily sunshine'.

The architect's most scathing comments were however reserved for tenement building, dismissed as a system that had created 'enclosed shelves, raised tier upon tier, and crowding the largest possible number on the smallest possible acreage...colonies of humanity that will deteriorate into dens not much superior to the cellars and slums that were vacated not so many years before'. Disappointingly, no alternative to the problems posed by high density housing are provided in the 1910 essay.

Despite this silence it is clear that Tod believed such a solution to lie in recent English developments, in what he described as 'the open built or Garden City system', laid out to the satisfaction of 'thoughtful and
Philosophic vision...so that the amenities and properties of humanity may be secured for the million. He was only too aware, however, that the fulfilment of this particular vision lay well in the future, hence the criticism that the ultimate and realistic objective of his plan should be expressed, in the shape of 'improved' house designs capable of assimilation within 'my Garden City' development or town planning that may take place (are which) can be worked out and become part of any scheme which may arise.

Judged from this standpoint the Denbeath terraces take on an obvious transitional significance, striking a calculated balance between the old and the new, the generous provision of rooms, scullery and internal w.c. complementing a number of less 'advanced' features, notably the inclusion of living room bed recesses, justified on the ground that they 'seem to be the desire of the locality'. The 'interlocking' terrace plans, with successive flats partially overlapping and facing in opposite directions, can be interpreted in similar terms, on the one hand providing an echo of the most primitive of 19th century mass housing types, the 'back to back', on the other creating an exaggeratedly 'open' effect, achieved by eliminating conventional distinctions between front and rear gardens, and presumably intended as a deliberate - if highly unconventional - concession to the Garden City ideal.

The significance of Denbeath can thus be seen to lie in the fact that it provides remarkable evidence of the way in which the still freshly formulated values of the Garden City movement were assimilated at provincial level, in this case by an architect working in association with an industry not usually identified with an enlightened attitude towards housing reform. It would, however, be misleading to equate the
experiment with simple social. Acknowledging the quality of housing and stable and efficient workforce was also fundamental to the creation of innumerable 'model' developments of the Victorian and Edwardian period, and it is worth observing yet again that its provision on this occasion signalled the development of the village workings, and that these were recognised as being of vital importance to the Wemyss Coal Company's long term economic strategies. What must be doubted is that the construction of the village involved the company in a heavy financial outlay, presumably accounting for the bulk of the estimated £75,000 devoted to Wemyss estate building between 1903 and 1906, a figure that does not include revenues devoted to the provision of a school and cottage hospital built to coincide with the latter stages of the village's development and sited conveniently in its south eastern boundary.

The impressive scale of the undertaking belied the fact that it was originally conceived of as only the first part of a larger programme, the next stage of which was to have encompassed an additional 500 houses, extending to the north and south of the village and linking it to the neighbouring communities of Buckhaven and Kethil. With the premature death of Wemyss in 1908, aged forty-four, all further progress on the Denbeath houses nevertheless came to a halt, compounding the effects of a by now general slump in the East and Central Fife building trades. The importance of the experiment was not, however, lost on contemporaries, and Tod must have been gratified by expressions of local pride in 'what is known as the "Garden City"...on the high land above Kethil Dock' and the boast that this had been 'constructed in accordance with modern ideas of sanitation and public health', constituting 'a decided advance' on other colliery villages in Fife or 'any other county.'
appropriately, therefore, the density of ten houses per acre fell well within the figure (twelve per acre) subsequently popularised by Garden City advocates. A similar comparison with the floor areas recommended under the 1919 Housing Act (Table 1) further reaffirms the right of the Denbeath inclosure to be judged within a reformist context, explaining the estate's survival, without serious modification (other than the introduction of service roads) throughout the inter-war period.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Comparative floor areas (square feet)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Denbeath</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Living Room</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bedroom 1</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bedroom 2</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bedroom 3</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scullery</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Report of the Committee appointed ... to consider questions of building construction in connection with ... dwellings for the working classes, London, 1918, p. 29.*

The development's subsequent history, reflecting the massive contraction of the Fife coalfields, has been a less happy one, successive changes of ownership failing to prevent a steady decline towards its present state of near dereliction. The recent implementation of a compulsory purchase order by Fife Regional Council, with a view to demolition and redevelopment, seems certain, indeed, to result in the village's destruction, threatening to eliminate virtually all trace of what is now revealed as by far the most remarkable of Fife's Edwardian colliery settlements.
FOOTNOTES


2. Work on the Wemyss Buckhaven-Thornton railway was completed in August 1861, constituting the first major improvement initiated on behalf of the Wemyss Coal Company under James Clerk's direction. A S Cunningham, *Randolph Gordon Erskine viscount of Balfour*, Edinburgh and Leven 1910, pp 104, 125, 136-139 (emphasising its relevance to Denbeath) 165, 186.

3. His contribution to the East Fife coalmining industry is summarised in *ibid* pp 113-120, 144-6, 150-4, 160-72, 180-183 (and examined by I Russell in 'Randolph Wemyss and the development of Kethil as a Coal Port', *Scottish Industrial History*, Vol 5.2, 1968, pp 42-91.


5. Cunningham (1910), *op cit*, pp 162, 166. The pressure brought to bear on the 'Kethil district' housing (brought about by a large influx of the labouring classes) is described in *East of Fife Record*, 21 Apr 1905, p 5.


8. The 1911 census records that 55 per cent of the houses (1,562 out of an overall total of 2,863) of the neighbouring Buckhaven, Kethil and Innerleven burgh constituted either one or two apartments. This compared with 54 per cent (2,445 out of 4,427) in Wemyss parish and 52 per cent (30,667 out of 58,650) for Fife in general. *Report on the Twelfth Decennial Census of Scotland*, Vol 1, Edinburgh 1912, pp 1009, 1010.

9. Cunningham (1910), *op cit*, p 164 confirms Wemyss' interest in Fife vernacular buildings, linking this to Tod's East Wemyss cottage designs. Anticipating their Denbeath counterparts, these were crow-stepped and pantiled.


11. '...with grates, paintings and boundary walls complete'. *Ibid*, p 86.


17. *Ibid*.


23. Mastering its eventual assimilation by Kethil, Buckhaven and Interleven burgh, a consideration that appears to have been a major factor determining the original siting of the village. *Ibid.*, pp 160-6.


26. Running between the terraces at right angles (ie on an approximately north-south axis) to the existing Ward, Centre and Conley Streets, and named (from the east) Forth Street, Clyde Street, Tay Street, Tweed Street, Don Street, Dee Street and Spey Street. Scottish Record Office Plan 33101 (1947) is the first to depict the new layout which dates from c1930 (ex information H Smith). Bathrooms were not introduced until 1965-6, at the expense of one-third of the former scullery area.
The National Register of Archives was established in 1946 to act as a central point for the collection and dissemination of information about manuscript sources for British history outside the public records. This information is in the form of lists and catalogues (referred to collectively as reports) sent to the NRA from over 250 record offices, libraries and museums and 5,000 private owners, individuals and institutional, in this country and abroad. The Register now contains over 31,000 reports and new information comes in at the rate of about 2,000 lists each year.

A list submitted to the NRA goes through the process of registration during which it receives a title and a sequential number, unless it is an addition to or a replacement of an existing report. At registration a report is assessed for material relevant to the personal, subject and companies indexes. In due course, specialist teams of indexers will summarise the material and add it to the appropriate index.

While the lists in the NRA remain the principal source for the indexes, it is recognised that this is not sufficient in itself. The information is therefore supplemented by the monitoring of published guides, annual reports of repositories and other secondary sources. Principal among these is the Commission's own Accessions to Repositories, an annual digest of the main manuscript deposits in the previous year.

Yet the Commission is not merely a passive recipient of information. It
actively seeks to fill gaps in its knowledge. In the course of the preparation of a guide to sources for the textile industry 1760-1914, contacts have been established and lists received from museums and libraries which had not hitherto submitted information to the NRA. Similarly, companies were approached and, where necessary, Commission staff undertook summary listing of their records. The results of such enquiries serve further to expand the size and scope of the Register.

The increasing volume of information in the NRA and its indexes in itself argued the case for computerisation. Indeed, as long ago as 1970 the personal index was computerised. However, the computer on which it was stored was off-site and all amendments had initially to be made manually by Commission staff on input sheets. It was a laborious task. Whole index print-outs were made at the end of the year with several updates in the course of the next twelve months. Although these print-outs could only properly be used in the Commission's search room, they were nevertheless given a limited distribution (British Library, Scottish Record Office, etc.) where they remain cherished and much-consulted finding aids.

The companies index did not suffer from the same pressure as the personal index which, in its final print, ran to approximately 4,500 pages. Therefore, computerisation of the details of its 13,000 businesses did not take place until the computerisation of the NRA as a whole in June 1987. At that time the Commission installed a Prime 2350 supermini computer with a 240 megabyte fixed-media disk supporting fourteen terminals and two printers. The applications development had been undertaken by the Small Systems Unit of the Treasury's Central Computer and Telecommunications Agency based on Prime INFORMATION enhanced by a
PACE system generator from Impersonal Systems Inc. and processing facilities were also included in the package.

Since then, the process of registration and the main two of indexes has begun to be conducted on-line. The personal index has been transferred to the in-house system and the companies index back-loaded. There are, however, a number of problems still to be resolved before public access becomes possible. While the companies index appears to be free of bugs, the back-loaded information requires careful checking to ensure that all data has been transferred from the manual system and that no errors have not crept in. In due course, the public will be able to use the computerised system in the Commission's searchroom. Because of its relative smallness, compared to the personal and subject indexes, the companies index will almost certainly be the first of the indexes to be publicly available.

The companies index only emerged as a distinct entity in the mid 1970s. Meanwhile, a portion of the subject index remained devoted to the records of various businesses and trades. The dividing line between the two indexes has been indistinctly drawn at times. The original division was based on the idea that major companies could easily be distinguished from small businesses and individual traders. Only the former, it was felt, properly belonged on the companies index. In practice it has not proved easy to make such a distinction in the numerous cases where the scale of an enterprise could not be assessed. The adoption of limited liability status could not, in itself, be used as a determinant, given that this would either businesses which were partnerships or which remained unincorporated despite their size and importance. The matter therefore still requires a fair measure of judgement on the part of indexers and the
For a long time the companies index was arranged solely in an alphabetical sequence by company name. Its usefulness was consequently enhanced when, while keeping the alphabetical sequence, the same information was re-arranged in twenty-three classification sections. The structure was based on the Central Statistical Office’s Standard Industrial Classification, modified to suit the Commission’s requirements.

| 1.      | Agricultural, Forestry and Fisheries |
| 2.      | Mineral Extraction                   |
| 3.      | Metal Processing and Manufacturing   |
| 4.      | Chemicals                            |
| 5.      | Glass, Pottery, Bricks and Cement    |
| 6.      | Mechanical Engineering               |
| 7.      | Electrical Engineering               |
| 8.      | Instrument and Scientific Engineering|
| 9.      | Textiles                             |
| 10.     | Leather                              |
| 11.     | Timber and Furniture                 |
| 12.     | Paper, Printing and Packaging        |
| 13.     | Food, Drink and Tobacco              |
| 14.     | Miscellaneous Manufacturers           |
| 15.     | Building and Construction            |
| 16.     | Utilities                            |
| 17.     | Transport and Communications          |
| 18.     | Commerce and Distributive Services   |
| 19.     | Finance                              |
| 20.     | Insurance                            |
While such an arrangement assisted by narrowing the field of search on some enquiries, it still necessitated an extensive trail by the researcher. In section 9, for example, the details of over 1,500 companies remained to be perused. The advent of computerisation brought with it the opportunity to refine search techniques so that records for silk or lace manufacturers could be isolated from the mass of textile records. For the purposes of computerisation the section number became the code and within each code an internal structure was developed which became the sub-codes, e.g.

9 0 TEXTILES
9 1 cotton
9 2 wool
9 3 linen and flax
9 4 silk and pile fabrics
9 5 man-made fibres
9 6 jute
9 7 rope, twine and net
9 8 hosiery and knitwear
9 9 lace
9 10 carpets
9 11 narrow fabrics
9 12 household textiles
9 13 elastic
9 14 canvas goods
9 15 textile finishing
In this section it will be that no sub-codes were necessary (miscellaneous manufacturing, insurance and property) but this is not a final activity and refinement of the structure is a continuing process.

The screen which the public will use for their searches will look like this:

COMPANY REF :
SORT NAME :
BUSINESS CODE :
BUS SUB-CODE :
TOWN/PARISH :
COUNTY :
DOCUMENT DATES :

The company reference is a number assigned automatically at the time a record is created. It may be useful for searchers to note this number in order to return to a particular record swiftly. The sort name, which is used to determine a company's position in any alphabetical sequence, can also be used as a search field. For a family firm the sort name would be the surname. For any other firm it would be the first element of the title, barring the definite articles. In a number of cases two words will be used in the sort name e.g. those companies whose titles begin with
the words North, West, British, etc. These words could refer to the North of England, West of Scotland, etc.

A list of business codes and sub-codes can be displayed on screen. If, after consulting this, a searcher is still not clear as to which codes he should be searching a business vocabulary list can also be displayed. Alongside each description there will be the relevant business code and sub-code e.g:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Sub-Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>curers</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>curriers</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>custard powder mfrs</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cutlery mfrs</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cutlery case mfrs</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cutting equipment mfrs</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cyanide mfrs</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cycle dealers</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cycle mfrs</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some companies will, of course, qualify for a number of code-sub-code combinations and it is possible to enter up to twelve of these. Searchers will be able to display them on request.

Three further search fields are available: town/parish, county, and document dates. Searchers can opt to display a list of relevant companies, from which further choices can be made for records displayed. Alternatively they can consult the companies index record summary. This will present, in concise form, the required information about companies and the nature, date and location of their records. It will also provide...
the need for the operator to move constantly between screens. The provision of very simple title lines allows very specific questions to be answered. It is, for example, possible to display all co-operative societies in Lancashire (thirty), all Port Glasgow shipbuilders with records dating from the nineteenth century (two) or simply all the Dundee firms in the index (120).

The picture as the moment therefore is of an index which has acquired very sophisticated search capabilities. Computerisation has allowed re-appraisal and refinement of the basic structure and has forced greater precision on an index whose piecemeal growth has militated against consistency of style and description. Much remains to be done and possible further enhancement of the system is already being considered.

It is unclear when the computerised system will be available for public consultation, but in the meantime the manual systems may be consulted in the Commission's offices at Quality House, Quality Court, Chancery Lane, London WC2A 1HP Monday to Fridays, 9.30 a.m. to 5 p.m. Limited and specific enquiries can be answered by post.
Although thought of primarily as a distilling nation, Scotland has a long and rich tradition of brewing which stretches back well beyond that of distilling. Indeed, it is believed that even in pre-Norman times, the indigenous population of Scotland was producing a primitive type of ale from fermented barley and certainly by the early thirteenth century the art of brewing was fairly well established in Scotland, being extensively practised in monastic establishments in particular.

At this time, and for several centuries to come, brewing was very much a domestically-based occupation, a by-product of the agrarian economy, but by the sixteenth century there was beginning to emerge, in the larger centres at least, a brewing industry in which the existence of a formal business structure could be discerned. After 1750, in common with other primary processing industries such as tanning and glass manufacture, brewing began to respond to urbanisation, as population growth, and the rise of the wage economy, and commercial brewing for public sale resulted in the establishment of 'publick' breweries in many Scottish towns. Overall, however, the growth of large scale breweries was slow, due to burghal and craft restrictions, and to the imposition of the hated Malt Tax.

By the turn of the nineteenth century most of these ancient restrictions had been broken down, and with rising real incomes amongst the mass of the Scottish population, breweries were established in most Scottish towns of any size, except perhaps in the far North West of the country. By the third quarter of the nineteenth century the brewing industry had become one of the most significant in Scotland, employing a good number of people...
Scottish brewers accounted for more than one-third of all British beer exports.

This situation prevailed little changed until after the Second World War, when, with the loss of many export markets abroad due to the breakup of the British Empire, and falling domestic sales due to changing tastes, the industry in Scotland found itself with substantial over-capacity. This, coupled with a trend towards larger units, resulted in a marked contraction in the brewing industry in Scotland, with a wave of takeovers, mergers and closures which resulted in the demise of some of the most famous names in Scottish brewing.

As the brewery closures continued into the 1960s, a number of people began to express concern that unless something could be done to preserve the records of this historic and important industry, they could be lost for good. Nowhere was this concern more evident than at Heriot-Watt University in Edinburgh, which for long has had a tradition of education and research into brewing, and which still provides the only undergraduate degree course in brewing available at any United Kingdom University. Heriot-Watt has always maintained close links with the brewing industry, and accordingly approaches were made to the extant Scottish brewery companies to see what could be done to preserve their surviving records. These approaches met with a sympathetic response, and it was agreed that Heriot-Watt University itself, which already held a good deal of material relating to the brewing industry, was the obvious central collection point.
and home for these records and other items which the interested public was asked to donate.

The announcement, in March 1982, of the inception of the Archive (to be known as the Scottish Brewing Archive) devoted to maintaining and preserving the records of the brewing industry in Scotland met with an overwhelming response. The volume of material received from the breweries themselves, from private individuals, or from other sources, was such that it was soon found necessary to appoint full-time staff, to be employed under the Manpower Services Commission's Community Enterprise Project. The remit of the Archive staff was to list, catalogue and shelve the existing material, answer enquiries regarding the Archive and the material held therein and supervise visits to the Archive by interested parties.

The inflow of material was such that the Archive soon outgrew its original premises in the centre of Edinburgh, and as a short-term expedient, a move was made to the Riccarton Campus, situated a number of miles from the city centre. This proved to be a less than ideal site from the Archive's point of view, and after several years there the Archive returned to Heriot-Watt's Chambers Street building in 1987.

The material held by the Archives consists of, in addition to strictly archival material (largely in the form of company records), a collection of rare printed volumes, mostly relating to various aspects of the science of brewing, known as the Brewing History Collection. Material from both these categories dates back to the late 18th century. There is in addition a fairly extensive collection of artefacts, ephemera and memorabilia, ranging from large items such as seroons, water-engines and
At an early stage of the Archive’s existence, informal approaches were received both from the brewing industry on the English side of the border, and from the whisky industry in Scotland, enquiring as to whether the Archive could be prepared to incorporate some of their material in the collection. Reluctantly it was decided that due to the constraints of space, finance and manpower, this would not be possible, although the Archive staff decided to unilaterally annex Berwick-on-Tweed for Scotland.

The Archive produces a regular newsletter, which is published twice yearly, and a wide range of articles have been produced for other publications. Radio broadcasts have been given at fairly frequent intervals, and the Archive has been host to a film crew from the Central Office of Information.

As from April 1984, the Scottish Brewing Archive has been in receipt of direct funding from the Scottish brewing industry through the good offices of the Brewers’ Association of Scotland, the TSC scheme meanwhile having come to an end. Sizeable deposits of archival and other material continue to be received, but, in addition, the Archive staff are engaged on some long-term research projects for the industry, one of which ‘West Ale’ (1986) has already been published in book form.

In conclusion, to date the Archive has amassed a sizeable collection of records, books and artefacts relating to all aspects of the brewing industry in Scotland, ie historical, scientific, economic, social, technological and even political (for the brewing industry has strong political connections). The firms represented in the collection include
some of the most famous names in Scottish brewing history, including Aitken's of Falkirk, Faulder's of Prestongrange, Barrie's of Inverkeithing and Geo. Younger's of Alloa, as well as records of all the breweries extinct breweries in Scotland, such as Tennants, Balhousie, Tennent's and others. These records have now been made available to researchers, teachers, students and interested laymen alike, and provide the most comprehensive and accessible collection of brewing records to be found anywhere in the United Kingdom.

The Archive, which is always pleased to receive in addition to its holdings, can be inspected by appointment on weekdays between 9.30 am and 4.30 pm by telephoning 031-225-8432 ext 5.

C H McMaster
Archivist
Scottish Brewing Archive
Heriot-Watt University
Chambers Street
Edinburgh EH1 1HX

Errata: Archive Report Number Two

Please note that H S Harvey is not archivist of the Allan Ramsay Library and does not live in Leadhills. The Library is run on a voluntary basis and does not enjoy professional help.

Editor apologises to all concerned.
1. National Register of Archives (Scotland)

Full details of the surveys are available from the National Register of Archives (Scotland). All enquiries and requests for access should be addressed to the Secretary, The National Register of Archives (Scotland), Scottish Record Office, 17 General Register House, Edinburgh EH1 3XY.

Agriculture, Estates, Forestry and Fishing

2765 National Library of Scotland Kewhailes papers. Titles, Edinburgh, East Lothian and Midlothian, 16-18 cent: legal and estate papers, 16-18 cent, including building contract by Robert Lyon, 1701, vouchers for building work at Kewhailes, 1708-09, receipt by Allan Ramsay for portrait of Lord Stair, and day labour books, Kewhailes, 1726-36.

Titles and papers of Stansfield family, 1504-1724, including accounts and papers of Sir James Stansfield and his son John, 1683-1724, concerning trading, voyages, prizes captured, sale, equipment and victualling of naval and other vessels, and the Kewhailes Cloth Manufactory; estate and architectural plans, Midlothian, 1766-20 cent. (Replaces Survey No 909)

2765 National Library of Scotland Chalmers of Aldbar papers, 1684-1920. Estate papers, 1697-c1900, including papers relating to Aberdeenshire estates of Fedderate and Hazlehead, 1697-1744, Aldbar, Angus, 1755-c1900, Hanbury Hall, Worcestershire, 1833-54. Accounts and correspondence concerning Arbroath and Forfar Railway, 1840-64. Correspondence and accounts relating to trade and administration of Gibraltar, 1724-52, including account book of William Samuel Chalmers recording shipments and
sales of goods from Gibraltar, Porvoo, 1796-97.

2759 Miss I Smart, Arbroath Papers relating to the Smart family, 1770-1965, including: rental of Strome for, Miniemuir, 1770; group roll of crops at Little Inch, Mirrieuir, 1856; correspondence concerning John Smart's service in the Royal Navy, 1764-1814.

BUILDING INDUSTRY

2759 L Grandison & Son, plasterers, cement workers, tile fixers and haulage contractors, Peebles Accounting records, 1934-55; fireplace catalogues 1926; building plans, 1917-59; books of designs, no.

ENGINEERING

2768 Dundee City District Archive and Record Centre Austin & Pickersgill Ltd, shipbuilders, Southwick Shipyard, Sunderland. Engineering drawings of ships' fittings including tanks, pipes, and valves, no.

FINANCE


Atlantic Assets Trust Ltd: accounting records, 1954-68.

Clydebank Investment Co Ltd: accounting records, 1927-68.


(Replaces Survey No 1577)

FOOD AND DRINK

Hiram Walker & Sons (Scotland) Ltd, whisky distillers, Dumbarton
Minutes, registers of members, and accounting records of Hiram Walker and associated and subsidiary companies, including: Alexander Brothers (Wines) Ltd, 1953-63; Ardbeg Distillery Ltd, 1958-77; B W & Co Ltd, 1930-69; Balblair Distillery Co Ltd, 1949-70; George Ballantine & Son Ltd, 1922-65; James Barclay & Co (Scotland) Ltd, 1935-55; Bloch Brothers (Distillers) Ltd, 1936-65; Coulmore Distillery Co Ltd, 1949-65; Dumbarton Warehousing Co Ltd, 1937-65; James Ferguson & Sons (Glasgow) Ltd, 1930-65; Fieldford Proprietors Ltd, 1957-65; Gavin Distillers Ltd, 1946-65; Glencadam Distillery Co Ltd, 1923-65; Gordon & Grant Ltd, 1929-67;

2754 Mothers Pride Bakery, Glasgow: Beattie's Biscuits Ltd: minutes 1928-32.

2756 British Fish Canners (Fraserburgh) Ltd, Fraserburgh: Photographs of plant, production and shipment of meal and fish by Macnabachie Brothers, c1895-1970.

2760 Cardowan Creameries Ltd, margarine manufacturers, Glasgow: minutes 1930-current; register of members, 1930-70; memorandum and articles of association, 1930; accounting records, 1928-60; presscuttings.
MANUFACTURERS


Clyde Combustions Ltd, oil and gas burner manufacturers, Glasgow. Accounting records, 1921-79; minutes, 1920-73; registers of members, 1920-54; reports, 1954-67; tenders, 1920-27; patents, 1921-51; wages records, 1936-68.


RETAIL


Glasgow University Archives. Forth Tugs Ltd, tug operators, Grangemouth. Minutes, 1895-1968; accounting records, 1861-
1971; declaration of ownership and re-registration of vessels, 1861-73; lists of vessels taxed, 1861-73; lists of vessels, 1871-73.

2. National Register of Archives (Scotland): Register of Oral History Tapes

This Register provides a central body of information on this material, based on data supplied by the custodians of the tapes are, in some cases it also covers such matters as the quality of the recordings, the type of equipment used and particulars of any published work based on the tapes concerned. The collections are listed under the name of their present custodians to whom requests for access should be directed. The presence of recordings on this Register must not be taken to imply any right of public access to them. Dates given in the entries refer to the date of recording or to the date to which the recordings relate.


37 Mrs Ann Manson, BBC Radio Orkney, Castle Street, Kirkwall, Orkney. Orkney Sound Archive. Recordings of all aspects of Orkney life, nd.

38 Assistant Keeper (Water Transport), Department of Transport, Science Museum, South Kensington, London. Interview with Mr D. A. MacLurchie, particularly concerning his work as angle ironmith at Caledon Shipyard, Dundee, 1939-40.

Interview with William Birrell, wood contractor, Tulliemet, Perthshire, about his work and rearing Clydesdale horses. Reminiscences of Peter Taylor, retired mill worker, about life in Dundee. Interviews with inhabitants of East Fife about farm life, place names, fishing and local history. Interviews with inhabitants of Methil about mining, social conditions and general strike, 1926. Interviews with inhabitants of Ross about folk life, pearl fishing and local lore, Gaelic and English, 20 cent.

Lynn Jamieson, Department of Sociology, University of Edinburgh, 18 Buccleuch Place, Edinburgh. Interviews with unnamed people, mainly town dwellers, concerning their childhood and first jobs, 1895-1930.

Mrs Ann Manson, The Orkney Library, Laing Street, Kirkwall, Orkney. Orkney Sound Archive. ESC Radio Orkney's tapes; tapes of late Ernest I. Harwick; tapes relating to Orkney folklore, farming, fishing and local history, etc.
Scottish Mining Museum, Lady Victoria Colliery, Newtongrange, Midlothian. Interviews with miners and their relations about life and work at Lady Victoria Colliery, and the mining community at Newtongrange, early 20th century.

Murdoch Rodgers, 10 Queens Park Avenue, Edinburgh. Personal archive. Interviews with unnamed miners, housewives, tailors and ice-cream vendors in central Scotland, mainly first or second generation immigrants, on their lives and work, 1900-30.

Dundee City District Archive and Record Centre, City Square, Dundee. Interview with Mr Alexander Robert Anderson, Subiaco, W Australia, about his childhood in Dundee and work at his father's, J J Anderson, aerated water factory, 1910-23.

Mr K W Hinshalwood, Local History Department, Central Library, High Street, Paisley. Linwood oral history workshop: interviews with unnamed informants about local history, nd. Interview with Mrs McLuskey, one of the first mill girls at Mile End Mill, Paisley, now retired, nd.

Mr C U McMaster, Scottish Brewing Archive, Heriot-Watt University, Riccarton, Edinburgh. Interview with J Horison Inches, last head brewer of J J Morrison & Co Ltd, concerning later stages of his brewing career and his involvement with Heriot-Watt College and University, late 1950s.

Arbroath District Library, Hill Terrace, Arbroath. Arbroath History Project. Interviews with unnamed informants about
Central Edinburgh Resource Team, South Bridge School, Infirmary Street, Edinburgh Old Town Oral History Project. Interviews concerning life and work in the Old Town from childhood to retirement, nd.

Miss S M Selwyn, Strathkelvin District Museums, The Cross, Kirkintilloch, Glasgow Strathkelvin Local Studies Project. Interviews with unnamed miners, mining family members and mine managers about life and work, with some technical information, nd.

Librarian, Craigie College of Education, Ayr Ayrshire Sound Archive. Interviews with inhabitants of Ayrshire concerning all aspects of life and work in Ayrshire towns and villages including childhood, school and sports; memories of Ayrshire industries including: Kilbarnock carpetmaking, farming, fishing, mining, Irvine Valley lace industry, Glengarnock steel works, Kuclakhine box factory, Stewarton bonnet-making, Dreghorn brickworks. Reminiscences of World War I, including Gallipoli and home front; General Strike, 1926; conference at Largs on D-Day landings, 1943. Recollections of local personalities including Lord Ross of Darnick. Tales of local history. Early 20th cent-current.
Strathclyde Regional Archives, Mitchell Library, North Street, Glasgow

Autobiographical and family recollections of Harriet Bever, wife of managing director of Bever Brothers, electrical engineers, 1890s-20 cent.

Dr M Ash, 42 Woodburn Terrace, Edinburgh

Interview with Dr Alan Hynd about farm work in Fife, 1962. Recordings of recitals by George Paterson, Debby Scott, Anna Butler and Willie Scott of Scots music and poetry, 1970. Interviews with relatives of Dr Marinell Ash concerning life in Arizona and New Mexico, 1840-current.

Mr H Firth, Orkney Sound Archive, Castle Street, Kirkwall

Interviews concerning fishing, farming, local history, childhood, customs, games and amusements, 1937-44.

School of Scottish Studies, University of Edinburgh, 27 George Square, Edinburgh

Interviews with inhabitants of Dundee about work in textile mills, boot boxers, social conditions, nursing, fire brigade duties. Reminiscences of various occupations from people in Lothians, Borders and Fife. Interviews with inhabitants of lace-making district of Ayrshire and of New Lanark. Reminiscences of tea planting, administration and family and native life in British India. Interviews with medical and nursing staff about mental hospitals in Britain. Early 20 cent-current.

Springburn History Project, 57 Keppochhill Road, Glasgow

Interviews with workers, weavers and railwaymen concerning work and life in Springburn, c1910-30.
Dundee City District Archive and Record Centre, City Chambers, City Square, Dundee DD1 3BY. Interview with Royal Navy engineering captain concerning his life and service in the UK, Mediterranean, and Australia, 1888-1945.

3. The Scottish Film Archive

Applications for access should be made to the Curator, Scottish Film Archives, 74 Victoria Crescent Road, Glasgow G12 9JN

Acquisitions 1987

THE LOCOMOTIVE (c1960)
sp Locomotive Manufacturers Association of Great Britain
Sound 30 minutes

INDUSTRIAL STIRLINGSHIRE (1950)
sp Scottish Educational Film Association
Silent 30 minutes

Brickmaking and events surrounding the community of J G Stein of Bonnybridge, brickmakers. (1932-1945)
Silent 30 minutes

THE 'SOVEREIGN' SCOTCH (c1928)
Bottling King George IV whisky
Silent 5 minutes

CALTREX CALENDERING LINE (1978)
sp Wilkie and Paul, Edinburgh
Sound 10 minutes
Village Blacksmith (1935)
Silent 3 minutes

Modern Bakery (1934)
Silent 3 minutes

Falkirk (1938)
A survey of the principal industries of Falkirk and its environs, including the Carror Company and Sunnyside Iron Company.
Silent 20 minutes

Quarriers Homes (1936-1949)
Activities in the Home
Silent 20 minutes

Launch at Denny's (1901 or 1903)
Launch of Sir Thomas Lipton's yacht 'Shamrock' II or III.
Silent 1 minute

Dundee Perth and London Shipping Company, Dundee (1937-58)
Ship launches: 'Kingennie', 'Lochlee', 'London' and 'Broughty'
Silent 10 minutes

This book, which accompanied the television series of the same name, contains a series of essays on a variety of mostly manufacture industries: cotton, aircraft, steel, retailing, shipbuilding, chemicals, coal, farming, and electronics. These vary in quality and insight, but all draw on the reminiscences of those engaged in the industry to illustrate the theme. This approach, which can work well in television and radio, is less convincing in print for this subject. In looking back on their working experiences, most people naturally deliver their opinions with the benefit of hindsight. This is a pitfall which all historians are supposedly trained to beware, but throughout the book the authors regularly seem trapped by their evidence, partly because it tells them what they want to hear. Underlying each essay there is the tacit assumption, only confirmed at the very end of the book, that Britain would have been much better off with 'direct industrial democracy, which has been the feature of some of the most successful economies western Europe'. We are constantly told that everything in these economies is on the whole better; yet these comparisons are made with little substance or reference to chronology. It is generally agreed that British industry performed better than its German competitors in the inter-war years and in the modern period unfavourable comparison is usually confined to best practice and not to the generality of continental industry.

With these reservations in mind, the book is a good read, full of interesting glimpses into part of our heritage which has gone almost unrecorded. The extracts taken from recorded interviews with shop floor
workers, their supervisors and managers, provide a fascinating perspective on popular attitudes and perceptions. Each essay is excellently illustrated with contemporary photographs.

M.S. Moss
University of Glasgow

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Because of the relatively unspectacular nature of trade in the North Channel, the commercial interdependence of Scotland and Ireland has tended to be underplayed by historians. Albeit trade with Scotland was a minor element in Irish overseas trade throughout the 18th century, and the ending of customs posts at the Borders following the Union of 1707 has inhibited quantitative assessment of Scottish imports and exports, the North Channel trade consistently represented around a fifth of the non-English overseas trade of both countries. Ireland served as a stabilizing influence for Scottish commerce during the refashioning of continental markets in the aftermath of the Union and helped maintain the solvency of leading merchants houses on the Clyde during the American Wars of Independence. Moreover, because of the bulk of the commodities traded, about 30% of Scottish shipping capacity found meaningful employment in the North Channel, the Irish trade being of particular importance for the development of the mercantile community in Greenock and Port Glasgow, as for the Ayrshire coalfields.

Dr. Cochran is to be commended for providing a lucid and impressive rehabilitation of North Channel trade based primarily on the quantitative
analysis of customs records; a statistical minefield through which she
pounds a sure and assured path. Her thorough approach, while cognizant
of the distortive impact of smuggling with respect to tea, tobacco, wines
and spirits as well as grain and livestock, tends perhaps not only to
underestimate the illicit trade in such commodities in the North Channel,
but also the legal but indirect trade between Scotland and Ireland,
notably with respect to textiles manufactured outwith the West of Scotland
and re-exported from English ports. Further consideration must also be
given to west coast fishermen, from the Highlands as from the Clyde, who
landed their catches in Ulster, but outwith the eastern ports, and
illicitly brought over curing salt.

Of the specialist divisions following the introductory discussion on the
historical significance of Scottish trade with Ireland, the first two,
devoted respectively to appraisals of Scottish exports to and imports from
Ireland are notably more satisfactory than the third on commercial
reorganization. A clear and informative picture emerges not only of the
basic value and volume of the commodities exchanged - principally coal,
fish and textiles for grain, livestock and pastoral produce - but also of
the importance of Ireland for the burgeoning Clyde entrepot trade up to
the 1780s through the re-export of such colonial commodities as tobacco
and, more especially, muscovado (semi-processed) sugar to which Scottish,
unlike Irish merchants, had unrestricted access as a consequence of Union.
The relative shrinkage in Irish markets in the closing decades of the
eighteenth century can be attributed to the higher gearing of the Scottish
economy towards industrialization and the resultant increase in domestic
demand for native produce. At the same time, increased provision of
primary and semi-processed products appeared to confirm Ireland's role as
a feeder colony for central Scotland; a colonial position shared by the
Highlands. Such categorisation of the Irish economy requires greater
discrimination with respect to the industrialisation of east Ulster centred on Belfast from the end of the eighteenth century - a process enhanced by the investment of capital and expertise by Scottish textile entrepreneurs; a feature the book merely comments on rather than explores. Moreover, the commercial pull exerted by Dublin throughout the eighteenth century was an important secondary influence to the droving trade (whose take-off in the Highlands, incidentally, dates from the 1680s not post-1745) in stimulating economic development as far afield as the Western Highlands and Islands, as evident from the portfolio of companies created by enterprising clan gentry such as the Campbells of Ardchattan and their associates in Glenelg. Although co-partneries are cited in the sources, the manifest failure to develop such commercial links through registers of deeds, sequestrations, wills and testaments, along with the neglect to examine banking facilities for the general merchants on the Lower Clyde who dominated North Channel trade, are critical weaknesses of this pioneering study. Clearly much work remains to be done on commercial interdependence of Scotland and Ireland in this early modern period.

Allan I. MacInnes
University of Glasgow


For two classicists - one now embarked on a career in the Fine Arts - to show such historical sureness of touch in their account of a century of Glasgow Exhibitions is no mean feat. Although they apologise in the Preface for the 'unfairly tantalising' lack of detail in some instances, the authors often choose shrewdly in the examples which they use to place
Glasgow in a much wider context than that of a city which has just celebrated its fifth major Exhibition (or Festival) in the space of a century.

Beginning with the Great Exhibition of 1851, this elegantly written book traces the changing ethos of such ventures from the Victorian preoccupation with Art and Industry to the present emphasis on entertainment, especially for the younger generations, coupled with the demonstration of Science and Technology. The first exhibition in 1851 was not truly international but concentrated rather on the twin foci of Scotland and Empire, a pattern which was retained right through until the largest of them all, the 1938 Empire Exhibition which drew more than 12.5 million visitors. As appears to have happened in the 1980s also, the Glaswegians stole a march on their Edinburgh rivals in 1888, when attendances comfortably exceeded those achieved at the Edinburgh International Exhibition of 1886. (It is interesting to note, however, that the organisers of the first two Glasgow Exhibitions were not above a bit of sharp practice to falsely inflate the visitor figures; in 1901 some 7,500 attendants had solemnly been included in each day's totals!)

Although each of the five events is treated as an entity there are some recurring themes. Not least among these is the changing attitude shown towards women in the organisation and presentation of the various exhibitions. The separate women's sections - essentially middle class but with some examples of careers for working class women - of 1888 and 1901 had disappeared by 1911, perhaps as a result of concern at the extent of suffragette agitation. It is unfortunate that space precluded the authors from identifying more fully those women who did play a part in this Exhibition, the prime purpose of which was to raise sufficient funds to endow a chair of Scottish History and Literature at Glasgow University.
(It did, and it was.) Miss Story, for example, one of the few women to act as Convener (of the committee concerned with the Decorative and Ecclesiastical Arts), was the daughter of the late Principal of the University while Miss Frances Melville, another rarity as head of a committee, was the Principal of Queen Margaret College. Women were again given little responsibility when it came to 1938, although Miss Margaret Brodie, assistant to Thomas Tait, the Architect-in-Chief for this massive undertaking, did act as site architect for a gruelling six months. Curiously, and possibly as a sign of changing times and growing equality, the chapter on the 1988 Garden Festival makes no reference at all to a distinct role for women.

Not surprisingly, the authors have had a wealth of illustrative material to choose from, and have done so to telling effect, although restricted almost entirely to black and white reproduction, presumably on grounds of cost. It is particularly helpful to find a detailed map or site plan (carefully redrawn from the originals in most cases) at the beginning of each chapter. There is also a very useful comparative table of sites, architects, admission prices, attendances and profits immediately after the Introduction. It is a sobering indication of changing times that the cost of admission remained constant at one shilling in 1888, 1901, 1911 and 1938, compared with a figure one hundred times as great in 1988, and that this is the first event of its kind in Glasgow not to make a profit. Perilla and Juliet Kinchin conclude by expressing the desire to see Glasgow's motto, 'Let Glasgow Flourish', "given a hopeful new meaning." As every Glaswegian knows, the full text of the motto stresses that this should be achieved 'by the preaching of Thy word.' In the words they have penned the authors have done Glasgow, and its Exhibitions, proud.
Guest Keen & Nettleford, or GKN as it is now known, are familiar names to almost everyone in Britain who has ever had occasion to buy a wood screw. This large book by Edgar Jones is the first volume in a history of the company. It traces the origins of the three principal constituents of the modern company, the Dowlais Iron Co (founded 1759), the Patent Nut & Bolt Co Ltd that dated back to 1845, and Nettlefords that had its origins in 1823. After the merger that resulted in the formation of Guest Keen & Nettlefords in 1902, the history of the enterprise is taken up to the end of the First World War. Writing the history of a company with such diverse origins is always a daunting task for the business historian, particularly if each constituent, as in the case of Guest Keen & Nettlefords, contributed equally to its formation. Edgar Jones has chosen to break the book up into four parts. The first is an account of the development of the Dowlais Ironworks and the Guest family's involvement from 1759 to 1850, particularly the role of the remarkable Lady Charlotte Guest, wife of Sir John, in the financial management of the business. The second deals with the development of Nettlefords & Chamberlain (later Nettlefords) and Arthur Keen's involvement in the foundation of the Patent Nut & Bolt Co, from 1850-1900. There is a good deal of fascinating information in this section, particularly relating to the acquisition of the wood screw patents by J S Nettleford and the involvement of his well-known brother-in-law, Joseph Chamberlain, in the subsequent development of the enterprise. The third section returns to Dowlais to explore the massive changes in the iron and steel industry during the sixty-five years before the outbreak of the First World War. The last and briefest section takes the history of the group to the end of
the war. For the history of a major manufacturing company, the chapter dealing with the war itself is surprisingly brief.

The test of such a monumental history is whether it is a good read or whether it provides fresh insight into economic and business history. Unfortunately, largely because of the fragmented nature of the GKN's history, the narrative is often difficult to follow. This may have been inevitable, but at times Edgar Jones's well structured plan confuses rather than illuminates the reader. There are occasional nuggets that further knowledge of British corporate activity in the nineteenth century, particularly in relation to competition, but, on the whole, the text is curiously antiquarian, overburdened with detail and people. Despite these criticisms, the book is a quarry of information that deserves a place on the shelves of anyone interested in Britain's industrial past. Throughout, the book is well garnered with tables and lavishly illustrated, particularly the breathtaking early nineteenth century paintings of Nant-y-glo and Dowlais.

M.S. Moss
University of Glasgow

W. Hamish Fraser, Conflict and Class: Scottish Workers 1700 - 1838 (Edinburgh: John Donald, 1988, pp.vii + 202. £20)

Work in this field has often been marred by sweeping, and sometimes by acrimonious assertions based on flimsy evidence. Of such there is no trace in Dr. Fraser's study which is always restrained in interpretation and based on the fruit of a successful search for information on the organisation and activities of trade societies of all kinds, about which even the late W.H. Marwick was hard pressed to produce much evidence.
His balanced view is evident in his demonstration of how the associations are shown to have led not only to conflict but to compromise and sometimes even to co-operation.

The industrial transformation between 1700 and 1838 provides the background: the change from an economy in which tradesmen worked within the framework of near-medieval burgh organisation and restraint to one in which the industrial structure of the west of Scotland had assumed much of its modern form. In these conditions many of the trade associations did not direct their attention primarily to increasing or defending wages, important as that was, but to influencing work patterns and more generally towards ensuring a degree of control over their activities. The cotton spinners at the end of the period were just as anxious to retain their valued independence even in the factories as were the old journeymen in the burghs at the beginning. Indeed responsibility and respectability is notable among unions in the early nineteenth century, which were often alleged to be violent. Not all shared the extreme interpretations of Sheriff Alison. Violence there was, but it was intermittent. Its origins can frequently be traced to the use of disreputable strike-breakers.

The change to confrontation which so worried Alison and others came with the emergence of new ideas of the desirability, even of the necessity, of allowing wages and conditions of work to be regulated by the free market, in which case no organ of state, high or low, had any regulatory function to perform. This change had more dramatic consequences in Scotland, where in the earlier eighteenth century the magistrates and the courts assumed the right, some would even have suggested that it was their duty, to control conditions of work. Combination as such was not illegal; what was illegal was action against the public good, and that was for the
courts to decide. Dr. Fraser suggests that many of the senior judges, who came from the ranks of the minor landed gentry, feared the social unrest which unregulated industrial relations might generate, and so they were willing to countenance intervention. The change came in the early nineteenth century, not only because of decreasing sympathy with those of lower social rank and their perceived insubordination, but because of the new doctrines of political economy, in which there was a decreasing place for anyone to interfere with the free operation of market forces. Paradoxically radical lawyers were often the most ardent advocates of the new beliefs. Dr. Fraser draws attention to the comparable evolution of the poor law, where it has also been suggested that the law was changed by judicial decision and the re-writing of the textbooks to accord more with contemporary ideology. The conflict came to a head in the defeat of the cotton spinners in 1837-38, but that only completed the process begun with the earlier onslaught on the workers' organisation in the 1820s.

Dr. Fraser modestly and wisely points out that his study is of trade unions, which is only part of the story of the emergence or making of the working class, but that it is a part which has been unduly neglected. He has probably achieved more than he claims. He has certainly set an example of careful investigation for others to follow.

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SCOTTISH
INDUSTRIAL
HISTORY

Volumes 11-13
1990
Scottish Industrial History is published by the Scottish Industrial Heritage Society and the Business Archives Council of Scotland.

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Articles for publication should be submitted in typescript to the Editor Scottish Industrial History, The Archives, University of Glasgow Glasgow G12 8QQ, from whom further details may be obtained.

Back copies of Scottish Industrial History can also be purchased from the Editor.

1990 marked the thirtieth anniversary of the establishment of the Business Archives Council of Scotland.

The front cover illustration is of travelling 'Goliath' cranes constructing the East Sea Wall at Methil, Fife, 5 August 1910

The back cover illustration is a cotton net etc. price list for 'Fishermen' issued by David Gillies, November 1876
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### VOLUMES 11 - 13  1990

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STONEYWOOD MILL: A GLIMPSE OF INDUSTRIAL PATERNALISM

Phil Lyon

Department of Business Studies, Dundee Institute of Technology

In May 1986 fire gutted Stoneywood House on the northern outskirts of Aberdeen.¹ A recent press report on its restoration to former splendour contained the comment that, 'photographs of the building devastated by fire must have been the first that some local residents had ever seen of the neighbourhood big house'.² It is a salutary reminder of transience that the importance of Stoneywood House, its grounds and its successive occupants, can so easily pass into relative obscurity. Not so long ago, it was the scene of a remarkable example of the eclipse of land-based economic power and the rise of a new industrial order based on the manufacture of paper.

A MacLaren³ has argued a good 'fit' between Aberdeen's historical data and T C Smout's⁴ contention of widespread co-operation between landed and commercial interests in industrial development.

The growth of Aberdeen as a centre of industrialisation was based in a large part on capital accumulated by several well-known local families. The peculiar homogeneity of the north-east population may well have contributed to the close co-operation of these families which represented both landed and merchant interests. A stronger tie no doubt was their close economic interdependence. Whilst the country gentlemen depended on domestic manufacturing among their tenants as the most important source of income for the regular payment of rents, the wealth of the city was based on the export of these same goods.⁵

However, the early history of papermaking at Stoneywood Mill, on the banks of the River Don, was considerably more complicated than this general thesis of interdependence might
suggest. At Stoneywood, the key to industrial development lay in the bleak aftermath of political and military failure.

James Moir (1710-84) succeeded to the Stoneywood estate as fourth laird in 1739. The Moirs had been a politically active family, and James Moir identified closely with the Stuart cause, heading 'Stoneywood's Regiment' as a Lt. Colonel in the 1745 rebellion. After the Culloden defeat, he spent a year in hiding from the English authorities until he was able to get passage, first to Norway and thence to Sweden. Moir settled to a life in exile and established himself in trade with the encouragement of James Leslie, Secretary to Prince Charles. Moir succeeded in an indemnification claim against the French Government for having, 'raised, clothed and victualed his regiment in the Prince's service until it was ready to join the army'. He received further material support from the grant of naturalisation by the Swedish Court which gave him exemption from certain taxes 'exigible from foreigners'. Thus situated, he lived in exile for fifteen years, until in failing health, he obtained permission to return to Stoneywood.

Moir, it would seem, had two major problems on his return in 1762. First, the estate, while not forfeit to the crown, had fallen into disrepair during his absence. Second, he did not have a male heir. These two factors, along with his mercantile experience in Sweden, offer more by way of explanation for his association with commerce and industry in the post-exile years, than does, the 'congruity of interests' thesis. Of his several ventures in this period, only one achieved lasting success - papermaking. Ironically, in this, his involvement was peripheral.

In September 1770, Moir leased part of his estate by the River Don - the island of Stoneywood - to two Aberdeen businessmen: bookseller John Boyle and Richard Hyde, a dyer. Their interest appears speculative, for while they established the first mill, Boyle sold his half-share in 1771 to Hyde who, in the same year, sold a half-share to Alexander Smith, an Aberdeen wigmaker. In 1772, Boyle disposed of his remaining holding to Thomas Spark, a local merchant. In 1773 Spark sold out to Smith, who thus acquired sole ownership of the mill. At the same time Smith took out a separate lease on Waterton Farm, part of the Moir estate.
Smith was joined in his papermaking venture by a local merchant, Patrick Pirie (died 1787) who had, in 1778, married Smith's daughter Margaret. In 1794 Smith tried to dispose of the mill but could not find a buyer so, on his death in 1796, the leases on Waterton Farm and the 'Island of Stonewood' passed to his only son, a nine year old boy who died in 1800. Then, by the terms of Smith's will, inheritance passed to his grandson, Alexander Pirie. After the turbulence of the first thirty years, the mill was to develop in the hands of the Pirie dynasty for the next 122 years and while the merger with Wiggins Teape Ltd in 1922 served to alter the nature of ownership, the family maintained a boardroom presence into the post-war years.

Dynastic control was an important factor because it underwrote a particular kind of relationship between the mill and the community. The Pirie family established themselves not only as powerful employers dominating the local labour market, but as a social and political influence echoing, even surpassing, the role of the landed gentry.

Alexander Pirie had not inherited all the land thereabouts associated with the Moir family, only that specifically itemised in his grandfather's leases. The residue was sold by Maria Moir, in November 1789, to James Forbes of Seaton and then passed, by marriage, to the Hay family. In the first instance, then, the Piries did not directly replace the old landed gentry, but gradually enhanced their position in this respect as the paper mill developed and flourished. In fact, in the earliest years of their ownership they shared the river bank at Stoneywood with another paper mill run by Charles Smith, Alexander Smith's nephew, and described as being, 'under the patronage of James Forbes, Esq of Seaton' with a lease for the purpose on the east wing of the then ruined Stoneywood House. This second mill continued until 1832 and ended in a long litigation with James Hay, the then owner of the land. At that stage, Piries took over the premises but it continued to have a separate identity seemingly impervious to the fact of its incorporation. It continued in varying forms till 1832, when it was merged in Pirie's mill, and although the term is now
meaningless, that part of the factory is still known as the Upper Mill.\textsuperscript{15}

Thomson\textsuperscript{16} reported that licenses for Scottish paper mills increased at a net rate of one per year from 1784 to 1825. In the following decade there were net losses of one or two per year on average, and from 1835-1860 further net gains. Against the fluctuating fortunes of the industry at large Pirie's expanded, even capitalising on the disastrous flood of 1829 with subsequent rebuilding and modernisation. From thirty workers in 1820, they expanded to employ 100 women and some seventy or eighty boys in 1848.\textsuperscript{17} By 1886, the mill employed 1500 people.\textsuperscript{18} The expansion was not limited to the mill at Stoneywood, with a rag works established at Woodside in 1856, and an envelope making works\textsuperscript{19} in Aberdeen in 1862. Bartlett noted that Alexander Pirie and Sons, were by 1879, employing some 2,900 people - 1,500 at Stoneywood, 400 at Woodside and 1,000 in Aberdeen.\textsuperscript{20} By the turn of the century there were subsidiary companies in England and overseas.

However, Stoneywood remained the centre-piece of the Pirie empire, a fact consolidated by family acquisition of much of the surrounding land.

In May 1877, a large portion of the estate of Stoneywood, and portions of Auchmill and Sclattie, and also the lands of Mugiemoss and Bankhead, were purchased by Messrs Pirie and James Gordon Hay of Seaton, and the estate thus acquired was formed into a new and separate property, to be afterwards known as the Estate of Waterton.\textsuperscript{21}

The Pirie family not only established a land base typical of the old order, but adopted a paternalistic pattern of relations with their workforce and the community adjacent to Stoneywood Mill. Abercrombie and Hill\textsuperscript{22} and Joyce\textsuperscript{23} have commented that the inadequate infrastructure of industrialisation gave employers the opportunity to increase their control through the provision of housing, schooling and other facilities for their workers. In this vein, Pirie's instituted a works library as early as October 1849. The 1871 library catalogue stated not only that all company
employees and 'tradesmen and labourers employed at the works' were entitled to membership, but that:

Persons residing in the surrounding neighbourhood, and not employed at Stoneywood Works, may also become subscribers, if approved of by the Directors, such persons to be responsible for the safety of the books, the due observation of all rules, and also to pay ninepence a quarter of twelve weeks.24

The firm also erected and maintained a school to serve the needs of their employees' families. It lasted from 1865 to 1880, after which it became the Works Hall and was used as a centre for several village social activities.25 In what today would be termed a 'feature article', the Aberdeen Daily Journal in 1901 reported:

In the midst of improvements for increasing and maintaining the standard of the output of the works, the employees have not been neglected, their interest being well attended to in accordance with the centralisation scheme which is such a marked feature of the establishment. There is at the works, a fine hall, with kitchen and dining-room for the use of the workers, many of whom reside in Bucksburn, Woodside, and Aberdeen. There is another hall, where entertainments and meetings are held, this building being controlled by a committee of the employees. The park26 and cricket ground are also under the management of this committee, and it says a good deal for the nature of the ground, as well as the cricketing skill of the employees, that Stoneywood Cricket Club has the honour of holding the Aberdeenshire Cricket Association's Cup, a trophy which at present occupies a prominent place in the office of the works.27

The firm showed generosity in other ways. On the occasion of the mill's 150th anniversary, the Aberdeen Daily Journal reported:

In this connection it may be mentioned that Messrs Pirie have recently gifted 19 acres of ground to the Aberdeen District Committee for the erection of dwelling houses at Stoneywood under the housing
scheme. The building of the first installment of 62 four-roomed cottages will commence next month.28

Pirie family members differed in style, but more in terms of variations on a theme than any outright rejection of the firm's paternalistic presence in the community. Dynastic control and more specifically, the 'intermittent control' system that operated between 1870 and 1920 served to free family members for the pursuit of other interests.

The fact that certain of them, after an early occupancy of the position, went into the background for a good many years to emerge later in life makes rather a broken effect and prevents setting down a continuous facade.29

Alexander Pirie II (1811-75), for example was a director of the Aberdeen Steam Navigation Company, the Newcastle and Hull Steam Shipping Company and the company that established and managed the Aberdeen Railway. He was involved in local politics as a 'power behind the throne'.

At various times in the history of local politics his name was mentioned for the provostship, and he was occasionally spoken of as representative of the city in Parliament, but for neither did he manifest any inclination. In politics he was a Liberal, and he acted as proposer for Mr George Thomson when he was elected member for the city. More recently he proposed Mr Farley Keith, on which occasion the warmth of his reception showed that he would have been no unwelcome candidate for the highest of honours which the citizens has to bestow, had his ambitions pointed that way.30

A later member of the family D V Pirie, did in fact serve as Liberal MP for Aberdeen, defeating Tom Mann, the candidate from a nascent Labour movement.31 By comparison, A G Pirie (1836-1904), although residing at Stoneywood House between 1856 and 1869, and for the last twelve years of his life, took 'little or no part at all in political affairs'.32

One of the more interesting members of the family, from the
industrial paternalism point of view, was Francis Logie Pirie (1841-1915), described in a 'personal appreciation' as:

Genial and affable in manner, he was very much liked by those who knew him. He always made a point of looking up the 'old hands' and having a pleasant chat with them, and these happy 'for gatherings' were much appreciated by the employees ... He took a great interest in the works, and every time he came north showed his practical concern in the welfare of the employees by calling at many of their houses. Once they got Mr Logie Pirie's favour the never lost it; he was loyal to them in every way. 33

Francis Logie Pirie was significant for public expositions on employer-employee relations that underline the paternalistic philosophy. His lecture on 'Co-operation in Production', given at Stoneywood Church Hall on 3 September 1884 in aid of the church building fund, made explicit reference to a family model 34 of work relations prior to industrialisation.

The connection then between the employer and the workmen was of the closest. Very often the workmen lodged with their employers, fed at the same table, and formed part of the same family. When a workman married and established a home of his own, the employer still maintained the same kindly interest in the fortunes of himself and his family. In the workroom, employer and workman could be seen at work side by side - the latter, though rewarded only with a weekly wage, as interested in the success of the venture of the former. 35

Lamenting the loss of such a close relationship with the development of large industrial enterprises, he advocated a form of industrial partnership to foster equal interest in their success. There were problems foreseen though, in the application of these ideas:

An additional difficulty arises from the diversity of ability and character - above all, moral character - that is seen amongst workmen, as amongst all other classes. Were all workmen equally steady and
conscientious, there could be little doubt on the part of the capitalist as to the policy of associating the workmen with himself in the closest co-operation.\textsuperscript{36}

In a later lecture, given at Aberdeen Music Hall in 1889, Pirie was warning his audience of the dangers of commercial complacency, and identified worker motivation as a problematic factor.

Can our working classes conscientiously claim the character for close application and willingness to exert their best powers during working hours that is admitted on all hands to be a marked characteristic of the American workman? In other words, do they rank the dignity of the labour and the duties attached to it as highly as the latter does?\textsuperscript{37}

The context of this lecture was particularly interesting because, in the same year, the labour movement had its first clash with Messrs Pirie, and new dimensions in employer-employee relations were emerging.

Attempts to establish strong and stable union organisation amongst the paper workers, one of whose major grievances was long hours of work - in 1889 they were asking for a sixty-eight hour week - were no more successful than amongst the textile workers. Partly no doubt, this was due to the relative isolation of the paper workers from the main stream of events in Aberdeen; partly, it was due to the determination of the employers to prevent the establishment of unions in their mill. The first signs of trade unions appeared in 1889, when a dispute over wages developed into a lock-out at the Stoneywood Mill; in spite of financial help from the Trades Council, the men soon returned to work on the employer's terms, which included a signed statement from the workers to the effect that they would have nothing to do with Trade Unionism.\textsuperscript{38}

Strangely, Diack\textsuperscript{39} described this result as a 'draw' and recorded that the union - the Paper Worker's Union - had gained a negotiating position by the 1930s.

The tradition of employer paternalism became firmly entrenched in the mill's labour catchment area. Although the mill was merged
with Wiggins Teape Ltd in 1922, the name of Alexander Pirie and Sons was used until 1968 and still formed part of the long-service employees' frame of reference in the 1980s.

We always said that when Wiggins came in that we didn't work for Wiggins. We were Pirie's. We old ones - it might be Wiggins Teape or BAT - we're all Piries's. You hear people squealing about working for his family - they were this or that - but we were proud.40

The abrupt transformation of Aberdeen from a 'cosy corner'41 into a major centre for oil-related industry and commerce, and the subsequent weakening of that economic strength, should not overshadow the history of its traditional industries. While not necessarily agreeing with his conclusion, it is easy to see a logic in a comment from another retired employee of Stoneywood Mill:

There was quite a few lads at one time of day - they had just a few years with us - left to go to the building trade and things of that sort. I always said, "How long will that last?", The paper trade - there'll always be paper to make.42

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NOTES

6. James, the second laird, sat in the Scottish Parliament as a member for Aberdeenshire 1689-1702 and 1702-1707. He was also one of the commissioners appointed for settling the union of the kingdoms. (See A


8. James, the fourth laird, had seven sons who died in childhood and an eighth who was killed in America. A Mitchell-Gill, *The Families of Moir and Byres* (Aberdeen, 1885) p. 74.

9. P Morgan, *op.cit.*, p. 177, noted that Boyle, in addition to being a bookseller was also a printer and ran a bookbinding business. In the same year (1770) that he became involved with the paper mill, he started a weekly newspaper.

10. J Bartlett, 'Alexander Pirie and Sons of Aberdeen 1860-1914,' *Business History* (Jan 1980) pp. 18-34, records than even when the company 'went public' in the latter half of the nineteenth century, the family retained control of the firm. Between 1898 and 1914, six of the ten directors were Piries and a further two were promotions to the board 'because of their faithful service'.


13. Stoneywood House was rebuilt in 1850.


18. P Morgan, *op.cit.*

19. For a history of the envelope works see D Morgan, *op.cit.*


26. The park occupied the site of the old Greenburn Market established by the first laird in 1701. The Pirie family enclosed the area for the use of the workpeople and the local community. P Morgan, *op. cit.*, p. 173.


34. Joyce, *op. cit.*, p.20, noted that it was, 'this personal embodiment in the family or family head that gave paternalism its cutting edge'.


42. Lyon, op.cit., p. 48.
FROM MILTON TO MADRAS: A LIFE OF PATRICK MITCHELL, 1784-1848, CALICO PRINTER

Sheila Downie
Isle of Seil

Driving along the present A82 twelve miles west of Glasgow, past the huge Esso truck farm, fast food restaurants, petrol filling stations and other trappings of the late twentieth-century landscape, it is difficult to realise that the small village of Milton was once the hub of a huge textile manufactory supplying printed cotton goods to all corners of the world. The printfield was situated on the banks of the swiftly flowing burn hidden in a cleft of the hills rising on the north bank of the Clyde. All that remains today of this bastion of the Industrial Revolution is a scatter of Gothic ruins, whose romantic aspect amidst a sylvan setting of rhododendrons and native trees, belies their former industrial bustle. The genius behind this enterprise was Patrick Mitchell.

Like many other Scotsmen of energy and vision he was a son of the manse. Born in 1784, the fourth son of the Reverend Andrew Mitchell of the United Secession Church in Beith, Ayrshire, he was educated at the Public Grammar School and the University in Glasgow. He followed the usual route of study for a MA, matriculating into the Latin class in 1797, but instead of following his two elder brothers into the ministry it would appear he was deflected from the study of divinity into an apprenticeship in the cotton dyeing trade. How this was viewed at home in Beith is not recorded. At any rate he appears to be a diligent apprentice, filling many notebooks with his experiments in trying to make colour adhere to cotton cloth.

The dyes he was using were the usual vegetable dyes of the day - indigo or woad for blue, madder for red and weld for yellow. Surprisingly, in view of the amount of green in nature, there is no natural source for this colour and much experimentation was carried out to find a satisfactory green. After a seven year apprenticeship, at the age of nineteen, he was employed by R Gillespie in Anderston at a salary of £150 per annum rising to
£200 in his second year. While he was working for Gillespie, he recorded in his notebook that he 'printed for the whole of the winter of 1807 at Turkey Red shawls with chemical black'. In the same notebook he also includes experiments with China Blue and mulberry. The production of Turkey-red cloth was highly specialised and as Gillespie's was a printing firm, the Turkey-red cloth would have been dyed elsewhere. Patrick's efforts were directed towards the various types of resist printing involving the use of menders and throughout his career he always refers to himself as a 'calico printer'.

At the end of his contract in Anderston he was ready to move to the bigger and more successful firm of William Stirling & Co, which had been established in 1770 in the vanguard of the cotton printing trade, on the banks of the river Kelvin. A plaintive notice in the *Glasgow Mercury* of December 1787 points out one of the minor difficulties of such a business at this time:

> carried away by the water on Monday last from different fields on the banks of the Kelvin - a considerable quantity of brown and half bleached linen & cotton cloth and a few pieces of printed calicoes.

In addition to Stirling, other firms in the Glasgow area were jumping on the cotton bandwagon. Thomas Stewart & Co were advertising, 'Policates3 (sic) handkerchiefs in fast colours at 8d a dozen', in 1787. Business must have been favourable, for the following year the price had gone up to 12d a dozen. John Ross had, 'fine printed calicoes in new and fashionable patterns at 18d the yard', and Henry Monteith, the doyen of calico printers in the city, had cornered the world market in printed handkerchiefs. These bandannas were very versatile - they were used much as we might use a box of tissues today - as well as being eye-catching items of apparel. He had uncovered a rich seam which he mined energetically, exporting so many bandannas that they became known on the continent as 'Monteiths'.

In 1772 William Stirling & Co set up another printfield at Cordale, in the Vale of Leven. The Reverend Mr Gordon Stewart, describing his Parish of Bonhil (sic), explains the attraction of the river to calico printers.
The Leven is remarkable for the softness of its waters, which fits in, in a peculiar manner for the purpose of bleaching. It is seldom or never muddy, as the rivers and burns of the Highland hills fall first into Loch Lomond where the mud they carry along with them subsides.4

According to Mr Stewart there had been a printfield on the Leven as early as 1768.

William Stirling & Co bought the neighbouring printfield of Dalquhurn when it came onto the market in 1789, making the company the largest manufacturers of printed calicoes in Scotland. An interesting glimpse of an eighteenth century printfield is revealed in the 1789 sale notice for Dalquhurn which appeared in the Glasgow Mercury:

This manufactory is delightfully situated on the banks of the Leven, and within two miles of the town of Dumbarton whence any number of pencillers and other work people may be procured. The premises are completely surrounded by a river and a canal 18 feet wide at bottom admits water sufficient to drive two large wheels to work three pairs of wash stocks, a calendar, an indigo mill, with a machine for polishing copper plates; two large pumps which supply the wash stocks together with boilers and sowasing canes. There is a most compleat and convenient set of vats furnished with all the necessary apparatus for carrying on the dyeing of CHINA BLUE .... There are three copperplate shops ... the printing shops contain 30 tables (mostly mahogany) ... the pencilling shops, with tables will hold 200 pencillers and the different apartments are furnished with stoves. There is a large assortment of copper plates and block prints, many of which are perfectly new, executed in latest stile and adapted for furnitures, garments, handkerchiefs and shawls of all sizes and colours.

It was into this burgeoning industrial area that Patrick Mitchell moved when he joined William Stirling & Co in 1811. The following year a formal contract was drawn up stating his salary to be £500
per annum for the first two years and £600 thereafter for the next three years. He was appointed 'general manager and conductor of the business either at Cordale, Glasgow, London or Manchester'. From the time he moved to Cordale, there was continuous correspondence from head office in Glasgow, giving instruction, demands, advice and orders. Mr Desmore, the chief designer, was bombarded with patterns to draw up. Mr McGregor, in charge of the finishing plant, was addressed severely by William Stirling:

I must draw Mr McGregor's serious attention to the unusual number of damages we have lately had in our goods. The number of pieces we have had returned from the calendars is very great and the loss consequently incurred very considerable.

In February 1811, Patrick set off for Manchester to make contact with the firm's agents in England. Mr George Stirling, the financial controller, had a cash flow problem and frequently urged Patrick to find a source of 'cloth on long credit' and to give 'every preference to those who buy short bills and endeavour as much as possible to sell for present bill down'. From a perusal of the correspondence it would appear that much was expected of the new manager - a supply of cloth on long credit, favourable terms for indigo, supplies of patterns from the London houses, cash orders for finished goods and sources for the supply of drugs (chemicals) of the trade.

In June he returned to his cottage at Dalquhurn, close to the works at Cordale. Instructions arrived daily from Glasgow urging goods to be 'pushed' and the finished bales to be sent up to the city 'by the cart'. Black and white checks were popular with James Black & Co. Morrison's order, however, was more complicated - green grained, yellow and pink on twenty-one inch cloth, code M, blue was to be pencilled around the pink. Pencilling was a time consuming process mainly carried out by women. It involved filling in any area of solid colour in a design with a paintbrush. On 24 June there was another large order from James Black for 1,500 pieces. This order was needed quickly so capacity must have been considerable to cope with this quantity.
Letters from William Cunningham, the firm's design director, reveal the amount of detail involved in the type of patterns they were printing at this date - 'Draw the patterns border and enlarge the scale'; 'reduce the figure, introduce more black'; 'number 81 and 26, if touched up, might be made to last the season'. No pattern book from Cordale survives to let us see what patterns 81 and 26 looked like, nor do we have any idea of the designs in green and black supplied by Chippendale & Thomson which Mr. William was so enthusiastic about when they were printed. Black grounds were mentioned frequently and much effort was expended in experimenting with black dyes - a bale of printed cloth had been returned from London with the complaint that the black had turned brown - 'they will not stand comparison with English ones', wrote Cunningham, 'find some way of making them better'.

It was not surprising that the emphasis in the letters is on design which had an important bearing on the look of the furnished fabric and ultimately on the commercial success of the enterprise. A manufacturer giving evidence to one of the many Parliamentary Select Committees on design sums it up succinctly:

what is it that makes the trade at all? Is it not the design upon the fabric, and the colour upon it and the invention of art that is put upon it; if you put more and better of all these things you will have more trade.

Although his turn of phrase was more pedestrian, this was the message William Cunningham was trying to impart to the staff of Cordale.

At the end of the Napoleonic Wars when trade with the continent was beginning to pick up, Patrick Mitchell's thoughts turned to what was happening outwith the confines of the British Isles. Calico printing was the branch of the trade most sensitive to fashion and here the French were the clear leaders. So it was to Paris that he set off in the summer of 1816. He was soon able to write back to his brother Moncrieff, from the Rue de L'Exchequier, that as far as technology was concerned the Scots had nothing to fear from French competition. By the autumn he had already visited Mulhouse, Geneva and Rouen, all important continental centres of calico printing. No record exists of his impressions of these factories but a fascinating account, written in his own hand,
survives containing his observations on the renowned printfield of Oberkampf et Cie at Jouy-en-Josas, near Versailles. Something of the scale of the operation is conveyed in a nineteenth century account which states that the average hourly production of printed cloth was between 4,500 and 5,000 metres. Oberkampf had set up his works in Paris in 1759, later moving to the cleaner air and more spacious surroundings at Jouy on the banks of the Bievre. The cloth laid out in the fields to dry attracted the attention of the aristocracy on their way to and from the court. Their interest was sustained by the high quality of the finished goods. It was company policy to use only the best cloths, the most expensive dyestuffs and to employ artists and engravers of talent. Like Wedgwood and Flaxman in England, Oberkampf formed a symbiotic relationship with J B Huet, the leading decorative artist of the century. It was Huet who produced the famous 'Labours of the Workshop' series on which the company's prestige was founded. The bread and butter products of the factory were the ordinary Indienne prints for the dress trade.

Patrick Mitchell's description of the print works is in the form of a letter dated 5 October 1816. It begins 'Dear Sir' but he probably had no intention of sending it, using the letter form merely as a convenient aide memoire. As at many places of universal renown, the physical reality was smaller than he had anticipated. He conceded that the works were large but added, 'I had formed a much higher idea of their extent than the site justified'. In the margin of the letter is an aside - 'Size of Cordale', indicating in dimensions at least, his own operation was comparable with this famous site. As Cordale depended very largely on the pureness of the water, about which there was some pride in Scotland, his first observations were about the driving power of the water of the Bievre - 'They have not more water than in the Yoker burn'. He commented on the importance the French attach to engraving and the high standard of the 'furnitures' (furnishing fabrics) they were printing. The designs were scenes of public buildings and views of the countryside around Paris, printed from high quality engraved copper plates. He described the cylinders, 'all the rollers were brass cast upon an iron spindle and turned together; there cylinders must have cost an immense amount of money'. He
hoped that this mode of engraving might be established at home (there were cylinders at Cordale so this must have been a refinement of cylinder printing to which he refers). He also admired the work of the block printers of whom he saw about eighty. They did no night work, implying that this might be the practice at his own factory. Costs, of which he was always acutely aware, were commented on. The stout 1400 Cambric he saw being printed cost about 18d a yard 'and they sell these dark ground fancies at 3/- to 3/6d English measure'. Drugs were as expensive as they were at home with the exception of madder, the cultivation of which the French government encouraged in the area of Rouen.

It did not occur to him to question the superiority of French design and he does not speculate on how they achieved this pre-eminence. We must assume that he was content to continue to receive designs from Paris, London, or wherever else there was a source of supply, which might answer his need to keep a stake in the fickle world of shawls, slingdangs and sarongs. Having satisfied himself that the French were not as great a threat as he had supposed, and no doubt having made some useful contacts from his tour, Patrick Mitchell returned to business in the Vale of Leven. It is clear from his correspondence that he was intending to stay on at Cordale, at the end of his first contract with William Stirling & Co. However, the turn of events a few miles to the east of the Leven, at Milton, were to offer him a unique opportunity to further his career.

In the 1790s the printfield at Milton, on the Littlemiln of Auchentorlie Burn, a few miles east of Dumbarton, belonged to a calico printer called Day Hort McDowell. McDowell of Walkinshaw, as he is described in assignations and dispositions in the title deeds of the mill, replaced an existing cotton mill on the site, with a four storey sandstone building (Plate 1). It is possible that he also built the mansion house in close proximity to the mill still in existence today. It would appear that his finances were severely overstretched by the scale of his constructions, to the extent that he committed suicide in 1809. His heirs continued in business until 1817 when they were forced to sell up. Patrick Mitchell decided this was an opportunity not to be missed and
negotiated a purchase price of £4,500, a large amount for an individual without partners. For this sum he obtained the mill, machinery, utensils, ten acres and one rood of land, and the elegant Georgian mansion house with its fine views of the river. Over the years he continued to improve the property, adding small parcels of land and expanding the capacity of the mill by the addition of new buildings. Evidence that the printworks was a large concern is visible today in the ruins strewn over the ravine down as far as the 'King's Highway', now the A82. The present pony field on the site is still infertile as a result of the vast quantities of noxious substances used in the bleaching, dyeing and printing processes.

Like many entrepreneurs of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, Patrick Mitchell held the reins of the business entirely in his own hands. He was financial director, marketing manager, design director, works manager and personnel manager, in addition to organising his export trade and keeping in constant touch by letter with shippers and his agents throughout the world. He lived for the rest of his life at Milton House, travelling daily by the steamer from Dunglass to his office at 111 Ingram Street, Glasgow. He never married but brought his nephew, Andrew Muter, into the business in 1827, training him in all aspects of the trade, so that when he died in 1848 the transition from uncle to nephew passed almost unnoticed.

In the beginning labour relations at Milton were good. In his obituary he was likened 'as a father unto his employees'. By the 1820s he employed over 300 people at the mill. The wage for a journeyman amounted to 30 shillings per week, for a labourer 15 shillings and 5 shillings for children. These wages were an improvement on the prevailing rates for the trade at the turn of the century. Despite the steady increase in wages, expectations also rose in the wake of the Reform Bill of 1833. When the promised utopia failed to materialise there was trouble at the mill. In November 1833 Patrick Mitchell's workers went on strike. Ever mindful of the threat of cheap Indian competition he refused their demands for more money. The workers were replaced by unemployed weavers from Bridgeton. 'I have now made up my mind to take on three hundred by the first of February', he wrote to
Plate 1. Watercolour of counting house, printing shops and calendar of Milton Works by William Donnelly
Glasgow University Archives, DC90/9/45
his nephew, Andrew, in January 1834. He was also looking for thirty young lads as apprentices and proposed paying them five shillings per week. Such was the anger of his workers that the 'Bridgtonians' had to be escorted to the mill under military guard. The windows of Milton House were stoned and at this point, as violence escalated, Patrick took himself off to stay with his brother in Glasgow, leaving his nephew to deal with 300 smashed windows at the factory. Soldiers were put on sentry duty and patrolled in front of the house to prevent further damage. At the end of 1834 the strike collapsed and the workers returned to the mill at the same wage rates that had prevailed before the strike.

Many of those employed at Milton were Irish. Seven out of eight members of the Mcllray family worked at the mill, the youngest aged four being presumably too short to reach the printing table. Robert Cairn, a big lad of eight, was already working as a tearer, applying the dye to the printing block before handing it to the journeyman who stamped the cloth. Patrick Mitchell considered himself a fairly enlightened employer and was described in his obituary as an ‘ardent reformer’. Reform, however, did not encompass changing the whole basis on which the trade was carried out; a dependence on cheap labour in order to compete successfully in what was a cut-throat market. In a letter of March 1845 he outlines his objections to a proposed parliamentary bill to regulate the labours of children. He considers the bill, ‘quite uncalled for and quite unsuitable to the economy of a calico print work and could not be carried out without causing the greatest sufferings to the parties whose benefit it is proposed to legislate’, adding indignantly, ‘I am not aware that I have ever had a complaint from a child of excessive work’. Children at Milton worked ten hours daily, Monday to Friday and seven hours on Saturdays. However it must be said that conditions there appear enlightened when compared with what prevailed at other mills where children often worked from six in the morning till half past eight at night for 3 shillings a week.

Mitchell’s genius lay not in industrial reform but rather in combining all that was best in design with a sound knowledge of dye chemistry. This, allied to an indefatigable drive, purpose and energy, allowed his business to prosper. In the 1840s when the
mill was almost entirely devoted to supplying the export market, he relied very heavily on his agents abroad. In March 1846 Patrick writes to Madras,

Having taken into serious consideration the recommendations in your letter of the chintz bandannas, as being an article of constant demand and ready sale, and mentioning yellow grounds as particularly liked, I have with great care and at considerable expense prepared two musters which I will send to you as samples.

The mercantile strength of Patrick Mitchell lay in his ability to supply the market with what it wanted. Looking at the indigo and logwood printed sarong lengths,14 which were rescued from the attic at Milton House, it is difficult to realise they were not produced last week in Kuala Lumpur. The freshness of the colours, crispness of the fabric and the distinctly Javanese look of the design belie their 1830s Scottish origin. During the 1830s and 1840s thousands of bales of printed cloth were shipped out to his network of agents in Madras, Bombay, Calcutta, Batavia, Singapore, Mexico and Australia, each carefully printed with designs to suit the different markets - 'black and white slendangs and ladies dresses of patterns designed specially to resemble the one handed to us'. Bandannas were articles in constant demand in Calcutta. Consequently repeat orders were sent on a regular basis. The sale of goods designed as wearing apparel was more problematic. Clothing was, and is still, affected by fashion and so it was an act of faith for Patrick Mitchell to send off his printed bales to these distant destinations not knowing whether they would meet the season of their demand on time, or whether the pink spots with yellow stripe which were all the rage in the spring might be decidedly passe by the time the ship reached New South Wales in the autumn.

The vigour and seriousness with which he attached the constant demand for novelty never flagged and in January 1848 he was preoccupied with improving the 'souls' of his fabrics. Writing to his agent in Bombay, he said:

I am glad to find your prices gradually creeping up ... I have prepared a fresh shipment of pine cone patterns
Examples of designs for shawls
Glasgow University Archives, DC90/9/129
(sic) which I think very desirable and well suited to your sales, having a great deal of novelty about them and as the cloth is much firmer (sic) and beautifully done up, I trust that they will meet the views of your buyers at enhanced prices.

Shortly after writing this letter, on his way up to his office in Glasgow, Patrick Mitchell died on the lighter taking him out to the steamer at Dunglass.

A flavour of the output of Milton Mill is contained in the pattern book\(^{15}\) which has survived from the earliest years of Patrick Mitchell's association with Milton. INTO this volume are pasted up more than 800 hand-painted designs on paper, in India ink, watercolour and body colour, mostly border and filling patterns for shawls (Plate 2) in addition to a few drawings for commemorative handkerchiefs. The designs are anonymous, named designs being a twentieth-century phenomenon. Designing and drawing were occupations handed down from father to son in the nineteenth century. 'A style to answer the needs of the market', was what Patrick required of his pattern drawers. He did not see his role as producer of innovative textiles, nor did he ally himself with leading artists of the day to enhance the aesthetic qualities of his products. His interest focused on well-made, quality goods which would sell readily. What we are looking at in the pattern book is not art with a capital 'A', rather a collection of provincial and often charming designs to suit a long-vanished world of fashion, furnitures and foreigners.

NOTES

1. This information is contained in his passport which was hand written by the Lord Provost of Glasgow, Henry Montelith, one of the first successful calico printers in the city.

2. The notebooks of Patrick Mitchell are in the National Library of Scotland, Edinburgh.

3. Pullicat, a town north of Madras gave its name to a certain type of printed handkerchief.


5. In 1811 an average salary of a manager was between £120 and £150 per annum.

6. Glasgow University Archives (G U A), DC/90/9/129-139.
7. James Black & Co survived until 1899 when the remaining calico printers in Britain amalgamated to form The Calico Printers Association Ltd.

8. A 'piece' of cotton was 100 yards long.

9. Select Committee on the Copyright of Designs, Minutes of Evidence, Parliamentary Papers 1840.

10. G U A

11. Ibid

12. Donald McLeod, Clyde District of Dunbartonshire, (Dumbarton 1886)

13. Census Returns 1841, 1851


NEWMILL: AN EARLY SCOTTISH COTTON MILL

Stuart M Nisbet
Clarkston, Glasgow

The very earliest rural cotton spinning mills, which heralded the Industrial Revolution in Scotland, are an important part of our industrial heritage, but have been poorly documented to date. This article documents the evolution and first two decades of one of Scotland’s earliest cotton mills - Newmill.

Newmill was situated on the White Cart Water in Mearns Parish on the eastern boundary of Renfrewshire. It’s six metre high linn (waterfall) was a prime source of water power. The immediate vicinity supported several water powered mills long before the dawn of the industrial age (Figure 1). A meal mill at Newmill is documented from as early as the year 1300 and two centuries later it was included in a sale of the lower part of Mearns.\(^1\)\(^2\)

Newmill meal mill appeared on Blaeu’s Atlas in 1654, and forty years later it is recorded that the miller was Alexander Young whose family were also millers at Mearns Mill upstream.\(^3\)

Multure was still in existence in 1744, although the local parish was not astricted to Newmill.\(^4\) The last miller prior to the founding of the cotton mill was John Stevenson in 1799.\(^5\) A meal mill on the opposite bank of the River Cart, on the lands of Busby, is documented from before 1490.\(^6\) (Figure 1) In 1575 multure was in existence, when the landowner was granted Busby together with half the mill lands.\(^7\) In 1787 the mill was still in operation at which time the miller was Arthur Moore.\(^8\)

From the 1780s Scottish landowners were beginning to realise the value of suitable riverside sites and advertise them in the press. A piece of holming ground on Stamperland Farm, a short distance downstream from Newmill, was advertised as a suitable bleachfield site in 1782.\(^9\) Busby meal mill was advertised in the Glasgow Mercury on 12 September 1788:

There is upon this estate, about fifteen acres of ground very proper for a Printfield or Bleaching Ground, and the present corn-mill can be erected into a Cotton Mill
Figure 1. Watermills in the vicinity of Newmill
or other manufacturing machinery and has command of about 25 feet of fall.

Busby meal mill site was a natural location for water based industry. Despite its seemingly flat site, the available head of water was comparable to that at the linn at Newmill. This was confirmed recently by a level survey. The above advert did not meet with success until eight years later when a bleachfield was set up next to the mill. In a short time the bleachfield grew into a large printworks, swallowing up the old meal mill.

By the 1790s, adverts promoting suitable mill sites in the area were commonplace. The waterfall in what is now Linn Park, a mile downstream from Newmill, was advertised in 1792:

An excellent situation for a Cotton Mill near Glasgow. The Wauk Miln situated at the Linn on the water of Cart, about a quarter of a mile above the village of Cathcart with a capital fall of great power. Such was the value of water powered sites by this time that grain mills which had been a vital part of the community for centuries could disappear almost overnight. It is clear that rapid changes were occurring in Scotland as the demand for water power increased.

Water powered cotton spinning launched the industrial revolution in Scotland, but small scale industrial use of water power was introduced to the textile industry fifty years earlier in the form of lint mills. These rural water powered mills were given practical and financial encouragement by a Government body, 'The Board of Trustees'. Lint mills mechanised the laborious process of preparing home grown flax for hand spinning. From the mid eighteenth century they became a real threat to the traditional grain mill sites. On the larger sites, however, the two could exist side by side.

By the 1770s a lint mill was established at Newmill beside the old meal mill. The exact date of its founding is not known. A similar lint mill at Roadside, less than a mile upstream, is documented from 1750. (Figure 1) A Board of Trustees survey describes Newmill lint mill in 1772. It used water powered mallets to beat the stems of raw flax and weaken them. The stems were then passed through openings in a large drum to be
'scutched' by vertically mounted revolving rotor blades, also driven by water. The scutching process employed five people at Newmill, but the work was seasonal. The miller kept only two full-time assistants and hired more as required. The charge for dressing the flax by water powered beating and scutching was tuppence per stone.

When Newmill lint and meal mills were sold in 1780 for the construction of the cotton mill, there is no mention made of the lint mill in the sale deeds. One contemporary historian reported that both mills were demolished the year before the sale. The lint mill reappeared four years later when the newly built cotton mill was advertised in the Glasgow Mercury. The proprietor reported that there was a good stance for another mill on the cotton mill lands and that there was almost a complete set of lint mill 'graithe' (machinery) on the site.15

The lint and meal mills at Newmill were sold by local landowner, Sir Michael Stewart of Blackhall, to Glasgow merchant, William Ferguson, in December 1780. Ferguson was an established textile dealer and manufacturer with a business right at Glasgow Cross. Beside the linn at Newmill, he built the fourth cotton spinning mill in Scotland. The first and second Scottish mills were at Rothesay on the Isle of Bute, and Penicuik, Midlothian.16 The third was at Dovecothall, on the River Levern, less than five miles from Newmill. Both Dovecothall and Newmill were established in 1780, but Dovecothall was leased in June, six months before Ferguson signed a feu contract for Newmill.17

The site at Newmill was confined, perched on a ledge in the side of a steep bank beside the falls. Ferguson's first task was to widen the ledge and construct retaining walls to support the slope above. He then built his cotton mill. It was three storeys high, plus loft and rubble built with internal brick partitions (Figure 2). The roof was tiled, with skylights to allow the attic to be used as working space. One third of the mill provided accommodation for six working families. Houses elsewhere on the mill lands supported another three families. The first and second floors of the mill held twenty-eight water frames, each with forty-four spindles. The upper floor and attic were used for carding, drawing, roving and reeling.18
The linn at Newmill provided a natural head of six metres. This was increased by a further two metres by a dressed stone dam a short distance upstream from the falls. The dam provided a take-off point away from the turbulence of the falls and created a significant amount of storage which was occasionally required. Ten years earlier the proprietor of the lint mill on the site reckoned that the water supply was adequate except in periods of drought or when the river was frozen. By comparison the flow in the White Cart today varies by a factor of over a thousand, from just over 0.1 cubic metres per second to 150 cubic metres per second.\textsuperscript{19}

The available head of eight metres recorded in 1787 is exactly the height today from the original crest of the dam to the invert of the wheel pit.\textsuperscript{20} At the western end of the dam is a sluice which controlled the flow of water via a twenty-five metre long lade to the wheel. The lade terminated in a wooden channel, which passed over the roof of the mill's smithy before driving the wheel. The waterwheel, situated in a pit at the eastern end of the mill, was five metres in diameter and 1.1 metres wide, providing twenty-two horsepower.\textsuperscript{21} The elevated channel and sunken pit suggest that the wheel was overshot. The cog or pit gear also drove a wauk (wash) mill.\textsuperscript{22} A much earlier wauk mill existed directly across the river from Newmill (Figure 1).

In March 1783, less than a year after spinning had commenced, William Ferguson advertised Newmill in the Glasgow Mercury.\textsuperscript{23} Ferguson both owned and managed the mill, and claimed that his reason for selling was due to a leg injury. Whether this excuse was genuine or not, he latterly owned a textile factory in Glasgow's Calton in 1798.\textsuperscript{24} He also remained proprietor of his 'Scotch Cloth Shop' at No 2 Gallowgate until his death in 1815.\textsuperscript{25} In September 1783 Ferguson sold Newmill to Richard Thomson who had also recently acquired Dovecothall Mill.\textsuperscript{26} In the purchase deeds for Newmill he is described as Richard Thomson, cotton spinner, residing at the mansion house at Dovecothall Mill. Newmill and Dovecothall were to have several connections and many similarities (Figure 3).

Richard Thomson's insurance policy of 1785 for Newmill survives:

Richard Thomson of Glasgow, Merchant and Cotton
Newmill Upper Mill (William Ferguson 1780)

Newmill Lower Mill (James Doxon 1790)

Figure 2. Newmill Upper and Lower mills
Manufacturer, on his Cotton Mill situated at New Miln Parish of Mairns and County of Renfrew, Stone and Tiled, not exceeding £200. Utensils, stock and machinery therein, not exceeding £800. The valuation is rather low. At this time there were only six mills in Scotland. A decade later, when there were over twenty mills in Renfrewshire alone, Newmill was valued at £5,000.

Richard Thomson was to become a major figure in the newly born cotton spinning industry. Shortly after purchasing Dovecothall and Newmill, he was in partnership with William Gillespie and James Monteith at Glasgow's only water powered cotton mill at Woodside on the River Kelvin. Thomson's ownership of this trio of early mills has been documented elsewhere. Richard, along with his brother, Robert Thomson, appear to have been sons of Robert Thomson, senior, one of Glasgow's major established textile merchants. Unfortunately the Thomsons are not so well documented as the better known Gillespies and Monteiths. It is likely that Newmill had a link with Richard Arkwright through the Thomsons. In 1783 Arkwright came to Glasgow and was entertained at dinner by the principal manufacturers of the city. Among those attending were James Monteith, senior, Robert Thomson, senior, and William Gillespie. (Further down the guest list were several manufacturers from Anderston village, plus David Dale, who a few days later, visited the Falls of Clyde with Arkwright).

In December 1788 Richard Thomson sold Newmill to its first English owner, Robert Twyford, a yarn merchant from Deansgate in Manchester. Twyford owned property, stock and a dwellinghouse valued at £8,500 in Manchester from as early as 1781 and he is listed in the Manchester and Salford trade directories from 1781 until at least 1797. Scottish cotton mills were evidently a worthwhile investment at this time as Twyford followed in Thomson's footsteps at Newmill's sister mill. In November 1787 it is recorded that he is part of the management at Dovecothall mill.

Twyford began carrying out improvements to the machinery at Newmill, probably based on his experience in Manchester. In addition to eight complete spinning frames running 1,500 spindles,
Twyford had installed four spinning jennies. He also had several additional water frames of a new type. However, before his improvements were complete, he ran into financial difficulties which were to destroy his business reputation in Scotland. Six years later his Glasgow creditors were still chasing his debts. Twyford only held on to Newmill for eighteen months. In July 1788 he sold Newmill to another Manchester merchant, James Doxon of Stockport, Lancashire. Doxon was to become the most significant of the early owners since the founder William Ferguson.

James Doxon was a cotton merchant and owned two spinning mills in Stockport. It is possible that he owned these English mills

A. MILL BUILDINGS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MILL</th>
<th>RIVER</th>
<th>BUILDING</th>
<th>WATERWHEEL</th>
<th>MACHINERY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NEWMILL</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>3 Storey</td>
<td>4.6m dia.x</td>
<td>1200 Spindles 1782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cart</td>
<td>plus loft</td>
<td>1.1m thick</td>
<td>2544 Spindles 1794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>by 8 bays</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>long</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOVECOTHALL</td>
<td>Levern</td>
<td>3 Storey</td>
<td>4.9m dia.x</td>
<td>1350 Spindles 1782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>by 8 bays</td>
<td>0.9m thick</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(23.2m by 8.5m)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. OWNERS IN FIRST DECADE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1780</th>
<th>81</th>
<th>82</th>
<th>83</th>
<th>84</th>
<th>85</th>
<th>86</th>
<th>87</th>
<th>88</th>
<th>89</th>
<th>90</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NEWMILL</td>
<td>William Ferguson</td>
<td>Richard Thomson</td>
<td>Robert Twyford</td>
<td>James Doxon</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOVECOTHALL</td>
<td>Ramsay, Leviston Love, Clurdsey, J &amp; W Haugh</td>
<td>Richard Thomson</td>
<td>Robert Twyford</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3. Newmill and Dovecothall Mill mill buildings and owners
before he purchased Newmill, although he is only listed in Manchester trade directories from the year of Newmill’s purchase.39 When he bought Newmill, the cotton industry was in the doldrums. There were various notices in the Glasgow press in early 1788 regarding the stagnation of the trade.40 Two major spinning partnerships were dissolved in the winter of 1788/89, and other mills were put on the market,41 including Thornliebank, a few miles from Newmill.42 Doxon may have purchased Newmill hoping for an upturn in the trade, but this did not happen. Four months after he bought Newmill, he put it back on the market, reducing the price from £4,000 to only £1,500. Newmill had been closed and its seventy workers43 laid off by March the following year, at which time it was still unsold.44

Accommodation for the labour force had been provided from the beginning. It was essential in the early rural mills to provide living quarters to attract the workers to a new way of life. When Doxon purchased the mill all seventy employees were housed in buildings on the premises. The effect of the closure of the mill in 1788 was devastating, one of the earliest cases of large-scale industrial unemployment. Fortunately Doxon’s fortunes improved drastically over the next two years, and by the beginning of 1790 he was planning ambitious expansion on the lower half of his mill lands.

In 1788 Doxon reckoned that Newmill was capable of running 1,500 spindles and at small expense this could be doubled to 3,000.45 There was little space for any further mill buildings on the narrow site beside the falls. Access, by a narrow zig-zag track down a near vertical bank behind the mill, was also far from ideal. The mill lands were split in two by a cliff jutting right out to the edge of the river. It must have been clear to Doxon that the remaining lower half of his lands held the potential for future expansion and better access. The only difficulty was in providing a suitable head of water, as unlike his existing mill, there was no convenient waterfall adjacent.

Doxon’s solution to the power problem of his ‘Lower Mill’ was to build a second dam on the river. He purchased the right to build this ‘lower’ dam from the owner of the lands across the river in 1790.46 This gave him the right to, ‘erect and use in all time coming’, any dam or dams between the linn and the termination of
his lands downstream. To provide for expansion at his existing 'Upper Mill', Doxon also purchased the right to raise the existing Newmill dam. These transactions were subject to several constraints, including preventing flood damage to the lands of Busby opposite and securing the workings of Busby Wauk Mill which was still operating at this time.

Doxon's new Lower Mill was more than twice the size of Ferguson's Upper Mill. It was four storeys high plus basement and nineteen bays long (Figure 3). Unlike the Upper Mill, some fine photographs of Doxon's Lower Mill survive.\(^47\) Two years after the completion of the Lower Mill, major alterations were carried out at the existing Upper Mill to link the two mill lades. The tail race at the Upper Mill was altered and a culvert and tunnel constructed from the wheel pit, under the mill, beneath the mill plateau and through the cliff which split the mill lands, to meet the Lower Mill lade.\(^48\) This gave the Lower Mill two independent sources of power: from the continuation of the Upper Mill lade and from its own lower dam. This allowed Doxon considerable flexibility in the running and maintenance of his mills. His schemes suggest that, apart from being a shrewd merchant, he was also something of an engineer. In Stockport he owned the right to erect a weir to direct the river through a tunnel to another site.\(^49\)

By 1793 the Upper and Lower Mills at Newmill contained thirty-six water frames running over 2,500 spindles.\(^50\) Three years later the mills gave employment to 360 workers.\(^51\) By this time the River Cart had been bridged just upstream from the Upper Mill dam, linking Newmill with Busby. The mills, together with the growing village adjacent, became known as Busby. The name 'Newmill' did not formally disappear until 1809, when births on both sides of the Cart became commonly recorded as being in Busby.\(^52\)

Unfortunately Doxon had stretched his finances to the limit at the wrong time. In 1793, soon after the completion of the Lower Mill, the Napoleonic war broke out and, during that 'dreadful year', three Glasgow banks failed. A Court of Session paper describes the situation admirable:

This Mr. Doxon was engaged in a great variety of Cotton Works, in several parts of England. He likewise carried on a Cotton Work at Busby Mills near Glasgow.
Though Mr. Doxon was a man of very considerable property, he always had occasion for a large credit. In the spring of the year 1793 when failures among mercantile people were exceedingly numerous, Mr. Doxon became unable any longer to support his credit and a commission of bankruptcy was issued against him.53

Both mills were put up for sale at the bargain price of £3,000.54 In March 1794 a notice to his creditors marked the end of James Doxon in Scotland.55 Most merchants and manufacturers had their ups and downs around this period, but for Doxon this really was the end. Two months later a full column in the *Manchester Mercury* advertised his Stockport mills, property, warehouses, land, machinery and waterwheels. What really brings home the extent of his debts are the sale of his family home and the seat-rents of his pews in St Peter’s and St Anne’s churches in Manchester.56

The Upper and Lower Mills were sold to Doxon’s brother-in-law, Thomas Everett, a London banker.57 Despite Doxon’s misfortunes, they were clearly still a going concern. Everett’s Glasgow agent was Robert Armour, who shortly put the mills back on the market.58 Ownership of the mills was retained by Everett and thereafter they were let to a succession of tenants. The first tenant cotton spinner was Thomas Moffat, who, by the close of the eighteenth century, had suffered the same fate as Doxon. In July 1801 a petition was put before the Court of Session for a sequestration of Moffat’s assets.59 In effect, his debts were so small that Malcolm McFarlane, one of the main creditors, was resisting the official process as it would leave little cash to settle Moffat’s debts. McFarlane was to become the main tenant at Newmill in the early 1800s. Following in the footsteps of his predecessors, he became bankrupt by 1815.60 However, as Malcolm McFarlane commences cotton spinning in 1799, the history of the first two decades of Newmill draws to a close. Spinning at Newmill is well documented in the nineteenth century.61 Despite the rise of Glasgow as the centre of cotton spinning with the advent of steam power, many of the early rural mills relied principally on water power to the end of their lives.
The main building of James Doxon's Lower Mill survived until the late 1960s when it was burned to the ground. A smaller two-bay extension survives. The Upper Mill was demolished and the site cleared around the turn of the century, but the retaining walls and underground lade system are remarkably well preserved. A river walkway has been considered for some time, passing both sites and would be extremely worthwhile, if only to open up the spectacular Busby Linn to public view. This natural feature deserves more recognition as it was the prime cause of the growth of the villages of Newmill and Busby.

Acknowledgements
I am grateful to Dr T C Welsh for pre-eighteenth century material and encouragement in pursuing this research. I am also indebted to Lynne Hamilton, Stockport Local Studies Librarian, for assistance with English manufacturers. Principal secondary sources are Busby and its Neighbourhood by the Rev William Ross, LL.D (1883) and the excellent Water Power in Scotland by John Shaw (1984).

NOTES

**KEY**

RMS  Register of the Great Seal, Scottish Record Office  
RS   Renfrewshire Sasines  
LS   Lanarkshire Sasines  
GM   Glasgow Mercury  
GA   Glasgow Advertiser  
GC   Glasgow Courier  
MM   Manchester Mercury  
BOT  Records of the Board of Trustees, Scottish Record Office  
HSR  Crawfurd, History of the Shire of Renfrew, (1782)  
GLS  Guildhall Library, London, Sun Fire Office Policies  
SL   Signet Library, Edinburgh
4. RS, 10 May 1744.
5. RS, 1 Dec 1780.
8. William Ross, *Busby and its Neighbourhood* (Glasgow 1883), includes the Parishes of Carmunnock, East Kilbride, Mearns, and Cathcart.
9. GM, 26 Sep - 3 Oct 1782.
10. GM, 12-19 Mar 1788.
11. Level survey by the writer, Jan 1987.
12. GA, 19-23 Nov 1792.
13. BOT, NG1/1/11, 22 Feb 1751.
14. BOT, NG1/19/1, 'Report from Stampmasters anent the Lintmills in the respective Districts, Summer 1772'.
15. GM, 6-13 Mar 1783.
17. George Crawfurd, *The History of the Shire of Renfrew* (Paisley, 1782), and RS, 1 Dec 1780.
18. GM, 6-13 Mar 1783.
22. GM, 6-13 Mar 1783 and Crawfurd *op.cit*.
23. GM, 6-13 Mar 1783.
24. GC, 12-19 Jul 1798.
26. RS, 1 Sep 1784.
27. GLS, Policy No.500923, MS 11936/327.
29. GM, 22-29 Sep 1785.
32. RS, 30 Sep 1786.
33. GLS, Policy No. 452057, MS 11936/296.
34. *Manchester and Salford Trade Directories: Elizabeth Raffald's (1781); Tunnicliff's (1787); Lewis's (1788); Scholes (1794, 1797).*
35. GM, 7-14 Nov 1787.
37. GM, 15-22 Jul 1794.
38. RS, 29 Apr 1788.
39. *Manchester and Salford Trade Directory: Lewis's (1788); Scholes (1794, 1797).*
40. GM, 13-20 Jan 1788, etc.
41. GM, 14-21 Jun 1788 (Todd/Shortridge/Bartholomew): 14-21 Oct 1788 (Houston/Ritchie/Findlay/Miller): 4-11 Sep 1788 (Hall, Gilmour & Co, Pollokshaws); Feb 1789 (Monteath, Findlay & Co).
42. GM, 6-13 Jul 1789 (Thornliebank).
43. GM, 15-22 Sep 1788.
44. GM, 2-9 Mar 1789.
45. GM, 15-22 Sep 1788.
46. LS, 26 Mar 1790.
47. *Eastwood District Council Photographic Collection.*
48. The underground lade system is documented by the writer in *Scottish Archaeological Gazette*, No. 19 (1989)
49. MM, 14 Jul 1795 and newspaper cutting, Stockport Local History Collection.
50. GM, 26 Nov - 3 Dec 1793.
52. Mearns Parish Records, Paisley Museum.
54. GM, 26 Nov - 3 Dec 1793.
55. GM, 18-23 Mar 1794.
56. MM, 14 Jul 1795.
57. RS, 11 Mar 1794.
59. SL, Session Paper 428/2, 1 Jul 1801.
60. Scottish Record Office, CS, 96/395.
61. See Ross *op.cit*, and Parliamentary Papers, 1834, *op.cit.*
Biggar Museum Trust had its origins in a small private venture in a store at the back of my ironmongery shop in Biggar. Here a small indoor 'street' of shops and windows was created and it was opened by Hugh McDiarmid in May 1968. It was clear from the start that the locals would regard it as a depository for unwanted 'treasures' and by the time the Trust came into being a few years later, the policy of accepting all gifts of a local nature, however trivial they seemed, was already established. Over the years the Trust has expanded its activities and it now has an enormous accumulation of ephemeral material spread through its various displays or housed in its offices at Moat Park, Biggar.

The Trust was primarily responsible for the preservation of Biggar Gas Works, which first produced gas in 1839, as an ancient monument. They are the only preserved gasworks in Scotland and are now administered by the Royal Museums of Scotland. The surviving records of the works go right back to its establishment in 1839 and include shareholders minutes and other records, plans and wage books. The Trust also has a collection of covenanting material which is housed in Greenhill, a farmhouse which was taken down from its original site at Wiston, on the other side of Tinto Hill from Biggar, and carefully re-erected near Gladstone Court, Biggar. It also owns four churches around Biggar, two of them in the village of Lamington, the old parish church of St Ninian and the laird's private Episcopalian chapel.

The Trust intends converting part of St Ninians as a workshop and studio for a local stained glass artist, using the remainder to tell the story of the early Baillies of Lamington and their links with Sir William Wallace. The laird's private Episcopalian chapel, all 1850s 'Barchester Towers' in inspiration, is filled with brightly painted windows and with encaustic tiling on the chancel floor and walls. Here the story will be told of the young English Member of Parliament and his long neglected Scottish inheritance, the building up of a new estate, visits of royalty and prime ministers,
with the next generation taking their places as governors in India and Australia. Like the Empire, the Big House and the family have gone, and only this small gem and the Victorian village remain to tell the tale.

The other former church open to the public is the Moat Park Heritage Centre in Biggar, opened by HRH The Princess Royal in 1988. The entire history of the upper Clyde and Tweed valleys over the 6,000 years of human habitation is illustrated there. Within the Moat Park offices is a sizeable collection of documents, photographs and other archival material. The earliest charter is of King Robert II for lands given to the Menzies family at Coulter, near Biggar, in 1385. There are also business records, garnered from lawyers attics and from the annual Hogmanay bonfire in the High Street, belonging to long-forgotten milliners, drapers, grain merchants and tailors. From a butcher’s day-book, written with a pencil stump on greasy pages, I learned what my own grandmother was buying to feed her bairns in the 1880s. The local house painter’s records are virtually complete for seventy years. Who would have thought that he once employed thirty men and apprentices? His time books, wage books, estimate books, and ledgers record much of the redecoration of castle and cottage in the area, even the regular painting of the pillar boxes in the villages around Biggar is faithfully recorded.

From my own business came similar records going back to the time when my great uncle kitted out a local farmer for a trip to South America; gun, powder, shot, ramrod and a bowie knife, just in case the gun did not work. The same ledger records that every village had at least one joiner for whom business varied from year to year, from no demands for a coffin to times when diphtheria, scarlet fever or typhus prevailed and he was rushed off his feet. John Gladstone, my great uncle, was ready with coffin handles, gimp pins, mountings and cords, black for grown ups, white for children.

The Friendly Society records provide good genealogical sources, and the local masons have allowed the Trust access to their records to copy relevant details, going back to 1725. Other groups have deposited their records, Gala Days, Flower Shows,
Recreation and Bowling Clubs amongst them. The now defunct Whipman Society and The Clydesdale Volunteers' records are much more useful, in some instances, than the baptismal records of the parish. The Volunteers, in fact, included height, complexion and hair colouring in their records of the young men. More recent records include the ARP and billeting of evacuees at the beginning of the Second World War.

In the day book of the Crawford Inn details can be found of the post-boy's duties between 1831 and 1855, prior to the railway's arrival. Here are the journeys of princes, politicians, engineers, actors and vanloads of criminals for trial, even 'a travelling shop' and the Duchess of Buccleuch's pianoforte on its way from Drumlannig to Dalkeith. A vast collection of newscuttings dating from the 1850s has been laboriously catalogued. 130 years of such trivialities as 'Feline Precocity' jostle with screaming headlines 'ATTEMPT TO PROVE BIGGAR WORTH INSANE'. This records one Mary Cameron who did a mock hari-kari with a pig's bladder filled with blood stuffed up her bosom and a turnip hook in an attempt to melt the heart of the Inspector of Poor, a respectable bank agent, in 1868.

The Trust also has a significant collection of posters, handbills, booklets and tickets from local sources. One such source was a very damp linoleum covered floor under which was found a sodden copy of 'An Agreement Between Master Shoemakers and Workmen' drawing up agreed rates of wages for the repair of all types of ladies' and men's shoes in 1872. From architects and other sources we have built up a collection of house plans. A few of the plans date from the 1830s but the majority date from the turn of the century. The collection also includes the complete work of the principal local firm from the 1900s. Most of these are now catalogued.

Amongst the business records collected by the Trust are numerous ledgers and books kept by blacksmiths and joiners. From these crafts came that of the millwright, and from them the country engineers, keen to industrialise agricultural practice. One country engineer, active in Biggar in the 1850s, trained men who revolutionised the sugar industry, working in the Far East and in
Greenock where the great refineries were situated. Others developed agricultural engineering locally, such as Jimmy Cuthbertson OBE, whose specialist work is to be found on all continents and keeps roads in Britain free of snow in winter.

The most striking example of the engineering tradition, however, was the growth of Albion Motors, the great commercial vehicle manufacturers, which was started with a bond of partnership on the farm of Heavyside, Biggar, in 1899. The two young partners, son and son-in-law of the farmer, himself a self taught architect and civil engineer, were Thomas Blackwood Murray and Norman Fulton. Fed up with slow progress in George Johnston's Mo-Car Syndicate, they struck out for themselves and by 1914 were able to claim to be the largest commercial motor manufacturers in the British Empire. Their company is now part of the Leyland-Daf organisation, still playing an important part in the manufacture of commercial vehicles.

The Biggar Museum Trust houses Albion Motors' remaining archives and has inaugurated an Albion Owners Club which has a world-wide membership. At least once a week we are called upon to date and identify newly re-discovered vehicles and chassis. One such vehicle, magnificently restored by Arnotts, the Australian biscuit manufacturers, was star attraction of several bicentennial parades. The Biggar Trust has now embarked on the provision of a proper Albion Motor Museum, much of the funding coming from the successful vintage rally held here each year in August.

Although there are many thousands of photographs and negatives in the Albion Archive, there are many more in the Trust's own collection built up over the years. Apart from reproductions of Hill Adamson calotypes of local people, the earliest original photographs date from the mid 1850s. As the years pass, the number of photographs in the collection grow, and now, though a recent MSC scheme, modern copy negatives of all prints have been processed and are stored away from the main collection. The Trust has just begun participating in a new Employment Training Programme, through which it is hoped to do the same for the Albion photographs. The most recent photographic acquisitions come from amateur and professional sources. Even
the humble passport photographs are all corn for our crop. What may seem trivial or valueless now may well grow in value to those who come after.

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ROBERT WILLIAMSON PLASTERER AND BUILDER
OF CELLARDYKE, 1843-1911

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Recent research into tenement building in the north Fife coastal
burghs has established the importance of the role played by a
comparatively small number of Cellardyke builders who, by
adopting and developing a two storey formula first evolved in the
1860s, guaranteed its survival and widespread application
throughout the late Victorian and immediate pre First World War
periods.¹ This article focuses on the career of one of the several
individuals identified as active in this respect, Robert Williamson,
and documents his broader contribution to the nineteenth and
early twentieth century development of the Cellardyke, Kilrenny
and Anstruther Easter areas.

A starting point is provided by a group photograph of c.1880
(Plate 1) which includes Robert (back row, extreme left), his elder
brother Thomas (back row, second from right) and younger sister
Isabella (front row, left hand side).² Both brothers had
commenced their careers as plasterers, working within the firm
operated by their father, Robert Williamson of Pittenweem.³

Robert, junior, (born 1843) was approximately forty at the time
the photograph was taken, and was already working on his own
account, operating from a base within the two miles distant burgh
of Kilrenny and Cellardyke. He had married Jane Peat, the
daughter of a local farmer in 1866, and in 1868 occupied a cottage
in Colinsburgh Road, Pittenweem.⁴ Five years later, in July 1873,
he is found advertising on his own behalf, supplying concrete
blocks for house building purposes.⁵ Thomas appears to have
succeeded his father as the active head of the Pittenweem based
firm at approximately this date,⁶ an event that conceivably
determined Robert’s own decision to work independently of the
family concern. No further evidence of his activities emerges until
July 1877 when he is listed as the successful plasterwork
contractor involved in the completion of Cellardyke Public School.⁷
Plate 1. Group photograph, including Robert Williamson (back row, extreme left), c.1880

Plate 2. Nos.10-14 Rodger Street, Cellardyke (1878)
It may have been this commission that first introduced him to the potential of the Cellardyke area where an ambitious programme of tenement building had been in progress for at least a decade, stimulated by the pressing housing needs of an expanding fishing community. By the 1870s tenement building focused on an area adjoining and immediately to the west of Cellardyke School, adhering to the broad outlines of a feuing plan drawn up in 1876, establishing the lay-out of what would eventually constitute Rodger Street and Fowler Street. Work on the first of the Rodger Street plots began in the spring of 1877 under the direction of the Cellardyke builder, Thomas Brown. A second phase of building commenced almost exactly a year later and involved Williamson who purchased an east side feu on 25 April, subsequently (8 August) securing a loan of £350 from the Anstruther notary, David Cook.

The conditions laid down by the feuing agreement envisaged the erection of two terraced houses, at a total cost of £500, thereby approximating to the corner site arrangement already employed by Brown on the west side of Rodger Street. The stipulation was nevertheless ignored by Williamson who, in an open attempt to secure a maximum financial return, proceeded in accordance with a different design, with the external appearance of two dwellings (Plate 2) but subdivided internally into five flats. Four of these were rented, with the remaining two roomed ground floor unit of what now constituted 14 Rodger Street functioning as the Williamson family home. The 1881 census lists this as housing a family of nine, including seven children, some of whom slept in a single storey building to the rear which, again ignoring feu specifications, operated as a works store, providing access to a limeyard.

Whether Williamson was responsible for supervising the construction of these buildings is uncertain, but it is conceivable given his family’s pioneering involvement in concrete house building. His contribution to the subsequent development of the Rodger-Fowler Street area is unfortunately equally difficult to determine with any degree of precision, although he is documented as promoting at least five tenements between 1884 and 1885, almost all built singly and to commission, undertaken
jointly with the husband of his sister Isabella, the Pittenweem joiner, William Lumsden. The family tradition that he was responsible for the majority of the Rodger Street tenements should not, however, be discounted, not least for the fact that it would explain his friendship, assisted no doubt by his 'staunch Unionist' leanings, with the land superior for the area, Charles Henry Bethune, as well as his ability to repay the last instalment of his debt to Cook in November 1883, albeit three months later than the originally agreed date.

Reaffirming the prosperity of the post 1878 period the Williamson family moved house in 1884, this time to an appreciably larger dwelling, 'Castle Cliff' (Plate 3), the first of seven, six-apartment villas, also erected (1884-86) in partnership with Lumsden and sited two hundred yards to the east of Rodger Street, along a section of Toll Road subsequently named 'Williamson Place'. Continuing the momentum of these operations, more land was purchased for house building purposes in 1885, extending along the northern boundary of the main Anstruther Easter-Crail highway. A terrace of eight houses was subsequently erected on the site, constituting Melville Terrace (Plate 4), all undertaken independently of Lumsden, with each dwelling comprising seven apartments. The financial dangers inherent in such a development - which, departing from the precedent of the nearly contemporary Fowler Street tenements, was aimed unmistakably at the Anstruther and Cellardyke merchant community - were lessened by Williamson's by now well established working procedure of building houses singly or in pairs, or to commission.

Significantly, this, by far the most imposing of Williamson's various ventures, was also the only one to be designed by a professional architect, John Currie of Elie. The presence of concrete model buildings in the front and rear gardens of 'Castle Cliff' (Plate 3) raises the possibility that in addition to being aware of the advantages to be gained from self-advertisement, Williamson himself may have had architectural ambitions, but his pretensions in this respect should almost certainly not be exaggerated. In Rodger and Fowler Streets, for example, he simply assimilated an established tenement format, without significant variations.
Elsewhere, his designs invariably incorporated a strictly limited repertoire of simplified Jacobean elements of a type popularised by the pattern books of J C Loudon and perfectly exemplified by the gabled elevations of the Toll Road villas.

The early 1880s had thus witnessed the steady expansion of Williamson's building interests, which in turn reflected the prosperity of a local economy sustained by a prolonged herring

Plate 3. 'Castle Cliff', Williamson Place, Toll Road, Cellardyke (1884), with Robert Williamson in foreground. Photographed c.1910
'boom'.

Not the least impressive of his achievements was the speed with which he secured acceptance within a notoriously tightly knit community. His active involvement in the affairs of Cellardyke Parish Church may have acted as a significant factor in his respect, but it is nevertheless remarkable that as early as 1881, only three years after having taken up residence in the burgh, he was elected to Kilrenny and Cellardyke Town Council. He served from 1884 until his death as a baillie and a member of the Committee of Police Commissioners, the latter post guaranteeing his involvement in decisions of potentially vital importance to the local building trades.

The underlying strength of Williamson's position is demonstrated by his ability to survive the consequences of slump conditions, prompted by a collapse in the fortunes of the Fife fishing fleet, datable to 1885 and lasting until the mid 1890s. Something of the impact that this exerted on the building community can be gauged from the fact that of the four builders operating in Cellardyke and the Anstruthers in the late 1870s and early 1880s, one of them, Thomas Brown, appears to have ceased operating while another, Alexander Wallace, left the area altogether. Revenue provided by Williamson's letted properties may have assumed considerable significance during this period. Reference in this respect has already been made to his earliest (1878) Rodger Street properties, but at least one of his Rodger Street tenements was rented out, as well as one of the Toll Road villas, and almost certainly his original Pittenweem property, supplementing an income that must have depended heavily on his plastering skills. By the 1890s Williamson's dominance of this particular trade was such that he had virtually eliminated rivalry within Cellardyke itself and extended his sphere of operations to include Crail, Ovenston and St Monans. Revealingly, and presumably attesting to the importance place on family loyalties, no attempt appears to have been made to secure contracts in Pittenweem, which he seems to have respected as the preserve of the original family firm.

Evidence of a further and ultimately more significant product of the post 1886 crisis is provided by signs of diversification in the Williamson workforce. Until this period, and indeed until the very
early 1890s, Williamson continued to be described as a 'plasterer', suggesting that a considerable amount of the construction work associated with his building operations was contracted out, perhaps to William Lumsden. In 1893, however, he is also listed in Slater's Trade Directory as a 'builder' and 'slater', a change of status that was clearly dependent on maintaining a more flexible (if not necessarily larger) workforce, capable of tackling a broad range of contracts. These frequently encompassed modest commissions, including concreting, slatering, carpentry and masonry work. It was thus as a general purpose builder that he supervised the repair of Anstruther Union Harbour (1898) and, presumably, the continuing development of the Melville Terrace houses, the last of which progressed slowly and to commission, being finally completed in 1905.

Apparently undeterred by this lack of demand for new housing, Williamson continued to purchase land for building purposes. In 1889, for example, he failed to acquire an undeveloped plot in East Green, Anstruther, having submitted a late bid at slightly below reserve price. Such a tactic was clearly intended to exploit the anxieties produced by slump conditions and was subsequently employed to secure undeveloped properties in the West Forth Street and the Burnside areas.

The eventual revival of the Cellardyke economy - which, as in the 1870s and the 1880s, reflected an upturn in the fortune of the fishing fleet - thus found Williamson well placed to exploit a renewed demand for new and improved houses. In late career his activities continued to be underpinned by a steady demand for his plastering skills, notable commissions including work at Cellardyke School House (1904), Crail School (1908), the Waid Academy (1909) and the Anstruther Murray Library (1907-08). Contrast was provided by the importance now placed on purchasing existing properties, frequently in derelict condition, which were renovated and rented out. By far the largest of these was Toft Terrace, Cellardyke, consisting of five houses purchased in 1900 and subsequently subdivided into one-, two- and three- apartment units. Tenement properties in James Street were acquired and renovated at approximately this time, as was Cellardyke's Old Infant School, bought by Williamson in 1901 and remodelled and
Plate 4. Melville Terrace, Anstruther Easter (1885-1905)

Plate 5. Burnside Terrace, Cellardyke (1905-1909)
extended to form six two-apartment flats, all of which were rented.\textsuperscript{39}

The extent of this involvement in letted property raises the possibility that, as he approached the age of sixty, Williamson was anticipating retirement. Confounding this, house building continued under his direction, soon surpassing the scale of his early and mid career operations. In 1906 work began on Burnside Terrace, on land purchased cheaply one year earlier.\textsuperscript{40} Eleven six-apartment houses were subsequently erected (Plate 5), all aimed at well-to-do fisher families. Two were rented, with the remainder built to commission, each selling at £480.\textsuperscript{41} Williamson's pride in the undertaking is suggested by the existence of two formally posed photographs commemorating work in progress on the last of the houses (Plate 6),\textsuperscript{42} which was completed in 1909 when the monogram 'R. W.' was added to the southernmost gable. The photographs confirm that Williamson's workforce now consisted of at least fifteen men, including hewers, carpenters and a carter, and involved three of his sons, the eldest of whom, Robert, eventually inherited the Cellardyke firm.

A second terrace, begun a year earlier in neighbouring Kilrenny, met with less success: although the first two houses sold quickly, a third, also undertaken on a speculative basis, failed to attract a purchaser and was only rented with difficulty, prompting the premature curtailment of the development (Plate 7).\textsuperscript{43} Problems encountered at precisely the same time in letting vacant flats in Toft Terrace and the Old Infant School\textsuperscript{44} point to the onset of yet another slump, this time of national proportions, that would last throughout the remainder of the pre-War period. In contrast to the caution displayed twenty years earlier Williamson appears to have ignored these signs of threatening recession, and had already embarked upon at least two further housing developments\textsuperscript{45} at the time of his death, following a heart seizure, on 1 September 1911.\textsuperscript{46}

The value of his estate, a comparatively modest £1339.5.0,\textsuperscript{47} is presumably to be explained by the extent of his investment in unfinished projects, one of which, Burnside Place Terrace, was subsequently abandoned following the completion of only two houses. Lauded in his obituary as a 'sound practical man ... of a
Plate 6. The Williamson workforce, with Robert Williamson in centre. Photographed during the construction of No.11 Burnside Terrace, c.1909

Plate 7. Kilrenny Terrace, photographed shortly after the curtailment of work, c.1908
genial and hearty disposition’, who would be, ‘remembered for his share in adding to the town’.\textsuperscript{48} Williamson deserves to be recognised as having made an enormously important contribution to the housing stock of a community that never in the nineteenth century supported an orthodox architectural practice. Although it would not again operate on a scale comparable to its pre First World War activities, the firm itself survived a further two generations. It latterly divided into distinct plastering and joinery concerns, both of which closed in the last decade following the respective retirements of Robert’s grandsons, Robert and James Williamson.

NOTES

2. Identified by Miss Jane Don of Cellardyke, a granddaughter of Robert Williamson, who kindly made available material made use of in this article, including plates 1, 3, 6 and 7.
3. As such both were presumably involved in the firm’s major commission of the early 1870s, the interiors of Earlsferry town hall, 1871-3. \textit{East of Fife Record}, 21 March 1873, p. 3. The 1871 census of Pittenweem burgh (p.38) lists Robert senior as inhabiting a West Row property. He was then aged 66, having been born in Kennoway, Fife, as were his sons Thomas, Robert, Alexander (born 1848), and George (born 1852), the last two of whom are also listed as ‘plasterers’.
4. A ‘Bond of Disposition...in favour of David Cook’, lists the Colinsburgh Road property as a security against a loan of £350 (see below fn. 10) and confirms that it was purchased in 1868, remaining in Williamson’s possession after 1878, presumably for letting purposes.
10. Relevant title deeds, feu disposition, and 'Bond of Disposition...in favour of David Cook', all in the possession of the present owners of no. 10 Rodger Street.

11. Plans in possession of the present owner no.10 Rodger Street.

12. 1881 census of Kilrenny burgh, p.15. Ex-information Miss J Don and the late Mr J Williamson, Cellardyke.

13. For a particularly ambitious application of the system see Thomas's own house, the appropriately named 'Concrete Villa', Main Street, Pittenweem, c.1890.


15. Obituary, East of Fife Record, 7 September 1911, p. 4.

16. Ibid, 26 February 1886, p.2, records that he was a guest at Bethune's wedding celebrations at Markinch.

17. 'Note of discharge', in possession of present owner, no. 10 Rodger Street.

18. The second house was advertised in the East of Fife Record, 14 March 1884, p. 1, as 'that cottage...adjoining Mr Robert Williamson's', i.e. 'Glen Gair', Williamson Place, Toll Road. The firm's store and limeyard was presumably transferred at the same time, also to a site in Toll Road, now occupied by T M Band, Plasterer and Slater. The new house, 'Castle Cliff', provided Williamson with an opportunity to display his plastering skills, resulting in a sequence of deeply moulded ceilings, one of which, incorporated an allegory of the four elements, elaborated upon a version of the same theme already introduced in no. 14 Rodger Street.

19. East of Fife Record, 26 June 1885, p. 2.

20. The first house (out of two completed) sold in March 1887 for 'fully £400', Ibid., 18 March 1887, p. 2.

21. Ibid., 26 June 1885, p. 2.


23. East of Fife Record, 7 September 1911, p. 4.


25. His major interventions in this respect involved extensions of the burgh drainage system which on at least two occasions benefited his own developments, East of Fife Record, 2 April 1886, p.; 23 August 1901, p.4.


27. Ibid.

28. East of Fife Record, 13 March 1885, p. 1. (See above fn. 4.)

29. Key information in this respect is provided by the Business Book of the St Andrews architect, David Henry (now in the possession of Mr G Pryde, St
Andrews), which confirms Robert Williamson's responsibility for the plasterwork of Crail School (1894-95), Crail Police Station (1898), Ovenstone Hospital (1894-96) and St Monans Police Station (1902). *Business Book*, pp. 93-5, 153, 155, 248, 251.

30. His only recorded Pittenweem commission (for the plasterwork of an unspecified double villa) was secured in 1903, *East of Fife Record*, 20 November 1903, p. 4. Thomas perhaps reflecting his family seniority, secured a significant number of Anstruther (but not Cellardyke) commissions during the same period, including the interior of the Waid Academy (1884) and Anstruther Free Church (1889). *Henry Business Book*, pp. 1-2, 83.


34. 'Some properties...one said to have changed hands at a discount of 50 per cent and more. *Ibid.*, 4 October 1889, p. 2.


41. The *Rent Book* of Robert Williamson, junior, 1911-43 (now in the possession of Miss J Don, Cellardyke) includes two Burnside Terrace houses. Ex-information Mr W Thomson, Cellardyke.

42. Copies of which are held by Miss J Don, Cellardyke and the Scottish Fisheries Museum, Anstruther.


44. *Ibid.*, 28 September 1906, p. 1. The Kilrenny Terrace and Old Infant School lets were advertised for six successive weeks in *Ibid.*, 1 May 1908 to 5 June 1908 and the Kilrenny Terrace lets alone from 12 June to 24 July 1908.

45. Burnside Place (immediately behind Burnside Terrace) and Harbourhead, Cellardyke, *East of Fife Record*, September 1910, p. 4; 30 December 1909, p. 4.

47. *Court Book of Commissariat of Fife*, 7 February 1912. His household furniture and effects and stock-in-trade were valued at £11.8s.9d. *Inventory*, in possession of Miss J Don, Cellardyke.

1990 saw the centenary of the practical application of a new, commercially-viable, process for the refining of gold by the use of potassium cyanide by a man who fell foul of the international gold-mining bureaucracy: men who, in spite of their new-found wealth, saw fit to deny royalties to the chemist who made their fortunes.

In a score of the remoter areas of Scotland, from Ayrshire to the Shetland Islands, test-boring has been taking place recently to determine the expected profitability of new gold and silver mining industries. Most of the small, new companies holding exploration licences from the Crown Estates Commission are specially formed for the purpose, but many of them - including a majority with North American origins - have the names of classic international mining conglomerates, such as Rio Tinto Zinc and Consolidated Goldfields, associated with them. Particular interest has been centred on the area near Tyndrum, Perthshire, where one site at Cononish is said to be capable of a £60 million yield.

Despite the current level of international concern for environmental issues, a technique likely to be central to the recovery of the gold - and now recognised as environmentally undesirable - involves separation by dissolving crushed ore in potassium cyanide followed by precipitation using metallic zinc, followed by recycling of the cyanide solutions. In this connection it is worthwhile remembering one of Scotland's unsung heroes - the man who, a hundred years ago, brought to fruition this particular process of gold recovery, and who, in doing so, made possible the resurrection of the world's goldmining industry (at that time facing dereliction due to the inefficiencies of the recovery techniques then available). The most spectacular successes were in South Africa, where he has been lauded as the man who, more than any other, was responsible for that country's wealth and prosperity. Yet within a very few years of the introduction of his process, he was
dragged through their courts in a vicious display of corporate greed as the South African mine-owners fought - successfully - to prove a technical patent deficiency which enabled them, and the rest of the world, to avoid paying royalties on the use of the process.

John Stewart MacArthur was born in Norfolk Street, Hutchesontown, Glasgow, in December 1856 - one of six brothers and a sister. Their father, Robert Semple MacArthur, worked in a tailor's warehouse. Whether unable or unwilling to enter University, the young MacArthur left school at the age of fourteen - and became an apprentice chemist at the works of the Tharsis Sulpher and Copper Company, part of the great Tennant Chemical Empire. He continued, at evening classes, to study metallurgy, chemistry and mathematics until he was twenty-two.

The Tharsis company is a spectacular example of nineteenth-century Scottish business enterprise. Charles Tennant was central in taking over the originally French-owned mines in southern Spain. By developing new patents, which ensured not only a massive exploitation of sulphur production for the world's expanding chemical industry but also the additional benefit of copper recovery from the sulphur residues, the Tharsis company became the epitome of the Victorian entrepreneurial spirit - and the owner of the world's most profitable copper mine.¹ James Bone, brother of Muirhead Bone (painter, and official war artist), writing in 1901 of the Conservative Club in Glasgow's Bothwell Street, said:

it is famous for its lunches, this Club, and on the days when the Tharsis Copper Company declares its divided, there is served, they say, in a private room, to shareholders only, a meal which would pervert a vegetarian.²

The young MacArthur quickly developed his metallurgical expertise in the high-profile success of the Tennant empire. An interest in photographic chemistry brought him into contact with two brothers, Robert Wardrop Forrest and William Forrest, physicians, whose practice was based in Crown Street, in the Gorbals district of Glasgow. From a simple use of photographic gold toning techniques, MacArthur's work for the Tharsis company
into the recovery of precious metals led the three men to consider the problems of gold recovery - in particular, recovery of gold from refractory ores (in which the metal was in complex association with other materials). The three were joined by George Morton, a businessman, who agreed to fund their private researches - mostly carried out in the basement of the Forrests' consulting rooms after they had all finished their day's work, and the four men formed a partnership. MacArthur later wrote of those days:

We certainly were not capitalists, only a quartet of enthusiasts carrying out research in the evenings in a glory-hole under the consulting rooms of the two Forrests. We did most of our work between 8pm and 2am; it was usual to have pies and a pot of tea sent in from the nearest restaurant about 11 pm.\(^3\)

In 1885 the MacArthur-Forrest Research Syndicate began seriously to attempt a cheap and simplified method of gold recovery: at that time, amalgamation was the most widely used method of separating fine gold, but was only of use in recovering that proportion of the gold which existed as free metal. A considerable amount of gold was always in intimate association with iron pyrites and other sulphides: the use of mercury, and subsequent roasting, chlorination and smelting processes were either too expensive or for geographical reasons impossible. The world's goldfields - and principally those in South Africa - were stagnating and massive tailings were accumulating at mines from which only about 45 to 55 per cent extraction had been possible.

During the previous year, in 1884, Henry Renner Cassel, a German-born metallurgist from New York, and a Glasgow accountant, James Napier, had established the Cassel Gold Extracting Company in Glasgow with £150,000 in share capital. This was a time of great activity among a considerable number of Scottish mineral extraction companies, and needless to say, Charles Tennant was behind the new company, paying H R Cassel £50,000 in shares.\(^4\) In 1882 and 1883 Cassel had patented an electrolytic gold extraction process, and with the formation of the Cassel company, MacArthur wrote a critical review of the procedure in a professional journal.\(^5\) He was spurred into the search for a simpler, purely chemical method, and
simultaneously attracted the interest of his superiors in the Tharsis company:

The syndicate resolved not to use electricity, as my one short experience of the difficulty of applying the electric current to a mass of sodden ore was quite dissuasive. All the same, I did my best for a year to make electrolytic chlorination an industrial possibility. An occasional flash of success lured us on time after time, but the work was disheartening; we might get a good result on an ore from India or Victoria, but not on ores from Peru or Queensland.6

The new Cassel Gold Extraction Company had established a laboratory in Verulam Street, off Gray's Inn Road in London, and head offices in Glasgow's West George Street. Contacts were made with and ores tested from mines in Spain, USA, Venezuela, South Africa and elsewhere. Cassel himself was generating disagreement with the board over his assignment to the company of his patents, and the board was refusing to make payments to him until he did so. However, experiments in London appeared to be very successful and mining companies were queuing up to collaborate with the exciting new company. One such enquiry, from the Richardson Gold & Silver Mining Company of Colorado and Idaho was rebuffed by the Cassel directors in typically ebullient fashion:

we cannot enter into any agreement, beyond testing their ores, as we wish to form a company of our own to work the whole of America.7

Cassel himself had travelled to Hungary, Transylvania and Costa Rica, and in May 1885 was in America on a trip planned to include Canada, Australia and New Zealand - constantly seeking to promote licences and syndicates to work his process. However, his deviousness became a matter of deep concern to the board. The negotiations he was conducting over the possible formation of an American Syndicate were highly unsatisfactory: the board discovered that Cassel was illegally attempting to sell his shares in the company. The last straw came when it was discovered that not only had the equipment in London been mysteriously sabotaged prior to Cassel's departure abroad, but, when repairs
had been made, it proved impossible to repeat the successes which had earlier been claimed.²

Two of the company's directors went to New York to intercede with Cassel, but he constantly failed to appear at arranged meetings and gave no indication that he would return to Britain. The company was discussing action for breach of contract against him and the lawyers in Glasgow cabled their American agents advising them to, 'keep a watch on Cassel in case of fraud.' The company was in a shambles, with almost £100,000 spent on pursuing Cassel's techniques - which even he had now abandoned. In November 1886 it was resolved that the laboratories be moved to Glasgow, and that, 'a thoroughly practical man who understands and has confidence in the process be engaged to take charge of the investigation.' Having just read John Stewart MacArthur's criticisms of the Cassel process, the directors of the Tharsis company decided that MacArthur was such a man, and at the age of thirty he became technical manager of the Cassel company, at an annual salary of £350 plus 500 company shares.³ Cassel was behind a further fraudulent attempt to refine gold, with a new company in London in 1898 - the Gold Extraction & Bromine Recovery Company. He had substantial support, principally from Sir William Crookes and William Ramsay, both of whom were comprehensively dismissed by Cassel's critics, who said of their report, that 'it would not be creditable as a thesis in a first class school of metallurgy'. Cassel made a number of unsuccessful attempts to obtain money from the Cassel Company and, in 1901, to gain support for an application to the Institution of Mining and Metallurgy in London - support which was not forthcoming in Glasgow for a candidacy which was not accepted in London.

Two months before he accepted the Cassel appointment, MacArthur and the Forrest brothers had registered their own first provisional patent for a gold extraction process based on potassium cyanide as a solvent for gold, and further improvements were patented in 1887.⁴ It was agreed that their syndicate would offer the provisional patent to the Cassel company while they perfected it and, if successful, the company would refund
expenses, pay £2,000 in cash, and one-third of profits from using and licensing the process.¹¹

New premises were bought in January 1887 in West Scotland Street, Kinning Park, Glasgow and MacArthur embarked on a long series of tests, with the company now backing his own work rather than that of Cassel:

Among the various solvents on our programme for trial, we had included potassium cyanide, and in November 1886, we tried the effect of it on the tailings of one of the Indian gold mines and, as usual, treated the solution with sulphuretted hydrogen for recovery of the gold, and, getting none, we passed on to our next solvent. We had neglected to notice that sulphuretted hydrogen did not precipitate gold from its solution in cyanide, and thus our experiment was, for the time, relegated to the shelf.¹²

Eleven months later, while devising an analytical test, MacArthur realised his earlier oversight and considered the possibility that the cyanide solvent may have indeed been successful:

Immediately a sample of rich concentrates from a Californian mine was treated, and on this occasion we examined the residue rather than the solution, and found a high percentage of extraction. A sample of poor concentrates from India was now treated, and again a high extraction was obtained. The results were startling. We unearthed the residues from the old experiments (all our work was done in duplicate) and to our intense satisfaction we found that they too had transferred their gold to the cyanide solution.¹³

MacArthur devised a precipitation process in which the cyanide solution was passed through metallic zinc to recover the gold (in fact, he tried various forms of zinc, and eventually settled on crude zinc shavings). One of the important features of MacArthur's process was the fact that, after precipitation of the metallic gold, the cyanide solution could be recovered and re-used.

As the significance of the new process was realised, MacArthur had occasion to remember wryly the condition of the Tharsis-Cassel arrangement that the company should have prior rights:
The assistance of the capitalist did not arrive until after the invention had been made, proved, and taken over. The whole burden of research was on the shoulders of our quartet.\textsuperscript{14}

The ability of cyanide to dissolve gold had been known for many years, but no viable process had been devised in which practical concentration had been identified, or which allowed for precipitation of the dissolved gold from solution without the assistance of further complex chemical or electrolytic methods. Even in 1888, there were continuing arguments over concentrations, and whether oxygen was necessary. In fact, no gold had ever been refined using a simple cyanide process. In addition, MacArthur was able to prove a process which would be commercially viable. The MacArthur-Forrest patents were registered in Britain in October 1887 and July 1888 and, crucially, in the Transvaal in the South African Republic in September 1888 and May 1889. The British patent rights were vested in the Cassel Company, and those of the Transvaal in the African Gold Recovery Company, which was established to operate the patents in South Africa. The Cassel Company further incorporated The Australian Gold Recovery Co Ltd, the Mexican Gold & Silver Recovery Co Ltd, and The Gold & Silver Extraction Co of America Ltd, in order to develop and control the patents and licences in a number of other countries.\textsuperscript{15}

Before the end of 1889, the Cassel Company had opened a second factory at Great Wellington Street, Glasgow, for the manufacture of cyanide, and had sent expeditions to New Zealand, America, Chile, British Columbia, India, Mexico, Russian Asia and South Africa, and trials and experimental cyanide plants were established in all major gold-mining centres. The first 'Cyanide Gold' was banked at Ravenswood in Queensland, Australia, and the first purpose-built cyanide plant was erected for the Crown mines at Karangahake, in the North Island of New Zealand. MacArthur himself travelled extensively, going initially to America and South Africa. Many of his principal collaborators - Alfred James, C J Ellis, William Dempster and others - preceded him, to arrange demonstration plants.
After a long and difficult journey to Johannesburg in April 1890, MacArthur noted:

At Johannesburg some mills were going, but many were silent. The boom had passed and the blight had come. As the possibility and opportunity of speculation had dwindled, the crowd of irresponsibles who dubbed themselves brokers also dwindled till very few were left. The whole mining industry was in a precarious state. At least one-third of the houses and stores were unoccupied and gloom was general. Families were leaving, offices were being closed, and cheap sales of pianos and safes blocked the Market Square.\(^{16}\)

Within two years of adopting the MacArthur-Forrest process, the economy of the Rand had substantially improved, and the Witwatersrand goldfields were becoming the premier gold producers of the world, now successfully refining up to 98 per cent of the gold left in the many thousands of tons of tailings previously abandoned as unworkable. Output from the Rand goldfields using MacArthur’s process was 286 ounces in 1890 and by 1894 had reached an annual total of 549,781 ounces.\(^{17}\)

The world-wide demand to licence the MacArthur-Forrest Process led the Cassel directors to express concern at the annual general meeting in 1889 that the company would require to expand greatly its cyanide manufacturing capacity, not only to satisfy its own needs, but to supply the world’s mining industry. A further site was acquired, briefly, at Kirkintilloch, Dunbartonshire and another at Glenpark Street, just off Duke Street, Glasgow. Cyanide production was expanded, and a sophisticated training programme was started at West Scotland Street, in order that plant could be constructed and shipped abroad, accompanied by the company’s chemists who would supervise the new plant and companies being established in the remotest corners of the earth.

West Scotland Street became something of a legend in its own time as the centre of the startling assault which was being made on the world’s goldmining industry:

Drab and smokey were the surroundings but there was a sparkle of romance in the street for on a doorway leading to a small lane was the legend - Cassel Gold
Extracting Co. Ltd. The name of the company was engraved on a small brass plate, and it was the minute size of the plate, a few inches each way, that first attracted the eye.¹⁸

By December 1890 the company had representatives in every goldmining country in the world - a considerable achievement, given the rigours of foreign travel and the fact that mining areas were almost inevitably in the most inaccessible areas. At the company’s annual general meeting that year, with contacts just established in Chile, Peru and Bolivia, and MacArthur returned in triumph from South Africa, the shareholders were told, 'The Heather is now on fire.'

MacArthur was in South Africa again in 1891, and wrote to the Forrests in Glasgow:

Business is booming and we are bound to make a lot of money as far as I can see and judge. Lord Randolph Churchill dropped in on me at two seconds notice at the Salisbury [Mine] the other day and of course showed great interest in the matter - one does not get the chance of lecturing a lord every day.¹⁹

However, South African gratitude was not to last. Mine owners paid royalties of approximately 7.5 per cent of the gold recovered to the Cassel company via The African Gold Recovery Company, but by 1892 they had petitioned the Volksraad Chamber of Mines to seek a reduction. A number of negotiations failed to settle the matter, and attention was drawn to the use of another cyanide process being used by the Rand Central Ore Reduction Company at a royalty of only 3 per cent (in this case a method using electrolytic separation, as distinct from the simpler, chemical method of MacArthur). Demands were being made for the courts to declare the MacArthur-Forrest patents invalid:

The royalties now paid constitute a heavy tax upon the resources of many struggling companies, and in the absence of any apparent present disposition on the part of the recovery company to meet the industry halfway, it is hardly a matter for surprise that strenuous opposition should be aroused. This we consider is a matter of extreme regret. Whether the patents should
be proved valid or not, there can be no question that the MacArthur-Forrest process has been of the utmost service to the Witwatersrand mining industry and that its introduction and present enormous success has been almost entirely due to the energy and ingenuity displayed by the local representatives of the African Gold Recovery Company. 

By this time, there were all sorts of complications involving patent rights in different countries, and MacArthur - never the grasping businessman - was feeling that his interests were being compromised, partly as a result of his being so often abroad. Letters and cables - some of them coded - were forever flying about, and he was more and more having to balance the interests of himself and the Forrests with those of their syndicate, The Cassel Company, The African Company, and all the others which were now involved. In a letter from South Africa to the Forrests in August 1891, he refers to an unsigned, coded cable he had received: he had not known who had sent it, but says:

> everything seemed to point to the Cassel Co having sent it - it fitted in with Board meeting days - its tone was rather of the West George Street than Crown Street flavour (I thought there was somewhat of "cussedness" in it which I do not associate with you).

And again, a few days later, he reveals that a cable from himself to Forrest, saying, 'Berasung Inditer, Pickaninny Bright' had been code for 'Business increasing, prospects bright' and had been written that way because there had been a lot of cabling in regard to:

> a large order of cyanide and about some other things, and I thought it would not do to have you out in the cold. You will perceive that I could not cable you details but I have this week sent a lot of business items to my wife, which she will tell you at once.

During the course of 1893, two further cyanide production works were opened in Glasgow, at Cathcart and, more significantly, at Shuna Street, Ruchill. The site at Shuna Street - generally known within the company as Maryhill - was to become the main centre of chemical experiment and cyanide production. The cyanide
manufacturing process which was favoured was being developed by George (later Sir George) Beilby, assisted by several others who were to achieve fame in industrial chemistry - notably Alexander Fleck, later Lord Fleck, chairman of Imperial Chemical Industries Ltd (ICI). In 1892 and 1893, MacArthur and the Forrests were following other directions in metallurgy, independent of the Cassel Company, which offered the Cathcart works to MacArthur for his own experiments. The Cassel Company's business was certainly booming: their exhibit at the World's Fair in Chicago in 1893 had been a huge boost, companies were formed in the USA, Chile and Mexico, and new contracts were being negotiated in Columbia, Brazil, Russia, Venezuela and the Straits Settlements, Malaya. In Australia, the Adelaide Register reported:

Ministers' eyes glistened on Monday morning, or at any rate it may be fairly inferred that they did, for beside the dusty, musty dockets they were enabled to gaze on glittering gold. It consisted of fifty-four and a quarter ounces obtained by the Cyanide Process - the first cake of the precious metal obtained at Wadnaminga by chemical reduction.23

However, matters in South Africa were less satisfactory. The aggressiveness of the mine-owners was not abating in the unstable political circumstances which were leading up to the Boer War, and the annual general meeting of 1893 heard that:

The question of patent rights in Africa has been causing some uneasiness in the minds of shareholders, owing to the circulation of certain sensational paragraphs emanating from Johannesburg.24

The Combined Mining Companies in the Transvaal persisted with their vendetta against the MacArthur-Forrest patents. 'The Great Cyanide Case' - as it became known - was begun at the High Court in Pretoria in February 1896. The detail of the case is essential technical, but, as in most patent cases, it revolved around arguments which suggested that the patents in question did not truly describe 'an invention' of something previously unknown.
The fact that MacArthur had successfully accomplished on an industrial scale what had before only been done by a different method in the laboratory did not enable him to protect his patents. The case was proved for the Chamber of Mines and against the African Gold Recovery Company, and the patents were annulled. Other countries in which the MacArthur-Forrest Process had been patented followed suit, and the Cassel Company and MacArthur both ceased to benefit in any way from the world-wide use of their process.

MacArthur was deprived of the material prosperity which should have been his, yet the service he rendered to metallurgy was outstanding, and he continued to be accorded universal acknowledgment. International business desired to obtain an unfair profit from the work of a pioneering genius, but MacArthur - never bitter - was owed an enormous debt. Even in South Africa, he was still revered; in one of metallurgy's classic textbooks on gold refining, published in 1911, the dedication is to MacArthur: whose pioneer researches and introduction in 1890 of the Cyanide Process, as an essential feature of Rand metallurgical practice, have rendered possible the successful treatment of ore on scientific principles, and have been a prime factor in establishing the Witwatersrand goldfields as the premier gold producer in the world.25

As recently as 1988 the President of the South African Institute of Mining and Metallurgy noted in an address to the Institute: Had it not been for the invention of the MacArthur-Forrest Cyanide Process, there is every likelihood that South Africa's economic development would have died before it had even had a real chance to begin its true growth.26

Writing an account of the Pretoria court case in 1933, Gray and McLachlan said:

an endeavour has been made to present the outstanding points ... as dispassionately as possible, and if at times there has crept into the text what may appear as a bias towards the achievements of MacArthur in this respect, it is due to an admiration
which is but natural, towards the work of such an outstanding industrial chemist.\textsuperscript{27}

In Glasgow the attitude of the Cassel Company was very composed. On the day of the annual general meeting in 1899, for example, a letter was published in the \textit{Glasgow Herald} from a shareholder who expressed disappointment in the directors, who, the letter claimed, seemed to have no concern for the future of the patents in South Africa after the Boer War. At the annual general meeting that afternoon the chairman referred to the letter and his response to it seems to typify the prevailing attitude:

This company, in the first place, has nothing now to do with the patents in South Africa, beyond its interest as a shareholder in the African Gold Recovery Co, so that any question as to royalties there is entirely in the hands of the African Gold Recovery Co Ltd.\textsuperscript{28}

In October 1900 MacArthur engaged in correspondence with J Percy Fitzpatrick of Cape Town, whose book on the affair had been published by Heinemann. MacArthur objected to claims that attempts had been made to persuade senior officers of the African Company to compromise on royalties, prior to the court case. Fitzpatrick replied by suggesting that MacArthur, as discoverer of the process was not necessarily in possession of all the facts, and pointed out that the mining companies had got together and agreed that the African Company would not have to pay £30,000 of the costs which the court had awarded. MacArthur replied, saying that he appreciated the tone of Fitzpatrick's letter and agreed with him that there would be no difficulty in their coming to a good understanding as individuals - but there was a third party involved, the British public:

\begin{quote}
 to whom [the British Public] you have given your view and to whom I would like my view of the case to be stated in some better form that a controversy in print.

I regret that I cannot share your appreciation of the spirit of the Mining Companies who, when they had the power in their hands, exacted £20,000 of costs from the Cassel Co that had, in the face of scepticism and sarcasm, introduced the Cyanide Process and saved the gold industry of the Transvaal from extinction. It
was the Combined Mining Companies, who had become wealthy by the Cyanide Process that combined their wealth to crush the Company who had pointed out the way to them. It was the Combined Companies who, having the direction of the case, applied for costly commissions to examine witnesses, some of whom would not have dared to have given their evidence before even a Transvaal judge.29

In the wake of the decision in the South African courts, the Cassel Gold Extracting Company became - in 1906 - the Cassel Cyanide Company, and built up a world-wide reputation over many more years for the production of cyanides for the mining industry. It became part of Brunner Mond, and therefore of ICI, in 1927, cyanide production moving to Tees-side in 1931.

MacArthur resigned as a Cassel director in December 1905, but was appointed extraordinary director - a position he retained until 1909. He continued to experiment as a practical metallurgist and travelled the world in the course of examining mines and ore deposits; wherever he went he was received with acclaim. In 1907 he established the Antimony Recovery Syndicate and in 1911 became interested in the refining of radium. He established a small works at Gas Street in Runcorn, Cheshire, adjacent to the Bridgewater Canal, where he employed about two dozen assistants, whom he trained in the highly-toxic methods of radium bromide production. In 1914 he supplied 600 milligrams of radium bromide to the newly-formed Glasgow and West of Scotland Radium Committee, which was established to ensure a supply of this new and 'magical' element for therapeutic purposes. The committee's chemist, who was to further crystalise the radium bromide, was Alexander Fleck.30

Radium salts had been isolated only at the turn of the century and were still principally the subject of laboratory investigation. The main uses envisaged for radium were in medical treatment of cancers and skin conditions - sometimes by the use of tiny glass tubes of radium salts in close contact, and sometimes by the use of 'radium emanation' or radon gas, which could be inhaled or used to modify substances or liquids. MacArthur initially produced radium bromide for medical uses, but was also interested in
radioactive fertilisers (the subject of much research in America and England by Suttons Seeds) and the manufacture of radium-based paints for luminous dials and military equipment, such as gunsights. The refining of uranium and vanadium for use in high-grade steel production was also under investigation.

Writing in 1919, MacArthur noted that during the years of the war the government had effectively controlled radium production for its own purposes and he expressed anxiety that, since the production of radium had hardly established a pre-war eminence, it was difficult to know how the industry might develop after hostilities ended. He envisaged three likely areas of development: radiotherapy, luminous paint manufacture and fertiliser production.

Much of the early history of radium production was characterised by what today would be though to be fanciful and dangerous practices, and some of the patents which were granted for radium products hardly bear belief. Many of the problems associated with the use of radium-based products first surfaced in the radium dial-painting industry in New Jersey and elsewhere in the United States, following the diligence of a New York dentist, who observed the catastrophic results of a number of bad practices in the handling of radium-based luminous paint. MacArthur, however, although a pioneer in radium production, was aware that caution was required in dealing with this wonderful new element, which in some quarters was being used rather more for entertainment than anything else. At the New York Casino, there were 'radium dances' and 'radium roulette', and the new 'fun' substance was part of the plot of a new musical comedy called 'Piff! Paff! Pouf!!'.

Not long after the discovery of radium, the similarity of its radiations to the X-Rays suggested that it might be of use in medicine. Accordingly it was soon possible to obtain radium water, mud or vapour baths at various Continental spas, which established 'emanatoria'. The treatment was used mainly for rheumatic subjects and neuropaths. It is hardly to be wondered at that the multitude of adventitious aids to bodily and mental well-being which are to be found at such resorts tended to obscure the real nature of the curative
powers of radium, but in other quarters radio-therapy was being taken much more seriously. It was discovered that radium was effective in arresting some forms of malignant disease, and much successful work was done in this connection, so that a steady market had just been created for the radium producer when war broke out in 1914. A natural consequence of the war was that the progress of radio-therapeutics was much delayed through lack of workers and shortage of material. In the near future there will be a large demand on the part of the medical profession for radium, not only for the treatment of disease where it is known to be of service, but also for doing experimental work. So important has this application of radium seemed, that medical men have advised the government of the United States to see to it that the whole of the radium supply in that country is reserved for medical purposes alone. They regret that so much of the limited supply of radium should be dissipated in the manufacture of luminous paint for watches, electric bell pushes, etc.

There remains the use of low-grade radium residues as fertilizer. These residues, still containing a very small quantity of radium, have been found to exert a stimulating influence on plant growth. The precise nature of the stimulus is not yet absolutely known, and has been hotly disputed. Some have denied the beneficial influence of radium altogether, but the weight of experimental evidence appears to be against them, and it is found that there is a steady demand for radium residues on the part of agriculturists and horticulturists.

Whether or not the production of radium is a key industry is a question which the mere scientist may think it presumptuous to answer; but it certainly ought to receive the attention of those who are devoting themselves to the solution of the problems of reconstruction.32
There was one other radium refinery in Britain prior to MacArthur's - the British Radium Corporation's works in Limehouse, London, opened in 1910, where Cornish ores were refined. Large volumes of Cornish ore were also exported to France or Germany for refining - greatly increasing the cost, and MacArthur was determined to ease the situation, using imported carnotite from Utah and Colorado in the United States of America and pitchblende from Portugal.

As radium is analogous to, and by all purely chemical tests indistinguishable from barium, it suffices to treat an ore as if one wanted to extract barium, which, generally speaking, is converted to carbonate by treatment with carbonate of soda, the carbonates thus formed being dissolved in hydrochloric acid and separated from most of the soluble constituents by precipitation with sulphuric acid. This precipitate contains, besides the radium, the barium and lead contained in the ore. The other constituents, such as uranium, vanadium and bismuth, are dealt with by ordinary laboratory methods applied on the industrial scale.

Finally, one has to deal with a mixture of barium and radium sulphates, the former in overwhelming excess, say one part of radium to 100,000 of barium. The mixture of sulphates is solubilised by carbonating as before, dissolved in hydrochloric acid and crystallised. It is found that when such a solution is saturated at the boiling point and allowed to cool, it deposits half of its barium, which contains four-fifths of the radium. This fractionation is repeated time after time, passing the crystals forward and the mother liquors back, so that each lot of back-going mother liquor meets the lower lot of forward-going crystals to form a new solution for a new crop.33

In April 1915, MacArthur formed J S MacArthur Ltd as an operating company, and transferred his radium operation from Runcorn to the banks of the River Leven at Balloch, Strathclyde, at the southern end of Loch Lomond, where he set up in the
buildings of a former sawmill, on land owned by his wife's family. (Plates 1 and 2) The site at Runcorn which he vacated was used to accommodate the Antimony Recovery Company.

The radium refining process was extremely hazardous, time-consuming and costly, involving much washing and boiling with acids, and up to 500 separate fractional crystallisations, depending on the level of purity required. In order to produce one of the tiny glass tubes for medical use containing 100 milligrams of radium bromide an intense chemical process was required, involving twelve tons of ore, three tons of hydrochloric acid, one ton of sulphuric acid, five tons of sodium carbonate and ten tons of coal, and large volumes of clean water. The cost was spectacularly high. MacArthur noted, at the time of the move to Balloch:

Radium certainly seems to be expensive till one comes to consider the matter closely. 50 milligrams cost £1,000 but that would be sufficient for the treatment of 100 persons a year, which means only £10 a head: but as the life of radium is many centuries, one need not consider anything beyond a rental, and assuming that the rental is 10 per cent of the value, the treatment of 100 patients would cost £1 each. And then the value of the radium is not exhausted. In calculating the price, one has to remember all the circumstances of the production of radium. The ore is not plentiful. A great part of it comes from the remote Rocky Mountains, and before it lands in this country it has actually cost about £20 a ton for transport. Then its extraction involves, say, 50 delicate operations, and though the ore contains about one-sixth part of a grain to the ton, it is not safe to reckon on getting more than one grain from ten tons.\(^\text{34}\)

In 1918 MacArthur paid extensive visits to derelict mining sites in Portugal, Spain and, especially, Cornwall. He was looking for unworked uranium deposits and his notebooks from the site visits to South Terras, Tolgarrick, Lostwithiel and St Just are full of sketches, calculations and measurements of shafts and topography. One notebook refers to Government proposals, 'to take us as a going concern and merge with Govt. Dep. under our
Plate 1. Building of the Loch Lomond Radium Works, Balloch. Photographed about 1959. The larger building with louvred roof was the chemical process shed.

(Courtesy Dumbarton District Libraries)
supervision: permanent purposes - Navy, Aircraft, Hospitals, Army.' He continued to produce radium salts until his death in 1920 at the age of 64 and the operation was continued until about 1927 by William Dempster, a New Zealander who had been involved in the early days of the cyanide process.

Largely as a result of the appallingly crude methods then in use, the site of the Loch Lomond Radium Works at Balloch has had an unfortunate history of radioactive contamination. The site has existed as a small boatyard since the demise of radium production. In 1948 a secret government investigation was carried out with a view to obtaining uranium for weapons production from the hundreds of tons of ores and partly-worked residues which lay around the site (radium and uranium share common ores), but what remained was in such a condition as to prove non-viable. Since that time, a number of radiological surveys of the site have taken place, and in 1963 the remaining buildings (one of which, to the horror of the health authorities, was being used by a squatting family) were bulldozed, several feet of surface covering and subsoil was dug up, and the whole lot was dumped at sea. As recently as 1977, prior to a housebuilding project on an adjacent site, an area of 9 feet by 200 feet was dug up to a depth of four feet and disposed of as radioactive waste. The condition of the site is such that a number of building proposals have been refused, and in the face of scientific concern, the Scottish Office is currently under some pressure to re-examine and re-survey the whole area. The site of MacArthur's refinery in Runcorn has never been decontaminated: it is now a dense housing development.

MacArthur's work on radium was just as pioneering as his earlier success with gold extraction and the celebration of his contribution to science is long overdue. He was the first gold medal winner of the Institution of Mining and Metallurgy, and his paper to the Society of Chemical Industry detailing his work on cyanidation was judged to be one of the most outstanding contributions of science to industry of the first fifty years of the century. His obituary in Nature noted, 'It is given to few men to discover a process which has had such a far-reaching effect in almost every branch of civilised life.' His scientific achievements, and his ability to harness them to practical industry were sadly not
matched by an ability - or a willingness - to become involved with
the inevitable pressures which the world's aggressive industrial
development forced upon him.

MacArthur appears to have been a man with no detractors -
even in the cut-throat business of commercial exploitation which
he abhorred, there are no accounts which allude to him with
anything other than respect. He has been remembered with
pleasure by those few people still alive who knew him. One
written description of him recalls:

a man of very kind character, an elder in the kirk and
deeply interested in the religious and philanthropical
enterprises of the city of Glasgow. He used his wealth,
for wealth came to him, although he shone more as a
man of science than a businessman, to help not only
his relations but also many who had been overtaken
by misfortune as a result of the War.\textsuperscript{37}

Despite his disappointment at the way he had been treated by
international business bureaucrats, he never bore any grudge:

To his sturdy independent Scottish characteristics
MacArthur added a remarkable insight and tenacity of
purpose and a kindly consideration for those with
whom he was associated.\textsuperscript{38}

His own attitude was possibly best described by himself, quoting
Sir Isaac Newton, in an account of the cyanide affair:

If I get free of this present business I will resolutely bid
it adieu eternally, except what I do for my own private
satification or leave to come out after me, for I see
that a man must either resolve to put out nothing new
or to become a slave to defend it.\textsuperscript{39}

NOTES
   (San Francisco, Jun 1916).


11. CRO, *Cassel & Co board minutes*, Nov 1885.


18. *Memoire* by Dr A Simpson Wells, Cape Town.


29. Balliol College Library, *op.cit.*

30. Glasgow University Archives, *Glasgow and West of Scotland Radium Committee minute books*, (GUA 35904).


35. Balliol College Library, *op.cit.*
37. *Memoire* by Dr A Simpson Wells, Cape Town.
Archival material on early shipping in Scotland is much more sparse than that for England, but during the last two decades, two notable sets of accounts have been given belatedly the attention they deserve. They present a unique contrast between the survival of late mediaeval conceptions of trade to Europe and the ‘plantations’, and the dynamic effect of the opening up, of the trade with previously closely monopolistic English colonies in 1707.

This study compares the voyages from 1753 to 1757 of the Leith Galley of Leith, the port of Edinburgh, managed by, Edinburgh city treasurer, Alexander Shairp, under the old merchant philosophy, trading to Jamaica and Philadelphia, with the voyages of the Blandford from 1768 to 1770 engaged in the Chesapeake tobacco trade, under a quite different system, managed by the firm of Dinwiddie & Crawford of Port Glasgow, Renfrewshire. In the case of the Leith Galley the owners' accounts survive as a result of an arbitration dispute between the owning partners: for the Blandford, the captain's accounts were preserved in the course of processing the will and estate of ex-Governor Robert Dinwiddie of Virginia.

Alexander Shairp, city treasurer of Edinburgh, came from a well-known family of minor lairds with foreign trade connections. A John Sharp was colonial agent for the government in Jamaica in the 1750s, and Alexander's immediate family included, brother Walter, who ran a Liverpool sugar-refinery and brother John, captain of the 200-ton ship Leith Galley.

The Leith Galley usually carried cargo for William Beckford's estates in Jamaica. Beckford was a member of the British parliament, and one of the richest and most influential of colonial
plantation owners. He had sponsored the grant of a Royal Charter in 1746 to the British Linen Company, a semi-government funded body designed to encourage the manufacture of linen in Scotland, which established a warehouse in Leith in 1750. From the number of prominent Edinburgh citizens, mostly merchant burgesses, who appear in the ship's accounts, and who were also directors or officials of the British Linen Company, it seems clear that the ship was being run largely in the private interests of a group with Jamaican connections, headed by the Shairps. The Galley's outward and return cargoes of its 1753 voyage included consignments by many leading citizens. These included on the outward journey, Patrick Crawford of Auchinames, MP, a director of the British Linen Company; William Beckford, MP, already mentioned; John Coutts, merchant, a former Lord Provost of Edinburgh; and Thomas Allan, Dean of Guild of Edinburgh. On the return voyage consignees included Colonel Lawrence and John Morse of the Jamaica Assembly and other long-established planters of sugar and suppliers of rum, mahogany, fustic dye, wool and pimento.

The shareholding of the ship was, typically for the time, divided into sixteenths, being the maximum most investors cared to put into any one vessel in consideration of the small size of ships, the absence of long-distance communication, and the roving privateers, virtually licensed pirates, of many nationalities. Originally Alexander Shairp had five-sixteenths interest in the Leith Galley, a large share for the time.

For KINGSTON and SAVANNAH LA MER in JAMAICA, the Ship LEITH GALLEY, Capt John Shairp Commander, is now lying too for taking in Goods on Freight for either of the above places, and will be ready to sail (Wind and Weather serving) on or before the 6th. February next. Any who inclined to ship Goods, or take their passage, may apply at the ship...

Tradesmen such as Wrights, Mill-Wrights, Carpenters, Coopers, Masons, Bricklayers, Taylors, Blacksmiths, &c, That can have certificates of their being good Tradesmen, and are willing to indent, may
have suitable Encouragement ... A good mill-wright is
particularly wanted.5

To earn some extra freight and passage money, as well as
providing planter clients with cheap labour, the ship advertised for
voluntary 'indentated servants' and carried eight in the steerage
quarters at a fare of six guineas each and three 'cabin passengers'
who paid ten guineas which included their keep. Below decks
there were also four 'servants from gaol' whose passage was
entered as freight and who would be available for the captain to
sell on arrival, to recoup the not inconsiderable expense of
acquiring them. Items in the accounts read, 'Charges indenting
servants £23.8.0.; Indenting 4 servants £3.9.6.; Necessarys for
servants in gaol, 9s 9d'. Thus the captain had to maintain the
latter in gaol until the ship sailed, but once under weigh they could
not escape and would probably have been used to help work the
undermanned ship en route. Recent research by Rogers Ekirch
shows that in England 30,000 felons were transported to America
between 1718 and 1775, 16,000 from Ireland, but only about 800
from Scotland, where sentencing was different and transportation
was used mainly for capital offences rather than minor ones. The
Scots also had a legal right to petition for banishment before their
cases came to trial, after which the court would show special
leniency.6

It was typical of the ad hoc management of the Leith Galley that,
having been advertised to sail by 6 February, she did not in fact
depart until 4 March, the reason being to save insurance
premiums by sailing in convoy. She arrived in Kingston, Jamaica,
on 26 April 1753, and was known to be fully loaded for a return
voyage by 30 July, but probably fitted in a Philadelphia trip, as she
did not unload at Leith again until 22 January 1754. Then, it would
seem from her accounts, that she lay idle until April 1755.

Although advertised to sail again in November 1754, she was
held up by a major row among her shareholders about the loss of
some £35 on the previous voyage. Two of them withdrew from
partnership, leaving Alexander Shairp to attract new investment.
Being personally committed to the Beckford interest, as to the
British Linen Company, he could not withdraw, and was himself
forced to underwrite another half-share in the next voyage, with
financial help from London, making him thirteen-sixteenths controlling shareholder.

For some centuries previously, it had been the English practice, in foreign trade ship management, to have either an educated captain who could handle the trading business of the ship as well as the sailing, or a captain suited to sailing duties only, supplemented by a 'supercargo' to handle the business side. In the former case, the captain often had family connections with the owners, whether he knew much about sailing or not, due to the special position of trust involved and the difficulty of bringing a captain to book if he served his own interest, as often happened. Supercargoes ('in charge of the cargo') were also often family members for the same reasons but, as they represented a non-paying berth, they had to be worth their passage which was not always the case.7

Captain John Shairp, Alexander's brother, made one or two unprofessional decisions on this voyage, such as sending Mr Beckford's linen 120 miles in the open long-boat from Kingston to Savannah la Mar. Although usually packed in water-tight barrels, it was damaged, and Mr Beckford had to be paid compensation through the ship's accounts. When John ran short of wine on the voyage, he commandeered a hogshead consigned to a Jamaican client, causing Alexander Shairp's accounts clerk some head-scratching between ledger pages.

The Leith Galley's cargo on this occasion included more than thirty miles of twenty-six inch wide linen of various grades, indicating a considerable British Linen Company liability for freights; also 1,400 gallons of Spanish wine, traceable to Bilbao; 400 pairs of shoes, thirteen saddles with fittings, and five horse-chaises with harness and furniture, a list as informative of the lifestyle of the planters as of the range of products of Scotland. For the use of the captain and cabin-passengers, the 'cabin stores' loaded were twenty-five barrels of Scotch salt herring, then regarded throughout Europe as a delicacy, half-a-ton of Scottish-refined sugar and two hundredweight of mustard for use with thirty-six 'mutton-hams'.

A cargo of sugar and rum eastwards weighed usually more than the general goods cargo westward, and the latter usually included
as ballast (i.e. carried in the bilge of the ship, below the cargo), the building materials for the richer planters' mansions. This time the Leith Galley took to Jamaica 27,000 slates, traceable in the customs accounts to the Scottish West Highlands, and 40,000 nails to fix them; other ships' ballast included ashlar and carved stone.

For her second voyage, under the new ownership, loading of the Leith Galley started with a consignment of linen in mid October 1754 and continued until she sailed shortly after receiving customs clearance on 15 April 1755. On this occasion she carried nearly seven miles of standard width sailcloth (even ships built in the colonies were legally obliged to use British sailcloth); 25,000 bricks, some coal, and a miscellany of shirts, sheets, pillowcases and felt hats. An unusual item was 360 dozen pieces of 'British Earthware' which may have come from Caddel's pottery established ten years earlier on the shores of the Forth.8

By August 1755 the owners of the Leith Galley were insuring her for a £750 valuation at £8.8.0. per cent including war risk - the French war was not far off - for a return trip Jamaica-Philadelphia. Little appears in the record of this leg, but it was a very regular trade at the time, originating in the inability of early square-rigged ships to sail much into the wind, and the consequent habit of west-bound traffic to sail south from Europe into the trade winds and arrive like Columbus in the West Indies, then make their way up the American mainland coast - a very roundabout business. While the so-called Northern Route became more or less standard for Scottish west coast ships, as discussed later, the safety of sailing in convoy still attracted a large proportion of the English merchant fleet and some Scots to Portsmouth or Cork, the gathering point. From the West Indies they were then in a good position to make the mainland coast, taking the Philadelphians their rum and sugar and the Jamaicans their grain on the return.

The Leith Galley was in Kingston by 31 March 1756, nearly a year after leaving Leith, with a load of timber for the plantation owners, the return voyage having earned a gross total of £459.2.6. in freight, rather more than the ship herself was sold for the following year. She returned as far as London by 3 July 1756, with her cargo of primary produce, earning £1,370 in freight charges,
some of which were paid by the less pecunious planters in kind - i.e. in rum. For this voyage, critical to the profitability of the whole venture, she had been insured for a value of £800, her cargo for £1,050.

The ship was put up for sale and after six months a buyer was found at £430, at which point Alexander Shairp’s interest in her can be seen from his ledger page:

- Paid 5/16th share of original cost of £750 = 234.7.6
- Paid after arbitration a further 1/2 share 375.0.0
- 609.7.6

When she was sold for £430, received 13/16 349.7.6

Nett loss: £260.0.0

When the ship’s accounts were finally closed on 22nd December 1757, however, Alexander was £1,212 in credit, and the ship had made a modest profit of £330 after paying his dues. At one point he had been £1,400 extended in financing her as chief risk-taker, but the final voyage home had been the pay-off; no one else made much on the voyage, according to the reconstruction of the ledger, but all his associates had been able to buy their private puncheons of rum and other imports related to their businesses. Alexander retired as a director of the British Linen Company that year, and lived another eighteen years, dying at the age of eighty-nine.

The performance of the Leith Galley, making two voyages in three-and-a-half years, was not untypical for its style of management, and will be compared later with the Scottish west coast operation in the tobacco trade. Her customs victualling register shows that under Shairp management she was operated with twelve of a crew besides the captain, which was minimal for a ship of her size and armament, implying clearly that she was expected to make the whole voyage in convoy under the protection of a warship. Her departure was delayed a whole month to ensure this, which was economical when crews were only paid for ‘days at sea’ and a hefty insurance premium could thereby be avoided. The speed of a convoy being that of the slowest ship, a sail-handling crew of twelve could just be expected to cope with keeping her in station in the convoy.
After the full union of the parliaments of Scotland and England in 1707, the Scottish east coast ports continued to dominate trade with Europe until about 1740. One of the anomalies which arose was in tobacco imports from America having to be trans-shipped from the Clyde overland to the Forth at Alloa. After an initial period following 1707, when they had to charter English ships, the Clyde merchants soon acquired enough capital to have their own ships built cheaply in America; they were designed for speed and manoeuvrability. To avoid the overland haul across central Scotland, they soon found it best to chance the privateers in the English Channel, and make their own delivery trips to Le Havre and Rotterdam, the main European markets for the trade.

In response to trade demands, there was a large and fast improvement in sailing-ship design in this country. In the tobacco fleet the provision of more fore-and-aft sails, as distinct from square sails, enabled ships to sail close into the wind, and made them much more handy in navigating the shoal waters of the Chesapeake rivers, or in the flukey winds on the leeward side of the West Indian islands.

From a study of thirty-five ships leaving the Clyde between 1747 and 1756, some generalisations can be made. Only four were armed, three of these being bound for the Caribbean. Besides the captain, the scale of manning was about one crew member per ten tons burthen, with few differences on either side, except for armed ships, which had about one man per gun extra to the sail-handling crew. Over 180 tons the manning scale evened out, but few of the Clyde fleet were over that size. By contemporary standards both the ships discussed here were undermanned, the Leith Galley dangerously so.

* * *

The new Port of Glasgow, eighteen miles down the Clyde from Glasgow, had been established by the town council of Glasgow in 1668 to assert their control over customs dues on the river, and became the official port of entry in 1677. By 1762 Port Glasgow had opened the first dry-dock in Scotland, its pumping machinery designed by the young James Watt, who lived in nearby Greenock.

Before it became the general practice to cover ships' bottoms
with copper sheathing, they were tarred, more or less regularly, especially if sailing to Teredo-worm infested waters such as the Chesapeake. Sometimes they were double-planked as an added insurance, the outer skin being regarded as expendable, but this was expensive. At Port Glasgow in mid-century, the pressure of trade was such that there was simply not time for the old system of lowering topmasts and yards, unloading ballast, and careening every empty hull on the nearby sandbanks. But, speed being the essence of the business, weed-grown bottoms which reduced ships' performance, were as unacceptable as long periods spent in port.

In 1768 Captain Andrew Troop of the 175-ton ship *Blandford* paid twenty men 2s 8d a day for tarring his ship as she lay in the dock, and a jobber had a shilling a day for pumping it out, using Watt's horse-driven machinery. Troop's account included standing the men beer and buns on completion of outfit, which, like everything else in his immaculately-kept accounts, was a regularly recurring expense. Many who laboured at the tarring were the same local names who took passage as crewmen on the ship's regular run to the James River, Virginia. The fact that in three years only one man appears in the pay lists as having made two trips in the Blandford is indicative of the employment opportunities of seamen in the Forth area at this time. It is not surprising to find in the ship's accounts that Captain Troop had to hire a horse to ride forty miles to Ayr in search of willing hands. A month's advance was paid before sailing, to support dependents in their absence. The *Scots Magazine* reported in 1773 that:

On Thursday, March 4th., 1773, a great number of sailors assembled at Greenock and Port Glasgow, and, in a riotous ... manner ... insisted for an increase of their wages, which the merchants declined complying with, as they have already 4s to 5s per month more than what is given in any other port in Britain, ... they went on board all the outward-bound vessels, struck their topmasts, locked up the public sail-lofts, hindered the loading and unloading of any vessels ... two companies of the 15th Regiment marched from Glasgow ... the inhabitants secured four
of the ring-leaders, and delivered them ... to the military, who were immediately surrounded by a vast number of the sailors, and most incessantly pelted with stones ... [they] ... were at last obliged, in their own defence, to fire; whereby two women were unluckily killed ...11

When justice finally took its course, two of the ring-leaders were 'sent to the plantations' for two years.

Once out of dry-dock, the Blandford immediately started to load cargo, while simultaneously running repairs to upperworks and rigging were effected; this was all done on a regular contract basis by a local firm, and involved forty-three persons, including two women and all the permanent crew - second mate, bosun, and six sailors. The 'outfit and loading' cost £7.5.3. for labour. Other accounts show that the same local firms supplied the same range of goods for every outfitting, canvas from the Port Glasgow Sailcloth Company, rope from the local rope-walk, pulley-blocks from the chandler, and victuals for the crew organised by the port store-keeper, James King, as owners' agent, also paid anything from 3s 6d to 7s a week to a local woman for the apprentices' lodgings ashore between voyages.

Comparing the customs registers with the ship's accounts shows clearly how little time was wasted once the ship was loaded and had customs clearance; a crew was engaged and paid their customary advance, and the ship sailed. There was no question of waiting for a convoy, she would go north-about, out of the way of the privateers. She did not have to wait for a fair wind; it was one of the chief advantages enjoyed by, and indeed basic to, the Scottish trade, that six miles west from Port Glasgow the Firth widened to an extent which allowed even quite a large ship enough room to tack. To get to that point, where the Firth bent southward at Gourock, it was only necessary to hire a large rowing-boat with half-a-dozen stalwarts and a tow-rope to keep the ship's bow pointing into the wind, and the strong ebb current would push her down to Gourock.

Nor were the ship's departures ruled by the seasons. Like most of her kind, the Blandford could in her best years under Captain Troop do two trips, the second often starting in January; the only
striction was a reluctance to be in the salt-water part of the Chesapeake in July and August, when the Teredo worm was most active, or in any part of the area at that time, when the malarial mosquito threatened the crew with 'swamp fever'. The ship always carried a medicine chest, stocked by the local doctors at Port Glasgow, which included a supply of 'Jesuits' Bark', as quinine was still known.

Using the north-about route, Troop was usually reporting his cargo in at Jamestown in eight to ten weeks, and his return voyage with tobacco rarely took as much as six weeks, on a slightly more southerly course with following prevailing winds - impressive figures considering that the ship was built for carrying cargo and had nothing remotely approaching the navigation aids now available. The cargo, mostly manufactured goods from the Clyde Valley area, was designed to satisfy the creature comforts and supply the working equipment of the middling-prosperous back-country planters of the upper James River area of Virginia, and the Appomatox River as far as Blandford, now a suburb of Petersburg, Virginia, where the owners' agent, Charles Duncan, was one of at least eighty Scots factors working mostly for the Glasgow 'tobacco lords'.

Typically, in late June to July 1769, the Blandford was loaded, according to the customs registers with:

| Copper & Pewter Wares                       | 3,960 lbs. |
| Delft-ware (tin-glazed) and earthenware     | 584 dozen pieces |
| Haberdashery                                | 20, 70 lbs. |
| Hats                                       | 58 dozen    |
| Iron, wrought ware                          | 38,750 lbs. |
| Ironmonger's ware                           | 5,200 lbs.  |
| Leather Ware,                               |             |
| Saddles, men's                              | no. 79      |
| "  "  womens'                              | no. 17      |
| "  "  small                                | no. 170     |
| Bridles                                    | no. 687     |
| Stirrup leathers                            | prs. 149    |
| Other leather goods                        | 656 lbs.    |
Paper                   5 reams.
Sugar, refined          4 cwt. 2qurs.
Sailcloth (made in Port Glasgow) 261 ells
Linen                   43,084 yards
Woolens                 28,538 yards

There were also small consignments of:

Boots & shoes, breeches, cutlery, gloves, handkerchiefs, silk in many forms (ribbon, sewing thread, stuffs, stockings), and saddlebags.

Among Troop’s accounts, one bill of lading of 1770 providentially survives, showing the destinations of the goods on a typical journey up the James River. The Blandford called at Norfolk, Portsmouth, Pagan Rivermouth - where Smithfield consignees collected their goods 'at the ships side' - Warwick Bay and Gray’s Creek. By then she had shed nearly half her load, reducing her draught for the shallower upper reaches. On other trips she had called at Eppes Island, both to deliver goods and to collect tobacco on the way out. Entering the Appomatox River she made her main delivery to the company’s agency store at Blandford, and clients at Petersburg, having by then negotiated 100 miles of winding shoal waters, on one occasion with a local pilot who signed his payment receipt with a cross.

Dinwiddie & Crawford already appear as ship-owners in 1735, and by 1774 were the fourth largest Clyde importers with 2,141 hogsheads of tobacco. In the exports list of 1775, they only stood sixteenth, as they were stockpiling in anticipation of the revolution, and complained to the customs that there was not room in the Port Glasgow bonded store for the Blandford’s cargo of 322 hogsheads of tobacco. Using smallish fast ships, their turnover was still respectable, due to the speed of turn-round. Only Charles Duncan at Blandford appears in Troop’s accounts, but the firm may have had other agents among the eighty or so factors for Scots firms said to be operating in the Petersburg area. Certainly, the ship was seldom delayed, consignments of tobacco having been booked ahead by the factor in return for credit or goods.

Some large firms had a chief factor, supervising a number of stores; a letter of 1771 from one such, to a sub-manager about to take over a new store, spells out the prevailing management attitude:
... be exceeding cautious who you credit ... invariably ... settle with every person once in the twelve months ... It often happens when a planter is largely in debt at settlement or when any considerable sum of money is advanced then they will offer a security on their estate which should at all times be accepted even from those best in credit.

Tobacco is the chief aim of this concern ... but it will be well if you buy as many of the other articles (wheat, corn, flour, hemp) as you can find a profitable sale for in the country) or from which you can supply your store with West India goods. [He meant mainly rum, of course].

On the whole in your Trade be generous, easy, affable and free to your customers, pointed and exact in fulfilling your engagements on even your most trivial promises. By these methods you will engage their esteem, regard and confidence and on this plan alone a large and extensive trade can be acquired and carried on, which you will study to do with the greatest frugality, both with regard to your expenses at home and abroad.16

Having a resident factor in Virginia directly employed by the ship's owners, relieved the captain of most of the ship's business ashore; unlike Captain John Shairp, Andrew Troop of the Blandford was an employee, not a family member. For his overall, obviously expert, management of the ship, including presenting her voyage accounts immaculately in a fair hand, and making occasional delivery voyages to Le Havre and Rotterdam, as well as crossing and re-crossing the Atlantic with the regularity of a bus service, he was paid £4 per month for sailing time - even by contemporary standards, a bargain rate for the owners - plus a daily attendance allowance during loading and unloading in port.

In such a regular all-year-round trade, every voyage took its chance of bad weather. In 1764 Troop, then in charge of the Dinwiddie-owned ship Johnston, was stranded near Port Glasgow, but his cargo was salvaged, and the ship limped on for another year or so, her eventual fate not yet having appeared in the
records. In general, Troop's regular travels in the Blandford suggest that he was competent to cope with any weather, but the accounts show at least one occasion when he was caught. Not long after he reported in at Jamestown on 5 September 1769, a great gale struck the Chesapeake area, scattering ships upon the mudbanks throughout the estuary; the Blandford among them ran ashore and broke her foremast. The prompt repair action speaks volumes for the professional competence and initiative of all concerned. A new mast was ordered from Newport News, was floated up to Jamestown on a raft, on which shearlegs were erected; negro labourers were hired from a nearby plantation to replace the stump with the new timber, which was fifty-three feet long, and cost £3.7.1.; the account included 'rum for the people'. But even including this delay, the ship's total time in the Bay between reporting in and reporting out again, loaded, was only forty-one days.

By 1735 already sixty-seven ships were listed as 'belonging to the Clyde', among them the Butterfly, master Matthew Crawford, owners Lawrence Dinwiddie & Company. Lawrence's elder brother, Robert, had, since 1727, been employed in the customs service in Bermuda, having left the family merchanting firm in Glasgow. In 1739 Robert was appointed Surveyor General of Revenues for the southern part of the American colonies. He travelled throughout these colonies and the British West Indies, but his residence was in Virginia, where, in 1741, he became a member of the Governor's Council. He was appointed Lt-Governor from 1751 to 1758, and wore himself out looking after the colony's interest during the French and Indian war, retiring in 1758 to Clifton, near Bristol, England, where it may be supposed he was still in a good strategic position to advise the family firm on the state of the American trade.

Brother Lawrence, twice Lord Provost of Glasgow, was a merchant with a finger in every pie; the Merchants' House, the Glasgow Arms Bank, the New Glasgow Tanworks and Shoe and Saddle Factory. In 1748 both brothers were partners in the Delftfield Company, whose works were one of the first purpose-built industrial buildings in the city. In the next thirty years it exported some half million pieces of tin-glazed ware, stoneware
By June 1769, the time of Troop's accounts, Lawrence had died, and Robert was retired and in poor health. But business must continue, and James King, the Port Glasgow agent, addressed urgent mail to the surviving partner, Crawford, in Glasgow, hiring a horse for 'young Borthron', the second mate of the *Blandford*, to ride the twenty miles to deliver it. In a semi-legible letter, he complained bitterly of the unreasonable demands of the customs officers while loading cargo, and wondering what had happened to the cabin passengers' stores he had ordered.

Dinwiddie had an agent in London - most necessary to keep an eye on continental tobacco orders and to arrange finance in the city, especially for payment of the swingeing duties levied on exports. The *Blandford* accounts and customs registers show how the unloading of the ship was suddenly halted in March 1769, when only a few hogsheads had been taken from her for local trade. The deficiency was quickly made good from another cargo, and she was packed off post-haste, to fill an order from Rotterdam.

The account for this trip to Holland gives a brief view of how some exotic wares could regularly reach America via Port Glasgow. Troop's purchases, under the head in the accounts 'The above is not against the Ship' - it was probably for one of the owners - included Persian silk valued at £241, and £93 worth of spices brought in to Rotterdam by the Netherlands East India Company. From the firm's point of view, it was far from being all profit - the Dutch pilotage fees for inland waters being exorbitant - but their gin was very cheap, and Troop acquired twenty stoups for the owners and eight for his crew.

From his extant accounts, from August 1768 to June 1770, the performance of the *Blandford* gives a clear picture of the commercial pressure under which Troop and his fellow-captains were operating in the tobacco trade. In the twenty-two months that they cover, the ship spent 311 days in port or collecting cargo up the Chesapeake, and 360 on ocean passage, making one trip to Rotterdam and six Atlantic crossings, and bringing home a rich miscellany of pig-iron, barrell-staves, etc., but chiefly some 480 tons of Virginia tobacco. Taking the known distance sailed by the
two ships, it can be stated, in terms of available cargo capacity, per mile, per annum, that the *Blandford* did 12 per cent better over thirteen years than the *Leith Galley* over three. Times spent in port by the latter while waiting for cargo, convoy dates, servants from gaol, or owners' disputes, amounted to months at a time, while the *Blandford*'s longest delays were at her home port, waiting for an unloading berth in the tiny harbour, or for the customs officers to carry out their duties.

While the *Leith Galley*'s owners were committed to the service of a small community of well-to-do elite in the Jamaica plantations, the *Blandford* was providing for a greater number of much less prosperous tobacco planters on the mainland, whose needs and interests her owners were constantly and closely studying through their local factorage system. Although some of the shareholders in the *Leith Galley* withdrew when she did not make a profit, it is doubtful whether anyone concerned would have been seriously embarrassed financially, even if she had made a much greater loss.

On the other hand, Dinwiddie's involvement in the tobacco trade can be traced back at least fifteen years in the customs records, from 1760 to 1775, in the voyages of the *Johnston* (Captain Troop from 1762), 1760-67, and the *Blandford*, 1768-74. Troop brought some 7,460 hogsheads of tobacco to Europe, valued at around £260,000 sale price, of which the British, French and Dutch governments took more than half in import/export duties. If, as seems probable, these figures were publicly known at the time, there need be little surprise either that the Clyde sailors went on strike or that the planters had a revolution, when they all had to work so hard for such a small share of the returns.

Remembering the success of the seventeenth century, Scottish trade with Europe through the Scottish Staple at Veere on the Dutch coast, it could hardly be claimed that Scots merchants were ignorant of commerce before the tobacco period. It had previously been a moderate-scale, highly competitive scene in Europe - the Shairps' spread, with a sugar-house in Liverpool, a family ship's captain, and a young cousin running an agency in St Petersburg, Russia, being typical of the maximum involvement - but the scale of mainland America, both in its problems and its
opportunities, encouraged a greater breadth of outlook. It was the tobacco trade which first made Glasgow a major commercial centre. By 1776 even the set-back of the American revolution could not halt its momentum, and enough capital had been accumulated to diversify into West Indian sugar, shipbuilding, and the heavy coal and iron industries. There had been cautious good management on both sides, so that few of the debts owed by individual planters to the Glasgow tobacco houses exceeded £100 at that time, 'by the middle of 1784, on one estimate there as about 80 stores in Petersburg and as many in Richmond, still dealing with the planters.' At Richmond the headquarters store of Cuninghame's of Glasgow was big enough to be used by the Virginia Assembly until the state building was completed in 1789.

Scotland's most innovative contribution to the new United States was surely the provision of personal credit down to a more modest social level than ever before. The changing scene was typified in another way by the gradual conversion of the British Linen Company - originally concerned mainly in providing practical help and storage, even buying raw materials for a cottage industry - which, by the 1770s, was increasingly lending money only to a widening range of minor industries, eventually becoming the 'British Linen Bank'.

To the extent that they supplied, at their own risk, the capital and tools to clear the ground, literally, for an original American cash crop, the Scottish tobacco merchants, typified by the Dinwiddies, may be said to have made a significant contribution to the colonists' capacity for economic independence.

A Note on the Shipping Accounts

In 1974, while attending a course in archives research held by R M Dell (then archivist to the City of Glasgow and later to Strathclyde Regional Council) I was, in common with the other students, presented with little researched documents on which we were asked to write a precis for the index record. In my case, the first of these was the cash book of Alexander Shairp, relating to eighteenth century voyages to Jamaica and Philadelphia of the ship Leith Galley, a document preserved due to a legal battle among the owning partners. The second was the microfilmed
Lockhart papers, being the captain’s accounts, with all supporting vouchers, for some three years of voyages of the Glasgow tobacco ship Blandford, apparently preserved for settlement of the estate of Robert Dinwiddie, ex-Governor of Virginia.

Intrigued by the subject matter, and particularly by the contrast in management style and techniques between the two ships, I reconstructed the ledger of the Leith Galley (all items being ledger page numbers) and with the help of K G Ross, CA, of Glasgow, arrived at some appreciation of who made a profit and how. For the Blandford it was found possible to relate the accounts to the very detailed customs registers of the period, the ‘port books’, giving what is perhaps a uniquely close view of the operations end of the tobacco trade on which the original prosperity of Glasgow was founded.

I still have complete copies of both these documents. Inspection of the customs registers was run in parallel with research on contemporary Scottish pottery exports, published in Post-Mediaeval Archeology 16 (1982) pp.73-79, relating mainly to the Delftfield Company founded by the Dinwiddies.

NOTES

1. For the Leith Galley, The Cash Book of Alexander Sharp & Co, Strathclyde Regional Archives, TD/169. The owners’ accounts for voyages 1753-57. For a professional analysis of, and some of the conclusions drawn from the accounts, the writer is indebted to Mr K G Ross, chartered accountant of Glasgow, who interpreted the reconstructed ledger. For the Blandford, The Lockhart Papers, being the captain’s accounts for voyages 1768-70, original in Library of Congress, copy microfilm at Colonial Williamsburg, and in Strathclyde Regional Archives, Glasgow MF612. Includes signed receipts for all the ship’s expenses.

2. Scottish Record Office, Shairp of Houston papers.


5. Edinburgh Evening Courant, 16 Jan 1753.

6. A Roger Ekirch, ‘Bound for America, a Profile of British convicts T

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8. Scottish Record Office, Customs Registers, or Port Books, series E504. The books for Leith and Port Glasgow have been extensively used in comparison with the accounts of both ships.


11. Scots Magazine, Jul 1773, quoted by Macarthur, op.cit., p.74


15. Ibid., p.108


17. Virginia Gazette, 14 Sep 1769.


19. Some biographical details have been taken from the current edition of Encyclopaedia Britannica.


Bank of Scotland was founded on 17 July 1695 by an Act of the Parliament of Scotland. A subscription book for shares was opened simultaneously in Edinburgh and London. From the day the Bank opened its doors in rented premises in Mylne Square, off the High Street, Edinburgh, it was committed to making a business of banking. It is clear from the names on the subscription list and the fact that the bank's earliest 'banknotes' were issued for sums in excess of £5 sterling rather than pounds Scots, that at least part of the promoters' purpose was to finance the development of Scottish trade with England and the Low Countries. The Bank was founded one year after Bank of England and, as might be expected, the respective Acts contain many similarities and parallels. Indeed, so far as the London end is concerned, the old saw about Bank of England being founded by Scotsmen, and Bank of Scotland by Englishmen, indicates that it was essentially the same interests which were engaged in both enterprises.

There are a number of features of the Founding Act (technically it is not a charter) which, although perhaps anomalous and largely irrelevant in the early 1990s, are a source of pride within the Bank and a fundamental part of its corporate identity. The most important of these is that the Bank still trades under its founding title and statutes. The full legal title is 'The Governor and Company of the Bank of Scotland', which appears on all formal documents, and the company is also obliged to appoint a Treasurer. As a consequence, the chairman of the board of directors has always been 'the Governor' and the company's first employee 'the Treasurer'. The exact relationship and division of function between the two has varied considerably over the last 300 years. Ever since the appointment of Alexander Blair in 1838, the treasurer has been a professional banker and executive head of
the Clearing Bank. The governorship has accommodated more varied considerations. John Holland, the first governor, was an "executive chairman", but he was replaced by a series of appointments, broadly speaking Tory in character, which helped give the Bank its reputation after 1715 of being Jacobite. From the appointment of Viscount Melville in 1790 until 1955 when Lord Elphinstone retired, the governor was, in practice, chosen from one of Scotland's 'grandee' families. Since that date there has been a steady move back towards an executive governorship and the board over which he presides is far more representative of current Scottish business interests than was the case 100, or even forty, years ago.

The Bank's shareholders, originally known as 'adventurers' (but since 1796 as 'proprietors'), had limited liability from the first day of the Bank's existence. One consequence of this is that it has never been necessary to register for incorporation under any of the Companies Acts, and the Bank is, therefore, not a PLC. During the first half of this century the Bank felt increasingly constrained by the fact that its total capital base was specified by statutes, and it was necessary to secure an additional private Act of Parliament to increase the share capital. There have been at least two occasions during the last 150 years when the effort was abandoned and it has undoubtedly proved to have been a limitation upon expansion plans. After 1951, when the Bank got approval to merge with Union Bank of Scotland Ltd, it was permitted to raise its capital like any other commercial bank.

Another peculiar feature of banking in Scotland is that the banks have the right to issue their own banknotes, a privilege which was taken away from the English country banks by the 1825 Bank Act. There were a number of reasons why in Scotland paper was accepted readily instead of coin; one of the more important was a continued lack of specie after 1707, and the fact that the whole Scottish banking system was more developed than that in England. The note issue was regulated by the 1845 Bank Act, which gave each of the Scottish banks in existence at that time an authorised issue, prohibited any new note issuing banks, and required that all notes issued over the authorised issue be covered by equivalent securities deposited in the Bank of England. This
requirement was one reason why, during the 1860s and 1870s, most Scottish banks opened a London office, rather than rely, as previously, on the services of a London agent. This, in its turn, provoked a reaction among the English banks and, in 1875, led to the agreement between the English and Scottish banks that neither would attempt to expand its branch network in the other's territory. In part, this was because each operated in a different legal and accounting environment. Broadly speaking, it is this agreement which has determined the present geographical distribution of UK bank networks. Even where a Scottish bank was a wholly owned subsidiary, as the Clydesdale was of the Midland Bank from 1919 to 1989, a separate identity was retained. It was the discovery of North Sea oil and the investment requirements of the 1960s and 1970s which shattered this comfortable pattern and began the process of English banks' penetration of the Scottish market and vice versa.

Bank of Scotland as it now exists is the result of two major amalgamations. In 1955 Bank of Scotland merged with Union Bank of Scotland Ltd which was Glasgow based and had a branch network predominantly in west and central Scotland. Union Bank of Scotland Ltd was founded in 1843 as the result of the merger of a number of partnership banks. The oldest of these were the Ship and Thistle Banks and later the Glasgow and Union Bank. The Union Bank was a co-partnery and one of the most fascinating documents in the archivist's care is the original articles of co-partnery which are approximately fifteen metres long and contain the signatures of all the original shareholders. Rather than enumerate the various banks which were absorbed by first Union Bank of Scotland Ltd, and then Bank of Scotland, a full bank family tree is illustrated in Figure 1. The second major amalgamation was in 1971, when the British Linen Bank, a Barclay's Bank subsidiary, was merged with the Bank of Scotland with the parent taking a 34 per cent stock share in the resulting bank. This shareholding was sold in 1984 to Standard Life which remains the chief proprietor. As matters now stand, the Bank of Scotland is an independent Scottish high street bank, with some 500 branches in Scotland, a network of regional offices in England, and a
commitment to delivering banking services by electronic means.

As stated already, the Bank's record of its past is a very full one and the archive reflects its varied parts. The National Register of Archives (Scotland) conducted two surveys of the Bank's records. The Western Survey List NRA (Scot) 1110 covers the records of the Union Bank and its predecessors, while NRA (Scot) 945 deals with Bank of Scotland, British Linen Bank and their amalgamation. Currently the Union Bank archive is kept in Glasgow Chief Office in St Vincent Street, Glasgow, and Bank of Scotland and British Linen Bank archive is held in the bank's central record store at Sighthill, Edinburgh. Apart from the records of individual branches, some of which may be retained locally, there are significant archival holdings in Aberdeen and London. The strategy is to concentrate the archive in Edinburgh in a single archive store which is being designed to conform to BS 5454 (1989).

The researcher in Bank of Scotland's archives most likely to be disappointed is the genealogist, since the Bank's current customer base involves millions of names. It is computerised and covered by the Data Protection Act 1985 and, therefore, cannot be publicly accessed. Manual ledgers were maintained up to approximately 1970, but so far as I am aware, no single central customer list existed then. Searching for a particular customer is like looking for a needle in a haystack. There is a further complication, and that is, for over 100 years it has been normal practice within the Bank to destroy customer ledger pages, twenty years after completion. In practice this means that no branch of Bank of Scotland has a complete view of its customer history. The aggregated financial information is carried in the bank's central accounting records, but it is stripped of any personal identification.

The general question of access to customer information, even historical, is a tricky one for any bank archivist. In 1924 the Tournier judgement did not put any time limit on the period for which customer confidentiality should be maintained. The Jack Committee, which reported in February 1989, considered the whole question of banker/customer relationship. Far from proposing any relaxation of the rules, a code of conduct and legislation, which will be more restrictive, is in the pipeline. This
seems to indicate that in this area it will not really be possible to operate a fixed number of years rule for access. The general principle is no access to any customer records before they are 100 years old. In this respect, they are being treated like census, health and social security records which are public records, and there is no case for easier access to bank customer records. Even here the general principle of access is subject to some important qualifications. There are a number, of primarily business customers who have been with the Bank for more than 100 years, and in such cases, to meet with the requirements of the Tournier judgement, access will only be granted with the express permission of the firm or individual concerned. Broadly speaking, all records relating to the running of the Bank and its policy are governed by a fifty year rule, but this is currently under review and may be shortened.

The Bank's archive is an archive in possibly the strictest sense of the word. That is to say that the records which survive were generated during the normal day-to-day process of business. This makes for an easily defined acquisitions policy. Only identified strays or items which are directly relevant to the Bank's history will be sought. There is, however, an area of uncertainty in that many of the Bank's leading figures were also involved in wider Scottish and UK issues. Material of this type will only be acquired after consultation with the National Register of Archives (Scotland) and the National Library of Scotland. As set up within the Bank, the archivist also encompasses the records management function. One of the main advantages of this arrangement is that certain categories of record can be designated archival from the day of their creation, others can be weeded as soon as their administrative usefulness is finished, and yet others can go through a process of appraisal through time to decide whether or not they merit permanent retention.

The minutes of Bank of Scotland, British Linen Bank and Union Bank of Scotland Ltd exist in their entirety, as do those of the other joint-stock banks which are part of the Bank family. The poorest record runs are from private or partnership banks, whose record-keeping was not consistent. It is necessary to give a word of warning about using bank minutes to write banking history. It is a
matter of fact that the closer to the present the minutes are, the less informative they become. Primarily, this is because they record decisions, in many cases of a purely formal kind, and rarely record the thinking and discussion which went into a decision. It is, therefore, vital that ancillary papers are kept, also policy statements and reports which examine parts of the bank's business in detail.

Of about 700 properties which the Bank occupies throughout the UK more than 200 are listed buildings with a significant history. Architectural plans, specifications and title deeds are kept for as long as the Bank holds the property, but are handed over in their entirety when a building is sold. Even here commonsense dictates that plans cannot be freely and widely available. Locations of vaults, alarm systems and so on, are simply not for public consumption.

Perhaps the most fascinating, and yet difficult, area of handling a business archive lies in the impact of computer technology. Broadly speaking, the serried banks of handwritten journals and ledgers peters out in the late 1960s when the record of transactions was transferred on-line. This has affected all accounting records, and poses a major problem for the future permanent record. The second area is a revolution which is currently in process. The use of computer networks for electronic mail delivery and the widespread use of desk top personal computers means that increasingly more and more business is being done without leaving a permanent record, other than that strictly required by law. This is an area which is being examined closely, but at the time of writing, there are no obvious solutions, and it is likely that the combination of information technology and increasingly complex business considerations will mean that the future record of the Bank's history will either be more fragmentary than in the past, or alternatively, will contain a high degree of redundancy (in the IT sense of the word).

Having secured the archive physically, the next major task will be detailed listing and cataloguing. The archive (February 1991) is being catalogued on the Bank's mainframe computer using a fourth generation relational database, and a similar system is being used for records management. These have been
operational only for the last few months, and it is too early to assess their success. However, the early indications are encouraging. It is unlikely that it will ever be printed out in its entirety as a conventional handlist, but summaries will be produced and the whole database will be available in a read-only mode in Sighthill Record Store and Head Office, Edinburgh. It may be possible to deliver it more widely through the Bank's own information network, but for the moment that is a long way in the future.

Anyone wishing to use the archive can be accommodated either in Glasgow or at the Records Store, Sighthill, Edinburgh. In the first instance an appointment is required to be made through The Archivist, Bank of Scotland, Executive Office, PO Box No 5, The Mound, Edinburgh EH1 1YZ (Tel. 031-243-5467).

NOTES

BIBLIOGRAPHY
A general history of banking in Scotland is to be found in:

Particular histories of constituent banks will be found in:
R S Rait, *The History of the Union Bank of Scotland* (Glasgow, 1930)
The Centre for Business History in Scotland (CBH), moved into new premises at 4 University Gardens in September 1989. The new Centre inherits a responsibility for promoting interest and research in business history and archives which began thirty years ago in the University of Glasgow with the establishment of the Colquhoun Lectureship in Business History, and the creation of the Business Archives Council of Scotland. The three decades between these events have been a remarkable period of endeavour and achievement in business history and business archives in Scotland. That achievement has been the outcome of a tremendously sustained co-operation among the academic and archive staff of the Scottish universities, most notably Glasgow, the local and regional archive offices, particularly Strathclyde, the Scottish Record Office, especially in the work of the National Register of Archives (Scotland), and the Business Archives Council of Scotland itself.

The Centre for Business History in Scotland was conceived in September 1987 when the Court of the University of Glasgow accepted a very generous offer of funding from the Aggregate Foundation, a charitable trust established in August 1987. In turn the University established a new Chair of Business History and appointed Professor Tony Slaven to the post as Director of the new CBH. The University also set in motion a process of renovating a fine terraced house to be the home of the new Centre, and its linked Department of Economic History.

With the opening of the new CBH premises, the wheel of business history set in motion in 1959 has effectively come full circle. For the Director, Tony Slaven, was in 1960 the first research assisting in business history, assistant to Peter Payne, the first Colquhoun Lecturer. Payne and Slaven worked out of one large first floor room in 5 University Gardens. It was there that the
first business collections, Dixons, Dennys, Stephens, and many others, found floorspace to save them from imminent destruction, and laid the foundation of the now unparalleled collection of business records housed in the University's Business Record Centre. The new CBH is situated next door to the original premises, but instead of the one room shared by Payne, Slaven, and the early record collections, the Centre occupies two complete floors and has facilities for a library, a study and research room, a seminar room, and computer suite, as well as staff and reception rooms. The Colquhoun Lectureship is also associated with the Centre, for when Peter Payne went to his Chair in Aberdeen in 1969, the Colquhoun Lectureship passed to Slaven; a third Colquhoun Lecturer, Alan McKinlay, has now been appointed as the first full-time research officer in the Centre for Business History in Scotland.

The Centre is also beginning its working life with the advantage of a new and splendid business archive facility within the University of Glasgow at Thurso Street. Continuity is again evident here, for in 1970 Michael Moss was appointed as the first surveyor for the Western Survey, and more than any other individual has been responsible for the creation of our large business collection. Now, as University Archivist, he presides over the new Thurso Street archive where the Business Record Centre provide a secure base for much future research, and an on-going challenge in archive management.

The development of computer software and personal computers capable of handling large datasets has also opened up the opportunity for the CBH to expand its databases, partly by transferring much existing data on wages and productivity to that form, but also to exploit the new techniques to make datasets of all kinds more readily and widely available to researchers. The Centre for Business History in Scotland has clearly grown out of a rich tradition, but looking to the future, it has to build on these splendid foundations.

Glasgow's contribution to business history has always been fundamentally linked to the location, preservation, and interpretation of business records. Looking to the future, one major role of the CBH is to continue to promote the preservation
and efficient organization of business records as a basis for further developing the study of business and business history. The CBH, through its link with the Ballast Trust, in which Dr William Lind plays the leading role, provides a technical archive listing service and spearheads the co-operative effort of the CBH, the Business Archives Council (Scotland) and the Scottish Record Office in surveying business records in the West of Scotland. The funding provided by the Ballast Trust also supports, in part, the management of the business record collection in the University of Glasgow.

The creation of the Ballast Trust in association with the Aggregate Foundation and the CBH have to some extent provided a short-term safety valve for the pressure of work in business archives in the West of Scotland. The listing, selecting, and cataloguing of many collections, especially of technical drawings and engineering plans, is now heavily dependent upon this source of assistance. In the medium and longer term, however, an even more pressing problem is the lack of premises for archive management and storage. A major objective of the CBH, the Ballast Trust, and all the other interested parties, has to be finding the means to provide for a major addition to our archive storage and research premises in the West of Scotland. The available repositories are effectively full, and still the flood of newly located business record collections continue, and remains to be dealt with.

Much of the strength of the research and writing of business history in Scotland has emerged from a systematic exploration of the records of the basic industries, especially coal, iron and steel, and shipbuilding. This emphasis will continue to be important in the work of the CBH; there is ongoing work on shipbuilding (Slaven) and the beginning of new work in engineering (McKinlay). These are only part of an agenda of proposed work in areas identified as being of particular interest to the CBH. Areas which will attract particular attention as the work of the CBH develops include: Business Biography and Entrepreneurship; Financial Enterprise and Institutions in Scotland; Maritime Business History; and Industrial Relations. Each of these areas is capable of supporting important work based on Scottish records and of stimulating comparative research with relevance to public policy.
and private enterprise. The approach to be taken in these different areas will have a common thread. The CBH intends to explore the development of management thought, management organization and practice, and managerial strategy as a central theme in its research activity.

Two illustrations of this approach will give some indication of the situation. The current work on Scottish Business Biography led by Professor Slaven is now at the end of its first phase with the publication of the second volume of the *Dictionary of Scottish Business Biography* (1990). These short biographies, while interesting in themselves, have been part of a systematic attempt to collect a range of information on the origins and nature of the businessmen in Scotland during the last hundred years or so. The next step will be to analyse these data to attempt to draw out general statements about the development of the entrepreneur in Scotland, the type of management and business organization he created, and the view businessmen took of their role and place in Scottish and British society. Once reworked in this form, the possibility of comparative research with similar work in England, the USA, Japan and elsewhere, is greatly enhanced.

Similarly, Dr McKinlay has designed a research project focussing on employers strategies in industrial relations in engineering since 1945. His work explores issues such as wage bargaining, training and conditions of work as developed by the engineering employers in their trade association, and will utilise not only the Engineering Employers' Federation files, but papers of specific engineering companies, and files of the appropriate branches of the Amalgamated Engineering Union. The focus on management strategy sets the negotiation of industrial relations in the context of national politics and economic policy, this again providing a common theme and bridge to comparative work in other industries, and other countries.

These two examples emerge from the research of the core staff of the CBH, but it is intended that further projects will be designed in the general areas of priority interest set out above. As these succeed in attracting research funding an expansion of the research team will follow, and the research activity based in the CBH will be steadily broadened, the infusion of project researching
bringing with them new skills, insights, and vitality to contribute to the work of the Centre. The CBH has facilities capable of supporting a considerable number of projects at any one time.

The Business Archives Council of Scotland has always had the objective of working in partnership with the businessman to encourage the preservation and use of business records. The involvement of the business community has been essential in promoting the business archive developments, but there has been relatively little direct contribution by the businessman to the research and writing of business history. One important aim of the CBH is to find ways of increasing the participation of the owners and managers of business in archive research and in discussion, writing and teaching of business history.

One direct way of achieving some part of this is the traditional one of establishing the CBH as an agency for undertaking commissions to write business histories of firms, industries, and personalities. The CBH will certainly wish to cultivate such work, but this frequently produces only a passive involvement, the sponsor being content to be kept informed of progress, receive, read and comment on draft papers, and in the end, hopefully, approve publication. The aim is to move beyond this and involve businessmen in a more direct and constructive relationship with the academic researcher and students of business history.

The CBH has the facilities and resources to offer managers, young and old, short term secondment to allow businessmen to share in the research of their own industries and firms, to have the opportunity for extended reading and discussion, and to contribute to the teaching of business history by drawing on their own experience. The objective is one of mutual support and participation. Few businessmen have time during their working day to reflect on the development of their organization, its relationship to its competitors and customers, or reflect on the circumstances that lie behind their current situation, or even to consider seriously the advantages of and disadvantages of embarking upon a particular course of action. Indeed, it is rare in business for managers to be able to take the long view of where they hope their business will be in five years or ten years time.
The CBH will seek to develop study partnerships with business concerns which will provide the opportunity for some reflection and learning. Businessmen need time off to learn a little about the context in which they live and work; at the same time the academic researcher and student of business needs the opportunity to work with and learn from businessmen about the operation of their firms, their systems of collecting information, making decisions, and implementing and monitoring them. In seeking to provide an opportunity for structured short-term secondment to the CBH, the aim is not only to expand the intellectual horizons and business skills of the businessman. It is to involve men of business in helping the academic business historian to identify an agenda of important issues and the questions we need to ask to better understand our business history.

An immediate consequence of such involvement would be a widening of the intellectual framework of research activity. A further objective, however, is to improve the general level of appreciation and understanding of the world of business. Few people appear to think of business as an exciting or interesting career choice; very few have much of an understanding of business law and institutions, organizations, or the economic and policy environment in which the businessman has to function. By planning to involve business managers in the work of the CBH through short-term secondment, another objective is to bring students and managers into contact in short projects, case studies, seminars, conferences and courses. These interchanges should in turn be a means of opening up the world of business and enterprise to young people who would not normally have thought of taking up a career in business.

Nor should this be thought of as a purely theoretical set of exercises. In planning to establish such arrangements, the Aggregate Foundation and the CBH are intent on linking the study of our business history to a better appreciation and understanding of our present day problems and opportunities in industry and commerce. Developing an appreciation of business as an integral part of the education of our young students is an essential investment in securing the future of enterprise in Scotland.
While business history is a relatively young discipline in Britain, it has had a particularly vigorous record of growth in the past decade or so. A large number of individual scholars have written in the general area of business history and many institutions have a long record of research and publication. Polytechnics, as much as universities, have contributed to this; for example, the polytechnics of Central London, Coventry and Bristol. Universities like Nottingham, Liverpool, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Strathclyde have a long association with business history, as has the London School of Economics. More recently, Reading, Cardiff, Bath, Lancaster, Warwick, East Anglia and many others have established particular interests in the field.

In such a diverse and growing field there has always been academic interchange, but even with the efforts of the Business History Unit of the London School of Economics, there has still been a lack of co-ordination and effective promotion of the achievement of business historians and those concerned with business archives. The CBH is yet another agency in this diverse pool, and of itself could not hope to provide a large-scale central co-ordination or leadership. But in co-operation with others in the field the CBH has been deeply involved in the establishment of the Association of Business Historians to provide some effective national co-ordination in business history in Britain.

Such an involvement reflects not only a national need in Britain, but the lack of any systematic international linkages. In recent years there has been a rapid advance of business history in Europe and Japan, as well as in the USA. There are a number of national Business History societies which provide a forum for national and international interchange and co-operation. The CBH is committed to promoting such developments in Britain, since its own research activity can only be enriched and encouraged by national and international co-operation and involvement.

The objectives set out above cannot all be achieved quickly or simultaneously. It took two years from the formation of the Aggregate Foundation and the CBH to translate the paper propositions into a physical establishment and appoint the first members of staff. The following five years will be an important period of consolidation during which our first research projects will
be funded and launched. At the same time our new library will gradually have to acquire its specialist texts and resources, contacts and working arrangements will need to be established with the business community and with other centres with interests in business history and archives. Among the first steps toward these objectives will be the establishment of a seminar series and occasional conference on aspects of business history, certainly with specialist Scottish interest, but also comparatively, emphasising British and international dimensions. This will certainly necessitate publicity and the CBH plans to introduce and circulate a news bulletin on its activities. It will welcome news, views, and other items as contributions for publication and circulation to the widest possible readership.

Our news bulletin will also regularly publicise our facilities, and arrangements for visiting researchers, research fellows and others on short study visits or on secondment. It will also outline the services the CBH is able to provide in support of research in business history. To this end the CBH will invite applications for associate membership from individuals, companies and other organizations, who would wish to contribute to the development of the Centre, and to make use of its facilities.

Since the CBH is as yet only at the beginning of its life, it is not easy to be precise about future developments. However, if the CBH is to succeed to build fruitfully on its inheritance for the next thirty years, it will need the support and involvement of all of the individuals, institutions and organizations that have laid the foundations of business history so securely in the past. The CBH is a bold and ambitious experiment in which we hope all business historians, archivists and all with an interest in our business development, will have a share.
When I was an archivist trainee in the department of Western Manuscripts at the Bodleian Library in 1969, I can recall telling George Boyce, who was busy cataloguing the vast and largely uninteresting papers of Lord Bryce, that in the future business records would assume an increasingly important position in archival work. I spoke with great conviction from a position of profound ignorance. In my time as an undergraduate, I had read no histories of business and had only written occasional essays on economic history. I little thought that within a year I would be knocking on the doors of decaying and defunct companies in the West of Scotland in search of these very records.

My arrival in Glasgow was traumatic; the city was at the nadir of its fortunes and the National Register of Archives (Scotland) surveying methods were very different from the patient ordering and calendaring of documents I had encountered at the Bodleian Library. There was determination to save what was important, discard the ephemeral, and list as cost effectively as possible. My brief as Registrar of the Western Survey of the National Register encompassed all historical records, but there was a clear expectation by the management committee chaired by Professor A A M Duncan that I would take over where Peter Payne had left off - a year before. When I arrived I was based in the department of Scottish History, with only tenuous contacts with the University Archives. Peter Payne had gone to Aberdeen and Tony Slaven, although able to come out on emergency rescue expeditions, was heavily engaged in teaching and departmental administration. At the Glasgow City Archives, Richard Dell was hopelessly understaffed. Goodwill, however, prevailed, fostered by Robert Smith, then chairman of the Business Archives Council of Scotland. Armed with lists of possible contacts and sources of records, I set to work with all the impetuosity of youth.
Within weeks I had uncovered significant collections of records, notably the huge archive of the Ardgowan estate at Greenock. It was a cold winter and the Estate Office was as it had been a century before, with high desks, a blazing coal fire, and an ample supply of chocolate biscuits. This lucky break gave me time to make more approaches, using lists of businesses supplied by those with a knowledge of the West of Scotland, particularly John Hume, who was heavily engaged in his industrial archaeology surveys of Glasgow. Almost at our first meeting, we decided to team up, making joint approaches; he would photograph the plant and I would list the records. This was a happy partnership. Together we discovered tons of archives and photographed premises sometimes dating back well into the nineteenth century, which were shortly to disappear. John was also able to teach me a great deal about technical records and their relationship to the purely commercial archives of an enterprise. Out of our close cooperation developed a survey of the Scottish iron founding industry, once crucial to the West of Scotland's engineering prowess, but now in terminal decline. Although the survey conducted between 1970/71 proved fascinating, it yielded few records - although many of the businesses were over a hundred years old. This lack of written evidence was more than compensated for by John's photographic record of the industry, now the only surviving evidence of the industry, as nearly all the 150 firms we visited have closed. The decline in popularity of industrial archaeology in the last fifteen years has led archivists and museum curators to neglect the importance of making contemporary photographic records for permanent preservation.

Confirmation that, at least in the West of Scotland, large accumulations of papers of historical interest remained in private hands, encouraged the Scottish Record Office to secure funds for two further surveys based at Dundee, in what was to become Tayside, and at Aberdeen, in what was to become the Grampian region. The experience of both these surveys was broadly similar to that in the west. Under Joan Auld, now archivist of Dundee University, the Eastern Survey located and listed large numbers of collections from the traditional industries of Dundee and its surrounding area, many of which, like those in the West of
Scotland, were in imminent danger of collapse. Joan had no long tradition of business record surveying and rescue, as at Glasgow, to build on. She had not only to find the records but also persuade the University Library and the meagre local authority offices in Perth and Dundee to take them. John Hume, with his interest in industrial archaeology and history throughout Scotland, offered help and cheerful encouragement to both Joan and to Aberdeen.

Early in my days as Registrar, I had approached the surviving Clyde shipbuilding firms, but with as little joy as Peter Payne had secured in similar enquiries a decade before. However, one cold October evening in 1971, I was returning to Central Station to be greeted by the news that the Conservative government had placed Upper Clyde Shipbuilders Ltd into liquidation and that Robert Smith had been appointed provisional liquidator. Despite all his many concerns, Robert Smith lent me his support from the beginning. Confident I would find nothing, I visited Fairfields, Connells, and Stephens, to be greeted by huge caches of records. I remember going with John Hume to Fairfields where, like excited schoolboys, we found the drawings of the first compound and triple expansion engines, a remarkable collection of hull drawings and, under the foundations of the building, the firm’s records back to its foundation. Their removal has become a legend. There was space only to crawl and a team comprising Richard Dell, Tony Slaven, Archie Duncan, John Hume, David Reid of Robertland, and myself, had to form a human chain to pass them through a manhole to the waiting van. At Connells, Tony Slaven and I discovered the best set of wage records of any Clyde shipbuilding or engineering firm stored in what can best be described as a boilerhouse. Together we removed them to the Glasgow City Archives where we encountered Olive Checkland, who, not batting an eyelid at our filthy condition, asked if we knew the whereabouts of a certain collection.

The Clydebank yard of John Browns proved to be a classic example of why an archivist should never give up. Repeated approaches, urged on by John Bates at the Scottish Record Office, drew a blank, until a chance conversation with the resident director’s secretary revealed the existence of a large safe in the main office. I arranged a visit and found a vast room that
contained, in no particular order, the records of UCS, John Brown and J & G Thomson, apparently intact, along with wartime utility underwear and socks (I can testify that they never wear out!) and large quantities of pickled herrings ordered for the long forgotten launch of a Danish ship. There then began a period of intense work, with John Hume, Tony Slaven and John Bates, giving up as much time as they could to list the collection. It was bitterly cold and we all succumbed to chills. As the work progressed and we gained the confidence of the staff, so the real extent of the collection became apparent. Further groups of records turned up, including the all important comparison of cost and estimates books stored in the attic of the yard manager’s office. Eventually, when the task was completed, the whole collection was removed to the Business Records Store at the University. The back axle of the University lorry broke on the first run, but luckily the Commander of the University Naval Squadron had arranged the loan of a huge naval lorry. During 1972, after protracted negotiations and the intervention of Edward Heath, the collection was acquired for the nation through a joint package of funding put together between the Treasury and the local authorities.

The experience of dealing with the enormous UCS collection impressed upon the Scottish Record Office the need to devise a strategy for handling large accumulations of technical records, which from now on were to be regarded as integral to a collection rather than being stored separately in a museum or specialist archive. With John Bates’ encouragement, John Hume and I wrote a memorandum on the subject which resulted in the creation of a post of technical records officer at the Scottish Record Office. The first incumbent, Jack Sime, had immediately to work out retention schedules for historic and non-current drawings with the help of depositories and Bill Lind, an enthusiastic collector of ship models and a knowledgeable historian of the Clyde industry. Reinforced by Jack Sime’s appointment, combined approaches were made to other engineering firms who were thought to have large accumulations of technical drawings, notably Andrew Barclay Sons & Co of Kilmarnock, which had acquired the goodwill of the North British Locomotive Company. The Barclay collection, now deposited in the Business Records collection at the University
of Glasgow, comprises drawings not only of all the steam locomotives constructed by Barclays, but the majority of those manufactured by NBL and diesel railcars built by Armstrong Whitworth, along with a mass of drawings of a bewildering variety of mechanical engineering products. Other collections with significant caches of technical drawings were those from A & W Smith, the Glasgow sugar machine manufacturers, and Fullerton Hodgart & Barclay, general engineers, of Paisley, who specialised in very deep winding gear.

I remained as Registrar of the Western Survey until October 1974, when I was appointed Archivist of the University of Glasgow. By then I had carried out more than 300 surveys and arranged for the deposit of tons and tons of records in the Glasgow City Archives and in the Business Records Store at the University. Shortly after my appointment, day-to-day management of the collection was transferred from the Department of Economic History to the University Archives. The work of surveying did not lapse. Janet McBain took over from me as Registrar and continued where I had left off. The Western Survey continued until 1977 when the whole programme of regional surveys, sponsored by the National Register of Archives (Scotland) came to an end following the development of regional and district record offices in Strathclyde, Tayside and Grampian. The Scottish Record Office, however, was convinced that there was a need to make provision for the surveying of records, particularly those of businesses broadly conceived, throughout Scotland. Although the National Register of Archives included a surveying officer on its establishment, the occupant of this post was wholly pre-occupied in listing family papers still in private hands, and the SRO's technical archivist had more than enough to do in weeding and cataloguing the rapidly growing accumulation of marine and engineering records. Likewise, the new local authority record offices and the University Archives at Aberdeen, Dundee, Glasgow and St Andrews, lacked the resources to conduct anything more than the most urgent rescue operations. John Bates suggested that the Business Archives Council of Scotland should be the vehicle for future surveying activity, using as a model the London-based British Record Association, which received a grant-in-aid for
this purpose from the Historical Manuscript Commission. Bill Lind, who had recently taken over as secretary of the Council, was enthusiastic and the Council, through its new chairman, Norman Biggart, appealed to the Scottish clearing banks for support. When this was forthcoming, the Scottish Record Office secured a matching grant from the Treasury.

The first surveying officer was David Cross, who quickly demonstrated that the expectation that much remained to be done was entirely correct. He and his successor, Lesley Millar (now Richmond), both left to join the Business Archives Council in London, using the expertise they had gained in Scotland to conduct similar surveys south of the border. The establishment of the BAC(S) surveying post coincided with the formation of the Manpower Services Commission. Both Dundee and Glasgow University Archives secured funds from the MSC to underpin the work of rescuing and listing business collections and in so doing providing informal archival training to a number of people who later secured full-time posts in archives in Scotland. Since 1977 there have been several surveying officers of the BAC(S), each completing a regular thirty to forty surveys every year, the scope of the surveys reflecting their individual interests. Since the majority of enterprises in Scotland are situated in the central belt, by far the greatest number of surveys have been undertaken in the Glasgow and Edinburgh areas, with the listings of large collections, like those from J & P Coats of Paisley (now Coats Vyella) and Ivory & Sime, the Edinburgh-based investment trust managers. The far north, the Borders and the Islands have not been overlooked, with surveys of the records of malt distilleries and the Borders textile industry. As long as there is no complete coverage of well-staffed local authority record offices in Scotland, there will be a need for such provision. Recognizing that the annual renewal of the grant-in-aid was an unnecessary formality when the surveying officers so consistently turned up new material, the Scottish Record Office, in 1979, arranged for the cycle to be extended to three years. In addition, the size of the grant was doubled in 1989 to allow for a contribution to be made towards the salary costs of the manager of the Business Record Centre at Glasgow University, where many of the collections rescued by the surveying officer are
stored. These decisions coincided with another welcome development crowning the achievements of the past twenty years - the formation of the Aggregate Foundation and Ballast Trust based in the department of Economic History at Glasgow University.

The Ballast Trust, established by an anonymous benefactor at the same time as the Aggregate Foundation (which is described elsewhere in this journal), is designed specifically to promote the preservation of business archives throughout Scotland. As part of this policy the Trust has agreed to make an annual donation to the Business Archives Council of Scotland. In addition, small grants will be made to archive repositories to assist with the conservation and listing of major collections. Already the Dundee Archives has received a grant, matched by the local authority, to list the records of the Dundee Harbour Trust and make them available to the public. The Trust is not simply a passive body simply dispersing income to deserving causes through the secretary of the Business Archives Council of Scotland, Bill Lind; it seeks to promote the understanding and use of technical records. Already under Bill Lind’s direction, the Trust is engaged in the huge task of listing the records of the Scott Lithgow group of companies at Port Glasgow, which are predominantly technical. The Trust now has a backlog of collections of technical records awaiting listing, including those of Hasties, the Greenock steering gear manufacturers rescued by the Business Archives Council of Scotland. Apart from listing technical records directly, the Trust will provide training on this specialised topic, open to archivists and museum staff from the whole of Britain.

For some time before the Aggregate Foundation and Ballast Trust were established, we at Glasgow, had been faced with an acute accommodation crisis. The original store in the Adam Smith Building, the brainchild of Roy Campbell, was bursting at the seams and an outstation at Cochno House in the country above Clydebank was inadequate. The formation of the Trust and Foundation and the creation of the Centre for Business History in Scotland coincided with the provision of funds by the University Grants Commission for the rationalisation and improvement of facilities in the History departments and the Social Sciences
building at Glasgow. As part of a package of funding, two floors of an old flour mill in Thurso Street were refurbished to high standards to create a new Business Records Centre. During the summer of 1989, the collection, which by then extended to 15,000 linear feet, was removed to the new Centre which opened to readers towards the end of October. The construction of this new store could not have happened at a more opportune time as, while work was in progress, Babcock & Wilcox, following their merger with FKI, decided to deposit the whole of their important archive (some 800 linear feet), and Barr & Stroud, the optical engineers at Anniesland, persuaded the Pilkington Group Archive to allow them to transfer their records to the University. The Glasgow University Business Record Centre is one of the best equipped archives in Scotland, but there is little room for expansion.

Despite all the many achievements of the last twenty years in securing the written heritage of Scotland's industry and commerce, there can be no room for complacency. The most urgent problem remains accommodation. In the present straitened circumstances of their finances, there can be little expectation of further accommodation from either universities or local authorities. What is desperately needed is a low-cost dump, possibly financed jointly by the Scottish Record Office, local authorities and universities. Expectations that the private sector itself could fund the preservation of records directly is unrealistic since most of the collections at risk in Scotland come from businesses that have either ceased trading or have scant resources. More seriously, in the long term, is the insidious pressures within organizations to audit the use of collections. Inevitably, in such an exercise, business records will be poor losers to parochial and local authority records, partly because many archivists have little knowledge of how they can be used by historians other than those of business itself. As a result, in some parts of Britain, but not yet in Scotland as far as I know, there are suggestions that business collections should be refused by local record offices. In preventing such an attack on a resource created with so much effort and money, the new Centre for Business History in Scotland should play a vital role. When collections are well used, like the shipbuilding and locomotive manufacturing records at Glasgow,
there are equally insidious proposals about charging. While I have no objection to readers paying for services - and this has long been our policy at Glasgow - the income generated can never meet the whole cost of maintaining an archive.

We undoubtedly now have the best provision for the preservation of business archives in Scotland anywhere in the United Kingdom, but we have probably reached the stage where there needs to be some overall policy to resist these pressures which, in the long run (when we are all dead), could undermine all our efforts. The Business Archives Council of Scotland can provide a forum for discussion, but the Scottish Record Office, which stimulated much of this work, should, through its Advisory Council, establish the policy before it is too late.
Lower Largo on the Fife coast is one of the villages which belongs to the parish of Largo. In Victorian times Lower Largo was fairly prosperous, although it had its share of very poor families in overcrowded cottages; in 1861 it had a population of 202 males and 226 females. It was connected with the outside world by the Thornton and Anstruther branch of the North British railway system with its own station which opened in 1856.

After the collapse of the linen industry and the closing down of the Largo Flax Spinning Mill in 1864, a considerable section of its population returned to the old industry of fishing. It was in 1867 that a net manufactory was founded by a Largo man, David Selkirk Gillies (1843-1923), the eldest son of James Gillies (1816-1902), who was a ship's carpenter on a whaling ship.

After finishing his formal education at the age of thirteen, D S Gillies went to work as a clerk in a net factory in Leven, Fife. His keen business drive led him in 1867, when only twenty-four, to design and build a model net factory, which was located on Cardy Common, a gathering place for tinkers, on the banks of the Forth near his parents' cottage in Largo. He was joined in the enterprise by his brothers John, James, Robert and William, one of them being a blacksmith and another a cabinetmaker. They helped him with the woodwork and the setting up of a blacksmith's shop inside the factory. Financial help was provided by two of his school-friends, one sent him £200 from Canada and another an uncut diamond from South Africa. Gillies obtained a netmaking machine from the Boase firm in Leven, which he used as a model, and was able to build another 30 machines in his own workshop.

His factory was quite advanced for its time. It was constructed of red brick, flanked by a chimney at either end and had a three-pitched grey slate roof with ample sky lights, which gave it good
Plate 1. Trade card illustrating Cardy Works

Plate 3. Interior of Cardy Works
light and ventilation and a lofty appearance. (Plate 1) Internally, the main factory wooden floor was open from end to end. Paraffin lamps were suspended from the ceiling for extra light. The walls were wood panelled with square painted shuttered windows along three sides to let in the fresh air. Off the main work area were situated the offices, store-rooms and blacksmith’s shop. The offices had pine walls, moulded ceilings and cornices, a corner fireplace and handprinted linoleum, made in Kirkcaldy.

A huge clerk’s desk, with date card, quill pens and brass letter scales, is still in existence, as are the leather bound ledgers, wages, and order and personal notebooks. In the store rooms, ornamental metal brackets round the walls, held up the slatted shelving for the storage of different grades of cotton twine, nets, net-mountings and bales of sail-cloth. In the centre of one of the rooms was a big wooden counter in whose drawers are still to be found trade cards, price lists and various labels. The blacksmith’s shop, with its gable wall facing the sea, had a corner furnace with bellows, anvil and a workshop with various tools. (Plate 2).

Netmaking was a hand craft until the invention in Scotland in 1812 of the first hand-operated netmaking loom - 'The Jumper' - which was put into production in the 1820s. Old photographs show that Gillies' netmaking machines (looms) were of the 'Jumper' type, so called because it required two hundred or more wire springs to be compressed by a foot-operated treadle on which the operator jumped. The mode of working the machine, the principle of which was the forming of a sheet-bend was as follows:

The operative moves a lever which draws the last completed row of meshes off the sinkers, and transfers them to the hooks. Another lever is moved, and the meshes caught by the needles. The effect of these changes and the movement of other parts of the machine is to twist the lower part of each mesh into a loose knot. The foot of the operative touches another lever, and a steel wire is thrust across the machine through all the knots. There is a hook at the end of this wire - or shuttle, as it is called - into which the end of a piece of cotton is fixed. The wire is then withdrawn, and as it goes, takes the cotton along with
it. Now the 'sinkers' play their part. They consist of thin slips of brass having a hook or notch formed on the upper end, and are situated between the needles. When the twine has been drawn across through the loops of the meshes, the sinkers are released in succession and as they descend each draws down the cross thread into a loop, sufficient to form two sides of a mesh, the other two being formed by the same parts of the previous row. One or two movements more remove the knots off the needles, and draws them firmly, thus completing the operation. In forming each row of meshes, the worker has to press upon half-a-dozen levers in succession and pass from one end of the machine to the other. The occupation is consequently an unusually active one. As work proceeds, the net is wound upon a self-acting cylinder which forms the upper part of the machine. There is an index attached to the cylinder which records the progress of the work. When sufficient length of netting has been made, it is unwound from the cylinder.

A mesh sheet of heavier twine had then to be fitted to the upper side of the net to stop it from fraying. This process was called the guarding of the net. The guarding was done by 'guarders' in their own homes in the village. They were often widows or mothers with young children. Various rates were applied according to the size of nets; there was not much variation in rates over the years.

In its heyday, about sixty women were employed in the factory, most of them were local, or relatives of D S Gillies. Some workers were in lodgings, although a cousin walked in daily from Buckhaven, over the Links. Photographs show that the women working in the factory wore dark high-necked, buttoned dresses, which were shortened in the front - probably to make it easy to 'jump' the machines - with white half aprons, flat dark shoes with toe-caps, and their hair drawn into buns for safety. (Plate 2) Wages were paid by the 'piece' - 50 yards of net - at the end of each fortnight (12 working days). According to the wages books the yardage of net made by each worker was recorded every day; totalled at the end of every fortnight and divided by 50. As they
were paid by the piece, the wages were not always the same. The wage rate per net in 1867 was 4s 5d and 3s 8d per net for apprentices. An experienced worker could make six nets in 12 working days, for a wage of £1.6.6. in 1867, while in 1870 she would have been paid £1.1.9.

The employees were well looked after. D S Gillies laid out a bowling green in front of the factory which could be used in their lunch hour. There is an entry in a ledger which indicates that he took his staff to visit the International Fisheries Exhibition which took place in the Waverley Market, Edinburgh, from 12 to 29 April 1882.9

D S Gillies was a meticulous and shrewd business man, and from his copious records we can get a very detailed impression of the daily operation of Cardy Works, from the checking up on competition by writing away for price lists, to detailed directions for ‘Weaving a Bag Net and Leader’. Price lists of nets and canvas (he also was a canvas agent) were sent out regularly to potential customers such as various firms and fishermen. To promote his business he advertised in Slater’s Directory and had representatives in various towns. Nets of different sizes were supplied to firms and fishermen in Fife, but there are also entries for Wick, Caithness, and for Thomas Montiplay and Inglis Smith in Melbourne, Australia.

Material such as net cotton twine, ossels, salmon twine, and canvas were supplied by various firms such as: Elkanan Armitage & Son, Manchester, for cotton (English and American); Laycock and Nephew, Manchester, for bales of cotton yarns, Egyptian and American cotton, osselwarp and salmon twine; Robert Thatcher, Manchester, for cotton twine and salmon twines; and I W Stewart, Musselburgh, for cotton net-mounting.

Net making, like so many occupations, is subject to circumstances. As herring shoals left the coast, Gillies, being an enterprising man, went over to boatbuilding and selling sails and chandlery supplies. Like so many purpose-built Victorian Buildings, Cardy Works is now up for sale for conversion into private accommodation.
Acknowledgements
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NOTES
3. A S Cunningham, Upper Largo, Lower Largo, Lundin Links and Newburn (1907) pp. 41 and 43.
The Modern Records Centre (MRC) is a UK-wide specialist archive repository. Its collecting policy is defined primarily in terms of industrial relations and its holdings consist mainly of the archives of employers' associations and trade unions. The MRC holds a considerable amount of primary source material relevant to Scotland. This forms an integral part of archives created by British organisations. Where the Centre has received Scottish records which do not form part of a wider archive, attempts have been made to avoid retaining it. Transfers of material to Glasgow, Edinburgh, and Aberdeen have taken place. The Board of Trade Library which is referred to below, was acquired by the University of Warwick from the Department of Employment. It was collected by the Labour Department of the Board of Trade and consists principally of trade union and trade council annual reports and monthly journals dating from the last two decades of the nineteenth century and the first decade of the present century.

In the description of the Modern Records Centre's holdings which follows references are only supplied where these could not be easily found by simply consulting the appropriate descriptive lists. Further information about the holdings may be obtained by consulting the printed guides (of which the most recent is R A Storey and A G Tough, Consolidated Guide to the Modern Records Centre, University of Warwick Library, 1986) or the National Inventory of Documentary Sources which has reproduced a considerable number of the Centre's descriptive lists. Enquiries
should be addressed to: Modern Records Centre, University of Warwick Library, Coventry CV4 7AL.

GENERAL

Confederation of British Industry (CBI) (MSS.200)
The CBI was formed in 1965 by the amalgamation of the Federation of British Industries, the British Employers Confederation and the National Association of British Manufacturers (NABM). The archive of the NABM is evidently far from complete. The only specifically Scottish item in it is a directory of Scottish members, 1956 (MSS.200/N/4/5/1). Also forming a part of the CBI archive is the archive of Wages Councils (Employers) Consultative Committee, an independent body to which the BEC provided secretarial services. Its archive contains a file of correspondence with the Scottish Trade Boards Consultative Committee, 1920-24 (MSS.200/TB/3/1/5).

The archive of the British Employers Confederation contains the following items of relevance. Subject files re: education, 1920s; industrial health, 1940s-50s; legal procedure, 1920s; Royal Commission on Scottish Affairs, 1952-54; and unemployment benefit, 1920s-40s. Files of correspondence with the following employers' organisations: Electrical Contractors Association of Scotland; National Farmers Union of Scotland; Scottish Agricultural Implement Dealers' Association; Scottish Alliance of Employers in the Printing and Kindred Trades; Scottish Association of Master Bakers; Scottish Building Contractors' Association; Scottish Carpet Manufacturers' Association; Scottish Distributive Trades' Federation; Scottish Employers' Council for the Clay Industries; Scottish Employers' Federation of Iron and Steel Founders; Scottish Federation of Aerated Water Manufacturers' Associations; Scottish Federation of Dyers and Bleachers; Scottish Federation of Grocers' and Provision Merchants' Association; Scottish Federation of Retail Tobacconists; Scottish Flaxspinners and Manufacturers' Association; Scottish Furniture Manufacturers' Association; Scottish Light Clothing Manufacturers' Association; Scottish Master Plasterers' Association; Scottish Mine Owners' Defence
and Mutual Insurance Association; Scottish Motor Trade Association; Scottish National Building Trades' Federation (Employers); Scottish Provision Trade Association; Scottish Public Works Contractors' Association; Scottish Retail Drapers' Association; Scottish Steam Drifters' Association; Scottish Steelmakers Wages Association; Scottish Tube Makers' Wages Association; Scottish Vehicle Builders' Association; Scottish Wholesale Grocery Provision and Allied Trades Employers' Association; and Scottish Woollen Trade Employers' Association.

The archive of the Federation of British Industries includes a number of specifically Scottish items. Several concern the FBI's Scottish Regional Council which was originally intended as a channel for recruitment of new members but acquired an active role in government-industry relations in the 1940s. Correspondence with and reports of the Scottish Council and office, 1938-65 are in the Secretarial Department files (MSS.200/F/3/S3/1/41-3 and /S3/2/64-9) whilst annual reports, 1953-65 are among the FBI publications (MSS.200/F/4/3/1-12). Other relevant files concern: McKenzie Committee on electricity industry, 1961-65 (MSS.200/F/3/T3/20/EL7 and /EL9); Royal Commission on Scottish Affairs, 1952-54 (MSS.200/F/3/E6/12/3 and /S2/25/1); and US Economic Co-operative Administration report on Scottish industry, 1950 (MSS.200/F/3/04/3/5).

**Trades Union Congress (TUC) (MSS.292)**

As the British TUC exists in parallel with the Scottish Trades Union Congress (STUC) the records of the former do not cover Scotland to the same extent as they do England and Wales. In particular, the TUC archive contains very little regarding Scottish trades councils as these function under the auspices of the STUC. Nonetheless the TUC archive contains much of Scottish interest, including files concerning: the STUC; industrial disputes; Scottish trade unions; Scottish industries; and trade union recruitment. The files relating to the STUC include: correspondence, 1925-60; circulars and bulletins issued by the STUC, 1925-60; papers re the STUC's education scheme, 1925-26; papers concerning trade boards, 1928-30; and a file concerning STUC proposals for statutory encouragement of
collective bargaining, 1930-39. The industrial dispute files include papers on: shale miners, 1925-26; clerks at Carron works, Falkirk, 1941; refusal of newspapers to employ trade unionists, 1924-29; colliery enginemen, 1929; and colliery deputies, 1945-46. The Scottish unions for which files exist are: Scottish Union of Bakers, 1925-55; Scottish Graphical Association, 1929-43; Jute, Flax and Kindred Textile Operatives, 1956-60; Scottish Legal Managers and Inspectors Association, 1938-40; Scottish Motormen, 1939-59; Scottish Union of Power-Loom Overlookers, 1947; Shale Miners and Oil Workers, 1957; Scottish Transport and General Workers Union, 1952-53. The industries for which files were maintained include mining, shipbuilding, jute, fisheries, transport, public services and utilities: in most instances the files contain much which is relevant and a goodly amount which is either of English or British relevance.

**BANKING, INSURANCE AND WHITE COLLAR EMPLOYMENT**

*Association of Supervisory Staffs, Executives and Technicians (ASSET) / Association of Scientific Technical and Managerial Staffs (ASTMS) (MSS.79)*

Founded in 1917 and renamed ASTMS in 1967 (following the amalgamation of ASSET with the Association of Scientific Workers) this union underwent meteoric expansion in the 1960s and 1970s to become Britain's largest white collar union. It has now been absorbed into Manufacturing Science and Finance. Along with the ASSET/ASTMS archive, the Centre has received the papers of General Secretary, Clive Jenkins. These include his files as a member of the British National Oil Corporation's Board of Directors, 1979-82, which will be opened to research in 2002.

The principal archive of ASSET/ASTMS contains a substantial series of subject files on companies. Of these approximately thirty-five files deal with employers in Scotland. Subject matter include union-recognition and inter-union disputes, salaries and plant closures. The files cover the years 1956 to 1982. The archive also contains duplicated minutes of the Scottish Divisional Council, 1960-72, with the reports of full-time officials to the Council, 1966-71.
**Guild of Insurance Officials (GOIO) (MSS.79)**

Formed in 1919 the GOIO transferred its members to ASTMS in 1970. The archive contains: reports of the full-time officials based in Glasgow with minutes of the area committee for Scotland and North East England, 1963-71; and subject files concerning Scottish insurance companies, 1921-71 (mainly 1940s to 60s).

**National Union of Bank Employees (NUBE) (MSS.56)**

NUBE was formed in 1946 by the amalgamation of the Scottish Bankers' Association (SBA) with the Bank Officers Guild. The records of the SBA are not included in the NUBE archive. It does, however, include a number of subject and correspondence files concerning the Scottish banks and Scottish branches of NUBE, 1940s-70s. The principal subjects are salaries, relations with their staff associations and recognition by the banks. Also included are some minor SBA publications, 1930s and 1940s, and duplicated minutes of NUBE's committees for British Linen Bank Staffs, 1958-63.

**CLOTHING**

**A R Rollin (MSS.240)**

The papers of Rollin, an official of the National Union of Tailors and Garment Workers, include a file concerning Glasgow tailoring trade unions, 1930s and 1940s.

**Scottish Operative Tailors and Tailoresses Association**

Half-yearly reports, 1887-1912, and a conference report, 1910, are to be found in the Board of Trade Library.

**CONSTRUCTION**

**Refractory Users Federation / Oil and Chemical Plant Constructors' Association (MSS.91)**

The records of this association include: committee minutes, 1952-69; and subject files, 1962-82, including industrial relations at sites at Grangemouth and in the Shetlands.
Scottish Plasterers Union (SPU) (MSS.126)
Microfilmed copies of the union's records prior to 1927 are deposited in the National Library of Scotland, along with the Edinburgh and Montrose branch records of the National Association of Operative Plasterers (NAOP), 1864-1955. The SPU amalgamated with the NAOP in 1969 which, in turn, was absorbed by the Transport and General Workers Union in the following year. The records at Warwick comprise executive council signed minutes, 1955-68, and Glasgow District general, quarterly and committee meetings, signed minutes 1916-26, 1933-42 and 1950-54.

Settmakers Union
The Settmakers and Stoneworkers Journal, 1893-1909, is to be found in the Board of Trade Library.

Union of Construction, Allied Trades and Technicians (UCATT) (MSS.78)
UCATT was formed in 1971 as the end product of a long and complex process of amalgamations between trade unions of bricklayers, cabinet makers, carpenters, painters, slaters and tilers, stone cutters, stone masons, builders' labourers and building technicians. Among its predecessor unions are four purely or largely Scottish organisations, some records of which are preserved in the Modern Records Centre. These are:

United Operative Masons Association of Scotland (UOMAS)
Revived in the 1850s from an earlier organisation, the strength of this union lay mostly in Glasgow and the surrounding area. In 1920 it merged into the Building and Monumental Workers' Association of Scotland. The records consist of Glasgow and suburban lodges: correspondence book, 1900-04 and standing committee minute book, 1899-1903. In addition to these, the Centre also holds annual reports for the union as part of the Board of Trade Library collection, 1894-9. The archive of the National Union of Railwaymen contains a UOMAS rule book for 1915 (MSS.127/NU/5/5/6/108).

United Operative Masons and Granite Workers' Union
Formed in 1888 in Aberdeen this union's strength lay mostly in the
North East. The records consist of general roll of members, 1888-1933. In addition, the Board of Trade Library collection includes the following: annual reports, 1897-1900; balance sheets, 1893-96; and journal, 1902-07 (incomplete).

**Building and Monumental Workers' Association of Scotland (B&MWAS)**

Formed in 1920 from the Scottish Operative Masons, the Aberdeen Granite Workers and two smaller stoneworkers' societies, the B&MWAS amalgamated with the Amalgamated Union of Building Trade Workers in 1942. The records consist of: Granite Workers' section general ledger, 1936-41; B&MWAS cash books, 1938-42, register of members, 1920s-30s, and journal, 1924-41.

**Associated Society of Carpenters and Joiners**

In 1856 the United Joiners of Glasgow and the West of Scotland were organised and, in 1861, they took a leading part in forming the Associated Carpenters' and Joiners' Society of Scotland. The influence of this society later spread to Ireland and parts of England and in 1911 the Associated Society was admitted to the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners. The records consist of: fortnightly returns/monthly reports, 1872-26, 1880-85, 1910-11; annual reports and delegate meetings, 1863-94, 1909-10; rule book, 1880; and Glasgow and district committee minute book, 1876-7.

The Union of Construction, Allied Trades and Technicians (UCATT) archive also contains some records of Glasgow woodworkers trade clubs. These early precursors of trade unionism were often as much friendly societies as they were unions. The records which have been preserved comprise the following: **Protective Association of Joiners of Glasgow** rules for tool insurance, membership lists and minutes of winding up meeting, 1847-61; **United Joiners and House Carpenters of Glasgow** rule book, 1849; **(Glasgow) Joiners Sick Benefit Society** bank pass book, 1859-62; **United Joiners & House Carpenters of Glasgow** membership card of William Campbell, nd.

The following British unions, now absorbed into UCATT, also have to be mentioned:
Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners (ASC&J) and Amalgamated Society of Woodworkers (ASW).

The Associated Carpenters and Joiners of Scotland merged with the ASC&J in 1911. The ASC&J was the principal constituent in an amalgamation by which the ASW was created in 1921. The ASC&J and ASW records include the following items: proceedings of a conference concerning the merging of the Clyde (i.e. shipbuilding) and West of Scotland (i.e. construction) District Management Committee, 1933; Oil Refining Industry Building Craftsmen's Local Committee for South East Scotland, duplicated minutes, 1954-63 (incomplete); National Federation of Building Trades Operatives, Scottish Council minutes, 1959-62; decennial re-registration of members, volumes listing whole membership as at 1911 and 1921; correspondence concerning local levies for benevolent, political and organising purposes, 1920-67; correspondence of National Organiser for Government Establishments concerning defence and industrial civil service depots in Scotland, 1959-64; file on unofficial strike at Lithgow's shipyard on the Clyde, 1963; report on the annual conference of the National Federation of Furniture Trade Union's Scottish Region, 1956; proceedings of annual delegate conference of Scottish Slaters etc. Union, 1948.

Amalgamated Union of Building Trade Workers (AUBTW)

The Building and Monumental Workers' Association of Scotland merged with AUBTW in 1942. The minutes of the negotiations preceding the merger, 1941-42, and of earlier unsuccessful amalgamation negotiations, 1921-22 and 1937-38, are the only specifically Scottish items in the AUBTW archive.

Association of Building Technicians

The archive contains Scottish Divisional Council secretary's reports and summaries of business transacted, 1920-22.

National Amalgamated Society of Operative House and Ship Painters and Decorators (NASOHSPD)

In 1963 the Scottish Painters Society (SPS) merged with NASOHSPD and some smaller unions to form the Amalgamated Society of Painters and Decorators. The income received by the new organisation from the Scottish Painters Society is recorded in a ledger. Otherwise the only Scottish item in this union's archive is
an agreement between NASOHSPD and the Scottish National Federation of Painters for mutual recognition of cards, 1894. The Board of Trade Library collection has Scottish Painters Society annual reports, 1905-09 and the archive of the National Union of Railwaymen contains an SPS rule book for 1912 (MSS.127/NU/5/5/6/98).

United Operative Plumbers Association of Scotland (UOPAS) (MSS.134)
The UOPAS membership registers, 1865-1920, are its principal surviving records. The UOPAS existed in competition with a predominantly English union, the United Operative Plumbers Association (UOPA). The efforts of the UOPA to establish itself north of the Border are reflected in its executive committee minutes, 1876-1920, particularly for the years 1877-78, when the union’s administrative centre was located in Edinburgh. The two unions merged in 1920.

ENGINEERING, SHIPBUILDING AND METALWORKING

Amalgamated Society of Engineers (ASE) / Amalgamated Engineering Union (AEU) (MSS.259)
The ASE was formed in 1851 and the AEU in 1920, in both instances by a process of amalgamation. As the engineering union is one of Britain’s largest and oldest, it is to be regretted that its archive is far from complete. It does, however, contain some items of particular relevance to Scottish labour history. These are: the records of the Greenock Branch of the Steam Engine Makers Society which consist of minute books, 1835-50, and a members registration book, 1851-63; and yearly reports from branches of the ASE, 1851-1920. The latter contain information about branch finance, changes in membership and branch officers.

Associated Blacksmiths, Forge and Smithy Workers’ Society (MSS.192)
Founded in Glasgow in 1857 this union was an exclusively Scottish organisation until the 1880s. Although its English and Irish members became numerous its headquarters remained in
Glasgow until it was absorbed into the boilermakers' union in 1961. The records include the following: financial reports, 1857-1909, 1960-61; quarterly reports, 1873-80, 1927-60; monthly and annual reports, 1910-24; registration books, 1957-1919; rule books, 1857-1968; correspondence files concerning piecework earnings 1919-37 and 1957 centenary; file of J Jarvie as General Secretary; rules revision committee; papers, 1924, 1926, 1929, 1955; notebook on blacksmith's history by David Stewart, c.1957; Springburn branch entrance and registration book, 1882-1937.

Engineering Employers Federation (EEF) (MSS.237)

The EEF is one of Britain's largest and most important employers organisations. From the archive it is evident that the Federation has taken care to record its activities and to ensure the retrievability of its records. The records of the Statistical Department include the following: majority wage rates by district, 1862-1965; wage increases and reductions by district, 1898-1946; majority wage rates by occupation, 1938; workforce statistics, 1899-1950; wage data on other industries, including agriculture, mining and textiles, 1914-70; circulars dispatched containing enquiries relating to wages and conditions with summaries of replies received, 1942-50. The EEF also issued wage rates data relating to Federated firms in confidential printed format and the archive contains these for 1897-1925 and 1947-61. The published annual directories of Federated firms, indexed by product, are also extant for 1926-40.

The EEF's financial records include annual subscription ledgers, 1915-50. As subscriptions were based on the annual wages bill of a firm, this can be discovered from the subscription ledgers. The voluminous series of subject files (now on microfilm) contains a great many items of specifically Scottish interest. As the relevant index entries run to forty-seven pages, they cannot be detailed here. One file which has survived in hard copy, presumably because of the format of its contents, consists of drawings, plans and photographs of marine engines and boilers built in Glasgow and Troon in 1932 (MSS.237/3/11/11).
Federation of Engineering and Shipbuilding Trades, later Confederation of Shipbuilding and Engineering Unions (MSS.44)
Although this Federation was formed in 1880 it became a much more powerful body in 1946 when the Amalgamated Engineering Union decided to affiliate to it. The bulk of the records in the Centre relate to the period from 1946 to the late 1960s. The archive contains substantial quantities of material which deal in a general way with the railways and motor and shipbuilding industries and such matters as apprenticeship and working hours. Specifically Scottish material includes files concerning District Committees (Temporary Boxes TB 56, 99 and 134); industrial disputes (TB 18 and 19); companies and trade unions. The companies are Sturrock & Murray of Dundee (TB 23) and British Motor Corporation, Bathgate (TB 62). The unions are: Scottish Brass Turners (TB 146); Scottish Horse and Motormen's Association TB 65; Scottish Painters Society (TB 90); and Scottish Transport and General Workers' Union (TB 65). The only early record of the Federation preserved in the Centre is a letterbook of the Secretary for the years 1891-1903 (MSS.101/P/6/1).

Federation of Sail Makers (MSS.87)
The records of this small trade union include correspondence with branch secretaries in Dundee, Glasgow and Greenock, 1894-1922.

Foundry Trade Unions (MSS.41)
The Associated Iron Moulders of Scotland (AIMS), formed in 1831, amalgamated with its English counterpart in 1920 to form the National Union of Foundry Workers (NUFW). The NUFW was enlarged and renamed in 1946, being known thereafter as the Amalgamated Union of Foundry Workers (AUFW). In 1966 the AUFW was absorbed into the Amalgamated Engineering Union.

AIMS material in the archive consists almost entirely of printed matter (manuscript items having been transferred to the National Library of Scotland). These include: monthly reports, 1875-1920 (incomplete); minutes of meetings with the employers'
association, 1905-08 and 1911-13; and leaflets and other ephemera, 1917-20, including Central Emergency Committee leaflets concerning War Munition Volunteer Scheme and amalgamation (ref. MSS.41/NUFW/3/4/8-25).

Specifically Scottish items in the NUFW/AUFW archive include: reports of the Scottish Divisional Organiser, 1925-41; Scottish Divisional Secretary's correspondence and Divisional minutes and accounts, 1942-44; papers concerning amalgamation with Scottish Brass Moulders Union and Associated Iron, Steel and Brass Dressers of Scotland, 1943.

United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders (MSS.192)
The bulk of the archive of the boilermakers' union (the largest of the shipyard unions) is elsewhere. Material deposited at Warwick includes a record of the earnings of John Hill of Govan as a steel shipbuilder, 1897-1900, and printed monthly and annual reports, 1900-73 (incomplete series).

FLOOR COVERINGS

Linoleum (& Floorcloth) Manufacturers' Association (MSS.253)
This trade association had a very substantial Scottish membership and the concentration of production in and around Fife is reflected in the archive. The records consist principally of the minutes of general and committee meetings with related documents (e.g. agreements relating to standard contracts) 1907-67.

POST OFFICE

Council of Post Office Unions (COPOU) (MSS.89)
COPOU began its existence, shortly after the First World War, as the Staff Side of the Post Office Departmental Whitley Council. During the period covered by the records the operation of telegraph and telephone services formed part of the Post Office's business. The voluminous files of COPOU include some of a specifically Scottish nature dating from 1951 to 1970. Their
subjects include the division of the Aberdeen postal area and proposals for PO computer centres to be established in Edinburgh and Glasgow. There are other files, e.g. on the regionalisation of the GPO in the 1930s and 1940s and the mechanisation of postal sorting in the 1960s, which deal with Scottish matters as part of a wider subject.

Post Office Engineering Union (POEU) (MSS.135)
The POU archive contains little of a specifically Scottish nature. It does, however, include the reminiscences of two union veterans. One of these was an ordinary member, E McBride, who served as a delegate to the Glasgow Trades Council. His seven page reminiscences cover the years 1896 to 1934. The second veteran was L S Summers from Edinburgh, one-time Deputy General Secretary of POU and previously General Secretary of the Amalgamated Society of Telephone Employees (ASTE) (MSS.135/EU/3/4/31-2). The archive also contains a typescript history of ASTE by Summers, dated 1943.

Society of Civil and Public Servants (SCPS) (MSS.232)
The SCPS records include a file on the removal of the Post Office Savings Bank to Glasgow, 1963-5.

PRINTING

Printing and Kindred Trades Federation (PKTF) (MSS.43)
The PKTF was founded in 1890-92 and re-formed in 1901. The Federation was dissolved in 1974 when a large but incomplete archive was deposited in the Centre. Scottish materials in the archive include: Scottish Advisory Committee/Scottish Group minutes, conference proceedings and correspondence, 1947-73; signed minutes of meetings with the Scottish Daily Newspaper Society, 1944-5; and files concerning the Scottish Typographical Association, Scottish Daily Newspaper Society and particular employers from the 1940s onwards.

Scottish Typographical Association
Annual reports, 1888-1907, and delegate meeting reports, 1881
and 1907, are to be found in the Board of Trade Library.

STEEL

Iron and Steel Trades Confederation (ISTC) (MSS.36)
The ISTC was formed by amalgamation in 1917. The archive contains a number of files opened by the British Steel Smelters etc. Association and subsequently added to by the ISTC. The union's minute books and major series of publications have not been deposited in the Centre. Nevertheless, the accumulated files held at Warwick constitute a major source because of their breadth of subject coverage, bulk and long chronological span (from the 1890s to the 1960s). Their subjects include: particular plants and companies; particular branches of the union; wages and conditions for types of employment, e.g. blastfurnacemen, crane drivers, melters, etc.; conciliation boards; and employers' associations. Among the latter are the Scottish Iron Masters Association, Scottish Rivet Bolt and Nut Manufacturers Association, Scottish Steelmakers' Wages Association and Scottish Tubemakers' Wages Association.

W H Stokes, CBE, JP (MSS.289)
Stokes, a Coventry trade unionist, served on the board of the ill-fated Iron and Steel Corporation of Great Britain, the Attlee government's vehicle for the nationalisation of the steel industry. His detailed manuscript daily notes, 1951-3, include items of specifically Scottish interest, e.g. notes on a meeting concerning investment at Colville's on 16 April 1953.

TRANSPORT

Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants (ASRS)/National Union of Railwaymen (NUR) (MSS.127)
Records of particular interest to students of Scottish labour and railway history include: branch balance sheets, 1892-1913, which give names and addresses of branch officers and financial information, including repayments from members - the 1892 volume includes an abstract of the returns from former Scottish
ASRS branches including membership figures; conciliation and arbitration proceedings, 1909-19, which contain a substantial but incomplete set of conciliation board minutes and wages and hours arbitration papers in respect of the Caledonian Railway, Glasgow and South Western Railway, Great North of Scotland Railway, Highland Railway and North British Railway; files relating to the opening of new branches, amalgamation of existing branches and closure of branches, 1948-62; files relating to the closure and proposed closure of railway lines, stations and facilities and withdrawal of services, 1959-71; and a collection of other unions' rule books which include Operative Bakers (1915), Scotch Power-Loom Carpet Trades (1918), Scottish Busmen (1929), Scottish Painters (1912) and United Operative Masons (1915).

**Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Scotland (ASRSS) (MSS.127)**

Founded in 1872 the ASRSS was involved in a major strike in 1890-91 which dramatically weakened it. In 1892 it amalgamated with its English counterpart, the ASRS. The bulk of the ASRSS archive is in the Webb collection at the London School of Economics. The few items in the Modern Records Centre consist of an 1887 rule book (MS.127/NU/5/5/7/II); 2 pieces relating to rules, 1890-91 (MSS.127/ASRSS/4/1/1-2); and a financial report for January to June 1890 (MSS.127/ASRSS/4/2/1).

**National Union of Seamen (NUS) (MSS.175)**

The records of the NUS include the minutes of the Leith District Maritime Board, 1918-36, and of the following branches of the union: Ardrossan, 1919-64; Greenock, 1918-56 (on microfilm); and Leith, 1945-67.

**Road Haulage Association (RHA) (MSS.234)**

Over and above its main series of files concerning UK-wide wage negotiations, the RHA records include two files on specifically Scottish matters: the Scottish Commercial Motormen's Union pay claim, 1967-8; and the Scottish Hauliers Consortium, 1970.
Transport and General Workers' Union (TGWU) (MSS.126)
The TGWU is Britain's largest trade union. Several dozen previously independent unions have been absorbed into it. A substantial archive is in the custody of the Modern Records Centre, but it should be noted that a great deal, including the records of the union's Trade Groups, has not been transferred from Transport House. Specifically, Scottish items include: Scottish Horse and Motormen's Association financial reports, 1927 and 1934; Ernest Bevin's file on the proposed construction of a road bridge over the Tay, 1936-37; and a Paisley Branch membership register of the National Union of Vehicle Builders, 1896-1954.

Transport Development Group (MSS.272)
This business was built up by Philip Henman who operated by acquiring existing companies. The following Scottish companies were acquired and have records in the archive: A & J Clark, haulage contractors, Glasgow, directors and annual general meeting minutes, 1933-71; Clydebank Haulage Company, register of members, etc., 1954-72; James Fraser Transport Service, Aberdeen, register of members, etc., 1937-70; John Jackson (Contractors) Ltd, Lesmahagow, combined register and minute book, 1963-68; Leith Haulage Ltd, originally Angus Hyslop Ltd, Glasgow, register of members, etc., 1948-70; Monkland Transport Ltd, name changed from Russell of Bathgate Ltd in 1972, minute book, 1957-62, register of members etc., 1959-75; Pratts Road Transport Ltd, Aberdeen, minute book 1936-42, register of members, etc., 1936-70; Quay Road Property Company, Glasgow, minute book, 1970-1, register of members, etc., 1970-72; D Robertson & Sons (Haulage Contractors) Ltd, Inverness, register of members and minutes, 1963-68; Union Transit Company, Glasgow, minute books, 1948-68, register of directors' holdings, 1948-66.

Transport Salaried Staffs Association (TSSA) (MSS.55)
The records of the TSSA include a substantial series of circulars sent out to branches by the union, 1938-80. Circulars dispatched by the TSSA's Scottish office are included.
MISCELLANEOUS

Sir Joseph Hallsworth (MSS.70)
The papers of Sir Joseph Hallsworth, General Secretary of the Union of Shop, Distributive and Allied Workers, include two files on the employment of children and young people in Scotland, 1920s-40s, and one file concerning public health provisions for workplaces, 1915.

Institute of Personnel Management (MSS.97)
The Institute’s records include: Scottish Branch, minutes 1921-43; correspondence with Dundee Branch, 1947-64; correspondence with South East Scotland Branch, 1945-65; Scottish Society of Welfare Supervisors minutes, 1918-24; and Scottish Association of Welfare Workers (Women) minutes, 1917-21.

Steven Jeffreys (MSS.244)
A full-time organiser for IS/SWP (International Socialism/Socialist Workers Party), Jeffreys was based in Scotland 1969-79. His papers reflect his activities in respect of various factories and Upper Clyde Shipbuilders. The papers include minutes of Glasgow North Branch, 1969-71.

TRADES COUNCILS

The Board of Trade Library contains the following annual reports: Aberdeen, 1900-06; Ayrshire, 1902-06; Clydebank, 1905-06; Dundee, 1894-1905; Dunfermline, 1894/5; Edinburgh, 1893/4-1906/07 (incomplete); Falkirk, 1892/3 and 1897/8-1906/07 (incomplete); Glasgow, 1899/1900-1906/07 (incomplete) and quarterly reports, 1900-03; Govan, 1904 and 1905; Greenock, 1893-9 and 1901-2 and 'Trade unions in Greenock', 1905; Inverness, 1894-5, 1900-01, 1903-04; Kilmarnock, 1895; Kirkcaldy, 1893; Leith, 1905-06; Montrose, 1892/3-1894/5; Motherwell, 1892, 1904/05-1905/06; Paisley, 1893/4 and 1900; Perth, 1899 and 1904-06; and Wishaw, 1903.
SUMMARY LISTS
OF ARCHIVE SURVEYS AND DEPOSITS, 1986-89

1 National Register of Archives (Scotland)

Full details of the surveys are available from the National Register of Archives (Scotland). All enquiries and requests for access should be addressed to the Secretary, The National Register of Archives (Scotland), Scottish Record Office, HM General Register House, Edinburgh, EH1 3YY.

AGRICULTURE, ESTATE, FORESTRY AND FISHING


2383 Broun-Lindsay of Colstoun, Haddington. Broun-Lindsay and Dalhousie papers 13-20th cents. Titles of lands in East Lothian, including Colstoun and Congalton, West Lothian, Ayrshire, Lanarkshire and Edinburgh 13-19th cents. Legal and estate 1520-1893, including, miscellaneous bonds, assignations and discharges 1599-1793, papers relating to lands of Cleghornie 1655-1704 and Colstoun entail 1779-1893, valuations and leases of Colstoun and other lands 1697-1889, personal and estate accounts, rentals and factory accounts relating to Colstoun and other lands c.1693-1837, including, accounts for building

Royal Highland and Agricultural Society of Scotland, Ingliston. Copy memoranda, proposals and drafts of revised charter of Society 1784-1834, programmes relating to International Agricultural Congress at Paris 1878, letters and papers concerning experiments with potatoes, proposed industrial museum for Scotland, agricultural seed testing, and tuberculin testing c.1850-1902, letters and papers relating to re-adjustment of chemical department of the Society and appointment of chemist 1874, letters and paper concerning inquiry into grouse disease 1905, advertisements for agricultural publications, shows and patented devices c.1840-50, papers concerning Veterinary College for Scotland 1838-1911, presscuttings, letters and circulars about inquiry into railway rates 1888-90.

Orkney Library. Sutherland-Graemeshall papers. Titles to lands in Orkney 1624-1786. Legal and estate papers 1638-1899, notes on size and layout of houses leased in Holm 1711-75, accounts, including kelp production, 1782-1836, accounts relating to building at Graemeshall 1786-1899, farm diary 1849-68. Factor's correspondence 1784-1849. Correspondence and miscellaneous papers of Patrick Graeme, Sheriff of Orkney 1774-86, including letters on fishing 1783-84, smuggling 1784-86 and linen 1786. (Replaces Survey No. 1246)

Strathclyde Regional Archives. Lennox of Woodhead papers. Atlases, maps and estate plans 18-20th cents., including, mineral working at Craigends 1764, Woodhead and elsewhere 1845-1912, North British Railway Co line and station at Lennoxtown 1917, n.d., estates in parishes of Campsie and Kirkintilloch and in Stirlingshire 1805-1960, architectural, including proposed additions to Woodhead House by John Paterson early 19th cent., additions to Ballenderoch

Burnett of Leys. Tacks of various farms on Crathes estate 1652-1852, plans of farms 1775-1908, report and valuation of machinery at Mill of Crathes 1815; papers concerning Dee fishings 1799-1917; memorandum by William Douglas, advocate, about proposed new cleansing system for Edinburgh c.1700; letters from Great North of Scotland Railway Co concerning timetabling of trains through Crathes Station 1896-97.

Lumsden of Innergelly. Titles of various lands at St Andrews 1474-1753, tacks, bonds and discharges relating to various members of the Lumsden family 1661-1813; account book of Rev David Wilson as to estate of Innergellie 1810-12; sketch plan of part of farm of Blaneme 1815.


Glasgow University Archives. Papers relating to the estate of Murdeston, Clackmannan 1475-1771, including, titles 1475-1709, vouchers and financial correspondence 1718-1834, correspondence concerning rentals 1749-71, reports relating to division of runrig lands of Bapendean 1768, list of Murdeston papers purchased by W Hamilton in 1889, n.d.

Strathclyde Regional Archives. Legal and financial papers relating to Darwhilling estate, Ayrshire 1512-1889, including, titles 1512-94, state of multures of Raith milln 1814, measurement of Blackwood Farm 1817, agreement concerning opening of quarry at South Grassyards 1830. Papers relating to Dykehead estate, Lanarkshire 1770-1910, including, household accounts of John Craig of Dykehead 1777-1807; journals of mineral bores at Aucheneath and Lanrig 1846-59.

Shetland Archives. Tom Henderson collection. Papers and photographs relating to whales driven ashore at Hoswick, Sandwick 1888; log of smack *Nalad* at North Ferve fishery 1869-71; minutes: Shetland Islands Steam Trading Co 1904-07, Zetland North Sea Fishery Co 1863-71.

**AUCTIONEERS**

Robert Peterson & Son, auctioneers and valuers, Paisley. Sale books 1923-33, letterbooks 1901-36, valuation and inventory books
CHEMICALS


Strathclyde Regional Archives. Papers of E C C Stanford, chemist, Clydebank. Correspondence concerning the manufacture of alginate 1884-1951, advertisement for potassic manures manufactured by British Seaweed Co, Glasgow 1863, plans and notes relating to chemical plant at Tiree 1882, printed biographical sketch of E C C Stanford 1900.


CONSTRUCTION

Glasgow University Archives. Papers relating to Professor Sir William Macewan, surgeon 1836-1971, including, papers concerning Allen & Mann, builders and brickmakers, Glasgow 1851-83.


Strathclyde Regional Archives. Accounts, agreements, valuations, measurements and reports relating to Possil Estate and Springburn Coal Co and Springburn Brickworks 1856-1930.


ELECTRICAL

Holland House Electrical Co Ltd, Glasgow. Minutes 1906-date, accounting records 1927-date.

ENGINEERING


Aberdeen University Library. Aberdeen Trawlowners & Traders Engineering Co Ltd. Minutes 1900-71, accounting records 1901-68, printed instructions for operating 'Royce' driven cranes 1905.

Glasgow University Archives. William Beardmore & Co. Memoranda, accounts and valuation relating to Parkhead Works 1871-86.


Cumnock and Doon Valley District Library. Eglinton Iron Co accounting records 1859-86.


Strathclyde Regional Archives. Minutes, reports, accounts and miscellaneous records relating to Martin-Black plc, wire rope manufacturers, Coatbridge, and subsidiary wire rope manufacturing companies 1887-1982.


Glasgow University Archives. Papers of David Macleish Smith, FRS, mechanical engineer 1932-78, including turbine calculations for Metropolitan-Vickers 1938-52, papers relating to symposium on dynamics of rotors held in Lyngby, Denmark 1974.


FINANCE

Institute of Chartered Accountants of Scotland. Miscellaneous legal and financial papers 1635-1966, including, business and personal account books, including tailor's accounts 1635-49, minutes and accounts of dining club of Paul & Mackersy, accountants, 1826-56,
survey of lands in Somerset 1812, accounts of collections in Edinburgh
churches 1767, photographs of librarian and accountant late 19th cent.

3089 Glasgow University Archives. Scottish Banking collection.
Photocopies of original records and notes and articles compiled and
collected by S G Checkland, including: extracts from minutes of Bank
of Scotland, Royal Bank of Scotland, Clydesdale Bank and related
banks 1696-1920; reports and accounts of Birmingham & Dudley
District Banking Co, Lombard North Central Ltd, Martins Bank, British
Overseas Bank Ltd and other non-Scottish banks 1875-1973;
transcript of correspondence of J Gladstone and W Huskisson
regarding Gloucester Banking Venture 1825; working papers and
notes used by Professor Checkland in his book Scottish Banking: A

3091 Dundee City District Archives and Record Centre. Dundee Joint
Stock Co. Minutes 1824-1977, accounting records 1829-1979, shares
register c.1869-1977, correspondence 1936-64, contract of copartnery
1827.

FOOD AND DRINK

2786 John Walker & Sons Ltd, scotch whisky blenders and distillers,
Kilmarnock. John Walker & Sons Ltd: minutes 1886-1982, accounting
records 1886-1983, letterbooks 1881-1958, blending records 1919-83,
inventories of plant and machines 1920-75, photographs of Kilmarnock
plant 1890-1950. The Distillers Co Ltd: minutes 1925-35. Slater
Roger & Co Ltd: accounting records 1922-50. George Cowie & Son
Ltd: minutes 1923-86, accounting records 1933-78, registers of
W W & Sons Ltd: cash book 1903-06.

2789 Scottish and Newcastle Breweries Ltd. Records of constituent
companies. T & J Bernard Ltd: minutes and accounting records 1890-
Croft Brewery Co Ltd: accounts 1934-58. Robert Deuchar Ltd:
minutes 1897-1965. William Lindsay & Son Ltd: minutes and
accounting records 1923-77. William McEwan & Co Ltd: minutes 1889-
1951, accounting records 1856-1966, correspondence with the
Brewers Food Co Ltd 1905-73. McEwan Younger Ltd: minutes 1931-
58, accounting and production records 1930-38. J & J Morison Ltd:
minutes and correspondence 1888-1960, accounting records 1869-

Mrs J Ferguson, Dundee. Letterbook of T E Elder, wine merchant in Edinburgh 1767-84.


Ingram Bros (Glasgow) Ltd, bakers, Glasgow. Minutes 1924-67, accounting records 1939-49.


Mr M Stein, Edinburgh. Drawing of Robert Stein's patent still 1830, plan and printed description of Andrew Stein's machine for charging the duty upon corn spirits 1848, press-cutting concerning Andrew Stein's rotary steam engine c.1840.

Strathclyde Regional Archives. William Thomson (Glasgow) Ltd, grain merchants, Glasgow. Accounting records 1911-78, annual reports 1911-39.

Strathclyde Regional Archives. Ferguson & Forrester, caterers, Glasgow. Accounting records 1853-88, inventories of dishes, silverware, cutlery 1861.


Glasgow University Archives. Creamola Food Products Ltd. Posters, house magazines, catalogues, photographs and advertising ephemera c.1920-66.


IRON and STEEL

3040

3148

MINING

2052

2774
Prestongrange Historical Site. Miscellaneous papers relating to mining in Mid and East Lothian 1837-1958. Includes copies of reports by Robert Bald, David Landale and others on coalfields and collieries 1837-99; reports by Andrew Burt on Fleet, Howden, Northfield, Glenesk and Melville collieries 1805-09 and correspondence relating to Melville minerals 1906-08; Niddrie and Benhar Coal Co records, including, wages sheets 1888-1942, accounts of coal and farm sales 1919-21 and workmen's compensation records, Benhar 1943-48; leases of Elphinstone Colliery and minerals 1889-99; notebook of weekly costs, output and pay, Prestongrange 1827-28; journal of bores at Gilmerton coalfield n.d.; lists of coalworking in Mid and East Lothian n.d.; engine drawings 1898-1920, n.d.; papers relating to mining machinery 1873-1958, including notes by D Landale relating to roof supports 1873; working drawings, calculations, etc. relating to beam engine c.1903-05. Photographs of mines and mining equipment c.1900-54, including Morrison's Haven c.1900, Newbattle Colliery 1924 and beam and winding engines in various pits, n.d; specifications for miners' cottages 1907. (Partly replaces Survey No. 1946)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2901</td>
<td>Strathclyde Regional Archives</td>
<td>Records of John T Robertson &amp; Co, solicitors, Hamilton 1800-1958, including accounting records and photographs concerning Lanarkshire District Miners' Welfare Committee c.1900-58.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1751</td>
<td>Glasgow University Archives</td>
<td>Blackie &amp; Son Ltd, publishers, Glasgow. Correspondence, photographs and legal papers 1804-1959, including diaries of trips to Canada and USA by Dr W G Blackie 1871 and also to Belgium, Germany and Switzerland 1843, presscuttings 1827-1906, articles and correspondence relating to Vere Foster's emigration schemes 1815-88, papers concerning The Glasgow Free Church Building Society 1839-43, photographs of offices and works 1897.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3040</td>
<td>Glasgow University Archives</td>
<td>William Collins Sons &amp; Co Ltd, publishers, Glasgow and associated companies. Minutes 1865-1963, accounting records 1897-1984, lists of shareholders and directors 1943-69, correspondence and agreements with authors and related editorial papers 1951-86, authors include Arthur Bryant, David Butler, Malcolm Muggeridge, Lord Home and John Betjeman, photographs of staff and factory 1948-69.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
RETAILING

2915
Strathclyde Regional Archives. Photographs of Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society's buildings, staff and plant in Glasgow 1917-70.

SHIPBUILDING

2504

2813
Glasgow University Archives. Robert Napier & Sons. Correspondence of Robert and James Napier and others with related reports concerning operation and sale of Lancefield Dock 1857-98, copy of plan by William Kyle 1821.

2818
Glasgow University Archives. Sir James Lithgow, shipbuilder. Correspondence and related papers 1914-51. Includes papers relating to merchant shipbuilding and output of W Hamilton & Co 1909-19, letters describing military service and shipping affairs 1914-17, correspondence with Winston Churchill concerning Finance Bill 1929, papers relating to Imperial Defence Committee 1934-38, papers concerning controllership of merchant shipping, wartime ship production, repair and salvage, including correspondence with Sir Amos Ayre 1939-46, correspondence with Sir Dennis Burney concerning naval inventions, including degaussing 1939-41, papers concerning refrigeration plant and freezing of fish 1941-48, Lithgows Ltd 1946-51 and British Employers' Federation 1940-48; personal, legal and financial papers 1891-1952; published speeches and articles by and concerning Lithgow 1921-54; family and personal photographs c.1910-18.

2916

3505
Glasgow University Archives. Papers relating to Robert Napier, engineer (1791-1876) and various members of his family 1766-1955. Correspondence and war papers of Colonel Sir Andrew Ogilvie 1860-1921; printed papers concerning capture of the Requin (1814) 1822-23; accounts and correspondence to Sir Andrew Ogilvie relating to the Post Office and its telephone services 1898-1922; papers relating to the commercial treaty with France 1860-61; letters to James Ogilvie from the Shah of Persia c.1824. Personal, legal, financial and scientific


3097 Glasgow University Archives. Working papers and reports by David Flint on Upper Clyde Shipbuilders Ltd 1968-78.

SHIPPING

2550 Glasgow University Archives. Clyde Shipping Co Ltd. Correspondence, newspaper cuttings, notes and other miscellaneous papers 1819-1950.

printed history of the Cunard Company 1893. (Microfilm in SRO.)


Glasgow University Archives. Dan MacDonald collection. Photographs of various ships, including vessels built between 1560 and 1921, n.d. Book on Clyde yacht racing with photographs by Maclure Macdonald & Co 1897.

Glasgow University Archives. Graham Langmuir collection. Photograph of various paddle steamers built in the west of Scotland between 1816 and c.1900, n.d.
1623]


Glasgow University Archives. Papers relating to Robert Napier, engineer (1791-1876) and various members of his family 1766-1955. Legal and personal papers of Patrick Mitchell and Andrew, James and Robert Muter 1766-1887; accounting and other records of cotton mill at Milton c.1780-1882. Lists of samples of textile fabrics (deposited with Glasgow Museums and Art Galleries) c.1800-59.


TIMBER


TRANSPORT

Glasgow University Archives. Photographs, drawings, calculations and booklets concerning the Fraser railplane system of transport 1922-34.

Dundee City District Archive and Record Centre. Papers relating to Montrose Bridge Commissioners 1795-1929. Includes register of borrowings 1795-1872, correspondence and reports relating to damage to bridge by the ship *Eliza of Perth* 1841, correspondence with Captain Sir Samuel Brown concerning repairs 1832-34, specifications for repairs by Thomas Telford and James Rendel 1834-35, valuation of ferry boats by D Birnie 1851, plans by George Buchanan, James Rendel, Thomas Telford and W D McLaren 1826-1929.

TRADE


WELFARE


Strathclyde Regional Archives The Commercial Friendly Society of Scotland: minutes 1838-1972, rules 1838-1969, annual reports 1850-
Glasgow Sailors' Home: minutes 1870-1978, accounting records 1851-
1978, annual reports 1858-1977, newspaper-cuttings 1861-1933.
Strathclyde Regional Archives. Weavers' Society of Anderston,
Glasgow. Minutes 1738-1942, accounting records 1832-1962, lists of
members 1870-1949, declarations of pensioners' circumstances 1925-
39.

MISCELLANEOUS

Strathclyde Regional Archives. Papers of Sir John Stirling-Maxwell
of Pollok 1878-1843. Correspondence relating to private and public
affairs, subjects include: free trade and tariff reform 1903-11, tea
estate, Java 1907-09, Scottish timber industry and Forestry
Commission 1917-32, estate affairs, including water power scheme,
Miscellaneous papers relating to finance, forestry and politics c.1858-
1919.

Strathclyde Regional Archives. Records of Anderson, Fyfe,
Littlejohn & Co, solicitors, with constituent partnerships 1816-1954.
Includes letterbooks 1844-1901, sederunt books of personal trusts of
industrialists, merchants and business men, artisans, labourers,
farmers, professional men, soldiers and others 1843-1937, including
Hugh Hogarth, shipowner; Professor William Meikleham; Penman
family, engineers; Scottish members of Iron and Steel Institute minutes
1872; photographs of Polytechnic Warehouse, Glasgow, n.d., (1921).

Glasgow University Archives. Miscellaneous Scottish photographs
1901-02 and n.d., including the Glasgow Exhibition 1901, agricultural
workers and builders on the estate of Cornhill 1902.

Strathclyde Regional Archives. Papers relating to Thomas Brownlie,
industrialist 1839-65, including, accounts for building work at Brodick
Castle 1844-65, lists of shareholders in the Glasgow & New York
Steam Ship Co, n.d.

Strathclyde Regional Archives. Moncrieff Warren Paterson & Co,
solicitors, Glasgow. Sederunt books of personal trusts 1838-1970,
including: Alexander Craig of Tradeston Mills; James T Bottomley of
Netherhall; Lord Kelvin; Sir William Lorimer; David McBrayne; Lord
Inverclyde; Henry L Graham, merchant in Chicago; James Dickie,
merchant in London, Burma and India; and Walter Crum of
Thornliebank.

Strathclyde Regional Archives. Papers compiled by Dr George Thomson on the industrial history of the Monklands 16-20th cents., c.1950-77; correspondence concerning the Third Statistical Account of Lanarkshire 1949-60; lease relating to Drumshangie Coal Company 1923.


National Register of Archives (Scotland): Register of Oral History Tapes

This Register provides a central body of information on tape material, based on data supplied by the custodians of the tapes and in most cases it also covers such matters as the quality of recordings, the type of equipment used and particulars of any published work based on the tapes concerned. The collections are listed under the name of their present custodians to whom requests of access should be directed. The presence of recordings in the Register must not be taken to imply any right of public access to them. Dates given in the entries refer to the date of recording or to the date to which the recordings relate.

Workers Educational Association, 51 Church Street, Cromarty. Interviews with various individuals concerning herring fishing, women's work and industrial history of Inverness, 1986.

Dundee Oral History Project. Interviews with working class Dundonians born in the period 1892-1921 concerning work, leisure and social conditions in Dundee, 1986.
Kirkcaldy Central Library, War Memorial Gardens, Kirkcaldy, Fife. Interviews with coalminers concerning work and life in coal mining communities, 1900-50.

Dundee City District Archive and Record Centre, City Square, Dundee DD1 3BY. Copy of Radio Tay programme broadcast on 25th anniversary of loss of Broughty Ferry lifeboat, 1984.

Shetland Archives, 44 King Harald Street, Lerwick, Shetland ZE1 0EQ. Interviews with various individuals concerning crofting, fishing, farming, education, religion, climatic conditions and social life in Shetland, 1900-88.

3 The Scottish Film Archive Acquisitions, 1988-90

Applications for access should be made to the Curator, Scottish Film Archive, 74 Victoria Crescent Road, Glasgow G12 9JN.


Anderson Strathclyde plc (formerly Mavor & Coulson). Mining machinery manufacturers. Promotional and technical films 1950s-70s. 100 cans.


Liptons. Launch at Denny's, Shamrock III, 1903.

Macneill Tractors, Glasgow. Demonstration films, particularly of the David Brown tractor on display at agricultural and trade shows, made by the company director, J S Bauchop, 1940-45.

Renfrew Ferry. Amateur film of the last run of the Renfrew Ferry across the River Clyde.

Scott Lithgow Shipbuilders (via Glasgow University Archives). Launch of Otter, 1961; Launch of Resource, c.1965; Clydeside; Ram; Launch of Kaidfionn; The Scott Lithgow Group; Duke of Edinburgh Visits Scott Lithgow; Launch of HMS Galatea; Launch of Iron Horse; Launch of MV Crystal Cube, c.1974; Launch of Submarine Walrus, 1959; Launch of Quilca; First British Free Piston Powered Ship; ESV Iolair; Test for Launch of Tanker in Two Halves; Systems Behaviour; River Clyde Story; Construction and Launch of Naess Scotsman, Ship No.1183.


Miscellaneous. Great Bridge over the Forth, 1936; opening of Kincardine Bridge; An Empire Meets, 1938, amateur film of the Empire Exhibition in Glasgow’s Bellahouston Park, Dundee’s Screen Snapshots, c.1932-1935, composite reel of local news items; Benmore House and Estate/Forestry Techniques, 1930s; Benmore House and estate as a forestry and demonstration area; How To Make Your Own Templeton Carpets, 1960s; Hewers of Coal, 1939, career film; Aerials of the Clyde and Dumbarton, 1956-58.


George Green Limited. Cinema proprietors. Architect John Fairweather’s drawings and plans for the circuit’s cinemas, including Dundee, Glasgow, Ayr and Lockerbie, incomplete sets 1920s-40s.

Reviews


In a climate which perhaps parallels that of American cities of the 1960s, when concern for contemporary urban issues provoked a spate of city histories seeking to explain the historical antecedents of current events, the present British interest in inner cities prompted by housing renovation, racial and criminal activities, and infrastructural provisions heralds a higher profile for historians of the city. There are some signs in the titles currently under review that such a parallel may be emerging, though unlike the established North American tradition of city histories, the species still remains rare in Britain. Where it does exist, boosterism and civic pride remain the motive for many municipal histories, and their execution frequently relies upon an excruciating degree of antiquarian detail in which few developments beyond the town boundaries are accorded much significance. Too often the burgh is viewed as the accidental location of particular political and economic events; the town is presented as a temporary host, purely incidental to such events. More recently, arguably as a product of the expansion of the social sciences since the 1960s, greater credence has been attached to the interactive nature of social, economic and political processes in which the urban dimension has superimposed a dynamic of its own. Yet those authors who analyse the process of urban change, set it in a national or international context, and who address issues in a thematic, rather than purely descriptive or chronological manner, have remained exceptional. These four titles offer distinct sub-species of urban historiography: the multi-authored venture from "professional" historians (Clydebank), detailed antiquarianism (Leith), a "coffee-table" variant (Dunfermline), and a single-authored burgh from earliest times to the present (Irvine).
James Marshall, in his preface to *The Life and Times of Leith*, observes that, 'There is no readily available history of Leith', a remarkable omission given its important mercantile and industrial interests, and, for much of the nineteenth century, seventh position in the population league table of Scottish burghs. To Leithers this somewhat affectionate account which concentrates mostly on the seventeenth to the nineteenth centuries, goes some way to redress the balance, and the keen price will assist local interest in the burgh.

For those interested in the development of manufacturing, two early chapters provide an illuminating range of industries, most notably shipping and the related warehousing and dock-handling activities, but also shipbuilding, ropemaking, brewing, glass and soap, all of which had gained some significance by the end of the eighteenth century, and a not important lower industrial tier comprised of distilling, tanning, textile, milling and brickmaking.

Other chapters cover the renowned Leith links and its leisure facilities, health and housing, and the 'Young Mind'. The emphasis is, as the title concedes, concerned with the 'Life and Times' and the methodology is essentially that of the antiquarian, since a series of episodes, significant events and local luminaries are the main focus of the chapters, and there is little explicit acknowledgment of broader trends in Scottish industrialization, extra-burghal developments, or of the underlying processes of change within Leith itself, for example, in relation to the changing composition of social and political elites.

So while there is considerable vitality in the book, the biographical and local detail makes it difficult to assess Leith in relation to other burghs, and without contextual material this undermines the peculiarities of the place which Marshall claims for Leith. Two simple points serve to illustrate this. Firstly, and without wishing to extol quantification uncritically, there is ample available nineteenth century demographic data, as well as published statistics on the workforce, housing and health in Leith, and to overlook these is to forego crucial material on the pace of commercial change, overcrowding, mortality and related social and economic issues. Secondly, the absence of maps is a disappointment as this makes it impossible to assess the spatial significance of the industrial and social changes recounted. Lacking these, Leith is still in limbo.

Industrial history is at the heart of Simpson's account of nineteenth century Dunfermline. Though the linen and coalmining activities in and around the burgh are given due weight, as is evident from the title, it is Carnegie's own industrial successes, founded principally on the United States Steel Company, which provide an omnipresent element in this account of the *Auld
Grey Toun. The dislocation in the labour process caused by the transition from traditional, independent handicraft production to that of small workshops and factories in the first half of the nineteenth century provides both an informative basis for the subsequent chapters on the social conditions in the early Victorian burgh and a useful background to the Carnegie’s decision to emigrate in 1848. Simpson uses Andrew Carnegie’s return visit to Dunfermline in 1862 to challenge the magnate’s personal view that nothing had changed, and notes how in relation to power looms, steam traction, the scale of enterprise and social fabric of the town, considerable changes had transpired in the quarter century since Carnegie’s exile. That process of change was accelerated by subsequent benefactions from Carnegie, the most spectacular being the £0.75 million of bonds donated to Dunfermline in 1903 and 1911, which formed the recurrent income on which civic improvement projects - notably the parks, baths and library - were based. The boost to the quality of late Victorian urban life for Dunfermline workers owed much, therefore, to Carnegie’s conviction that the rich were merely trustees of their wealth and were obliged to spend it for the improvement of mankind, though Simpson, perhaps conveniently, overlooks the fact that such a view was not uppermost in the acquisition of Carnegie’s wealth which owed much to low wage and anti-labour practices. The synthesis of industrial history with social and political developments in the burgh is briefly but effectively presented, to which many maps, facsimile broadsheets and contemporary photographs add considerably, and this is achieved, if not with an examination, then an awareness of issues such as social control, municipal socialism and the role of the labour aristocracy.

Given the formidable difficulties of co-ordinating fifteen contributors, the outcome is an extremely well structured, cohesive account of urban change in Clydebank which avoids the complacency of so many centenary histories. The authors have produced a combination of concise text with informative illustrations and diagrams on almost every page. This format avoids the triteness of the coffee-table productions principally because of the established academic credentials of the contributors and their admirable sense of the significant, which lends credibility and coherence to the volume. Individually and collectively their explanatory powers provide ample proof of the socially useful function of the historians’ craft. The volume is organised around four chronological spans. First, the period as the ‘risingest burgh’ when the pace of expansion between 1880 and 1914 reflected the buoyancy of its two principal industries - shipbuilding and sewing machine manufacture. The
second period, 1914 to 1945, sensibly embraces the impact of two world wars on a town heavily dependent upon naval orders and the demand for merchant tonnage. The third part deals with the town in transition, 1945 to 1980, focussing on the response to the blitz and urban reconstruction, and the final section offers a 1980s postscript and a view of the largest of the government's Enterprise Zones in action.

Essentially a Victorian new town, Clydebank was founded on the relocation of two expanding firms, the shipbuilding activities of J & G Thomson in 1871 (later absorbed by John Brown & Co Ltd) and the Singer Sewing Machine Company in 1881. The spectacular engineering achievements before 1914 are already recounted in the volume by Moss and Hume, *Beardmore* (1979) and these provide an essential underpinning to the interplay of social and economic forces in the burgh which was formed in 1886. Of perhaps greater interest are the accounts of social and cultural life before 1914. The spate of church building in the 1880s and 1890s was the visible evidence of religious activity, but emergent sabbatarian and temperance interests straddled the doctrinal differences in their attempts to buttress moral values, while simultaneously providing ethnic and religious identities for their adherents. In a newly formed burgh, the rapidity with which the organisational side of urban activities mushroomed was remarkable. The moral crusaders included such organisations as the Women's Guild, the Young Women's and Young Men's Christian Associations, the Order of Hibernians, and the Boys' Brigade, with leisure pursuits organised around Sunday Schools, Highland Associations, choral societies, and after 1900, municipal facilities such as parks, baths and libraries. Though none of these, or other cultural activities which included a rich theatrical and musical tradition, or the recreational pursuits associated with a variety of sports, was especially notable in the wider canvas of Victorian urban life, their pace of formation and expansion added an unusual dimension to the fabric of associational life in the burgh.

The connections between economic structure and urban social-political relations is never explicitly forged in the chapter dealing with shipbuilding after World War One. Though this perhaps needs little elaboration for Clydeside Scots, for others the interconnections are vital. It also means that some of the provocative issues are overlooked, for example, why in a climate of economic collapse the Clydebank Burgh Council should remain politically moderate until the 1930s, resisting the leftward lurch experienced in Glasgow City Council, and this despite the parallel existence of a rent strike in both burghs. Though there is a detailed account of rent strikes in Clydebank, regrettably it takes no
account of issues raised elsewhere by Melling in relation to the crucial female participation in organised resistance, and its longer term significance for Scottish politics. Indeed this treatment of housing is typical of most chapters which marginalise women in the burgh. This neglect of gender-related issues is an unnecessary blemish.

Optimism, returning to Clydebank in the mid 1930s as the burgh assumed the role of naval dockyard, was dashed in devastating air raids. Two raids in March 1941 demolished or irreparably damaged 35 per cent of the housing stock and so in forty-eight hours set back the efforts of twenty years. The centrifugal influence of the blitz on families, usually associated with London schoolchildren decamped to rural settings, and the impact of wartime disruption on the social bonding in the town, are sensitively handled by the contributors. The chronicle of urban difficulties continued after the war - the demise of the major employers, the switch to service industries and a resultant decline of male employment and the need to journey further to work - all of which redefined behavioural patterns in Clydebank, arguably more than elsewhere. The trauma of plant closures in the 1970s, such as those at Singers and Upper Clyde Shipbuilders, is part of local folklore and the authors respect the psychological impact of corporate accounting decisions. If the official agencies of reconstruction in the form of housing authorities and educational committees were active after 1945, the scale of deprivation brought ecumenical and political efforts which cut across narrow sectional interests.

Prehistoric times and paleogeographic research form the point of departure for Strawhorn's fine account of the *The History of Irvine*. By stressing changes in sea-level and the location of the coastline over time, Strawhorn provides an explicitly topographical explanation of the early location of the settlement on an isthmus between coast and inland loch. This approach, combined with a succession of town maps at 100 year intervals from 1200 to the present, which owes much to Conzen's use of town plans in Alnwick, provides a convincing morphological dimension to urban change. Physical characteristics and locational advantages associated with the harbour were, therefore, the basis of early mercantile activities. As a royal burgh foreign trade could be conducted from Irvine, and the burgesses were sufficiently powerful to control the council and manage the burgh in their own interests. The success of the burgh in the late medieval period was reflected in the proliferation of burgage plots and the development of substantial buildings such as a tolbooth, priory, mill, church additions, a stone bridge, and castle,
as well as the 'palaces' of feuding noble families, the Eglintons and Glencairns. Growth and industrial expansion in eighteenth-century Irvine was based not only on harbour trade, markets and fairs within the burgh, but on agricultural improvement and mining development in the immediately surrounding area. By the mid eighteenth century, Irvine with a population of 3,000 was the largest of the Ayrshire burghs and ranked alongside Leith in numbers of ships registered. Coal and colonial products formed the bulk of their cargoes.

Though Strawhorn does not explicitly state geographical factors as the cause of the lull in Irvine's prosperity from about 1780 to 1860, it was the possibilities of deep water berths and quick turnarounds which rendered the Clyde ports as superior, and the associated warehousing and distribution, shipbuilding, repairing, and provisioning which formed the basis for the expansion in employment and urban development on Clydeside. The revival of the local economy in the last third of the nineteenth century owed much to the establishment of several important chemical works producing sulphuric acid, caustic soda, by-products such as naphtha and tar, and, just outside the burgh, explosives at Nobel's plant at Ardeer. Each of these generated considerable employment for Irvine residents. Strawhorn identifies expanding municipal functions and harbour investment as the basis for this industrial revival, though the complaints against noxious fumes and fear of explosions point more convincingly to a location distant from the main concentrations of population in the Clyde valley.

Three important contributions stem from Strawhorn's extensive scouring of local sources and documentary evidence. Firstly, there is a convincing attention to the social fabric of the burgh. Structures on the ground are matched by structures in society, and the identification of religious, educational, and cultural activities with council initiatives and individual efforts conveys a strong sense of place, and captures the character of the burgh of Irvine. The rich local detail - perhaps too microscopic in focus for the outsider - has the inestimable merit of returning history to local residents, since it assists their identification of, and with, places and personalities, and provides a context in which to locate and interpret them. Take the letter 'R' in the excellent index. Its range of entries conveys something of the coverage: Radical Association, Ramblers' Field Club, Ratepayers' Association, Ravenspark schools, reading rooms, various recreations, Regal and Rex cinemas and the Ritz ballroom, restaurants, riots, roads, Rockware Glass, Royal Ordnance Factory, and a host of personal and place names. Secondly,
a secure chronological sense of economic and political developments is given
an outstanding physical dimension through a series of town plans and maps.
It is the spatial dimension alongside the social fabric which captures much of
the uniqueness of urban places and the reality of daily life.

Thirdly, the final chapters provide an insider's view of the tensions inherent
in the modernization process, when historical reference points in the burgh
are torn down and new landmarks constructed. The enduring tensions
between heritage and 'progress' are only implicitly treated in the
establishment of the New Town and its Development Corporation, but this
touches a timeless issue as individuals experience the dislocating process
associated with dismantling the existing urban apparatus and its replacement
with the unknown and unfamiliar. Successively the industrial and commercial
backbone to the Irvine economy has changed from a localised medieval
market town, to Irish and colonial trade, then to coal, chemicals and finally,
following a period of retrenchment in the first half of the twentieth century, to a
mixture of light engineering and consumer-based products from the 1970s
when the ancient burgh was superseded by an enlarged New Town
designation. In a rush, shopping mall, feeder roads, bypass, and industrial
estate have amended and engulfed the historic town. The History of Irvine is
therefore a commendable commission from Cunninghame District Council as
it seeks to establish both its own identify in the melee of restructured local
government, and also to provide a sense of perspective and of historical
continuity for younger generations who know nothing of town councils, burghs
and long run urban processes.

The market for books on individual towns is inevitably local. Authors
accordingly are compromised by the need to satisfy local interest in particular
details while preserving the integrity of the specific urban place within the
context of a wider urban system. The solution to these dual constraints is not
easy; in fact, it is particularly difficult. In The History of Clydebank the
problems of writing urban history at different levels simultaneously have been
addressed mostly successfully, and together with the emphasis on spatial
change adopted in The History of Irvine, useful prototypes have been
established for the next generation of urban histories. But most importantly,
Clydebank District Council and Cunninghame District Council have to take
some of the laurels for their determination to sponsor a high quality
publication fusing text and illustrations, to keep the price down, and to
enhance local pride without endorsing blind allegiance. Such volumes speak
volumes for these Councils' attempt to give history back to their inhabitants.
Done well, boosting an historical interest in the burghs may do more than anything else to revive local pride and identity, and consequently to reverse or withstand the homogenising trends associated with centralised government and large scale organisations. By encouraging a more thorough understanding of the vitality and rich texture of the urban periphery, Cunninghame and Clydebank District Councils have contributed to Scottish traditions of urban consciousness and cultural awareness in which public welfare considerations are not entirely submerged by private material gains. In so doing they have also signalled that at least some of the ideas which underpinned municipal socialism are not yet dead.

Richard Rodger

University of Leicester


This is the first volume in a series describing the records of British business and industry initiated many years ago by the Royal Commission on Historical Manuscripts. Since its inception, much has happened in the world of business archives with several path-breaking guides published by or in association with the Business Archives Council and its sister organization, the Business Archives Council of Scotland. This volume follows the principles of summarising collections established in such publications as Modern British Shipbuilding: A Guide to Historical Records (1980) and Company Archives (1986) which, in turn, owe much to the approach to surveying pioneered by the National Register of Archives (Scotland). The volume is divided into nine sections: wool; cotton; linen, flax and jute; silk; lace; textile finishing; other textile industries; clothing, hosiery and knitwear; and leather. Some of the contents are derivative, drawn from Pat Hudson's admirable, The West Riding Wool Textile Industry: a Catalogue of Business Records from the Sixteenth to the Seventeenth Century (1978), The Ulster Textile Industry: a Catalogue of Business Records in the Public Record Office of Northern Ireland Relating Principally to the Linen Industry in Ulster (1978) and Company Archives (1986). Others of the 1200 entries are new, culled from the lists and notes of deposits received daily by the Commission or the outcome of the
Commission's own surveying activities. The entries, not unexpectedly, contain names familiar not just to British schoolchildren but to those much further afield redolent of the industrial revolution: Sir Richard Arkwright & Co (331), Samuel Crompton (371), and R Greg & Co of Quarry Bank (402). In every section there are entries for household names such as Tootals (486) in cotton; Old Bleach Linen Co in linen (631); Courtaulds (710) in silk; United Turkey Red Co (852) in textile finishing; Christys (918), the hatters, Gieves (948) and Libertys (975) in clothing, hosiery and knitwear; Church & Co (1077), C J Clark (1078), and Freeman Hardy & Willis (1091) in leather. As in all such compilations, there are small and curious entries that capture the readers' imagination; like Herbert & Co (757), gold lacemen and army accoutrement makers and Ede & Ravenscroft Ltd (937), robe makers and wig makers.

It always seems churlish to criticize such guides, which quickly joined other much-thumbed publications on the archivist's bookshelf, but the volume does lack consistency. Company Archives on which it is partly modelled, adopted a structure to its summaries; corporate records came before accounting records, and ledgers were entered before journals, and so on. In the summaries in this volume, there is no such consistency, largely reflecting the haphazard nature of the lists from which they had been compiled. In addition, major groups of textile records found in the in the Scottish Record Office included Court of Session production series (CS96) have been included because a list has been published by the List and Index Society, whereas equivalent groups to be found in the Public Record Office amongst the Master in Chancery's exhibits and exhibits in the Supreme Court (J90) have been excluded. More seriously, buried items in the summaries have not been indexed, so, for example, papers for David Walters & Son, Norris & Co, Keith & Co, Cohens, and H Scott Richmond & Co, held by Warner & Sons Ltd (740), silk and furnishing textile manufacturers of London and Braintree are not included in the index. The only time buried items are indexed would seem to be when they refer to a main entry. This volume also lacks the feature that has become a standard component of other guides - a discursive introduction by an expert setting the contents in a wider historical context, drawing attention to other more general sources used by specialists in the field, and explaining any types of records unique to the industry. The termination date of 1914 seems somewhat arbitrary as much of the material included is of much more recent origin. It is to be hoped that some of these omissions will be corrected in later volumes of what promises to be a most useful series,
encouraging both professional and amateur historians to use often neglected series of records.

M S Moss

University of Glasgow


This collection of quite short but stimulating papers given in the Scottish Historical Studies Seminar at Strathclyde University in 1988-89 is a most welcome addition to recent work on a transitional period in Scottish history - a period during which industrialisation and accelerating urbanisation began fundamentally to change Scottish society. The authors in this volume seek to reassess the extent to which this change was achieved as smoothly and relatively peaceably as traditional interpretations have tended to suggest. Two of the contributors, T M Devine and RH Campbell, show that Scotland, like many continental countries, had a sufficiently resilient and adaptable socio-political framework to avoid the kind of upheaval experienced only in France in the 1790s. But the Scots were far from being passive. Christopher Whatley, concentrating on the decidedly old order which preceded the period of disturbances from 1780 illuminated a decade ago by John Logue, suggests that it is time we jettisoned our generalisations about 'tame' lowlanders. Using very different material, and throwing the gauntlet at a number of established assumptions, Callum Brown argues that religious protest even before the Disruption of 1843 is far too substantial and diversified to fit into some simple pigeonhole of Calvinist fundamentalism, being perhaps comparable to English and Welsh dissent in the significance and sophistication of its political message. On the other hand, John Brims shows how the Scottish Association of the Friends of the People damaged the prospect of reform by embracing continental ideas rather too uncritically - a lesson soon learnt by the demonstratively, orderly, middle-class protesters discussed by Stana Nenadic. By the time of the Scottish Chartist movement, which Tony Clarke examines here through the 1839 Conference of Scottish Chartist Delegates, the context of protest had changed considerably. But it is the great virtue of these papers that they stress both the striking continuities and the complexities of social relationships at a time when rapid economic change could have produced more violence than it did. It is testimony to the
success of the volume that it seems much too short: the papers, with their full end notes, are surely bound to succeed in their express aim of provoking new discussion and more detailed research.

Thomas Munck

University of Glasgow


This volume, which is published in association with the Business Archives Council, is a sensible, well organised and well produced guide to tracing the history of a British business. As such its publication is timely for the growing popularity of business history amongst students, together with the increasing numbers of historians who are taking an interest in business history, have combined to create a demand for this type of publication. Those who are new to business history will save themselves hours of work if they begin their searches by reading this book. Older hands at the mill may be surprised to learn a thing or two. This reviewer certainly did.

The first section of the book contains a guide to finding basic information about a business from directories and registers. It then moves on to a discussion of business archives and questions whether access to archives is always necessary, at least for those whose enquiry is relatively simple. Where access is sought, the reader is given very sound advice about how to do this and what kind of response to expect. Somewhat surprisingly the need to establish the researchers own bona fides is not included in the list.

Part two describes how to locate business records by using record offices, registers and published guides. Part three, by far the longest section of the book, describes how to locate information outside the records of the business. Here Orbell details how to find information about a business from other businesses which supplied it with goods or services. In particular he deals with banks, insurance companies, lawyers, accountants and advertising agencies. Government records are also examined in this regard. Businesses might also be members of trade associations or chambers of commerce or have dealings with trade unions, all of whose records can be used to cast light on a history project. Printed material is another possible source and under this category Orbell includes published histories, trade catalogues, newspapers and house journals. In all of these cases he gives useful advice
about what to look for and what may be found. Finally, he covers personal papers, wills, interviews, photographs and ephemera. The book concludes with a useful bibliography and list of addresses.

Throughout the book Orbell is careful to avoid accusations of being London-centric or even Anglo-centric for there is much here on sources which are Scottish and Irish. However, did we manage without it?

Charles W Munn

The Institute of Bankers in Scotland
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West Indies

DAVID GILLIES,
LARGO, FIFE.

PRICE LIST OF BEST COTTON NETS, &c.
Up to 38½ Rows.

1/ Extra for 35 Rows, and 2/ for 37 Rows.

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COTTON OSSELS.

No. 1 (Red Thread), 200 Ply (Extra heavy), ... 1/2 per hundred.
No. 2 (Blue Thread), 160 Ply (Heavy), ... 1/0 per.
No. 3 (Blue and Red Thread), 72 Ply (Heavy), ... 1/2 per.
No. 4 (White), 60 Ply, ... 1/0 per.

A Penny per hundred less for Ready Money.

COTTON CANVAS.

AMERICAN.—22 inches wide.
No. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 1/2, 1/4, 1/8, 1/16, 1/32, 1/64, 1/128 per yd.

ENGLISH.—24 inches wide.
No. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 1/16, 1/32, 1/64, 1/128, 1/256, 1/512, 1/1024, 1/2048 per yd.

A Penny per yard off these Prices for Ready Money.

November 1876.